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NEGOTIATION OF FORM: ANALYSIS OF FEEDBACK AND STUDENT RESPONSE IN TWO DIFFERENT CONTEXTS

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DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

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1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to observe one of the fundamental aspects of today's Classroom Observation Research: corrective feedback, in other words, teacher's corrective treatment of learners' errors.

Correction is a controversial issue and this is reflected on several aspects related to it. With reference to the terminology used when dealing with this topic, it must be stated that there is a wide range of different terms which must be explained before carrying out any kind of research. We can also find controversy in the different attitudes towards correction, which range from the total disapproval of it, to the opinion that correction is completely necessary for the acquisition of a language. Finally, there is also controversy in the research carried out until now on the topic, as there have been different results, but none of them are totally conclusive. What is more, the topic was abandoned for a period: from the introduction of the audiolingual methods in the 1960s to the late 1980s, when the communicative approach was established.

In our opinion, in the Foreign Language Classroom, correction itself and the way a teacher corrects affects directly the students' learning in terms of input and learners' attitude towards the learning-teaching process. This means that the teacher gives the students a kind of input that has been filtered through correction, so that the student can distinguish what is 'right' from what is 'wrong'. Furthermore, when the teacher corrects, the students are more aware of the learning-teaching process since he/she is obliged to think of his/her errors.

However, not all types of correction fulfil this last idea and correction can also be negative for the learning process. For example, overcorrection and negative attitude on the part of the teacher when correcting can lead to a tense atmosphere in class which does not help learning. These are some of the aspects that are going to be treated in our study, comparing two types of classes, taught by a native teacher and a non-native teacher.

First of all we will comment on the relationship between feedback and cognition, explaining the theoretical accounts of SLA and language learning strategies. Then, we are going to offer a general view of the notion of interaction, the different approaches to Discourse Analysis, and, more specifically to

classroom discourse, and some of the aspects related to it which we find relevant to our study. Next to this we will show the state of the art of error treatment. Then, we will make reference to the most important studies related to this topic. Next, we will deal with some important factors related to the topic such as learner age, aptitude, learning styles, and other affective factors. And finally, once we have stated the theory, we will turn to the empirical part of the thesis.

2. FEEDBACK AND COGNITION: THEORETICAL ACCOUNTS OF SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES.

2.1. Theoretical foundation: Cognitive accounts of second language acquisition

2.1.1. Structural and behaviourist approach

In the 1940s and 1950s, the structural, or descriptive school of linguistics, with its advocates -Leonard Bloomfield, Edward Sapir, Charles Hockett, Charles Fries and others- applied a rigorous application of the scientific principle of observation of human languages. Only the 'publicly observable responses' could be subject to investigation. Freeman Twaddell (1935:57) stated this principle in its most extreme terms: "Whatever our attitude toward mind, spirit, soul, etc., as realities, we must agree that the scientist proceeds as though there were no such things, as though all his information were acquired through processes of his physiological nervous system. Insofar, as he occupies himself with psychical, non-material forces, the scientist is not a scientist. The scientific method is quite simply the convention that mind does not exist…". In psychology, the behaviourist approach focused on the immediately perceptible aspects of linguistic behaviour –the publicly observable responses- and the relationships or associations between those responses and the world around them. One learns to comprehend an utterance by reacting appropriately to it and by being reinforced for that reaction.

One of the best-known attempts to construct a behaviouristic model of linguistic behaviour is Skinner's (1957) classic, *Verbal Behavior*. Skinner was commonly known for his experiments with animal behaviour, but he also gained recognition for his contributions to education through teaching machines and programmed learning. (Skinner, 1968).

Skinner's theory of verbal behaviour was an extension of his general theory of learning by *operant conditioning*. Operant conditioning refers to conditioning in which the organism emits a response or operant (a sentence or utterance), without necessarily observable stimuli; that operant is maintained (learned) by reinforcement (for example a positive verbal or non-verbal response by another person). If a child says "want milk" and the parent gives the child some milk, the operant is reinforced and, over repeated instances, is conditioned. According to Skinner, verbal behaviour, like other behaviour, is controlled by its consequences. When consequences are rewarding, behaviour is maintained and is increased in strength and perhaps frequency. When consequences are punishing, or when there is a lack of reinforcement entirely, the behaviour is weakened and eventually extinguished.

Skinner's theory attracted a number of critics, among them Noam Chomsky (1959), who wrote a highly critical review of *Verbal Behavior.*

Today few linguists and psychologists would agree that Skinner's model of verbal behaviour adequately accounts for the capacity to acquire language, for language development itself, for the abstract nature of language, and for a theory of meaning. A theory based on conditioning and reinforcement cannot explain the fact that every sentence we speak or write is novel, never before uttered. These novel utterances are created by he speaker and processed by the hearer.

2.1.2. The Nativist Approach

The shortcomings of behaviourist views of child language caused researchers to ask more ultimate questions- questions that probed beneath and beyond scientific investigation. One such sets of questions was found in the generative approach to child language known as the *nativist* approach. The term *nativist* is derived from the fundamental assertion that language acquisition is innately determined, that we are born with a built-in device that predisposes us to language acquisition - to a systematic perception of language around us, resulting in the construction of an internalized system of language. Inateness hypotheses gained support from several sides. Lenneberg (1967) proposed that certain modes of perception, categorizing abilities, and other language-related mechanisms are biologically determined. Chomsky (1965) similarly claimed the existence of

innate properties of language to explain the child's mastery of his native language in such a short time despite the highly abstract nature of the rules of language. This innate knowledge is embodied in a *language acquisition device* (LAD). The LAD consisted of four innate linguistic properties:

a) The ability to distinguish speech sounds from other sounds in the environment

b) The ability to organize linguistic events into various classes which can later be refined

c) Knowledge that only a certain kind of linguistic system is possible and that other kinds are not

d) The ability to engage in constant evaluation of the developing linguistic system so as to construct the simplest possible system out of the linguistic data that are encountered.

Chomsky's followers carried several studies on the systematic nature of child language acquisition. They constructed hypothetical grammars of child language, although such grammars were still solidly based on empirical data. These grammars were largely formal representations of the deep structure - the abstract rules underlying surface output.

As a result of a change of orientation from behaviorist theories to cognitive theories of learning, a few researchers turned their attention to cognitive psychology, a field of investigation that also focused on the differences in mental processes carried out by second language learners while, at the same time, tried to determine the effects of strategy training with positive findings. One of the most important results of these investigations was the formulation of an information-processing theoretical model for learning strategies that has been the point of departure of many classifications of learning strategies in second language acquisition research. As theoretical background, some of the most important theoretical assumptions regarding second language acquisition should be addressed as well as the learning strategies that students use to learn a second or foreign language and the factors that affect success in language learning.

Theories that explain second language acquisition have been classified as cognitive and linguistic, although both perspectives are not mutually exclusive and some argue that a comprehensive theory that adequately addresses L2 acquisition must necessarily involve both perspectives. However, both views are frequently referred to separately since they reflect clear epistemological differences. According to Ellis (1994), cognitive theories of L2 acquisition do not make any distinction between linguistic knowledge and other kinds of knowledge and the strategies responsible for its development are general in nature and are related to other types of learning. Linguistic theories of L2 acquisition, however, view linguistic knowledge as unique and different from other knowledge systems and acquisition is the result of processes that are exclusively linguistic in nature.

Different theoretical positions have agreed on the basic distinction between 'input', 'intake', 'implicit' and 'explicit knowledge' and 'output' and on a general framework that states that, as a result of being in contact with the target language and the learner's existing L2 knowledge, the learner notices certain features; but not all the input perceived contributes to the understanding of the message nor all comprehended input becomes intake. Intake becomes implicit knowledge when it becomes integrated, whereas only when intake has been processed and stored, can it become explicit knowledge. Explicit knowledge can contribute to output and to the processes that add to intake (Ellis 1994). However, such theoretical viewpoints differ in the relationships between input and implicit knowledge, explicit and implicit knowledge, implicit and explicit knowledge and output and how they account for the individual learner strategies. Some of the most important theoretical positions and their representatives are: *Interlanguage Theory* by Selinker (1972); Krashen's (1982) *Monitor Theory*; *Variability Theories*, such as those of Tarone (1983) and Ellis (1985); the *Competition Model* and *Operating Principle* by Bates and MacWhinney (1987) and Andersen (1990), respectively; the *Multidimensional Model* by Meisel, Clashsen, and Pienemann (1981); and *Skill-Learning Models* by Anderson (1976, 1983, 1985) and McLaughlin (1990). The assets of the most common L2 theories are explained below in some detail but paying special attention to Anderson's (1983, 1985) cognitive theory because it has received a great deal of attention from both L2 theorists and researchers.

2.1.3. Interlanguage Theory

Interlanguage Theory is a good starting point for explaining the process of L2 acquisition because later theories, such as Tarone (1983) and Ellis's (1985) *Variability Model* are developments of it. 'Interlanguage', a term coined by Selinker (1972), refers to the internal system that the learner constructs when learning a target language and to the subsequent systems that s/he constructs over time and that characterize his/her progress. Five principal cognitive processes, as identified by Selinker (1972), are responsible for L2 acquisition:

1. Language transfer from L1 to L2.

2. Transfer of training which refers to the transfer of some elements due to the way they were taught.

3. Strategies of second language learning, that is, the learner's approach to the material to be learned.

4. Strategies of second language communication, that is, the learner's approach to communicating with native speakers.

5. Overgeneralization of target language material that refers to all those elements in the learner's interlanguage that are a result of overgeneralization.

The terms identified by Selinker (1972) as 'transfer' and 'overgeneralization' have been the point of departure for later definitions of learning strategies while cognitive theories of interlanguage have explained the role of learning strategies in helping learners construct mental grammars of the L2; that is, learners construct 'rules' and draw on them for language production. Hypotheses are then tested out and kept if they fulfill the learners' expectations and rejected if learners fail to communicate. Mental grammars are dynamic, subject to rapid change and new grammars contain elements of previously

constructed grammars and new elements of recently acquired grammars. L2 acquisition is therefore characterized by complexification because each new grammar is more complex than the ones preceding it. Finally, *Interlanguage Theory* explains the fact that most learners do not achieve native language proficiency due to fossilization. It seems that there are fossilized terms in the learner's interlanguage that never really disappear but they reappear, especially when the learner is under pressure (Ellis 1994).

2.1.4. Accculturation Model

Freeman and Freeman (2001) describe two important theories of second language acquisition: Schumann's Acculturation Model and Krashen's Monitor Model.

Schumann (1978), from a theoretical sociolinguistic research, claims that acquiring a new language is part of a more general process of acculturation. He focuses on sociocultural factors that act on the language learner and bases his theory on studies of individuals acquiring a second language with no reference to any internal cognitive processing. As Brown (1980) points out Schumann's theory is based on the fact that the greater the social distance between two cultures, the greater the difficulty the learner will have in learning the second language, and conversely, the smaller the social distance, the better the learning situation will be.

Schumann (1978) proposes eight factors that influence social distance:

1. Social dominance.

2. Integration pattern.

3. Enclosure.

4. Cohesiveness.

5. Size.

6. Cultural congruence.

7. Attitude.

8. Intended length of residence.

This author introduces a second factor that can be used to predict the degree of language acquisition: psychological distance. He identifies three main

characteristics that determine the psychological distance a second learner has from the target language and culture:

  1. Motivation.

  2. Attitude.

  3. Culture shock.

Schumann (1978) argues that for a learner to acquire full proficiency in a second language, he or she must be acculturated, since SLA is just one aspect of the larger process of acculturation. He claims that if a learner is socially distant from members of the target-language group, he or she might develop only limited grammatical and communicative competence in the target language. He makes a distinction between acculturation and assimilation. When a person takes on a new culture without giving up his or her primary culture, we find acculturation and this can result into bilingualism and biculturalism. Assimilation, however, involves losing one's primary culture and often results in the loss of the native language and culture.

Schumann's (1978) theory has been criticized by Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) in the sense that it is considered as a theory which ignores linguistic and cognitive variables.

2.1.5. Monitor Theory

The second important theory of SLA described by Freeman and Freeman (2001) is Krashen's monitor model. According to them, this theory is based on insights from psycholinguistics and neurolinguistics and draws on theoretical as well as applied research. This theory is based on internal psychological factors, as opposed to Schumann's model, which focuses on external social and cultural factors. Therefore, we can consider it as a nativist theory.

These authors state that insights from the theoretical linguistic research of Noam Chomsky help form the basis for Krashen's theory. Chomsky has developed a linguistic theory that has been both widely accepted, especially in the United States, and criticized, in particular due to the fact that it ignores the social aspects of language development. Chomsky developed a theory of linguistics that

included a limited number of deep structures and a set of transformations. He claims that speakers of a language learn the rules for producing the basic structures first, and then they learn how to generate the transformed sentences. For him, children can learn the rules of alanguage with limited evidence and little correction and this leads him to think that they are innately predisposed to do so. He introduces the concept of universal grammar: all human languages have certain things in common. According to him, humans are born with an innate understanding of those aspects of language that are common to all languages and they only have to learn the specific details of the language they are exposed to. He describes then the concept of the Language Acquisition Device: a kind of biological development that allows humans to use the limited evidence they get from the language they hear to form rules. Chomsky's claims apply to children acquiring a first language. Krashen's theory of SLA holds that concepts such as universal grammar and the LAD apply equally well to the acquisition of a second language. Krashen's (1982) Monitor Model consists of five interrelated hypothesis:

a. The Acquisition –Learning Hypothesis: he makes a distinction between acquiring and learning a new language. Acquisition occurs naturally and subconsciously as we receive messages we understand. Learning, on the other hand, is a conscious process in which we focus on various aspects of the language itself and it generally occurs in classrooms. Krashen argues that both children and adults have the capacity to acquire language through the LAD. He claims that acquisition accounts for almost all of our language development, whereas learning plays a minimal role.

b. The Natural Order Hypothesis: language is acquired in a natural order. He claims that some aspects are picked up earlier than others. This refers to acquiring and not to learning.

c. The Monitor Hypothesis: it helps to explain the different functions that acquisition and learning play. Acquisition results in the vocabulary and syntax we can draw on to produce utterances in a new language and learning provides us with rules we can use to monitor our output as we speak or write. Following this theory, Krashen (1985) argues that while error correction in learning situations allows students to modify their knowledge of learned rules, it has no effect on their acquired language.

Since the monitor can only be accessed under certain conditions, error correction, for him, has limited value.

d. The Input Hypothesis. This is the key to Krashen's theory. He asserts that people can only acquire a language when they receive oral or written messages they understand and these messages provide what he calls comprehensible input. In order for acquisition to take place, learners must receive input that is slightly beyond their current ability level. If the input contains no structures beyond current competence or it is too far beyond it, no acquisition takes place. For him, comprehensible input is the source of all acquired language: only input, and not output, leads to acquisition.

e. The Affective Filter Hypothesis: it explains the role of affective factors in the process of language acquisition. Affective factors such as anxiety or boredom may serve as a filter that blocks input and does not allow for acquisition. When the filter is up, input can not reach those parts of the brain (LAD) where the acquisition occurs. This hypothesis applies only to language that is coming in, input, and not to a person's output.

Freeman and Freeman (2001) claim that Krashen's theory of SLA has had a strong influence on teaching methods.

Finally these two authors introduce a social theory of SLA that considers the social aspects that were left out by Krashen's .They offer Gee's (1992) definition of acquisition that expands on Krashen's by including a social component:

"Acquisition is a process of acquiring something subconsciously by exposure to models, a process of trial and error, and practice within social groups, without formal teaching. It happens in natural settings that are meaningful and functional in the sense that acquirers know that they need to acquire the thing they are exposed to in order to function and that they in fact want to so function."

According to Bialystok's (1978) early L2 theory, implicit knowledge is the result of exposure to language use and 'formal practicing' facilitates it, which involves exposure to language through communication. Explicit knowledge is acquired when learners focus on the language code and is also facilitated by 'formal practicing,' which implies conscious study of the L2 or automatation of

already learned material. Although Bialystok (1978) made the same distinction between explicit and implicit knowledge, her early theory of L2 learning allowed for an interface between both types of knowledge. Explicit knowledge becomes implicit through formal practicing and inferencing allows explicit knowledge to be derived from implicit. The early dichotomy explicit/implicit knowledge was reformulated in later versions of Bialystok's (1978) work in the form of more or less controlled knowledge and more or less analyzed knowledge. Analysis can be equated to an explicit representation of knowledge but, according to Bialystok (1978), analyzed knowledge does not necessarily imply consciousness. Bialystok (1991) distinguished three phases – Implicit, Explicit 1 and Explicit 2 – in children's language development and, although not clear how such model can be applied to L2 acquisition, it has been extended to explain how a second language is acquired. According to Bialystok's (1991) model, language acquisition starts with unanalyzed knowledge in the first phase called 'Implicit,' when learners have not organized their knowledge and is not represented independently, but it is merely available for communication. In the second phase called 'Explicit 1,' learners examine, organize and analyze their linguistic performances in order to construct explicit and independent representations of linguistic knowledge. When the linguistic knowledge is available for conscious consideration, learners have entered the 'Explicit 2' phase.

Some criticism of the Monitor Theory was expressed by McLaughlin (1978) concerning the learning/acquisition distinction. McLaughlin (1978) questioned the use of subjective methods such as feel judgments to support such a distinction, which casts a doubt on the validity of the methodology. A number of studies have also proven that learning can sometimes turn into acquisition and, therefore, Krashen's (1982) non-interface position cannot be accepted. Researchers such as Ellis (1994) have increasingly suggested that explicit knowledge is a facilitator of implicit knowledge by enabling learners to focus on those features of the input that they have yet to learn and to compare them with what they produce. Further, the Input and Affective Filter Hypotheses are untestable. The former can not be proven given the state of knowledge while the latter raises important questions, such as whether or to avoid acquisition and, if so, to what degree.

2.1.6. Variability Theories

Unsatisfied with the explanation that the *Interlanguage Theory* offered in explaining L2 learners' variability, some investigators, such as Tarone (1983) and Ellis (1985) sought to explain the apparent contradiction between variation and systematicity in learner language with alternative theories.

Tarone (1982) suggests that L2 learners possess a continuum of styles ranging from the superordinate (or careful) to the vernacular. The former reflects the kind of language found in formal situations which require careful language use, while the latter is evident in informal situations that permit more spontaneous language use. Each style has its own linguistic norms. Learners' style shifts between the two styles in accordance with the demands of the situation. Tarone argues that both the superordinate and vernacular forms constitute part of the learners' overall language competence. It follows that in order to investigate this, it is necessary to collect data that reflect different sets of norms.

To study style shifting, Tarone (1983) adapts Labov's methodology. She accepts that the psycholinguistic mechanism responsible for style shifting is attention to speech and suggests that different styles can be elicited using tasks which require different degrees of attention to speech. The following figure demonstrates the relationships between task, attention and style. Thus to examine learners' vernacular style it is necessary to collect "unattended speech data", while to investigate their careful style, data from grammaticality judgment tasks can be used. Various other kinds of task elicit intermediate styles.

Ellis' variable competence model.

This model was proposed by Ellis (1984) extending the work of Tarone (1983), Widdowson (1984) and Bialystok ((1982). The model is based on two distinctions referred to the process and to the product of language use. The main claim of this framework is that the way a language is learnt is a reflection of the way it is used.

Planned discourse	**Unplanned discourse**
Conscious thought	Lacks forethought and preparation
Opportunity to work out content and expression	Spontaneous communication

The product of language use implies a continuum of discourse types ranging from entirely unplanned to entirely planned. Planned discourse is a discourse that is thought out prior to expression. It requires conscious thought and the opportunity to work out content and expression, e.g. a prepared lecture or careful writing. Unplanned discourse is discourse that lacks forethought and preparation and is associated with spontaneous communication, e.g. everyday conversation or brainstorming in writing.

Ellis's (1985) theory is similar to Bialystok's (1978) in the distinction between analyzed/unanalyzed and automatic/non-automatic. Such distinctions are intersecting continua in which any L2 item or rule is placed. Ellis's (1985) theory is also similar to Tarone's (1983) in that learners activate items and rules that are available in planned discourse for use in unplanned discourse.

2.1.7. The Competition Model and the Operating Principle

The Competition Model, like any functionalist theory, is concerned with how linguistic knowledge is represented in the learner's mind and how such knowledge is represented in discourse. The model takes its name from the 'competition' that arises between different cues to signal a particular function. That is, the different forms in a sentence compete, for example, for the role of agent of the verb. Inanimate words rapidly lose out any chances, while animate nouns placed in first position in the sentence are good candidates for agents. However, position in the sentence ultimately is overridden by two other cues: nominative case and agreement with the verb, as in the example given by Ellis (1994: 375), "the lecturer we like a lot," where "we" is the agent of the verb "like," because it is nominative and agrees in number with the verb. The ultimate role of the learner is, according to Ellis (1994: 375), to discover the forms necessary to realize specific functions and the weight that each form has in carrying out functions. Ellis (1994) cites the advantages and drawbacks of *the*

Competition Model, which any L2 acquisition theory should consider. On the one hand, the theory considers the role of L1 in L2 acquisition, the effect of input and how native-like ability is acquired. However, the theory does not address aspects, such as the kind of knowledge learners use in sentence interpretation, the cognitive mechanisms involved in using L2 in production or in obtaining intake from input. Furthermore, the model over-relies on artificial tasks for interpretation and focuses on sentence interpretation while utterance processing, which involves pragmatics, is largely ignored.

The Competition Model has been applied to studies of L2 acquisition, whose results were encouraging for the theory. Speakers of different languages were asked to identify the function of different cues in L1 and L2 sentences. The results demonstrate that L2 learners are influenced by their L1 processing strategies, which they transfer when they interpret L2 sentences and that some interpretation strategies are more universal than others. In fact, the more universal a strategy is the more likely it is to be transferred. Also, the processing strategies of L2 learners are placed somewhere on the continuum between the strategies used by the native speakers of both languages, which is demonstrated when advanced learners were found to be closer to native speakers in the identification of cues.

Operating Principles seek to explain why certain forms appear in L1 and L2 production before others. Andersen (1990) plays a central role in investigating the operating principles involved in L2 acquisition. His earlier work focused on the learners' structuring and restructuring of their interlanguage systems as a result of being in contact with more proficient speakers of the language. Such work resulted in the *Nativization Model*, according to which L2 acquisition consists of two processes; nativization and denativization. In the former process, learners may conform their input to an 'internal norm' by making hypotheses of the L2 system based on their own knowledge of the L1 system and on the knowledge of the world. In denativization, learners follow an 'external norm' since they change their interlanguage systems to make them conform to the norms of the input. Based on the *Nativization Model*, Andersen (1990) later

distinguished seven operating principles in L2 acquisition, although they have often been criticized because they are difficult to test and are not mutually exclusive. Ellis (1994) summarizes them as follows:

a.   *The one-to-one principle*: In an interlanguage (IL) system, one meaning should be expressed with one surface form. Ex: Clitic pronouns are often placed before the verb in Spanish and French but in IL they are often found after the verb.

b. *The multi-functionality principle*: (a) If there is evidence that in the input more than one form marks the meaning conveyed by one form in the interlanguage, the additional meaning of the new form should be discovered. (b) If an interlanguage form only has one of the meanings of a form in the input, the additional meaning should be found. Ex: Initially Spanish learners of English learn 'no' as a single negator. In later stages they learn 'not' and 'don't.'

c.   *Formal determinism principle*: Pay close attention to form-meaning relationships that are clearly encoded in the input than to other form-function relationships. Ex: L2 learners pay attention to negators other than 'no' in the input since they are clearly modelled in the input and their meanings are transparent.

d.   *Distributional bias principle*: If both X and Y occur in the same environments A and B, but a bias makes it appear X in the environment A and Y in the environment B, when a learner acquires X and Y, s/he should restrict X to the environment A and Y to the environment B. Ex: In Spanish, punctual verbs tend to occur in the preterit form while state verbs in the imperfect. L2 learners make this distinction by the use of the two tenses.

e.   *Relevance principle*: If two or more functors apply to a content word, the most relevant meaning of the functor should be placed

closer to the content word and the least relevant meaning the farthest. Ex: In the Spanish verb system, aspect is the most relevant meaning of the meaning and it is therefore the closest to the verb, followed by tense and agreement. This is also the order L2 learners acquire such functors.

f. *Transfer to somewhere principle*: A grammatical form or structure will occur in before the verb as they do in French because such model is not available in the input.

g. *Relexification principle*: If the learner does not know the structural form of the L2, s/he can use the L1 pattern with L2 lexical items. Ex: Japanese learners of English use English lexis in SOV frames, but such frames will eventually disappear since there is no evidence of the SOV order in English.

2.1.8. Multidimensional Model

The Multidimensional Model works further on operational principles by relating the different cognitive processes to stages in the learners' development, explaining how each stage supersedes another. The theory also provides an explanation for inter-learner variation and has predictive power. Originally intended to explain German word order rules, the *Multidimensional Model* produced a theory of second language acquisition that explained new word order sequences and the developmental stages of other languages such as English and Japanese. The theory is based on five main tenets:

(1) Learners go through developmental stages in the acquisition of grammatical structures (*developmental dimension*). Predictions can be made regarding other grammatical structures that will be acquired.

(2) Learners display individual variation.

(3) Developmental stages are not but the result of learners' overcoming processing limitations and passing to the next stage.

(4) Individual variation reflects the individual orientations towards the learning task (*variational dimension*).

(5) In order to go from one stage to the next in acquiring developmental features, learners should master the prerequisite processing operations involved in the previous stage.

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1999) summarize the most important improvements of the *Multidimensional Model* on the work done on the period:

(1) While second language acquisition research of the 1960s and 1970s looked exclusively at products to explain language acquisition, the *Multidimensional Model* studies the process, which helps to explain how and why certain variables predict others.

(2) The theory ties contextual factors, social and psychological, to internal psycholinguistic processes such as simplification or processing.

(3) The stages of the theory are empirically testable.

(4) The developmental stages are independent of the data.

Criticism

There are some problems associated with the theory, as pointed out by Larsen-Freeman and Long (1999). One, the model does not account for the learners' overcoming processing constraints and going to the next stage. Two, there is not a clear method for identifying formulaic chunks of language nor is there a method for establishing which features are developmental and which are

variational and, therefore, not subject to constraints. Without such models, any feature that fails to conform to the framework of the model will be classified as variational and any utterance as formula. Three, it is not clear what constitutes a violation of the processing constraints in the developmental features. However, the theory is most limited because of a number of aspects: the theory does not address aspects such as how learners comprehend grammatical structures, how comprehension and production interact, how learners obtain intake from input and how this is used in constructing grammars.

2.1.9. Cognitive Models

While the theories being considered so far draw on some constructs from cognitive psychology that are then elaborated to account for language learning as opposed to some other kinds of learning, skill-learning theories explain L2 acquisition in terms of general skill learning. The three theories to be considered at this point are: Ausubel's (1968) *Meaningful Learning Theory*, Anderson's (1983, 1985) *Cognitive Theory* and McLaughlin's (1990) *Information Processing Model*.

Ausubel (1968) contends that learning takes place in the human organism through a meaningful process of relating new events or items to already existing cognitive concepts or propositions. Meaning is not an implicit response, but "a clearly articulated and precisely differentiated conscious experience that emerges when potentially meaningful signs, symbols, concepts or propositions are related to and incorporated within an individual's cognitive structure on a non-arbitrary and substantive basis" (Anderson and Ausubel, 1965: 8).

The cognitive theory of learning as put forth by Ausubel (1968) is best understood by contrasting rote and meaningful learning. Ausbel described rote learning as the process of acquiring material "as discrete and relatively isolated entities that are relatable to cognitive structure only in an arbitrary and verbatim fuction, not permitting the establishment of relationships" (1968:108). That is, rote learning involves the mental storage of items having little or no association

with existing cognitive structure. For example, we can remember an unfamiliar phone number long enough to dial the number, after which point it is usually extinguished by interfering factors.

Meaningful learning, on the other hand, may be described as a process of relating and anchoring new material to relevant established entities in cognitive structure. As new material enters the cognitive field, it interacts with, and is appropriately subsumed under, a more inclusive conceptual system. The very fact that material is subsumable, that is relatable to stable elements in cognitive structure, accounts for its meaningfulness. If we think of cognitive structure as building blocks, then rote learning is the process of acquiring isolated blocks with no particular function in the building of a structure, and therefore with no relationship to other blocks. Meaningful learning is the process whereby blocks become an integral part of already established categories or systematic clusters of blocks.

Any learning situation can be meaningful if 1) learners have a meaningful learning set –that is, a disposition to relate the new learning task to what they already know; and 2) the learning task itself is potentially meaningful to the learners, to their structure of knowledge.

Ausubel (1968) provides a plausible explanation for the universal nature of forgetting. Since rotely learned materials do not interact with cognitive structure in a substantive function, they are learned in conformity with the laws of association, and their retention is influenced primarily by the interfering effects of similar rote materials, learned immediately before or after the learning task (commonly referred to as proactive and retroactive inhibition). In the case of meaningfully learned material, retention is influenced primarily by the properties of "relevant and cumulatively established ideational systems in cognitive structure with which the learning task interacts" (Ausbel, 1968:108). Compared to this kind of extended interaction, concurrent interfering effects have relatively little influence on meaningful learning and retention is highly efficient

We cannot say, of course, that meaningfully learned material is never forgotten. However, in the case of such learning, forgetting takes place in a much more intentional and purposeful manner because it is a continuation of the very process of subsumption by which one learns; forgetting is really a second or obliterative stage of subsumption, characterized as "memorial reduction to the least common denominator" (Ausubel, 1963:218). Because it is more economical and less burdensome to retain a single inclusive concept than to remember a large number of more specific items, the importance of a specific item tends to be incorporated into the generalized meaning of the larger item. In this obliterative stage of subsumption the specific items become progressively less identifiable as entities in their own right until they are finally no longer available and are said to be forgotten. It is this second stage of subsumption that operates through what Brown (1972) has called 'cognitive pruning' procedures. Pruning is the elimination of unnecessary clutter and a clearing of the way for more material to enter the cognitive field, in the same way that pruning a tree ultimately allows greater and fuller growth.

Brown (1993) explains that an example of pruning can be found in a child's learning of the concept of 'hot'. A small child's first exposure to heat may be either direct contact with or verbally mediated exposure to hot coffee, a pan of boiling water, a stove, an iron. That first exposure may be readily recalled for some time, as the child maintains a meaningful association between a parent's hot coffee and hurting. After a number of exposures to things that are very hot, children begin to form a concept of hotness by clustering their experiences together and forming a generalization. In so doing, the bits and pieces of experience that actually built the concept are slowly forgotten, or pruned, in favour of the general concept, which, in the years that follow, enable children to extrapolate to future experiences and to avoid burning fingers on hot objects.

According to Brown (1993), an important aspect of the pruning stage of learning is that subsumptive forgetting, or pruning is not haphazard or chance – it is systematic. Thus, by promoting pruning procedures, we have a potential

learning situation that will produce retention beyond that normally expected under more traditional theories of forgetting.

Ausubel's theory has important implications for second language learning and teaching. Too much rote activity, at the expense of meaningful communication in language classes, could stifle the learning process.

Subsumption theory provides a strong theoretical basis for the rejection of conditioning models of practice and repetition in language teaching. In a meaningful process like second language learning, mindless repetition, imitation and other rote practices in the language classroom have no place. Rote-learning can be effective in a short-term basis, but for any long-term retention it fails because of the tremendous buildup of interference. In those cases in which efficient long-term retention is attained in rote-learning situations like those often found in the audiolingual method, it would appear that by sheer dogged determination the learner has somehow subsumed the material meaningfully in spite of the method.

Brown (1993) also points out that the thought that forgetting is systematic has important implications for language teaching and learning. In the early stages of language learning, certain techniques (definitions, paradigms, illustrations or rules) are often used to facilitate subsumption In the process of making language automatic, these techniques serve only as interim entities, meaningful at a low level of subsumption, and then they are systematically pruned out at later stages of language learning.

Anderson's (1983, 1985) theory is a cognitively-based theory for second language acquisition that some have recognized as a theory that can adequately address aspects in all four areas of language - listening, speaking, reading, and writing – and that can explain how language acquisition takes place from the earliest stages to later ones. In the 80s, linguists such as Wong Fillmore and Swain (1984) and Spolsky (1985) viewed language and linguistic processes as interacting with cognition but, however, kept apart as two separate entities learned

independently. These theories do not deal with learning strategies but they provide a point of departure for future theory developments in second language acquisition (O'Malley and Chamot 1990: 17).

The cognitive approach changed the way the learning activity was being understood, from a passive process as developed by the behaviorist theory to an active one, according to the cognitive viewpoint. Instead of passively receiving the information from the teacher, the learner is now actively engaged in the process of learning through learning activities (Weinstein and Mayer 1986). From cognitive psychology, the theory of information processing and the role of cognitive processes in learning are an important reference in developing a theory for second language acquisition; however, the most important advance towards a cognitively-based theory was O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) formulation of second language acquisition as a complex cognitive skill based on Anderson's (1983, 1985) information processing theory of cognition and memory.

The role of learning strategies can be understood taking into account the information processing framework for learning that distinguishes two distinct ways for information storage and four stages for the acquisition of information. The information is stored in memory in the *short-term memory* which holds small amounts of information for a brief period of time or in the *long-term memory* that stores large amounts of information for longer periods. The four-stage encoding process consists of *selection*, *acquisition*, *construction*, and *integration* that determine how much is learned, what is learned and how it is organized (Weinstein and Mayer 1986). Selection entails selecting information on the part of the learner and transferring it into working memory or 'active consciousness'. Acquisition is a process through which the learner transfers information from working memory to long-term memory for storage. At the construction stage, the learner connects ideas from the information contained in the long-term memory, whereas at the integration stage, the learner searches for prior knowledge in the long-term memory and transfers it to working memory.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) relied on Anderson's (1983, 1985) cognitive theory, augmented with concepts from other cognitive theorists, for the description of second language acquisition as a complex cognitive skill. Within the framework of Anderson's (1983, 1985) cognitive theory, learning strategies can be explained as complex cognitive skills: "strategies can be represented the same way as any other complex skill, and described as a set of productions that are compiled and fine-tuned until they become procedural knowledge" (O'Malley and Chamot 1990: 42-3). Anderson (1983, 1985) distinguished between *declarative knowledge* or 'static' information in memory and *procedural knowledge* or 'dynamic' information in memory. Declarative knowledge includes what one knows *about*, knowledge that needs not to be verbal although it is usually expressed verbally. It is maintained in long-term memory and it can take the form of both temporal strings, such as the order of events, and of images, such as memory of how a room is arranged. Language, however, is stored in memory through propositional representations that form propositional networks with a basic unit 'node' or 'idea' connected to arguments and relations through 'links' or 'associations'. The important point here is that, based on the activation of additional concepts by evoking a single concept, the listener is able to make associations between elements linked hierarchically to the initial concept. For larger units of meaning than those required for propositional networks, schemas are used and they facilitate making inferences about concepts.

Procedural knowledge is, according to Anderson (1983, 1985), what one knows *how to do* and includes the ability to understand and generate language. It is contained in production systems that contain a 'condition' (IF) and an 'action' (THEN). Consider, for example, the following production system for the past form of a regular verb:

IF the rule is to generate the past of a regular verb, THEN generate a verb + -ed

Condition-action pairs such as this are initially represented in declarative form until they are ultimately executed automatically. Anderson (1983) believed

that all complex cognitive skills can be represented in memory as production systems in a common cognitive system in human memory for all high level mental processes. Anderson (1983, 1985) next formulated three stages to explain how skill learning takes place: *cognitive stage*, *associative stage* and *autonomous stage*. At the cognitive stage, learners acquire knowledge consciously, knowledge that is typically declarative and can be expressed verbally. This stage requires the attention of the learner and, therefore, imposes important demands on short-term memory. During the associative stage, declarative knowledge is turned into procedural knowledge. Learners eliminate the errors in the declarative representation and the connections between the various elements of the skill are strengthened. Finally, at the autonomous stage, skill performance is fine-tuned and becomes automatic. The three-stage theory assumes that learning the rules of a complex skill necessarily leads to automatic skill performance. Two other processes are involved in skill acquisition: *proceduralization* and *composition*. In the proceduralization process, the learner converts propositional representations into production systems while in composition; the learner combines automatic productions into a single production, which helps to overcome the limitations of the short-term memory (O'Malley and Chamot 1990: 26-7).

In the context of cognitive theory, *language comprehension* and *production* are viewed as active processes learners engage in for both learning activities, the difference being that language comprehension implies construction of meaning while language production implies both construction and expression. Anderson (1983, 1985) explains language comprehension as the succession of processes that aid the learner in detecting or inferring meanings and in relating information to the information already stored in memory. Language production is also viewed as an active process that involves meaning construction and the expression of such meaning in speaking and writing. The learner generates language by setting goals and searching memory for information and then by producing meaningful sentences in audible or in written form.

Although O'Malley and Chamot (1990) recognize the importance of Anderson's (1983, 1985) three-stage process – cognitive, associative and

autonomous stages – and production system in explaining skill acquisition, particularly in the context of applying learning strategies at the different stages of skill learning, they also point out that the theory has some limitations: the theory is rule-bound, the use of a single process to explain all forms of learning complex cognitive skills and the possibility that the theory leads to inefficient language instruction. That Anderson (1983, 1985) relies heavily on rules to explain language learning is evident in his belief that declarative knowledge can become automatic through practice. However, O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 28) argue that not only are all rules of a language unknown by learners but also not all the rules that individuals use have been learned in the classroom but may be the result of individuals' experiences and, therefore, "represent an ad hoc usage rule" (1990: 28). Furthermore, the authors claim that all the language learning does not obviously take place in classroom situations nor all language lessons focus on grammar. Despite such criticisms, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) believed that Anderson's (1983, 1985) theory of acquiring complex cognitive skills was flexible enough to explain the learner's acquisition of both formal and informal rules of language. This is demonstrated, according to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), in the learner's production system. The individual generates his/her own rules for language formation in formal and informal environments and s/he then uses such rules for language comprehension and production.

Anderson's (1983, 1985) claim that a single process - proceduralization - suffices to explain all forms of learning complex cognitive skills is agreed on by some theorists and questioned by others, who even believe that additional processes are necessary to explain the complexity of acquiring a complex cognitive skill. Finally, the limitations for instruction that Anderson's (1983, 1985) theory has are obvious in terms of time demands and frustration, because the learner should check the rules that are in form of declarative knowledge before s/he performs the following step. Furthermore, as pointed out by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), not all the rules underlying a complex cognitive skill have been identified nor are they easily expressed with words.

2.1.10. McLaughlin's *Information Processing Model*

Two theoretical tenets are central in McLaughlin's (1990) *Information Processing Model*: (1) the idea of processing limitation and (2) the need for restructuring. Learners are not capable of attending to all the information available in the input both for the nature of the task and the limitations of their own information-processing ability. Learners are able to focus on a part of the input while the rest remains unattended or attended to peripherally. The burden on the information-processing ability can be reduced by *routinization*, which results in quantitative changes in interlanguage when an increasing number of information chunks are available for automatic processing. Qualitative changes in interlanguage take place through *restructuring*. Such changes involve a shift from exemplar-based to rule-based representation of knowledge in the learner's mind, which is equated with the conversion of explicit knowledge into implicit knowledge. Ellis (1994), however, points out that McLaughlin's (1990) restructuring needs a third dimension because the abovementioned equation is not that clear and it is better treated as a third dimension: as the way in which implicit knowledge changes qualitatively over time. Ellis (1994) further indicates some drawbacks of McLaughlin's (1990) *Information-Processing Theory*: (1) McLaughlin (1990) mentions 'practice' but he never defines it; (2) the theory does not account for the reason why some rules and items are learned before others; (3) McLaughlin's (1990) notion of restructuring does not explain which linguistic features are restructured when nor does it give information regarding the causes that lead learners to restructure.

2.2. Language learning strategies: Definition and characteristics

2.2.1. Definition

Investigation on second language learning strategies is a relatively new field of research that has drawn most of its conclusions from research on learning strategies in first language tasks. Various classifications of learning strategies in

second language research that could not be related to other studies made researchers draw their attention to the identifications, classifications and training procedures of learning strategies in first language learning research. A bigger problem seemed to stem from the inability to define 'learning strategy' and the considerable confusion in distinguishing between learning, teaching and communication strategies, concepts that are frequently intermingled in discussions of language learning. The greatest problem was however the lack of a theory to explain learning strategies and to guide studies in second language acquisition, one that could explain how the individual learns structures and functions in learning a second language.

Although the terminology has not been uniform, 'learning strategies' (Weinstein and Mayer 1986, O'Malley and Chamot 1990), 'learner strategies' (Wenden and Rubin 1987, Wenden 1987) and 'language learning strategies' (Mayer 1988, Oxford 1990, Vann and Abraham 1990, Pickard 1996) were first defined taking into account cognitive psychology and its emphasis on learning as an information processing process. Mayer (1988: 11) defined 'learning strategies' as "behaviors of a learner that are intended to influence how the learner processes information", while later definitions focused on processes and outcomes, such as Oxford (1990: 8), who defined the term as follows:

operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information … specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations.

However, from the outset Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) made a distinction with regard to the definition of learning strategies. Rubin (1975) defined 'learning strategies' as the specific techniques or devices that learners use to acquire knowledge. Stern (1975), however, referred to learning strategies as some more general higher order approaches to learning which govern the choice of more specific techniques, a position also taken by Naiman et al (1978). Although the distinction continued to exist, Rubin's (1975) stance has been the dominant in the

field of second language acquisition and the one that has been used by researchers throughout. Wenden (1987: 7) contributed to the definition of learning strategies by expanding the concept to include concepts, such as 'strategic knowledge' that she referred to as "what learners know about the strategy they use," revealed in interviews, questionnaires and written diaries and the personal factors that facilitate language learning and that influence the learner's choice of strategies. Among them, Wenden (1987) mentioned the general principles for learning a second language successfully, the easy and difficult points of learning a second language or how well or poorly the learner thinks s/he uses the new language.

2.2.2. Characteristics

The following characteristics are commonly agreed on for learning strategies:

(1)　　Learning strategies are *specific actions or techniques* taken by the learner (Wenden 1987).

(2)　　Some of the actions are *observable* (i.e. asking a question) and some are *non-observable* (i.e. mental processes) (Wenden 1987, Oxford 1990).

(3)　　They are *problem-oriented* (Wenden 1987, Oxford 1990).

(4)　　Some strategies *contribute directly to learning*, such as asking for validation of the words, phrases or sentences that a learner is producing while others *contribute indirectly to learning*, such as creating opportunities to learn the new language (Rubin 1987, Oxford 1990).

(5)　　Learning strategies are *consciously employed* (Wenden 1987, Oxford 1990).

(6)   They *can be modified* and, as such, they can be rejected or new ones can be learned (Wenden 1987).

(7)   They *contribute to communicative competence* (Oxford 1990).

(8)   They *allow learners to become more self-directed* (Oxford 1990).

(9)   They *expand the role of language teachers* (Oxford 1990).

(10) They *involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive* (Oxford 1990).

(11) They *can be taught* (Oxford 1990).

(12) They are *flexible* (Oxford 1990).

(13) They are *influenced by a variety of factors* (Oxford 1990).

(14) They *can be transferred from one language or language skill to another* (Skehan 1989).

The literature on learning strategies in second language acquisition emerged independently from the research and theory developed in cognitive psychology, despite the significant work carried out by cognitive psychologists, such as Rumelhart and Norman (1978) on different types of learning, LaBerge and Samuels (1974) on automaticity, Anderson (1976) on declarative versus procedural knowledge, and Schank and Abelson (1977) on schema theory. Not until the early 80s did cognitive psychology have any bearing on strategy studies in second language acquisition research. The field of cognitive psychology contributed to strategy application on three main aspects:

(1)   Definition and classification of learning strategies;

(2)   Description of strategy applications for different types of
students and tasks; and

(3)   Correlational or experimental work to check on the validity
of strategy training.

The distinction between metacognitive and cognitive strategies is one of the main contributions of cognitive psychology. Metacognitive strategies are defined as "higher order executive skills that may entail planning for, monitoring, or evaluating the success of a learning activity" (O'Malley and Chamot 1990: 44). These activities are referred to as 'regulation of cognition' that together with 'knowledge about cognition' (metacognitive knowledge) (Flavell 1979) constitute metacognition. Metacognitive knowledge as defined by Flavell (1979: 906) refers to "all facts learners acquire about their own cognitive processes as they are applied and used to gain knowledge and acquire skills in varied situations". Metacognitive knowledge includes, according to Wenden (1991: 34), "the students' beliefs, insights and concepts that they [learners] have acquired about the language and the language learning process." Wenden (1991) points out four important characteristics of metacognitive knowledge that have a bearing on learning: It is *stable* and can be retrieved from the store of knowledge. It is *statable* and, thus, learners can activate it intentionally or unintentionally. It is *fallible*, because it cannot be always empirically proved and, finally, it is *interactive*, because metacognitive knowledge can influence a learning task, the choice of strategies, and the awareness of learning. Regulation of cognition entails the use of metacognitive strategies, such as selective attention to specific aspects of the language task, planning, monitoring comprehension and production, and evaluating the language task. However, they are not necessarily stable and statable and are task-dependent (Wenden 1991). Flavell (1979) further distinguished three kinds of metacognitive knowledge: person knowledge, strategic knowledge and task knowledge. *Person knowledge* refers to the general knowledge that humans have about how learning takes place and what learners know about themselves as

learners. *Strategic knowledge* is the learners' stored knowledge about learning strategies and includes knowledge regarding strategies that work best and knowledge about how best to approach language learning. *Task knowledge* is the knowledge necessary to accomplish language tasks successfully. It includes knowledge of the purpose of the task; knowledge of the nature of the task; knowledge of when conscious effort for learning is required and knowledge of task demands, such as what resources are necessary to complete the task, how to go about doing the task and the strategies needed and whether the task is hard or easy.

Cognitive strategies are specific operations or steps in learning and include strategies such as rehearsal, organization of concepts according to their semantic or syntactic attributes and elaboration of new information with known information in memory. Practice strategies, monitoring, memorization and social strategies are also classified as cognitive strategies. *Practice strategies* are those the learner employs when s/he wants to use the language for communication, such as repetition, rehearsal, experimentation, consciously applying rules, imitation, answering to self questions, exposure to second language, talking to oneself in second language, and self-drill (Wenden 1991: 22). *Monitoring strategies* imply the identification of a problem and a solution, *memorization strategies* are used to store information in memory while *social strategies* are those that contribute to create opportunities for practice in groups or with peers.

2.2.3. Learning strategy classifications

Years of effort in eliciting learning strategies by means of classroom observations, students and teacher interviews and other introspective methods such as thinking-aloud and in various classifications of learning strategies carried out at different times, have given as a result different taxonomies frequently characterized by overlapping, i.e. some strategies can appear in more than a single grouping. The latest categorizations, however, summarize previous research on learning strategies classifications. The early listings of learning strategies

provided by Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) were both intuitive. Rubin (1975) distinguished the following characteristics in a successful language learner: psychological characteristics (risk-taking, tolerance for ambiguity and vagueness, willingness to appear foolish), communication strategies (use of circumlocution and gestures), social strategies (seeking out opportunities to use language), and cognitive strategies (guessing/inferencing; practicing; attending to form by analyzing, categorizing and synthesizing; and monitoring). In a later taxonomy, Rubin (1981) classified strategies into two groups: *processes that contribute directly to learning* (clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, and practice) and *processes that contribute indirectly to learning* (creating opportunity to practice and use of production tricks).

The early study by Naiman et al. (1978) also focused on the personality traits and cognitive styles of successful language learners. They distinguished five general strategies conducive to learning: (1) active participation in the language learning process by identifying appropriate learning environments and seeking out opportunities for practice; (2) developing an awareness of language as a system; (3) developing an awareness of language as a means of communication and interaction; (4) being able to cope with affective demands; (5) monitoring and inferencing of the L2 system. Taking into account previous classification schemes, O'Malley et al.'s (1985) study with beginning and intermediate ESL students found twenty-six strategies that they classified into three categories: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and social mediation. In a later study, Chamot et al. (1988) identified three major groups of language learning strategies in their longitudinal study: metacognitive, cognitive and social and affective strategies, 7 of which were metacognitive with 13 sub-strategies, 11 cognitive with 8 sub-strategies and 4 social and affective strategies. Oxford's (1990) classification of strategies is a combination of Rubin's (1981) and O'Malley et al.'s (1985). Oxford (1990) distinguished 2 groups: direct and indirect strategies (as in Rubin's (1981) study), with 3 categories under each group (as O'Malley et al.'s (1985) metacognitive strategies), 19 sets in the 6

groups and 59 individual strategies, totaling 193 strategies in all four language skills.

2.2.4. Trends of investigation in research on language learning strategies

Two decades of empirical research on language learning strategies has concentrated on finding answers to questions and concerns, such as: 1. "Is a classification scheme based on the distinction between cognitive and metacognitive strategies useful in second language acquisition?" 2. "What is the relationship between types of language tasks and strategies being used?" "What is the frequency with which different strategies appear with different language tasks?" "What are the conditions under which they are used?" 3. "Are 'good language learners' different from 'less effective learners' in terms of differences of strategy use and frequency?" and "What are the factors affecting language performance?"

2.2.5. Relationship between types of language tasks and strategies used

Different studies at different times have identified the range of strategies used by students in tasks typical of second and foreign language classrooms and have concluded that the basic scheme consisting of cognitive and metacognitive strategies could be applied, despite the difficulty of establishing clear-cut boundaries between both groups. Other classifications were also added, such as social mediation (O'Malley et al. 1985) and social/affective strategies (Chamot et al. 1987); strategy categories, such as problem identification (Chamot et al. 1988); and sub-strategies included into already existing ones because they were used in a variety of ways, such as advance planning and organizational planning in the planning strategy category (Chamot et al. 1988) and production evaluation, performance evaluation, ability evaluation, strategy evaluation, and language repertoire evaluation in the evaluation strategy category (Chamot et al. 1988). Sometimes, the strategies were used in combination with other strategies, such as

elaboration, which co-occurred with imaginery, inferencing and transfer in Chamot et al.'s (1988) longitudinal study and metacognitive strategies were combined with cognitive in O'Malley et al. (1985). In spite of these results, it seems that "the depth and frequency with which students reported using any strategy might depend on the data collection procedure employed" (O'Malley and Chamot 1990: 144).

2.2.6. Frequency of learning strategies in language tasks. Conditions of use.

For the second set of questions regarding the correlation between number and type of strategies and types of activities, investigators such as Abraham and Vann (1987) pointed towards the fact that there may exist strategies that are more efficient for some language tasks than others, which was proved when successful language learners were found to have the ability to choose the strategies that were appropriate for the acquisition of language skills, while the less successful learners were less flexible in their ability to use strategies. Various studies (Chamot et al. 1988, Chamot and Küpper 1989) have also highlighted the importance of finding out the different strategy applications elicited by the different types of language tasks so that they become the teachers' instructional focus in the classroom. It seems that self-monitoring and elaboration are favored in strategy tasks such as vocabulary learning, listening comprehension, cloze exercises, and writing. Writing tasks typically elicit the cognitive strategies of planning, self-monitoring and self-evaluating and the metacognitive strategies of resourcing, translation, deduction, substitution, elaboration, and summarizing. Listening comprehension entails self- monitoring and inferencing, although the use of different strategies has been identified for different phases of the activity (O'Malley et al. 1989). Chamot et al.'s (1988) longitudinal investigation further concluded that both cognitive and metacognitive strategies can be used variously depending on the task demands and the student proficiency level. Other conclusions reveal a difference in number and kind of language strategies used depending on the nature of the language learning task. Chamot (1987), for example, reported that her high school language learners used more strategies

with discrete language tasks (i.e. vocabulary and pronunciation) while they used the least with integrative language activities (i.e. listening comprehension and oral communication), a conclusion also found by O'Malley et al. (1985).

2.2.7. Differences between effective and ineffective learners

Most research on language learning strategies has tried to determine the strategies that correlate positively with learning outcomes or those employed by successful language learners so as to pinpoint the most important differences between effective and ineffective language learners. For that purpose, successful language learners were separated from unsuccessful ones, describing and comparing their learning behaviors, or checking gain scores on proficiency measures over a period of time after strategy training. The researchers also tried to pinpoint with exactitude the learner characteristics, in particular personality traits and cognitive styles that lead to successful language learning and assumed that unsuccessful language learners lack these strategies. Students were observed as they carried out language tasks in the classroom; wrote retrospective reports, such as questionnaires and diaries; were interviewed in individual and group discussions; and were video-recorded as they thought aloud while they performed language exercises. Teachers were also interviewed to contribute with their observations and experience and were surveyed to find out about their beliefs about their students' strategy use and needs. However, little clear evidence has come out of the interviews because teachers tended to report on their own teaching strategies and lacked experience in identifying strategies while the surveys revealed differences in students and teachers' perceptions of language learning strategy use (Griffiths and Parr 2001).

Researchers started with two initial hypotheses: (1) successful language learners have a wider repertoire of language strategies than unsuccessful ones; and (2) efficient language learners employ learning strategies more frequently and more efficiently than inefficient ones. Unsuccessful learners do not "hav[e] an appropriate repertoire of learning strategies," "ineffective learners are inactive learners" (Wenden 1985: 7), have "higher anxiety levels," the strategies used

involve "rather solitary activities" and "introspective interaction" (Griffiths 2003: 380). The results of different investigations yielded, however, a variety of results. On the one hand, some studies (Abraham and Vann 1987, Chamot et al. 1988, Green and Oxford 1995, Wharton 2000, Griffiths 2003) confirmed the above hypotheses, while others did not find them true (Vann and Abraham 1990, Khaldieh 2000).

Although there is not a clear pattern of strategy use for effective and ineffective students, it seems that among the cognitive strategies with the highest percentage of usage was repetition and note-taking for beginning students because they "entailed the least manipulation of the material to be learned" (O'Malley et al. 1985: 42). More advanced students differed from less effective students in the use of more cognitive demanding strategies, such as inferencing, self-monitoring, elaboration and risk-taking but they did not abandon the simple strategies of translating and note-taking. O'Malley et al. (1985), Chamot et al. (1987), Chamot et al. (1988), Khaldieh (2000) and García Laborda and Pérez García (2003) also concluded that all the students, regardless of their proficiency level, used far more cognitive than metacognitive strategies, although the use of multiple strategies was also reported.

For metacognitive strategies, successful learners employed metacognitive strategies more often than less successful learners, who seemed to favour tried-and-true strategies, such as repetition, note-taking, questioning for clarification, and cooperation, as corroborated by a number of investigators (Chamot 1987, Chamot et al. 1987, Chamot et al. 1988, Khaldieh 2000, Takeuchi 2003). This is explained by the fact that a certain basic proficiency level is necessary to reflect on one's own learning and to plan for future learning outcomes. Planning is widely used as well as awareness and attention to the task, monitoring of errors and evaluation of progress. Khaldieh (2000), for example, investigated the learning strategies of 43 American learners of Arabic as a foreign language and concluded that in spite of the fact that all learners, proficient and less proficient, were active strategy users, both groups differed in terms of the metacognitive and affective strategies they employed. While the proficient group monitored their

errors continually and evaluated their progress, the less proficient group was not aware of the most appropriate language structures nor did they monitor their errors sufficiently. Such lack of metacognitive strategies, together with the level of anxiety and frustration that they felt, had an overall negative effect on the writing task. In the cognitive domain, however, both groups performed similarly since they used the most appropriate cognitive strategies. Khaldieh (2000) attributed the difference between the groups to lack of linguistic competence. As he remarked: "All students seem to have the right tools, that is, strategies and techniques; however, not all of them possess the right substance – linguistic knowledge" (2000: 530). Takeuchi's (2003: 387) study on the strategies preferred by good language learners in a Japanese context also reported on the importance of metacognitive strategies for successful language learning, which included "maximizing opportunities to use the language," "pushing oneself into using the language," "learning intensively," "learning regularly," and "having a concrete need/plan for learning."

For affective strategies, less proficient learners have been found to have a high level of anxiety and frustration, which, coupled with a negative attitude toward the learning task, resulted in unsuccessfulness (Khaldieh 2000). On the whole, researchers found that the unambiguous contrast between successful and unsuccessful language learners was not real because "the number of strategies … used by several of the successful and unsuccessful subjects fell within the same range" and "the unsuccessful learners used many of the same strategies as the successful learners" (Vann and Abraham 1990: 182-3).

For memory strategies, Olivares-Cuhat (2002) found a positive relationship between memory strategies and composition grades in her study with 20 college students enrolled in a Spanish writing class. That is, the students showing a higher use of this strategy type were more likely to be more successful, a conclusion also found by Takeuchi (2003). Olivares-Cuhat (2002: 566) warned however against the belief that memory strategies should supersede all others: "one should not imply that the exclusive use of memory strategies at the cost of all others (e.g. cognitive, compensation, and social) would be productive." However, the research

further concluded that a combination of memory and cognitive strategies accounted for 44% of the students' grade variability, which testifies for the importance of cognitive strategies. Takeuchi (2003) also concluded that in a foreign language context, cognitive strategies referred to practicing were important.

Factors other than quantitative differences between expert and novice learners were then pointed out, such as quality of the strategies used, effectiveness, flexibility and sophistication in using the same learning strategies, the ability to choose the strategies or complex of strategies that is suitable for the task as well as the expert learners' overall approach to language tasks that they understood in terms of communication of meaning rather than in terms of the surface elements of the text. Also, effective language learners were found to know when and how to call up information that was needed for the task at hand and to retrieve information from memory more easily than novice writers, which suggests that successful learners have better long-term memories (O'Malley and Chamot 1990).

2.2.8. Factors affecting language performance

Rubin (1975) hypothesized early on the existence of other factors affecting strategy use, such as the stage of the learner in the learning process; his/her age; individual styles such as auditory, visual or kinesthetic; the context of learning (outside or inside the classroom); and especially cultural differences. Such supposition spurred much research and further factors were added: motivation, gender, cognitive style, national origin, and language being learned (Oxford and Crookwall 1989), the objectives of the language course, the degree of the students' language learning expertise, the type of task and its demands, and the students' motivation for learning the language (Chamot et al. 1988). Culture, gender and motivation have been the especial focus of attention of many researchers on language strategy use and deserve, therefore, some mention.

An extensive body of literature proves the fact that cultural background affects strategy choice because learning occurs within a given cultural context and, therefore, the setting and the activity that promotes learning are inseparable from it. As Oxford (1996: 10) put it, the learner is "enculturated" through classroom activities and the modeling of the teacher that reflects the general culture. Bedell and Oxford (1996) summarized thirty-six strategy studies involving EFL and ESL students from different backgrounds and cultures and carried out a new investigation on the relationship between culture and language strategies. They undertook various studies to determine high frequency strategies, less generally-used strategies and less common strategies among 353 Chinese English students. Bedell and Oxford (1996) concluded that cultural differences highly accounts for the selection of language strategies and that students are culturally approved and socially encouraged to learn in certain ways. Levine, Reves and Leaver (1996) drew the same conclusion from their investigation on the influence of their 117 EFL learners' educational and cultural background on the learning strategies they generally used. The students were studying English at Bar-llan University (Israel). 63 of them were new immigrants from the former Soviet Union and 54 had been living in Israel for over five years. Their native languages were Russian, Amharic, Spanish, Arabic, Yiddish, or Hebrew. The researchers found that their immigrant group preferred strategies such as memorizing grammar rules, rote learning of vocabulary or using lists of words for translation. The group that had been living in Israel for over five years, however, showed preference for communicating with native speakers and taking risks for vocabulary and grammar learning. The differences could be attributed to the different learning habits of the two groups: a formal and prescriptive learning approach for the immigrant group and a more autonomous approach for the students that had stayed in the country for over five years. Wharton (2000), however, found that the students with a Chinese ethnicity in his study did not follow the pattern of strategy used described in previous similar studies in China or Taiwan, which he attributes to the differences in social and learning behavior between the countries in Asia.

In connection with students' cultural backgrounds, Olivares-Cuhat (2002) investigated the links between strategy use and students' native language in her study with students whose L1 varied and Griffiths (2003) studied the connection between strategy use and course level. A total of 20 students were enrolled in Olivares-Cuhat's(2002) Spanish writing class, of whom two were native Spanish students, seven Spanish heritage students, three German-speaking students, and eight English-speaking students. The results of the investigation were not statistically significant but the Spanish L1 learners showed a higher use of memory and affective strategies, which the author attributed to previous language experience. Other influencing factors were attitude and motivation. Course level is expected to influence strategy use, as Griffiths (2003) found in her study with 348 students of different languages. She further investigated strategy use and course level according to learner variables of sex, age and nationality. Only the variable nationality was concluded to be significant for strategy use.

The degree of language learning expertise is expected to have a strong influence on the number of language learning strategies being used as well as transfer from the L1 to the target language(s). The study undertaken by García Laborda and Pérez García (2003) with Spanish students learning an L3 proves the validity of such belief. The students learning French or English transferred strategies from their L2 into their L3, although it is also possible to affirm that they were transferred from their L1 into their L3. Most of the participants' learning strategies were learned in their L2, which they employed variously according to their preferred cognitive style. The researchers further found a direct correlation between the students' proficiency level in their L3 and the strategies they used.

The relationship between strategy use and gender has also been studied thoroughly, especially by Oxford, her research associates and her graduate students. Research has showed that males and females exhibit different patterns of strategy use but not always. Females use strategies more often than males do in many different cultures and with many different target languages (Dreyer and Oxford, 1996, Kaylani, 1996, García Laborda and Pérez García, 2003), use more

metacognitive strategies (organizing and evaluating their learning) (Dreyer and Oxford, 1996) and more memory, cognitive, compensation, and affective strategies than males (Kaylani, 1996), contrary to Wharton's (2000) results, who found that the males in his study reported using a greater number of strategies more often than females, although he also found supporting evidence for stereotypical descriptions of gender use in language learning strategies. Wharton (2000: 235) concluded: "Gender-related differences generally are probably due to a combination of socialization and physiology." Also, the differences in strategy use between males and females found in retrospective interviews and questionnaires do not show up in the think-aloud protocol because the think-aloud assessment calls forth a small range of strategies. Oxford (1996) hypotheses, however, that males and females may be different in how they report the strategies they use but not that different in how they use them. This needs further research to determine the real causes.

3. INTERACTION, DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

3.1. The Scope of Interaction

Communication serves a variety of purposes and so it assumes a variety of forms. It has a social and an emotional dimension, but a psychological theory of communication can also exist. Communication can not only be considered as the transmission of information, but as something more general than the simple communication of meanings. Firstly, there is not a clear answer to what meaning is and we need to make a distinction between what the speaker means and what his words mean, that is, between utterance meaning and sentence or word meaning. If we look at any example of communication paying attention to the utterance interpretation, we will be able to conclude that the hearer uses reasoning or inference in recovering what is communicated, that those inferences depend on contextual information and that the hearer assumes that the speaker has met or has tried to meet certain standards.

Context is a very important aspect of the communicative process that must be taken into account. Contextual information is stored under a concept, which means that information has constituents, and the presentation of a concept gives the hearer access to further information that can be made up of concepts that subsequently lead to further information (Blakemore 1992).

Concerning the notion of context, Gebhard (1999) argues that from a sociocultural perspective of development, the origin and structure of cognition are rooted to the daily social and cultural practices in which an individual participates. For this author, participation is how an individual carries out activities with others through the use of physical objects (artifacts) and symbolic systems (psychological tools). He states that the study of SLA from a sociocultural perspective is henceforth the study of the context in which an L2 user is located and the modes in which he or she uses physical and symbolic tools in interaction with others. In his article, Gebhard (1999) explains McDermott's (1996) assertion that when assessing an individual's ability we must consider the interactional circumstances that position people in the world. He says that context must be

considered as an order of behaviours of which an individual is part and not simply something into which one is put. Kramsch (1993), also quoted by Gebhard (1999), states that text and context are two mutually constructing aspects of the same process of meaning construction. And in this process, meaning resides in the interplay between text and the whole environment in which it unfolds, and not in the formal properties of language.

Also regarding this notion of context, we must state Price's (1999) suggestion of an alternative understanding of the relationship between subject and discourse and their mutual coproduction. This author argues that discourse is seen as practice in which both discourse and subject are performatively realised. He considers discourse acquisition not in terms of the reproduction of socially established language forms and practices, but in terms of the ongoing social production of discourse. For him, discourse acquisition needs to be concerned with engagement in the processes that sustain and transform discourses rather than with apparent regularities in the form of discourse as object of acquisition. He states that the transitory stability of any discourse is a function of the marginalising and privileging of different heterogeneous elements that contribute to that discourse at a given moment. Price (1999) argues that such stability is always intersubjectively produced and not explicable in terms of individual control and intentions, and therefore it can only be acquired by discourse and subject in their intersubjective enactment. This author concludes by saying that the act of constructing itself (contingent on ongoing social and interpersonal processes), and not the characteristics of discourse, is crucial. He states that meanings are sustained by extrinsic social processes that produce what a discourse becomes rather than by intrinsic properties over which one can obtain mastery.

But if we focus the scope of our study, we will concentrate on what Riley (1985) calls face-to-face interaction. This author states that meaning is a very complex concept that has been object of intense study by researchers in many domains and, in particular, in sociology and ethnology. According to him, the domain of discourse analysis must be the description of the process whereby we create and relate, organize and realize meaning. In this way, discourse analysis is an analysis of meaning, but not in the traditional sense of the word, but as a way to construct either a 'multi-source discourse' or a 'single-source discourse'; being the first one the kind of unified discourse produced by an individual collaborating

with one or more other individuals, and the latter, the type of discourse resulting from an individual's interpretation of a text produced by another individual and to which he/she can not make any contribution. According to Riley (1985), discourse analysts have in part abandoned the idea of finding a universal definition of meaning due to two reasons: firstly he states that one of the reasons is the growing awareness of discourse as a tool for the establishment and distribution of knowledge. From this point of view, communication is seen as dialectic between social and personal knowledge. Secondly, due to the increasing appreciation that meaning resides in and is conveyed by the combinations of and the interrelationships between a number of semiotic systems, that is not simply a property of words. This author also states that the participants that collaborate in interactive discourse learn one another's meaning from the information they exchange and they obtain it from their knowledge of the linguistic code, from their knowledge of the world, including their knowledge of their interlocutor, and finally from their knowledge of procedural or interpretative rules, that are those used to relate the first and second kind of knowledge. To study this process we need to look at instances of individuals using language, that is, authentic discourse. To study meaning in interaction we need to look at utterances and not at sentences. We need to look at language as interactive and dynamic, rather than static, or, as Riley explains, *parole* and not *langue*. To do so, we will have to consider the roles of speaker and addressee. We can not think of a mechanical, exact distribution of speaking turns of the participants of an interaction, but rather of an interaction based on a series of rights that depend on our social and interactive roles in particular events. When studying any contribution to discourse, we must pay attention not only to all the constituents of communicative events, but also to the full range of socio-cultural and psychological factors that take place in that event. Therefore, linguistic models based on the ideal speaker-hearer are inadequate for the description of interactive discourse, since not only do participants change these roles during the interaction, but each of them has different roles in this situation. The transition is then related to identity and role. To understand the difference between speaker and hearer, we must look at the notion of address, which was first considered as one of the series of categories for the description of the communicative functions of non-verbal communication (Riley 1976). Following this, we will remark that interactive acts can be

understood as manifestations of the distribution of address: the presence or absence of the right to take or to give the floor, to interrupt, to reply, to close an interaction, etc. Address is realised through a set of behaviours which are most of the times non-verbal and, by means of them, a speaker selects and indicates his/her listener(s). These mechanisms for addressing are eye contact, head-direction, gestures, orientation and posture. We will thus have various types of discourse units depending on terms of codings, change of address and change of first speaker. The concept of address will also help us develop a model of discourse for groups over the dyad. In the classroom context, even though it is a group situation, we find a close resemblance to the dyad, as it usually the teacher who has the right to choose the next speaker and the students do not have choice of address.

3.2. Approaches to Discourse Analysis

We will now turn to the notion of discourse, which is the very object of analysis in our study. Discourse can be thought of as the realisation of language, that is, the utterances which speakers are able to produce.

Discourse is also used as the object of analysis of suprasentential linguistics (Householder 1972). In this sense, discourse would be any series of utterances which form part of a higher structure, this structure being linked by means of semantic cohesion.

If we look at discourse from a wider point of view, trying to analyse the communicative functions of language, we will find the studies of Widdowson (1977) and Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). Thus, discourse would be the entity consisting of the text and of the circumstances in which the text is produced and interpreted. So, we could say that the object of analysis is the text in situation and the aim of the study would include questions such as the identification and description of the relationships between a text and the circumstances in which it is produced, or the definition of the structures of texts containing several messages. Following this approach to discourse, Riley (1985) states a definition of the notion, where he defines the term discourse as being used to designate the verbal

and non-verbal text used by an actor to address his interlocutor for communicative purposes.

Another way of approaching the study of discourse is that proposed by Johnstone (2002). This author thinks of discourse analysis not as a body of theory, but as an open-ended heuristic, that is, as a research method consisting of a set of topics that need to be considered in connection with any instance of discourse. She presents six different categories, each one reflecting a different perspective on how discourse is shaped by its context and how discourse shapes its context:

1. Discourse is shaped by the world, and shapes the world
2. Discourse is shaped by language, and shapes language
3. Discourse is shaped by participants and shapes participants
4. Discourse is shaped by prior discourse, and shapes the possibilities for future discourse
5. Discourse is shaped by its medium, and shapes the possibilities of its medium
6. Discourse is shaped by purpose, and shapes possible purpose

The first category shows the relationship between the world and discourse and it is based on the braoder framework of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. In it, she investigates how languages and ways of doing things with languages constrain and shape the ways we experience the world.

In the second category the author deals with the relation between language structure and discourse and studies how structural conventions both constrain and reflect the ways in which information is processed and social interaction is maintained.

In the next category, she examines the relationship between participants and discourse, commenting on such aspects as solidarity, power, symmetrical and asymmetrical relations among participants, linguistic politeness, social roles, etc.

The fourth category concerns the relationship between prior discourse and new discourse by presenting a notion of intertextuality, which makes reference to the ways in which texts and ways of talking built on other texts and discourses. She comments on familiar discourse formats and introduces the notions of register, genre and their relationship.

Category six focuses on medium and discourse: the author deals with the concepts of orality and literacy to show how the medium shapes discourse. She states that oral discourse is different in structure and function than discourse in a written context. Finally, the last category of her heuristic approach studies the relation between purpose and discourse. It is mainly concerned with the ways in which speakers' intentions shape discourse, presenting the basic tenets of Speech Act Theory.

In general, we could state that Johnstone (2002) has a conception of language not as an object of study, but as a process (she considers the possibility of replacing the term 'language' by that of 'languaging'). And as such, Discourse Analysis should focus on the particular rather than the general. Finally, she states the posssibility of considering discourse from two opposing perspectives: as adaptation to social and situational factors and as strategy according to free intentional choices. She intends to unify these two different perspectives by showing that discourse is both a constraint reaction to the world and a creative intervention in it.

3.2.1. Oral and written discourse

Having reached this point, we must state an important issue, that is, the distinction between oral and written discourse. According to Riley (1985), if we take into consideration the dynamic dimension of the production of discourse, that is, a product being made, and the static dimension of its realization, that is, a finished product, we can distinguish two types of discourse. The first type would be the one whose finished product is constructed in real time, so that the text has an internal temporal structure. The second type would be the one whose structure is not directly associated with the temporal structure. Texts of the first kind are generally, but not always, realised acoustically, whereas texts of the second type are generally, but not always, realised graphically. In this way it is not always completely correct to call texts of the first type oral and texts of the second type written.

3.2.2. Interactive and non-interactive discourse.

However, for us to complete the definition of discourse, it is necessary to look at a further distinction, which is the one between interactive and non-interactive discourse. That is, we need to pay attention to the analysis of the type of roles played by the participants. If a single participant is responsible for the whole of the discourse, then we can say that we find ourselves with non-interactive discourse. While if the discourse is responsibility of all the participants, then we will be dealing with interactive discourse. It is not always the case of oral discourse being interactive, although it is the general rule, just as written discourse is not always non-interactive.

3.2.3. Interactive communication.

We will now establish a general framework for the description of interactive communication and its components, based on the work by Riley (1985). From a sociological point of view, we will distinguish between the notions of status and role. Being status a social position, a part of a structure, an institutionalised notion that serves for relating the individual to the community. We could add that status is a rather static and stable term, whereas we could define role as a more dynamic notion that operates over a narrower set of relations which are rather dependent on a set of norms accepted by the participants themselves.

For our purposes, we need a model of discourse and interaction that is able to link patterns of interactional and social behaviour. We find three parameters of social identity: two have already been mentioned, which are status and role; and the third one is office, and it refers to the class of positions in the social structure which are ascribed by appointment or professional qualification. Following this definition, status is a more general term defined by a series of parameters of which office is just one, and role is the enactment of interactional privileges and duties realised by two types of acts: illocutionary, or communicative, and interactive, or discursive. Illocutionary acts are the reflection of the actor's intention of performing that particular act. Interactive acts are those that realise the interactive structure of the discourse, that is, they relate to the distribution of turns. Based on the notion of address, we can find the distinction or categorisation

of turns into three main groups: opening, replying and closing. If the speaker addresses or selects another participant and imposes on him the right to answer, then we have an opening turn. When the addressee makes use of his right to speak, we find the replying turn. A pair of an opening and a replying turn makes up what we call an exchange, which is the minimum unit of interaction. When the exchange is completed, the speaker can either initiate a new exchange or perform a closing turn, that is, a turn which does not impose a duty to reply. Following this, we may say that one of the best contexts in which to study the notion of role in interaction would be any extract from a classroom transcription, in which we can clearly observe the distribution of turns, the structure of exchanges consequently making up a wider structure, and the type of interaction based on the kind of roles performed by teacher and students.

We have seen, therefore, how from the general notion of communication we have reached the basic unit of discourse analysis. However, we still need to define the scope of discourse analysis. Schiffrin (1994) explains two definitions of discourse, first discourse as language above the sentence or clause, and second discourse as language use. She then proposes a third definition that would sit at the intersection of structure and function, and that would be discourse as utterances. We can say now that discourse is one of the wider areas in linguistics, but it is also one of the least defined. This is partly due to the double nature of discourse analysis that permits to study it from the perspective of the structure or according to the function. If we focus on the structure, we will study issues such as the identification and analysis of constituents, the determination of procedures for assigning a constituent status to utterances, the discovery of regularities under the combination of constituents and the setting of principles needed to consider a structure well formed. If, on the other hand, we pay attention to the function, we will take into account the identification and analysis of actions performed by people for certain purposes, the interpretation of social, cultural and personal meanings and the justification of those meanings in the case of the participants involved. It is very difficult to deal with structure or function alone, independently of the other. However, the study of both is what makes the scope of discourse analysis such a wide discipline.

The other reason for this area to be so vast is the need to consider both text and context, because context can be very broad and can be defined in different

ways and also because the relationship between text and context also depends on other relationships held between language and context. That is why we can find many different approaches to discourse analysis.

3.2.4. Discourse and Second Language Acquisition.

It is evident that the field of second language acquisition (SLA) is inter-disciplinary and thus it can be linguistic, psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, sociological, psychological and educational. According to Seliger and Shohamy (1989) a useful distinction can be made between three different kinds of research in second language: basic or theoretical, applied and practical research: The relationship between them is unidirectional and each category often contributes to revision of the content and structure of the others. Basic or theoretical research is concerned with developing an abstract linguistic description within a particular theory of language knowledge. Applied research deals with applying the product of theoretical research to a specific problem. Finally, practical research is interested in a particular practical aspect. These authors claim that the area of SLA draws on many other fields, as it was stated earlier, and so it can not adopt the research paradigm of any of these related fields, but rather develop research methodologies of its own which allow for a variety of approaches and flexibility in investigating research questions. They propose a framework composed of four parameters that describe second language research at two different levels: the conceptual and the operational. At the former level, the researcher should address questions dealing with the approach which will be taken with respect to the study of second language phenomena, and the objective or purpose of the research. The investigation can approach the study of second language from a synthetic perspective, which attempts to capture the whole phenomenon, or it can approach the study analytically, by investigating one of the constituent parts of the phenomenon. The objective or purpose of the research can be heuristic or descriptive, or it can be deductive and aiming to test a predetermined theory or hypothesis.

At the operational level, the researcher must decide the degree of control which will be imposed on the research context and how this will affect the outcomes of the investigation. Once the researcher has established the approach,

objective and degree of control, he or she must consider and decide what data are of importance for the investigation and how those data will be collected. Seliger and Shohamy (1989) assert that the four parameters (which are described in the figure below) describe different aspects of second language research, but that they are interdependent and decisions at the conceptual level have important implications for parameters at the operational level.

Parameter 1: Synthetic and analytic approaches to the phenomena

Parameter 2: Heuristic and deductive objectives

Parameter 3: The degree of control and manipulation of the research context

Parameter 4: Data and data collection

Figure 2.7 Summary table of second language research parameters

These authors offer a distinction between different types of research according to the parameters described above. They state that both qualitative and descriptive research is concerned with providing descriptions of phenomena that occur naturally, without the intervention of an experiment or treatment. Both are concerned with description, but they approach research from different perspectives: qualitative research is heuristic and not deductive, since few or no decisions regarding research questions or data are made before the research begins, and descriptive research can be heuristic or deductive, for it utilizes already existing data or non-experimental research with a preconceived hypothesis. Some research methodologists (Kamil et al. 1985) have claimed that descriptive research may be distinguished from qualitative research by the kind of data analysis that is carried out: descriptive research will be quantitative, whereas qualitative research is not. However Seliger and Shohamy (1989) assert that this is not true for language acquisition qualitative research in which both qualitative and quantitative elements may be present. These authors continue by stating that the main difference between descriptive and experimental research is that the first one can be either synthetic or analytic in its approach to the second language phenomena being studied, while experimental research must be analytic. Another important distinction offered by these authors is that in descriptive research no manipulation of naturally occurring phenomena takes place, whereas in

experimental research, manipulation and control become important measures of internal and external validity. In the following tables offered by these authors we can find out a summary of the procedures for conducting qualitative and descriptive studies:

1 Define the phenomenon of second language to be described.

2 Use qualitative methods to gather data.

3 Look for patterns in the data.

4 Validate initial conclusions by returning to the data or collecting more data.

5 If necessary, return to step 1 and repeat the cycle, redefining the area of focus on the basis of the first cycle.

Table 6.1   Conducting qualitative research

1 Decide on the question.

2 Select the population.

3 Determine methods for data collection.

4 Collect the data.

5 Organize and analyze the data.

Table 6.2   Procedures for carrying out a descriptive study

Finally, Seliger and Shohamy (1989) show a figure which can be quite explanatory of the three different types of research described here. It shows the position of the three of them according to the three first parameters applying to the conceptual and operational levels of research design and methodology:

	Qualitative	Descriptive	Experimental

1 Synthetic/←--→ Analytic/

  holistic   constituent

2 Heuristic ←---→Deductive

3 Control/←---→Control/

  low   high
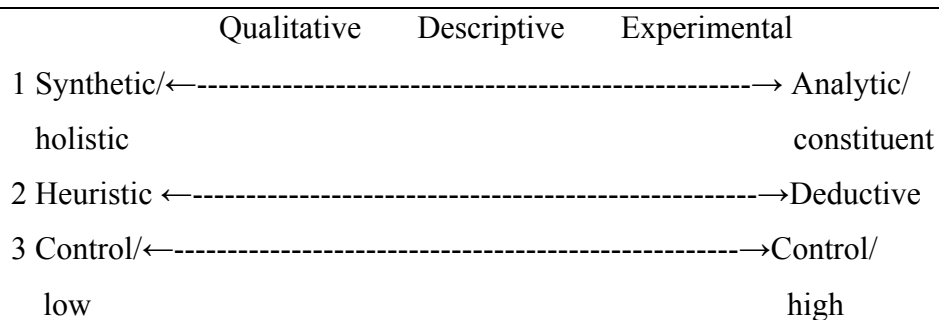
Figure 6.1   Types of designs and the research parameters

Next, we are going to offer a brief overview of the different approaches and disciplines one can encounter when studying the field of conversation analysis, in general, and second language acquisition, in particular, according to different authors.

Schiffrin (1994), for example studies six of them in depth:

- Speech Act theory: it focuses on communicative acts performed through speech
- Interactional Sociolinguistics: it deals with the social and linguistic meanings created during interaction
- Ethnography of Communication: its aim is to study language and communication as cultural behaviour
- Pragmatics: it studies the meaning of individual utterances in hypothetical contexts
- Conversation Analysis: it deals with how sequential structures in conversation provide a basis through which social order is constructed
- Variation Theory: it is based on structural categories in texts and studies how form and meaning in clauses help to define text.

Taylor and Cameron (1987) offer a critical survey of the concepts and methods of conversation analysis. They limit the focus of their acount to an investigation of the applications of two fundamental assumptions shared by all the models they consider. The first one is that conversations consist of the production of particular sorts of interactional units (speech acts, moves, turns, sentences, etc) and the second one is that in producing these units, conversationalists are guided by interactional rules which determine when particular units may occur, how they may be reorganised, what they may be combined with and how they fit into the organisational structure of a conversation. The models these authors examine and that resemble each other in their overall conception are:

- the social psychologists
- 'speech act' theorists
- 'exchange structure' analysts of the Birmingham school

- a Gricean approach based on principles and maxims

- ethnomethodological conversation analysis

Freeman and Freeman (2001) state the principal theories of second language acquisition, which, they remark, are based on research from different fields. They first distinguish three theories that show the study of SLA from different perspectives: Psycholinguistic, Sociolinguistic and Neurolinguistic.

They explain that the first one looks for insights into SLA from linguistics and psychology. They study the interlanguage, that is, the system of language the learner is developing. Psycholinguists use evidence from errors to determine learners' strategies as their interlanguage develops. Seliger (1988) offers three major questions psycholinguists ask about SLA:

1. How does the learner develop his or her second language system? What are thought to be the processes involved?

2. What role does previous knowledge, such as the first language, play in second language acquisition?

3. What psychological characteristics contribute to successful second language acquisition? Are there good learners and bad learners?

Sociolinguists, according to these authors, are concerned with how social and cultural factors affect language development. Beebe (1987) identifies the major questions that sociolinguists try to answer:

1. Is interlanguage variation systematic or random and, if systematic, according to what social variables does it vary?

2. Does the learner's interlanguage change over time?

3. What is the role of sociolinguistic transfer in L2 development?

4. What is the nature of L2 communicative competence?

5. What is the "cause" of variation in interlanguage?

The third theory stated by these authors is Neurolinguistics. It considers how language is represented in the brain. Freeman and Freeman (2001) explain some of the questions that neurolinguists are attempting to answer:

1. Where in the brain are first and second languages located?

2. What are the ways that languages with different characteristics are represented in the brain?

3. Is there a critical period for second language acquisition?

These two authors remark that the three areas of research have contributed to the development of current SLA theories, which they consider can be divided into either theoretical or applied research. Theoretical research could be, for example, a study of the natural order of acquisition of morphemes. An example of applied research would be a study that compares two methods of language teaching to find out which one results into higher levels of language proficiency. They remark Krashen's (1985) observation that both theoretical and applied research is necessary in the formation of SLA theories and form the basis for SLA theory. According to this author, SLA theory acts to mediate between research and practice.

Freeman and Freeman (2001) state that while Krashen focuses on the individual receiving comprehensible input, Gee (1992) deals with people in social groups who acquire language through social interactions. They remark that according to Gee (1992), the development of communicative competence comes from knowing the appropriate language for the social situation and that this kind of competence develops naturally in social settings. In that context, people see themselves as learners interacting socially and they are constantly receiving feedback: either they understand and are understood or communication breaks down. Feedback is almost always directed at the meaning they are trying to convey, not at the grammatical form. They take the information from feedback and integrate it with current knowledge as they acquire the new language.

Hutchby and Wooffitt (1998) develop an approach based on C A. According to them, conversation analysis can be defined as the study of talk and more particularly, the systematic analysis of the talk produced in everyday situations of human interaction: talk-in-interaction. They explain that the most distinctive methodological trait of CA is that research is based on transcribed tape-recordings of actual interactions, so CA can be thought of as the study of recorded, naturally occurring talk-in-interaction the aim of which is to discover how participants understand and respond to one another in their turns at talk, with a central focus being on how sequences of actions are generated. These authors are of the opinion that the actual object of study of CA is the interactional organization of social activities. Thus, CA differs from other forms of linguistically oriented analysis in that the production of utterances is seen not in terms of the structure of language, but as a practical social accomplishment. They claim that CA studies the words

used in talk as products which are designed and used in terms of the activities being negotiated in the talk: complaints, accusations, requests, proposals, etc.

Hutchby and Wooffitt (1989) turn then to explain the intellectual origins of CA. They assert that conversation analysis emerged in the research of Harvey Sacks and his collaborators Emanuel Schegloff and Gail Jefferson (1974). Sack's (1972a, 1972b, 1972c, 1975) approach is to view utterances as actions which are situated within specific contexts. So the methodical character of talk is always addressed to the details of the interactional and sequential context in which it is produced. Sack's concern with real-world data, and with the situated, contexted nature of talk-in-interaction, characterizes all of his work and is a core feature of the conversation analytic method. His most original idea is that there is 'order at all points' in talk-in-interaction, contrary to the commonsense assumption that conversation is a mundane, local and random event. Chomsky (1965) argued for the opposite view stating that ordinary talk could not be the object of study of linguistics since it is too disordered and a degenerate realization of linguistic competence. This idea can make sense from Chomsky's perspective, in which linguistic competence mainly consists of tacit knowledge of syntactic structures. However, it is an example of the approach that Sacks argued against: the place where order can be found is decided purely on the basis of prior analytic assumptions. For CA, the notion of order at all points means that nothing in talk-in-interaction should be dismissed as uninteresting or trivial before it has been subjected to analysis. According to these authors the key insights that serve as the methodological basis for conversation analysis can be summarized in the following propositions:

▪ Talk-in-interaction is systematically organized and deeply ordered.

▪ The production of talk-in-interaction is methodic.

▪ The analysis of talk-in-interaction should be based on naturally occurring data.

▪ Analysis should not initially be constrained by prior theoretical assumptions.

Huthchby and Wooffitt (1989) turn then to explain the sociological background behind the study of conversation analysis. They argue that Sacks intended to address sociological issues centred around a particular conception of the kind of enterprise should be, namely a naturalistic, observational science. He

found this in the ethnographic school of sociology which had its roots in the Chicago School (for instance, Whyte 1943; Park 1952; Becker 1953; Hughes 1970). The prime concern for these sociologists was a close attention to observational detail in their studies of the everyday lives of social groups such as street corner gangs, hobos and marijuana users. However, these authors consider that ethnographic work is problematic for three main reasons which are closely interrelated. First, it tends to rely heavily on information gained through interviews with certain members of the group being studied, so that they study the categories the members use and do not find them in the activities in which they are employed. In the second place, for Sacks both ethnography and survey research rely on the commonsense knowledge of members of society, but they use it simply as a resource, while it should be turned into a topic of study. And third and last: in ethnographic research, the details of actual events are not made available to the reader.

These two authors explain that Sacks intended to make sociology into a naturalistic, observational science of social life and then turn to state some of the influences. They first name Goffman and the interaction order and explain that Erving Goffman, in the 1950's, developed a form of sociology that focused on the presentation of the 'self' in the multifarious situations of everyday life (Goffman 1959). Goffman's argument was that we 'perform' our social selves, controlling the ways we appear in everyday situations in order to affect how others orient to us. A person's self, at the same time, becomes treated as a 'sacred' object and this is shown by the way we establish boundaries around our physical bodies and possessions, 'territories of the self' (Goffman 1971) which we expect to be respected by others. The original point of Goffman's thought is his view that this domain of interpersonal interaction is a site of social order and should be the aim of structural sociological investigation, as mainstream sociology had seen it as deeply trivial and arbitrary. Although Sacks drew from Goffman in his interest in the orderly properties of face-to-face interaction, these authors conclude that his approach was very different from Goffman's. They state that Goffman was mainly interested in what he called 'interaction order' (Goffman 1983), namely the central importance of language in everyday social interaction. His objective was to document the ritual procedures that inform the orderly conduct of everyday life. He made a distinction between two properties of talk, which, for him, were two

theoretically distinct modes of the interaction order: 'system' properties, which had to do with features ensuring basic intelligibility (orderly turn taking, for instance) and 'ritual' properties, which had to do with such features as the protection of 'face', the ways in which we tend to avoid giving offence to others, politeness and other 'ceremonial' aspects of interaction. However, according to Hutchby and Wooffitt (1989), for Sacks, there is no meaningful difference between system and ritual aspects of talk-in-interaction. His interest in the ritual order departed from Goffman's in that it began from the sequential order of talk-in-interaction itself.

Sacks also went beyond Goffman in terms of methodology: he thought that theory ought to be data driven, rather than using data to support theory, whereas Goffman tended to use data illustratively and the main thrust of his writing was in the direction of the development of his particular theory of personal interaction.

While Goffman was developing his theory, another author, Garfinkel (1967) started to develop a form of sociology that would later be known as ethnomethodology. This science proposes that everyday interaction constitutes a legitimate domain of sociological study, although with a different emphasis. Garfinkel's work stood in opposition to the predominant sociological paradigm at the time, that is, functionalism. In particular to the one associated to Parsons (1937). Functionalism's interest was to explain how societies manifest order and stability over time and the reason why individuals normally avoid blindly pursuing their own appetites and desires and show the kind of other-awareness that Goffman studied in the form of the ritual order. Its explanation was that we internalize societal norms and values through a process of socialization: negative and positive reinforcement exercised through institutions such as the family and the education system. Once we have internalized these values, we unconsciously reproduce them in our actions and this ensures that society continues in an orderly fashion. The main issue for functionalism became then the explanation of deviance.

Garfinkel (1967), however, argued that members of society are capable of rationally understanding and accounting for their own actions in society. In fact, it is due to that rational accountability that they are treated as 'members of society'. In opposition to the concept of deviance, which functionalism takes for granted and only seeks to locate its causes; Garfinkel proposed that members'

commonsense knowledge should become a topic of study, rather than simply a resource. In that way, the aim of sociology should not be to understand how norms are internalized, such that people end up reproducing them or deviating from them, but rather to describe the methods that people use for accounting for their own actions and those of others.

Hutchby and Wooffitt (1989) assert that in ethnomethodological inquiry, the earliest research consisted of 'breaching' experiments in which the taken-for-granted routines of ordinary life were intentionally disrupted in order to observe how people dealt with their sudden lack of certainty. However, they explain that the possibilities of these experiments are limited, as they only tell us about what participants do in the 'special' situation constructed by the breach; they do not show how mutual understandings are constructed in the course of mundane interaction. What one must seek in ethnomethodology is the commonsense methods used in the construction and maintenance of accountable actions, rather than the methods used to repair 'breakdowns' in the taken for granted. Sacks managed to avoid these methodological pitfalls by deciding to focus on recorded conversations. This provided a means by which members' sense-making, that is, the establishment and maintenance of mutual understanding in interaction, could be observed in situ.

Hutchby and Wooffitt (1989) claim that Sacks was interested in finding the organization of talk-in-interaction in its own right as a 'machinery' independent of individual speakers, which provides the resources drawn on by speakers in constructing their participation in any given interaction and this structuralist view informs the contemporary research aims of conversation analysis. The reconciliation of Sacks's vision of talk-in-interaction as the product of a 'machine' and his aim to see the order of conversation as a members' concern is found in his central idea that the structural resources used in conversation are at the same time context-sensitive and context-free (Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson 1974). The resources are context free because the techniques used by conversationalists are not tied to the local circumstances of that specific occasion, rather these authors find that conversational patterns are quite recursive. But at the same time, the use of those resources is context-sensitive in the sense that, on each specific occasion, the participants in particular design their talk in the light of what has happened before in that conversation and also in their relationship as a

whole, among other contextual specifics. Thus, these authors argue that the aim of conversation analysis, as it has developed from Sacks's work, is to explain the structural organization of talk-in-interaction at this interface between context-free resources and their context-sensitive applications.

These authors conclude that Sacks's way of working resulted in the development of a distinctive method which allows the production of a cumulative body of findings and so CA can be described as a research programme whose aim is to describe the methodic bases of orderly communication in talk-in-interaction. They add that CA is by its very nature interdisciplinary: from linguistics it takes the view that language is a structured system for the production of meaning; in line with certain subfields of linguistics such as pragmatics, CA views language primarily as a vehicle for communicative interaction; and in the line with some developments in sociology (Knorr-Cetina and Cicourel 1981; Giddens 1984; Thompson 1984), CA sees both communication and interaction as inherently social processes, deeply involved in the production and maintenance of all kinds of social institutions.

Finally, Hutchby and Wooffitt (1989) offer the reader an overview of the foundations of Conversation Analysis. They explain that at its heart is a concern with the nature of turn-taking in talk-in-interaction: how it is organized, how participants accomplish orderly turn-taking, and what the systematic resources which are used in this accomplishment are. They refer to this as a concern with the sequential order of talk. A key notion in CA for them is that the turns in conversation are sequentially ordered and one of the aims of CA is to reveal this sequential order. They believe that conversation analysts treat the transitions between turns during talk-in-interaction as revealing two kinds of things. First, the 'next turn' is the place where speakers display their understanding of the prior turn's possible completion, so that the relationship between turns reveals how the participants themselves actively analyse the ongoing production of talk in order to negotiate their own participation in it. Second, an important dimension revealed in speakers' turns is their analysis and understanding of the prior turn's content, that is, the action it has been designed to do. For this reason, CA has an important interest in what they call the inferential order of talk: the kinds of cultural and interpretive resources participants rely on in order to understand one another in appropriate ways. And so it is here that the influence of ethnomethodology, with

its emphasis on methods of practical reasoning about social affairs, can be located. According to them, the interplay between these two concerns – the sequential order of talk-in-interaction and its normative and inferential properties – runs throughout conversation analytic research. They then offer a discussion of key analytic concepts and findings focusing on three areas: the rules of turn-taking, the management of overlapping talk and the organization of conversational repair; all this preceded by a preliminary discussion of the interplay between sequential and inferential concerns in the case of one particular type of conversational sequence: the 'adjacency pair'.

Another vision about the study of Discourse Analysis is that offered by Stubbs (1983). He first gives a definition of the term discourse analysis, which for him is very ambiguous. He refers to it as the linguistic analysis of naturally occurring connected spoken or written discourse and he says it refers to attempts to study the organization of language above the sentence or above the clause, and therefore to study larger linguistic units such as conversational exchanges or written texts. For him, it follows that discourse analysis is also concerned with language in use in social contexts, and in particular with interaction or dialogue between speakers. For this author language, action, knowledge and situation are inseparable, since utterances are actions, following Austin (1962), and language is used in social interaction and so communication is impossible without shared knowledge and assumptions between speakers and hearers. This derives in the assumption that if language is used to perform actions, then different social situations will produce different language. He explains that several factors interact to determine the acceptability or appropriateness of utterances used in different social contexts: not only their logical or propositional structure, or their truth value, but also knowledge of the rhetorical functions which the utterance may be serving in an argument or casual social conversation. We require knowledge, therefore, of what speech act is being performed in what speech event. Stubbs (1983) then comments on the relation between discourse analysis and linguistics. He states that the grammatical, structural units of clause or sentence are not necessarily either the most important units for language study, or the biggest, although the clause will probably remain basic as a unit of syntax, of propositional information, and as the potential realization of a speech act. However, he also claims that discourse units such as lecture, conversation, speech and story are the

upper limit of structural organization and these are some of the reasons why the study of connected discourse in natural situations is forcing linguistics to reconsider its descriptive categories. This author also considers worthwhile making explicit the implications of discourse analysis for sociolinguistic theory. He is of the opinion that sociolinguistics will have to incorporate analysis of how conversation works, that is, how talk between people is organized, what makes it coherent and understandable, how people introduce and change topics, how they interrupt, ask questions, and give or evade answers and, in general, how the conversational flow is maintained or disrupted. He assumes that is through conversational interaction that social roles are recognized and sustained, thus, roles have to be acted out in social interaction. He considers that sociolinguistics also requires other quite different kinds of analysis: for instance, correlational studies which relate linguistic features to large-scale socio-economic variables, and also general ethnographic description of cultural norms of speech behaviour in as wide a range of situations and cultures as possible.

This author then draws the important distinction of two ambiguous and often confusing terms such as text and discourse. He states first that one often talks of written text versus spoken discourse, that is, discourse often implies interactive discourse, whereas text implies non-interactive monologue (whether intended to be spoken aloud or not). A second distinction offered by Stubbs (1983) is that discourse implies length, whereas a text may be short. He gives us the distinction proposed by Van Dijk (1977): he uses the term text to refer to an abstract theoretical construct which is realized in discourse. In other words, text is to discourse as sentence is to utterance. And finally, he states that Halliday (1978) uses the term text to point to the same distinction, but he chooses the opposite term to refer to surface realization, and talks of language being actualized in text.

Finally, Stubbs (1983) questions if the study of real connected discourse is not simply linguistics. He states that to answer this question requires not only a full discussion of the place of idealization in any academic study, but also an account of the changing relationship between linguistics and other academic disciplines, including literary criticism, anthropology and philosophy. He explains that there has been a consensus since the mid-1960s that some of the basic assumptions of Saussurean-Bloomfieldean-Chomskyan linguistics must be questioned and this consensus has come about due to work in different disciplines:

anthropology, in particular ethnography; sociology, and in particular ethnomethodology; philosophy; artificial intelligence; and sociolinguistics.

Ana Mª Cestero Mancera (2000) offers us another point of view of the different approaches to Discourse Analysis. She states that conversation is the prototypical form of the use of language and that is why this phenomenon has been widely studied in the last years. She explains that the different approaches to language have been mainly on the part of sociologists, anthropologists, psychologists, general linguists, scientists of communication, specialists in artificial language, rhetoricians, etc. She considers that the main fields are Discourse Analysis and Conversation Analysis. Both of them aim to understand the sequential structures of talk, but, although they share a common aim of study, they differ in terms of goals and methodology. This author explains that discourse analysts that aim at describing the structure of conversation are characterized by using the methodology, techniques, theoretical principles and concepts of theoretical linguistics. They consider discourse as a unit which is superior to sentence and in order to analyse it, they segment it and characterize the resulting units through categories of function or illocutionary force. Then, they search for statistical relations among those categories in order to formulate the rules that operate among categories and separate the well formed sequences from the ones which are not, so coherence and cohesion are key terms in this type of analysis. The corpus of the discourse analysts mentioned above comes from verbal interaction produced in specific contexts usually institutionalized (didactic interaction, interviews between doctor and patient, exchanges between a shop assistant and a customer, etc) or from texts. The positive point of this approach, according to her, is its objective of including the study of dialogued discourse among the interests of theoretical linguistics. However, looking at the information we have about the functioning of discourse, it seems necessary for Cestero Mantera (2000) to change the methodological and theoretical apparatus before trying to do so.

Conversation analysts, according to her, intend to discover the systematic properties of the sequential organization of talk and how the statements to deal with such sequences are conceived and, to do so, they study a corpus based on recordings of everyday conversations, in naturally occurring contexts and they try to find recurrent facts, documenting them in as many examples as possible and

taking into account, at the same time, the variations that may occur. They refuse any statistical treatment of data that conveys a previous categorization, as they consider that in that case fundamental details of the interaction would be missed. This is a rigorous empirical approach that avoids the elaboration of unripe theories. We undoubtedly owe to it most of the knowledge we presently have about the organization of interaction.

These two approaches are not wholly separated; there are interrelations between them, which is logical if we take into account that both deal with the same objective: verbal interaction.

She then defines two other less developed approaches, which are Social Psychology and Pragmatics.

Social psychologists, according to her, approach the study of interpersonal communication with an experimental method that represents the distinctive theoretical perspective of psychology. The data corpus is obtained in laboratories, through sophisticated techniques that facilitate the control and manipulation of social and psychological variables, which can be implemented in a systematic way. They intend to observe the effect that those independent variables have on dependent ones, such as interruptions or hesitations in the discourse. A characteristic of this approach is the belief in the importance of quantification and the value of the deductive statistics for the analysis of data; in this way, the meanings that social psychologists offer of a particular behaviour rest on statistics. The implication of the quantitative approach is the need for categorization, which has led to the development of measure systems; however, the categories used by psychologists in order to satisfy the requirements of the particular statistical tests are often heterogeneous, different types of behaviour are mixed up under the same label, which could lead to a simplified version of communication. In the same way, certain facts could have a different function depending on the context in which they take place and if the investigator solely worries about the frequency of occurrence, its functional meaning will remain undemonstrated. In fact, the most common critique is that social psychologists reduce all the types of behaviour to the behaviour observed at frequencies or percentages of occurrence, with no attention to particular events.

The Interaction Pragmatics or Dialogic Pragmatics, according to Cestero Mancera (2000), is characterized because it promotes an approach to conversation

analysis that takes into account both transmitter and receiver, that is, the participants and their interaction. The concept of interaction acquires a double interpretation, it is a series of chained elements and a confluence of simultaneous elements, and it can be dealt with by associating each interpretation to a model of description: the hierarchical and formal model, made up of a series of hierarchical and complex units, that shape the conversation and that are constructed because of the linearity of discourse and some principles of composition and recurrence; and the strategic model, based on a series of restrictions of chain and interpretation held through a series of strategies. As Discourse Analysis, Interaction Pragmatics reduces the aim of the study to a unit superior to the sentence, but that does not go beyond the speech act, and, to convey any investigation, it starts from a pre-established theoretical basis; we could thus refer to it as a pragmatic approach to discourse analysis.

Cestero Mancera (2000) then explains that apart from these schools dedicated to the study of interaction or conversation, there are some isolated contributions, such as that of B.Gallardo Paúls (1991, 1993, 1996, 1998a y 1998b) who proposes a model of conversation analysis, pragmatics of the receiver, that is founded on the point of view of the laminar communicative pragmatics and combines the findings of interaction pragmatics, discourse analysis and conversation analysis. She finally names other orientations such as the generativist theory by D. Gordon and G. Lakoff (1971), which is based on speech acts; the one based on the analysis of context by A. Kendon (1982) and the tagmemic model by D.B. Frank (1983).

3.3. Classroom discourse

We will now turn to describe a conceptualized framework for conducting our research: classroom discourse analysis.

3.3.1. The nature of second language classroom discourse.

According to Kumaravadivelu (1999) the classroom is the crucible where the principal elements of education, that is, ideas and ideologies, policies and plans, materials and methods, teachers and the taught, all join to produce exclusive environments that might help or hinder the creation and utilization of learning opportunities. What actually happens in the classroom largely determines the degree to which desired learning outcomes are realized. The task of observing, analyzing and understanding classroom aims and events therefore becomes central to any serious educational enterprise. This author focuses on two widely used approaches to classroom observation, interaction approach and discourse approach, and then develops a third: critical approach.

According to Kumaravadivelu (1999) classroom interaction analysis involves the use of an observation scheme consisting of a finite set of preselected and predetermined categories for describing certain verbal behaviours of teachers and students as they interact in the classroom. This author states that the use of interaction schemes resulted in a much better understanding of classroom aims and events, particularly in terms of teacher talk and student talk, although they share four crucial limitations: (a) They focus exclusively on the product of verbal behaviours of teachers and learners and give little or no consideration to classroom processes or to learning outcomes; (b) they depend on quantitative measurements, thereby loosing the essence of communicative intent that cannot be reduced to numerical codification; (c) they are unidirectional, that is, the information flow is generally from the observer to the teacher; (d) they are unidimensional, that is, the basis of observation is largely confined to one single perspective, that of the observer.

Kumaravadivelu (1999) asserts that an important development in classroom interaction analysis is the proposal by Allen, Fröhlich, and Spada (1984) called the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) observation scheme. Its primary objectives are to capture differences in the communicative orientation of classroom instruction and to examine their effects on learning outcomes. It differs from other interaction schemes because it is directly linked to communicative methods of language teaching and because it is designed for real-time coding as well as for analysis of recordings of classes. He states that the

interaction approach to classroom observation can produce only a fragmented picture of classroom reality. The inherent drawbacks of such an approach inevitably led to the emergence of alternative analytical schemes that can be grouped under the rubric of classroom discourse analysis. Kumaravadivelu (1999) explains that one of the first L2 classroom observation studies that embraced a discourse analytical approach is Allwright's (1980) study on patterns of participation. He was motivated by the desire to make sense of classroom discourse in general rather than to narrowly study teacher effectiveness and thus posited a three-way analysis in his observational scheme: (a) a turn-taking analysis; (b) a topic analysis; and (c) a task analysis. Kuramadivelu (1999) asserts that the significance of Allwright's (1980) observational scheme lies in the fact that it departed from the earlier Flandersian tradition in three important ways: (a) it made no a priori distinction between teachers' and learners' roles but instead allowed patterns of participation to emerge from the data (Fanselow, 1977), (b) it consisted of high-inference categories that are subject of interpretational variations, and (c) it treated classroom participants as individuals rather than as a collective mass by attempting to describe and account for their individual behaviour. Kuramadivelu (1999) then explains that Allwright's (1980) emphasis on ethnography finds an echo on the work of Van Lier (1988) who uses ethnographic means to understand classroom aims and events. Van Lier (1988) 'takes the educational environment (with the classroom at its centre) as the crucial data resource and thus strongly emphasizes the social context in which language development takes place' (p.24).

Karamadivelu (1999) continues then describing the third approach to classroom observation: critical classroom discourse analysis. He states CCDA is based on the following premises and principles:

• classroom discourse is socially constructed, politically motivated, and historically determined; that is, social, political, and historical conditions develop and distribute the cultural capital that shapes and reshapes the lives of teachers and learners.

• the racialized, stratified, and gendered experiences that discourse participants bring to the classroom setting are motivated and molded not just by the learning and teaching episodes they encounter in the classroom but also by the

broader linguistic, social, economic, political, and historical milieu in which they all grow up.

• the L2 classroom is not a secluded, self-contained minisociety; it is rather a constituent of the larger society in which many forms of domination and inequality are produced and reproduced for the benefit of vested interests; therefore, an analysis of classroom discourse must necessarily include an analysis of the discursive practices and discursive formations that support the structure of dominant discourses.

• the L2 classroom also manifests many forms of resistance, articulated or unarticulated; therefore, an analysis of classroom discourse must necessarily include an analysis of various forms of resistance and how they affect the business of learning and teaching.

• language teachers cannot ignore the sociocultural reality that influences identity formation in and outside the classroom, nor can they separate learners' linguistics needs and wants from their sociocultural needs and wants.

• the negotiation of discourse's meanings and its analysis should not be confined to the acquisitional aspects of input and interaction, to the instructional imperatives of form-and function-focused language learning activities, or to the conversational routines of turn-taking and turn-giving sequences; instead, they should also take into account discourse participants' complex and competing expectations and beliefs, identities and voices, and fears and anxieties.

• classroom discourse lends itself to multiple perspectives depending on the discourse participants' preconceived notions of what constitutes learning, teaching, and learning outcomes; therefore, any CCDA needs to identify and understand possible mismatches between intentions and interpretations of classroom aims and events.

• the objective of language education should be not solely to facilitate effective language use on the part of language learners but also to promote critical engagement among discourse participants; therefore, CCDA should be concerned with an assessment of the extent to which critical engagement is facilitated in the classroom.

• teachers need to develop the necessary knowledge and skills to observe, analyse, and evaluate their own classroom discourse so that they can, without depending too much upon external agencies, theorize what they practice and

practice what they theorize, thus contributing to the dismantling of the debilitating dichotomy between theorists and teachers, between producers and consumers of pedagogic knowledge.

Kumaravadivelu (1999) finally concludes that if the function of interaction analysis is seen as normative and that of discourse analysis is informative, then the function of CCDA can be seen as transformative.

Jane Zuengler and Junko Mori (2002) offer a special vision of a study of microanalyses of Classroom Discourse. They consider a metamethodological discussion of several microanalytic frameworks for classroom discourse that directly considers specific research reports that have used them: they are visible, influential, and well-defined methodologies within which microanalyses of classroom discourse are conducted. The three they have chosen are: ethnography of communication, conversation analysis, and systemic functional linguistic analysis. The authors think the three represent a diverse set, emerging as they have from different home disciplines, namely, anthropology, sociology, and functional linguistics, respectively and, additionally, each of the three methodologies provides clear principles and guidelines for how to approach data. They organize their issue in the form of three exemplar articles followed by two response papers. The first paper, by Duff (2002), is an exemple of the ethnography of communication perspective. In it Duff (2002) illustrates her approach by studying, in a Canadian high school mainstream social studies class, the teacher's and students' efforts in constructing identity and respect for cultural difference, and the teacher's attempts at involving both the native English speaking and the non-native English speaking students in the discussion. In her analysis, Duff (2002) considers both the local and macro-level contexts as influences in the shaping of the discourse. In Mori's (2002) paper which follows, a conversation analysis approach is used as a central tool in examining the sequential development of talk within interactions taking place in a small group in an upper-level Japanese language classroom in the USA. While the group activity was designed with the hope of incorporating naturalistic interaction with native speakers into the classroom, the resulting interaction exhibited a rather structured pattern of exchanges between students and guest native speakers. The study reveals how the institutionalized nature of the instructional task becomes realized

in the participants' talk as they engage in the activity. The third paper, that of Young and Nguyen (2002), reports a study employing a systemic functional linguistics framework. Studying a multicultural US high school physics class, Young and Nguyen (2002) compare two modes for presenting a scientific topic, through a Physics textbook and via the interactive discourse of teacher talk. They present microanalysis of each of the modes and reveal how the students are constructed differently in the two modes. Through the teacher talk, both students and teachers actively participate in the scientific process, whereas the students, as readers of the textbook, are observers rather than direct participants in the process.

In the first of the two response papers which follow, Rampton, Roberts, Leung and Harris (2002) organize their discussion of the three analytic frameworks exemplified in the papers around a set of four questions. In considering each exemplar, Rampton et al. (2002) ask about the fundamental assumptions of each methodology and what particular classroom lens comes with the assumptions. They ask, secondly, about the methodology's usefulness for the problems being examined, as well as what phenomena might me missed. Their third question concerns issues of implementation, asking whether the methodology needs some adaptation in order to provide implementable results. And finally, Rampton et al. (2002) address what they refer to as the interdisciplinarity of the methodology, questioning whether the methodology's employment in applied linguistics research can offer new understandings of the methodology as formulated within its original discipline.

The second response paper brings in the discussion of Green and Dixon (2002), who shape their critical analysis of the three exemplars around a set of guiding principles first proposed by Strike (1974) for research conducted in educational settings. Namely, educational research should clarify what are relevant (and what, irrelevant) data. It should indicate what constitutes a comprehensive and well-represented account of the data studied, and offer criteria for assessing the account. Educational research should offer a context for defining its terms. As a final consideration, educational research must identify problems to be solved. As Green and Dixon (2002) conclude, what is important in this issue is not seeking to determine which of the methodologies is superior, but recognizing what each of the perspectives can contribute to our understanding of discourse in the classroom.

Duff (2002) describes ethnography of communication as a viable, context- and culture-sensitive method for conducting research on classroom discourse. She explains that in many classrooms, creating cohesive learning communities remains a worthy, although elusive, goal. Instead, some voices, and no others, are valued and heard. Some students create constructive social and academic networks with other students and staff both inside and outside of class. Yet others are silent, marginal, and apparently disconnected and disengaged from peers, curriculum, activities, and discourse in the mainstream. She argues that language-in-education scholars nonetheless maintain that classrooms can – and must – provide opportunities to create constructive cohesive learning communities in which differences are accommodated and bridged, and where students and teachers negotiate their identities and subject-matter knowledge together in culturally respectful ways through social interaction. The question this author asks is how this can be accomplished and she states that ethnographers of communication have been at the forefront of research examining communication patterns among groups at home and at school, as well as differences that may exist in behaviours across ethnolinguistic or social groups. She then introduces the concepts of language socialization, participation and identity, describing them as follows: language socialization refers to the linguistic and interactional processes that mediate newcomers' participation in routine cultural practices and facilitate their developing competence and membership in discourse communities; students' participation in classroom activities becomes instrumental in their becoming more proficient members of a classroom or speech community; and their participation, in turn, allows them to both reveal and develop aspects of their identities, abilities, and interests, in addition to their linguistic and content-area knowledge. Duff (2002) then offers a general view of the ethnography of communication. She asserts that it provides a set of methods for conducting research, that first developed by Hymes (1974), EC is an integrative method or framework for conducting qualitative, interpretive research in a variety of settings (Schiffrin 1994). Drawing on social and cultural anthropology, linguistics, sociology, and education, EC brings together etic and emic analyses of communication, and sometimes macro- and micro-level analyses of discourse as well, to examine 'patterns and functions of communication, [and the] nature and definition of speech community,' among other things (Saville-Troike 1989: 11). The author

argues that whereas the emphasis in early EC research was the ways of speaking in and across different cultures, EC now encompasses nonvocal verbal forms, vocal nonverbal forms, as well as vocal verbal forms. She explains that EC studies did not initially deal with education and schooling. However, social and educational issues in schools in America in the 1970s and 1980s gave rise to seminal studies on language and literacy socialization in home versus school settings (e.g., Heath 1983; Philips 1983; Scollon and Scollon 1981). Since then, EC has been conducted in educational settings in many other countries as well (Cazden 1986; Duff 1993; Farah 1997; D. Johnson 1992; K. Johnson 1995; Watson-Gegeo 1997).

According to Duff (2002), Watson-Gegeo (1987) discusses four approaches to classroom ethnography, which she names *ethnography of communication, micro-ethnography, discourse analysis, and critical ethnography,* and which overlap and combine in most ethnographic classroom research. Duff (2002) states that various other related labels exist, such as *constitutive ethnography* (Mehan 1979), *interactional ethnography* (Green and Dixon 1993a, b; Green et al. 2002), *sociolinguistic ethnography* (Heller 1999), and *interactional sociolinguistics* (Goldstein 1997; Green and Dixon 1993a; Gumperz 1982; Kantor et al. 1992; Rampton 1995; Roberts et al. 1992; Willett et al. 1999). The approaches differ both analytically and ideology. Duff (2002) refers to a composite of approaches as EC and it shares some features with other applied linguistics research: (1) it attempts to identify 'what a second language learner must know in order to communicate appropriately in various contexts in that language, and what the sanctions may be for various communicative shortcomings' (Saville-Troike 1989:9); (2) a focus on oral communication and social interaction in learning and socialization (Gass 1997; Hall 1993; K. Johnson 1995); (3) an analysis of speech events, activities, or tasks as crucial sites for learning, speaking, and performing; and (4) a concern with contexts or ecologies of language learning, socialization and use (Duff 1995; Duranti and Goodwin 1992; Lantolf 2000). She then states that some EC incorporates macro- and micro-levels of analysis in studies of classroom discourse. A macroscopic perspective in EC requires studying the social, cultural, and historical contexts for communicative events, uncovering attitudes and patterns of communication, and understanding such macro-functions as the 'establishment or reinforcement of group identity' (Saville-Troike 1989:

14). Macro-ethnographic studies of school settings examine the discourse contexts and ideological worlds in which members of a culture or group operate, often over a substancial period of time. Duff (2002) explains that in some studies, the larger socio-political, cultural, and/or communicative context is implicated by a fine-tuned analysis of just one part of the whole situation, and this is done by means of a 'micro-ethnography' or 'ethnographic microanalysis of interaction (Erickson 1992):

Ethnographic microanalysis portrays immediate human interaction as the collective activity of individuals in institutionalized relationships who, as they enact daily life locally in recurrent ways, are both reproducing and transforming their own histories and that of the larger society within which they live (Erickson 1992: 222-3).

The second paper, by Junko Mori (2002), uses the methodological framework of conversation analysis as a central tool. The author explains that the landscape of second and foreign language instruction has changed since the 1970s due to the influence of the sociolinguistic theory of communicative competence (Hymes 1972a) and the psycholinguistic theory of natural second language acquisition (Krashen 1982). She argues that these theories have generated a wide-spread belief in the necessity of learners' exposure to authentic or natural language in the process of acquisition and have encouraged a focus upon meaning and purpose, which is viewed as the essence of authenticity and naturalness, rather than on form (Cook 1997: 224). The author explains that the maximization of opportunities for learners to engage in close to real-life interaction has been priviledged over the teacher-fronted, controlled practice of linguistic structures, and thus, tasks designed to facilitate language learning through purposeful language use are a central element of language pedagogy (Bygate et el. 2001). Mori's (2002) study introduces one such task and considers the relationship between the instructional design of the task and the resulting interactional practices. Her paper exemplifies one way of applying the methodological framework of conversation analysis (Sacks et al. 1974) to the study of classroom interaction. She states that three veins of research are relevant: the first vein is a series of studies that have investigated the relationship between task types or the condition of their implementation and the resulting language performance (Crookes 1989; Foster and Skehan 1996, 1999; Skehan and Foster 1997). In these

studies, language performance is measured through the methods of codification and quantification, concerning the aspects of accuracy, complexity, and fluency. The second vein addresses the variable relationship between the task designer's intentions and the learners' interpretations of the tasks assigned to them (Coughlan and Duff 1994; Duff 1993; Kumaravadivelu 1991; Ohta 2001). The third vein of research is the one that challenges the notions of authenticity and naturalness, based on which task-based approaches have flourished (Cook 1997, 2000; Kramsch and Sullivan 1996; Sullivan 2000). Mori's (2002) study addresses the issue of authenticity and naturalness through the close examination of the actual talk observed in a classroom activity, which was designed to enhance the authenticity of the language use. The sequential organization and interactional procedures observed in the task and the pre-task planning are compared to those that have been described by conversation analysts investigating naturally occurring mundane conversation as well as institutional discourse.

She then proceeds with a brief review of the methodological framework of conversation analysis. She argues that CA is a branch of ethnomethodology established and developed by Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson and their students and colleagues, and that it has examined the fundamental organization of talk-in-interaction, which is recurrently exhibited by participants' conduct in a wide range of social interaction. That is, according to her, CA studies have explicated how a turn and a sequence at talk are developed in a moment-by-moment fashion and what kind of resources are used as the participants locally manage turn construction and allocation. Mori (2002) explains that whereas earlier studies were based upon context-free mechanisms, latter studies have focused on interactions taking place in various institutional settings, being classroom interactions one of them. She argues that the CA approach to the analysis of institutional discourse differs from other traditions of qualitative research in the treatment of context and the consideration of interaction-external factors: rather than approaching the data with a set of assumptions concerning the relevance of the characteristics of the settings and/or the participants' assumed roles, CA researchers start with the micro-analysis of the ways in which the participants organize their interaction and accomplish various social actions. Thus, the participants' visible and describable conduct at each moment of interaction is considered to reveal which features of the participants or of the setting become

relevant at that moment for the participants themselves. She then explains that the application of the CA to the classroom dates back to the 1970s when McHoul (1978) examined the structures of classroom discourse with reference to the classical model of turn-taking operation in mundane talk proposed by Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson (1974). Since that moment, various studies have investigated the aspects of interaction that are specific to the classroom and reflective of the role of teachers and students, as well as the ways in which the interactional practices or devices observed in ordinary talk are employed to construct pedagogical discourse (Baker 1992; Heap 1985, 1990; Lerner 1995; Macbeth 1990, 1991; McHoul 1978, 1990; Mehan 1979). The foreign/second language classroom is no exception in the wide range of subject areas and pedagogical activities covered by CA studies; recent studies have provided a close look at language classroom interaction applying the CA techniques (Koshik 1999; Markee 1994, 1995, 2000; Ohta 1999, 2000a, b, 2001). For this author, what is particularly intriguing about language classrooms is the fact that the language is not only the vehicle of learning but also the target of learning in this particular setting. The essential goal in the recent trend of communicative attempts is to enable students to interact with speakers of the target language in real-life situations. For the understanding of this simulated real-life language use, then, CA's rich tradition of examining the organization of varying types of talk-in-interaction offers a fruitful resource.

The third paper, by Young and Nguyen (2002), offers a study using the framework of systemic functional grammar. They argue that students are exposed to instructional input from a variety of sources: teachers provide a large part of that input by spoken interaction, but, in addition, instructional input is available from other sources such as fellow students, textbooks, teacher-produced materials, and instructional media ranging from the blackboard to the computer. Each of these various inputs to students has characteristics situational and linguistic properties. The central concern of Young and Nguyen's (2002) paper is to understand the degrees to which textbook and teacher presentations of related subject matter overlap and complement each other and to understand how the teacher and the author of the textbook construct and communicate scientific meaning. They consider language as a system of resources for making meaning, and they argue that the ways in which meanings are constructed in high school

science differ from the ways that other communities create meaning. Thus, the task of the high school student of science does not only consist of learning scientific facts, but he/she is also an apprentice in the ways in which this community creates meaning. They offer a general question: in what ways the language of a particular human activity influence the ways that people participate in the activity and understand it. The way that language is structured in a particular activity is a theory of how the participants experience that activity. In order to understand how knowledge is created in talk and in text, these authors adopt the methods of social semiotics or systemic functional grammar. That is the principle method by which linguists and educationists have studied the resources of meaning making language. The study of systemic functional grammar was initiated by Michael Halliday, and made widely accessible by Eggins (1994), Halliday (1994), Martin (1992), and Thompson (1996). In their paper, Young and Nguyen (2002) follow the systemic functional tradition by presenting first the two focal instances of language by teacher and textbook; they carry out a detailed systemic analysis of the ways in which these two texts construct scientific meaning, focusing on the similarities and differences between them. And they conclude by discussing the implications of their findings for the socialization of students to science discourse through different instructional modes.

The first of the two response articles, by Rampton et al. (2002) considers the three frameworks for the analysis of classroom discourse, discusses their basic assumptions and some of the similarities and differences between them, and comments on their different strengths and weaknesses as resources for applied linguistic problem-solving.

They state that applied linguistics often involves quite a lot of interdisciplinarity and this can make it difficult for anyone to distinguish between EC, CA and SFL. The authors claim that ethnography requires a detailed account of the researcher's own activity, that is, their hopes and failures and also their position in the field and experiences in data-collection and data-analysis (Erickson 1986). In EC generalization takes a different form from CA and SFL: While in CA and SFL, final claims are formulated as abstract rules and patterns applying across a range of contexts, researchers in EC account for the particularity of their field setting, insisting that the meaning of their informant's actions can only be grasped in their context as a whole. Both reflexivity and particularity imply that

ethnography is more likely to require book-length discussion than CA, where the main genre can be found in journal articles. In the case of SFL, the complexity of the model is what makes it hard to do justice in a short space.

Rampton et al. (2002) then state that for most part in education since the 1960s, the ethnography of communication has been committed to demonstrating the linguistic and cultural integrity and rationality of relatively marginalized social groups, searching for the rehabilitation of their status within schools and public consciousness, and this normalizing mission has led to an emphasis on the ways in which ethnography is actually close to common sense. They explain that the ideal of an intellectual and cultural empathy between professional ethnographers and people who seek to use ethnographic inquiry in the search for their work forms an important part of the background of Duff's (2002) research.

They then claim that the moral project that drives the curriculum, the teaching and the analysis is premised on a notion of bounded communities, in which there are insiders, outsiders, and gradations in between as people shift from one community to another. It is a view rooted in the notion of socialization. They add that a major objective for the teacher is universal oral participation in an inclusive classroom community, and thus for the analyst, too. The authors state that for a lot of teachers, community serves as a productive metaphor with which to think about the classroom arenas placed under their command, although they consider important to recognize that schools are mechanisms of socio-economic stratification, that communities are often hierarchic, that community-belonging can be oppressive, and that well-intentioned injunctions to participate in the inclusive classroom community can lead to being experienced as a regime of intrusive multiculturalism.

Rampton et al. (2002) pass on then to deal with CA. They explain that CA originally set out emphasizing the discontinuity between CA methodology and ordinary modes of thought. They state that pure CA researchers have sought to problematize common sense knowledge, turning it into a topic of study itself (Hutchby and Wooffitt 1998; Sacks 1992; Silverman 1999). They then explain that CA addresses empirical data that, at first sight, seem dull or trivial and those data are then de-familiarized through the process of analysis, and this, according to Silverman (1999) entails an 'aesthetic' of 'smallness', 'slowness' and 'anti-romanticism'.

The authors state that in the first stages of analysing a fragment of talk, conversational analysts often undergo a rich and sensitive brainstorming process, and that it is only subsequently, as they move among all the cases gathered together in their collection, that the contextual knowledge relevant to each case is backgrounded, giving priority to the gradual formulation of claims about recurrent structural patterns. They claim that this analytic process is compatible with Moerman's (1988) provisional distinction between 'orderliness', the formal sequential patterning that participants both co-construct and hold one another morally accountable to, and 'meaning', the cultural symbols, categories, and conceptualizations of people, things, and processes that have been the traditional domain of interpretive anthropology. And this in turn leads to the following reconciliation of CA with ethnography: the description, explication and analysis of CA's transcripts require a synthesis of ethnography, with its concern for context, meaning, history and intention, with the exacting techniques that conversation analysis offers for locating culture in situ.

Rampton et al. (2002) describe then the systemic-functional linguistics approach. They explain that SFL has long been associated with the view that different kinds of language description are appropriate for different kinds of purpose (Halliday 1964, 1985) and it has made an important contribution to breaking down the idea that applied linguistics entails the one-way application of core linguistic theory. They state that it is above all a grammar dedicated to the development and use of a functional model of text and language structure, and this has a number of implications for its use in the analysis of classrooms. They add that SFL can tell us about input and the target language, but not much about intake and on-line processing. They explain that empirical analysis focuses much more on language and text production than on reception and understanding, and that in the case of FSL, this is intensified by the explicit adoption of a perspective that is sociological and 'inter-organism' rather than psychological and 'intra-organism'.

Rampton et al. (2002) then claim that while CA is committed to inductive bottom-up discovery procedures, much of SFL analysis relies on categories pre-coded in the analyst's SF grammatical model, and in fact the availability of a ready made coding system leads to quantitative and statistical validation, in which the particularity of specific acts is obscured. These facts mean that SFL is less sensitive to the clues of on-line reception than CA, and thus it actually has

significant implications for its wider concern with socialization as a political process. The authors add that whereas both SFL and associated critical discourse analysis CDA provide a picture of how views of the world are institutionalized in the lexico-grammar of dominant discourses, seeking to recruit people to a particular outlook without their realizing it, they have much less to say about how people receive or resist these ideologies, something that can be done by CA if combined with the purchase on interpretative frameworks provided by ethnography. The authors state that the central claim in SFL is that linguistic structure derives from the functions that language serves in context and that the main tools that SFL offers for analysing situational context are abstract and unwieldy, and so it is often hard to feel confident about operationalizing SFL's three situational dimensions of 'field' (what is going on), 'tenor' (who are taking part) and 'mode' (role assigned to discourse) (Butler 1985: 88). Rampton et al. (2002) imply that to understand the social bases of language structure, it is worth attending closely to the work of linguists using CA and ethnography, adopting an empirically fine-grained approach to interaction and culture, rather than a programmatic one.

They end their discussion by concluding that their overall vision of the three papers is that there is a lot of scope for interaction between the three methods and that they offer more to the analysis of classroom discourse in combination than they do alone.

The last part of the discussion on the special issue by Zuengler and Mori (2002) consists of the second response article by Green and Dixon (2002). They start by stating that in the past four decades, a rich body of traditions has developed and thus has provided opportunities for those engaged in researching language from an applied linguistics framework to select approaches that best address their particular areas of study. However, they also claim that this fact can be seen as problematic in the sense that these choices make it difficult to understand the relevance that those differences have for the development of knowledge about language and other social phenomena within the field. They then state that they view participants in an institutional setting as members of multiple cultural groups who bring linguistic, cultural and social presuppositions (Gumperz 1986) and principles of practice (Frake 1977; Putney et al. 2000; Spradley 1980) with them to any new setting or social group. In order to examine the work of

participants in a particular setting, thus, they start by asking a number of questions that help them to seek an insider's perspective: who can say or do what, about what, in what ways, when, where, under what conditions, to and with whom, for what purposes and with what outcomes. From their Interactional Ethnographic approach (Castanheira et al. 2000), these questions serve as an orienting framework, which enables them to seek an emic perspective that honours the members of a group, rather than judging the actions from an etic or outsider perspective. Therefore, the goal of their work is to examine what members of a group need to know, understand, do produce and predict. Green and Dixon (2002), then, consider the three papers as a single text, and after asking the questions above explained, try to make clear their similarities and differences. They state that each of the research traditions represented was applied to the study of classroom interactions and instruction; each focused on language-in-use; and each involved a comparison of language use in different interactional situations. Nevertheless, the problems studied differed and those differences led to differences on what was collected, how data were selected, ways of analysing that data and the types of claims that were possible. These differences are reflected in the goals of each study both in the orientation of the authors and in the overall goals of the tradition that gives rise to the theories, collection procedures, and analytic approaches used by those authors. They state that in the case of the EC approach, the analysis focused on both micro- and macro-level phenomena. Duff's (2002) macro-level analysis provided contextual information about the community, the school and its goals, political information related to the school populations and the background of the teachers within the school. Thus, these data served to locate the particular teacher and class being studied and, furthermore, the broader ethnographic study from which the data for this paper were selected provides a view of the part-whole relationships within the study. The authors add that, as suggested in Duff's (2002) paper, EC problems of study require analysis of the actual talk among participants, contextual information about the social world in which the discourse occurred, and knowledge of the perceptions and understandings of the participants in the local event. Furthermore, EC, according to Green and Dixon (2002), is concerned with the perceptions and understandings of language-in-use, with the ways in which social practices of language use are consequential for identity formation and display, for knowledge construction in

both the social and academic sense, and for the interactional accomplishment of academic access, personal relationships, and construction of difference in society.

Green and Dixon (2002) then comment on Mori's (2002) paper that applies a CA approach. They claim that she contrasts the planned with the actual discourse and in that way she can construct an argument about levels of communicative competence of the students, not only a description of how the discourse was accomplished and how events are both the project and product of moment-to-moment interactions. Thus, in her paper, the two analyses make up a linked set through which she was able to build a warrant for what is being accomplished, a key requirement of the tradition of CA. They then state that Mori presents in her paper a brief narrative description of classroom tasks the teacher used to provide background for students prior to the guest speaker's entry and they claim that this type of contextual information is not generally part of pure CA studies, yet in this case it was necessary for Mori (2002) to achieve the goal of critique of the task as a site for second language learning, creating in that way what she calls an applied CA approach. Green and Dixon (2002) claim that Mori's (2002) analyses show the value of having authentic voices in the classroom, while raising questions about the claims of authenticity given to simulated tasks.

They continue by describing the paper by Young and Nguyen (2002) where a SFL approach is used. They explain that the authors compare two modes of presenting the same scientific concept: one oral and one printed. They state that their analysis shows that in classrooms there are multiple views of science available to students, and that these views need to be examined in order to understand the opportunities for learning science made available to students. Green and Dixon (2002) claim that the authors, unlike Duff (2002) and Mori (2002), focus only on these two limited texts, omitting any discussion about the broader context in making their warrants about how students were socialized to science discourse. They state that their analysis ignores the intertextual nature of classroom and social life.

Green and Dixon (2002) finally claim that the studies commented on by them show that merely focusing on the language produced or available in one type of text or task is not sufficient to make claims about what counts as language in a class setting, or to identify factors that support and/or constrain participation, language or concept learning, or the social consequences of language-in-use.

Furthermore, the studies, according to them, collectively show that a local, situated view of language, knowledge, and appropriate practice is produced in and through the everyday actions and interactions among members of the class.

After this general overview of the nature of second language classroom discourse, we need to take into consideration some more specific aspects in order to analyse how classroom discourse is constituted.

3.3.1.1. Structure

There is no doubt that classroom discourse presents an identifiable structure.

Bellack et al (1966) developed a cognitive system of analysis to describe what they call the linguistic events of the classroom, in which they were influenced by Wittgenstein's (1958) conception of the rules of speech as a game. Bellack regarded the verbal communication in the classroom as analogous with a game, the rules of which must be known by the participants in order to play. The main elements in his system of analysis were called 'moves'. Lundgren (1972) defined a 'move' as 'an utterance having a certain intention, which means that the one who does the classifying determines when the content changes intention. What is meant by 'content with a certain intention' is shown by the definitions of the four moves'. (Lundgren, 1972, p.233). Bellack and his co-workers distinguished four main moves: two initiating moves (structuring and soliciting) and two reflexive moves (responding and reacting). It would then be possible to classify every verbal activity in the classroom as belonging to one of the four moves. Those four pedagogical moves refer to basic verbal actions and they are classified in terms of the pedagogical functions they perform in classroom discourse. The moves define the unit of analysis. The occurrence of the different moves in the pattern of communication creates 'cycles', defined by Bellack (1966) as a series of pedagogical moves that begins either with a structuring move or with a solicitation that is not preceded by a structuring move and ends with the move that precedes a new structuring or a new unstructured solicitation. The four main pedagogical moves in Bellack's system were defined by him as follows:

1. Structuring (STR) moves, which set the context for subsequent behaviour by either launching or halting-excluding interaction between students and teacher.

2.   Soliciting (SOL) moves, which are designed to elicit a verbal response, a physical response or to encourage persons addressed to attend to something.

3.   Responding (RES) moves, which bear a reciprocal relationship to soliciting moves and occur in relation to them.

4.   Reacting moves (REA) moves, which serve to modify and/or to rate what has been said previously.

Lundgren (1972, 1977) and Gustafsson (1977) have further developed this system. Lundgren (1972) introduced another category which he called 'Individual Help', occurring anytime the teacher talks privately to a student, giving individual guidance for example.

Ribeiro (1981) explains that the analysis of classroom discourse in terms of what teachers and students communicate reveals four functionally different types of meanings:

1.   Substantive meanings referring to the subject matter of the class.

2.   Substantive-logical meanings referring to the cognitive processes involved in dealing with the subject matter, such as defining, interpreting, explaining, fact-stating, giving opinions and justifying.

3.   Instructional meanings involving such matters as assignments, materials, and routine classroom procedures that are part of the instructional process.

4.   Instructional logical meanings referring to distinctively didactic verbal processes (such as those involved in positive and negative rating, explaining procedures and giving directions).

In this way, moves were classified according to the type of cognitive processes inherent in them. Through their classification in terms of moves Bellack et al, according to Ribeiro (1981) succeeded in achieving one of their goals: that of categorizing the pedagogical importance of utterances. By relating those moves to different types of meanings, they also succeeded in achieving a second goal: that of analyzing the content of communication. Bellack et al (1966) constructed their classification system from tape recordings of lessons in high-school classes.

Lundgren (1972) made classroom recordings of lessons involving the same age-level and used Bellack's system with minor modifications. Bellack's categories with some modifications have also been used for analysis of classroom interaction in other studies (Koskenniemi & Komulainen, 1974, Gustafsson, 1977, Lundgren, 1977).

According to Ribeiro (1981), the use of Bellack's system offers a conceptualization of the structure of classroom discourse and shows the regular feature of that discourse. It constitutes a successful model for pointing out patterns in the social and linguistic behaviour of teaching and thus clarifying learning processes, when analyzed together with the demanded cognitive processes. But, as Ribeiro (1981) states, language is used and performs functions and so, in order to clarify the functions of classroom discourse, it is necessary to find the more specific parts of the discourse and their uses in context. Therefore it can be assumed, as Lundgren (1977) states, that the understanding of the functions of language constitutes a basic requisite for the understanding of the cognitive operations conveyed by language, as, according to Halliday (1978), all the linguistic units can be explained in terms of their functions. Classroom discourse constitutes in itself a social setting constrained by the frames, governed by the curriculum and operating through the teaching materials (Lundgren, 1977). In this social setting, roles are previously established. The constant features in these roles could be mainly analyzed through the study of the regularities in pedagogical moves and in the distribution of these moves. When we look at that distribution, we face a situation in which the changes and elaborations of roles are seldom realized and communication becomes routinized and fixed. Pupils must then understand which roles they are expected to play in the concrete classroom setting and which roles are not addressed to them (Gustafsson, 1977). The existence of regularities in the specific social context of classrooms creates the necessity for making a linguistic analysis which incorporates the specific context of the situation (Malinowski, 1930 and Firth, 1957). This leads us to the problem of how to determine and describe the linguistic functions mostly dominating in that context, which is not a new one and has been approached by almost all linguists and even by non-linguistic researchers (Malinowski, 1930; Bühler, 1934; Hjemslev, 1961; Labov, 1966, 1970; Bernstein, 1971, 1975; Halliday, 1973 and Saussure, 1975) within different scientific perspectives.

Halliday (1978) uses 'function' extrinsically, though he admits a relationship between this extrinsic sense and the other notion of function that refers to an element of structure considered as a role in the total structural configuration, since the grammatical functions, in the sense of roles, are derivable from the extrinsic functions of language.

Halliday's model of language functions can in some way be compared to Bühler's (1934) and Malinowski's (1930) propositions. Bühler, however, was more interested in what could be considered as directed towards the way the mind works (psycholinguistics) and Malinowski's functional theory of language is also constructed outside language structure, towards what could be labelled an ethnographic or sociolinguistic direction.

In the adult linguistic system, Halliday (1973) considers the existence of three functions: an 'ideational' function, an 'inter-personal' function and a 'textual' function. In fact these three main functions constitute what Halliday (1978) calls the metafunctions which actually represent the third phase in the development of language from childhood to adulthood. In the origins of this development some functions of language are to be bound in the child's linguistic system. These functions are called: instrumental, regulatory, interactional, personal, heuristic and imaginative. This set of functions in language is actually a set of social functions. The distinction between function and use will be produced through the internalization of the separation between 'pragmatic' uses of language – those which demand a response and represent a way of participating in the situation – and the 'mathetic' uses of language – those which do not demand a response, but rather represent a way of observing and of learning as one observes. These two main uses turn into 'functional components of the linguistic system itself, the interpersonal and the ideational' (Halliday, 1978, p.54).

Using Halliday's work as a basis, Lundgren and Lidén (1977) constructed a system of classification of language models in order to describe the teaching process. It was regarded as important to include models of the teacher's language as well as those of the pupils. The models proposed by Halliday were used, but each of them was divided into various subtypes. Their system was as follows:

Pupil's model

A. INSTRUMENTAL

(I want)

1. <u>NEED FOR HELP.</u> Claims attention so as to get help.

2. <u>REQUEST FOR PERMISSION.</u> Wants permission to do something (sharpen the pencil, etc)

3. <u>REQUEST FOR EXEMPTION.</u> Asks to be spared from doing something.

4. <u>OBJECT WISH.</u> Asks for some objects, for instance a book, a paper, etc.

B. REGULATORY.

  (Behavioural control)

1. <u>IMPLIED RULE.</u> To do what is not allowed.

2. <u>THREAT OR REPRIMAND.</u> If you do such and such this will happen.

3. <u>EMOTIONAL CONTROL.</u> I will be sad (glad, angry, etc) if you do this.

C. INTERACTIONAL

  (You and me)

1. <u>COMPARING.</u> I have done it like this, how have you done it?

2. <u>WISH FOR CO-OPERATION.</u> Can we do this together?

D. PERSONAL

  (Refers to the self)

1. <u>EXPRESSION OF INDIVIDUALITY.</u> I have done (thought, felt, etc) it in this way.

2. <u>EXPRESSION FOR THE STATE OF HEALTH.</u> I have a headache, am tired, etc.

E. HEURISTIC.

  (Refers to the world around)

1. <u>EXPLORING.</u> How could it be like that?

2. <u>INITIATING.</u> If I do it like this, will that be right too?

F. IMAGINATIVE.

(Let us pretend)

1.<u>OPEN ANSWER.</u> Answer to a question from the teacher which is not within the frame of topic dealt with. Might lead to an open dialogue.

G. REPRESENTATIVE.

1.<u>EVIDENT ANSWER.</u> Right or wrong answer to a   teacher'squestion determined by the topic dealt with.

2.<u>TRANSFER OR MESSAGE.</u> Refers to processes, abstractions, persons, objects, quality, states and relation to the real world around.

As for teacher's model, Lundgren's and Lidén's system appears as follows:

Teacher's model

H. REGULATORY.

1. <u>IMPLIED RULE.</u> To do what is not allowed.

2. <u>THREAT OR REPRIMAND.</u> If you do such and such this will happen.

3. <u>EMOTIONAL CONTROL.</u> I will be sad (glad, angry, etc) if you do this.

I. INSTRUCTIONAL.

1.<u>TRANSFER OF MESSAGE.</u> (Cf. pupil's model G2)

2.<u>ADMINISTRATIVE.</u> 'Pick up your books', 'you are now going to work on your own', etc.

J. EVALUATIVE.

1.<u>QUESTION TIED TO THE TOPIC.</u> Requires an evident answer (Cf. pupil's model G1)

2.<u>QUESTION NOT TIED TO THE TOPIC.</u> Requires an open answer (Cf. pupil's model F1)

3.<u>CONFIRMING.</u> Confirms whether a pupil's answer is right or wrong.

K. SOCIAL

1.In communication not linked to the topic dealt with.

The analysis of the functions of classroom discourse is indispensable in order to grasp the meanings which are made real in that discourse. This type of analysis appears even more relevant when the structure of classroom discourse was studied in relation to indications of social and pedagogical roles clearly resulting from that analysis. It is sometimes difficult to separate the functions of language in order to convey a specific classroom analysis. In her study, Ribeiro (1981) maintained the move as the unit of analysis, one function and only one corresponding to one move. She did not apply Lundgren's and Lidén's classification system as a whole by discriminating the analysis of all its variants. The system she used consisted then of the following categories:

Pupil's model

1. INSTRUMENTAL
2. REGULATORY
3. INTERPERSONAL
4. PERSONAL
5. HEURISTIC
6. IMAGINATIVE
7. REPRESENTATIVE
    7.1. Evident answer
    7.2. Transfer of message

Teacher's model

1. REGULATORY
2. INSTRUCTIONAL
    2.1. Transfer of message
    2.2. Administrative
3. EVALUATE
    3.1. Question tied to the topic
    3.2. Question not tied to the topic
    3.3. Confirming/Denying
4. SOCIAL

Ribeiro (1981) continued by saying that teaching is transmission in the sense that Stubbs (1976) explained: "there is a sense in which, in our culture, teaching is talking" (p.12). Ribeiro stated that teaching is a transmission of certain knowledge, of certain values, of social and function abilities to operate in society, of possible ways to find balance between the individual and his general environment. Transmission is mainly done through language, through communication, in society taken in a broader sense, or in specific social and linguistic contexts such as classrooms. Teaching is then talking. However, something must take place, so what is transmitted actually gets acquired and the content is internalized by the acquirer. Thus transmission will be considered problematic every time the situation prevents the acquirer from putting into practice the concepts he/she receives and is supposed to learn: that is the case in the transmission process that is materialized in classroom discourse. The acquisition, in fact, implies not only the possibility of listening to the transmitter, but also of performing the necessary linguistic exchange for the understanding of the content. Mastering concepts and being capable of conceptualizing implies the mastering of coding and decoding the language as conceptualization and that can only be done actively.

We can then state that classroom discourse is governed by strict rules which the participants must know. Teacher and pupils are conscious of their differentiated roles and accept them independently of the specificity of the outer environment. These rules can also be detected in the analysis of distribution of functions in the classroom.

The dominating role of the teacher can be seen in his/her performance as mainly that of the solicitor and structurer of the moves. The dominated role of the pupils can be recognized in their acceptance of a responding role. These facts are confirmed in the distribution of functions in the classroom: the teacher does dominate and language is the main instrument of that domination as he/she is the one who gives instructions and who decides whether or not that instruction has been received and understood, by evaluating the pupils.

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) have developed a hierarchical model in which they distinguish the following "ranks" in the structure of a lesson:

Lesson

Transaction

Exchange

Move

Act

The 'lesson' has a weakly defined structure consisting of 'an unordered series of transactions'. A 'transaction' consists of a 'preliminary', one or more 'medial', and a 'terminal' exchange. 'Teaching exchange' is the most clearly defined element of the structure. It is defined as typically having three phases: an 'initiating', a 'responding', and a 'follow-up' moves. Each move can be realized by different kinds of acts, which are the smallest unit in the discourse system. The system was not developed to account specifically for language lessons, however, as McTear (1975) showed, it fits well. Although we need to take into account a fourth move that McTear identified and that it consists of an additional response after the follow-up move in the IRF exchange.

Some interaction analysis schedules (Fanselow 1977a, Allwright 1980 and Allen, Fröhlich and Spada 1984) attempted to account for the general characteristics of classroom discourse following Sinclair and Coulthard's analysis.

Another author that accounts for the structure of second language classroom discourse is Ramírez in Green and Harker (1988). He claims that classroom language has been considered as an exceedingly constrained form of communication (Stubbs, 1976), with highly structured turn-taking interactional patterns (e.g., Bellack, Hyman, Smith & Kliebard, 1966; Mehan, 1979) between teachers and pupils. He also states that the verbal patterns have been analyzed from various perspectives, including: the nature of teacher-pupil talk with respect to various initiation and response categories (Flanders, 1970); teaching cycles, consisting of four pedagogical moves in which the teacher typically begins by structuring the discussion or soliciting a student's response, followed by a responding reaction by the pupil addressed, and ending with the teacher's reacting to the pupil's answer (Bellack et al., 1966); and a hierarchical system of discourse categories, which classifies the functions of classroom language at different ranks/levels: lesson → transactions → exchanges → moves → acts (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). Ramírez's study used this approach.

He explains that the focus on the functions of utterances within a hierarchical organization of discourse (act → move → exchange) allows for a description of the structure and function of classroom language within a communicative framework. The notions of acts, as used in his work, is different from Austin's illocutionary act (1962), which is an act performed in saying something, or Searle's speech acts (1969, 1975) defined in terms of regulative and constitutive rules (e.g., conditions which govern the listener's interpretation of a particular utterance with a particular form). Acts, as used in his work, are defined principally by the function they serve in the discourse sequences. The teacher can "follow-up" on a pupil's "answer", evaluating the quality of the response in a number of ways – praise, comment, correct. Ramírez claims that the discourse system of analysis developed by Sinclair and Coulthard has been adapted and utilized by various researchers to examine different types of classroom language settings. Kluwin (1977) analyzed the discourse patterns of English classrooms, focusing on the major functions of inform, elicit and direct, which form the opening moves of exchanges and determine the type of exchange sequence. He segmented moves syntagmatically into starters, pre-heads, heads, post-heads, and selects, thus allowing for a more detailed description of discourse variation within a speaker's turn. This type of analysis permits a description of how a teacher "frames" information. Kluwin (1977) noted that the more experienced teachers tended to mark both the start and closing of their informative and elicitation exchanges more than beginning teachers. Therefore, this approach also seems to permit the evaluation of subtle differences in teaching styles.

Hernández (1981) utilized three levels (exchange, move and act) from Sinclair-Coulthard's model to describe the interaction between teachers and pupils during a series of English-as-a-Second Language lessons in eight bilingual elementary classrooms. She developed specific discourse categories to account for the special uses of language – different types of acts (repeat, reinforce) and subcategorization of major functions (informatives – structuring and explaining; elicitation – modelling, questioning, and commanding). At the level of acts, she found that the use of specific language functions was highly consistent and stable for individual teachers, enabling a classification of teachers according to the use of a specific pattern of acts. "High" achieving teachers did more explaining, questioning, commanding, and provided more feedback and reinforcement than

"low" teachers, who relied more on modelling and promoted more pupil "repeats".

Politzer, Ramírez, and Lewis (1981) studied the functions of language used by "high" and "low" achieving teachers during the teaching of standard English to black schoolchildren in third grade classrooms. Six major functions (eliciting, directing, informing, replying, evaluating, and expressing affective commentary) were used to classify all the utterances from twenty lessons. The focus of the analysis was at the level of pedagogical acts within the move category. By specifying the use of acts within the content and goals of the lesson, it was possible to differentiate between effective and ineffective teachers. "Low" achieving teachers spent a disproportionate amount of lesson time attempting to clarify (informing) the concept of negation while teaching the rules of negation in standard English.

Ramírez in Green and Harker (1988) then explained that the major purpose of his study was to describe 36 language lessons using the discourse categories of exchanges, moves and acts. He identified differences in the use of these three categories, particularly the type of speech acts, over time (a 5-month period) and across six teachers. He analyzed the language used during the teaching of language arts lessons in terms of three levels of discourse included in Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) system. The levels include the exchange category, the move category, and the act category. The exchange is the minimal unit of interaction involving two or more participants: a turn-taking interactional sequence, usually consisting of a teacher initiation, its corresponding pupil response, and a subsequent teacher reaction. The move is the contribution of one participant to an interactive exchange. The structure consists of three classes of moves: opening move, initiatory, serving to convey information or solicit a verbal or nonverbal response; answering move, occurring in relation to opening moves; and a follow-up move, serving to accept, modify or evaluate the previous speaker's contribution. According to him, the act is the smallest identifiable unit of discourse behaviour within the move category, often in the form of an independent clause and serving a specific linguistic function – question, request, acknowledge, praise, correct. He then explains that each speech act category was based on the inferred communicative intent of the participant and described in relation to its linguistic function and grammatical realization.

Ramírez states that, for the most part, these category labels will be familiar to sociolinguists and classroom researchers, but a few terms may deserve clarification. The distinction between real and pseudo questions is common in sociolinguistic studies: 'real' questions are those to which the teacher does not know the answer and 'pseudo' questions are those to which the teacher does know the answer. His system distinguishes between 'participant' and 'nonparticipant' informatives, replies, and reacts in order to examine how much of the language in the classrooms studied involved personal experience and opinion (participant), as opposed to impersonal or abstract information (nonparticipant). The distinction between 'reply' and 'react' was based on the type of teacher speech act that immediately preceded the pupil's follow-up move. A pupil reply followed a teacher question. A pupil react followed a teacher directive. Thus, if a teacher called on a pupil after asking a question, the pupil response was coded as a 'react', and the teacher nomination was coded as a directive. He also explains the meaning of 'meta statement': a statement which informs about the structure or organization of the lesson, and/or indicates 'where we are' in relation to that structure at a given point in time. In order to account for differences in the length of speech acts, Ramírez described each act in terms of the number of T-units (terminal units, defined as one main clause plus any subordinate clause or nonclausal structure attached to it – equivalent to a simple or complex sentence; a compound sentence would be regarded as composed of two or more T-units – Hunt, 1965).

Ramírez concluded that the speech act, from the point of view of language function, appears to be a useful linguistic category for describing classroom language in relation to other discourse categories – moves, exchanges, and transactions. A speech act perspective, according to him, offers the possibility of relating language forms to language functions and so the approach can be used productively to capture the specific discourse features of different types of classroom language as well as differences between teachers.

Tsui (1994) also considers the study of the structure of conversation, in general, and of the second language classroom, in particular, from the point of view of Sinclair and Coulthard's descriptive framework.

She states that in order to make any descriptive statements about a piece of conversation, it is necessary to decide how we are going to break it into

meaningful units. She adds that it is important that the labels we use must be well-defined, explicitly relatable to data, and replicable (Firth, 1935; Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975). She claims that the descriptive units that Conversation Analysts have been using in describing conversational organization are: turn, pair, and sequence. A turn is seen as everything one speaker says before another speaker begins to speak (Sacks et al. 1974). A pair is made up of two turns made by two different speakers. It has been referred to as an adjacency pair (Schegloff and Sacks, 1973). A sequence is made up of more than one turn.

Turn and pair are well-defined in the sense that they are identifiable, although there are some difficulties: when the descriptive unit turn is applied to conversational data, some problems appear. Sometimes there are two units within one turn. As Goffman (1981) points out, the talk during an entire turn can't be used for a unit of analysis for one of the main patterns for chaining rounds is the one in which whoever answers a question goes on from there to provide the next question in the series, thereby consolidating during one turn at talk two relevantly different doings.

While a great portion of most conversations are analysable in terms of pairs, there are certain contributing elements which are not part of a pair. Sequence is the least well-defined descriptive unit. Sometimes a sequence is actually a pair, at other times it is made up of three or four turns. Schegloff's (1972) example of an insertion sequence is a pair. However, Jefferson's (1972) proposal of a side sequence which she considers to be different from Schegloff's insertion sequence is made up of more than an adjacency pair. The fact that sequence is not well-defined and that it overlaps with pairs undermines to a considerable extent its validity as a descriptive unit of conversational organization.

Tsui (1994) then claims that Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) proposed a descriptive framework for analysing spoken discourse, using classroom data as a starting point. They borrowed the concept of rank scale from Halliday's (1961) descriptive units at the grammatical level: act, move, exchange, transaction, and lesson. Tsui (1994) borrows the descriptive units act, move and exchange, and thus, she gives an account of those three units in Sinclair and Coulthard's descriptive framework. A typical classroom exchange is made up of three moves: an initiating move from the teacher, a responding move from the pupil, and a follow-up move from the teacher. A move is the smallest free unit of discourse

and is made up of one or more than one act. She states that the concept of act as proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard is different from the concept of act proposed in Speech Act Theory (Austin, 1962). In Speech Act Theory, an act refers to the action that is performed in making an utterance. Utterances are taken in isolation and the kind of speech act being performed is determined by considerations like the meaning conveyed by the words and the structures of utterances, the psychological conditions of the speaker, and so forth. No consideration is given to the discourse context in which the utterance occurs. In Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), act is a unit of discourse and it is characterized according to its function in the discourse. Acts are characterized in terms of how they are related to each other in the discourse rather than the kind of function they are independently used to perform. She refers to speech acts as discourse acts in order to avoid confusion. She then claims that it can appear that a move is no different from a turn, and that it is equally valid to say that a typical classroom exchange is made up of three turns. However, within the same turn made by one speaker, there can be two moves. In fact, Sinclair and Coulthard decided to abandon utterance as a descriptive unit and proposed the unit move.

She explains next that conversations proceed in an organized manner. An utterance made by one speaker is responded to by another utterance from another speaker. And when the expected response is not forthcoming, interlocutors often give an account of why it is not forthcoming. This kind of conversational organization is clearly captured by Schegloff and Sacks's concept of adjacency pair. They point out that an organizational pattern recurrent in conversation is that of two adjacent utterances, which are produced by different speakers, and are related to each other in such a way that they form a pair type, which they call adjacency pair (e.g. question-answer, greeting-greeting, offer-acceptance/refusal). Their basic rule of operation is: "Given the recognizable production of a first pair part, on its first possible completion its first speaker should stop and a next speaker should start and produce a second pair part from the pair type of which the first is recognizably a member." (Schegloff and Sacks,1973: 296). Hence, according to Schegloff and Sacks, utterances are related to form pair types so that a particular first pair part sets up the expectation of a particular second pair part, and each of the latter forms a pair type with the former. This expectation is so

strong that if the second pair part does not occur, its absence will be noticeable and noticed by participants.

Tsui (1994) reported that according to Sinclair and Coulthard, a typical classroom exchange is made up of three moves: an initiating move, a responding move, and a follow-up move. In formalizing their observation of the pattern exhibited in an exchange, they, according to Tsui (1994), borrowed the concept of structure from Halliday (1961) which accounts for similar patterns between one stretch of language and another. They propose that a typical exchange has three elements of structure: an initiation, a response, and a follow-up. An exchange which consists of two parts, or two elements of structure, is perceived as the marked form in which the third part is withheld for strategic reasons. An example would be when a student gives the wrong answer and the teacher withholds the evaluation and goes on to provide clues in order to help the student reach the right answer. She explains that the concept of exchange structure, similar to the concept of adjacency pair, captures the relationship between utterances in which one component sets up the expectation for another. It differs from an adjacency pair in that it proposes that a unit of interaction consists of three parts rather than two.

Finally, Tsui (1994) claims that a move can be made up of more than one act. According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), when a move consists of more than one act, then one of the acts is the main act (which they call head act) and it carries the discourse function of the entire move. It is obligatory, whereas the rest are auxiliary or subsidiary acts (which they call pre-head act if they precede the head act, or post-head act if they follow the head act).

3.3.1.2. Types of language use

Other researchers have tried to describe classroom interaction by means of identifying the different types of language use or interaction found in L2 classes. Allwright (1980) identifies three basic elements:

1 *Samples*, or instances of the target language, in isolation or in use

2 *Guidance*, or instances of communication concerning the nature of the target language

3 *Management activities*, aimed at ensuring the occurrence of samples and guidance

McTear (1975), bases his theory on the distinction between interaction where the focus is the code itself and interaction which centres on genuine meaning exchange, and identifies four types of language:

1 Mechanical: no exchange of meaning is involved

2 Meaningful: meaning is contextualized but there is still no information conveyed

3 Pseudo-communicative: new information is conveyed but in a manner that is unlikely to appear in natural discourse

4 Real communication: spontaneous speech that results from the exchange of opinions, classroom management, etc.

Ellis (1984a) distinguished "goal", the general purpose of an interaction, and "address", who talks to whom. He specified three goals:

1 Core goals, where the focus is on the language itself, that is, on the *medium*, on some other content, or *message*, or on some ongoing activity (*activity*).

2 Framework goals, which are associated with the organization and management of classroom events

3 Social goals

After studying some interactional sequences taken from a ESL classroom in Britain, he pointed out that interactional events with core goals are likely to restrict learners to a responding role, while with framework and social goals they have more opportunities to initiate the discourse and to perform a wider range of language functions.

Van Lier (1982; 1988) distinguishes four basic types of classroom interaction depending on whether the teacher controls the topic and the activity, being the topic that what is talked about and the activity the way in which the topic is talked about:

- type 1: the teacher controls neither the topic nor the activity

- type 2: the teacher controls the topic but not the activity

- type 3: involves teacher control of both topic and activity

- type 4: the teacher controls the activity but not the topic

These broad frameworks were developed from an ethnographic approach to language classrooms, and, therefore, were not intended to serve as a scheme for coding linguistic behaviour. They provide a key to understanding classroom

interaction and allow to observe how this can affect learning, but they do not give precise quantification in order for them to be used in experimental or correlational research.

3.3.1.3. Turn taking

This is an aspect that has received considerable attention, mainly because it serves as a marked difference from conversational discourse. Turn taking refers to the systematic rules that govern how the rules of speaker and listener change (Coulthard, 1977).

Sacks et al. (1974) identified a number of rules in American English conversation (i.e. one speaker speaks at a time, a speaker can select the next speaker by nominating or performing the first part of an adjacency pair, the speaker can allow the next speaker to self-select, and there is usually competition to take the next turn).

Researchers often highlight the differences between turn-taking in natural and in classroom settings (McHoul 1978 and Sinclair and Brazil 1982). Classroom discourse is usually organized so that there is a need to maintain centralized attention, generally directed at the teacher, the content of the lesson is pre-planned, the actual sequence of utterances may be predetermined and the concern to keep the pre-established topic inhibits small talk. These factors generally lead to a specific pattern of turn-taking in which there is strict allocation of turns: who speaks to whom at what time is strictly controlled. Negotiation is not favoured and individual learning initiative is not encouraged.

Lörscher (1986) is one of the authors that dealt with the study of classroom turn-taking in comparison to that of natural discourse. He states a series of classroom discourse structures and explains that these reflect the need for the communication participants to effect successful and economical pedagogical outcomes. They are determined by the nature of the school as a public institution and the nature of the teaching-learning process itself.

However, as Van Lier (1988) states, it is not always the case that this kind of controlled pedagogic turn-taking scheme inhibits learners volunteer participation, since he found instances in which the learners did self-select and he also found occurrences of talk that deviated from the predetermined plan. This is

partly influenced by the teacher's perception of his/her role. If the teacher sees him/herself as a "knower" passing down L2 knowledge to the learners, the turn-taking will be tightly controlled, whereas if he/she considers him/herself to be a "mediator" through whom learners are directed L2 acquisition, then turn-taking will be negotiated.

Other authors that discuss about the aspect of turn taking are Nassaji and Wells (2000). They state that the fact that spoken texts of classroom interaction – particularly those involving the teacher with the whole class – are co-constructed relatively smoothing, despite the number of participants involved, suggests that they are organized in terms of standard strategies, embodied in typical forms of discourse that have evolved for responding to recurring types of rhetorical situation (Miller, 1984; Kamberelis, 1995). Thus, like written texts, they can be thought of as being constructed according to one of a set of educational genre specifications. They continue by explaining that Bakhtin (1986) pointed out that all utterances respond to what has preceded and anticipate a further response. They agree with this claim, but they explain that it is also the case that in speech many utterances tend to be more oriented either to what preceded or to what will follow, as it is the case with the relationship that holds between the members of an adjacency pair. On the other hand, as they claim, not all the conversational exchanges are limited to two moves, and many are much longer, due to two main reasons. First, as Halliday (1984) argued, there are two basic exchange types: (1) demand – give-in-response and (2) give (unsolicited) – accept. However, a third equally basic type is frequently created by the combination of the first two: (3) demand – give-in-response – accept. Where information is the 'commodity' exchanged, this gives rise to the three-move exchange structure: Question – Answer – Acknowledgement (Halliday, 1984). This exchange structure is frequently found in everyday conversation. Although this structure does occur in classrooms, it is not as prevalent as a rather different three-move exchange type, in which the third move does not acknowledge the given information, but makes a substantive reaction to it. In this structure, however, only one participant typically initiates the exchange: the teacher; and the teacher always has the right to provide the third move, often by evaluating the student's contribution for its conformity to what he or she considers to be a correct or acceptable response.

These differential rights to moves in the exchange have often be discussed in terms of the power differential between teachers and students (Lemke, 1990), and there is no doubt that it is certainly a likely consequence, if not the primary reason, for the participants' unequal behaviour. Berry (1981) proposed an alternative explanation that does not appeal to power and it is applicable in settings other than classrooms. Berry (1981) makes a critical distinction between the primary and the secondary knower and, on that basis, is able to provide a discursively principled explanation of the difference between the two types of structure. In both of them, two important discourse roles are involved: the initiator of the exchange and the primary knower with respect to the information at issue. When the two roles do not coincide, as in the case of the first type of structure, the primary knower's critical contribution is made in the second, responding move, and the questioner's acceptance in the third move adds nothing to the information being exchanged. However, in the classroom structure, the teacher is both the initiator and the primary knower and, as a result, it is only when she confirms or disconfirms the student's response that the exchange of information can be considered as complete.

Berry's argument also explains the second reason for a continuation of many exchanges beyond two moves. If the exchange is not completed to the participant's satisfaction for whatever reason, they can use a variety of bound exchanges to rectify the problem. That is why Wells (1996) argues for recognizing a larger unit, the sequence, as the basic unit of conversation. A sequence, according to him, consists of a nuclear exchange and as many bound exchanges as are judged necessary by the participants to complete what was initiated in the nuclear exchange. There are bound exchanges of three kinds: preparatory exchanges are used to establish communication or to select a designated speaker; embedded exchanges are used to confirm uptake or to repair various types of breakdown; and dependent exchanges are used to give or seek additional information or justification for the information already supplied. In casual conversations either participant can initiate a bound exchange at any point and so sequences can extend over many exchanges (Eggins and Slade, 1997).

In the classroom, the dominant role of interaction is not casual conversation, as most talk between teacher and students has a pedagogical purpose. In the particular case of teacher – whole-class interaction, it is almost always teachers

who initiate sequences and they also tend to initiate most bound exchanges. Nassaji and Wells (2000) suspect that this is because, in the classroom, in addition to the role of primary knower, there is another important role to be filled, which is independent of the particular information under discussion. In a group of 30 or more people, it is necessary for somebody to ensure that the discussion proceeds in an orderly manner and that all participants contribute to, and benefit from, the co-construction of knowledge that is the purpose of the discourse (Dewey, 1938; Peters, 1966; Rogoff, 1994). Whatever name we give to this role – manager or facilitator – it is part of the teacher's responsibility to ensure that it is enacted, and most of the times teachers take it upon themselves to do so. Whether or not they are the primary knowers, then, they nearly always assume the role of manager and it is often in this role that they ask for clarifications and justifications. In the same role, they may also extend sequences by offering meta-comments of various kinds on the quality or organization of the discourse. It is also noticeable that, even when students initiate a sequence, the teacher very often provides a response that, in function, is similar to the third, follow-up move of the three-move exchange or triadic dialogue (Lemke, 1990), which will be dealt with in the next point.

3.3.1.4. Exchange analysis

This is a very important topic for the study in which we are engaged as it reveals the way of functioning of classroom discourse. Many authors have dealt with it due to its importance. Here we offer a brief review of some of the most important considerations on this matter that some authors have offered.

Tsui (1994) stated that the basic unit of organization of classroom discourse is a three-part exchange. She mentioned that this organizational unit has been considered by some as peculiar to the classroom and that it cannot be generalized to non-classroom discourse. It has been suggested that non-classroom discourse is organized in terms of two-part adjacency pairs (Burton, 1981) or two-part exchanges with an optional third part (Coulthard and Brazil, 1981). Tsui (1994) argued that a three-part exchange is more powerful as a description of the basic unit of conversational organization than an adjacency pair. She claimed that 'ritual interchanges' (Goffman, 1967) can be frequently found in examples of conversational data and are typically three-part. Goffman noted: "A response will

on occasion leave matters in a ritually unsatisfactory state, and a turn by the initial speaker will be required, encouraged, or at least allowed, resulting in a three interchange; or chains of adjacency pairs will occur (albeit typically with one, two, or three such couplets), the chain itself having a unitary, bounded character." (Goffman,1981: 23). Tsui (1994) stated that not only are ritual interchanges made up of three parts, so are non-ritual interchanges. Mishler (1975), in a study of the structure of natural conversation in first-grade classrooms, made the following observation: a basic unit of conversation is a three-part unit which is a sequence of three successive utterances initiated by an utterance, including a question, from the first speaker, followed by a response from the second speaker, and terminated by a further utterance from the first speaker. He pointed out that the question-answer sequence, which is widely accepted as an appropriate and coherent unit of communication, may be applicable to testing and interview situations, but is totally inapplicable in 'more "open" natural conversations' (Mishler, 1975: 33). He argued that just as a question 'demands' a response, a response also 'demands' a further response from the questioner. This further response, according to him, is 'a "sign" on the part of the questioner that his question has received a response, adequate or inadequate, appropriate or inappropriate' (ibid.: 32). Due to all these arguments, Goffman noted: "Bringing together these various arguments about the admixture of spoken and non-linguistic moves, we can begin to see how misleading the notion of adjacency pair and ritual interchange may be as basic units of interactions". (Goffman, 1981: 48).

Tsui (1994) stated that Burton (1981) considered three-part exchanges highly classroom-specific because, according to her, the follow-up move hardly occurs outside the classroom and maintained that if a follow-up move does occur in casual conversation, it will be a sarcastic device. Tsui (1994) agreed with Burton (1981) and claimed that exchanges like the ones referred to above are atypical in conversation. People do not usually ask questions to which they already know the answer. And if they did, the follow-up move would be produced to achieve certain effects, as in the example provided in Coulthard and Brazil (1981: 90):

I **Mother:** Have you brushed your teeth yet?

R **Child:** Yes.

F **Mother:** No you haven't.

In this exchange, the follow-up move is produced to show that the responder is lying.

Tsui (1994) then explained that in casual conversation, sometimes the third move is not used to evaluate the correctness of the reply, but to indicate that the other speaker's response has been received. Berry (1981) tried to account for both kinds of exchanges by suggesting that in certain types of non-classroom exchange, the follow-up move is obligatory, whereas in others it is optional. She proposed that the distinguishing criterion is which of the two interlocutors is the primary knower. According to Berry (1981), the follow-up move is obligatory because the questioner is the primary knower and thus a follow-up move to evaluate or confer the correctness of the response provided is necessary. In cases where the questioner is the secondary knower, however, there is no need, or he is not in the position, to evaluate or confer the correctness of the response. The correctness of the information provided in the response is already conferred by the second speaker who is the primary knower. Therefore, the follow-up move is optional.

Tsui (1994) stated that Heritage's (1984) study of the conversational particle 'oh' made similar observations about the state of knowledge of the interlocutors. However, he did not share Berry's conclusion that the third move is optional. He suggested that in this type of conversational sequences, 'oh' is used to indicate that the information delivered in the preceding move has been received and that a change of the state of knowledge of the questioner has taken place; he labelled it an 'oh'-receipt token. He pointed out that the questioner, upon receiving the requested information, is, in fact, committed to produce an 'oh'-receipt to indicate that he, a previously uninformed party, is now informed. This is evidenced by the fact that in his study, a substantial number of 'oh'-receipts occur early; they are often either latched onto, or slightly overlap with, the answers provided, and they are rarely delayed longer than a micro-pause (Heritage, 1984: 309, 339). In other words, a follow-up move in this kind of exchange is by no means optional.

Therefore, as Tsui (1994) pointed out, there is no consensus with regard to whether conversation is basically organized in terms of two-part adjacency pairs or three-part exchanges. The answer to this question hinges on how the function of the follow-up move is perceived.

From the above debate, it seems apparent that the function of the follow-up move is perceived by some as solely evaluative (e.g. Berry, 1981; Burton, 1981;

Coulthard and Brazil, 1981). Tsui (1994) claimed that, if providing an evaluation of the correctness of information supplied in the response were indeed the only function of this third move, then she would agree with Burton's observation that it seldom occurs outside the classroom. She would also agree with Berry (1981, 1987), and Coulthard and Brazil (1981) that the third move is optional in speech events other than quizzes or puzzle-solving sessions. However, according to her, Heritage's study of 'oh'-receipt tokens supports the observation that providing an evaluation is not the only function of the follow-up move. She stated that this has also been noted by Mehan (1979:194) who maintains that the third component in a three-part sequence which occurs in classroom discourse is different from that which occurs in everyday conversations: he points out that in everyday conversation the third move seems to be an acknowledgement of the previous reply, whereas in the classroom context, the third component evaluates the content of the response.

She also claims that Berry (1987: 47), on examining three-move exchanges in doctor-patient interviews, revises her initial position, and asserts that third moves of these exchanges are usually different in character from those of classroom exchanges: they do not have an evaluative function. Berry (1987: 84) comments: 'And intuitively, one feels that they are not so much commenting on the quality of the patient's reply as acts of noting and/or reinterpreting the reply for the doctor's own benefit.'

Tsui (1994) then states that the follow-up move clearly has functions other than making an evaluation of the response. Thus, an investigation into what these functions are will follow and this will help us demonstrate that is an important element in conversational organization.

The first important point is a consideration of the pragmatic motivation for the follow-up move. Conversation is an interactive process, during which the meaning and illocutionary force of utterances are negotiated between the speaker and the addressee, not an interchange of utterances with speaker-determined illocutionary forces (Franck, 1981, 226). Therefore the initiating utterance produced by the speaker is subjected to the interpretation of the addressee who displays his/her interpretation in the response. Nevertheless, the interaction does not stop there. The addressee might need to know whether the speaker has understood his/her response, whether the response is acceptable, and whether the

addressee has correctly interpreted the speaker's utterance. This might require a further contribution from the speaker (Tsui, 1987a; 1987c; Mishler, 1975). Hence, just as Schegloff and Sacks (1973) argued that a second part is necessary to show that the addressee understood correctly the first part and to let the speaker know whether the first pair part was accepted or not, Tsui (1994) argued that third move is likely for the same reason: to let the addressee know that the speaker has understood the addressee's response, that he/she has provided an acceptable response, and that the interaction has been felicitous. She supported her argument with an example:

[Labov, 1972: 123]

Linus: Do you want to play with me Violet?

Violet: You're younger than me. (*Shuts the door*)

Linus: [*puzzled*] She didn't answer my question.

Here, Violet's response is a way of saying 'no' to Linus's question. She assumes that Linus will be able to interpret her response as a version of 'no' on the basis of the shared knowledge among children that big girls don't play with little boys. It is only when Linus produces a comment on her response that we know her assumption is wrong: he fails to see the relevance of her response. If Violet had waited for Linus's reaction (instead of shutting the door), she would have known that, in fact, the interaction had been infelicitous because Linus did not have the shared knowledge and thus her response had not been understood. Another possible interpretation is that Linus does understand her response. Nevertheless, by pretending not to see the relevance of her response, he is implying that he does not share her opinion about big girls who don't play with little boys and hence does not find her response acceptable. In both interpretations, the effect of Linus's utterance is to indicate the interaction has not been felicitous.

As Tsui (1994) stated, from this example, we can see that the follow-up move is a very important element of an exchange, not only in classroom discourse, but in conversation as well. It is the element on which further interaction is based. It has a general function of acknowledging the outcome of the interaction that has taken place in the initiating and the responding moves. As Heritage and Atkinson (1984: 10) observed: 'Any third action, therefore, that implements some normal onward development of a sequence confirms the

adequacy of the displayed understandings in the sequence so far. By means of this framework, speakers are released from what would otherwise be the endless task of explicitly confirming and reconfirming their understanding of one another's action.'

In other words, according to Tsui (1994), a three-part exchange is the basic unit of organization in conversation. The three moves are related to each other in such a way that each move sets up the expectation of the subsequent move. However, this does not mean that in all conversational exchanges, the three moves actually occur, but rather that whatever occurs will be interpreted in the light of this expectation. As Berry (1981: 38) points out: 'A rule such *A predicts B* is not to be taken as a claim that A alway*s will* be followed by B; it is a claim that A will always be *expected* to be followed by B and that whatever does follow A will be interpreted in the light of this expectation.'

Thus, when the third move does not occur, we may say, following Sacks (1972: 341), that it is absent. Nevertheless, as Sacks pointed out, in order to show that the absence of something is not trivial, that its absence is not just one among a host of other things that might equally be said to be absent, we need to show its *relevance of occurrence*: 'Nontrivial talk of absence requires that some means be available for showing both the relevance of occurrence of the activity that is proposedly absent and the location where it should be looked for to see that it did not occur.' (ibid: 342).

The relevance of occurrence of the follow-up move is an important point offered by Tsui (1994) in relation to the organization of discourse is. She states that in a classroom exchange, as Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) pointed out, when the follow-up move is not found after an initiating move and a responding move have occurred, one is confident that it has been withheld by the teacher for some strategic purpose. The absence of evaluation of the pupil's response and its postponing until the pupil produces a correct answer could be seen as deliberate withholding by the teacher in order to avoid giving an explicit negative evaluation. Teachers who do not want to discourage pupils from answering questions often use this strategy. The absence of the follow-up move implies that the answer is incorrect, hence implying a negative evaluation. She also states that just as we can account for the relevance of occurrence of the follow-up move in classroom exchanges, so we can in non-classroom exchanges.

Tsui (1994) concludes by saying that the follow-up move, the third component part of an exchange, is an important element in conversational interaction whose function is endorsing the felicitous outcome of the interaction and whose occurrence is pragmatically motivated. She adds that when the follow-up move does not occur, it is often perceived by participants to be deliberately withheld for social or strategic reasons and thus this suggests that a potentially three-part exchange which may contain non-verbal component parts, is a more powerful description of a basic unit of conversational organization than an adjacency pair. Nevertheless, whereas a potentially three-part exchange is the basic organizational unit, it is possible for exchanges to consist of more than three parts: this occurs when, following a follow-up move, the next speaker produces a further response to it. We could say this, in other words, by applying Halliday's concept of structure and state that conversation is organized in terms of exchanges which have three elements of structure, an initiation, a response, and a follow-up which is optionally recursive.

Nassaji and Wells (2000) claim that the spoken texts of classroom interaction have a rhetorical structure: what they call the ubiquitous triadic dialogue (Lemke, 1990). They explain that the same basic IRF structure can take a variety of forms and be recruited by teachers for a wide variety of functions, depending on the goal of the activity that the discourse serves to mediate and, particularly, on the use that is made of the follow-up move.

The authors state that in much of the discussion of triadic dialogue, it has been assumed that the prototypical function of the follow-up move is to evaluate the student response that immediately precedes. Indeed in Mehan's (1979) study, this three-part structure was labelled Initiate – Respond – Evaluate (IRE). Nevertheless, there is much wider range of options available to teachers in the third move. That is why Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) dubbed the third move Feedback, subsequently changed to Follow-up, and proposed three categories of act that can occur in this slot. They are accept (including reject), evaluate and comment, with the latter category expanded to include the sub-categories of exemplify, expand, and justify. Nassaji and Wells (2000) claim that, instead of negatively evaluating a student's response or providing the required information in a comment, the teacher can equally ask a further question to the previous speaker, or any other student, in order to obtain a more adequate answer. When

this is preffered, the teacher once again has the same range of options available for making a further follow-up move. In this way, the initiating question of a nuclear exchange can give rise to a number of dependent exchanges that ultimately lead to a satisfactory completion of the sequence. Mehan (1979) referred to such extended sequences as topically related sets.

Nassaji and Wells (2000) state that there is still a further possibility. Where the teacher has the role of primary knower, there is a strong expectation that he or she will give the stamp of approval to the contribution that the secondary knower makes in the second move. On the other hand, if it is the student who is the primary knower, or if no participant lays claim to this role, there is no requirement for the teacher to perform an evaluating function in the third move. Instead, she or he can add a comment that extends the discussion or ask a question that invites a student to do so. The effect of adopting this strategy, in particular, is to cast the responder in the role of primary knower and thereby to create a more equal mode of participation. At the same time, by posing questions that solicit the students' opinions and conjectures, the teacher can encourage a more dialogic and exploratory stance to the topic under consideration (Mercer, 1995; Nystrand, 1997; Rogoff, 1994; Wegerif and Mercer, 1997).

3.3.1.5.   Differences between classroom and naturalistic discourse.

As stated before, Edmonson's "teacher's paradox" points out the tension between discourse that is appropriate to pedagogic goals and that which is appropriate to pedagogic settings.

Instructional discourse will appear when the teacher and the students act out institutional roles, the tasks are controlled by the teacher and are concerned with the transmission and reception of information; there is a focus on knowledge as a product. On the other hand, natural discourse will be characterized by roles which are not so strict, tasks that encourage equality of participation in the negotiation of meaning and the focus is on the interactional process itself.

Studies in this respect include:

- Gremmo, Holec, and Riley (1977; 1978) researchers at CRAPEL, argued that in the classroom setting, discourse rights are invested in the teacher,

and so, the teacher's control over the discourse is the main reason for the prevalence of pedagogic discourse.

- Politzer, Ramírez, and Lewis (1981) explained the limited nature of opportunities for the learners to participate in the classroom as they showed that 90 per cent of all student moves were responses.

- Enright (1984), on the other hand, has shown that there can be considerable variation depending on the classrooms.

- Pica and Long (1986) studied elementary ESL classrooms in Philadelphia and concluded that, in comparison to native speaker-non-native speaker conversations, there was very little negotiation of meaning.

3.3.2. Teacher talk.

Teacher talk is one aspect of interaction that has been extensively studied within L2 classroom research. Chaudron (1988) provides a survey of different studies concerning this topic. Research shows that teachers usually modify their speech when they address L2 learners in a classroom in different ways and that they are sensitive to their students' proficiency level. These modifications are many times similar to those of foreigner talk, although with the specific characteristics that the context of the classroom conveys. Nevertheless, Chaudron states that there is not enough justification in those particular characteristics to consider teacher talk as a distinct sociolinguistic register.

Flanigan (1991) studied tutor talk, that is, the talk addressed by classroom learners to other less proficient learners in the context of peer tutoring. Her study involved pairs of non-native speaker elementary school children, in which the more linguistically competent child was asked to help the less competent to use a computer in a graded reading and listening "station". The results were that there was little negotiation of meaning, as the less proficient child did not have the ability to respond. But, it was observed that the more proficient child used the same strategies that the teacher uses in the classroom, namely: repetitions, expansions, explanations, rephrased questions, and comprehension checks.

Osborne (1999) claimed that the differences in teacher-talk as compared to a typical sociolinguistic domain are not systematic or widespread enough and tend

to disappear as the class advances. She offers Chaudron's (1988) list of some of the typical modifications:

Phonological:

- exaggerated articulation
- extended pauses
- slower rate of speech
- less reduction of vowels and consonant clusters
- louder delivery
- more standard "literary" pronunciation

Lexis:

- more basic vocabulary
- fewer colloquial expressions
- fewer indefinite pronouns
- fewer contractions
- stylistically neutral

Syntactic:

- fewer subordinate clauses
- fewer words per clause
- shorter length of utterance
- higher proportion of simple present tense
- higher proportion of well-formed sentences
- delivery rate one-half to one-third slower

Discourse:

- more first person reference
- fewer functions per time unit
- more teacher-initiated moves
- more conversational frames
- more self-repetitions
- more verbalization per function

To sum up, according to Osborne (1999), the speech that teachers use with their students is shorter, simpler, and more carefully pronounced than typical speech.

She adds that in the large number of studies devoted to the description and analysis of teacher-talk, only two characteristics of it have been investigated as to

their efficacy: rate of speech and syntactic complexity. She restricts to the former and claims that Dahl (1981) investigated the relationship between rate of speech and comprehensibility. All of the subjects of the study judged that the more comprehensible messages were those delivered more slowly. However, these judgements did not correlate with the actual measured rate of delivery. Dahl (1981) concluded that other factors such as the conciseness of information and the clarity of articulation (both linked to the perceived rate of speech) may have played a part in the students' judgements.

Osborne (1999) describes Kelch's (1985) study which also addressed the question of whether slowing speech enhanced comprehensibility. University students who were nonnative speakers of English were given dictations at varying speeds. The results showed that the students performed substantially better when the rate of delivery was slowed from about 200 words per minute (normal speech) to 130 words per minute, which is the average rate of teacher-talk directed to beginning students.

The next studies that she mentions are Blau's (1990) two studies: one of them measured the effect of speed and syntactic complexity on learner comprehension and the other one measured the effect of pauses. Contrary to Kelch (1985), this author found that slowing the rate of speech and simplifying syntax did not help learner comprehension significantly, but pausing at constituent boundaries was found helpful.

That is why Osborne (1999) claims that it is difficult to state with any scientific confidence that speaking more slowly and in simpler sentences actually works. However, leaving aside scientific claims, she finds that it is intuitively clear to language teachers that teacher-talk does work, maybe as a function of all its characteristics and it fact, it feels necessary, especially with beginners.

She states that from the sociolinguistic point of view, teacher talk imitates formal English speech, as it is slower and clearer. The consequence is that without working on the pronunciation of English and exposure to the more usual pronunciation of variables, learners of English learn a relatively formal and sometimes hypercorrect form of this language. Therefore, as Osborne (1999) exposes, we are presented with a classic problem: teacher-talk, when used judiciously, seems to be effective, yet it may have lasting undesirable effects on a learner's speech. However, she offers an easy solution that allows students to hear

both norms: she advises to present the formal form in the first place and begin with careful pronunciation to ensure that students understand the usage and can produce it with some accuracy. Then expose them aurally to the informal form and explain its uses and constrains. Finally, have students practice the reduced form (starting with question and answer drills and ending with role-play situations, which will be valuable in pointing out such sociolinguistic facts as register variation and politeness formulae).

Osborne (1999) sums up stating that by exposing students to authentic speech and giving them the opportunity to use it, we accomplish much. She mentions that Richards (1983) considers both to be essential in developing listening comprehension. If students master the various norms, their speech sounds more English. Maybe even more significantly, if they manipulate the norms properly, they are actually "acting" more English.

Osborne (1999) adds that in a linguistic sense, we are also developing their sociolinguistic competence and in a personal, affective sense, we are giving students the opportunity to seek status and/or solidarity much as they do in their own languages (Gee, 1988; Labov, 1980; Milroy and Milroy, 1985). She then remarks that to ignore language variation is to deprive and impoverish our students.

Researchers have focused their studies on teacher talk because it is assumed that it has a potential effect on learners' comprehension, which is important for L2 acquisition. However, there is still a way to go to reach the point at which we will know what constitutes appropriate teacher talk. We still do not even know on which basis teachers make modifications in their talk. Hakansson (1986) says that they may aim to an average student they have in mind, that obviously will not be appropriate for all the learners in the class, whose input will not always correspond to that of an ideal learner.

3.3.3. Learner's participation

The learners' opportunities for participating in the L2 are limited, since they are often restricted to a responding role. Then, if opportunities for using L2

resources are very important for the acquisition of language, learning seems to be restricted in the classroom.

We can consider participation from the point of view of quantity and quality. If we pay attention to it from the perspective of quantity, we must say that it is not clear that the amount of participation is going to influence their language development. The studies that have analysed this relation show mixed results: the studies by Seliger (1977), Naiman et al. (1978), and Strong (1983; 1984) report positive correlation between measures of learner participation and proficiency, but, on the other hand Day (1984), Ely (1984), and Allwright (1980) show no relationship. The main problem is to state if participation results into proficiency, or if the case is that the most proficient students are those who participate most because of their management of the language.

If we focus on the quality of the participation, we can state that this is a stronger case in relation to L2 acquisition. Several studies have been carried out in this respect. Cathcart (1986) studied the different kinds of communicative acts performed by eight Spanish-speaking children in a variety of school settings. She observed that the situations in which the learner had control of the talk contained more communicative acts and syntactic structures, whereas when the teacher had control, they produced single-word utterances, formulaic phrases, etc. In a similar way, House (1986) compared the performance of advanced German students of English as a SL in two different situations: in a role play and in a teacher-led discussion. The result was that the role-play conversations sounded more natural, while in the other activity they restrained themselves from using topic introducers, supportive or amplifying moves, etc., in other words, they just participated in the discourse through an 'interactional core'. However, we can not underestimate the negotiation that exists in teacher-dominated lessons and must not over-emphasize the restrictive nature of learner participation in teacher-controlled interaction.

There is a particular case in which the author tries to improve the teacher–student interaction in an EFL classroom by motivating students to participate. It is the case of an action research report by Snell (1999). He states that a common problem for EFL teachers is dealing with a passive class, where students are unresponsive and avoid interaction with the teacher. His action research project attempts to explore this problem and seeks to create a more interactive teacher-class interchange in one class of Japanese adult English learners. He first defines

action research as research concerned with trying to improve one specific point in a teacher's technique in a particular classroom using empirical measurement. He adds that this usually includes having an observer collect data, and, together with the teacher, develop a plan to bring about the desired change, act on the plan, and then observe the effects of the plan in the classroom.

Snell (1999) identifies the problem in the following way: he explains that the students, as a class, did not respond voluntarily to the instructor's questions and neither did they participate in class discussions. In addition to this, students never asked the teacher questions outside one-to-one situations. Hence, the teacher received little oral feedback.

His hypothesis was that because the students seemed to generally understand the teacher's questions, it was felt that there was something else that kept the students from responding voluntarily in the class-teacher dialogues. He assumed that since most Japanese students are taught to listen and not to question a teacher in class, Japanese students have little or no experience in in-class interaction with the teacher, such as questioning or commenting or giving feedback. Students, according to him, are usually taught to be quiet and respectfully listen to the teacher. He believed that by teaching students that class interaction with the English teacher is not only acceptable, but normal, the students would become more interactive with the teacher in teacher-class interaction.

Following his hypothesis, two steps were taken to implement a plan:

· First, on the following class, the teacher distributed an exploratory paragraph about "rules" for asking questions in class in English speaking countries and the teacher made an exercise out of it. The teacher went on to say that if they still felt uncomfortable asking and answering questions, they had to at least nod or shake their head as a response to the teacher's questions.

· Secondly, the teacher reminded the students of the 'rules' at the beginning of each subsequent class and further encouraged them to become more active in the class when the instructor was talking.

When the class was observed again (four weeks later), they could see that most students did nod in response and a few answered 'yes' to general comprehension questions. With relation to specific questions, something unexpected happened. The teacher received no answer when he asked a question.

However, when he moved closer, looked specifically at a student or pair of them, and repeated the question, the students usually tried to answer. This fact showed that the teacher tried to make a connection with his students and he made a great effort to communicate with the questions, and acted as if he expected to get responses. It was also observed that two students asked questions before the class without prompting from the teacher.

In his conclusion, Snell (1999) states that some of the areas of the results were not as successful as hoped. For instance, the fact that students needed to be prompted with eye contact and a repeated question to give an answer; and also that they did not interrupt when they did not understand something.

Nevertheless, he states that some progress was made considering the brief span between observations since the students did interact with the teacher by nodding, some did answer his questions, and two asked questions before the class on their own initiation. There seemed to have been some success in instructing and reminding and then expecting students to become more interactive with the teacher.

Snell's (1999) final remarks claim that ESL teachers in Japan are not just teaching a language, but also a culture, and this includes instructing the sociolinguistics appropriate for the native English speaking classroom. They have to think about the cultural differences and how to bridge them.

3.3.4. Teacher-student interaction.

As Mohtar & Yusoff (1998) claim discourse between teachers and students should flow continuously, with turn taking in the classroom more equally distributed. Discourse should follow the T-S-T-S pattern. In many ESL classroom situations, as evidenced in research by Mohtar (1988), the pattern T-S-T is predominant. Outside the classroom, discourse is usually more casual, and students need to be able to initiate turns to speak rather than merely responding to questions, hence there is a need to practice and promote the T-S-T-S pattern in the classroom.

Due to the importance of this topic in the classroom, we are going to offer a series of studies based on teacher-student interaction.

Green, Weade and Graham in Green and Harker (1988) define lesson in their approach as a product of the interactions among participants (teacher, students, text/materials) as they work together to meet the goals of the curriculum. Definition of what counts as lesson to participants involves observation of what occurs, how actions unfold, how participants build on and work with their own messages and those of others, and how participants hold each other accountable for what is occurring (Erickson & Shultz, 1981; Gumperz, 1981; McDemott, 1976, 1978).Thus, a lesson is not a script or rote plan to follow. Despite the fact that lessons appear to be script-like or ritualistic, lesson types vary and this variation is reflected in a continuum, ranging from what they call ritualistic, to novel (Erickson, 1982).

Green, Weade and Graham state that while lessons may be placed on this continuum, even within a given category, variation will occur. They claim that whereas the general structure may remain predictable and appear ritualistic, factors such as what will be said and which specific items will be in the lesson cannot be predicted in advance of lesson delivery. Participants may be able to predict that a type of action will be taken, but not how it will occur. Hence, teachers and students must monitor what is occurring as the lesson develops in order to gain access to the information, to present information in appropriate ways, and to participate in (students) or conduct (teachers) lessons. Thus, according to them, lessons are defined by what occurs, with whom, in what ways, for what purpose, under what conditions, and with what outcome.

They also state that another way to view lessons is to observe the unfolding and evolving actions and messages of participants as constructing both a social text and an academic text. They claim that social text refers to information about expectations for participation (e.g., who can talk, when, where, in what ways, with whom, for what purpose), which in turn sets the procedures for lesson participation (e.g., answer in turn, wait to be called on). The academic text refers to the content of the lessons and the structure of this content. These texts co-occur and are interrelated. As teachers present academic content, they are simultaneously signalling how a lesson is to be accomplished (Erickson, 1982; Green & Harker, 1982; Wallat & Green, 1979, 1982). Thus, academic texts can be considered to be embedded and realized through social texts.

Green, Weade and Graham then add that recent work has shown that the way the teacher guides the construction of the social text influences how the lesson will proceed, what students have access to (Collins, 1986, 1987; Michaels & Collins, 1984; McDermott, 1976; Michaels, 1984, 1986), and what students view as important to know and do (Bloome & Puro, 1987; Cochran-Smith, 1984; Erickson, 1982; Evertson, Weade, Green, & Crawford, 1985; Harker & Green, 1985; Heap, 1980, 1983; Golden, 1986; Morine-Dershimer, 1985). Therefore, just as one reads a written text, participants must read the unfolding, co-occurring verbal messages, nonverbal actions, and contextualization cues of the social and academic texts of the lesson.

They compare lesson construction with the construction of a group composition that is simultaneously being written, read, and revised and add that, in order to contribute to the developing lesson, participants must interpret both the information to be presented - academic text - and the appropriate form for presentation or addition of information - social text. They state that lesson construction is a creative process in which teacher and students construct the text through their actions and interactions. Hence, for teachers and students, lesson construction involves a series of strategies including monitoring, interpreting, selecting, presenting, cooperating, defining, establishing, re-interpreting, re-establishing, modifying, and suspending expectations, actions, meanings, and themes of the developing social and academic texts. From this point of view, lessons are viewed as developing events, and participation in lessons is a dynamic and variable process.

Green, Weade and Graham explain that the roles of teacher and students in instructional settings are asymmetrical and interrelated. They state that the teacher's role is to set the conditions for learning, select appropriate content, guide the way in which the lesson develops, and maintain the coherence of both the social and academic texts being constructed. They add that, in order to guide text construction, teachers must monitor what information is being presented, signal how students are to participate, monitor student interpretation of academic content, and adjust the developing lesson text to insure access to lesson content. The teacher must also monitor the group as well as the individual (Merritt & Humphrey, 1979; Merritt, 1981), and must consider what to do when the lesson does not go as expected. That is to say, the teacher must take decisions both prior

to and during the lesson about how to establish a common understanding of lesson content, maintain direction of the developing lesson and insure the academic and social coherence of the lesson text on a moment-by-moment basis.

They claim that also students contribute to the direction and coherence of the social and academic texts being constructed. Students are co-participants in the construction of the developing text and not mere decoders of it. How students interpret the social and academic text and the requirements for contributing to text construction influences what will occur, how they will participate, and what they will learn from the text. To do so, they use a variety of resources, such as prior content and cultural knowledge; cognitive, social, linguistic, and physical abilities; and prior experience with similar activities among others.

Green, Weade and Graham claim that participation in lessons and access to learning requires students to:

- monitor and interpret the actions and messages of the teacher and other students on a moment-by-moment basis
- extract the content and structure of the social and academic text
- contribute to the construction of text in socially and academically appropriate ways.

They explain that the degree to which teacher and students can establish and maintain a shared understanding of both the content and form of the social and academic texts of the lesson is the degree to which the lesson will develop smoothly. They add that the task of establishing a common understanding is a process that involves a set of intra- and interpersonal factors. Intrapersonal factors are the personal frames of reference that individuals bring to instructional situations to help them interpret what to do and what to know (Frederiksen, 1981; Green & Harker, 1982; Heap, 1980; Tannen, 1979). Personal frames of reference, according to them, consist of sets of expectations for interacting and learning derived from past experiences, knowledge, perceptions, emotions, values, cultural assumptions, abilities, etc. As teachers and students interact during lessons, a series of lesson-specific frames of reference are constructed that influence what students will do and what they will come to know in the developing lesson. These frames are part of the interpersonal context of the lessons (Green, Harker, &

Golden, 1986). There are different types of frames and each relates to a different aspect of the lesson construction process:

- The local frame refers to the context-bound nature of meaning. The immediately preceding messages and actions must be considered in order to determine the meaning of a message or action at a particular point in the developing lesson.

- The academic frame develops as part of the interpersonal context of lessons and it includes all academic content available from the beginning of the lesson to the point under consideration. These frames are constructed during teacher – student(s) – material(s) interactions. Thus, the content of the interactions provides a signal to students about what is important to know. This type of frames develops as part of the lesson and depends on what is emphasized, accepted, and discussed.

- The instructional/pedagogical frame also develops as the lesson unfolds. It is related to the nature of the task being accomplished at a specific point in the lesson. Due to the fact that lessons have subtasks or phases that involve different tasks and rights and obligations for participation, a lesson may have several instructional frames. Every change in task or subtask implies the development of a new or expanded instructional frame.

Green, Weade and Graham state that there is an additional frame that contributes to the meanings constructed during a lesson. They call it the material frame and it is related to the fact that teachers and students generally interact about and through materials. Materials have form and content that are constructed and presented in deliberate ways. Hence they contribute to the content of the talk between teachers and students, and the actions they will take.

They add that as the nature of lessons is dynamic, this means that frames of reference are not static, but subject to modification, reinterpretation, suspension, etc. within and across developing lessons. Frames developed by students will clash with the teacher's frames and with those of other students. Those clashes, according to them, can be tacit or overt and can influence the nature and interpretation of the text that is developing, what students learn from participating

in the lesson, the degree of "sharedness" of activity, information, and actions taken, and, finally, the assessment of student ability.

Another study that describes teacher–student interaction is the one by Bloome and Theoduru in Green and Harker (1988).They argue for the premise that analysis of multiple layers of classroom discourse (e.g., teacher–student, teacher–class, student–student) is needed for understanding classrooms and lessons. They particularly argue that multiple layer discourse analysis is needed for understanding:

- the shifting, interactional constraints and conditions under which teacher and students interpret classroom discourse
- how classroom discourse mediates the interpretation of classroom tasks
- how macrostructural classroom processes are embedded within the face-to-face interaction of teachers and students.

They claim that multiple layer discourse analysis provides a promising approach to address calls for looking simultaneously at both the individual student and the class, and simultaneously at the social, cognitive, and academic dimensions of lessons (Cazden, 1986; Erickson, 1981).

Bloome and Theodoru (1988) state that their approach builds on classroom research within educational psychology: Jackson's (1968) study of classrooms and Dunkin and Biddle's (1974) review of research, which initiated a re-conceptualization of dynamics by insisting that research account for the "realities" of classrooms. Before these studies, classroom research was dominated by input-output models and by viewing teacher – student interaction as a dyadic relationship. From the perspective of classroom "realities", understanding classrooms requires going beyond this analysis of dyadic interactions of teachers and students and requires analysis of group and organizational processes. In fact, work in the fields of sociolinguistic ethnography, ethnomethodology, and educational psychology has arrived at a similar conception of classrooms as group or collective settings within which communicative and social processes provide a context for academic and/or cognitive processes.

Bloome and Theodorou (1988) discuss three issues involved in their approach to multiple layer discourse analysis: where teachers and students

"stand", how classroom tasks are transformed (or mediated) by classroom interaction and classroom lessons as communicative and social events.

The first issue refers to the fact that during classroom lessons, teachers rarely talk to a single student. They talk to the class or to a group. Even when a teacher directs his/her talk to a single student; they are also talking to the whole class. This reveals that classroom discourse involves multiple layers: while the teacher interacts with an individual student, he/she is simultaneously interacting with the whole class and at the same time, students are interacting with each other. Thus, from the teacher's perspective, instructional conversations are never one-to-one, but are always group-centred. Nevertheless, from the student's perspective, classroom conversation can be group-centred but does not always have to be so. Further, even when classroom interaction is group-centred, it is not so in the way that it is for teachers. These authors give an example: when a student responds to a teacher's question, the student's audience is both the teacher and the other students in the classroom. Whereas both the teacher and students will react to what the student says, how they react may be very different and the importance and power of their reactions may also differ. From the student's point of view, because of the teacher's power, group-centred classroom conversation is "teacher-biased". That is, the conversation is biased toward meeting or responding to teacher demands as opposed to peer demands. Depending on the student, the degree to which group-centred classroom conversation is teacher-biased will vary: from the students who will only consider teacher demands and ignore other students, to the students who will only consider peer demands and ignore the teacher. Thus, group-centred instructional conversations are inherently different because of the different places where teachers and students stand within that conversation.

Nevertheless, according to the authors, students can also hold one-to-one conversations with each other when circumstances permit. They can have small group conversations among three or four proximal students as well. They can even engage in group-centred conversations that are not "teacher-biased" when the teacher is not present or when circumstances do not require attending to the teacher.

The following table summarizes their discussion by listing the types of classroom conversations available to teachers and students:

Classroom Conversations Available by Role

Role	Available types of conversations
TEACHER	GROUP-CENTRED
STUDENTS	GROUP-CENTRED/TEACHER BIASED
	SMALL STUDENT GROUP
	ONE-ON-ONE
	GROUP-CENTRED /TEACHER ABSENT

Bloome and Theodorou (1988) end their comment of this first issue by stating that students and teachers may be involved in several simultaneous classroom conversations. The classroom conversations or layers of discourse in which a student is involved influences the nature of the classroom task.

The second issue discussed by Bloome and Theodorou is the way in which classroom tasks are transformed or mediated by teacher–student interaction. These authors claim that the actual task with which a student is faced is not necessarily the task intended nor the task that appears at the surface level. As classroom tasks get communicated and 'played-out' in classrooms, we can observe that tasks involve a social and communicative dimension, and that processes involved may not necessarily be those intended or assumed on the surface level (Erickson, 1981).

They also state that the ways that students deal with academic tasks also depend on how the tasks are interpreted, and this depends on the nature of the classroom discourse (its content and structure) and on where students 'stand' within the classroom discourse. That is, there are many ways in which the task may get 'played-out', but the point is that the task is different for different students depending on the layer(s) of classroom discourse in which they are involved. They explain that Doyle (1983) suggests that the dominant factor affecting how students interpret classroom tasks is the need for accountability. According to him, teachers must evaluate, judge and grade student performance

and thus students tend to take seriously only the work for which they are held accountable.

Bloome and Theodorou (1988) suggest that classroom factors such as accountability are embedded within classroom discourse and that the use of known-information questions (Mehan, 1979) in classrooms, for instance, is one way in which accountability is communicated. They add that, as a communicative phenomenon, accountability requires students to display the 'right' answer or the right 'behaviour' in order to be counted as having accomplished the task. In some cases, this may imply successfully bidding for a turn at talk; in other cases, it may mean solely raising one's hand or making eye contact with the teacher.

They claim that displaying accomplishment of a task is a social achievement; that is, the social and communicative work that students must do to complete the task, and the work they do to display accomplishment of the task, are part of the implicit task demands. This has at least three implications: classroom tasks need to be described as both social and academic tasks; though the explicit task may be the same, the implicit task may be different across students; and, it is through the social and communicative doings of classrooms that classroom tasks get defined.

The third and last issue of discussion by Bloome and Theodorou is the fact that classroom lessons are social and communicative events. They state that Green (Green, 1983; Green & Smith, 1983) lists five constructs addressing how teachers and students build on each other's communicative behaviour in constructing a lesson.

(1) *Classrooms are communicative environments.* The communicative nature of classrooms makes it appropriate to talk about the context of lessons and classroom interaction in terms of a communicative and social context. Teachers and students have differing roles that have to be communicated. As lessons and their parts shift, the social and communicative demands made by teachers and students of each other shift as well. Hence, the shifting demands need to be communicated.

(2) *Classroom contexts are not given but are constructed within and throughout the lesson and phases of the lesson.* Through teacher–

student interaction, rules for participation are communicated and expectations are created for how participation in the lesson is organized.

(3) *Teachers orchestrate different participation levels.* Teachers make both co-occurring academic demands and participatory demands of students. Hence, students must respond to both and are evaluated in terms of how they meet both of them.

(4) *Meaning is context specific.* The meanings of teachers' and students' messages are interpreted within the social and communicative context constructed through teacher–student interaction.

(5) *Inferencing is required for conversational comprehension.* Students' and teachers' comprehension of classroom tasks, behaviour, messages, and activities depends on the frame of reference brought into the classroom and constructed/modified within the classroom.

The constructs above, according to the authors, focus attention on the shifting demands of classroom discourse, the differentiated roles of participants, and the constructive nature of classroom discourse.

Mohtar and Yusoff's (1998) describe the discourse between teachers and students. Their paper focuses on interaction between teacher and students. They first examine some possible reasons for the lack of participation among students in the classroom; they then discuss possible strategies for engaging students in classroom discourse; and, finally, they suggest a number of factors which favour the sustenance of classroom discourse.

They state that the possible reasons for lack of student interaction in the classroom are: student characteristics, teacher characteristics, the teaching process and lesson content.

According to Mohtar and Yusoff (1998), students' lack of participation in the classroom may be due to personal characteristics. For instance, Asian students are known to be passive in the classroom (Sato, 1982; Khoo, 1988; Salleh, 1982; Singh, 1995).

They then state that the teacher-student relationship is a very important factor influencing student participation. "If a dialogue takes place then there is communication", as Singh (1995, p.3) claims. Nevertheless, if the dialogue is on the teacher's terms, very often the case will be that the students' answers will only

be a regurgitation of what has been taught by the teacher. According to the authors, as teachers decide what, how, to whom, and how long students can speak, the students are "prevented from engaging each other in any sort of 'real' conversation" (Brooks, 1993, p.235).

The third aspect is the teaching process. Their observation of classroom interaction reveals that teachers often ask questions as a teaching strategy and the questions they use can affect the performance of their students. As they assess, display questions deprive students of the opportunity to express their opinions and to contribute further to the discourse. Long and Sato (1983) discovered that display questions contributed more than half of all the questions asked by the teacher in their study. Ernst (1994) noted that display questions, together with repeating, repairing, explaining and holding (i.e. other features of teacher talk) reduced the students' opportunity to speak. Mohtar and Yusoff (1998) explain that turn taking in the classroom is controlled by the teacher: he/she organizes the structure of the lesson and hence influences student interaction (McHoul, 1978; Samuel, 1982). If the teacher is the one who chooses the pattern of participation, and this consists of the teacher selecting a student to answer his/her questions, then participation of the students will be highly controlled by him/her.

The last reason for a lack of student interaction is the content of the lesson, since the text used or the topic taught can influence the interaction pattern in the classroom. The text may be factual and the questions may only require retrieving information from it. The text may not stimulate any discussion. The teacher will ask a question, the student will answer and this answer will be accepted by the teacher who will ask another question. Hence there will not be continuity in the flow of discourse as the following question will deal with a different aspect of the text or topic. According to them, the content of the text may also be uninteresting to the students: As Ernst (1994) discovered, the content of the topic is important because when it is related to students' interests, the students are able to communicate even with limited L2 resources.

All the factors exposed by these two authors are interrelated and two or more may operate at the same time to cause students to refrain from talking.

They then state that the teacher must identify impediments to communication in his/her classroom and then develop strategies to encourage increased student contributions to classroom discourse. They use the term 'to

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sustain student engagement' to refer to the continuance of student talk after the teacher has provided feedback to a student response. After an answer is accepted, the student usually refrains from talking further and the teacher regains his/her turn at talking. In the next exchange, the teacher usually asks another student. The interaction pattern T-S-T is then the recurrent pattern through the lesson and this type of interaction does not provide continuity in the discourse and interaction is not sustained. They believe that student interaction can be sustained if the teacher, when he/she provides feedback, can exploit the response given by the student. Their feedback should be stimulating in order to encourage students to continue talking. Mohtar and Yusoff (1998) remark that the type of feedback given by a teacher can restrict or facilitate student participation and language use (Ernst, 1994). Mohtar (1996) found that the following types of teacher feedback can encourage students to interact:

(a)   *Accepting a student's answer*. This can encourage students to offer more information about what is asked: if the question requires more than one answer, students can add to the information already given; if the text allows students to explore the content further, their interest would be stimulated and they would be encouraged to talk more.

(b)   Asking questions. After a student's response, the teacher may elicit further information. The subsequent question is related to the previous one asked and the information required is within the student's knowledge. Sometimes, the teacher incorporates the student's answer into his/her question; Cazden (1988) termed that construction uptake. This strategy of elicitation can also be used to encourage other students to contribute to the discourse by asking them and hence the teacher can pass over his/her turn to other students in the classroom instead of providing feedback directly to the student who answers.

(c)   Nominating. After responding to a student's answer, the teacher can ask other students to add information by selecting them or indicate that he/she requires someone to answer.

(d)   Checking. The teacher can encourage students to continue contributing to the discourse by providing cues for students to take turns. This can be done by checking after a student's reply in order to discover whether other students understand. This is also a way of making students

ask questions which is something that rarely happens in the classroom because they may think it is a challenge to the teacher's authority.

(e) *Giving opinions.* The teacher can incorporate an opinion into his/ her feedback in order to encourage further responses from the students. If the students are fairly informed about the topic, their responses may or may not show agreement with the teacher's opinion.

(f) *Evaluating.* Teachers often evaluate a student's answer to a question. To encourage further participation, the teacher can provide high level evaluation which is "more than just 'Good' or 'mere repetition of a student's answer'" (Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991, p.273.). Nystrand & Gamoran (1991) describe high level evaluation as consisting of two parts:

1. the teacher's certification of the response (e.g. good)

2. the teacher's incorporation of the response, usually in the form of either an elaboration or a follow-up question. (Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991, p.273)

(g) *Providing guidance.* The teacher can guide students to keep talking by providing clues and prompts.

Mohtar and Yusoff (1998) claim that teachers can exploit their turn after a student reply in order to motivate students to ask questions, give opinions, or provide further information. They do not need to end an exchange by just passing judgement on student responses. Teachers need to be aware of the different types of feedback which may encourage students to contribute more freely to classroom discourse.

They conclude by saying that the classroom lesson can provide a communicative context if the teacher and students build on each other's communicative behaviour as they work towards fulfilling curricular objectives. To be able to do so, both teacher and students must understand interactional rules. Student interaction can be limited due to several reasons stated above, but the teacher can encourage student participation using a number of cited strategies.

Another study on the topic of teacher–student interaction is the one conveyed by Martí Viaño et al. (1999). They dealt with dialogue in the classroom and analysed students' initiated exchanges and their responses to teacher's questions. They stated that Van Lier (1988) described the context of the classroom

as one differing from other contexts in the sense that the teacher's actions are a result of prior planning and the students may or may not be aware of the nature of the plan, hence, that discourse planned only by one of the participants results in asymmetry. They also commented Reynolds' (1990) remark about the fact that in classroom discourse, one of the participants – the teacher – has the right to speak whenever he/she wants to nominate a student to answer and to evaluate his/her response. They added that Sinclair and Coulthard (1992) considered that first moves in the typical teaching exchange are usually produced by the teacher, who initiates in this way his/her control over the classroom interaction. Sinclair and Coulthard's (1992) results show that children are not supposed to ask questions in the classroom. Nevertheless, Martí Viaño et al. (1999) asserted that in the case of adult learners, they intervene much more in the initiation of exchanges.

These authors claimed that the second language acquisition process is extensively sustained by questions, as Long and Sato (1983) stated, particularly teacher's questions, which are the ones that facilitate class participation. They added that Berry (1981) distinguished two types of questions: 'pseudo questions' and 'real questions'. In their analysis they had two main objectives. They tried to identify the exchanges that take place in classroom interaction with the hypothesis that exchanges initiated by the teacher would be very common in classroom interaction, but not the only class they would find. They expected to encounter exchanges initiated by students, especially in the context of communicative tasks. They also aimed to identify display and referential questions and establish a relationship between the types of questions and the length of each utterance performed in the student's answer.

Martí Viaño et al. (1999) classified classroom discourse into five types of tasks according to the purpose of the interaction and the topic the class is dealing with. They used the category of purpose of the interaction as described by Hymes (1972b) in his description of context characteristics; and the category of the topic to identify classroom interaction variation as the one proposed by Selinker and Douglas (1985) in their description of task variability. According to these two categories, they divided the flow of classroom discourse into five different tasks, ranging from most teacher centred (TC) to least teacher centred:

Martí Viaño et al (1999) followed Tapper's (1996) methodology to identify exchange patterns; Tapper (1996) identified two major approaches to discourse in

the description of exchange patterns: the descriptive framework developed by Sinclair and Coulhard (1975) and conversation analysis. Sinclair and Coulhard (1975) thought of classroom discourse as a hierarchy of different discourse units (lesson – transactions – exchanges – moves – acts). Sinclair and Coulhard (1975) also stated that the teaching exchange is composed of three moves: I – R – F. To the third move, McTear (1975) added AC (student acceptance of feedback).

Martí Viaño et al (1999) explained that in conversational analysis (Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson, 1974), the concept of the two-part adjacency pair accounts for the orderly progress of speaker turn in conversation. Nevertheless, conversational analysts claim that the adjacency pair does not account for all the conversational exchanges and a series of works show the frequent occurrence of a third move in conversation (Heritage, 1984; Tsui, 1994). That is why, Martí Viaño et al (1999) considered that their basic exchange would be the adjacency pair, consisting of the following moves: I – R (teacher initiation – student response), SQ – TR (student question – teacher response) or SQ – SR (student question – student response). They state that other moves could be added to these basic patterns to render different exchange patterns:

I – R – F: teacher initiation-student response- teacher feedback

I – R – F – AC: teacher initiation-student response-teacher feedback-student acceptance   of feedback.

SQ – TR – SF: student question-teacher response- student feedback

SQ – TQ – SR: student question-teacher question-student response

TQ – SQ – TR: teacher question-student question-teacher response.

These authors followed Coulthard and Brazil (1981) distinction of predicted and unpredicted exchanges in order to identify display and referential questions and the type of response they elicit. Coulthard and Brazil (1981) distinguish: predicted exchanges beginning with a test question to which the teacher already knows the answer and unpredicted exchanges beginning with a genuine question.

In their own study, Martí Viaño et al (1999) observed that the teacher initiated more exchanges than students, that the task where students initiated most exchanges is T5 (the teacher presented an activity and students asked questions about vocabulary or organization of the task). In the part of exchanges initiated by teacher and students in relation to topic, the authors observed that in the category of topic being language, the students initiated more exchanges than the teacher.

They asked questions which referred to vocabulary in a spontaneous way since they had the need to communicate and this type of interaction with the teacher, according to the authors, seemed to be the most appropriate for language acquisition to take place.

Martí Viaño et al (1999) also stated that among types of exchanges initiated by the student the most common was the adjacency pair in which the student asked a question and the teacher answered. This usually happened in tasks where students and teacher talked freely about a topic of their interest or a topic proposed by the teacher.

They then claimed that their research showed some relevant variation in the answers to display vs. reference questions: reference questions demanded longer answers. And in relation to task variation, they remarked that those longer responses to reference questions took place in tasks where students participated more freely. They concluded that their data confirmed what other authors (Kramsch, 1985; Van Lier, 1988) had previously stated: that classroom discourse depends on the role the participants adopt and the nature of the learning task.

3.3.5. Relation between tasks and interaction.

Crookes (1986) gives a very general definition of task: a piece of work or an activity, usually with a specified objective, undertaken as part of an educational course, or at work.

Riley (1994) defines it as any type of activity designed to engage the learner in using the language communicatively or reflectively in order to arrive at an outcome other than that of learning a specified feature of the L2. Thus, a task can be an activity reflecting the real world or a pedagogic one, as long as the process is intended to the exchange of information.

The main goal of the studies related to this topic is to determine how specific variables affect the interaction that occurs when learners attempt to perform a task. These variables can be classified into those related to the task itself and those related to the participants performing the task. A problem we face when studying task variables is determining which variables to investigate. Several studies have focused on the examination of the effects on interaction of tasks that involve a one-way exchange of information, as giving instructions or

telling a personal story, in opposition to those that require a two-way exchange, such as communication games in which each participant has part of the information necessary to complete the task. Some studies, Long (1980a), Doughty and Pica (1986), Newton (1991), show that the second type of tasks result into increased negotiation of meaning. On the other hand, Gass and Varonis (1985a) found no difference in this respect in the two types of tasks.

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is a relatively new field of research and also classroom application; a general review of the main issues concerning TBLT can be divided into three parts: a description of the theoretical rationale for task-based instruction, an account of the limitations and potential drawbacks of TBLT and a reflection on the main issues that need to be taken into account in planning task-based instruction.

In respect to the limitations of implementing TBLT, we present some potential drawbacks. The first one refers to language awareness, and stems from research into the results of immersion programmes. We must state that many authors (Long, 2000; Mitchell and Myles, 1998; Swain in Long, 2000; Sheen, 1994) have highlighted the failure of those educational programmes in achieving productive control of many aspects of the L2 grammar and lexis. Formal instruction cannot be disregarded.

The second drawback has to do with the linguistic demands for teachers. According to the idea of focus on form, the explanations on grammar will arise in context and this can suppose a practical problem for teachers.

The third limitation refers to the grading and sequencing of tasks. In the case of TBLT, needs analysis provides the parameters for real world tasks selection, but assessing the difficulty and sequencing pedagogic tasks can be quite troublesome.

The last limitation is related to its actual application in the classroom and for which type of pupils is adequate.

In reference to the main issues concerning the planning of task-based lessons, we offer a series of studies by different authors that have drawn some light for teachers into the insights of planning their L2 lessons.

According to the first author, Skehan (1996, 1998b), TBLT pursues three main goals: accuracy, restructuring and fluency. In order to achieve them, teachers

should take into account the predisposition of learners and there should be a balance between focus on form and focus on communication.

The second study is the one by Beretta and Davies (1985). According to the results of their study comparing two groups of pupils belonging to 'structural classes' and 'Task-based classes', they conclude that students need assessments devices that are related to their type of learning; that Task-Based class students scored better on proficiency tests of listening and reading comprehension; and that, however, there were not significant differences between both groups regarding dictation and contextualized grammar tests.

The third and last study is the one performed by Fotos and Ellis (1991) in which a specific linguistic feature was taught to two different groups. Results show that in the first test, proficiency levels were very similar between the two groups, but in the second test, the students from the traditional lesson performed significantly better. According to their findings, teachers should take into account the level of their students, their capacity for efficient group or pair work, and they should make sure that the procedure and the goals of the task presented is clear for the students.

We must finally conclude that TBLT is not a pedagogical miracle, but a reinterpretation of language instruction, a change in focus. Here, the student is the "doer" and the teacher the "planner". We can argue that TBLT promotes students' motivation and tasks involve the fulfilment of complex activities in the second language, usually in groups, thus encouraging not only acquisition, but also interpersonal and social skills. We claim that although the teachers' duty is dense outside the classroom, inside it is the student who takes hold of their own learning process and their own improvement.

Another author who deals with the relation between tasks and interaction is Robinson (2001). He describes a framework for examining the effects of the cognitive complexity of tasks on language production and learner perceptions of task difficulty, and for motivating sequencing decisions in task-based syllabuses. He offers implications of the findings for task-based syllabus design and discusses further research into task complexity, difficulty, and production interactions.

This author proposes in his study distinctions between cognitively defined task complexity, learner perceptions of task difficulty, and the interactive conditions under which tasks are performed. He then identifies the cognitive

components of task complexity and reports findings of previous research into the effects of these on task performance.

He argues that task complexity is the result of the attentional, memory, reasoning, and other information processing demands imposed by the structure of the task on the language learner. He states that these differences in information processing demand, resulting from design characteristics, are relatively fixed and invariant (Sternberg, 1977; Suefeld and Coren, 1992).

Robinson (2001) then refers to task difficulty and explains that the cognitive factors contributing to complexity are a consequence of the structure of the task which imposes resource demands. According to him, the cognitive factors contributing to task complexity must be distinguished from learner factors which make a task more or less difficult (as opposed to complex). These are a consequence of differentials in the resources they draw on in responding to the demands. He claims that complexity and difficulty cannot be assumed to be in a fixed relationship to each other. He explains that the learner factors contributing to between learner differences in the size of resource pools available to meet task demands, and so to task difficulty, are of two kinds: (1) affective variables, such as confidence, motivation, and anxiety, which may change and so affect the size of resource pool availability on a temporary basis; and (2) ability variables, such as intelligence, aptitude, and cognitive style, which are more permanent and fixed determinants of resource pools, and more stable over a course of instruction than changeable affective variables.

Next, he refers to task conditions, or the interactive demands of tasks, and explains that they involve neither task factors nor learner factors alone, but rather participation factors such as the direction of information flow and the communicative goals of task performance. Participant factors include gender, familiarity with each other and with task role, and relative status, as well as task goal and task interpretation.

Robinson (2001) explains that we may expect interactions between all three influences on task performance and learning (i.e. complexity, difficulty and condition). However, according to him, it is differences in task complexity which are the logical basis for prospective decision making about task-based syllabus design.

In respect to the cognitive dimensions of task complexity, he states that the proposal for sequencing pedagogic tasks on the basis of their cognitive complexity is motivated by its potential positive impact in three interrelated domains: performance, production, and development. He states that the desired outcome of task-based instruction is the ability to achieve real world target task goals as measured by an estimate of successful performance. He claims that the rationale for developing target task ability for L2 learners by gradually increasing the complexity of the tasks is similar to that adopted in other fields. He adds that a further fundamental reason for using pedagogic tasks, sequenced in order of increasing cognitive complexity, as the basis of syllabus design, is that such a sequencing decision should effectively facilitate L2 development: the acquisition of new L2 knowledge, and restructuring of existing L2 representations. He argues that increasing the cognitive demands of tasks engages cognitive resources, leading to more attention to, and incorporation and rehearsal of task input in working memory.

Robinson (2001) claims that most of the empirical work on task complexity has focused on its effect on learner language, using measures of accuracy, fluency, and complexity of production. As Skehan (1998) and Bygate (1996) observed, this research has in part been motivated by the prospect that modulating the design and information processing demands of tasks can lead to language practice and consolidation in each of these important areas. According to Robinson (2001), in order to make predictions about the effects of task complexity on these aspects of task production, it is necessary to distinguish between monologic and interactive tasks. He argues that complex monologic tasks should elicit less fluent, but more accurate and complex production.

Finally Robinson (2001) offers a brief review of previous studies that support his predictions for the effects of task complexity on monologic task performance. He states that the facilitating effect of prior knowledge on task performance receives support from research outside the field of SLA (Anderson, 1981; Britten and Tresser, 1982; Joseph and Dwyer, 1984) as well as from within (Barry and Lazarte, 1998; Carrell and Wise, 1998; Urwin, 1999). He states that in general, findings for the effects of manipulating +/- planning time show planning leads to gains in accuracy, fluency, and complexity and this is supported by Ellis (1987), Crookes (1989), Skehan (1996) and Skehan and Foster (1997). The third

resource-depleting dimension of task complexity, +/- single task demand is, according to him, motivated by finding from research in other educational domains (Gopher, 1992; Sanders, 1998; Sarno and Wickens, 1995; Wickens, 1989, 1992).

The research done until today has helped to identify a number of tasks variables that affect participant performance, but has not reached firm conclusions. We still need to study which tasks variables are more important, what effect combining different sets of variables can have and how the performance elicited by different tasks can affect acquisition.

3.4. The concept of Evaluation and Feedback

This aspect of classroom interaction is the main section of the research project.

Evaluation and feedback are central to the process and progress of language learning. In the classroom continuous feedback and evaluation occur, but the ways in which they occur vary greatly. Learners' contributions are most of the times corrected by the teacher, whereas the cases in which learners themselves perform the correction in terms of self-monitoring happen less often. The case in which learners correct other learners is still less frequent.

In the first place, we will study the terminology related to the topic. Ellis (1994) states that several terms have been used to refer to the area of error treatment:

> - 'feedback': it is a general cover term used to describe the information provided by listeners on the reception and comprehension of messages. Vigil and Oller (1976) have pointed out that it is useful to distinguish 'cognitive' (that is, related to actual understanding) and 'affective' feedback (the one that concerns the motivational support that interlocutors provide each other during the interaction).

- 'repair': a narrower term used by ethnomethodologists as Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks (1977) to refer to attempts to identify and remedy communication problems, including those of linguistic origin.

- 'correction': a still narrower term which refers to attempts to deal specifically with linguistic errors; it constitutes an intention to show 'negative evidence' in the form of feedback, which draws the learner's attention to the errors they have made.

Chaudron (1977) distinguishes four types of 'treatment' in order to give greater precision to the term:

1. Treatment that results in learners' 'autonomous ability' to correct themselves on an item.

2. Treatment that results in the elicitation of a correct response from a learner.

3. Any reaction by the teacher that clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement.

4. Positive or negative reinforcement involving expressions of approval or disapproval.

The first cannot be determined in the context of a single lesson, since it requires evidence that feedback has had some effect on acquisition. The last type restricts the object of study to the occasions in which the teacher draws explicit attention to learner performance. The majority of learners wish to have their errors corrected most of the times. That is why most of the studies have focused their attention on types 2 and 3.

Once the terminology has been stated, from the examination of several papers on learner's attitudes towards error treatment, we can observe the following:

Cathcart and Olsen (1976) concluded that ESL learners like to be corrected by their teachers and want more correction than they are usually provided with. Chenoweth et al. (1983) found that students liked to be corrected during activities, but also when they conversed with native speakers. Martí and Orquin (1982) reported that students wanted to be corrected during oral practice every time they made a mistake and that they preferred to participate in class by asking questions one another, instead of talking in small groups, where little or no correction from

the teacher is found. On the other hand, Krashen (1982) warned that correction is useless for acquisition and dangerous in that it may lead to a negative affective response.

The key to the question of whether feedback can affect students in a positive or a negative way could be the issue of the extent to which teachers should correct learners' errors. There is a wide range of diverging opinions about the topic, but if we look at what teachers actually do in the classroom, and not at what they should do, we can find Chaudron's (1988) revision of the studies that have investigated this. He concludes that certain types of errors are much more likely to be treated than others: discourse, content and lexical errors receive more attention than phonological or grammatical errors; he also states that many errors are not treated at all; that the more often a particular type of error is made, the less likely the teacher is to treat it; and, finally, he reports that there is a considerable variation among teachers in reference to the frequency of error treatment.

Another important issue is related to who performs the treatment. A preference for self-initiated and self-completed repair in normal conversation has been shown through different studies. However, as Van Lier (1988) found, what one can expect in the classroom, which is a setting where the rights are invested in the teacher, is other-initiated and other-completed repair. Nevertheless, Kasper (1985) studied the language-centred phase of an English lesson in a grade 10 Danish gymnasium and found that the teacher identified the trouble sources, but they were repaired either by the learners who had made the errors, or by other learners. In the content phase of that same lesson, self-initiated and self-completed repair was evident, although students appealed for assistance from the teacher. Van Lier (1988) highlights that the type of repair work usually reflects the nature of the context that learners and teachers have created. Nystrom (1983) adds that the teacher's personal style may influence the kind of repair work.

We can say that teachers normally show inconsistency in their treatment of error. Authors do not seem to agree on the possible positive or negative character of that assumption; whereas some, as Long (1977), argue that teachers need to be consistent, others, like Allwright (1975a) suggest that teachers may have a duty to be inconsistent in order to cope with individual differences among their students. Chaudron (1986), found some differences in the kind of errors corrected after a period of six months, during which learners were supposed to show some changes

in proficiency. Another explanation for the teacher inconsistency could be the nature of the teaching task, as Kasper (1985) says, teachers are less likely to correct linguistic errors in tasks based on real communication.

There is a great amount of research aimed at error treatment. However, one can not find many studies investigating its effect on acquisition. Chaudron (1986) explained that only 39 per cent of the errors treated in the immersion class he studied resulted in successful student uptake (by uptake he means that they were eliminated in the next student utterance). As Ellis (1994) argues, this might suggest on the one hand that error treatment is not successful, but it could also be assumed that by raising learners' awareness, it contributes to acquisition in a long term. Ramírez and Stromquist (1979) found a positive correlation between the correction of grammatical errors and gains in linguistic proficiency. However, Ellis (1994) argues that this study did not examine the relationship between the correction and elimination of specific errors.

3.5. The concept of self-correction.

The Monitor Theory was developed by Krashen in several papers and books (1977, 1981, 1982, 1985), He claimed that adult second language learners have two means for internalising the target language. The first is acquisition, a subconscious process, similar to that used by children developing their first language, The second means is a conscious process in which learners attend to form, plan their utterances, edit them and correct them. The Monitor is an aspect of this second process. It is a device for watching one's output and for making alterations or corrections as they are consciously perceived. According to Krashen (1982) our conscious learning processes and our subconscious acquisition are mutually exclusive. In consequence he recommended classroom activities for acquisition to take place. Once students acquire fluency, only then, should an optimal amount of monitoring be employed by the learners.

Krashen has received a great deal of criticism in the second language acquisition field and his assumptions have been hotly disputed. McLaughlin (1978, 1990), criticised the distinction between subconscious acquisition and

conscious learning processes; he pointed out that "these terms are too laden with surplus meaning and (are) too difficult to define empirically to be useful theoretically" (1990:617), In his discussion of subconscious and conscious processes, McLaughling (1990) distinguished between controlled and automatic processing: "Controlled processes require active attention but are not always available to conscious perception. They regulate the flow of information between short and long-term memory systems. Automatic processes are associated with long-term memory and take substantial time to develop and become established". The author remarked that we learn a language by relying on the controlled processes for establishing later development of automatic processes. He also indicated that there is no long term learning without awareness.

Bialystok (1982, 1985, 1989) presented a two-dimensional framework for conceptualising second language acquisition; in her framework, analysis and automaticity can interact; mental representations can be either unanalysed or analysed. The author remarked that analysed language is the form in which we know most things without being aware of the structure of the knowledge; on the other hand, second language learners are aware of the structure of analysed knowledge. The distinction between automatic and non-automatic processing accounts for the relative access the learner has to the system. Knowledge which can be retrieved easily and quickly is automatic. Knowledge that takes time and effort to retrieve is non-automatic. There is a continuum from the most automatic behaviour to the least. Later on, Bialystok (1987) modified this continuum by referring to it as a factor of control or ability to focus attention on relevant parts of the problem to arrive at a solution.

Following Bialystok (1982), Ellis (1984) proposed a model based on two distinctions which refer to the process and to the product of language use. The main claim of this framework is that the way language is learnt is a reflection of the way it is used. The product of language use implies a continuum of discourse types ranging from entirely unplanned to entirely planned. Unplanned discourse consists of relatively unanalysed and automatic language, it lacks forethought and preparation and is associated with spontaneous communication. Planned discourse is a discourse that is thought prior to expression; it requires conscious thought and preparation and the opportunity to work out content and expression. The mental processes involved in the production of both types of discourse account for

variability of learner language by positing that both different types of knowledge and different procedures for activating this knowledge are involved in the construction of different discourse types. They also account for acquisition. New rules are created when we attempt to use existing knowledge in relation to the linguistic and situational context in order to create shared frames of reference. Rules which initially exist in either an automatic unanalysed form or in analysed form are activated so that they can be used later in planned discourse.

In expanding Krashen's Monitor Model, Morrison and Low (1986) also proposed planning as a function of the monitor: "The critical faculty, which we have been calling monitoring, and which is essentially our awareness of language, gives leash to the creative faculty, keeps it in check and possibly learns from it. Either before or after articulation, rising programmes can be inspected and judgements made as to whether they 'feel right' in terms of phonological shape, syntax, choice of words, truth value, or social propriety" (1986:247)

In the debate of the role of consciousness in second language learning, Schmidt (1990) argued that we need to have a clear understanding of what is meant by conscious and unconscious. We must take into account other contrasts like the question of whether the learner is aware of learning something, whether the learner's awareness is at the level of noticing, whether the learner has understanding and insight. Other contrasts relate to intention, at one level whether the learner intends to notice or pays attention, and at a more global level, whether there is a deliberate plan involving study and other intentional learning strategies. In discussing these contrasts, Schmidt (1990) pointed out that there is insufficient evidence to conclude that second language learning occurs without awareness. He remarked that the evidence suggests that understanding and learning are, in most cases, tightly linked. Most of the times when we want to learn something we make ourselves conscious of it. Schmidt argued strongly for the thesis that nothing in the target language input becomes intake for language learning other than what learners consciously notice. For him, paying attention to language form is hypothesised to be facilitative in all cases and may be necessary for adult language acquisition.

In the field of learning strategies, monitoring is considered a combination of cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Rubin 1987). The learner notices errors,

observes how a message is received and interpreted by the addressee, and then decides what to do about it.

Kosmos (1999) presents a new theory about intercepting erroneous output. It was devised by Levelt et al. (1991) and it was referred to as the perceptual loop theory. From the theory of prearticulatory editing they adopted the assumption that preaticulatory output can be inspected. In the model, there are three loops for inspecting the outcome of processes. The first loop is the phase when the preverbal message is compared to the original intentions of the speaker. The second loop is whn the message is monitored before articulation. Finally, the generated utterance is also checked after articulation which constitutes the final, external loop of monitoring. The research by van Hest (1996) suggests that phonological errors are detected and interrupted faster than lexical errors, whereas inappropriate words seem to be recognized with the lowest speed.

With respect to the relationship between self-repair and proficiency, several studies applied a cross-sectional design to compare the two factors. O'Connor (1988) analysed the speech of three beginning and three advanced American speakers of French studying in France. She found that less proficient speakers used more corrective self-repairs, whereas the self-corrections of advanced learners tended to be anticipatory in nature; they avoided possible breakdowns or communication difficulties and they used more discourse-level corrections. A study by Lennon (1990) yielded somewhat different results. He found that after six month's residence in England, the L2 speech rate of the participants went up, and the number of pauses in their speech decreased, but they produced more self-corrections at the end of their stay than at the beginning. Lennon (1990) explained his findings by assuming that with the increase of language competence more attention becomes available for monitoring and self-repair. Van Hest (1996) found that beginning and intermediate produced about the same number of self-repairs, wheras advanced learners corrected themselves significantly less frequently. She calimed that, as opposed to advanced speakers, whose production had become more error free, both the beginning and intermediate group were still in the trial-and-error stage.

3.6. The concept of uptake

The concept of uptake has received much attention recently in the Second Language Acquisition literature. According to Smith (2005), it has been described in three different ways:

a) The term uptake comes from speech act theory. Austin (1962) describes the relationship between illocutionary and perlocutionary acts and notes that "the performance of an illocutionary act involves the securing of uptake" (Austin, 1962: 116).

b) Allwright (1984) employs the term uptake to refer to the language that the learners claim to have learnt from a lesson. Allwright (1984) suggests that such self-reported data can provide a way to investigate the relationship between classroom practice and language learning. Characteristic of this concept of uptake is the use of a postlesson uptake recall chart where learners write down all that they recall from the lesson. Slimani (1989) followed Allwright's application of the term and carried out some research on vocabulary learning. The author reported that it was easier for students to report on the vocabulary they had learnt than on the grammar or phonology. Ellis (1995) found that learners said they could recall very few words, though they had learnt many more. Ellis et al. (1999) explored the specific properties of interactionally modified input potentially important in aiding vocabulary acquisition; they found that the more learners negotiated around a problematic word, the less likely they were to report that they had learnt it.

c) Recently, the term uptake has gone through another shift in use. Lyster and Ranta (1997) define uptake as "a student utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction someway to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance"(Lyster and Ranta, 1997: 49). Lyster and Ranta , 1997: 49) have provided the following definition of uptake:

"Uptake … refers to a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance (this overall intention is clear to the student although the teacher's specific linguistic focus may not be)."

It is this third use of uptake that we are going to analyse in our study of feedback.

Chaudron (1977: 440) suggested that "the main immediate measurement of effectiveness of any type of corrective reaction would be a frequency count of the students' correct responses following each type". Uptake can be considered successful when it demonstrates that a student can use a feature correctly or has understood a feature. Of course, such success does not indicate that the feature has been acquired. To obtain evidence of acquisition, it would be necessary to demonstrate that the learners possess the autonomous ability to use the feature, for example, by investigating whether they can produce the form correctly on subsequent occasions without prompting. However, there are theoretical grounds for believing that uptake might contribute to acquisition. Lister and Ranta (1997) observed that uptake helps learners to practice using items and thus may help them to automatize retrieval of them. Uptake may create the conditions needed for language acquisition to occur, and it is for this reason that it has attracted the attention of researchers.

Several studies (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998; Pannova & Lyster, 2002) have described the relationship between type of corrective feedback and learner's uptake.

Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001) relate uptake to focus on form. They notice that two kinds of focus on form can be distinguished: conversational and didactic. Following Van Lier's (1988) discussion of repair in the L2 classroom, they note that repair occurs implicitly in the context of a conversational move or explicitly in the form of an overt correction. Thus, conversational focus on form involves the negotiation of meaning, defined by Pica (1992: 200) as "activity that occurs when a listener signal to a speaker that the speaker's message is not clear, and the listener and speaker both work linguistically to resolve the problem"; a didactic focus on form is accomplished by means of a "negotiation of form" defined as activity that occurs when a participant in the conversation signals that

there is a linguistic problem, which another participant explicitly deals with. For their study of uptake they take a broad perspective, to acknowledge that uptake can occur even when the previous move does not involve corrective feedback. They note that there are occasions in communicative lessons where learners themselves preempt attention to a linguistic feature by asking a question, thus eliciting not a teacher feedback move but a teacher response move. In such student initiated focus on form, students have the opportunity to react by simply acknowledging the previous move or by attempting to use the feature in focus in their own speech.

3.7. The concept of confirmation.

For the purposes of our study, we must take into account the notion of teacher confirmation. We consider it a dynamic, purposeful, active phenomenon comprised of specific communication behaviours.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) consider the term in their study of corrective feedback and learner uptake. They name it reinforcement and define it as the short statements of approval ("yes", "o.k.", "good", etc) through which teachers seize the moment, following repair, to reinforce the correct form before proceeding to topic continuation. They also state that teachers frequently include metalinguistic information in their reinforcement.

Ellis (2000) argues that teacher confirmation is a type of teacher behaviour that has not been adequately examined. She states that the term has appeared in an interpersonal sense in the philosophical, religious, psychiatric, and communication literature for decades, starting with the writings of theologian M. Buber (1957) who alleged that confirmation is the interactional phenomenon by which we discover and establish our identity as humans.

Laing (1961) further developed the construct and emphasized that confirmation is the process that includes actions on the part of others that cause one to feel "endorsed", "recognized", and "acknowledged" as a unique, valuable human being. Therefore, "confirming behaviours are those that permit people to experience their own being and significance as well as their connectedness with

others" (Cissna & Sieburg, 1981, p.269). Watzlawick, Beavin, and Jackson (1967) consider confirmation as the "greatest single factor ensuring mental development and stability" (p.84).

Ellis (2000) states that little empirical attention has been paid to the confirmation construct in general and, in particular, to the role of teacher confirmation in educational contexts. She adds that no empirical investigations have examined teacher confirmation as it relates to student learning.

Ellis (2000) offers a review of literature where she explains that during the past 20 years, interpersonal researchers have paid increased attention to the role of relational communication. They have established that certain communication behaviours, both verbal and nonverbal, send relational messages and arouse in the receiver feelings of "being real or unreal, accepted or rejected, valued or scorned, understood or misunderstood, humanized or objectified" (Sieburg, 1985, p.188). Communication behaviours that evoke such feelings have been coded as confirmation and disconfirmation.

Using the conceptual framework provided by Laing (1961) and the descriptive work by Watzlawick et al. (1967), Sieburg (1969) extracted the basic dimensions of confirmation and disconfirmation and systematized confirming and disconfirming responses into interrelated clusters. According to the Sieburg typology, confirmation includes:

      a)   recognition

      b)   acknowledgement

      c)   endorsement

Disconfirmation would include:

      a)   indifference

      b)   imperviousness

      c)   disqualification of the speaker, his or her message, or both.

In addition to the typology presented, Sieburg developed a system for coding and measuring observed confirming and disconfirming responses during interaction (1969), as well as developing the first instrument to measure perceived confirmation (1975). From Sieburg's work, limited empirical study has proceeded from two vantage points: (a) observation and (b) receiver perception. Studies of observed confirmation have provided information about the nature of the

confirmation construct, while studies of perceived confirmation have revealed information about how confirmation operates in relation to outcome variables.

Studies of observed confirmation have shown that:

a)   confirmation appears to be an important, pervasive communication variable that may be free from contextual restraints (Ellis, 1996; Ross, 1973; Waxwood, 1976)

b)   confirmation may be identifiable only by the receiver (Cook, 1980; Ellis, 1996; Keating , 1977)

c)   confirmation seems to be a reciprocal process (S. Leth, 1977; Sundell, 1972)

d)   confirmation appears to be manifest through both verbal and nonverbal behaviours (Bavelas, 1992; Bavelas & Chovil, 1986; Bavelas, Hagen, Lane, & Lawrie, 1989; Chovil, 1980, 1989).

Studies of perceived confirmation have been primarily conducted in the context of the family. In the context of the classroom, the single existing empirical study suggests that perceived confirmation is associated with positive student-teacher relationships and that female public speaking instructors are perceived as more confirming than male instructors (P. Leth, 1977).

Ellis' (2000) study reports an attempt to operationalize perceived teacher confirmation in behavioural terms and to explore the relationships among perceived teacher confirmation, cognitive learning, and affective learning. Results from two samples of students showed that the final 16-item version of the Teacher Confirmation scale (TCS), created by her for this study, is valid and reliable. Confirmatory factor analysis indicated that teacher confirmation is best represented by a three-factor solution comprised of (a) teacher's response to students' questions-comments, (b) demonstrated interest in students and in their learning, and (c) teaching style. She explains that this factor structure cross-validated to the second sample and that a fourth factor, absence of disconfirmation, did not cross-validate and was deleted from the scale.

Her results also revealed that teacher confirmation plays a large, significant role in college students' cognitive and affective learning. For Sample 1, confirmation uniquely explained 18% of the variance in cognitive learning and 30% of the variance in affective learning. For Sample 2, confirmation uniquely explained 17.6% of the variance in cognitive learning and 31% of the variance in

affective learning. Structural equation modelling revealed strong, significant paths between confirmation and affective learning and a large, significant indirect effect of teacher confirmation on cognitive learning was identified, suggesting that affective learning serves as a mediating variable between teacher confirmation and cognitive learning.

4. PREVIOUS RESEARCH ON FEEDBACK; SELF-CORRECTION, UPTAKE AND CONFIRMATION.

Once we have offered a general perspective of the various aspects that we are going to analyse, we will describe several of the studies carried out in relation to them, looking closer at some aspects that have been highlighted earlier. The studies are going to be classified under two different headings according to the context in which the research was carried out, namely:

- contrival contexts: native speaker-non native speaker and natural conversations
- classroom context

4.1. Contrival contexts: native speaker-non native speaker and natural conversations

Regarding the issue of correction in native speaker-non native speaker conversation, we can find **Gaskill's (1980)** study, which attempted to explore the general nature of correction in this type of conversations and to provide background for teachers and researchers interested in this phenomenon. He used two types of conversations: 'artificial' and 'natural', being artificial the ones recorded between an Iranian non native speaker of English and four native speakers of American English; and being natural the ones recorded of him and speakers with whom he would normally come in contact (namely, his Iranian wife together with some American neighbours and his computer instructor). The first kind of conversations was considered artificial because they were arranged between speakers that would not normally come together, because the topics were provided and because a researcher was present. The findings of this study were claimed by the author to generally concur with those of Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks (1977):

1. Other-corrections were relatively infrequent.
2. Other-corrections were modulated in that they displayed uncertainty.

3.   When other-corrections were modulated, they generally occurred after modulated other-corrections or understanding checks or they occurred in the context of disagreement.

The author added to these findings the fact that other-corrections are elicited in the context of word searches, where the search constitutes a kind of correction-invitation format, that is, other-corrections and specially unmodulated corrections occur in special environments. These findings led Gaskill (1980) to conclude that in conversation, other-correction is an infrequent and highly restricted phenomenon.

Another study is based on the incorporation of feedback in native-non native speaker conversation, and was carried out by **Crookes and Rulon (1985)**.

The study compared native-non native speaker conversations associated with the completion of two communication tasks with free conversations by the same speakers. Then, it compared the evidence for interlanguage destabilization occurring in those conversations. The data was based on audiotapes of native speaker-non native speaker conversations that formed part of the data base of an earlier study (Long 1980). There were 16 dyads formed by adults from a variety of backgrounds. In the earlier study six activities were performed and the researchers chose three of them for this study. First, pairs spent three minutes getting to know each other in what they called a free conversation activity. In the second activity, participants were given the names of four items and were asked to agree on a category that would include three of them and exclude one. And in the third activity, they were given a pair of pictures almost identical, but for some specific details, which they had to identify, being separated by a screen, through the description of their picture to each other.

The unit of analysis of this study was the utterance, as described by Scollon (1974), who identified an utterance as a stream of speech with at least one of the following characteristics:

1.   under one intonation contour

2.   bounded by pauses

3.   constituting a single semantic unit

The authors defined feedback as the correct usage by a native speaker of a word or a construction which in an immediately preceding non native speaker

utterance had been used incorrectly. They defined incorporation of feedback as the use of a previously errorful form, following feedback, in a modified or target-language-like manner.

Crookes and Rulon (1985) reported that they observed significant difference for task related conversations versus free conversations on the amount of feedback produced by the native speakers, with the former eliciting significantly more native speaker feedback. However, destabilization of the interlanguage, which they thought of as more actual benefit, could be observed in only one of the tasks (only the second activity, odd man out, produced statistically significantly more incorporations than free conversation did).

The authors concluded that this study questioned the validity of assuming the absolute utility of all types of native speaker-non native speaker conversations for SLA. They said that the results did give cause for greater optimism about discourse which has the characteristics exhibited by certain types of task-related conversation. They stated that further investigation is needed on the structure of task-related conversation, the nature of the tasks that generate it and the consequent changes in the interlanguages of the participating non native speakers observed.

Schwartz (1993) tries to describe the type of repair work which occurs in conversations between second language learners, and it also examines the use of extralinguistic features accompanying the repairs.

The author recorded conversations from six non native speakers of English as they conversed in pairs. English was the only common language for communication. Students belonged to three different proficiency levels.

Schwartz (1993) stated that repair seemed to be a process of negotiation, involving speakers conferring with each other to achieve understanding. The author explained that the negotiations in the conversations included verbal and extralinguistic processes and that the repairs included self-initiated repair resulting into self-and other-repair, and other-initiated repair followed by self- and other-repair. The author added that the learners gave the speaker of a trouble source repeated opportunities to repair his own speech. However, when the trouble source was related to incompetence in syntax, lexicon or phonology, the other speaker also made repairs. The author suggested that second language learners can

learn more from one another than they think they can. Schwartz (1993) concluded that repair work is a very necessary part of conversation and that even the most elementary students were able to deal with trouble sources and problems in understanding in their conversations through the use of negotiation to come to an agreement of meaning.

Pica, Lincoln-Porter, Paninos and Linnell (1996) asked whether L2 learners' interaction with other learners could address three of their supposed needs for L2 learning in ways that interaction with native speakers has been shown to do. The three needs are the following:

- their needs for L2 input modified toward comprehensibility

- feedback focused on form

- modification of output

Subjects for the study were 30 learners and 10 native speakers of English. 20 of the learners were assigned to 1 of 10 dyads of learner-learner interactants, and 10 were assigned to 10 native speaker-learner dyads. The learners were Japanese L1 speakers enrolled in pre-academic, low-intermediate-level classes at university-based English language programmes.

An initial warm-up activity was followed by two experimental tasks, which were of the information gap type, that allowed each subject to have equal control over the information needed to carry out the tasks, and that required the subjects to exchange this information in order to successfully perform the task.

The authors reported that the results of this study showed that learners' negotiation with other learners addressed their theoretical needs for L2 learning in ways that were not always comparable to their negotiation with native speakers, in relation with their need for modified input and in special for input modified in ways that conform to features of L2 morphosyntax. However, in relation with the learners' need to produce modified input, results showed comparable production in both types of dyads. Learners' strongest contribution to each other's needs was revealed in the amount and type of feedback they provided through their signals of negotiation. These signals segmented portions of each other's utterances in ways that often conformed to L2 morphosyntax. The authors were optimistic about the findings on learners' feedback, as this area is often a source of concern for language pedagogy. They report that learners in their study seemed to be quite

effective in segmenting portions of each other's utterances as signals for message comprehensibility and as models of L2 morphosyntax. The sheer simplicity associated with segmentations seemed to make them a convenient way for the learners to let each other know that they could be understood.

These authors conclude that tasks that encourage and motivate students to invite, require, and ensure the comprehensibility of their message meaning, will engage learners to modify their interaction through negotiation and, therefore, serve as a context for them to provide each other with modified input and feedback for learning.

4.2. Classroom context.

The study of feedback in learning situations goes back to the 1960s related to behaviourist learning theory. This theory saw feedback as positive or negative reinforcement. It was the last step of the proposed initiation-response-feedback exchange of programmed learning and instructional technology. Feedback served as a strengthening or weakening of the learner's response. The audio-lingual approach took this view of feedback. Feedback was considered to be either positive praise or a negative utterance. In the latter case, the audio-lingual approach proposed grammar explanation or modelling of the correct response (Lado, 1957).

In a cognitive approach to learning, the function of feedback, besides providing reinforcement, gives the learners information which they can use in modifying their utterances. The information available in feedback allows learners to confirm, disconfirm or modify the transitional rules of their developing grammars, but these modifications depend on the learners' readiness for and attention to the information available in feedback.

In relation to readiness and attention, **Vigil and Oller (1976)** remarked that the effect of feedback implies not only information about target language forms but the further continuum of positive, negative or neutral support present in the interaction. This motivational aspect has an influence on the learner's cognitive information factors and may determine learners' efforts to attempt revision of their production.

Some research has been carried out in the areas of forms and functions of teacher's feedback and error gravity.

As for the forms and functions of teacher's feedback, **Chaudron (1988)** distinguishes: feedback turns, types of feedback and problems with feedback. We will concentrate on the last issue, as the other aspects have been largely discussed in this dissertation.

In relation to the problems with feedback, Salica (1981), adopting Chaudron's (1977) model, found that recasts or repetitions are the most common types of corrective feedback; this author observed three types of repetitions (including approving repetition) as the most common treatment type. Chaudron (1977) explained that recasts usually contain some additional information or a discourse feature which signals them to be corrections rather than confirmations. The problem is that for the language learner, whose grammar may be quite deficient, the modification may be imperceptible, or perceived as an alternative to their own utterance, because accepting, approving, confirming repetitions occur frequently in the same contexts.

In relation to error gravity, **Rifkin and Roberts (1995)** reviewed error gravity research design and its theoretical assumptions. They concluded that '… much of the contradiction in the research stems from the different performance contexts of the investigations (written vs. oral presentation of the stimuli) and the different tasks required of the judges. Furthermore, studies have lacked consistent methodology in terms of tasks given to respondents to elicit evaluations. … it is nearly impossible to get comparable results from a set off studies that rely on such different methods.' (p. 529).

To illustrate the varying outcomes of error gravity research, the authors mention some research papers which show different results on error gravity. Burt (1975) found that word order error was the most serious impairment to NS/NNS communication in English. In later studies across languages, lexical errors were found to cause hindrance to comprehensibility more seriously than word order errors (Chastain, 1980). Others found that pronunciation was more important than semantics or syntax in NS comprehension of spoken L2 production in English (Wigdorsky-Vogelsang, 1978, cited in Delamere, 1986). On the other hand, Varonis and Gass (1982) concluded that there is no hierarchy of grammatical error over pronunciation error (or vice versa) in terms of comprehensibility in English.

Once we have established the early research on feedback related to the classroom context, we are going to comment on different studies that have dealt with this topic and we consider important for the theoretical basis of this dissertation.

Richards (1975) suggested that error analysis or interlanguage analysis, that is, the attempt to determine the nature of second language learning and the second language learner's linguistic competence through analyzing his performance in language, is influenced in its goals and methodology by their understanding of four issues:

1.   the nature of language.

He reported that some studies related bilingual language performance to particular theories of language and the nature of linguistic structure, and illustrated how different conceptions of language result in different accounts of the significance of learners' errors.

2.   the nature of language systems in contact.

He explained that the study of bilingualism in an individual amounts to an account of dual storage/production and reception systems in a single speaker. There is one language in two or more speech modes.Syntax is subordinate to meaning and errors in this process are viewed as the product of production and reception strategies and heuristics.

3.   the learning of linguistic systems.

He distinguished between learning the language code and learning the way the code is used. He, thus, diferentiated between the learner's attempts to internalize the mechanisms for the generation of the linguistic unit of sentence and the learner's attempts to use language to regulate behaviour (utterance). He explained that learners' eroors represent attempts to break down the speech code of the new language into categories that realize the unit of sentence in that language.

4.   the use of linguistic systems in communication.

He was concerned here with how what we do with language determines the structure of what we say or write, that is to say, with the nature of the learner's utterances in contrast with the nature of his/her sentences.

The author argued that the contribution of error analysis to our further understanding of these issues would profoundly influence our attitude toward the pragmatic problems of second language teaching.

Allwright (1975) stated that if one wants to study how any learner learns in class, they must study everything that happens in class to all the learners. Thus to focus on the teacher's treatment of learner error is to adopt a rather narrow focus, as it means concentrating on what might be called the potential crisis points in the process, ignoring all the other occasions on which any learner might get information about the target language. And yet he considered it a much broader viewpoint than the one of conventional error analysis. Firstly because it attempts to deal with the classroom context in which errors occur, as well as with errors themselves, and secondly because it attempts to take into account the social nature of this context in terms of a complexity of relationships between teacher and learners.

He indicated the wealth of interest and the methodological complexity that confront the researcher investigating the language teacher's treatment of learner error. He offered a preliminary work, based on pilot data only, that permitted the elaboration of analysis that needed to be refined by further observational studies.

Cathcart and Olsen (1976) argued that the ultimate goal of research on error correction in language learning os to find which correction methods facilitate learning. They added that it is important to ascertain what students and teachers assume to be the most effective methods for correcting errors. In their study, their offered four parts:

> 1.   a discussion of questionnaires on error correction, completed by students in two community college centres and a university in San Francisco; according to their results, all students agreed that they wished to be corrected when they made oral errors, a majority of students said that they wished to be corrected all the time, students thought pronunciation and grammar errors were the most important to correct and a large majority of students said teachers in fact correct grammar and pronunciation more than vocabulary and word order.

2.   a discussion of what error corrections occurred in tapes of actual classroom interactions at these and other San Francisco centres; according to their results, teachers were accurate in naming the kinds of correction they used in the classroom and the kinds they did not use and that the wide variety of corrections shows a great diversity of individual teaching styles.

3.   a) a review of error-correction questionnaires, filled out by the same teachers who were taped, and comparison of the tapes to the answers on the questionnaires;

b) a discussion of an additional group of teachers' questionnaires, used to obtain a larger sample of teacher preference for error correction, and comparison of teacher and student preferences;

4.   suggestions for further research in this area and general comments on error correction study. They suggested possibilities such as a refinement of the questionnaire, more delineation of different ESL levels within the questionnaire, more attention to possible ethnic preferences for different kinds of corrections, a refinement of technique in prompting student opinion on how and when to correct and an exploration of the question, "At what levels of proficiency should the teacher focus on error correction?".

These authors concluded that a comparison of teacher and student questionnaires showed that, as they expected, students wish to be corrected more than teachers feel they should be.

Chaudron (1977) undertook a study in three teachers' French immersion classrooms for English-speaking students. He believed that this context would provide an opportunity to observe both the discursive form of, the priorities among, and the effectiveness of the teachers' corrections. He presented a model derived through analysis of the coded transcripts of those classes. This author clarified the criteria for isolating teachers' corrective reactions:

- strictly speaking, one could consider as corrections only those treatments which, after correction of a given item, succeed in establishing the learner's consistent correct performance and his/her autonomous ability to correct himself/herself on the item.

- the second conception of correction implied that a correction occurs when the teacher is able to elicit a corrected response from the committer of the error or from one or more of his/her classmates. He named it 'successful correction'.

- the third one included any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner's utterance.

- the fourth concept of correction was a very narrow and excluding one, namely, positive or negative reinforcement.

Chaudron (1977) found that the third conception of correction allowed the most inclusive study of teachers' reactions.

In his study, the location of errors was determined by the teachers' reactions according to the third concept of correction, by their own expressed criteria and by objective linguistic judgements. His categories of errors ranged fron the strictly 'linguistic' (phonological, morphological, syntactic), to subject matter 'content' (factual and conceptual knowledge) and lexical items, to errors of classroom interaction and discourse.

He offered a model that helped ot describe phenomenon such as simultaneous correction o f different errors, as well as combinations of types of reaction and recursive correction interaction. He followed Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) system for classroom discourse which was based on moves and acts with discursive options. This system implies that a simple ocrrection can involve at least three moves after the student's initial error:

1) the teacher can react in an initial Follow-up Move, which consists of some sort of treatment that optionally accepts, evaluates, and/or coments on the error. Ignoring an error may occur simultaneously with the treatment of a second error in the same student utterance.

2) some Opening Move, or elicitation, will be necessary to get the student or transferred students, to respond again, whether or not any initial Follow-up treatment has been provided. Lacking a Follow-up Move, the Opening Move may convey information regarding the error.

3) the student(s) will then reply again.

A major premise of his study is that a given utterance in the teacher's corrective reaction, however it is typified formally, will have meaning only in relation to its place in the flow through the model. Furthermore, according to him, the structure of classroom interaction is such that different formal types or features of utterances are more likely to occur at certain points than at others, thus establishing expectancies in the learner that help in his interpretation of the meaning of any utterance.

Through the analysis of the transcripts of the lessons, Chaudron (1977) found numerous highly regular patterns in teachers' oral reactions. They were isolated on the basis of their regular appearance in instruction, their potential information content, and their clear relationship to the surrounding discourse. He presented an expanded model for the flow of corrective discourse, showed in the figure below. The dotted arrows in the figure indicate options proceeding in the direction of the arrows from the emitting boxes. The separate boxes, representing acts or conglomerates of acts, constitute the major alternative pathways through the model. He explained that within any conglomerate box the types or features separated by dotted lines could occur alone or combine optionally in a variety of indeterminate ways. Nevertheless, there seems to be a tendency for combinations to occur in a downward and possibly clockwise movement.
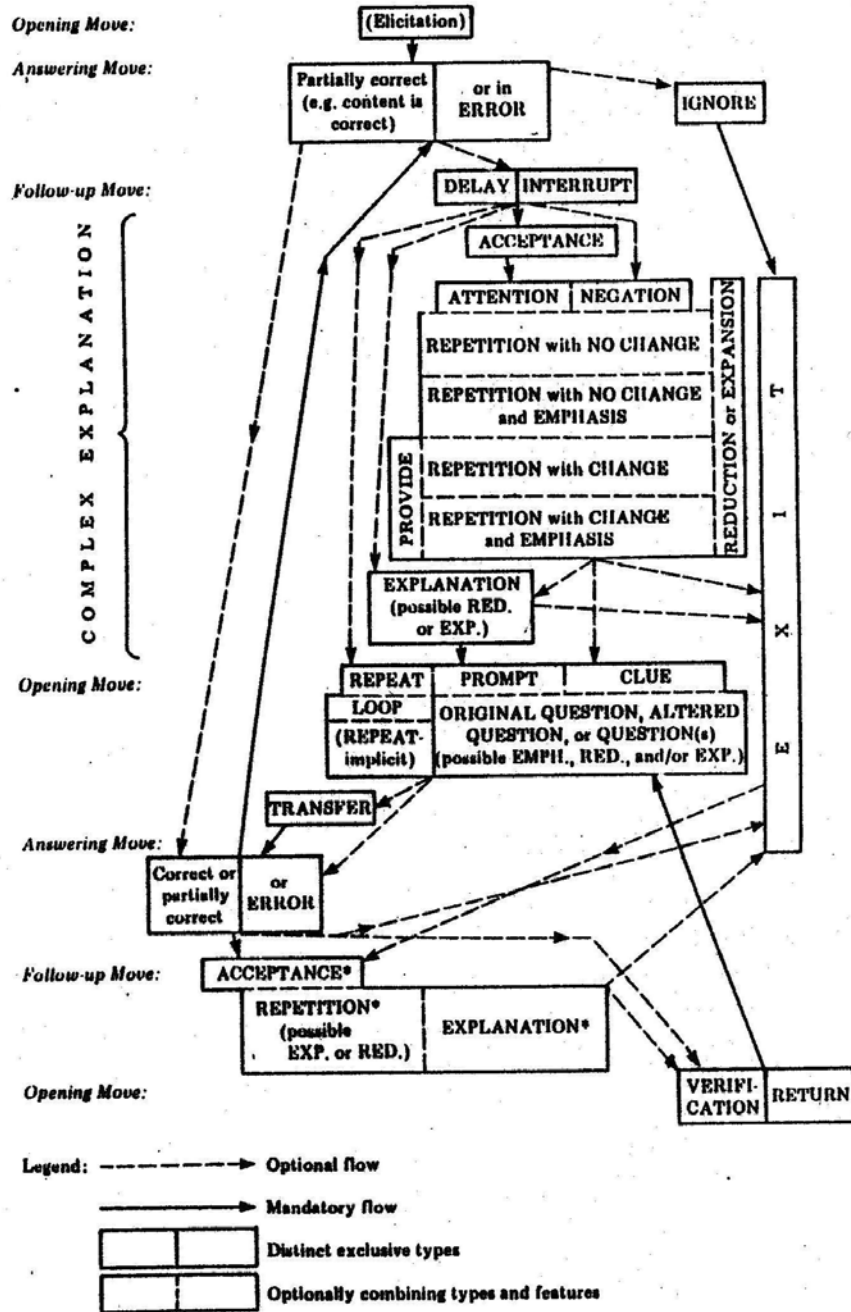
MODEL OF DISCOURSE   37

Figure 2. A Flow Chart Model of Corrective Discourse.

We can state that there is a clear number of possibilities for paths through the model and that his study permits a more precise description of several important factors in corrective discourse than

previous schema had provided. His description can be seen as a basis for analysis of the reasons for failure or success of a given reaction.

The author claimed that the problem for the teacher of clearly locating the error for his/her student was clarified by this model and its isolation of certain special features. The degree of explicitness of corrections had previously been evaluated without precise linguistic criteria, and appeal had been made to contextual features. His model may have helped to distinguish the effective linguistic/discursive features from semantic/contextual ones. Chaudron (1977) concluded that L2 learners could be sensitised to the types of teacher corrective reactions, to the function they fulfil, and to what each type expects of them in return. Such an approach would enhance all three functions of feedback (incentive, reinforcement and information) and take much of the guesswork out of teaching and learning.

Long (1977) reviewed a number of studies on the ways in which learners in classroom settings are given information about the relative success or failure of their attempts to use new language. He also described the options open to teachers when errors occur and presented a model of the decision-making process.

The author explained the importance of the role of feedback in any cognitive theory of second language learning by stating that in order to perform any task people require information on the success or failure of their attempts at performance. He added that, as language teachers, we give recognition to the importance of the function of knowledge of results (KR) both by the amount of time we spend informing our students of when, where and why they have gone wrong, and by the wide range of techniques we have developed to do so. He argued that feedback on error by the teacher is potentially one of the necessary and sufficient conditions for successful foreign/second language learning. He defined error correction in terms of the correcting move, that is, behaviour by the teacher which allows the learner to obtain knowledge of results (KR), on the basis of which it will be the learner who makes a correcting move.

He offered a literature review on the topic of teacher feedback on learner error. He explained that there were a number of participant ovservational studies of teacher behaviour following errors by second language learners and that they

described the feedback practices of experienced teachers working with students of differing ages and levels of language proficiency, often in small groups and with English or French as the second language.

The author reported that teacher reacting moves following learner error have been observed by several investigators to lack clarity. He argued that following students error, teachers often gave more than one form of feedback simultaneously, which provoked the confusion of their students. He added that teachers frequently used the same overt behaviour for two or more purposes. Another often reported source of ambiguity concerns, according to him, teacher's use of positive feedback, usually in the form of praise markers: he stated that sometimes these were used to interrupt a student, sometimes to confirm correctness and sometimes to indicate the existence of error. He reported that another source of lack of clarity is the sheer linguistic or conceptual complexity of some of the feedback teachers give. He explained that inconsistency in a series of moves was also the result of lack of clarity of individual feedback moves: What is treated as erroneous, who is so treated and how that message is transmitted sometimes appeared somewhat arbitrary. Mehan (1974), in his study of two "orientation lessons" for early primary-school-age children, reported the teacher's insistence on complete sentences for children's responses on some occasions, her acceptance of incomplete sentences on others, even for the same children, and her rejection of the complete correct response on others.

Long (1977) argued that stretches of recorded verbal classroom interaction lose much by being taken out of the context not only of the lesson from which they come, but of the whole history of the relationships established prior to those lessons between the teacher and the students concerned. He explained that when an error occurs and is noticed by the teacher, he/she is faced with several complex decisions the making of which require the careful weighing of many factors often not apparent in the transcripts even of complete lessons. Some of these are reported by him as the teacher's awareness of his or her usual feedback practices with these students, and beliefs as to the students' familiarity with them, his/her beliefs as to their success so far and perception of the measures' popularity among the students in the class. Other factors considered include the objectives of this lesson and the course as a whole, the pedagogic focus at the moment of error commission and the teacher's perception of the likely outcome of treatment in

terms of the error-making student's aptitude, personality, ability and sociometric status.

Taking all these factors into account, he offered a model of the major steps in the decision-making process teachers go through prior to performing some overt behaviour following learner error. It is shown in the following figure:

Figure 1. Model of the decision-making process prior to the teacher feedback move.
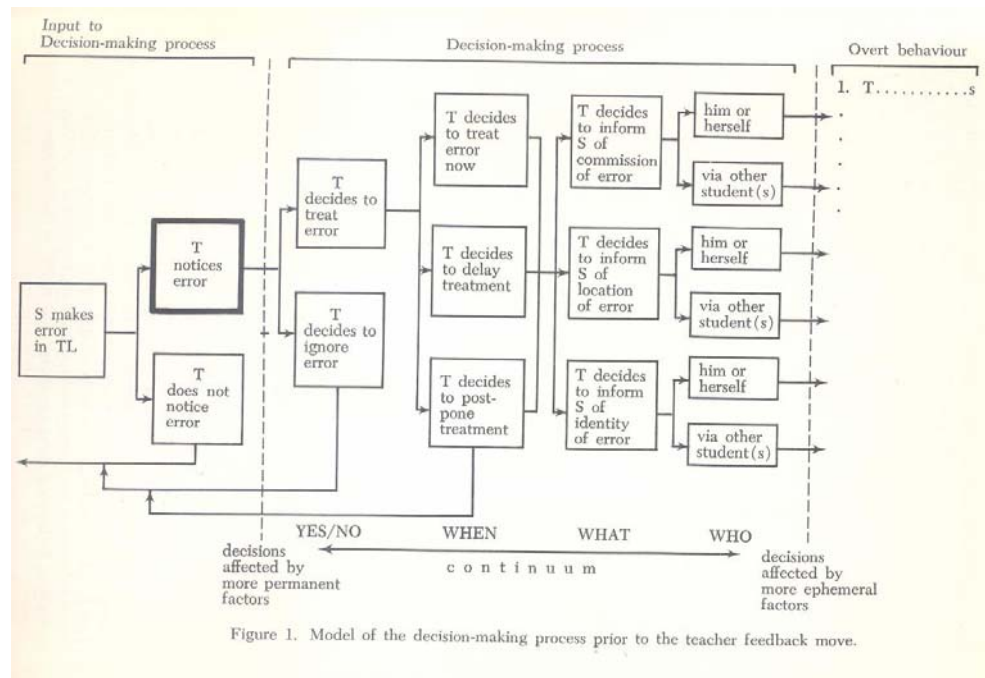
This author concluded that the role of teacher feedback, whether errors are in any sense committed intentionally or not, is clearly vital, but it may be that not all forms of feedback are as vital as we sometimes think. He argued that the greater efficiency of language instruction which includes various kinds of feedback on formal accuracy needs to be tested, but meanwhile can be improved by teachers reconsidering the options available to them and the decisions they make following learner error.

Hendrickson (1980) advised teachers to try to discern the difference between local and global errors (Burt and Kiparsky 1972). Global errors hinder communication; they prevent the hearer from comprehending some aspect of the message. Local errors do not prevent the message from being heard, usually because there is only a minor violation of one segment of a sentence, allowing the hearer/reader to make an accurate guess about the intended meaning. The author

reported that once a learner was describing a quaint old hotel in Europe and said: "there is a French widow in every bedroom". The local error is, clearly and humourously, recognized. Hendrickson (1980) recommended that local errors usually need not be corrected since the message is clear and correction might interrupt a leaner in the flow of productive communication. Global errors need to be corrected in some way since the message may otherwise remain unclear. "I saw their department" is a sentence that would most likely need correcting if the hearer is confused about the final word in that sentence. Many utterances are not clearly global or local, and it is difficult to discern the necessity for corrective feedback. He remarked that a learner once said: "the grammar is the basement of every language". It was unclear for the teacher to ascertain what the learner meant here (no doubt "bases" rather than "basement") and he realised that it was necessary to provide some feedback to clarify the difference between the two. The author recommends not to stifle our students' attempts at production by smothering them with corrective feedback.

The purpose of **Gaies' (1983)** study is to describe the nature of learner feedback. He observed dyads and triads, that is, groups of one teacher and one student and groups of one teacher and two students. The activity he used to elicit data was a problem-solving task in referential communication. The completion of this task depended on the imparting of certain information by the teacher to the student(s). The teacher was to describe, without use of gesture, a series of six different graphic designs in such a way that the learner(s) could number the designs in the order in which they were described in an answer sheet.

Gaies' (1983) study was a descriptive one, and therefore an important issue was the selection of a framework within which the phenomena under investigation could be viewed. He had decided a priori to examine learner feedback within the general framework of interaction analysis, that is, as utterances which interact with teacher utterances to shape classroom discourse.

The author reported that the data on learner feedback could be summarized in the following way:

1. Collectively, the learners made use of feedback in all four of the major categories (structuring, soliciting, responding and reacting); not all individual learners, however, used all four types of feedback.

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2.   There was considerable variation from learner to learner in the amount of feedback provided.

3.   In both dyads and triads, reacting moves were by far the most frequent form of feedback; structuring moves occurred the least frequently and were the least evenly distributed.

4.   In each of the triads, one learner provided considerably more feedback than the other.

The author stated that the main aim of this pilot study was to explore learner verbal feedback as it occurred in a particular set of ESL learning settings, with the eventual goal of developing the outline for a larger study. The study raised issues such as:

1.   How similar the feedback behaviour of the learners in the ESL dyads and triads observed is to that which might be observed in other settings of comparable size or in larger settings. In other words, if the learning-group size bears on the issue of learner feedback.

2.   Whether or not the kind and amount of feedback provided by the language learners vary according to the nature of the activity taking place in the learning setting (being the tasks less teacher- or material-centred).

3.   Whether or not a relationship exists between the learner characteristics and the type of feedback provided, that is, if different learners will exploit the possibilities to various degrees.

The relationship between teacher behaviour and learner feedback, or, in other words, if particular characteristics of teacher verbal activity can either stimulate or reduce learner feedback.

Gaies (1983) concluded that his study provides a point of departure for the study of learner feedback, that it described the ways in which language learners participate in the structuring of classroom discourse, and that, although it was not sufficient for developing generalizations, it raised questions which might be explored in further researching.

Nystrom (1983) examines the interaction of feedback variables in twenty hours of videotape collected in four first-grade classrooms in which bilingual students were being instructed in oral language development. During interviews,

the teachers identified the errors made by their students from the videotape. She isolated, transcribed, categorized and analyzed the error-response sequences in order to understand the structure of these episodes.

She reports that the correction styles of the four teachers are connected to their teaching styles in general. Teachers A-1, B-1 and B-2 have personal characteristics that seem to encourage students to experiment with language. However, teacher A-2 regiments the language environment in such a way that it leaves no ground for the students to test their linguistic hypothesis. Nystrom (1983) found that the teachers' attitudes towards oral language development, manifested in their responses to learner error, could be seen as a continuum. It would range from overtly correcting teacher A-2, until non-correcting teacher B-1, who thought that the errors made by her students were developmental and found overt correcting treatment of no use. In the middle, we would find teachers A-1 and B-2, who saw error as a function of interference from the native language and so relied on overt correction and language drill.

The author concludes that the teacher who allows errors to go uncorrected may not be meeting the needs of her students. However, she adds that teachers who sacrifice communication in the name of correct language use should consider the consequences of their methods on the language development of their students.

McHoul (1984) makes a distinction between self-correction and other-correction, and explains that there are repair sequences in which the speaker of the initial item makes the correction and instances in which this is performed by one of her or his interlocutors. He says that it is necessary to look not merely at corrections, but at the wider repair *trajectories* in which they occur. McHoul (1984) states that it is possible to distinguish the structural preferences of classroom discourse in relation to repair, only after we have studied the social identities of teacher and student.

He points out the difference between classroom and natural conversation in relation to repair. He deals with this in terms of sequences and highlights that the larger repair trajectories are actually organized in the classroom.

After analysing transcript materials from classroom talk, he arrives at a number of conclusions, namely, that same-turn self-initiations and self-corrections are less numerous than next-turn other-initiation; that other-corrections are

frequently structurally delayed, allowing further turns of self-correction to occur; that indirect next-turn phenomena are more frequently used than direct other-initiation; and that both teachers and students are involved in same-turn self-corrections, but next-turn other-initiation is the prerogative of teachers and third-turn self-correction the one of students.

Chaudron (1986) undertook a pilot study of classroom interaction in an immersion programme at the 8 and 9 levels in conjunction with the Bilingual Education Project of the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education. The aim of this study was to determine whether, and it what ways, immersion teachers established priorities between classroom performance of linguistic skills and of subject matter knowledge. The analysis was based on the oral correction of both oral errors and of some other behaviour judged inappropriate by the teachers.

The results showed a reasonable degree of agreement between the teachers' stated priorities and their classroom practice. Language instruction was indeed subordinated to the subject matter. The study seemed to show that there existed a significant higher achievement in immersion students when compared to students who took French as a subject analysed in previous research. However, the author concluded that there is still a need to determine which behaviour on the part of the teachers can help their students to improve their linguistic performance, and which behaviour tends to inhibit or confuse the development of such performance.

Kasper (1986) analysed a FL lesson with two markedly different activity types and showed that talking about repair in FL teaching as such is inconclusive: she argued that preferences and dispreferences for specific repair patterns depend on the configuration of relevant factors in the classroom context. She reported that Madsen and Petersen (1983) demonstrated that the organizational structure (frontal teaching versus group work) and the teacher's personal style determine choices of repair type. In her study, the variables 'teacher' and 'organizational structure' (frontal teaching) remained unchanged and the teaching goal of the two phases turned out to be the decisive factor for the selection of repair patterns. The focus on formal correctness in the language-centred phase, together with the total lack of any purposeful communicative use of FL by the learners, was matched by a repair pattern which functioned as a pedagogical exchange, that is, the teacher-

initiated delegated repair of a learner's utterance. She claimed that in analogy to the pedagogical exchange as a discourse pattern which derives its specific function and structure from the overall organization of teacher-controlled teaching, she could refer to the prevalent repair pattern in the language-centred phase as one type of pedagogical repair. In the content-centred phase with its emphasis on the meaningful use of FL, this repair type was dispreferred. In that cae, the repair pattern with the clearest pedagogical function was the teacher's self-initiated and self-completed repair in connection with an elicitation and the teaching of vocabulary. She found that the two prevalent repair types – self-initiated and self-completed repair of both teacher and learner utterances – had in common that they were most efficient in terms of the ongoing communication, as they interrupted the discourse to a lesser degree than repair activity involving both the 'self' and the 'other'.

The procedure of using a questionnaire was also followed by **Cohen (1987)**. He studied 217 students from New York State University at Binghamton. They were all studying in courses in which the writing papers and the receiving of teacher feedback on them was an integral part. The questionnaire asked the students to think on the last paper which they had received back from their teacher. Cohen (1987) concluded that this study suggested that learners had a limited repertoire of strategies for processing teacher feedback. Learners just made a mental note of the teacher's comments and did not write down points for future revision referring to other papers, and did not revise their paper with the incorporation of teacher comments. The fact that 80 per cent of the students did read over their papers when they were returned, and that a similar percentage of learners attended to the teacher's comments was a proof that these basic steps in processing the correction were normally going on. However, the author stated that this study demonstrated that we cannot assume these basic steps are taken, as the study showed that one-fifth of the students performed these steps sparingly, if at all, and those who were in greatest need of input from the teacher, that is those who rated themselves as poorer learners, were the least likely to read over their papers and pay attention to the teacher's correction.

The author claimed that the results of his survey could suggest that the activity of teacher feedback may have more limited impact on the learners than

the teachers would decide. Finally, he added that there could be room for learner training dealing with strategies to handle teacher feedback, and also for teacher training in relation to more effective feedback for student writers.

Yule, Damico and Hoffman (1987) observed that some students learning English as a second language regressed in performance during language learning when traditional test accuracy scores were used. Using a confidecence/rating scale, the self-monitoring abilities of 67 intermediate English as second language students enrolled in a university-level pronunciation/listening course were assessed over a seven week period and compared with test accuracy scores. Results indicated three different groups of students. A lower level group, in terms of initial test accuracy scores, improved in their ability to choose correct answers on a test but their self-monitoring ability did not improve. A middle-level group actually regressed in their ability to choose correct answers on a test, but significantly improved in self-monitoring ability. The higher-level group showed only minor improvement in both ablity to choose correct answers and in self-monitoring. The authors discussed the pedagogical implications of these findings in terms of language acquisition, teacher attitudes and testing.

Martí and Bou (1988) tried to determine university students' interests and needs about their learning English as a compulsory subject at the university. They asked them to answer a questionnaire dealing with what techniques they thought more effective for learning linguistic content and acquiring the language skills. They also asked them to give their opinion about ways to get their oral and written production corrected.

These authors observed that students valued the correction of activities in the classroom, because they thought that the teacher or other students could help them understand their errors. In relation to the correction of oral language, students preferred an indirect corrective treatment. They showed that they did not want to be interrupted by the teacher because this made them nervous and could not continue their contribution.

However, they also reported that they found the total lack of correction as something unfavourable. They showed that they needed the teacher's help and support in order to ameliorate their oral communicative competence.

Dealing with written language, students valued both the self-correction techniques and other-corrections carried out by the teacher. Martí and Bou (1988) stated that they found self-correction very effective, although in a large classroom it is very difficult to check if it has been carried out effectively.

Van Lier (1988) offers a general picture of the matter in chapter 7 of his book, in which, through an ethnographic approach, he argues that dealing with problems of language use is a matter of continuous adjustment between speakers and hearers obliged to operate in a code which gives them problems. This adjustment-in-interaction may be crucial to language development, for it leads to noticing discrepancies between what is said and what is heard, and to a resolution of these discrepancies. In order to investigate what happens when people repair their own and each other's language, we will have to go beyond a mere focus on identifiable linguistic errors, although in a second-language classroom such errors will naturally be frequent, and hence merit attention.

He later describes the notion of repair, and explains that it constitutes a generic term and that correction is one type of repair which consists of the replacement of an error made by the speaker. Therefore, according to him, repair is a much broader issue than the mere correction of errors. Repair is considered by him as the treatment of trouble occurring in interactive language use and it would include the correction of errors, but also other phenomena.

He then distinguishes between the treatment of errors found in the L2 classroom and those committed in general conversation. He states that in ordinary L1 conversation, the mechanism of repair is organized in order to avoid overt correction, which is characterized by face threats and loss of face. Goffman (1967) defined face as the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact. According to him, face is an image of self delineated in terms of approved social attributes – although an image that others may share, as when a person makes a good showing for his profession or religion by making a good showing for himself. Thomas (1995) argues that within politeness theory, 'face' is best understood as every individual's feeling of self-worth or self-image; this image can be damaged, maintained or enhanced through interaction with others.

Generally, speakers do their own repairing, left to do so by hearers. However, the situation in the L2 classroom is different. Van Lier (1988) states that, in this context, more problems needing repair occur, as the participants are not yet completely competent in the target language. He also claims that the pedagogical orientation of talk in L2 classroom justifies the overt correction of errors. And finally he states that there are a number of specific rules which are different to common conversation and that allow for face threat.

Van Lier (1988) offers the classification of macro-categories of language function which reflect the range of purposes of the participants and that are:

- *Medium-oriented:* a focus on the forms and/or functions of the target language.
- *Message-oriented:* a focus on the transmission of thoughts, information, feelings, etc.
- *Activity-oriented:* a focus on the organization and structure of the classroom environment, rules for the conduct of activities, etc.

The author warns that above these three categories the ultimate purpose of the classroom setting is the learning of a language and students may always be aware that the main aim is to use language profitably as input. The purpose of the L2 classroom is likely to influence the type of repair work, in terms of what kind of trouble is going to be considered suitable for repair and in the way repair can be done. In that way, he distinguishes *didactic repair*, that is, repair work in the L2 classroom which is specifically pedagogic in nature, and *conversational repair*, which is the repair that is common to all face-to-face interaction and that deals with problems of talk. Both types can operate in the class at different times and relatively independently.

He argues next that self-repair is preferred in conversation, whereas in L2 classrooms, even though it also occurs, we mainly find other-repair. He raises the question of whether in the L2 classroom, other-repair replaces or interferes with self-repair to some significant extent, and if this is in detriment of the learners' interlanguage development. This is a question which could be the starting point of further research on the topic.

Van Lier (1988) also offers some pedagogical observations:

1.   Turns in L2 discourse are allocated by the teacher, and interruptions for repair, error-replacement, helping, etc. do not mean floor threats as the ones in natural conversation. They are usually designed to facilitate the construction of a turn, and are most of the times welcomed by the learner.

2.   The notion of third-place evaluation in the basic three-turn format is not always relevant, since the dyad can be extended indefinitely by a series of repairs which can occur during the learner's responding turn.

3.   It is impossible to predict if and when repair work will occur in a sequence of discourse, as anything in principle can be repairable.

4.   Teachers frequently make use of a routine repair of learners' utterances in L2 which are in some way defective. This is normally accepted without comment by the learner as evidence of the teacher's superior status as a competent speaker of the target language.

5.   A teacher may have problems in correctly assessing the force of a learner's repair-initiation.

Van Lier (1988) concludes that the problems that occur in and outside the classroom may be different, but the ways in which they are treated will vary depending on the concerns of the participants and the nature of the problem. Finally, he suggests that some delay of other-repair may be beneficial, since it would promote the development of self-monitoring and pragmatic adjustment which is essential to competence in the second language. However, we must always bear in mind that the question of how and when to repair will always be related to the context of what is being done in the classroom.

Tomasello and Herron (1989) compared two methods for correcting language transfer errors in the foreign language classroom. Their subjects were 32 English-speaking college students enrolled in two sections of an introductory French course. They identified eight common English-to-French transfer errors and randomly assigned them to one of two teaching conditions for one class section. Each error was assigned to the opposite condition for the other section. In both teaching conditions, students first translated English sentences into French. The sentences were such that an L1 transfer strategy produced correct translations.

Then, they introduced a sentence for which the transfer would not produce an adequate translation. But, whereas in one condition (the Garden Path condition) they asked students to translate it as before and after they made the inevitable error, they were immediately corrected by the teacher, in the control condition, students were simply given the correct French form and told that it differed from the English pattern.

The results were that the Garden Path technique facilitated the accurate acquisition of some L2 structures that are usually involved in L1 transfer errors, and this facilitation lasted for several weeks. The authors believed that the best explanation for these results was in terms of the cognitive and social contexts in which the learning took place. They were of the opinion that students learn best when they produce a hypothesis and receive immediate feedback; this situation creates maximal conditions in which they may compare their own system and that of mature speakers in a cognitive way. They said that this kind of comparisons were very important for L1 acquisition. They reported that the Garden Path technique provided an excellent cognitive context for the students to make comparisons between their language and the teacher's, and it did so in the context of an accepting social environment where errors were viewed as a logical and inevitable outcome of active student learning. These authors thought that it might be possible that L2 learning occurs in some situations involving only input, without feedback or the opportunity to make comparisons, but they do not believe that this could be a general condition, as some authors like Krashen (1985) argue.

They added in their study that only three other works provided data on both feedback and resultant learner outcome:

- Chaudron (1977), who found that, in the immediate conversational context, teacher feedback that helped students to localize an error, also helped them to correct the error in that same context.

- Herron and Tomasello (1988), who found that the learning situations in which students were centred on their own errorful attempts and teacher feedback, were better, in the context of their earliest experiences with grammar structures, than those in which they just received examples of the correct structure.

- Tomasello and Herron (1988), who introduced the Garden Path technique in the context of L2 overgeneralization errors and already demonstrated that this technique produced superior student learning through a semester-long course.

Tomasello and Herron (1989) concluded in their study that the effectiveness of the Garden Path technique might have important implications for theories of L2 acquisition, as, for them, the most important language learning experiences are those in which it is possible for learners to compare and note discrepancies between their own language structures and those of mature speakers. They found that this situation is in opposition to those involving only raw input that does not conflict with the learner's current system, and hypothesized that those learning situations which facilitate cognitive comparison would facilitate learning.

Another study deals with intonation in relation to feedback and was carried out by **Hewings (1992).** He stated that his research was an attempt to come to a better understanding of what goes on in the classroom by applying the system of ascribing communicative significance to intonation to a corpus of recorded data. He considered a limited aspect of interaction: the provision of feedback by a teacher following and relating to a student's response in the EFL classroom. Hewings (1992) explained that in the three-part interchange that constitutes the teaching exchange, feedback may suppose one-third of the total language produced, and, thus, it must be given its real importance. This author stated that, in providing feedback after the student's response, the teacher has three options:

1. to give a negative assessment, that is, to reject the response indicating its unacceptability;
2. to withhold the assessment until some later stage;
3. to give a positive assessment, that is, to indicate the acceptability of the response.

Hewings (1992) reported that after an unacceptable response, outright rejection is not very common, and that what usually occurs is that the teacher re-initiates the exchange trying to elicit a corrected response. In this case, he found that intonation is very significant in conveying the teacher's expectations for the subsequent response: if the teacher provides an incomplete quotation of the

student's response selecting a neutral tone, the classroom convention is that the student should complete the quotation making the necessary changes:

Ex: S: //p she COOK a CHICken//

T: //o SHE//

S: //p COOKED a CHICken//

Sometimes the teacher selects by intonation the item in need of correction:

Ex: S: //p she COOKED a CHICken//

T: //r+ SHE//

S: //p HE cooked a chicken//

Hewings (1992) argued that it could be suggested that it was the incompleteness of the quotations that resulted in a further response from the student, but that it was tone selection that provided an indication of where the error was located in the response.

The author added that in withholding the assessment, a neutral tone is usually selected. And he also said that in giving a positive assessment, the teacher can choose to indicate acceptance in many different ways using the tone selection: repeat the whole student's answer with final falling tone, repeat just part of the student's response, etc.

His study presents some of the main observations made in an exploratory descriptive study of the role of intonation in the organization of classroom interaction. He shows that by drawing upon selections from the intonation systems of prominence, tone, key and termination, the teacher can show his/her disapproval or approval of a particular response, withhold an assessment of it, draw the student's attention to particular aspects of the response and mark the termination of units of discourse. As he points out, without analysis of the intonational characteristics of any utterance in discourse, the ability to accurately interpret its pragmatic function is much reduced.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) present a study of corrective feedback and learner uptake in four immersion classrooms at the primary level.

Their unit of analysis is an error treatment sequence which is shown in the following figure and is to be read as a flowchart presenting a series of either/or options that together constitute the error treatment sequence:
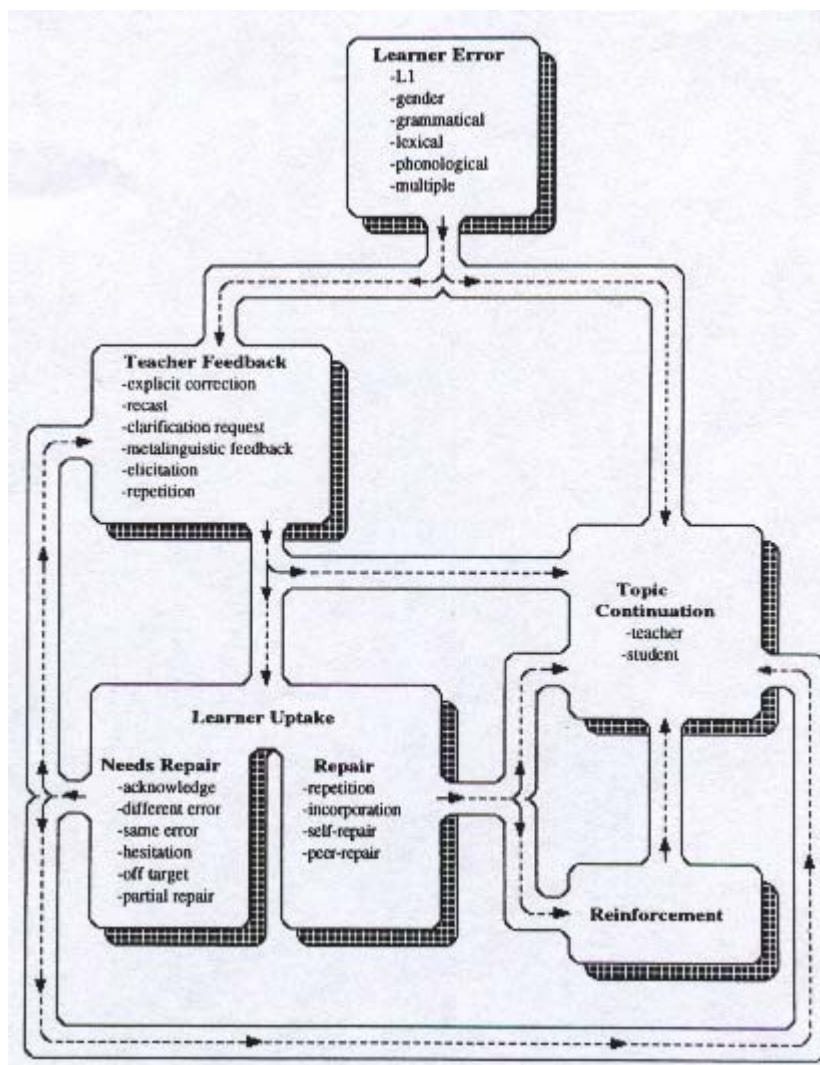
The sequence starts with a learner's utterance that contains at least one error. The erroneous utterance can be followed by the teacher's corrective feedback or not; if not, then there is topic continuation. If corrective feedback is provided, then it is either followed by uptake on the part of the student or not. If there is uptake, then the student's initially erroneous utterance is either repaired or continues to need repair in some way. If the utterance needs repair, then the teacher may again provide feedback; if no further feedback is provided, then there is topic continuation. When there is repair, it is followed either by topic continuation or by some repair-related reinforcement provided by the teacher. There is topic continuation after the reinforcement.

In their study, all student turns were coded as having an error or not. They classified errors as either phonological, lexical, or grammatical. They also included instances of the L1 unsolicited by the teacher in their category of error.

They distinguished six different types of feedback:

1.   *Explicit correction:* explicit provision of the correct form; as the teacher provides the correct form, he/she clearly indicates that what the student had said was incorrect.

2.   *Recast:* the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error; recasts also include translations in response to a student's use of the L1.

3.   *Clarification request:* indication to students either that their utterance has been misunderstood by the teacher or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or a reformulation is required.

4.   *Metalinguistic feedback:* it contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form.

5.   *Elicitation:* it refers to at least three techniques that teachers use to directly elicit the correct form from the student; first, teachers elicit completion of their own utterance by strategically pausing to allow students to "fill in the blank"; second, teachers use questions to elicit correct forms; and finally, teachers occasionally ask students to reformulate their utterance.

6.   *Repetition:* teacher's repetition, in isolation, of the student's erroneous utterance; most of the times, teachers adjust their intonation so as to highlight the error.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) added a seventh category called *multiple feedback*, which referred to combinations of more than one type of feedback in one teacher turn.

In relation to the notion of uptake, they drew on speech act theory (Austin, 1962) to introduce the term into the error treatment sequence. Uptake in their model refers to a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance. According to them, there are two types of student uptake: (a) uptake that results in 'repair' of the error on which the feedback focused and (b) uptake that results in an utterance that still needs repair (coded as 'needs-repair').

Repair in their model refers to the correct reformulation of an error as uttered in a single student turn and not to the sequence of turns resulting in the correct reformulation; nor does it refer to self-initiated repair. They analyzed repairs occurring only after prompting – what Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977) have called 'other-initiated repair'. They distinguished four types of other-initiated repair in their database:

1.   *Repetition:* a student's repetition of the teacher's feedback when the latter includes the correct form.

2.   *Incorporation:* a student's repetition of the correct form provided by the teacher, which is then incorporated into a longer utterance produced by the student.

3.   *Self-repair:* a self-correction, produced by the student who made the initial error, in response to the teacher's feedback when the latter does not already provide the correct form.

4.   *Peer-repair:* peer-correction provided by a student, other than the one who made the initial error, in response to the teacher's feedback.

Their category of 'needs-repair' includes the following six types of utterances:

1.   *Acknowledgement:* generally a simple 'yes' on the part of the student in response to the teacher's feedback.

2.   *Same error:* uptake that includes a repetition of the student's initial error.

3.   *Different error:* a student's uptake that is in response to the teacher's feedback but that neither corrects nor repeats the initial error; instead, a different error is made.

4.   *Off target:* uptake that is clearly in response to the teacher's feedback turn but that circumvents the teacher's linguistic focus altogether, without including further errors.

5.   *Hesitation:* a student's hesitation in response to the teacher's feedback.

6.   *Partial repair:* uptake that includes a correction of only part of the initial error.

This needs-repair category is one of the categories in their model that can lead to additional feedback from the teacher and hence allows for error treatment sequences to go beyond the third turn.

Finally, Lyster and Ranta (1997) define reinforcement as short statements that teachers often make following repair in order to reinforce the correct form before proceeding to topic continuation (e.g. 'Yes!', 'That's it!', 'Bravo!' or repetition of the student's corrected utterance). In addition, teachers, according to them, frequently include metalinguistic information in their reinforcement.

In respect to the results of their study, the authors claim that their purpose was twofold: first, to develop an analytic model comprising the various moves in an error treatment sequence and second, to apply the model to a database of interaction in four primary L2 classrooms with a view to documenting the frequency and distribution of corrective feedback in relation to learner uptake. Their analytic model was designed in accordance with the database itself and so remains to be validated by means of coding sets of classroom data from other contexts. In relation to the application of the model to the database in the actual study, the findings let them answer their three research questions in the following way:

1.   What are the different types of corrective feedback and their distribution in communicatively oriented classrooms? Teachers in their study used six different feedback moves: recasts (55%), elicitation (14%), clarification requests (11%), metalinguistic feedback (8%), explicit correction (7%), and repetition of error (5%).

2.   What is the distribution of uptake following different types of corrective feedback? The feedback types least likely to lead to uptake were the recast and explicit correction. The most likely to succeed was elicitation. Other good precursors to uptake were clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, and repetition.

3.   What combinations of corrective feedback and learner uptake constitute the negotiation of form? The feedback types that allow for negotiation of form are the four that lead to student-generated repair, i.e. elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition.

Their results indicate that recasts accounted for the largest number of repairs, but they claim that this is so due to the inordinately high frequency of recasts. When calculated as a ratio, they state that only a small percentage of recasts led to repair, and all of these repairs involved repetition of the teacher's recasts. The authors think that there is a great deal of ambiguity in those communicative classrooms as students are expected to sort out if the teacher's intentions are concerned with form and meaning. They find that feedback types other than recasts (metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, clarification requests and teacher repetition of error) eliminate this ambiguity by allowing students themselves to either self-correct or correct their peers. They add that explicit correction eliminates ambiguity as well, but does not allow for student-generated repair.

They believe that student-generated repairs in the error treatment sequence may be important in L2 learning for two reasons: first, they allow opportunities for learners to automatize the retrieval of target language that already exists in some form (Hulstijn, 1990; McLaughlin, 1987, 1990); second, when students generate repair, they draw on their own resources and thus actively confront errors in ways that may lead to revisions of their hypothesis about the target language (Pica et al., 1989; Swain, 1993, 1995). Lyster and Ranta (1997) argue that in the case of recasts, classroom learners, whether they are given the opportunity to repeat or not, are less actively engaged insofar as there is little evidence that they can actually notice the gap between their initial use of nontarget forms and the teacher's reformulation, given the ambiguity of recasts from the learner's perspective.

The authors add that none of the feedback types stopped the flow of the classroom interaction and that uptake clearly does not break the communicative flow either; on the contrary, uptake means that the student has the floor again. They also state that it is apparent to them that corrective feedback and learner uptake constitute an adjacency pair that is clearly anticipated in classroom discourse and that occurs as an insertion sequence without stopping the flow of communication (Mey, 1993).

Finally, Lyster and Ranta (1997) conclude that their data indicate that the feedback-uptake sequence engages students more actively when there is negotiation of form, that is, when the correct form is not provided to the students

– as it is in recasts and explicit correction – and when signals are provided to the learner that assist in the reformulation of the erroneous utterance. Hence, according to them, the negotiation of form involves corrective feedback that employs either elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, or teacher repetition of error, followed by uptake in the form of peer- or self-repair, or student utterances still in need of repair that allow for additional feedback.

Lyster (1998) presents a study of the relationships among error types, feedback types, and immediate learner repair in four French immersion classrooms at the elementary level.

In Lyster and Ranta (1997), a preceding study, he presented an analysis of classroom interaction in which six main feedback moves were discerned:

1.   Explicit correction: teacher supplies the correct form and clearly indicates that what the student has said was incorrect;

2.   Recasts: teacher implicitly reformulates all or part of the student's utterance;

3.   Elicitation: teacher directly elicits a reformulation from student by asking questions or by pausing to allow students to complete teacher's utterance;

4.   Metalinguistic clues: teacher provides comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance;

5.   Clarification requests: teacher uses phrases such as "pardon?" or "I don't understand";

6.   Repetition: teacher repeats the student's ill-formed utterance, adjusting intonation to highlight the error.

In his study, recasts were found to be the most widely used technique. He examined not only the distribution of different feedback types, but also the ways in which learners reacted to the different types of feedback in turns immediately following corrective feedback, that is, what he refers to as learner uptake. He coded those utterances as either repaired or still in need of repair. His findings revealed that recasts resulted in the lowest rate of uptake, and neither recasts nor explicit correction led to any peer- or self-repair because they already provide correct forms to learners. On the contrary, elicitation, metalinguistic clues,

clarification requests, and repetition of error led to higher rates of uptake and all were also able to elicit peer- and self-repair. He regrouped those four interactional moves under the name of negotiation of form and distinguished them from recasts and explicit correction. He then attributed a didactic function to the term negotiation of form: "the provision of corrective feedback that encourages self-repair involving accuracy and precision and not merely comprehensibility" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p.42). Lyster (1997) concluded that the negotiation of form provides learners with opportunities to make important form-function links in the target language without interrupting the flow of conversation and while maintaining the mutuality inherent in negotiation.

His research questions were:

1.   What types of learner errors lead to what types of corrective feedback?

2.   What types of corrective feedback lead to the immediate repair of what types of learner errors?

Lyster's (1997) model used to code the interactional data takes into account four main error types: grammatical, phonological, lexical, and unsolicited uses of the first language (as his interest was in focus-on-form, errors related to content were not analyzed).

This study examined the four error types in relation to the three main feedback types (i.e., negotiation of form, recasts, and explicit correction) and in relation to learner repair. Lyster (1997) refers to repair as the correct reformulation of an error as uttered in a single student turn, not to the sequence of turns resulting in the correct reformulation, and nor does it refer to self-initiated repair. He found four types of other-initiated repair: student's repetition of the teacher's reformulation, student's incorporation of the teacher's reformulation, student-generated repairs in the form of peer-repair, and student-generated repairs in the form of self-repair.

According to the results, the answers to the research questions were:

1.   Grammatical and phonological errors tended to invite recasts, while lexical errors tended to invite negotiation of form more often than recasts.

2. The majority of phonological repairs were learner repetitions following recasts and the majority of grammatical and lexical repairs were peer- and self-repairs following negotiation of form.

Lyster (1997) argued that the findings suggested that the four teachers provided corrective feedback somewhat more consistently and less randomly than teachers observed in previous studies, as their treatment of oral errors showed some degree of systematicity in three ways: in the first place, the proportion of error types receiving corrective feedback reflected the rate at which these various error types occurred; secondly, the teachers tended to provide corrective feedback on phonological and lexical errors with a certain degree of consistency (at rates of 70% and 80% respectively); and in the third place, the teachers tended to select feedback types in accordance with error types, namely, recasts after grammatical and phonological errors and negotiation of form after lexical errors.

Lyster (1997) sums up that his study sought and described two noteworthy patterns:

Pattern 1. Teachers tended to recast grammatical and phonological errors and to negotiate lexical errors. According to him, this general pattern called into question the term negotiation of form, which seemed inappropriate if the negotiation was primarily about lexical items. Nevertheless, Pattern 2 revealed some promising effects for the negotiation of form in response to grammatical errors.

Pattern 2. Phonological errors tended to follow recasts, while grammatical and lexical repairs tended to follow the negotiation of form. According to Lyster (1997), this pattern suggests: a) that the teachers were on the right track in their decisions to recast phonological errors and negotiate lexical errors and b) that perhaps teachers could draw more frequently on the negotiation of form in response to grammatical errors, since almost two-thirds of all grammatical repairs resulted from this type of feedback.

He finally claimed that his findings supported the view that the negotiation of form constitutes a distinguishable set of feedback moves used by teachers and thus merits further research to determine its effect on the development of target language accuracy.

Shehadeh (1999) investigated the ability of NNSs to modify their output toward comprehensibility in the contexts of NS-NNS and NNS-NNS interactions and the degree to which such modified comprehensible output (MCO) was other- or self-initiated.

The interactions dealt with two communication tasks: picture-dictation and opinion-exchange.

The author exposes the following research hypotheses:

1) Opportunities for the production of utterances exhibiting modification toward comprehensibility in NNS output would be greater in NNS-NNS interactions than in NS-NNS interactions, specifically:

a) There would be a greater proportion of other-initiated clarification requests.

b) There would be a greater proportion of self-initiated clarification attempts.

c) There would be more MCOs produced.

2) Opportunities for the production of utterances exhibiting modification towards comprehensibility in NNS output as a result of other- and self-initiations would be greater on the picture-dictation task than on the opinion-exchange task, specifically:

a) There would be greater frequency of other- and self-initiations, and

b) There would be more MOCs produced.

The model followed by Shehadeh (1999) falls into four functional primes. The first prime consists of a trouble-source (TS) or trigger. The second one consists of an initiator (I), which can be either self-initiation (SI) or other-initiation (OI). The third one is the outcome (O) of initiation. And the last one consists of the interlocutor's reaction to the outcome (RO).

The author then operationally defines modified comprehensible output as the output that NNSs achieve to make an initial utterance more accurate and/or more comprehensible to their interlocutor(s) in response to (a) other-initiated clarification requests and (b) self-initiated clarification attempts.

The author claims that the prediction of the first hypothesis, 1(a), was partially supported by the results. The author adds that hypothesis 1(b) was not supported by the results and that the results of ANOVA produced mixed results for hypothesis 1(c). In conclusion, the findings of hypothesis 1 show that there are

many differences of effect between NSs and NNSs as speech partners. The author adds that these findings lend partial support to the assumption that NNS-NNS interaction would provide better contexts than NS-NNS interaction for other-initiation and self-initiation, and for IL modification toward comprehensibility.

The author explains that the results of analysis provided full support for hypothesis 2, as the findings showed that the picture-dictation task provided greater opportunities than the opinion-exchange task to initiate clarification and produce MCOs. According to the author, further analyses revealed that these differences were primarily due to differences in the frequency of other-initiated clarification requests and the proportions of other-initiated MCOs produced. Shehadeh (1999) adds that differences between the two tasks were also found in relation to extended negotiations toward the MCO instances produced, with picture-dictation exhibiting a significantly higher proportion of extended negotiations than opinion-exchange.

The author argues in the results section that the findings showed that a greater amount of extended negotiation work took place in NNS-NNS interactions than in NS-NNS interactions for the MCOs produced and this fact supports observations by Tarone and Liu (1995) that the interactional context in which L2 learners need to produce output which their current IL capacity cannot handle pushes the limits of their IL system to make it handle the output, a process that gives rise to more extended negotiations.

With regard to task, Shehadeh's (1999) results of hypothesis 2(a) provide confirmation for Pica et al.'s (1989) finding that a picture-dictation task offers a significantly higher occurrence of other-initiated clarification requests than an opinion-exchange task. However, contrary to Pica et al.'s (1989) findings, the results in this study revealed that the picture-dictation task did provide NNSs with significantly more opportunities to produce other-initiated MCOs than the opinion-exchange task.

The current study has also shown that NNSs encoded their own modification toward comprehensible output in response to other-initiation and self-initiation, in both NS-NNS and NNS-NNS contexts. These results are important for the author because they shed light on theoretical conclusions that the NNS's ability to accomplish self-adjusted comprehensible output is evidence that supports Swain's (1985, 1993) claim that the comprehensible output forces the

learner to move from semantic analysis of the TL to a syntactic analysis of it. And according to Swain (1995) and Swain and Lapkin (1995), when a learner moves from semantic analysis to syntactic analysis of the TL, he/she becomes aware of a gap in their current IL performance. Swain (1995, 1998) and Swain and Lapkin (1995) argued that when learners reprocess and modify their current performance to make it more enhanced, they are engaged in mental processes that are part of the process of language learning.

Shehadeh (1999) argues that the function of L2 learners' production is not just that of indirectly generating more comprehensible input, as claimed by, for instance Krashen (1982, 1985b, 1994), but also facilitating second language development by providing the learner with an opportunity to produce comprehensible output achieved by reprocessing and modifying his/her current IL capacity toward successful and more accurate use of the target language. According to the author, negotiated interactions are important because they provide learners with an opportunity for IL modification in the direction of comprehensible output as shown in the following figure:
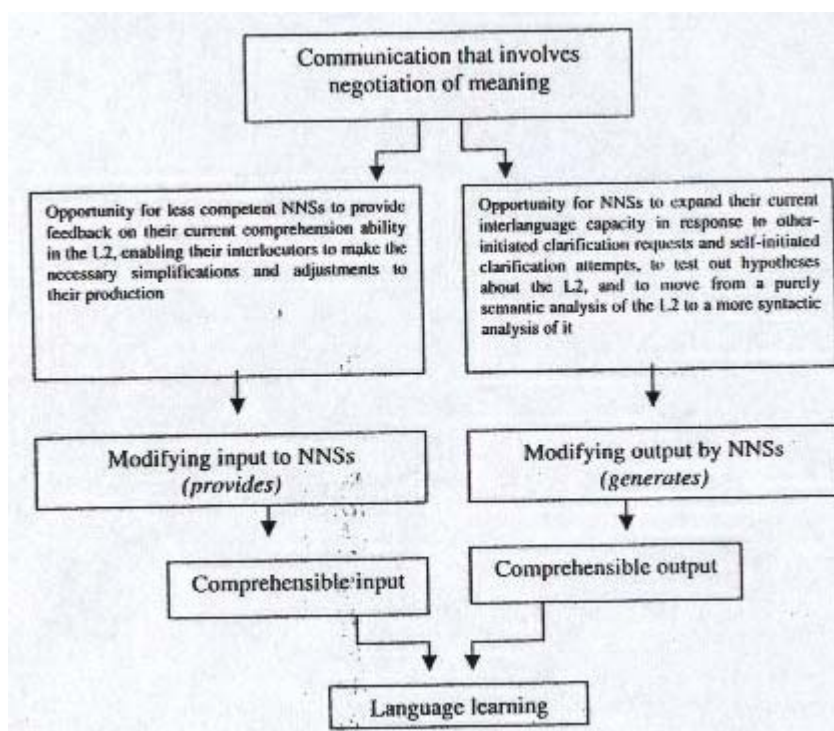
The author finally states that the role of L2 learners' output should be extended beyond being merely a source of obtaining feedback in order to generate comprehensible input.

Shehadeh (1999) adds that if interlanguage modification leading to comprehensibility is found to be integral to successful L2 learning, it is not only other-initiated clarification requests that matter, but more importantly the extent to which self-initiated self-completed modification is a normal learning/teaching strategy since its high occurrence is more prevalent and more constant across all variables and contexts.

Schegloff (2000) revisits the issue of the location in which 'other-initiated repair' is initiated, termed fourth position. His paper elaborates the locus of other-initiated repair, reports on a number of environments in which 'others' initiate repair in turns later than the one directly following the trouble-source turn and describes several ways in which other-initiation of repair which occurs in next-turn position may be delayed within that position.

In a paper by **Mackey, Gass & McDonough (2000)** the issue of learners' perceptions about interactional feedback is addressed. In their study they are particularly concerned with the extent to which learners do in fact recognize or perceive feedback provided through interaction and the target of feedback, i.e., what feedback is being provided about. They particularly address the way second and foreign language learners perceive the feedback they receive in the course of the interaction. Hence, their primary research question was: Do L2 learners accurately perceive feedback that takes place in interaction? More specifically, they mean: Do they perceive the feedback as feedback? And do they recognize the target of that feedback?

The participants in their study were nonnative speakers in an ESL context and in an Italian as a foreign language (IFL) context. Each learner carried out a communicative task with a native (English) or near-native (Italian) interviewer. The design of the study required the interviewers to interact, providing feedback (in the form of recasts and negotiation) wherever it seemed natural and appropriate when there were opportunities for such feedback.

Following completion of the task-based activities, the videotape was rewound and played for the learner by a second researcher who also gave the directions for this part of the research to the learner. The learners could pause the tape at any time if they wished to describe their thoughts at any particular point in the interaction. The researcher also paused the tape after episodes in which interactional feedback was provided, and asked learners to recall their thoughts at the time the original interaction was going on. These recall sessions were conducted in English (the L2 for the ESL participants and the L1 for the IFL participants). This recall procedure was aimed at eliciting learners' original perceptions about the feedback episodes.

Mackey, Gass & McDonough (2000) transcribed all the episodes of feedback based on the videotape and categorized these episodes based on the error type that had triggered the feedback. The four error types that they categorized were: phonology, morphosyntax, lexis, and semantics. In addition to categorizing the original error and feedback types, they transcribed and categorized the participants' perceptions, in the form of their audio-taped comments during stimulated-recall sessions. The resultant categories were: lexical, semantic, phonological, morphosyntactic, no content and unclassifiable.

According to their results on ESL data, the authors claim that the type of feedback provided by the NS interactors was primarily morphosyntactic or phonological; fewer feedback episodes concerned lexis. Feedback about the semantic content of the learner utterances rarely occurred. During the stimulated-recall verbalizations, the participants most often made remarks about phonology; remarks about lexis and semantics also occurred relatively frequently. Therefore, while the feedback episodes primarily concerned morphosyntax and phonology, the learners' stimulated-recall comments were more widely distributed across all six category types.

In relation to the question of whether the students perceived feedback as such and what the feedback was about, the authors state that the learners' comments about morphosyntactic feedback episodes showed that they only recognized that morphosyntactic feedback was about morphosyntax 13% of the time. With respect to phonological feedback, the learners perceived the majority of phonological episodes (60%) as being about phonology. And in relation to

lexical feedback, they most often (83% of the times) perceived lexical feedback episodes as being about lexis.

Thus, the number of feedback episodes in the ESL data in which the learners perceived the target of the feedback differed according to the feedback type. The authors add that with such a small percentage of morphosyntactic feedback recognized as being such, the window of opportunity for these learners to notice grammar in interaction may have been relatively small. However, they state that more focused research is needed to examine the relationship between noticing and L2 development.

In reference to IFL data, the authors state that the type of feedback provided by the Italian interviewer was primarily lexical or morphosyntactic, with fewer feedback episodes concerning phonology. The IFL participants most often made remarks about lexis during the stimulated-recall sessions; the second most common responses were about semantics, and the third most common were unclassifiable. Hence, most of the feedback provided to IFL learners, as well as the content of their stimulated-recall comments, concerned lexis. 48% of all the feedback provided to the IFL learners was triggered by problems with lexical items. Furthermore, 54% of the learners' stimulated-recall comments mentioned lexical items. They add that the data suggest that the IFL learners were largely oriented toward lexis, much more than phonology, morphosyntax, or semantics.

Mackey, Gass and McDonough (2000) conclude that they showed that morphosyntactic feedback was seldom perceived as being about morphosyntax and was generally provided in the form of recasts. In contrast, feedback on phonology and lexis was perceived more accurately and was generally provided in the form of negotiation and combination episodes. They add that the absence of reports of perceptions does not mean that feedback was not perceived at some level, and perception does not automatically entail or imply L2 development or learning.

The authors state that some researchers have expressed caution about the potential benefits of interactional feedback for different aspects of L2 learning. They give the example of Pica (1994) who claimed that negotiated interaction may be beneficial for lexical learning and specific L1-L2 contrasts, but may be less beneficial for some aspects of L2 morphosyntax. She suggested that this may be due to the focus of interactional feedback, as feedback obtained through

negotiated interaction is often provided for lexis or semantics and more rarely for grammar. They state that the findings reported in their study shed light on Pica's claims about interaction and grammatical form. They assert that their findings may suggest a further reason why interactional feedback may benefit lexis and phonology more than some aspects of grammar. They explain that it may be so because, even when morphosyntactic feedback is provided in interaction, through recasts, learners often do not perceive it as such, whereas when phonological and lexical feedback is provided in interaction, they are more likely to perceive it correctly.

A further possibility that they offer is that, if learners were able to correctly perceive all of the feedback that they received, this would result in a cognitive overload for them; if this is the case, then perceiving a limited amount of feedback at exactly the right developmental time is the optimal condition for the learner.

Oliver's (2000) study examines whether differences exist in the provision and use of negative feedback according to the age of the learners and the context of the interaction.

The author first offers a review of negative feedback and age and then turns to describe her own method. She explains that twenty teachers and their intact classes participated in the first part of the study. Ten teachers were working with adult ESL students and ten with primary-school-aged ESL students. The second part of the study, pairwork, was composed of 32 NS-NNS dyads and consisted of 16 adult dyads and 16 child dyads.

In her analysis, Oliver (2000) coded conversational exchanges between the teacher and his/her students and between the NNS and NS in three parts: ESL student's / NNS's initial turn, ESL teacher's / NS's response and ESL student's / NNS's reaction.

1.   ESL student's / NNS's initial turn. They are at the beginning of the three-part turn sequence and were rated as correct, nontargetlike or incomplete.

2.   ESL teacher's / NS's response. If the NNS's utterance was a nontargetlike turn, the ESL teacher or NS may provide NF or not, in which case she coded it as ignore. A response turn was coded as NF if a recast was provided or if a negotiation strategy (as a confirmation check or

clarification request) was used. If the turn was incomplete or correct, the teacher or NS may either negotiate the meaning or continue the conversation.

3.   ESL student's / NNS's reaction. If learners are provided with NF, they may respond to this, ignore it, or have no chance to react to it. If they respond, they can incorporate this into their immediate production (recast) or reformulate their production toward a more tergetlike form (clarification request).

Oliver (2000) then states that once the three parts of the interaction were coded, the interaction was assigned to one of eight distinct patterns:

1.   Correct > continue > continue
2.   Correct > negotiate > continue
3.   Incomplete > continue > continue
4.   Incomplete > negotiate > continue
5.   Nontargetlike > NF > ignore
6.   Nontaegetlike > NF > respond
7.   Nontargetlike > NF > no chance
8.   Nontargetlike > ignore > continue

Her results show that NF is both provided to and used by learners and that both the age of the participants and the context affected the pattern of interaction. She argues that the main difference between adults and children in the pattern of interaction is due to the higher proportion of correct initial turns by children in the teacher-fronted lessons, and to the different types of NF provided to the two age groups. She also explains that there were no significant differences in uptake of the NF according to age.

In relation to initial turns, the author states that the difference between adults and children in the initial turns is attributable to the inherent characteristics of adult and children. The adult learners' level of maturity may have resulted in higher proportions of nontargetlike production. It is argued that teachers may have contributed to these differences, as the difference between adults and children in the initial turn occurred only in the teacher-fronted context and not in the pairwork context. She explains that teachers of children hold greater control of the interactions, reducing the opportunity for nontargetlike utterances by the younger learners. And also, she states, it may be that teachers have greater expectations for

adult learners, encouraging greater risk taking from their learners and that consequently more nontargetlike turns occur. She also explains that the topics selected by the teachers for children, and the opportunity they gave their students to discuss them, meant that the child learners were provided with a linguistic scaffold and this seemed to reduce the possibility of non-nativelike production.

With respect to response turns, Oliver (2000) explains that a substantial proportion of the nontargetlike turns by learners are responded to by teachers and NNs with NF in a frequent and consistent way. She also states that there was a significant difference between the response turns according to age, with adults receiving a larger proportion of NF in both contexts. This may be due again to the expectation of their interlocutors for these older learners. She states that for both adults and children, teachers provided more feedback than did the NS partners, but that, however, NS still provided a substancial percentage in response to nontargetlike initial turns. She then argues that the type of feedback provided varied according to the age of the learners and to the context in which the interactions occurred. She states that it is unclear why this might be so: she argues the teachers, the classroom context, or both contribute to this different pattern of response. She also found differences in the pairwork setting, which leads her to state that, in summary, the age and the related characteristics of the learners, their interlocutors, and the context of communication all affect the type of responses that are provided to learners.

In relation to the learner reaction turns, the author states that learners frequently use implicit feedback in their subsequent language production.

The author turns on to comment that there were no significant differences in the use of NF by the two age groups in either context. She adds that it may appear that NF has little explanatory power with regard to the differential success for adults and children.

Oliver (2000) explains that a comparison of the reaction turns of the learners in the two contexts shows quite different profiles: specifically, an examination of the no chance categories shows that the opportunity to use NF appears to be quite different in teacher-fronted lessons than in pairwork tasks. In the teacher-fronted lessons, in approximately one third of the instances when feedback was provided, there was no chance for the learners to use it. However, in the pairwork situation the opportunity to use feedback was much greater. The author also states that

learners were more likely to ignore NF in the pairwork situation than they were in the teacher-fronted lessons and that a possible reason, found in a further qualitative analysis of the discourse, is that there were many instances in the ignore category when it was inappropriate for the learner to do otherwise and where the most appropriate for the learners was to respond yes or no. She adds that in the pairwork context it was inappropriate for the learners to respond to NF in 63% (adults) and 69% (children) of instances. Thus, this leads her to state that in determining the utility of NF for language acquisition, along with opportunity it is important to consider the appropriateness of learners actually using the negative feedback. She argues that much previous research may have underestimated the utility of NF for learners because of definitional constraints and because the factor possibility, opportunity and appropriateness of learners' using NF have not been carefully considered.

Oliver (2000) claims that the results of her study show that both in teacher-fronted and pairwork tasks, learners were consistently and frequently provided with NF, and that when the opportunity was available, and when it was appropriate to do so, the learners (both adults and children) often used this feedback in their subsequent language production. However, according to her, the findings also show that the age of the learners and context of the exchange can result in significant differences in the pattern of interaction.

Kormos (2000) explores the psycholinguistic processes underlying L2 self-repair behaviour by analyzing the timing of various types of self-corrections found in the speech of 30 Hungarian speakers of English at three levels of proficiency.

The author explains that the timing of speech production provides indirect evidence for the functioning of underlying cognitive mechanisms. She also states that there are three basic psycholinguistic models of monitoring for which the analysis of the timing of self-repairs can be relevant:

1.   The editor theories (Baars, Motley, & MacKay, 1975; Laver, 1980; Motley, Camden, & Baars, 1982)

2.   The activation spreading theory (Berg, 1986; Dell, 1986; Dell & O'Seaghda, 1991; MacKay, 1987, 1992; Stemberger, 1985)

      3.   The perceptual loop theory (Levelt, 1983, 1989, 1993; Levelt, Roelofs, & Meyer, 1999).

According to her, editor theories of monitoring assume that the editor can veto and replace the incorrect output of the speech production processes. She explains that in this model the editor has its own system of rules against which the output is checked. She then argues that the major shortcoming of such models is that the editor can only check the final outcome of the process and is unable to intercept erroneous output at intermediary levels.

The author then states that Stemberger's (1985) and Dell's (1986) model of interactive activation spreading in speech production is based on an interactive network of units and generative rules that create slot for the units. She argues that in this theory, decisions concerning which unit to select are made on the basis of the activation levels of *nodes* representing these units. She then claims that there are several problems concerning this conceptualization of monitoring: firstly, if errors are detected automatically, the monitor would perceive all errors, which, in turn, would be automatically corrected. However, empirical research has demonstrated that speakers do not correct every mistake in their speech. Second, monitoring involves not only recognizing linguistically erroneous output, but also perceiving the pragmatic inappropriateness of the message and the inadequacy of the information conveyed. These models do not account for this significant aspect of monitoring at all.

Kormos (2000) explains next the third model: the perceptual loop theory, proposed by Levelt (1983, 1989, 1993; Levelt et al., 1999). According to her, this theory adopts the idea that prearticulatory output can be inspected and it was proposed that the same mechanisms could be applied both for checking one's own message and for perceiving and checking other speaker's utterances. She explains that there are three loops for inspecting the outcome of processes. The first loop is the phase when, before being sent to the formulator, the *preverbal plan*, which specifies the speech-act intentions and their information structure, is compared to the speaker's original intentions. During the second loop, *covert* or *prearticulatory monitoring*, the message is monitored before articulation. Finally, the generated utterance is checked after articulation, which constitutes the final, external loop of monitoring.

The research reported in Kormos (2000) attempts to explore in greater depth, by means of modern computer technology, the timing of various subtypes of self-repairs.

She investigated two main issues:

a) What underlying psycholinguistic processes are indicated by the differences in the timing of various types of self-corrections?

b) How does the level of proficiency influence the speed of error detection and the execution of the correction?

She distinguished four major groups of self-repairs:

1. Different information repair: it is used when speakers decide to encode different information than what they are currently formulating.

2. Appropriacy repair: it is employed when the speaker decides to encode the originally intended information in a modified way, when speakers have encoded information that needs to be more precise, more coherent, pragmatically more appropriate, or less ambiguous.

3. Error repair: speakers repair an accidental lapse, which can occur at every phase of speech processing.

4. Rephrasing repair: it involves revising the form of the speaker's original message without changing its content; the speaker repeats a slightly modified version of a word or phrase because of uncertainty about its correctness, by either adding something or paraphrasing, or both.

She explains that a digital recording of all the self-repairs found in the corpus was made and that these digitized recordings were then entered in a computer. She used a computer program called Goldwave to analyze the length of pauses.

The author states that in each correction, they measured the time in milliseconds between the onset of error and the point at which the flow of speech was interrupted (i.e., the cut-off point), the interval between the cut-off point and the onset of the repair and the length of the reparatum (i.e., the correction itself).

The total time of self-repair was calculated by adding up the length of these three phases in the correction processes.

She also states that they used a measure of speech rate (the number of syllables articulated per minute) to establish the fluency of the participants' speech.

In the results section, Kormos (2000) claims that error repairs were interrupted significantly earlier than appropriacy, rephrasing and different-information repairs; that the cut-off-to-repair intervals of different-information repairs were significantly longer than those of the rest of categories; that the length of the reparatum of error repairs was significantly shorter than that of both appropriacy and difeerent-information repairs. With regard to the total time of self-repairs, the author states that different-information repairs were significantly longer than all the other types of corrections.

She adds that the error-to-cut-off times of both phonological- and lexical-error repairs were significantly shorter than those of the message-replacement, rephrasing, appropriate-level-of-information, and inappropriate-information repairs. And in respect to cut-off-to-repair intervals, she claims that only message-replacement repairs were found to be significantly longer than phonological-, lexical-, and grammatical-error repairs and rephrasing repairs.

She finally claims that the length of reparatum of grammatical-error corrections, pragmatic-appropriacy repairs, and rephrasing repairs was significantly shorter than that of the message-replacement and inappropriate-information repairs.

In her discussion section, Kormos (2000) explains that the findings concerning the error-to-cut-off times of self-repair show that linguistic errors are detected significantly earlier than appropriacy, different-information and rephrasing repairs and that these findings support both the activation spreading theories and the perceptual loop theory of monitoring since both models assume that monitoring mechanisms are similar to comprehension processes.

She argues that the analysis of the cut-off-to-repair times revealed that speakers need a considerably longer period of time to replan their utterance if they have to implement a major change in the information to be conveyed (different-information repairs).

She finally argues that the length of the reparatum and the total time of self-repairs are not directly indicative of the planning and detection processes, but that they do reveal the amount of the necessary changes in the form of the utterance. Therefore, it is understandable, according to her, that different-information repairs take the longest time to complete since the complete previous message needs to be replaced. In the case of the other types of repairs, it is only one word that is substituted with another.

With respect to the effect of proficiency on the timing of self-repairs, the author states that the lack of significant proficiency effect in the case of the timing of the total numbers of repairs is unsurprising as speakers with an increased level of L2 proficiency can be assumed to detect errors and execute correction with augmented speed, but at the same time, they produce fewer error repairs.

The author concludes that the results of her analysis of the timing of self-repairs provide valuable information on the psycholinguistic processes of monitoring. She considers an interesting finding the fact that both the activation spreading theory and the perceptual loop theory gained support. She also argues that her study reveals that the speed of detecting pragmatically inappropriate words and lexical errors was very similar, which might mean that, during monitoring, the pragmatic features of the lexical entry are checked simultaneously with its phonological and semantic form, as well as its argument structure. According to her, this finding provides indirect evidence for the assumption that lexical entries do not contain only phonological, semantic and grammatical specifications, but also information related to their pragmatic value.

The study by **Nicholas, Lightbown and Spada (2001)** deals with the effectiveness of recasts in first and second language acquisition. These authors claim that traditional pedagogical practice has assumed that learners require feedback on error to make progress in their ability to use an L2 in more target-like ways. They explain that Krashen and Seliger (1975) observed that the two features common to all L2 teaching methods examined by them were discrete point presentation and feedback on error. They state that the advent of communicative and content-based approaches to L2 teaching led to an important decrease in discrete point presentation and that it also led to changes in attitudes and practices in relation to feedback on error. Although some teachers and

researchers belonging to these approaches think that learners will eventually reach a stage beyond what they have been taught without direct feedback on error or explicit teaching of the target language grammar, and even though some of them even argue that error correction is best avoided, one feedback technique is still widely used: recasts, or the teacher's correct restatement of a learner's incorrectly formed utterance. They add that recasts perform two functions: (a) interactionally, they acknowledge the content of the preceding turn and thus attempt to increase or sustain positive effect and (b) as feedback, they offer an alternative (target-like) model of the attempted utterance. The authors explain that some authors, as Long & Robinson (1998), have suggested that recasts are an effective way of providing learners with information about how their current interlanguage differs from the target. Others make the argument that a teacher's recast may not be perceived by the learner as feedback on the form of the utterance (Schachter, 1981; Carroll, 1997; Lyster, 1998b).

Nicholas, Lightbown and Spada (2001) state the explanations of why recasts might be expected to affect language learning positively are derived from several theoretical frameworks. In L1 acquisition research, Saxton (1997) proposed the Direct Contrast Hypothesis in which he suggested that the provision of feedback immediately following an erroneous child utterance was conducive to the child's perception of a contrast between the original utterance and the adult form, a first step in the child's eventual rejection of the incorrect form and its replacement by the correct one. They then cite, in reference to L2 research, Schmidt's (1990) "noticing hypothesis", which suggests that in order to acquire new linguistic features, learners must find these features in the input. Therefore, as recasts represent an immediate reaction to a learner utterance, it is hypothesized that they allow learners to compare new linguistic forms to the linguistic forms that encode the same meaning that they had attempted to convey in their interlanguage utterance.

In their article, Nicholas, Lightbown, and Spada (2001) offer a review of empirical research on the effectiveness of recasts as feedback. They argue that since the L2 research draws heavily on the L1 literature, they look at how recasts have been difined and how researchers have investigated their impact in both L1 and L2 acquisition.

They conclude that their review shows that it is not yet possible to draw general conclusions about the contribution that recasts make in language development. They state that in the L2 research, recasts appear to provide more useful input to learners in the laboratory setting than in the classroom setting, probably due to the dyadic nature of the laboratory interactions, which may help learners recognize the interlocutor's feedback as corrective. They add that in foreign language classrooms in which there is an emphasis on language form, older students, particularly adult students, may not have difficulty identifying recasts as feedback on error (Ohta, 2000a), although this effect is not universal (Havranek, 1999; Lochtman, 2000). They explain that in classrooms in which the overall instructional focus is on the expression and negotiation of meaning rather than on the analysis of language, recasts may be treated as confirmation of meaning. According to them, there appears to be more likelihood of a positive effect on learning when specific features have been targeted for recasts (Doughty & Varela, 1998) and when the "recasting technique involve[s] an initial attention-getting phase" (Doughty, 1999, p. 59). The authors state that without such attention getting, it appears to be difficult for learners in content-based classrooms to distinguish between recasts meant as confirmation of content and recasts meant to correct errors in form (Calvé, 1992; Lyster, 1998b; Netten, 1991).

They finally argue that in interpreting the research on recasts on L1 and L2, it is important to bear in mind that there are differences between the findings of laboratory and classroom studies, differences between primarily structure-focused and primarily content-focused classrooms, and differences between observational studies of naturally occurring feedback patterns in classrooms and experimental studies that focus on specific features and feedback types. They also state that the effectiveness of recasts may depend in part on the overall developmental level of proficiency or interlanguage variety of the learner. Their research suggests that recasts can be effective if the learner has already begun to use a particular linguistic feature and is in position to choose between linguistic alternatives. At the same time, there is a point beyond which recasts are ineffective in changing stabilized interlanguages. According to them, the effectiveness of recasts has also been found to differ depending on the area of language or on the specific linguistic feature. They finally claim that a particular challenge for studies of recasts is the learner's need to distinguish features of the interlocutors' responses

that sustain the interaction and those that provide a means of focusing on the language used, because recasts combine exactly these two features.

Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen (2001) analysed learner uptake in focus-on-form episodes occurring in 12 hours of class. They took a broad perspective of uptake , to acknowledge that uptake can occur even when the previous move does not involve corrective feedback. The definition of uptake they proposed is as follows:

1. Uptake is a student's move.

2. The move is optional (i.e., focus on form does not obligate the student to provide an uptake move.

3. The uptake move occurs in episodes where learners have demonstrated a gap in their knowledge (e.g., by making an error, by asking a question, or by failing to answer a teacher's question).

4. The uptake move occurs as a reaction to some preceding move in which another participant (usually the teacher) either explicitly or implicitly provides information about a linguistic feature.

The authors investigated uptake in two classes, one of pre-intermediate level and the other of intermediate level. They mainly studied episodes where teacher and students focused on form in a communicative class. They considered several assumptions in relation with the term focus on form. The first assumption is that focus on form takes place interactionally and involves observable behaviour. The second assumption is that teacher and learners are both primarily focused on using language communicatively rather than on trying to teach/learn some elements of the linguistic code. The third assumption is that, despite this focus on meaning, occasions arise when the participants choose to or need to focus on form. Thus focus on form arises incidentally. A fourth assumption is that focus on form is necessarily occasional and transitory, as otherwise it would supplant the primary focus n meaning. Finally, incidental focus on form is necessarily broad-based –that is, many forms rather than a single form are likely to be attended to in the context of performing a communicative activity.

They distinguished two types of focus on form: conversational and didactic, which reflect Van Lier's (1988) discussion of repair in the L2

classroom. He noted that repair occurs implicitly in the context of a conversational move or explicitly in the form of an overt correction. Similarly, focus on form can deal with a problem in a conversational side-sequence that does not explicitly draw attention to a deviant or misused form, or it can function didactically by making the problem the explicit topic of the side sequence.

They also mentioned an additional classification of focus on form as pre-empting or reacting (Long & Robinson, 1998). Pre-emptive focus on form indicates an attempt by the teacher or a learner to initiate explicit attention to a linguistic point because they notice that it is problematic at a particular moment in the discourse. Pre-emptive focus on form does not mean that a learner has made an error, rather it is caused because something has motivated attention to a form. Reactive focus on form occurs because a learner has said something that contains an error and the teacher or another learner responds to this error.

The research questions in this study were the following:

1.   What is the nature and extent of focus on form in communicative ESL lessons?

2.   What features of focus on form influence learner uptake?

3.   What features of focus on form influence the success of uptake?

The results indicate that uptake was most frequent in student-Initiated focus on form episodes. In Teacher-Initiated exchanges focus on form the level of uptake was notably lower.

Although there were more than two times as many episodes involving negotiation of form as negotiation of meaning, uptake was more likely to occur in episodes involving negotiation of meaning.

On the other hand, the type of negotiation had no significant effect on the level of success of uptake.

The authors claim that their study has provided clear support for focus on form as an instructional option. They have shown that focus on form can take place regularly in the context of message-oriented communicative lessons without disturbing the flow of communication, and also that it can lead to high levels of learner uptake, much of which is successful.

The study also suggests that a common teaching strategy, that of teacher asking students questions about forms they believe to be problematic, may not be very effective (taking level of uptake as a measure of effectiveness), and that, in contrast, encouraging students to ask their own questions about form is much more effective.

Panova and Lyster (2002) synthesize findings from observational classroom research on corrective feedback and then offer an observational study of patterns of error treatment in an adult ESL classroom. Their study examines the range and types of feedback used by the teacher and their relationship to learner uptake and immediate repair of error.

In the first section of their paper, they examine relevant observational research on corrective feedback and learner uptake during oral classroom work. In doing so, they search for common patterns of error treatment in different classroom contexts that involve preferred corrective techniques as well as how specific types of feedback and error types correlate with learner uptake.

In their study, *corrective feedback* refers to Chaudron's (1977) definition of "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance". Uptake refers to different types of student responses immediately following the feedback, including responses with repair of the nontarget items as well as utterances still in need of repair, as explained above, in the previous review (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). They then offer an overview of studies by Allwright (1975b), Fanselow (1977b), Chaudron (1977), Slimani (1992) and Lyster & Ranta (1997).

They state the primary aim of their study which consists of examining the error treatment patterns, involving the relationship between feedback types and how learners respond to them, in an adult ESL classroom. Its secondary objective is to ascertain if Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model of corrective discourse is applicable in a different instructional context.

They then state that in their analysis, the teacher used seven types of corrective feedback.

1. *Recast:* an implicit corrective feedback move that reformulates or expands an ill-formed or incomplete utterance in an

unobtrusive way, similar to the type of recasts provided by primary caregivers in child L1 acquisition (Long, 1996).

2.   *Translation:* it is a feedback move when it follows a student's unsolicited use of the L1.

3.   *Clarification request:* to elicit reformulation or repetition from the student with respect to the form of the student's ill-formed utterance.

4.   *Metalinguistic feedback:* as in Lyster and Ranta (1997), it refers to either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student utterance, without explicitly providing the correct answer.

5.   *Elicitation:* a corrective technique that prompts the learner to self-correct.

6.   *Explicit correction:* it provides explicit signals to the student that there is an error in the previous utterance; it involves a clear indication to the student that an utterance was ill-formed and also provides the correct form.

7.   *Repetition:* the teacher repeats the ill-formed part of the student's utterance, usually with a change in intonation.

In respect to learner responses to feedback in the form of uptake and repair, Panova and Lyster (2002) follow Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model which is described above.

In the case of their own study, Panova and Lyster (2002) claim that the results show that the teacher provided corrective feedback following 48% of the student turns with error or use of L1. Recast and translation were the predominant corrective techniques in relation to the other types of feedback. 47% of the total number of teacher feedback moves resulted onto student uptake, and only about one third of the uptake moves included repair.

The authors explain that the instructional settings observed in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study and their study are similar in one respect: Students in both settings were characterized by a certain degree of linguistic homogeneity, since they shared a common language other than the target language. And the settings differed in three aspects: the age of the students, the instructional context and language of instruction and the level of proficiency. However, in spite of these

differences, Lyster and Ranta's model and its coding categories proved to be applicable in their study, according to the authors, with only minor revisions.

In the previous study, the preferred type of feedback was recasting of student errors. However, in the present study, the authors included a specific category for translation and this category, together with recasts, was the preferred type.

The results of the study also show that the overall rates of uptake and repair in the ESL classroom (in the present study) proved to be lower than in the immersion classrooms (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). According to the authors, these lower rates could be a result of the most frequently used types of feedback, which were used even more frequently in the ESL classroom than in the immersion classrooms. They assert that as the function of both recasts and translations is to reformulate learner utterances by providing the correct model, they do not necessarily require student responses.

With respect to the relationship between feedback type and learner uptake, Panova and Lyster (2002) claim that the similarity of findings is noteworthy. In both studies, corrective techniques that promote negotiation of form by allowing students the opportunity to self-correct or to correct their peers resulted in the highest rates of uptake. They assert that the fact that, in both studies, elicitation, clarification requests, repetition, and metalinguistic feedback reached comparably high levels of uptake indicates that these feedback moves tend to be noticed by students, insofar as "uptake may be related to learner's perceptions about feedback at the time of feedback" (Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000). In contrast, both studies demonstrate that feedback types that provide learners with target forms tend not to push students to modify their nontarget output in their response immediately following feedback.

Thus, according to them, if recasts and translations are essentially corrective in purpose, there is little evidence that L2 learners in their study processed them as such. However, they believe that this does not mean that teachers should abandon recasts, since they serve important communicative functions in classroom discourse: they provide teachers with efficient and natural ways of responding to students and they provide students with supportive, scaffolded help in using their L2 (Lyster, 2002). Panova and Lyster (2002) also state that recasts help keep students' attention focused on content and move the lesson ahead when

the forms on question are beyond the students' current interlanguage (Lyster, 1998b). Hence, recasts provide considerable positive evidence, but, according to them, they should not be advocated as the most effective way of providing negative evidence.

Mackey & Oliver (2002) explore the effects of interactional feedback on children's L2 development in a pretest/posttest design.

The authors claim that Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis proposes that feedback obtained during conversational interaction promotes interlanguage development because interaction "connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways" (Long, 1996, pp. 451-452). They add that Gass (1997) and Pica (1994) have made similar arguments for the efficacy of interactional feedback. They also state that research on interaction has described the different types of interactional modifications that take place and has sought empirical evidence for the impact of interaction on comprehension (Loschky, 1994; Pica et al., 1987), production (Gass and Varonis, 1994; Swain and Lapkin, 1998), and L2 development (Ellis et al., 1994; Mackey, 1999). The authors explain that there is a move in current interactionist research to explore the specific nature and contribution of different interactional features on L2 learning (Mackey et al., 2000). Nevertheless, they argue that most of the existing research has focused on adult learning and their study examines the effect of interactional feedback on children's second language development.

They claim that the interaction hypothesis (described in Long, 1996) has made important predictions about the contributions of various features of interaction to second language development. They state that most of the empirical tests of the interaction hypothesis have been conducted with adult language learners, but studies of child language learners and child-adult comparisons have indicated that the patterns and immediate outcomes of interaction may be different for children and adults. Therefore, it is the goal of their study to examine if and how interaction also facilitates second language development for children, as it has been shown to do with adults.

Mackey and Oliver (2002) propose the following research question: Does interactional feedback, including repetitions and recasts, facilitate second language development in children? Their prediction is that child ESL learners

who take part in conversations with interactional feedback will develop more than child ESL learners who take part in conversations without such feedback.

In their attempt to answer their question, they investigate the effects of interactional feedback on children's interlanguage; they provide interactional feedback on non-targetlike question forms to children in adult-child dyads.

In their study, interactional feedback was operationalized following Long (1996), who discusses feedback for language learning in terms of negotiation for meaning and recasts. They explain that negotiation for meaning occurs in response to breakdowns in communication, and recasts are more tergetlike alternatives which follow a learner's non-targetlike utterance. They state that feedback occurs after children's non-targetlike utterances and that in many cases children have the opportunity to respond following the feedback. They claim that the emphasis in their study is on learning outcomes measured through posttests, rather than on immediate responses, and that the form or type of feedback is not the focus of their study.

The authors explain that they chose question forms as the measure of development because the issue of the child learners' developmental levels and readiness to acquire certain forms could be carefully controlled.

The results of their study show that their prediction was confirmed. Interactional feedback did facilitate second language development for the child learners. They claim that in each of the posttests, more participants in the interaction and feedback group showed greater development than the interaction control group. They explain that these two groups received similar amounts and types of input and opportunities for output, but differed in terms of the feedback provided, as the interaction control group received very little feedback on English question formation.

Mackey and Oliver (2002) argue that an interesting finding in their study is that it may be possible that interactional feedback leads to development more quickly for child learners than for adults, at least when the children interact in child-learner, adult native speaker pairs. They consider it worthy of interest that children in their study seemed to be able to utilize feedback for interlanguage restructuring more quickly than adults exposed to similar feedback in other studies.

They conclude that their findings are comparable with previous research in that interactional feedback led to L2 development in children, as it has been proven to do with adults. However, according to them, in their study, feedback seemed to lead to more immediate interlanguage destabilization and restructuring, and the effects of interactional feedback on L2 development were observed earlier than has been reported in adult studies.

Cullen (2002) investigates a particular aspect of teacher talk: the teacher's provision of feedback or follow-up, and examines the role it plays in EFL/ESL classroom discourse. He identifies two main roles of the F-move – evaluative and discoursal – each of which, he argues, supports learning in different ways. His study focuses, in particular, on discoursal follow-up and the strategies which the teacher in the data uses to build on the students' contributions and develop a meaning-focused dialogue with the class.

The aim of his paper is to consider the role that teachers' follow-up moves perform in the English language classroom. He refers to large secondary school classes where English is taught as a foreign language in the school curriculum and where traditional "whole class teacher-fronted interactions" (Jarvis and Robinson, 1997, p. 212) predominate. However, he claims that his arguments regarding the importance of follow-up have application in almost any classroom.

From an analysis of lesson transcripts made by Cullen (2002) from video recordings of secondary school English classes in Tanzania, he distinguishes two broad pedagogical roles of the follow-up move: an evaluative and a discoursal role. The function of the evaluative role is to provide feedback to individual students about their performance, and in particular, in the language teaching classroom, to allow learners to "confirm, disconfirm and modify their interlanguage rules" (Chaudron, 1988, p. 133). The focus is on the form of the learner's response. The feedback may be an explicit acceptance or rejection of the response or some other indication that the response was not acceptable. The purpose of the discoursal role of the F-move is to pick up students' contributions and to "incorporate them into the flow of (classroom) discourse' (Mercer, 1995, p.26), so as to sustain and develop a dialogue between the teacher and the class: the emphasis is thus on content rather than on form. No explicit correction of the

form of the student's R-move is found, albeit the teacher may give implicit feedback by reformulating the utterance in a linguistically more acceptable form.

According to him, Jarvis and Robinson (1997, p.214) see this kind of follow-up as a "discoursal means of formulating and aligning meaning", where the teacher reformulates the children's contributions and presents them back to the class so that their meanings are more closely aligned with what has already been said, and can thus act as a platform on which to build and extend the discussion.

He adds that Edwards and Mercer (1987, p. 132) see teacher's follow-ups as a crucial element in the I-R-F exchange structure, where the teacher 'acts as a kind of filter or gateway through which all knowledge must pass in order to be included in the lesson as a valid or useful contribution'.

The author remarks that there is an important difference in purpose between follow-ups which have a primarily evaluative function and those which have a mainly discursive one. In the first case, support for learning is in the formal correction which the F-move offers, whereas in the second case, support for learning consists mainly in the teacher providing a rich source of message-oriented target language input as he/she reformulates and elaborates on the students' contributions, and derives further Initiating moves from them. The focus is on the content and not on the form of the students' Response moves.

Cullen (2002) explains that in any teacher-initiated classroom interaction, the teacher has to make a choice between each type of follow-up. If he/she only gives evaluative follow-up, this will impede the development of a communicative classroom dialogue between the teacher and the class. However, if the teacher only gives discoursal follow-up, he/she will not necessarily help the students notice and repair their errors and fill gaps in their interlanguage. He argues that teachers need to deploy in every lesson skills such as making on-the-spot judgements about what kind of follow-up is most appropriate when responding to individual students' contributions or providing a balance between the competing needs for formal feedback and content-based follow-up.

He explains that, basing on the analysis of follow-up moves in the lesson transcript in his study, he finds four specific strategies which the teacher uses particularly well and one general quality which characterizes all of her follow-up moves. The first three strategies relate to the discoursal role of the F-move, whereas the fourth one occurs across both types of follow-up.

1.   *Reformulation:* the teacher makes frequent use of this strategy to repair a student's contribution, and hence provide the class with a model of correct usage, without interrupting the flow of discourse. This strategy is a way of ensuring that the content of an individual student's contribution is available and audible to the rest of the class and converting the student's attempts at output into comprehensible input for the whole class.

2.   *Elaboration:* the teacher embellishes her reformulations of the students' responses by elaborating on them in some way. By adding to and extending the students' original responses, the teacher's elaborations provide a linguistically richer source of input for the class and, at an affective level, they are used to show that she listens to what the students have to say.

3.   *Comment:* the teacher picks up on a student's response and then adds a comment of her own. The teacher simply adds a spontaneous comment of her own.

4.   *Repetition:* it is a way of acknowledging a student's response and confirming it as acceptable, and in the process, ensuring that all the students have heard it. Apart from confirming, it can also be used to question or to express surprise.

5.   *Responsiveness:* it is the general quality the teacher exhibits of listening and responding meaningfully, and with interest, to the content of what the student is saying. In this way, the follow-up move becomes an authentic, rather than a 'ritualized response' (Thornbury, 1996, p. 282).

The author concludes that in his work he has tried to show the pedagogical importance of the teacher's follow-up move in the context of classroom interaction by examining a snapshot of a traditional secondary school classroom. This reveals a sequence of classroom interaction consisting of a chain of I-R-F exchanges led by the teacher. In this interaction, the teacher's follow-up moves play a very important part in clarifying and building on the ideas that the students express in their responses, and in developing a meaningful dialogue between teacher and class.

Braidi (2002) examines the occurrence and use of recasts in adult native-speaker/nonnative-speaker interactions in a nonclassroom setting.

Her study addresses the following research questions:

RQ1. Under which circumstances do recasts occur in NS-NNS adult interaction?

    a. Do recasts occur in all negotiation types (i.e., nonnegotiated, one-signal negotiations, and extended negotiations)?

    b. Do recasts occur in response to different levels of utterance grammaticality (i.e., single error vs. multiple error)?

RQ2. How and under which conditions do adult NNSs respond to NS recasts?

The participants in her study consist of 10 adult native speakers of English and 10 adult Japanese speakers learning English, and each NS-NNS dyad met for about an hour to complete a series of communication tasks.

The author coded the interactions following Oliver's (1995) three-part coding system. She divided each interaction into three parts, consisting of the NNS initial turn, the NS response to that utterance, and the NNS reaction to the NS response. In Oliver's (1995) schema, the third part (the NNS reaction) becomes the first part of the subsequent interaction. She then coded the three-part interactions as one of the three types with subcategories for each type as follows:

1.   NNS initial turns. She rated each initial turn as incorrect or correct. Incorrect utterances were sentences or phrases that were missing either grammatical marker or an obligatory item or were incorrectly marked or included the wrong item. Correct utterances were complete sentences or phrases that would be an appropriate NS response. She also rated incorrect utterances for the degree of error: either a single error or multiple errors.

2.   NS responses. She coded them as providing either negative feedback in the form of recasts or negotiation or a continuation response. She coded a response as a recast if it incorporated the content words of the immediately preceding incorrect NNS utterance, and also changed and corrected the utterance in some way. She also coded responses that recast an incorrect NNS utterance and also expanded that utterance by providing additional information not contained in the learner utterance as

recast/expansions. Negotiation responses included confirmation checks, clarification requests, and direct statements of non-comprehension. She assigned a hierarchical value to the coding of NS response, because some recasts could also be classified as negotiation: recast > negotiation > continuation. She coded NS responses that did not provide negative information concerning comprehensibility or grammaticality as topic continuations. Topic continuations consisted of responses that followed as NNS's utterance and maintained the semantic theme, but did not contain any of the previous utterance, responses that partially or completely repeated the need for negotiation, or responses that provided additional information not contained in the learner utterance and served as language model.

3.   NNS reaction. She coded NNS reactions into seven categories: (a) topic continuation, (b) negotiations, (c) agreements, (d) successful incorporations of recasts, (e) unsuccessful incorporations of recasts, (f) successful repetitions or self-corrections, and (g) unsuccessful repetitions or self-corrections. In response to NS recasts, NNSs either successfully incorporated the recast, attempted unsuccessfully to incorporate the recast, negotiated, or simply continued the conversation in some way.

In the discussion section Braidi (2002) explains that the response to the first research question is that recasts do occur in response to incorrect NNS utterances and that recasts occur in different types of NS-NNS negotiations – nonnegotiated interactions, one-signal negotiations, and extended negotiations.

She then argues that we must determine whether or not recasts occurred in reliable, consistent, and differential patterns. She adds that the difference between nonnegotiated interactions, one-signal interactions, and extended negotiated interactions found in her study suggests that when the interaction becomes difficult, recasts become more common in the input. Thus, this significant difference, according to her, indicates that recasts as negative feedback are available in the input when learners potentially need them, i.e., in instances when communication has broken down. She claims that this study, therefore, raises the issue of the existence of negative evidence in consistent

and differential patterns. The author argues that there are no absolutes with regard to patterns of negative feedback in L2 interaction, but rather, if negative evidence is to play a facilitative role rather than a necessary role in L2 development, learners need to discern the patterns of feedback of any given interlocutor. She adds that this notion is not so unusual if one considers the adjustments that L2 learners must make in order to understand the differences in feedback practices by L2 classroom teachers (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Spada & Lightbown, 1993).

With respect to the second question, the author states that the findings in her stuffy are consistent with previous findings both in terms of NNS incorporation and NNS agreement following NS recasts. She adds that after adjusting for appropriateness and possibility of response, the use of recasts is again consistent across studies.

In relation to the issue of negative evidence in L2 acquisition, the results of her study lead us to a paradox, according to the author, as there are inconsistent or contradictory patterns of occurrence in terms of the existence of negative evidence with consistent percentages of short-term use of negative evidence.

She assures that one advantage in this regard that instructed L2 learners may have is that classroom discourse patterns seem to highly favour negative feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

The author concludes that recasts occur in NS-NNS interactions, and that this occurrence of recasts is affected to some degree by types of negotiation and by levels of grammaticality. According to her, as learners are able to use these recasts (up to 35%) in the short term, recasts are of some utility to learners.

Chan and Li (2002) study the effectiveness of giving oral remedial instruction to secondary and university students using a consciousness-approach.

In their paper, these authors explain that several studies and reviews in recent SLA research have shown that form-focused instruction and explicit negative feedback have good potential in order to help learners to notice persistent errors and to develop awareness of target language norms (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 1995; Granger & Tribble, 1998; Truscott, 1998). They add that the

approach and practice of using form-focused feedback to quicken the acquisition process is known as 'conciousness-raising' or CR (Sharwood Smith, 1981; Rutherford, 1987, 1988; Schmidt, 1990). They then specify that for negative feedback to be given effectively, the form in question must be teachable, that is, learners must be at a developmental stage which makes them cognitively ready to benefit from the feedback and they claim that teachability is constrained by two observable phenomena in SLA, namely, the natural order in which morpho-syntactic rules are acquired and the variable performance of second language learners whose state of acquisition is situated somewhere in the IL continuum.

The authors explain the main objective of their study, which is to test to what extent conciousness raising (CR) through explicit negative feedback in class assists in the process of SLA. They state that the overall effectiveness of the conciousness raising (CR) treatment will furnish additional evidence supporting or undermining the teaching approach characterized by CR and explicit negative feedback by the teacher. They selected three common lexico-grammatical errors and designed remedial instruction materials following the next guidelines: pedagogical soundness, proceduralized steps supported by instructive examples and explicit rules built as steps to facilitate learners the conceptualization of error correction procedures involved.

They consider an item 'teachable' if there is significant improvement in students' performance after treatment, and one item is considered more teachable than another if the improvement shown is consistently and significantly higher.

They explain the three error types selected for experimentation in their study: the verb *concern* and its related adjective *concerned,* the connective *on the contrary,* and pseudo-tough movement (Yip, 1995). They designed two sets of treatment materials to help students overcome the three error types chosen. Once they started their data-collection procedures, they decided to modify the approach for the 'control group' to include some form of teacher guidance and explicit instruction and thus transformed it into a milder version of CR and changed its name to CR-2. There are three features that set this version apart from version 1 (CR-1). CR-2 does not contain the following characteristics found in CR-1:

> a) input based on contrastive differences between the students' mother tongue and the target language;

b) algorithmic, step-by-step instruction supported by instructive examples showing how the error in question maybe corrected and how the learner can approximate the target language norms by following the steps given;

c) explicit rules spelling out the appropriate use of the target items.

Instead, in CR-2, according to the authors, only the correct model was pointed out and students were expected to notice the anomaly with the help of textbook input.

According to the statistical results given by the authors, there were significant gains in students' performance in the post-test and delayed post-test when compared to the pre-test, and there was no significant difference between the post-test and delayed post-test scores despite the time lag of over four weeks and the presence of a contextualized translation question and different test items in the delayed post-test. The authors explain that similar results were found when the different target grammatical items or student subjects from different levels were isolated for comparison, which seems to suggest that the student subjects developed a better understanding of the three target lexico-grammatical items in this study.

They state that both versions of consciousness-raising treatment adopted, CR-1 and CR-2, were found to be beneficial to students' acquisition of the correct structures for the target lexico-grammatical items. They claim that whereas students in the experimental group (CR-1) showed significant improvement in their performance, those in the control group (CR-2) were also found to be able to grasp the correct use of the items. They claim that the consciousness-raising approach to error correction using form-focused negative feedback, both in the rigorous and in the milder version, has therefore shown to be effective. They add that the use of contrastive input, coupled with explicit rules introduced algorithmically (CR-1) was more manageable, which suggests that, other things being equal, an algorithmic and proceduralized approach to error correction is more effective than an otherwise non-algorithmic consciousness-raising approach.

They conclude that the model of remedial instruction proposed in their study is effective and has great potential for helping learners notice morpho-

syntactically well-defined errors in their L2 and progressively approximate target language norms.

Iwashita (2003) examines the role of task-based conversation in second language grammatical development, focusing on the short-term effects of both negative feedback and positive evidence on the acquisition of two Japanese structures.

The author investigates five types of interactional moves involving implicit negative feedback and positive evidence in native speaker – nonnative speaker interaction and explores the extent to which each of these five moves has an impact on the short-term development of two Japanese grammatical structures.

For Iwashita (2003), the term "feedback" refers to some kind of NS response to what the learner has said and the feedback that learners receive during interaction can either be positive or negative. Negative feedback refers to an interlocutor's interactional move that indicates explicitly or implicitly any nontargetlike feature in the learner's speech. The author explaines that recasts and negotiation moves are generally seen as interactional moves providing implicit negative feedback. Positive evidence makes reference to an interactional move that follows a NNS's utterance and provides a model of the target language.

Iwashita's (2003) study was motivated by the need to investigate simultaneously the processes during task-based interaction (i.e., the quality of interactional moves) and their measurable effects on the learning of L2 grammar. It was stated that there is a need to tease out the relative contribution to L2 learning of both negative feedback and positive evidence afforded to L2 learners during task-based interaction. The author analysed the actual interactional moves employed during task-based conversations. Also, multiple regression analysis was performed. The study addressed the general question of whether the benefits of interaction documented for more advanced L2 learners in L2 settings in previous studies would be observed with beginning L2 learners in a foreign language context. The study addressed three research questions:

> 2.   How do NSs respond to NNSs' nontargetlike utterances?

> 3.   Does task-based interaction promote short-term development of grammatical competence among beginning-level learners of Japanese as a foreign language?

4.   What is the relative impact of five types of interactional moves (including implicit negative feedback and positive evidence) on the short-term development of target grammar structures?

Iwashita (2003) identified interactional episodes during the treatment following the three-part sequence identified by Oliver (1995): NNS initial turn, NS response, and NNS reaction. The interaction patterns used for coding the episodes were also developed following Oliver's categories (1995, 1996, 2000). The NNS initial turn was either targetlike or an imcomplete utterance. NS interactional moves were classified into five major types:

1.   Implicit negative feedback

Recast: an interactional move that reformulates the NNS's utterances without changing the meaning of the utterance.

Negotiation move: an interactional move intended to clarify the meaning of a NNS's nontargetlike or incomplete utterance.

2.   Positive evidence

Completion model: an interactional move that completes the NNS's incomplete utterance.

Translation model: an interactional move that is given in response to a NNS'a request for a model by using an L1 word or in response to a NNS's use of L1 words.

Simple model: an interactional move that continues a NNS's targetlike utterance.

In response to research question 1, Iwashita (2003) stated that simple models were the single most frequent of the five NS interactional moves for all acquisition targets. The author observed four qualitative patterns in the data:

a)   There were many instances in which a NS interlocutor ignored a nontargetlike utterance containing the target structures.

b)   Overall negotiation of meaning was markedly rare in comparison to the frequencies reported in other studies

c)   Frequent instances were found in which an interlocutor repeated the same move several times within the same feedback episode

d)   The distribution of NS interactional move types was different depending on the particular acquisition targets.

Summarizing the findings in relation to research question 1, the author explained that NS interlocutors provided the L2 Japanese learners with simple models of the three target structures far more frequently than they supplied any other interactional move type, followed by recasts. The author claimed that these findings had to be interpreted within the context of very low rates for negotiation-of-meaning moves and a marked tendency by many NSs to ignore nontargetlike use about half of the time. Additionally, the author found that individual variation in NS interlocutor behaviour was large, and NSs seemed to intensify the force of moves in repetition episodes and to prefer certain interactional types depending on the particular structure at hand.

In reference to research question 2, the author found that the treatment groups improved on grammar performance as a result of participating in task-based interaction, while the control group, who did not have the benefit of focused task-based interaction that fostered the natural use of the target grammar structures, did not improve as much as the treatment group. Furthermore, the author added, NNS interlocutors in the treatment groups maintained approximately the same level of performance one week after the treatment. These results, according to Iwashita (2003), support the claim that focused task-based interactions that make the forms essential or at least useful to the task (Loschky, 1994; Loschky & Brey-Vroman, 1993) are facilitative of learning.

In response to research question 3, the author claimed that recasts had a beneficial impact on one of the structures, but not on the other. For the two targets, positive evidence in the form of simple and completion models led to better learning.

As a conclusion Iwashita (2003) explained that the study investigated the role of task-based conversation in the L2 acquisition of Japanese locative-initial construction and *te*-form verbs. Three issues were examined, which are reflected in the research questions. According to the author, the results showed that the NS conversation partners provided a variety of interactional moves to the beginning L2 learners of Japanese and that certain move types were associated with short-term development of the target structures. The positive effect was still observed in the delayed posttest administered one week after the treatment. The findings

contributed further evidence of the availability of implicit negative feedback in task-based interaction.

The author stated that although positive-evidence moves were more frequent than negative-feedback moves, and nontargetlike attempts at the targets were ignored half of the time, most of the implicit negative feedback provided was delivered in the form of recasts and grammar tended to be topicalized preferentially via recasts. Therefore, implicit negative feedback was available to learners during task-based interaction in which the NSs were not trained or instructed to provide feedback to NNSs. The study provided evidence that task-based interaction is facilitative of short-term interlanguage development, and it also established a beneficial role for positive evidence as well as negative feedback.

Morris and Tarone (2003) study the impact of classroom dynamics on the effectiveness of recasts in SLA.

They state that Focus on Form (FonF) has been most of the times operationalized as a brief shift of attention from meaningful content to linguistic code features and that such a shift can occur in a variety of classroom activities, including when the learner's conversational partners provide her with either implicit or explicit corrective feedback. They add that the recast is an implicit form of corrective feedback and that recasts are inherently ambiguous in that, as repetitions of a speaker's utterance, they may be interpreted as focused on meaning or form or both. Therefore, according to them, the interlocutor's supplying of a recast does not guarantee a learner's attentional shift to form, what makes that shift depend on the learner.

The authors then suggest that it would be useful to have more information on the contextual factors that make it difficult for classroom learners to identify recasts accurately as corrective feedback and make use of the information contained in them. It appears to them that some of those factors are related to the social structure of language classrooms, specifically, the social relationships between students.

Their article focuses on the question of whether social dynamics in the Spanish foreign language classroom affect learners' ability to accurately perceive recasts in conversational interactions with their nonnative speaker peers, thereby

affecting the role that recasts play in the development of the forms that were corrected. They break this question into two parts:

1. Does interpersonal conflict and negative social interaction take place in pair work in the class?

2. Do these negative social dynamics interfere with the SLA of pair work participants?

The target structure being considered in their analysis is the Spanish third-person singular form of present tense indicative.

They transcribe the interactional discourse between paired partners while completing a jigsaw task and coded it for errors in the target form. They also coded the data for type of corrective feedback provided in response to verbal errors. They used three categories to code corrective feedback:

a) Explicit correction: the correct form is immediately supplied after the ill-formed utterance. The correction directly and clearly indicates that what the learner has said is incorrect.

b) Recasts: there is an immediate implicit reformulation of an ill-formed utterance or part of the utterance is reformulated.

c) Negotiation: Learners are provided with signals of "trouble" that initiate peer and self-repair rather than merely having their utterances rephrased.

The authors explain that negotiation moves differ from explicit correction and recasts in that negotiation does not provide learners with a correct form. They follow Lyster's (1998a) and Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model in the fact that negotiation can be given in the form of clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, elicitation and repetition.

They explain that to assess the effectiveness of corrective feedback and to characterize the social dynamics of the classroom, they transcribed and examined the participants' comments during the stimulated recall sessions that took place one week after the delayed posttests.

In the results part, Morris and Tarone (2003) explain that, in answer to research question 1, the interactions of 6 participants (3 pairs) did show evidence of interpersonal conflict and negative attributions of one another. They state that these signs included expressions of annoyance, accusations of incompetence or of arrogance and mockery, and task abandonment. They claim that these events were

identifiable in the discourse data and the participants discussed them during stimulated recall. They add that the other two pairs in the study did not exhibit these signs of interpersonal conflict and thus are not discussed in their article.

In reference to research question 2, they claim that posttest scores indicate that on those occasions in which feedback was provided but included overt negative attributions or was followed by interpersonal conflict, it seemed to interfere with the acquisition of the item that was recast. They add that some learners' expectations of being negatively evaluated socially by their partners on occasion led them to perceive mockery when it was not overtly apparent in the discourse data, and when this occurred, they did not acquire the recast form.

The authors then explain that their article documents the impact of social dynamics in a language classroom on L2 learners' ability to perceive accurately recasts provided to them by their peers in pair work and on their acquisition of the forms that were corrected. They followed the predictions of Bell (1984) and considered whether the attention learners paid to speech form would be influenced by their social relationship with their interlocutors. Their findings support those of previous interactional studies that showed that the nature of implicit feedback, particularly recasts, may sometimes affect learners' ability to perceive accurately the content of the feedback episode (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Chaudron, 1977; Lyster, 1998a; Mackey et al., 2000; Nabei & Swain, 2002). Nevertheless, Morris and Tarone's (2003) study goes further in that their results show that some L2 learners' ability to perceive implicit negative feedback as morpho-syntactic feedback provided to them by their peers seemed to be affected by expectations they had based on their social relationships with those same peers. In their study, learners' performance in interactions and evaluative comments suggest that some learners' expectations of being negatively evaluated socially by certain more proficient peers can have a deleterious effect on the linguistic efficacy of implicit negative feedback provided in classroom interactions. The authors assess that if learners perceive their peers as interlocutors whom they expect to criticize and even make fun of their efforts to speak Spanish, then they may be much less likely to perceive accurately the linguistic information provided to them in those peers' corrective feedback. They add that this lack of accurate perception with regard to the morpho-syntactic input leads to a failure to benefit from the feedback given and a failure to acquire the relevant language form.

They argue that any corrective feedback provided in this kind of socially charged, personally critical atmosphere can be perceived by the recipients as something much more emotionally negative than a simple helpful bit of corrective feedback intended to help the recipient learn the language.

The authors argue that their study establishes the relevance of social context to the processes of SLA and that they show that learners' ability to perceive accurately at the linguistic level the L2 input they need and are developmentally ready to receive can be greatly influenced by their expectations of being negatively evaluated socially by the person who provides that input. They add that linguistic input from such persons may not be accurately perceived, at least at the linguistic level and therefore, acquisition may not occur even when learners are provided with recasts of their errors.

In their conclusions, they state that their study has evidenced that social dynamics in the Spanish foreign language classroom seems to affect learners' ability to perceive accurately linguistic information provided in recasts in conversational interactions with their NNS peers. They also state that learners' failure to identify recasts accurately as corrective feedback in response to morpho-syntactic error affects their acquisition of these recast forms. Thus, they argue, SLA researchers and teachers should be careful not to make generalizations about the impact of pair work on L2 development without taking part in the interaction. They also explain that these roles may have the power to override any of the potential benefits that have been claimed for conversational interaction/pair work.

They argue that their study raises a number of issues related to classroom instruction. The authors claim that so as to maximize the efficacy of pair work in the L2 classroom, language teachers should pay attention to the social dynamics among the students in their classrooms. They propose that learners may be asked to watch out for exclusionary practices in the attitudes they display towards less proficient and motivated learners. The authors argue that a technique that might be useful is stimulated recall (Gass & Mackey, 2000). They explain that it could be used to aid learners in the process of becoming more aware of learning processes and help them both to deliver constructively and to identify accurately classroom feedback.

Morris and Tarone (2003) conclude that it could be important for teachers to design activities in which the more proficient learners are given a less dominant

role in the interaction, so that less proficient learners can be more inclined to participate in the interaction and contribute more to the communicative task (Yule & MacDonald, 1990).

They finally state that addressing L2 classroom issues of social and power relations between learners will ensure that those with lower levels of L2 proficiency are not excluded form the classroom social community and supportive social interactions with more proficient learners, interactions that can provide the less proficient learners with potentially beneficial L2 input.

Mackey, Oliver and Leeman (2003) investigate the effects of interlocutor type on the provision and incorporation of feedback in task-based interaction.

This study investigated the effects of two variables on the provision and incorporation of implicit negative feedback in order to further understand the role of the environment in SLA and of the possible effects of learner age on SLA. They compared NS-NNS interaction to NNS-NNS interaction, as well as adult interaction to child interaction within the next research questions:

1. NS versus NNS interlocutors

    a. Do NSs and NNSs differ in the amount of implicit negative feedback they provide to NNSs during task-based interaction?

    b. Does the nature of the feedback provided by NSs and NNSs differ in terms of opportunities for modified output?

    c. Are there differences in the production of modified output in response to feedback according to whether feedback is provided by NS-NNS or NNS-NNS dyads?

2. Adults versus children

    a. Do adult and children dyads differ in the amount of implicit negative feedback provided to NNSs during task-based interaction?

    b. Does the nature of the feedback provided in adult and child dyads differ in terms of opportunities for modified input?

c.   Are there differences in the production of modified output in response to feedback in adult and child dyads?

The authors followed the following coding process: they first identified which of the NNSs' initial utterances were nontargetlike. They then coded interlocutor responses to nontargetlike utterances according to whether or not they provided negative feedback. Next, they evaluated this feedback according to opportunity provided for immediate modified output. Finally, they coded learner response to negative feedback with opportunity for modified output based on whether or not such modified output actually occurred.

The results of their study show that in adult dyads, NSs provided significantly more feedback than NNSs. They also found significant differences in the nature of feedback provided in adult dyads, with feedback from NNSs offering significantly more opportunity for modified output than that from NSs. However, there were no significant differences in terms of production of modified output between NNS-NNS and NS-NNS dyads. Thus, although adult interlocutors seemed to provide different amounts and types of feedback, the type of interlocutor seemed to have no effect on the immediate output learners produced in response to that feedback. They then state that, on the contrary, in child dyads there were no significant differences between NS-NNS and NNS-NNS dyads in either amount or nature of feedback provided, but there was more modified output, in response to feedback, in NNS-NNS dyads than in NS-NNS dyads. Therefore, according to the authors, although children in both types of dyads were exposed to similar amounts and types of feedback, children seemed to utilize feedback more if their interlocutor was a NNS.

With respect to the second research question, the authors claim that while there were no significant age differences in terms of amount of feedback, there were significant differences in the nature of feedback and the production of modified output, although only in NNS-NNS dyads. They report to have found that the feedback provided in adult dyads afforded learners more opportunities for modified output, but that learners took advantage of the opportunity to produce modified output a greater proportion of the time in child dyads.

Mackey, Oliver and Leeman (2003) argue that one of the interesting results of the present study is that in all dyad types, learners received negative feedback

in response to a substantial number of their L2 nontargetlike utterances. They state that some researchers have claimed that feedback is inconsistently provided and therefore unlikely to have an effect on language learning (Mitchell & Myles, 1998). They explain that, on the contrary, others have argued that negative feedback need not be provided in response to all errors to be beneficial (Bohannon, MacWhinney, & Snow, 1990). According to the authors, this second position is based on research in cognitive psychology, as the studies conducted by Levine (1963), who showed that concept learning was possible even when corrective feedback was provided on fewer than 25% of trials. They state that in their study, NS and NNS interlocutors, both adults and children exceeded this minimum. They did not investigate the developmental effects of feedback, but their results show that participation in task-based interaction can provide exposure to feedback in theoretically sufficient amounts and they offer support for claims that feedback may be one important benefit of interaction (Gass, 1997; Long, 1996; Swain, 1995).

The authors next explain that although all interlocutor types consistently provided negative feedback, in adult dyads, NSs provided significantly more feedback than NNSs, which at first seems to conflict with previous studies that found more negotiation when NNSs interacted with other NNSs than when they interacted with NSs (Bruton & Samuda, 1980; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Long & Porter, 1985; Pica et al., 1996b; Polio & Gass, 1998; Porter, 1986; Varonis & Gass, 1983, 1985). Nevertheless, their study took the grammaticality of the learners' original utterances into account. They explain that much of the negotiation that took place in previous studies may have not been negative feedback, but negotiation of grammatical utterances that occurred as a result of the NNSs' attempts to understand each other. The authors claim that if they establish that feedback can promote development, then it is necessary to study whether more feedback leads to more development, whether there is a minimal level that is sufficient, and whether timing, quality, type, output opportunities, and context of feedback are relevant factors, as they suspect they are.

They add that although adult NNSs provided feedback on a smaller percentage of errors than NSs did, their feedback offered more opportunities for learners to modify their output. They give some possible reasons for this: the fact that NNSs did not have access to the target forms themselves and thus had to rely

on their interlocutors to reformulate their own utterances, or that they did not have the linguistic resources necessary to interpret their interlocutors' nontarget utterances and thus needed to ask for clarification more frequently. Another reason they offer is that sociolinguistic factors played a role: maybe NNSs' uncertainty about their own L2 ability led them to elicit modified output from their interlocutors rather than to attempt to produce the forms themselves. They argue that it is also plausible that NNSs may have felt it was inappropriate for them to provide negative feedback, as this might not be acceptable to other learners.

They state that age was not found to have a significant effect on the amount and nature of negative feedback and that in most cases, the way the two variables interacted must be taken into account. They add that, concerning the nature of feedback, age was a significant factor only among NNS-NNS pairs. The authors claim that their findings appear to be in harmony with Cook's (1998) suggestion that "age itself is not so important as the different interactions that learners of different ages have with the situation and with other people" (p. 110).

The authors conclude that despite differences among dyad types, much of the feedback in their study offered learners the opportunity to produce modified output. They explain that this is different from the pattern observed in earlier research on L2 classrooms, in which teachers provided limited opportunities for adolescent learners to modify their own utterances in response to negative feedback (Lyster, 1998a, 1998b; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). The authors suggest that the fact that laboratory and classroom settings seem to lead to different types of feedback may highlight the need to keep context, together with task and interlocutor variables, in mind when investigating interaction.

The authors explain one more interesting result of their study which involved differences in the amount, nature, and immediate use of negative feedback according to interlocutor type and dyad age. The fact that these differences do exist highlights the need to recognize the vast array of variables that can affect not only the amount and nature of negative feedback, but also the extent to which feedback actually leads to modify output. They argue that their study suggests that learners may find different linguistic environments depending on interlocutor type and learner age. They also speculate that factors such as interactional context may play a role in these differences. Therefore their findings

illustrate the importance of taking these variables into account when designing research and considering the processes of SLA and they finally state that one should not overgeneralize from one type of learner or one learning context to another.

Rieger (2003) offers a sociolinguistic study of conversational self-repair strategies used by English-German bilinguals, focusing mainly on the repetitions as self-repair strategies.

In her study, the subject group consisted of eight volunteers, five of them native speakers of English and three of them native speakers of German. All the participants were bilingual, using English and German on a daily basis. The author explains that the speakers engaged in two casual, dyadic conversations – one in English and one in German – in which participants were asked to talk as naturally as possible about a casual topic of their choice or about their favourite novel, film, or travel destination.

The author divided the transcript into units and chose the clause or modified clause as the basic unit. She explains that a modified clause is a reduced form of a sentence that includes one verb and all elements occurring with it. She then explains that the coding process was followed in a complex and detailed way: the information needed to be coded were elements of self-repair. She developed a system of progressive differentiation of categories. She coded all repetitions by their linguistic structure, such as repetitions of personal pronouns, definite articles, prepositions, nouns, and verbs. She then took into account the co-occurrence of interruptions, disturbing background noise, and prosodic features in order to determine which repetitions did not belong to the class of self-repair.

The author then mentions that the analysis consisted of a quantitative and a qualitative part.

She explains that the qualitative analysis is situated within the framework of interactional sociolinguistics with its basic assumption that the meaning, structure, and use of language is socially and culturally relative (Schiffrin, 1994).

With respect to the quantitative analysis, the data was standardized to 3500 words for every conversation in order to allow the teacher to compare

each subject's self-repair strategies in a quantitative manner in the four different situations.

Rieger (2003) then claims that the qualitative analysis reveals that the main functions of repetitions as self-repair – in English and in German – are to delay the production of the next lexical item and/or to postpone a possible transition-relevance place (TRP) (Sacks et al., 1974). She adds that it gives the speaker the opportunity to hold the floor at a possible TRP and/or it gives him or her time to engage in linguistic and/or cognitive planning, that is, he or she can search for a particular word or construction or think about the content of her or his utterance.

In relation to the results from the quantitative analysis, the author states that for all eight subjects, it was observed that their use of repetition changes depending on the language they speak, using significantly more self-repairs in their English conversations, as compared to their German conversations.

The quantitative analysis also revealed the following statistically significant differences in English and German self-repair strategies employed by bilinguals:

- bilingual speakers tend to use more repetitions of personal pronouns when speaking English than when speaking German;
- bilingual speakers tend to use more repetitions of pronouns and conjugated verb forms or verbal phrases when speaking English than when speaking German;
- bilingual speakers tend to use more repetitions of prepositions when speaking English than when speaking German; and
- bilingual speakers tend to use more repetitions of demonstratives when speaking German than when speaking English.

The author finally concludes that in conversations, English-German bilinguals use repetitions as self-repair strategies differently, depending on the language they speak. She assures that bilinguals in her study organize their repetitions as self-repair according to the structure of the particular language they are using. She claims that therefore, differences in the production of repetitions as self-repair strategies could be explained by differences in the morphosyntactic structures of English and German.

Sanz and Morgan-Short (2004) investigate the effects of computer-delivered, explicit information on the acquisition of Spanish word order by comparing four groups comprised of [+/– Explanation] and [+/– Explicit Feedback].

Their empirical study examines the isolated effects of explicit rules presented before and during practice on the acquisition of Spanish object pronouns using PI (Processing Instruction)-based input and tasks. The study incorporated computer-assisted instruction (CAI) into the design and hypothesized that the effects of explicit information about how the language works are intrinsically related to the quality of the input and how it is presented and do not only depend on the explanation and feedback components that accompany it.

The authors, after offering a review on the topic of explicit negative feedback, argue that some find clear evidence of the positive effects of explicit rule presentation on acquisition of at least simple rules and in combination with simple exposure. According to them, some might conclude that explicit negative feedback has a role in SLA and others might see in Rosa and O'Neill (1999), VanPatten and Oikkenon (1996), Benati (2003), Farley (2003) and Wong (2003) evidence of the powerful effects of input-driven acquisition, provided the input is manipulated and presented by means of a task that engages learners in making form-meaning connections, as shown by improvements in intake, interpretation, and controlled production.

They explain that their study investigates both the individual and combined effects of information provided prior to a task (i.e., explicit rule presentation) and information provided while participants are performing a task (i.e., explicit negative feedback).

The authors claim that their treatment requires students to attend to the target form in order to successfully complete the task. The target form, Spanish word order, is morphosyntactic in nature. Their design incorporates three measures of the effects of explanation and explicit negative feedback on learners' ability to correctly assign semantic functions to the NPs in a sentence: one interpretation and two production measures, which differ in the amount of information learners produce. They pose the following general hypothesis: providing L2 learners of Spanish with explicit information on sentences with object pronouns in preverbal position (i.e., O-cliticV sentences) and how to

process them either before or during exposure to input-based practice or both will not affect learners' ability to interpret and produce O-cliticV sentences.

They argue that the experimental design of the study included three independent variables (Explanation, Feedback, and Time) and two dependent variables (the acquisition of Spanish preverbal direct-object clitics as measured by one interpretation and two production tests). The treatment consisted of four different lessons completed in one session that resulted from combining +/– Explanation and +/– Feedback. The [+ E,+ F] group received two types of explicit information (explicit rule presentation and explicit negative feedback). The [+ E,– F] group and the [–E,+ F] group received only one type of explicit information, and the [–E,– F] group received no explicit information.

In the discussion and results section, Sanz and Morgan-Short (2004) explain that the lack of effects for explanation and feedback and the lack of significant differences between conditions leads them to conclude that explicit information about how Spanish works, whether provided before practice, during practice, or at both times, did not enhance acquisition of Spanish preverbal pronouns by participants in their study. They also state that this finding is substantially different from the body of evidence. They argue that the explanation for this difference lies in the manner in which their study and the previous studies provide input as well as in the nature of the input they provide. According to them, whereas Alanen (1995), DeKeyser (1995), Ellis (1993) and Robinson (1996, 1997) simply exposed learners to lists of sentences or passages and asked them to read for comprehension, search for rules, or memorize, their study's task required that learners respond to each item presented to them and this response depended on processing the critical form for meaning, as it is characteristic of task-essentialness.

Therefore, there appears to be evidence for the beneficial effects of explicit rule presentation when learners receive only exposure to the target form, but, based on their findings, it appears that when learners are asked to complete a task in which they are presented with structured input and task-essential practice items, supplementary information about the language form provided a priori does not enhance their ability to use the form in subsequent interpretation or production measures.

They add that their results are also contrary to those of relevant feedback studies, specifically Carroll and Swain (1993) and Nagata (1993), which show that more explicit feedback positively affects the production of complex forms. In their study, the [–E,– F] group's performance was not significantly worse than that of the [–E,+ F] group.

They finally argue that for their specific operationalization of metalinguistic evidence, sample, and measurement tasks, they are led to conclude that language acquisition is associative in nature and triggered only by exposure to input through task-essential practice, unaffected by metalinguistic information.

Smith (2005) explores whether a negotiation routine's complexity affects learner uptake and if this uptake affects lexical acquisition in a synchronous computer-mediated environment. In his paper he describes the different variables involved in his research: computer-assisted language learning and learner uptake.

After a revision of literature related to the two variables, the author concludes the following about uptake:

"Taken together, the most recent studies suggest that uptake is most likely to occur and be successful in FFEs (Focused on Form Episodes) that a) involve negotiated interaction, b) are complex rather than simple in nature, and c) are student rather than other initiate" (Smith, 2005: 39).

About the relationship between uptake and acquisition, the author states that the relationship between them is still developing. He adds that establishing a clear link between the two is problematic because uptake neither guarantees that a feature will be acquired nor is it always present when a feature is acquired.

His study focused on the acquisition of lexical items by intermediate students in an American University. His results indicate that uptake moves that were successful in the conventional sense occurred very rarely in the data. In the 66 Negotiation Based Focused on Form Episodes, only 7 such moves occurred. One explanation for the lack of immediate uptake may be the pressure to respond quickly to the messages created by computer-assisted language learning medium. As students were focused on carrying out the task

and thus felt some pressure to respond, they may have been less inclined to uptake a previous utterance.

The author concludes that, though there is a theoretical basis for arguing that uptake can contribute positively to second language acquisition, the data in his study suggest that uptake had no effect on whether target items were acquired or not. He remarks that uptake is a type of pushed output, according to Swain's output hypothesis (1985, 1995). Uptake has also been considered a means to practice linguistic items, with the result of helping learners to automatize retrieval of these items (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). According to Ellis et al., (2001), uptake may help learners test and subsequently revise faulty hypotheses about the target language. Nevertheless, in Smith's (2005) study, neither in the conventional definition nor in the expanded definition of uptake does it facilitate the acquisition of the linguistic items. He remarks that his finding calls into question the positive role of uptake in second language acquisition; he also hypothesizes that, even through negotiation may elicit considerable successful uptake in a synchronous computer mediated communication context, the benefits of lexical acquisition may come from other elements of negotiated interaction, rather than successful uptake.

As a conclusion for this part about error treatment, we will say that, even though further research and empirical evidence is needed, authors agree to state two recommendations. One is that error treatment should be carried out in a way that is compatible with general interlanguage development, as for instance only correcting errors that students are ready to eliminate. The other is that self-repair is more appropriate for acquisition than other-repair, since it does not lead to a negative affective response.

From a general point of view we can state that error treatment must be a process of negotiation, one of the many ways in which the teacher and the learners cooperate in managing interactional tasks in the classroom. That is the reason why error treatment is often inconsistent. It is not clear to what extent error treatment facilitates learning and which kinds of treatment are more effective. This is why so many authors have dealt with this topic and why still further study is needed.

5. LEARNER AGE, APTITUDE, LEARNING STYLES, AFFECTIVE FACTORS AND FEEDBACK IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

5.1. Learner age.

5.1.1. Introduction.

There is a widely-held lay belief that younger L2 learners generally do better than older learners. This is supported by the critical period hypothesis, according to which there is a fixed span of years during which language learning can take place naturally and effortlessly, and after which it is not possible to be completely successful. Some researchers (Penfield and Roberts, 1956) argued that the optimum period for language acquisition falls within the first ten years of life, when the brain retains its plasticity. Initially this period was equated with the period taken for lateralization of the language function to the left side of the brain to be completed. Work on children and adults who had experienced brain injuries or operations indicated that damage to the left hemisphere caused few speech disorders and was rapidly repaired n the case of children but not adults (Lenneberg, 1967). Although subsequent work (Krashen, 1973; Whitaker et al. 1981) has challenged the precise age when lateralization takes place, resulting in doubts about the neurological basis of the critical period hypothesis, the age question has continued to attract the attention of researchers.

It continues to be a controversial issue (Flege, 1987: Patkowski, 1990). The controversy centres on both whether there are significant differences in L2 learning according to age, and also on the theoretical explanations for those differences which researchers claim to have found.

As Long and Larsen-Freeman (1991) point out, the age issue remains an important one for theory building in SLA research, for educational policy-making, and for language pedagogy. If it can be shown that older learners are different from younger learners, the claim that adults have continued access to Universal Grammar is called into question. If it can be shown that younger learners do better than older learners, the case for an early start in foreign

language learning education is strengthened. If it can be shown that children learn in different ways to adults, language teachers will need to identify different approaches and techniques to suit the two kinds of learners.

5.1.2. The effects of age on rate of second language acquisition.

In their review of the research that has addressed the age issue, Krashen, et al. (1979) conclude that a) adults are superior to children in rate of acquisition, and b) older children learn more rapidly than younger children. The study most often cited in favour of these conclusions is Snow and Hoefnagel-Höhle (1978). This study investigated the naturalistic acquisition of Dutch by eight- to ten- year old English speaking children, twelve- to fifteen-year old adolescents, and adults over a ten-month period. The learners' proficiency was measured on three separate occasions (after three months, six months, and at the end of the study). With regard to morphology and syntax the adolescents did best, followed by the adults, with the children last. However, there were only small differences in pronunciation, and the grammar differences diminished over time as the children began to catch up.

Experimental studies have also shown that adults outperform children in the short term. For example, Olson and Samuels (1973) found that American English-speaking adolescents and adults performed significantly better than children after 10-25 minute German pronunciation sessions. However, other studies suggest that, at least, where pronunciation is concerned, adults do not always progress more rapidly than children. Cochrane (1980), for example, investigated the ability of 54 Japanese children and 24 adults to discriminate English /r/ and /l/. The average length of naturalistic exposure was calculated as 245 for the adults and 193 for the children. The children outperformed the adults, although in a follow-up experiment in which the two groups were taught the phonemic distinction, the adults benefited while the children did not.

The research gives support to Krashen et al.'s generalisation (1979) that adults learn faster than children. It appears to be more applicable to grammar than pronunciation, although in the case of formal learning situations adults seem to do better even in this area of learning. It is not clear at what point children begin to catch up.

5.1.3. The effects of age on learners' second language achievement.

The majority of L2 learners fail to reach native-speaker levels of ability. It is important to ask whether age effects are evident in such learners. Do learners who begin learning as children in general reach higher levels of L2 ability than those who start as adolescents or adults? This question has been addressed in research that has compared the level of proficiency reached by L2 learners who began as children with that of learners who began as adults.

A number of studies have investigated the relative effects of starting foreign language education in the primary school as opposed to the secondary school on the levels of attainment. For example, Burstall (1979) reports on a pilot study in England and Wales. She compared two groups of students with five years of instruction. One group had began learning French at the age of 8, while the other group had began at the beginning of secondary school (11 years). She found that the older learners were consistently superior.

Harley (1986) investigated the levels of attainment of children in French bilingual programmes in Canada. She focused on the learners' acquisition of the French verb system, obtaining data from interviews, a story repetition task and a translation task. She compared early and late immersion students after both groups had received 1.000 hours of instruction. Neither group had acquired full control of the verb system, but the older group demonstrated greater overall control.

The results from these and other school-based studies (see Singleton, 1989 for a review) are not supportive of the claim that children's level attainment is greater than that of adolescents/adults. One possible explanation for this (singleton, 1989) is that formal learning environments do not provide learners with the amount of exposure needed for the age advantage of young learners to emerge.

Studies of learners in naturalistic learning situations provide the most convincing evidence than younger is better and, therefore some support for the Critical Period Hypothesis.

Learners who start as children achieve a more native-like accent than those who start as adolescents or adults. Oyama (1976) investigated 60 male

immigrants who had entered the United States at ages ranging from 6 to 20 years and had been resident there for between 5 and 18 years. She asked two native speakers to judge the nativeness of the learners' accents in a two 45-second extracts taken from performance on a reading-aloud task and a free-speech task. Oyama reports a very strong effect for age of arrival but almost no effect for number of years in the United States.. She found that the youngest arrivals performed in the same range as native-speaker controls. Other studies which have investigated the effects of age on pronunciation (for example, Tahta et al., 1981) support the younger-is-better position.

Similar studies have been obtained for the acquisition of grammar. Patkowski's (1980, 1990) study of 67 educated immigrants to the United States found that learners who had entered the United States before the age of 15 were rated as more syntactically proficient than learners who had entered after 15. Patkowski also investigated the effects of number of years spent in the United States, amount of informal exposure to English, and amount of formal instruction. Only the amount of informal exposure had any significant effect, and even this was negligible in comparison with the age factor.

Patkowski's findings are confirmed by Johnson and Newport's (1989) study of 46 native Koreans and Chinese who had arrived in the United States between the ages of 3 and 39, half before the age of 15 and half after 17. The subjects were asked to rate the grammaticality of 276 spoken sentences, about half of which were grammatical. Overall the correlation between age at arrival and judgement scores was –0.77 (the older the learners were at arrival the lower the scores). Far less variation was found in the child group than in the adult group.

In his summary of these and other studies, Singleton (1989) has arrived at different conclusions:

1.   Adult learners have an initial advantage where rate of learning is concerned, particularly in grammar. They will eventually be overtaken by child learners who receive enough exposure to the L2. This is less likely to happen in instructional than in naturalistic settings because the critical amount of exposure is not available in instructional settings.

2.   Only child learners are capable of acquiring a native accent in informal learning contexts. Long (1990) puts the critical age at 6 years, but

Scovel (1988) argues that there is no evidence to support this and argues for a pre-puberty start. Singleton (1989) points out that children will only acquire a native accent if they receive massive exposure to the L2. However, some children who receive this exposure still do not achieve a native-like accent, possibly because they strive to maintain active use of their L1. Adult learners may be able to acquire a native accent with the assistance of instruction, but further research is needed to substantiate this claim.

3.   Children may be more likely to acquire a native grammatical competence. The critical period for grammar may be later than for pronunciation (around 15 years). Some adult learners, however, may succeed in acquiring native levels of grammatical accuracy in speech and writing and even full linguistic competence.

4.   Irrespective of whether native-speaker proficiency is achieved, children are more likely to reach higher levels of attainment in both pronunciation and grammar than adults.

5.   The process of acquiring an L2 grammar is not substantially affected by age, but that of acquiring pronunciation may be.

5.1.4. Theoretical explanations on the role of age in second language acquisition.

These general conclusions provide substantial support for the existence of at least a sensitive period for L2 acquisition. The distinction between a "critical" and a "sensitive" period rests on whether completely successful acquisition is deemed to be only possible within a given span of a learner's life, or whether acquisition is just easier within this period. The conclusions also lend some support to Selinger's (1978) proposal that there may be multiple critical/sensitive periods for different aspects of language. The period during which a native accent is easily acquirable appears to end sooner than the period governing the acquisition of a native grammar.

A number of explanations have been advanced to account for the existence of a critical or sensitive period. These have been reviewed in Singleton (1989) and Long (1990). Singleton points out that problems exist with all the explanations.

One of the major points of controversy is whether the differences between child and adult learners are to be explained as primarily the result of environmental factors or of changes in the mental and neurological mechanisms responsible for language learning. Mühlhauser (1986), after an extensive study of the developmental stages of pidgin languages and their similarities to language acquisition, concludes that adults and children appear to behave very much in the same manner, which indicates that activation of certain linguistic developments is dependent on the presence of specific environmental factors, rather than on different cognitive abilities of children and adults.

Long (1990), on the other hand, concludes that a neurological explanation is best and proposes the "mental muscle model", according to which the language-specific endowment remains intact throughout adult life, but access to it is impeded to varying degrees and progressively with age, unless the faculty is used and so kept plastic. Such a view is compatible with studies of successful language learners (Obler, 1989), which demonstrate that some adult learners are capable of achieving native-like levels of competence. As Birdsong (1992) points out, the question then arises as to whether it is possible to maintain the Critical Period Hypothesis if many such learners are found.

One puzzle is why there is so little evidence of any differences in the process of L2 acquisition by child and adult learners. If adults substitute inductive cognitive learning strategies for the language acquisition device use by children, the differences in the process of acquisition might be expected to occur. In the case of phonology, some clear process differences have been reported, suggesting that children and adults rely on different mechanisms. However, in the case of grammar no clear differences have been observed, suggesting that learners of all ages rely on the same learning mechanisms. Long's *mental muscle model*, therefore, may not provide satisfactory explanation where L2 phonology is concerned, but seems to offer a convincing account of why child and adult learners do not differ in the process of acquiring an L2 grammar..

According to Ellis (1995), it is not necessary to posit neurological explanations to account for why older learners learn more rapidly. One possibility is that older learners experience more negotiation of meaning and, therefore, better input. Another obvious possibility is that adolescents and adults possess more fully developed cognitive skills, which enable them to apply

themselves studially to the task of learning a L2. Most likely, the rate advantage enjoyed by adults is the result of a combination of factors.

In conclusion, it is not yet possible to reach any definite decisions on such key issues as whether adults have continuous access to a language specific acquisition device. One tentative conclusion suggested by the research is that he acquisition of phonology (which appears to be particularly sensitive to age) proceeds somewhat differently from the acquisition of grammar (which appears much less sensitive). In the two groups which are studied in this research, it is expected that older students make more phonological errors, because they are expected to be more competent in grammar an vocabulary, as they have developed their cognitive systems more than the younger group and they have also developed strategies for learning vocabulary. Younger students are expected to make more grammatical and vocabulary errors, because they have not developed their problem solving system yet and neither have they acquired the strategies for learning vocabulary. However, according to the theories explained above, the 2nd year students of secondary education may still make use of the Language Acquisition Device and apply it to the acquisition of phonology.

5.2. Learning styles

The idea of learning style comes from general psychology. It refers to the characteristic ways in which individuals orientate to problem-solving. Learning style reflects "the totally of psychological functioning" (Willing, 1987). An individual's learning style is viewed as relatively fixed and not readily changed. However, Little and Singleton (1990) argue that it is possible to help adult learners to explore their own preferences and to shape their learning approach to suit the requirements of a particular learning task. It is this belief that underlies the idea of "learner training".

A number of learning style distinctions have been made in cognitive psychology; however, only the distinction between field independence and field dependence has attracted attention in Second Language Acquisition research.

The distinction is taken from the work of Witkin et al, who provide the following description:

"In a field dependent mode of perceiving, perception is strongly dominated by the overall organization of the surrounding field, and parts of the field are experienced as "fused". In a field independent mode of perceiving, parts of the field are experienced as discrete from organized ground … "field dependent" and "field independent", like the designations "tall" and "short", are relative"

(Witkin et al., 1971: 4)

A number of studies have investigated the relationship between field independence/field independence and L2 learning. One hypothesis that has been investigated is that field independence learners do better in formal language learning, while field dependence learners do better in informal language learning. However, with the exception of Abraham and Vann (1987), who studied only two learners, this hypothesis has not received support. In general field independence learners do better on measures of formal language learning (for example, discrete point tests), but they also do better on integrative tests and tests of communicative competence, designed to favour field dependence learners.

Another hypothesis which has not received convincing support from the research carried out to date is that field dependence learners will interact more and seek out more contact with other users of the L2, Day (1984) found no relationship between field independence/field dependence and participation.

Other approaches to investigating learning style in second language learners are more promising. A number of researchers have used survey techniques to collect data on learners' stated preferences, On the basis of such data, Reid (1987) distinguished four perceptual learning modalities:

1.   visual learning (for example, reading and studying charts)
2.   auditory learning (for example, listening to lectures or to audio-tapes)
3.   kinaesthetic learning (involving physical response)
4.   tactile learning (hands-on learning as in building models)

He then administered a questionnaire to 1.388 students of varying language backgrounds to investigate their preferred modalities. This revealed that the learners' preferences often differed significantly from those of native speakers of American English. They showed a general preference for kinaesthetic and tactile

learning styles (with the exception of the Japanese), and for individual as opposed to group learning. Proficiency level was not related to learning style, but length of residence in the United States was. – the longer the period, the more an auditory style was preferred, reflecting perhaps an adaptation to the prevailing demands of the American education system.

In another survey, Willing (1987) investigated the learning styles of 517 adult ESL learners in Australia. Their responses to a 30-item questionnaire were analysed by means of factor analysis (a statistical procedure designed to discover if there were any combinations of items which afforded parallel responses). Willing identified two major dimensions of learning style. One was cognitive and corresponded closely to that of field independence/dependence. The other was more affective in nature; it concerned how active learners were in the way they reported approaching L2 learning tasks. Based on these two dimensions, Willing describes four learning styles:

1. Concrete learning style: Learners with concrete learning style use active and direct means of processing information; they are interested in information that has immediate value. They are curious, spontaneous and willing to take risks. They like variety and constant change of pace. They dislike routine learning and written work and prefer verbal and visual experiences. They like to be entertained and they like to be physically involved in learning.

2. Analytical learning style: Learners with analytical style are independent, like to solve problems. They focus on specific problems and proceed by means of hypothetical-deductive reasoning; object orientated; they dislike failure; prefer logical didactic representation.

3.Communicative learning style: Learners with a communicative learning style are fairly independent; highly adaptable and flexible; responsive to facts that do not fit: they prefer social learning and a communicative approach; enjoy taking decisions.

4. Authority orientated learning style: reliant on other people; they need teacher's directions and explanations; they like a structured learning environment; intolerant of facts that do not fit; they prefer a sequential progression; they dislike discovery learning

Willing's questionnaire was also used by Gieve (1991) (in an adapted form) in a study of the learning styles of 156 first-year female students at a

College in Japan. Gieve analysed the data using a variety of statistical procedures, the most revealing of which was cluster analysis (a procedure that groups people according to the similarity of their response profiles). Five clusters emerged: 1) learners with instrumental motivation, together with communicative orientation, 2) learners with no motivation, 3) learners interested in general intellectual development, 4) learners with a strong motivation but with no clear aims, and 5) learners with integrative motivation interested in living abroad. Most students fell into cluster 2). This analysis shows that the strength of learner's motivation works as a major dimension of learning style.

5.3. Affective factors

5.3.1. Motivation.

Gardner and Lambert (1959) were pioneers in demonstrating that statistically significant and independent relationships could be established between motivation/attitude and second language acquisition. Their ideas about motivation were largely shaped by Mowrer's (1950) view of L1 acquisition. Mowrer attributed a child's success in acquiring an L1 to the child quest for identity, initially with members of the child's immediate family and then later with members of the larger speech community. Borrowing the concept of identification from Mowrer, Gardner and Lambert proposed what they called integrative motivation. A learner is said to be integratively motivated when the learner wishes to identify with another ethnolinguistic group.

By a way of contrast to integrative motivation, Gardner and Lambert introduced the concept instrumental motivation, in which a learner is motivated to learn an L2 for utilitarian purposes, such as furthering a career, improving social status or meeting an educational requirement.

According to Gardner and Lambert, an instrumentally oriented learner can be as intensively motivated as an integratively oriented one; however, they hypothesized that the latter orientation would be better in the long run for

sustaining the drive necessary to master the L2. This hypothesis was borne out in their early studies in Canada and in certain contexts in the USA.

As Gardner and Lambert expanded the number of contexts they investigated, the perspective which held that integrative motivation was better than instrumental motivation was challenged. Students learning English as a foreign language in their Philippine study, for instance, were highly successful despite their having instrumental, not integrative motivation. Moreover, in another study, they found that instrumental motivation to learn English worked very well for French speaking children living in Maine and attending a American High School.

Other studies (McLaughlin, 1985) suggested that there are conditions under which instrumental motivation leads to more successful second language learning than does integrative.

Clement and Kruidenier (1983) have offered one explanation for these discrepant findings: ambiguity in the definition of integrative and instrumental motivation. an example of the problem lies in such descriptions as "having friends who speak English". A subject selecting this as a reason for learning English could be said to be motivated by either type of motivation. A second cause Clement and Kruidenier advance for the discrepant findings is contextual factors. It makes sense, for example, that someone studying a target language as a foreign language would less likely aspire to integrate with the target-language community than someone for whom the target language was a second language.

Cooper also stresses the importance of the language learning context: "If most students had to know a given foreign language in order to accomplish some goal to them, then most would learn it" (1981: 133))

Genese et al. (1983) have discovered another angle to the issue of the relationship between motivation and context. These researchers asked adolescents English-speaking Canadian students why they were learning French as a second language and why they thought French-speaking Canadians wanted them to learn French: the results show that the respondents' expectations of motivational support from the TL group emerged as significant, and, in some cases, unique predictors of second language performance. The authors concluded that socio-psychological models of second language acquisition need to consider the role of intergroup factors more seriously.

5.3.2. A self-determination approach to motivation

According to self-determination theory, there are two general types of motivation, one based on intrinsic interest in the activity per se and the other based on rewards extrinsic to the activity itself. These types of motivation are not categorically different, however, but rather lie along a continuum of self-determination.

Intrinsic motivation

Generally refers to motivation to engage in an activity because that activity is enjoying and satisfying to do, Intrinsic motivation is founded upon innate needs for competence and self-determination. When people are free to choose to perform an activity, they will seek interesting situations where they can rise to the challenges that the activity presents. By striving to meet these challenges, they develop a sense of competence in their abilities. Recently, Noels et al. (2003) proposed a three-part taxonomy of intrinsic motivation:

a) The first type, intrinsic motivation knowledge, is the motivation for doing an activity for the feelings associated with exploring new ideas and developing knowledge.

b) A second type, intrinsic motivation accomplishment, refers to the sensations related to attempting to master a task or achieve a goal.

c) The third type, intrinsic motivation stimulation, relates to motivation based simply on the sensations stimulated by performing the task, such as aesthetic appreciation or fun and excitement.

The common basis of these three subtypes is the pleasurable sensation experienced during the self-initiated and challenging activity.

Extrinsic motivation

In contrast to intrinsically motivated behaviours, extrinsically motivated behaviours are those actions carried out to achieve some instrumental end, such as earning a reward or avoiding a punishment. This type of motivation does not necessarily imply a lack of self-determination in the behaviours performed. Rather, Deci & Ryan (1985) maintained that different types of extrinsic motivation can be classified along a continuum according to the extent to which

they are internalised into the self-concept (that is, the extent to which the motivation is self-determined). Within the realm of education, three levels of extrinsic motivation have been distinguished; from the lowest to the highest level of self-determination these are

a)   The external regulation is defined as those activities that are determined by sources external to the person, such as tangible benefits or costs. If the reason for learning the language is taken away, there is no incentive to continue engagement in the learning process.

b)   The introjected regulation refers to reasons that pertain to performing an activity due to some type of pressure that individuals have incorporated into the self, such that they compel themselves to carry out that activity. Although the source of the pressure is internal, it is not self-determined because the student is reacting to a pressure, not acting on the basis of personal choice. Example: The students who practise an L2 because they would feel ashamed if they could not speak the L2. Learning would only take place as long as they felt the need to reduce guilt.

c)   The identified regulation: this is the most self-determined form of extrinsic motivation; at this point, individuals invest energy in an activity because they have chosen to do so for personally relevant reasons. In this situation, students would carry out an activity because of its importance for achieving a valued goal. For instance language learners who feel that L2 fluency is an important aspect of their educational development will endure repetitive oral exercises in the interest of attaining this level of competence.

5.3.3. Amotivation

Deci and Ryan (1985) contrasted all types of intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation with amotivation. Amotivation refers to the situation in which people see no relation between their actions and the consequences of those actions; the consequences are seen as arising as a result of factors beyond their control. In such a situation, people have no reason, extrinsic or intrinsic, for

performing the activity, and they would be expected to quit the activity as soon as possible.

The question remains as to how these orientations described by self-determination theory relate to the orientations described by Gardner and Lambert (1957). There is a definitional similarity between instrumentally oriented motivation and externally regulated motivation in that both constructs emphasize the pursuit of an activity as a reaction to some object external to the individual and the activity per se. The relation between Integrative motivation and intrinsic motivation however is less obvious. Travel, knowledge and friendship orientations could be considered extrinsically motivated goals, in the sense that they refer to reasons extrinsic to language learning itself. At the same time it is conceivable that these orientations are relatively self-determined orientations in that they may be related to values that the individual has incorporated ito the self-concept. The may be related to intrinsic motivation to the extent that they give rise to positive feelings through the promotion of autonomy, self-perceptions of competence, or both. Thus, to integrate self-determination theory into current formulations of orientations for L2 learning, it is important to explore the relations between these orientations and the motivational constructs described.

A final study worth mentioning in the area of motivation is Strong's (1984) research on Spanish speaking children learning English in an American classroom. Strong found that the students' intensity of integrative motivation increased relative to their English language proficiency. A plausible explanation is that motivation does not necessarily promote acquisition, but rather results from it: those who meet with success in second language learning become more motivated to study.

5.4.Personality factors

5.4.1. Self-esteem.

Shavelson et al. (1976) proposed a hierarchy to account for self-esteem, or the feeling of self-worth an individual possesses. At the highest level is global self-esteem, or the individual's overall self-assessment. At the medial level is specific self-esteem, or how individuals perceive themselves in various life contexts (education, work, etc.) and according to various characteristics (intelligence, attractiveness, etc.). At the lowest level is the valuation one gives oneself on specific tasks (writing a paper, talking to someone, etc.).

Hyde (1979) studied the effects of these three levels of self-esteem on performance on a French oral production task by American college students. She found that the students' performance correlated significantly with all three levels, the highest correlation existing for task self-esteem. One of the interesting sidepoints of Hyde's research was her discovery that the task self-esteem scores fluctuated from one class to the next. Assuming that the students' distribution in the classes was random, it would appear that the instructors had some effect on the students' self-evaluation.

5.4.2. Extroversion

Folk wisdom holds that extrovert students learn at a faster rate than introverts. However, like so much of the work in these areas, the results of empirical research are inconclusive.

Certainly some studies have offer support for the common perception that extroversion leads to language-learning success. Metraux (1964) reported that the more successful English speaking children learning French in France were talkative, outgoing and adaptable. The quiet, reserved children were slower learners. Chastain (1975) found a positive correlation between scores on the scale for outgoing personality and course grades for language students in US university studying German and Spanish, but not for students of French. Rossier (1976) found that extroverted Spanish-speaking adolescents became proficient in

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English oral fluency more rapidly than the introverted students. On the other hand, Naiman et al. (1978) found no significant correlation between scores on an extroversion/introversion measure and performance on listening comprehension and imitation tasks by Canadian self-professed good language learners.

In Buch's study of Japanese learners of English in Japan, a significant negative correlation was found between the subjects' English pronunciation and extroversion. In addition, introverts tended to have higher scores on the reading and grammar componest of the English test. Only on the oral interview tsk did certain of the subjects who had tendencies towards extroversion have higher scores. Extroversion also correlated positively with the length of time students spent studying English.

Strong (1984) hypothesizes that all the discrepancies in findings could be due to differences in the nature of the language being assessed. When natural communicative language is being assessed, a relationship is demonstrated between extroversion and performance. When linguistic type language is being assessed, often no relationship is found.

5.4.3. Anxiety

For many students, learning related anxiety may be defined as a general feeling of nervousness, overall uneasiness or even dread – the sensation that one is somehow unprepared for the task at hand, or unable to successfully complete the required activity. Scovel (1978: 134) offers the psychological description of anxiety "… as a type of apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object", while C.D. Spielberger (as cited in Horwitz an al. 1986:125) defines it more specifically as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system". However it is ultimately defined, it is nonetheless clearly an unpleasant state of mind and body which the majority of persons have experienced at some time in at least some facet of their lives.. Within the context of learning environments, it undoubtedly constitutes a highly personal aspect of the learning process.

Throughout the literature, different classifications of anxiety are encountered. In her brief review, Compton (1996) identifies three types of

anxiety in relation to language learning. The first is trait anxiety, a term used to identify the type of anxiety which may be manifested by a person in any number of different situations. According to her observations, not all scholars consider this type a valid construct, as it may differ widely between people, situations and circumstances. The second type, state anxiety, is associated with a determined moment in time, and in this sense, measurement is less exact, as subjects are not asked to give the reasons or causes of the anxiety, but nearly confirm or deny their level of stress at the moment of reporting. Situation specific anxiety, the third type, which may also be called language anxiety in concrete contexts, falls within a group of anxieties which psychologists also term simply specific anxiety (Horwitz et al. 1986). This type, which is also seen in the academic world in relation to mathematics, science, and test taking, lends itself more readily to objective analysis. In questionnaires relating to this type, subjects are asked about the specific situations which produce anxiety.

These same categories of anxiety are maintained in McIntyre and Gardner's (1991) extensive review of the literature, and it is around the state, trait and situation specific anxiety which the majority of research has been conducted, both within the context of language learning and other fields.

The concept of anxiety found in the literature varies widely; one researcher (young, as cited in Hilleson, 1996: 249) found that "the definition of anxiety has frequently changed with the purpose of research" and that "comparisons across research are often hindered by a lack of consistency in anxiety research". For that reason, and in order to be able to bear in minda general overviewof the concept of anxiety, it may be helpful to borrow Hilleson's review (1996) of the most important definitions:

1. *Trait anxiety* (Scovel, 1978) is described as an inherent, long-term personality characteristic. This concept could be applied to "born worriers" and suggests that some people are more prone to anxiety than others.

2. *State anxiety* (Scovel, 1978) refers to anxiety induced by a particular temporary phenomenon. In the literature, the term applies to specific situations, such as language classrooms.

3. *Communication anxiety* is a specific example of state anxiety. Someone communicating, whether in the first or second language, experiences stress as a result of having to communicate publicly.

4. *Foreign language anxiety* (Horwitz et al. 1986) occurs when students have to perform tasks in a language that is not their own. While this is, in some way, similar to language shock (see number 6), we have treated as a task-related phenomenon.

5. *Foreign language classroom anxiety* (Gardner & Smythe, 1976; Bailey, 1983) highlights anxiety induced by the need to perform classroom tasks in another language. This concept frequently refers to phenomena connected to speaking and is a situational specific form of foreign language anxiety.

6. *Language shock* refers to negative self-perceptions (Schumann & Schumann, 1977). With this form of anxiety students feel they cannot function properly within the community since they have been deprived of their real personality and are embarrassed to display a self that is fundamentally incompetent.

7. *Test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation* (Horwitz et al. 1986) concern students' production of how significant others will react to them. Fear of negative evaluation is likely to manifest itself in students' insecurity, passivity, and performance deficits.

In the earliest of the papers on anxiety, Scovel (1978) discusses the confusing results shown by researchers attempting to study the effects of anxiety on language learning. He mentions a study which identified the two worst Spanish speaking learners of English in her group as both the highest and lowest scorers on anxiety. Later research has indicated that this confusing finding is due to debilitating anxiety in one student, and lack of facilitating anxiety on the part of the other, and a failure to discern between the two in the analysis.

In a highly detailed study of the various types of anxiety, McIntyre and Gardner (1991) indicate that identical tasks provoke more anxiety in L2 than in L1, and this anxiety correlates with the learning process, affecting it negatively in all areas examined, namely involving those of vocabulary and short-term memory. These authors also describe a negative circle which is set up by poor FL performance and which consequently triggers FL anxiety, thus further increasing FL difficulties.

In conclusion, we can say that few studies have examined the frequency of use of affective strategies, but those which have done so reveal that these strategies are woefully underused – reported by about 1 in every 20 language learners. This situation is distressing, given the power of affective strategies. These strategies are useful for the vast majority of language learners who have ordinarily hang-ups and difficulties.

Anxiety-reducing strategies like laughter and deep breathing are necessary. However, strategies directly targeted at anxiety reduction are not the only ones that help learners to calm down. Self-encouragement via positive statements can change one's feelings and attitudes and can indirectly reduce performance anxiety, including the tension that surrounds test-taking.

Self-assessment strategies help learners realise when they are anxious. Listening to bodily signals is an especially helpful strategy for discovering and controlling anxiety.

We expect that the older students in this research project will show a greater anxiety, especially state and test anxiety as they are getting ready for the University entrance exam. In class they are continuously practising for this exam and they often express their fears that they may not do well in the exam. The younger students do not have to take a serious exam and they are more relaxed in class, they often make jokes and laugh.

6. EMPIRICAL PART

6.1. Aims

Our objective in the empirical part of this doctoral dissertation is to analyse a group of thirty lessons taught by two different teachers at two different schools and at two different levels, and observe if a series of variables is going to result into meaningful difference.

Hypotheses

Due to the advanced level of the second group of students, we can hypothesize that:

•There will be more correction in the non-native teacher group (class of E.S.O.).

•In the native teacher classroom (class of Bachillerato) the feedback exchanges will be longer.

•There will be more acceptance of correction in the native teacher's class (Bachillerato) because the students are more proficient and responsible.

•There will be more confirmation in the class of E.S.O. because students are less competent and insecure and need this confirmation.

•The feedback exchange will contain more turns in communicative tasks than in linguistic tasks as there is more participation on the part of students.

•There will be more correction and acceptance of correction in linguistic tasks than in communicative tasks in both contexts.

•The experienced teacher (native teacher of Bachillerato) will encourage more self-correction, specially in linguistic tasks.

6.2. Subjects and method

6.2.1. Teaching context and participants

Fifteen lessons were recorded at each of two different schools, at two different levels (E.S.O / Bachillerato), and with two different teachers (native / nonnative).

Here we explain the social background necessary to understand the context in which the two groups of lessons were recorded.

The first group of lessons were recorded from a 4th of E.S.O. course at a state-assisted school situated in a town to the south of Valencia.

The second group of lessons were recorded from a 2nd of Bachillerato course at a private school situated in a town to the north of Valencia.

The background of the two schools is quite different. The first is situated in an agricultural town where students usually live in a familiar environment and they know each other and their families. Contact among the students is kept after school is over, since they all live in the same town or in a near one. However, in the second school most of the students live in the near town of Valencia and travel every day to the town where the school is situated. They do not share the familiar environment and most of them only see their classmates at school.

There are also great differences in respect to the socioeconomic background that surrounds the two schools. Since the second school is a private school, the economic level of the students that attend it is quite much higher than the level of the students who attend the state-assisted one. These differences are shown in factors such as the parents' level of studies, the fact that the students have travelled or not to a foreign country, etc. This is shown later in the form of graphs which have been produced basing on the results of a questionnaire to the students.

The age of the students is between 15 and 16 for the first school and between 17 and 19 for the second school.

In the first school there were 16 students in the class: 5 males and 11 females.

The atmosphere in the class was quite relaxed and comfortable for the students, who felt free to participate and interact. In fact there is a high level of participation and interaction, even though one can also appreciate that the teacher is in command of the class and controls this interaction.

In the second school there were 22 students in the class: 13 males and 9 females.

The atmosphere of the class was also quite relaxed and comfortable for the students, although due to the characteristics of the teacher and the class, we found that the teacher was not as much in control of the class as teacher A. Probably, the age, maturity and level of students, together with the particular style of the

teacher, led her to assume that her students could have a higher level of freedom to participate in class and that a tight control of participation was not necessary.

Most of the students in class A started their English studies at the age of 8 or 9, which was the compulsory age to start English at school (3rd of Primary Education).
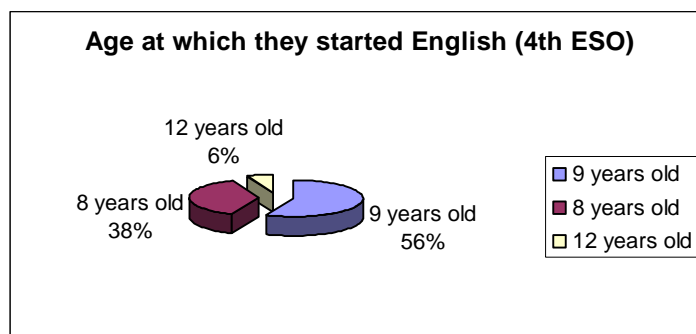
In the class in the second school, which we will name class B, quite an important number of the students started studying English at an earlier age. This means that students started to attend private schools of English and also that the second school offers the subject of English from an earlier stage:
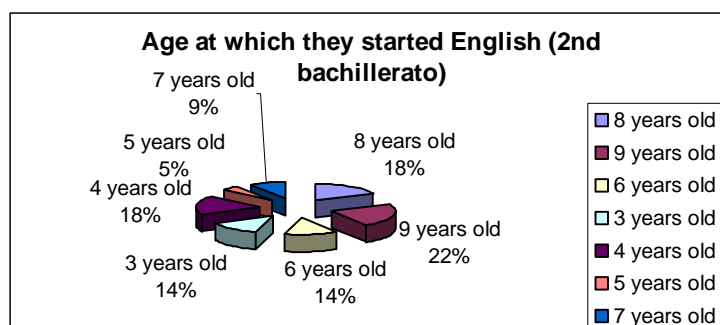
We also found great differences in relation to the studies of the students' parents in both schools:

Parents' Studies (4thESO)

	none	primary	secondary	university
☐ father	6%	62%	13%	19%
☐ mother	6%	75%	6%	13%

Parents' studies (Bachillerato)

	none	primary	secondary	university
☐ father	4%	14%	9%	73%
☐ mother	0%	23%	0%	77%
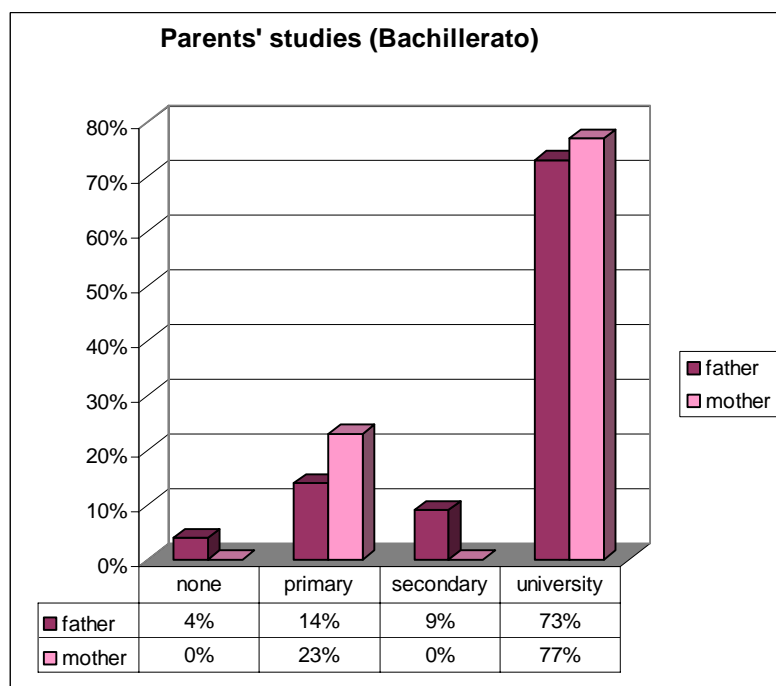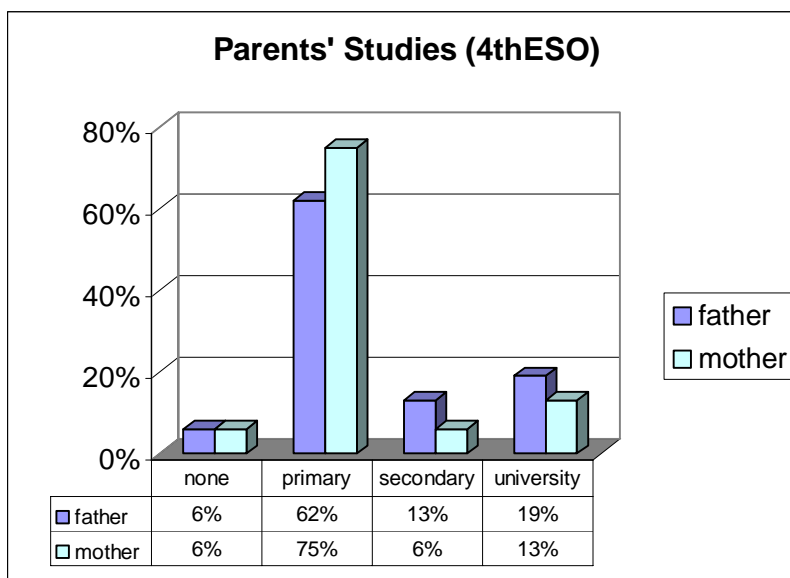
As we can observe, most of the parents in the second school have a university degree, whereas in the first school the greatest percentage is in the section of primary studies and only a small number have studied at the university.

With respect to the question of whether they had been to an English speaking country, the results show that only the 6.25% of the students in the first school had been, while the answer was affirmative in 63.63% of the students in the case of the second school. Nevertheless, we found no differences in relation to the motivation about travelling to an English-speaking country, as 86.66% of the

students in class A who have not gone yet, would like to go and 87.5% of the students in class B who have not gone yet, would also like to go.

All this shows the great differences that exist in relation to the socioeconomic background that surrounds both schools.

This is also shown in the physical differences between the two schools. The facilities, size, means and resources of the second school are much better than the ones in the first school.

Now we are going to highlight the differences between the two teachers. Teacher A, or the teacher teaching at the first school, is Spanish and she had been teaching for five years at that school at the time of the recordings. That was her teaching experience as she had only taught in that school. She had always been a secondary teacher with no experience with primary students.

The teacher in the second school, or teacher B, is an American person with a wider teaching experience who has taught at that school for 15 years. She has taught in both primary and secondary levels.

Next, we are going to concentrate on other motivational and affective factors which were also shown in the results of the questionnaire and which we consider important aspects of the learning process.

In relation to the question of what they expect to achieve with their English studies the results were as follows:
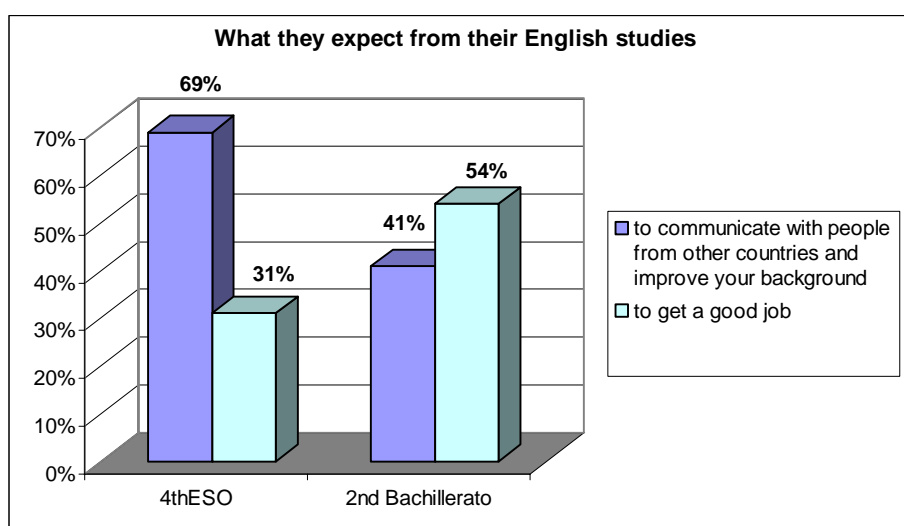
As we can see, the priorities change in the two classes: while the younger students in class A want to use English to communicate with people from other countries and improve their background, the more mature and practical students in class B prefer to use it in order to get a good job, but as we could see in our

discussion on motivation, both kinds of motivation (integrative and instrumental) may be conducive to success.

In reference to their likes and dislikes about the subject the results are quite similar:

How much they like English
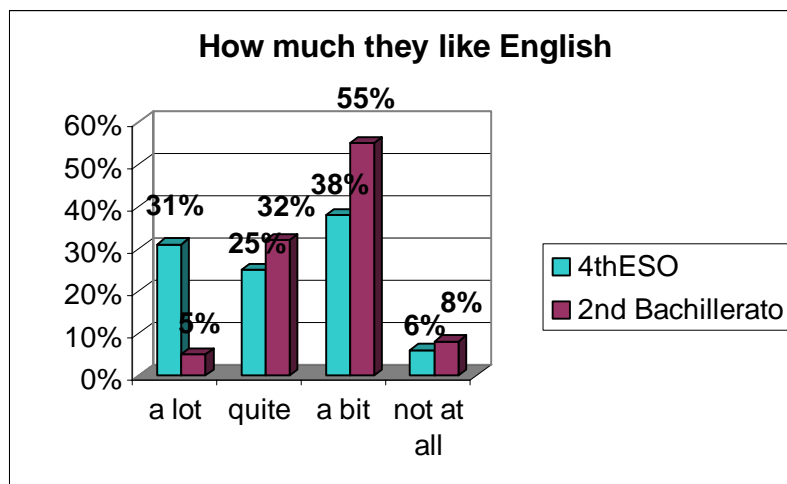
We could say that the greatest difference is that there is a larger number of students in class A who like English a lot. This is quite a relative matter, since many affective, emotional and educational factors can affect the students likes and dislikes.

Looking for the reasons why they like or do not like this subject, we offered them four different reasons:

Reasons why they like English
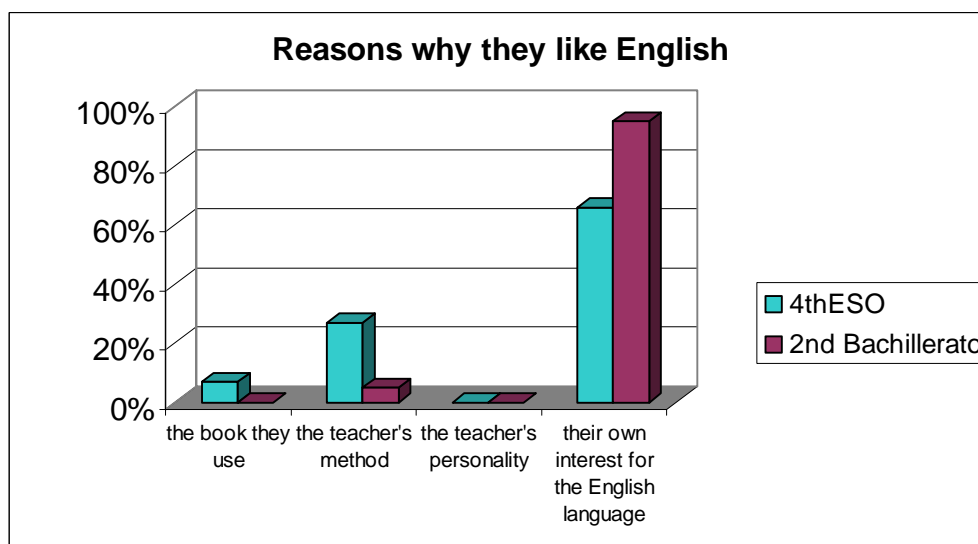
We can observe that the most chosen answer is the students' own interest in the English language, which shows an intrinsic motivation (Noels et al., 2003)

If we take a look at the results concerning the reasons why they do not like English, in the cases were it was so, we will observe the following results:

Reasons why they don't like English
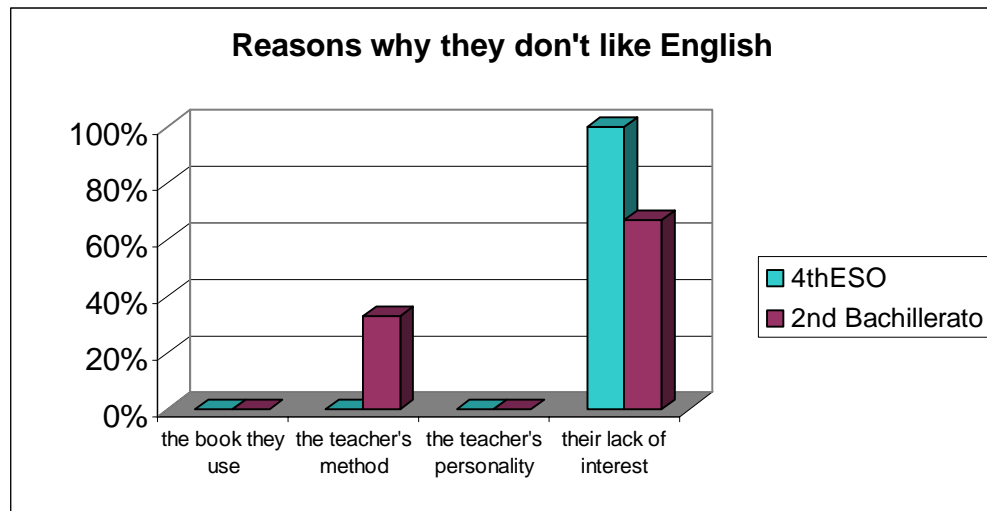
As we can observe, the students think that their own lack of interest is the reason why they do not like English.

Next, we will have a look at the areas where students have problems when studying English:

Areas with more difficulties (4th ESO)

Areas with more difficulties (2nd Bachillerato)

- speaking
- writing
- listening-understanding
- reading
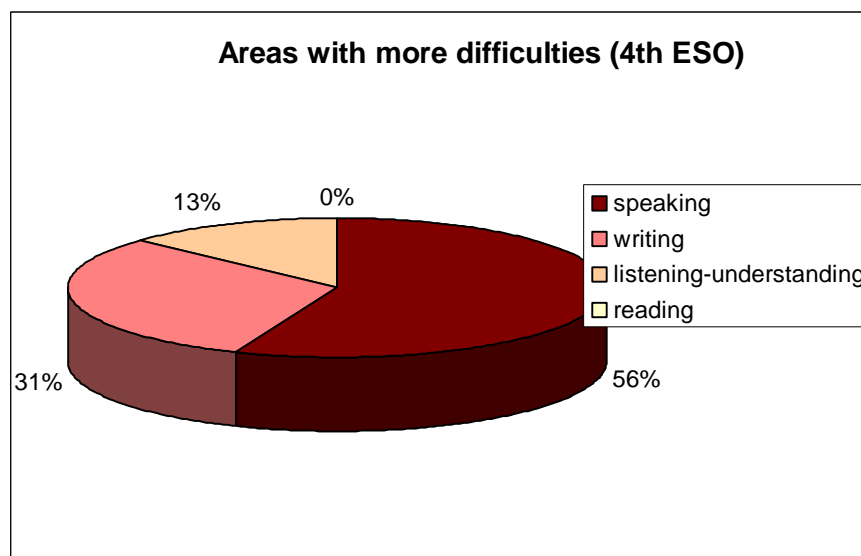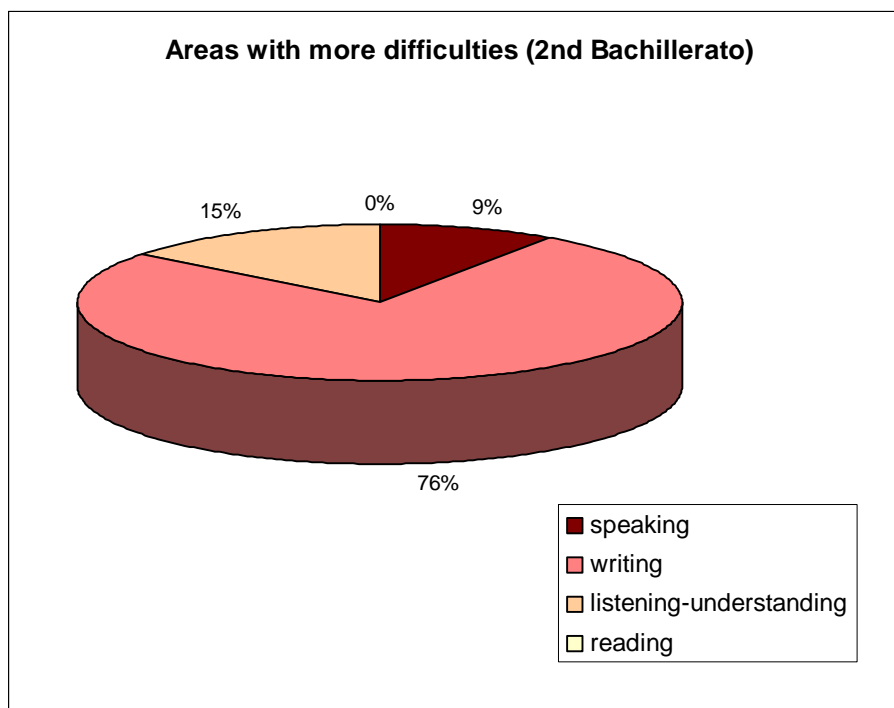
Whereas students of E.S.O. find it more difficult to speak in English, the most problematic area for students in Bachillerato is the writing skill. This could be due to the importance that the curriculum gives to the different areas at the different levels. In the case of the E.S.O., students could feel that the speaking skill is not practiced as much as other skills and they do not feel confident to speak in a foreign language. With respect to the Bachillerato students, the reason could be that they are being prepared for an important exam, selectivo, in which they will have to write a composition in English. Maybe, due to the importance that is given to this specific part of the exam, students feel they have the responsibility to improve this part of their linguistic skills.

They were also asked to say which of the areas were more important for them when learning English:

Most important areas (4th ESO)

- speaking
- writing
- listening-understanding
- reading
- speaking and writing
- speaking and listening
- writing and listening

6% 6% 14% 31% 31% 6% 6%

Most important areas (2nd Bachillerato)

- speaking
- writing
- listening-understanding
- reading
- speaking, writing and listening
- speaking and listening

23% 55% 4% 0% 18% 0%
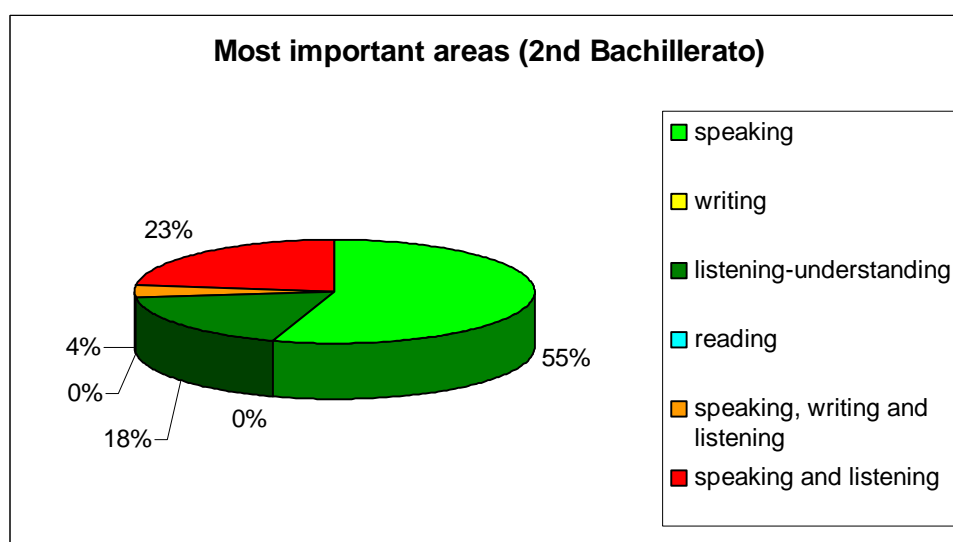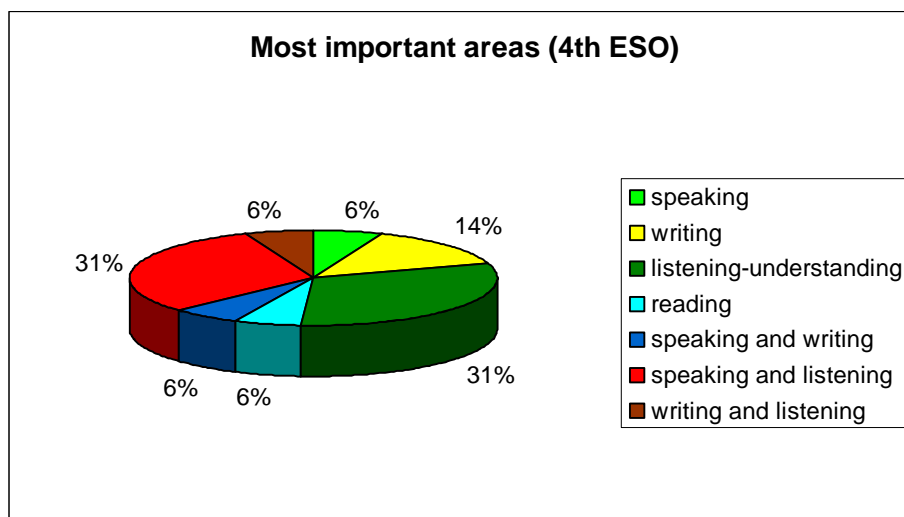
We do find large differences in this aspect, as students of E.S.O. think that the most important areas when learning English are listening-understanding and speaking and listening. On the other hand, students of Bachillerato are of the opinion that the most important area is speaking. However, we must state that in the case of this particular question many different and varied answers were given, showing the variety of opinions that exists in the two groups and among the different students.

We then asked them the way in which they preferred to learn spoken English. This is what they answered:

How they prefer to learn oral English
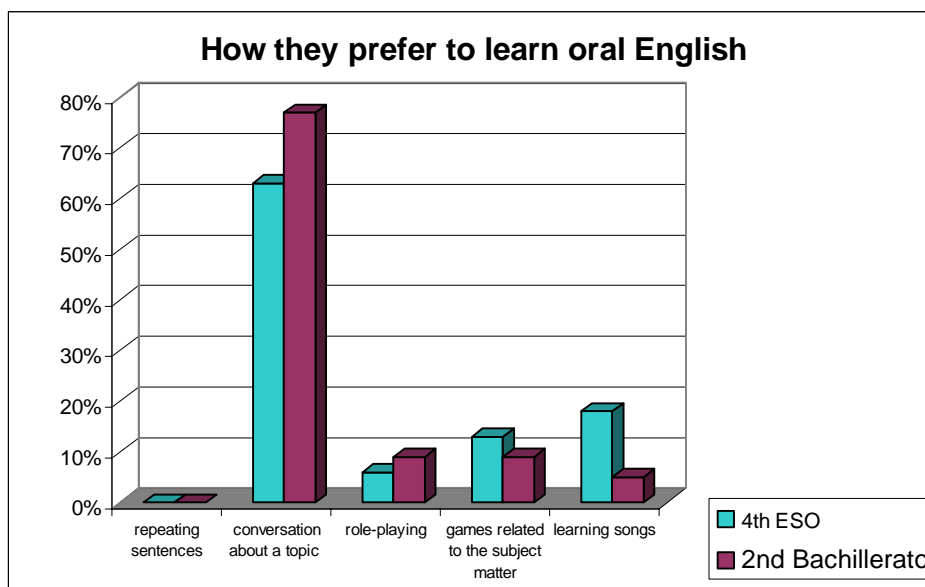
We can state that the results are quite similar in both classes and that the most preferred way is to have conversations about a topic. We can add that the mechanic activity of repeating sentences or words is the least preferred by students.

We also wanted to know which, in their opinion, was the best way of learning English. We gave them three options and here are the results:

The best way of learning English
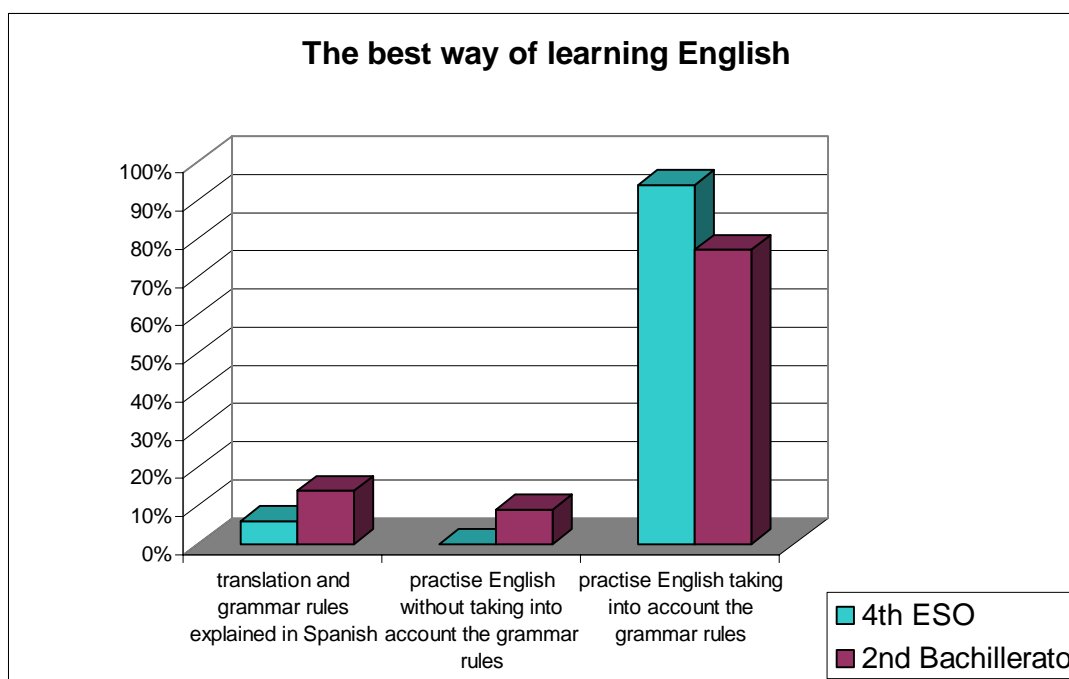
The majority of students in both classes think that to practise English taking into account the grammar rules is the best way of learning English. This may in

part be due to the fact that this is the way in which they have been taught English during their school life, but it also shows their particular opinion about this topic; they want to focus both on meaning and form.

We also asked them about the way in which they liked to work in the English class and the results are as follows:

How they like working in class
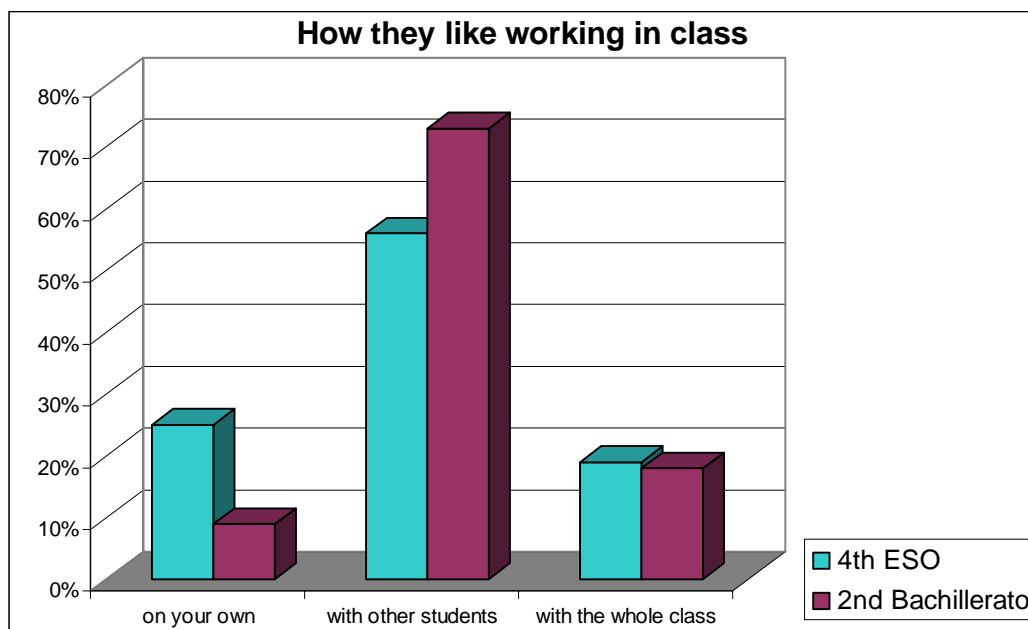
Most of the students in both classes then, prefer to work with other students, in pairs or in groups, showing a communicative learning style (Willing, 1987)

Finally, we are going to focus our analysis of the results of the questionnaire on the most important aspect for this dissertation thesis: correction.

Students were asked if they like being corrected and this was their answer:

If they like being corrected
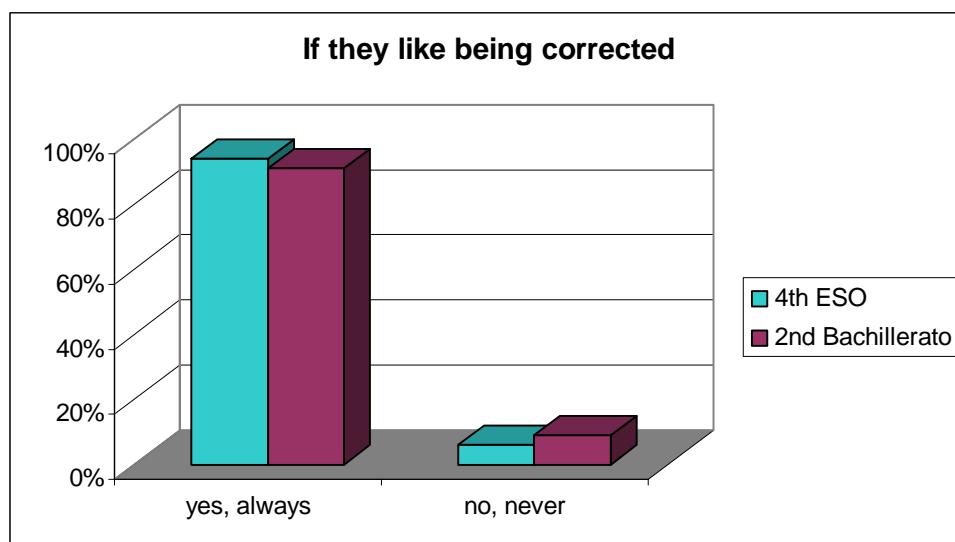
In both classes we can see that most of the students prefer being corrected in all of the occasions.

Another important question was their preference in relation to who was to correct them.

The results show that in both classes, they prefer the teacher in the first place (showing also an authoritive orientated learning style described by Willing, (1987):
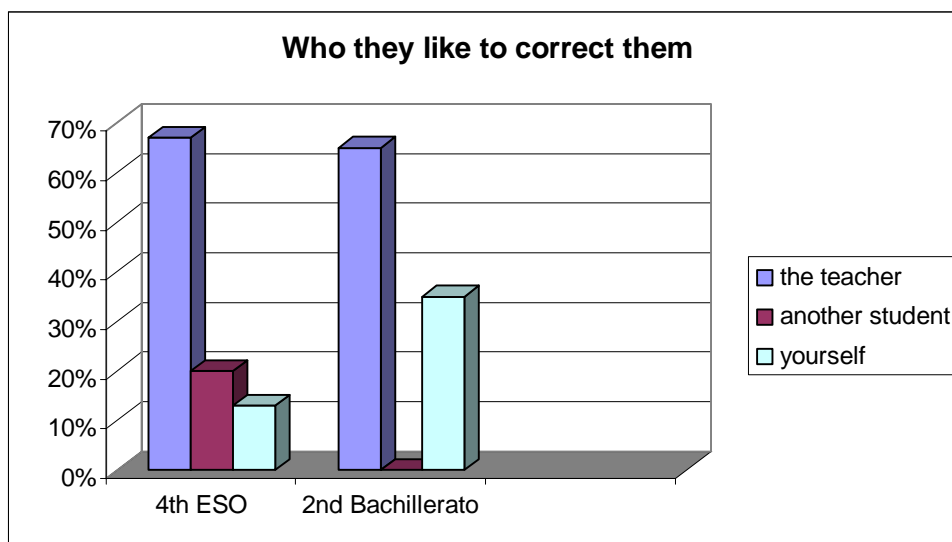
However, the difference is that in the class of E.S.O., the second option is being corrected by another student, whereas in the class of Bachillerato their second choice is to correct themselves.

This could be considered a result of the particular characteristics of the two groups, being the first one a reduced group of students who have been studying together since the age of three and who have the necessary confidence in each other to let other students correct them. In the class of Bachillerato, the situation is different, because the group is larger, the students come in some cases from different backgrounds, which make it less homogeneous, and their age and maturity may lead them to try to act on themselves and not trust their classmates' opinion.

They were also asked about when they liked being corrected. This is what they expressed:
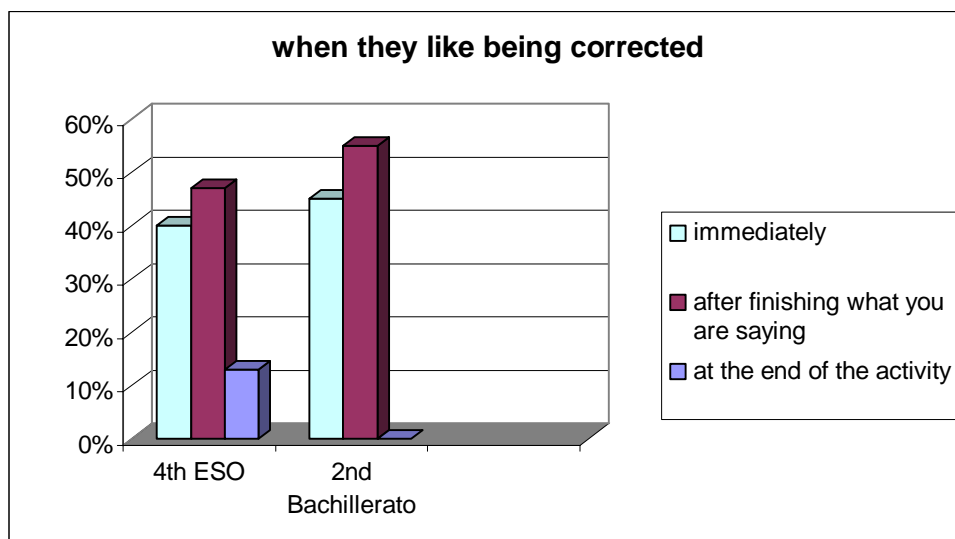
In both classes their first option is after finishing what they are saying, closely followed by immediately after making the mistake. It is remarkable that two such different groups coincide in their answers about this topic.

They then were asked the way in which they like being corrected and they had five different options:

How they like being corrected (2nd Bachillerato)

- ☐ the teacher gives you the correct form
- ■ the teacher signals that you have done something wrong
- ■ the teacher says that you have made a grammar, vocabulary or pronunciation mistake for you to correct
- ☐ the teacher explains why you have made a mistake and corrects you
- ■ the teacher asks another student to correct you
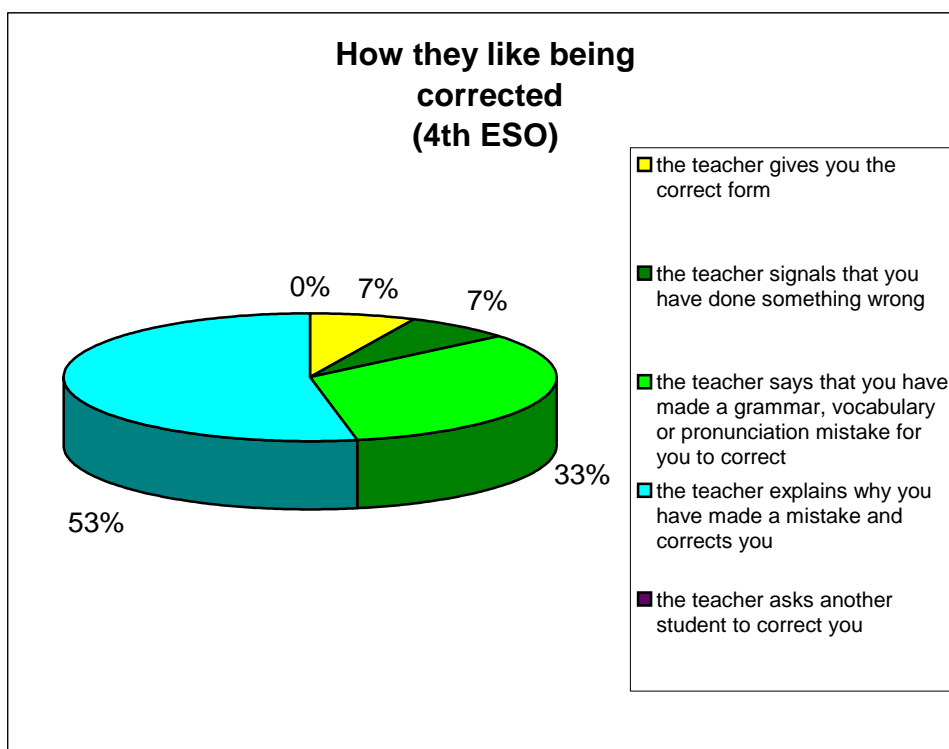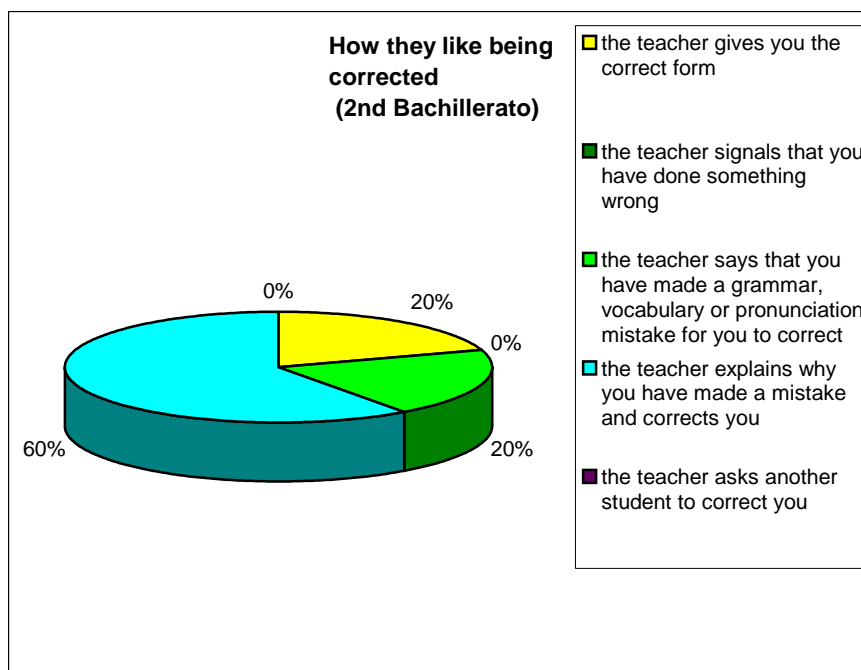
In both classes the preferred way of correction is that the teacher explains why they have made a mistake and corrects them. In the case of class B, the other two options were chosen by the same number of students: the teacher gives them the correct form and the teacher says that they have made a grammar, vocabulary or pronunciation mistake for them to correct. In class A, the second option was that the teacher says that they have made a grammar, vocabulary or pronunciation mistake for them to correct; the third and fourth answers were that the teacher gives them the correct form and that the teacher signals that they have done something wrong, an answer that was not given at all by students in class B.

An important question which was also interesting for our work was if students liked that their teacher confirmed them if they had given the correct answer:
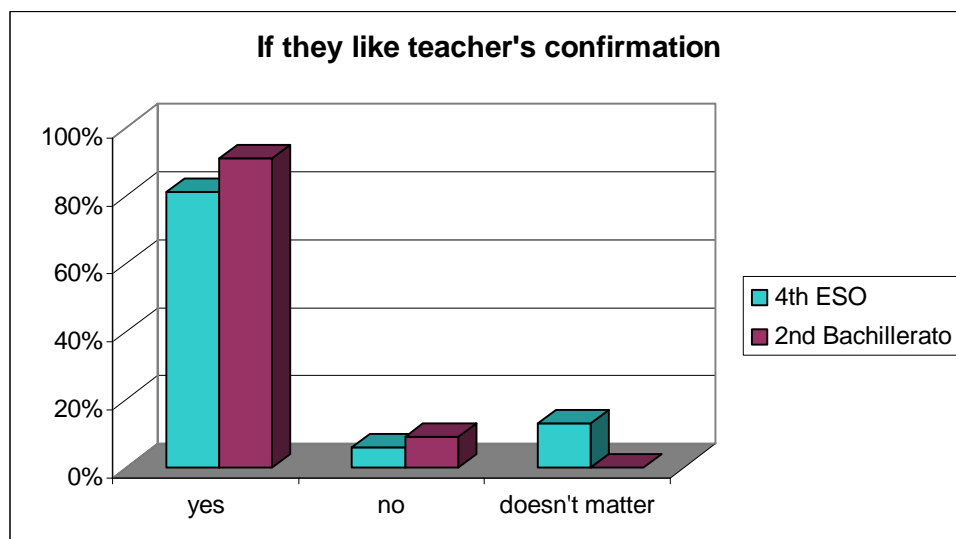
In both classes a great majority of students prefer being confirmed by the teacher. In the case of class A, two of the students answered that they did not care about teacher's confirmation. Only one student in class A and two students in class B prefer not to be confirmed by the teacher.

With respect to the way in which they liked having the teacher's confirmation, the results show the following:

How they like teacher's confirmation (2nd Bach.)

Legend:
- with a head signal
- saying ok
- saying good
- saying very good
- saying right
- saying all right
- saying ok or very good
- saying good or very good
- saying very good or all right
- saying very good or right
- saying right or all right

5% · 15% · 5% · 20% · 10% · 20% · 10% · 0% · 10% · 0% · 5%
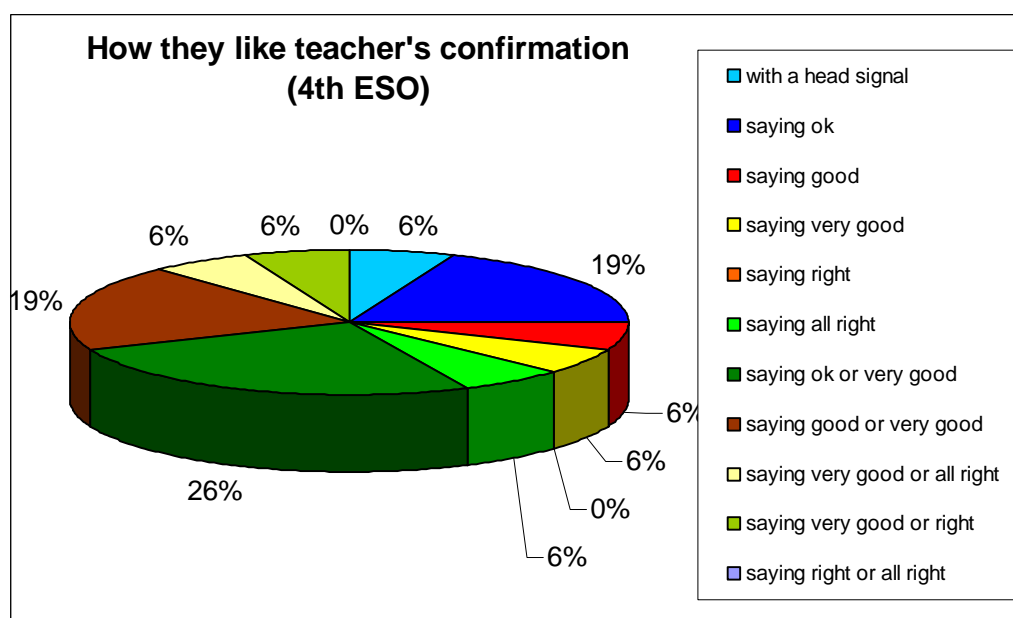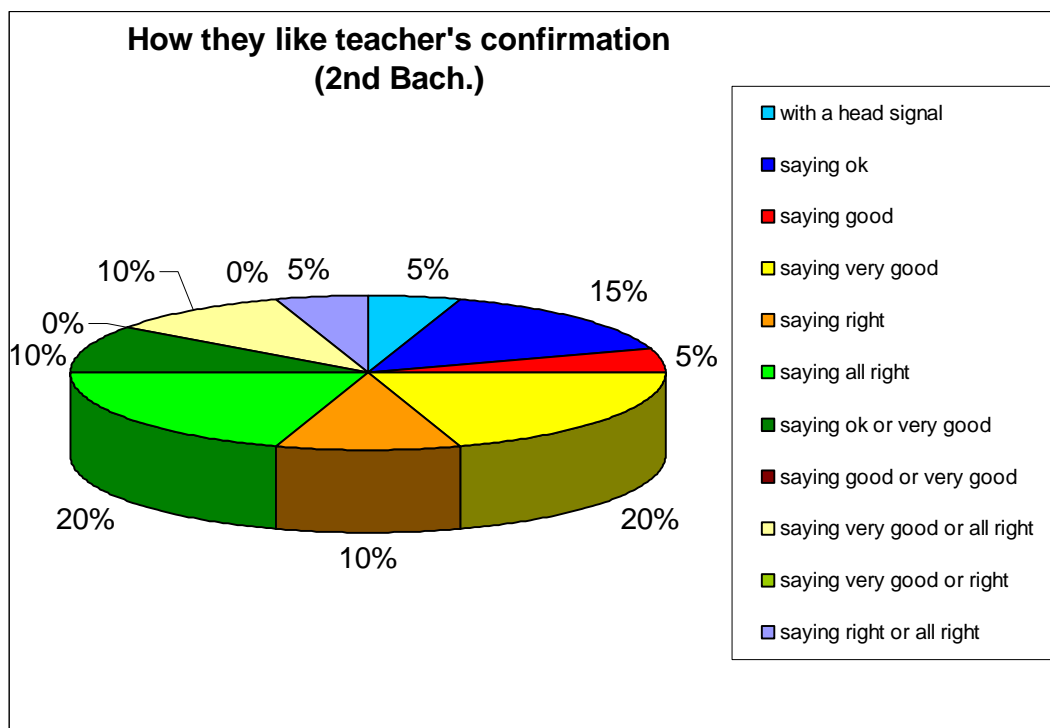
We can state from the results that the students' preferences are quite varied. But it is clear that they like the teacher to say something to them, instead of just making a head signal showing correctness. They prefer to hear the words from her telling them that their answer was correct or that their participation was appropriate.

6.2.2. Method of analysis

This part of the research project will illustrate the basic principles that lie on the different perspectives to the study of conversation and in particular classroom discourse.

It will outline the typical analytical procedures followed in these perspectives and will serve as a context for the particular methodology used in the present project. (This has previously been discussed in a more detailed way in 3.2).

Seedhouse (2004a) explains the relationship between ethnomethodology and Conversation Analysis (CA). This author states that the principal originator of CA was Harvey Sacks. He claims that his innovation appears to be the result of the

convergence of three factors: his acquaintance with Harold Garfinkel, the key figure in ethnomethodology; Sacks's decision to investigate the organization of social interaction by analyzing naturally occurring mundane talk; and the new technology of audio recording, which enabled this analysis to take place.

Seedhouse (2004a) claims that the idea with which Sacks was working was that there is order at all points in interaction, that is, that talk in interaction is systematically organized and deeply ordered and methodic.

This author also claims that there is a fundamental difference between the CA mentality and the linguistic mentality in relation to the status of language: CA's primary interest is in the social act, whereas a linguist's primary interest is normally in language.

He then states that the basic relationship between ethnomethodology and CA is that the first subsumes the second. He explains that ethnomethodology studies the principles on which people base their social actions, whereas CA focuses on the principles which people use to interact with each other by means of language. He claims that ethnomethodology should be used as the basis of the study of human interaction even when it is not a linguistic discipline and gives some reasons. He argues that ethno methods can be seen as the interpretative procedures used by social actors in situ and that Garfinkel's work can be seen as a reaction to the previously dominant top-down Parsonian sociology which assumed the superiority of the sociologist's knowledge over that of members of society. It could be understood as a rejection of an etic or external analyst's perspective on human behaviour in favour of an emic or participant's perspective.

Seedhouse (2004a) names then the five fundamental and interlocked principles which underlie ethnomethodology and CA: indexicality, documentary method of interpretation, reciprocality of perspectives, normative accountability, and reflexivity.

The next point this author deals with is the one related to the aims of CA. He explains that CA is the result of applying ethnomethodological principles to naturally occurring talk and that talk in interaction has become the accepted superordinate term to refer to the object of CA research (Drew & Heritage, 1992). He adds that according to Psathas (1995), CA studies the organization and order of social action in interaction. Seedhouse (2004a) explains that this organization and order is produced by the interactants in situ and oriented to by them and that

the analyst's task is to develop an emic perspective, to uncover and describe this organization and order, so that the main interest is in uncovering the underlying machinery which enables interactants to achieve this organization and order. He summarizes the main aim of CA by saying that it is to characterize the organization of the interaction by abstracting from exemplars of specimens of interaction and to uncover the emic logic underlying the organization. The author adds that another principal aim is to trace the development of intersubjectivity in an action sequence, meaning that analysts trace how participants analyze and interpret each other's actions and develop a share understanding of the progress of the interaction.

Seedhouse (2004a) describes next the principles of CA, which are the following:

- there is order at all points in interaction
- contributions to interaction are context-shaped and context-renewing
- no order of detail can be dismissed a priori as disorderly, accidental, or irrelevant
- analysis is bottom-up and data driven.

Zuengler and Mori (2002) offer a discussion of several microanalytic frameworks for classroom discourse, namely ethnography of communication, conversation analysis, and systemic functional linguistics. They offer three exemplar articles in which these methodological frameworks have been used.

The first article by Duff (2002) describes the ethnography of communication as a viable, context- and culture-sensitive method for conducting research on classroom discourse.

She argues that whereas language socialization provides a helpful theoretical perspective of the construction, negotiation, and transformation of knowledge, identity, and difference in and through educational discourse, the ethnography of communication (EC) provides a set of methods for conducting the research.

Duff (2002) refers to EC as a composite of approaches which shares some features with other applied linguistic research:

1)   it attempts to identify 'what a second language learner must know in order to communicate appropriately in various contexts in that language, and what the sanctions may be for various communicative shortcomings' (Saville-Troike,1989, p.9);

2)   a focus on oral communication and social interaction in learning and socialization (Gass, 1997; Hall, 1993; Johnson, 1995);

3)   an analysis of speech events, activities, or tasks as crucial sites for learning, speaking and performing;

4)   a concern with contexts or ecologies of language learning, socialization and use (Duff, 1995; Duranti and Goodwin, 1992; Lantolf, 2000).

Duff (2002) explains the dichotomy of ethnographic analysis in terms of macro versus micro and etic versus emic analysis. She argues that obtaining a macroscopic perspective in EC requires studying the social, cultural, and historical contexts for communicative events, uncovering attitudes and patterns of communication, and understanding such macro-functions as the establishment or reinforcement of group identity (Saville-Troike, 1989). She adds that macro-ethnographic studies of school settings examine the discourse contexts and ideological worlds in which members of a culture or group operate and that full-length EC studies usually combine macro- and micro-analysis, noting the larger socio-educational and socio-political contexts and issues surrounding language education and use and academic achievement.

She claims that micro-ethnography or ethnographic microanalysis of interaction consists of a fine-tuned analysis of just one part of the whole situation even in the absence of extensive fieldwork or macro-analysis.

Duff (2002) explains that combining our outsider (or etic) and others' insider (or emic) accounts can allow us to identify the structural discursive attributes of certain classroom practices and also their ideological and practical significance for teachers and students.

She finally argues that bringing together macro- and micro-analysis and etic and emic perspectives can be very challenging logistically, in terms of data collection, analysis, and reporting.

The second author, Mori (2002), uses the methodological framework of Conversation Analysis (CA) as a central tool. This author explains that CA is a branch of ethnomethodology established and developed by Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson which has examined the fundamental organization of talk-in-interaction and which is exhibited by participants' conduct in a wide range of social interaction. He adds that CA studies have explained how a turn and a sequence at talk are developed in a moment-by-moment fashion and what kind of resources are used as the participants locally manage turn construction and allocation.

Mori (2002) claims that the CA approach to the analysis of institutional discourse distinguishes itself from other traditions of qualitative research in the treatment of context and the consideration of external factors, as CA researchers start with the micro-analysis of the ways in which the participants organize their interaction and accomplish various social actions. The author adds that the particular ways in which the participants make each of their contributions are considered to reflect their treatment of the local configuration of the talk developed so far, as well as of the larger environment or institutional contexts surrounding the talk, that is, the participants' visible and describable conduct at each moment of interaction is considered to reveal which features of the participants or of the setting become relevant at that moment for the participants themselves.

Mori (2002) then explains that the application of CA to the classroom dates back to the 1970s when McHoul (1978) examined the structures of classroom discourse with reference to the model of turn-taking operation in mundane talk proposed by Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson (1974). He argues that since then, various studies have investigated the aspects of interaction that are specific to the classroom and reflective of the role of teachers and students (Baker, 1992; Heap, 1985, 1990; Lerner, 1995, Macbeth, 1990, 1991; McHoul, 1978, 1990; Mehan, 1979). He also highlights recent studies which have provided a close look at language classroom interaction applying the CA techniques (Koshik, 1999; Markee, 1994, 1995, 2000; Ohta, 1999, 2000a, 2000b, 2001).

The third framework described here is systemic functional grammar and it is followed by Young and Nguyen (2002). They follow the methods used by Halliday and Martin (1993) because they assure that the method Halliday and Martin provide is more empirically based than other systemic functional analyses and because their analysis was developed to deal with science texts (which is the main objective of their work).

They explain that their analysis focuses on three ways in which meaning is communicated through the two texts they analyze:

> (1)   the means by which physical and mental reality is constructed in the texts

> (2)   the degree of abstractness or concreteness of the texts

> (3)   the rhetorical structure of scientific reasoning that the texts demonstrate.

These three characteristics relate to the ideational metafunction, lexical packaging through technicality and grammatical metaphor, and the textual metafunction.

In relation to ideational metafunction, they argue that Halliday and Martin (1993) recognize three complementary ways in which texts construct the world: texts typically represent the material process of the physical and biological world, they are also attempts to influence the social and cognitive world through verbal and mental processes, and texts represent the world through the relational processes of self-reference.

In reference to lexical packaging through technicality and grammatical metaphor, the authors state that Halliday and Martin (1993) discuss several ways in which meaning is condensed in scientific discourse: by the use of technical terms, by means of grammatical metaphors such as nominalization, etc.

Finally, in relation to textual metafunction, Young and Nguyen (2002) claim that according to Halliday and Martin (1993) setting out the rhetorical structure of reasoning in scientific explanations is the third way of characterizing science texts. They assert that this can be done at two levels: a macro-level, which shows the topical organization of the text as a whole, and a micro-level, which sets out the conjunctive relations between adjacent clauses in the text.

Chaudron (1988) offers a classification and description of classroom research methods. He explains that there are four distinguishable traditions: psychometric, interaction analysis, discourse analysis and ethnographic.

He claims that the psychometric tradition was applied in early evaluations of L2 instruction, which followed standard educational psychometric procedures, with comparison treatment groups and measurement of outcomes on proficiency tests. These types of studies were followed by process-product studies in this tradition, which investigated the quantitative relationships between various classroom activities or behaviours and language achievement.

Interaction analysis, according to him, developed under the influence of sociological investigations of group processes which led to the development of systems for the observation and analysis of classroom interaction in terms of social meanings and an inferred classroom climate. An interest in the nature of the dependency of student behaviours on the atmosphere and interaction engendered by the teacher was inherent in this approach. He adds that researchers in this tradition have not pursued quantitative analysis, though measurement of the frequency of specific behaviours implied a quantitative focus. He also argues that it has an influence in the third tradition in the way it views interaction as a chain of teacher and student behaviours, each one classifiable into one or another category.

Chaudron (1988) then accounts for the discourse analysis tradition and claims that it arose from a linguistic perspective, as an attempt to analyze fully the discourse of classroom interaction in structural-functional linguistic terms. Early work by Bellack et al. (1966) analyzed classroom interaction as a sequence of moves, each with its own rules for form and context of use. This approach was adopted by Fanselow (1977a, b) for L2 classrooms, whose analytical system does not only include a dimension for pedagogical function, but also dimensions for content, speaker, and others. Chaudron (1988) argues that although this approach has the potential of being applied in a quantitative fashion, its development has largely been confined to different researchers' redefining the appropriate categories used to describe discourse.

This author claims that the fourth tradition, the ethnographic one, arose from sociological and anthropological traditions. It attempts to interpret behaviours from the perspective of the participants' different understandings rather than from

the observer's or analyst's supposedly objective analysis. He argues that it is an almost strictly qualitative tradition.

Seliger and Shohamy (1989) offer a paradigm for second language research. They claim that there are four parameters for second language research:

1) synthetic and analytic approaches

2) heuristic and deductive objectives

3) control and manipulation of the research context

4) data and data collection.

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) explain the dichotomy qualitative versus quantitative methodologies summarized in the following table:

Qualitative Paradigm

- Advocates the use of qualitative methods.
- Phenomelogism and verstehen: 'concerned with understanding human behaviour from the actor's own frame of reference'.
- Naturalistic and uncontrolled observation.
- Subjective.
- Close to the data; the 'insider' perspective.
- Grounded, discovery-oriented, exploratory, expansionist, descriptive, and inductive.
- Process-oriented.
- Valid; 'real', 'rich', and 'deep' data.
- Ungeneralizable; single case studies.
- Holistic.
- Assumes a dynamic reality.

Quantitative Paradigm

- Advocates the use of quantitative methods

- Logical-positivism: 'seeks the facts or causes of social phenomena with little regard for the subjective states of individuals'

- Obtrusive and controlled measurement.

- Objective.

- Removed from the data; 'outsider' perspective.

- Ungrounded, verification-oriented, confirmatory, reductionist, inferential and hypothetico-deductive.

- Outcome-oriented.

- Reliable; 'hard' and replicable data.

- Generalizable; multiple case studies.

- Particularistic.

- Assumes a stable reality.

Nunan (1989), after reviewing and reinterpreting Chaudron's (1988) four categories, adheres to the basic distinction between psychometric and interpretive research. He states that Grotjahn (1987) pointed out that the quantitative / qualitative distinction can refer to three different aspects of research. These are the design (whether the researcher has set up a classical experimental design with pre- and post-tests, and control and experimental groups); the form of data collected (whether qualitative or quantitative) and the type of analysis (whether interpretive or statistical). Nunan (1989) claims that mixing and matching these variables gives us eight research paradigms as follows:

Pure Forms

Paradigm 1: exploratory-interpretative

      (a)   non-experimental design

      (b)   qualitative data

      (c)   interpretative analysis

Paradigm 2: analytical-nomological

      (a)   experimental or quasi-experimental design

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(b)   quantitative data

(c)   statistical analysis

Mixed Forms

Paradigm 3: experimental-qualitative-interpretative

    (a)   experimental or quasi-experimental design

    (b)   qualitative data

    (c)   interpretative analysis

Paradigm 4: experimental-qualitative-statistical

    (a)   experimental or quasi-experimental design

    (b)   qualitative data

    (c)   statistical análisis

Paradigm 5: exploratory-qualitative-statistical

    (a)   non-experimental design

    (b)   qualitative data

    (c)   statistical analysis

Paradigm 6: exploratory-quantitative-statistical

    (a)   non-experimental design

    (b)   quantitative data

    (c)   statistical analysis

Paradigm 7: exploratory-quantitative-interpretative

    (a)   non-experimental design

    (b)   quantitative data

    (c)   interpretative analysis

Paradigm 8: experimental-quantitative-interpretative

    (a)   experimental or quasi-experimental design

    (b)   quantitative data

    (c)   interpretative analysis

Once we have broadly described the different classifications which different authors offer in reference to the frameworks for analysis of classroom interaction, we will turn to Seedhouse (2004a). We are going to analyse in more detail his view of the CA perspective and state why we consider his perspective as adequate for our own research project.

He refers to the first stage of CA as unmotivated looking or being open to discovering patterns or phenomena, rather than searching the data with preconceptions or hypotheses. He explains that once a candidate phenomenon has been identified, the next phase is normally an inductive search through a database to establish a collection of instances of the phenomenon. The next step is to establish regularities and patterns in relation to occurrences of the phenomenon and to show that these regularities are methodically produced and oriented to by the participants as normative organizations of action. The following step is detailed analysis of single instances of the phenomenon in order to explicate the emic logic or rational organization of the pattern uncovered. Finally, we must produce a more generalized account of how the phenomenon relates to the broader matrix of interaction.

Seedhouse (2004a) explains that what CA practitioners identify as a phenomenon is primarily an example of social action and that they are not interested in it as a linguistic object as such. The phenomenon may be a superficially linguistic item or a syntactical construction, but there may also be social actions identifiable by sequential placement.

He offers an account of procedures for a single-case analysis focusing on a single data extract (after recording, transcription, and unmotivated looking have taken place):

1. Locate an action sequence or sequences.

2. Characterize the actions in the sequence(s). They can be as short as an adjacency pair or last for hours. We are looking for a first speaker to initiate an action which is responded to in some way by a second speaker. This ends when the speakers move to perform a different action.

3. Examine the action sequence(s) in terms of the organization of turn taking, focusing especially on any disturbances in the working of the system.

4. Examine the action sequence(s) in terms of sequence organization paying attention to adjacency pairs and preference organization.

5. Examine the action sequence(s) in terms of the organization of repair.

6.   Examine how the speakers package their actions in terms of the actual linguistic forms which they select from the alternatives available and consider the significance of these.

7.   Uncover any roles, identities or relationships which emerge in the details of the interaction.

8.   Having completed a preliminary analysis which portrays the interactional organization and the participants' orientations, attempt to locate this particular sequence within a bigger picture. We must look for a rational specification of the sequence which can uncover its emic logic and the machinery which produced it and which places it in a wider matrix of interaction.

Seedhouse (2004a) claims that CA has a dynamic, complex, highly empirical perspective on context. Its basic aim is to establish an emic perspective to determine which elements of context are relevant to the interactants at any point in the interaction. He states that a basic assumption of CA is that contributions to interaction are context-shaped and context-renewing and he also argues that CA sees the underlying machinery which generates interaction as being both context-free and context-sensitive. The structural organizations can be seen as context-free resources in that their organization can be specified as a series of norms in isolation from any instance of interaction. However, the application of these organizations is context-sensitive in that interactants use the organization of turn taking, for example, to display their understanding of communication.

Seedhouse (2004a) differentiates between Ethnomethodological Conversation Analysis and Linguistic Conversation Analysis. He argues that Cameron (2001) demonstrates how wide the gulf has now become between linguistic CA and ethnomethodological CA. He claims that the typical features of introductions to linguistic CA are as follows:

• No representative examples of actual CA are provided.

• There is no mention of any of the ethnomethodological principles which are fundamentals of CA methodology.

• The reader is likely to form the impression that interactional organizations are the methodology of CA and are a system of units and rules to be applied etically in the same way as in descriptivist linguistics approach.

• There is no indication that participants employ these context-free interactional organizations in a normative, context-sensitive way to display their social actions.

• Hence the reflexive connection between social action and language is entirely absent.

This author considers that linguistic CA is basically CA minus the methodology; a kind of coding scheme. He sees them as two alternative versions of CA which are separated, defined, and named differently.

Seedhouse (2004b) reviews several approaches which have been employed over the last 30 years to analyze L2 classroom interaction. His review is critical in some respects, as it prepares the ground for a CA perspective on institutional discourse. He discusses the Discourse Analysis approach, he then considers the perspective of the communicative approach on interaction in the language classroom, and he finally shows the strong recent interest in developing dynamic and variable approaches to classroom interaction.

In relation to DA, he argues that any current attempt at analysis of L2 classroom interaction is built on the foundations of what has been achieved through this approach. He also states that DA is actually used in practice as one integral component of CA and that integration would enable DA to function in a broader socio-linguistic context and create a link to the pedagogical level. He makes explicit the limitations of the DA approach when it is used in isolation and argues for it to be integrated into a CA approach. He highlights that the outstanding study of classroom interaction which takes this DA approach is Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and that their most significant finding is their identification of the three-part sequence typical of classroom interaction: the IRF (in the British school) or IRE (in the American school) cycle.

Seedhouse (2004b) asserts that a DA analysis of an extract of classroom interaction would miss an important point: the IRF/IRE cycle performs different interactional and pedagogical work according to the context in which it is operating. He claims that the DA approach is inherently acontextual and is unable to portray the different contexts and the different focuses of the interaction. He

adds that DA cannot portray the flow of an interaction because it is essentially a static approach which portrays interaction as consisting of fixed and unidimensional coordinates on a conceptual map. In contrast to the DA type of analysis, the CA method, according to him, is able to capture the dynamic, fluid, complex interplay and dialectic between the different levels on which the L2 classroom operates and thus portray the complexity of the teacher's interactional work. He asserts that if DA is used as an isolated system, it has an important number of problems and limitations. However, the basis of DA (form-function mapping) forms an integral part of CA and this integration of DA into CA would work out. He concludes that a CA institutional-discourse approach to L2 classroom interaction is founded on and compatible with many of the studies of L2 classrooms undertaken in a DA paradigm. However, the CA approach is able to take the exploration much further and create more connections with social and institutional context. According to him, CA is able to portray the reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction, while DA is not.

Seedhouse (2004b) reviews the communicative approach as an example of a pedagogical approach to L2 classroom interaction. He argues that the communicative approach has adopted a monolithic, static and invariant perspective on L2 classroom interaction. He asserts that it is not based on any communication or sociolinguistic theory, but rather on a single, invariant pedagogical concept. He does not intend to criticize the value of the communicative approach to language teaching as such, but rather its perspective on classroom interaction and the analyses produced. He claims that although no fundamental objections can be raised in relation to the communicative approach to language teaching, the criticism relates to its perspective on and analyses of classroom interaction. He justifies the need for a contextual and variable CA approach to L2 classroom interaction which is able to portray the reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction. To do so, he finds it necessary to prove first the problems inherent in approaches which are based solely on pedagogical concepts.

With respect to dynamic and variable approaches to classroom interaction, Seedhouse (2004b) explains that a number of researchers in L1 and L2 classrooms have been developing this type of approaches to classroom interaction which recognize different varieties of classroom interaction. He claims that a dynamic

and variable approach to context is typical of contemporary sociolinguistics and of the ethnography of communication. He reviews the way in which five writers have recently proposed that L2 classroom interaction is best understood as divisible into several distinct varieties (Van Lier, 1982, 1988; Ellis, 1984; Tsui, 1987a; Abdesslem, 1993; and Hasan, 1988). They all share the view that different varieties of communication do occur in the L2 classroom. However, they have produced five different descriptive systems. Seedhouse (2004a) thinks that it would be convenient to use to term L2 classroom context to denote the different subvarieties or types of interaction which these authors describe. He argues that using the term context would enable the research to be connected with the body of sociolinguistic work on context which exists and including L2 classroom in the term would narrow the scope and indicate that we are dealing with an institutional discourse variety.

He then reports that CA may create links with ethnography: a mainstream social science research methodology. He explains that both approaches are qualitative and holistic and attempt to develop an emic perspective, although by different means. He thinks that the two approaches may be applied to the same instances of talk and their relationship should be complementary and sequential. He claims that first the details of the interaction should be analyzed; then, interactants reveal through the details of their talk whether they are orienting to particular cultural or social issues and they actively evoke and create a social world and culture in through their talk. Finally, it may become relevant to invoke social or cultural details which are extraneous to the interaction.

He states that when trying to link talk and culture, the problem is that there is an indefinite number of external factors which could be potentially relevant to any given instance of talk in interaction. We need to show which of these innumerable, potentially relevant characteristics are actually procedurally relevant to the participants at the moment. CA suggests that the only feasible way to do this is to start in the details of the interaction, rather than in the external details of the culture. CA, according to him, can provide a secure warrant for the introduction of relevant ethnographic information and thus a link between the micro and macro levels. He explains that the same basic procedures could apply to an approach to the L2 classroom which combined CA with ethnography.

Seedhouse (2004b), then proposes a perspective which has never been explicitly stated and has no methodological basis: the pedagogical landing-ground perspective. It consists of the view that intended pedagogical aims and ideas translate directly into actual classroom practice as if the L2 classroom had no intervening level of interactional organization.

Finally, he states that he adopts an institutional –discourse perspective on L2 classroom interaction. Heritage (1997) proposes six basic places to probe the institutionality of interaction:

1.   Turn-taking organization.

2.   Overall structural organization of the interaction.

3.   Sequence organization.

4.   Turn design.

5.   Lexical choice.

6.   Epistemological and other forms of asymmetry.

Heritage (1997) also proposes four different types of asymmetries in institutional discourse:

1.   Asymmetries of participation.

2.   Asymmetries of interactional and institutional know-how.

3.   Epistemological caution and asymmetries of knowledge.

4.   Rights of access to knowledge, particularly professional knowledge.

Seedhouse (2004b) asserts that the most important analytical consideration is that institutional discourse displays goal orientation and rational organization. CA institutional-discourse methodology attempts to relate not only the overall organization of the interaction, but also individual interactional devices to the core institutional goal. That is to say, CA attempts to understand the organization of the interaction as being rationally derived from the core institutional goal.

He claims that in the case of institutional discourse, the fundamentals of CA in relation to ordinary conversation are in effect reorganized in relation to the institutional goal. The methodology for analysis is transformed onto the next-turn proof procedure in relation to the institutional goal.

He concludes that from a CA institutional-discourse perspective, all varieties of institutional discourse (sociolinguistic, communication theory, education theory, etc) have many common features, a unique and distinctive

institutional goal and a peculiar organization of the interaction suited to that goal. Certainly the L2 classroom has its unique goal: that language is both the vehicle and object of instruction. Its entire architecture is constructed around this goal.

Seedhouse (2004c) reports that their analytical task is to explicate how L2 classroom interactants analyze each other's turns and make responsive moves in relation to the pedagogical focus. He explains that the participants display in their turns their analyses of the evolving relationship between pedagogy and interaction, that is, how the pedagogical focus relates to the turns produced in L2.

His methodology could be summed up in this way: the analyst follows exactly the same procedure as the participants and traces the evolving relationship between pedagogy and interaction, using as evidence the analysis of this relationship which the participants display to each other in their own turns.

Therefore, the methodology used by Seedhouse (2004c) for the analysis of L2 classroom interaction is the next-turn proof procedure in relation to the pedagogical focus.

According to him, the classroom teacher compares the linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which the learner produces with the pedagogical focus which he or she originally introduced and performs an analysis and evaluation on that basis. The analyst can do exactly the same thing, comparing the teacher's intended pedagogical focus with the linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which the learner produces, and then analyzing the interaction on the basis of the match or mismatch.

We need to specify what the pedagogical focus is in order for this type of analysis to be achieved. This can be done using three types of evidence:

Type 1. In many lessons, there is a text-internal statement by the teacher of the intended pedagogical focus.

Type 2. There are now amounts of data which provide a detailed description of lesson aims and other text-external or ethnographic evidence of intended pedagogical focus.

Type 3. The evidence which is evident in the details of the interaction.

We could then sum up that this type of methodology involves a turn-by-turn, holistic, emic analysis of the sequential environment.

6.3. Analysis

6.3.1. Unit of analysis.

It is known that the analysis of spoken language requires a principled way of dividing transcribed data into units in order to assess features such as accuracy and complexity. It is not an easy task to decide which is the adequate unit of analysis to be used and applied reliably to assist with the analysis of our lessons recordings.

Foster et al. (2000) explain that a unit for the segmentation of oral data is an essential tool. They add that in deciding on the most appropriate unit for segmenting oral speech samples, we must be governed by the methodological criteria of reliability and validity. If the unit cannot be reliably identified, the measurements made will be misleading. Crookes (1990) claimed that if the unit has little or not relationship to the psycholinguistic planning process, the measurements made will have little or no value, that is to say, what we need to know is what the performer can achieve in a single chunk of micro-planning activity, and how particular types of plan may affect the complexity, accuracy, and fluency of the language that is produced.

Foster et al. (2000) surveyed four leading journals in the applied linguistic and second language field: *Applied Linguistics, Language Learning, Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* and *TESOL Quarterly.* They offer a categorization of kinds of definitions grouped into three types:

1.   Mainly semantic units:

a. proposition: 'a semantic unit consisting of at least one major argument and one or more predications about this argument' (Sato, 1988, p.175)

b. c-unit (semantic focus): 'utterances, for example, words, phrases and sentences, grammatical and ungrammatical, which provide referential or pragmatic meaning' (Pica et al., 1989, p.72)

c. idea unit (semantic focus): 'a chunk of information which is viewed by the speaker/writer cohesively as it is

given a surface form…related …to psychological reality for the encoder' (Kroll, 1997, p.85)

2.   Mainly intonational units:

a. tone   unit/phonemic   clause: 'a   distinctive configuration of pitches, with a clear centre, or nucleus … The nucleus is the syllable (or, in some cases, series of syllables) which carries the greatest prominence within the tone- unit' (Crystal and Davy, 1975, p.16)

b. idea unit (intonation focus): 'The 'tone-unit' of Crystal … is essentially the same … Most idea units end with an intonation contour that might appropriately be called clause-final: usually either a rise in pitch … or a fall … A second factor is pausing. Idea units are typically separated by at least a brief pause' (Chafe, 1980, p.13-14)

c. Utterance: 'a stream of speech with at least one of the following characteristics: 1. under one intonational contour; 2. bounded by pauses; 3. constituting a single semantic unit' (Crookes and Rulon, 1985, cited in Crookes, 1990, p.187)

d. Clause and s-node: 'either a simple independent finite clause, or a dependent finite or non-finite clause' (Foster and Skehan, 1996, p.310); 'S-nodes are indicated by tensed or untensed verbs' (Ellis et al., 1994, p.483)

3.   Mainly syntactic units:

a.   sentence: the sentence is problematic for spoken data and it is ignored in Foster et al.'s paper.

b.   idea unit (structurally defined): Kroll's definition is summarized as follows: an idea unit is a clause with its pre- and post-V clause elements. Also counted as IU's are non-finite subordinate clauses, and finite relative clauses where the relative pronoun is present (Kroll, 1977, p.90)

c.   t-unit: they found t-unit to be the most popular unit for the analysis of both written and spoken data. Hunt (1965, 1966,

1970) defines it as essentially a main clause plus any other clauses which are dependent upon it. Here are Hunt's four versions:

      - 'one main clause with all subordinate clauses attached to it' (Hunt, 1965, p.735)

      - 'one main clause plus whatever subordinate clauses happen to be attached to or embedded within it' (Hunt, 1979, p.189)

      - 'the shortest units into which a piece of discourse can be cut without leaving any sentence fragments as residue' (Hunt, 1979, p.189)

      - 'a main clause plus all subordinate clauses and non-clausal structures attached to or embedded in it' (Hunt, 1970, p.4)

      d.   c-unit: 'grammatical independent predication(s) or answers to questions which lack only the repetition of the question elements to satisfy the criterion of independent predication … 'Yes' can be admitted as a whole unit of communication when it is an answer to a question such as 'Have you ever been sick?' (Loban, 1966, p.5-6).

Due to the controversy that surrounds this specific field of Classroom Research, we find essential to establish the terms related to corrective feedback in the way that we understood them when analysing the database.

Following Chaudron (1986), we shall remark that the conception of correction employed in this project is that a corrective reaction is any reaction by the teacher that transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of, student's behaviour or utterance.

Errors were analysed following two criteria (also based on Chaudron):

      1.   an objective evaluation of linguistic or content errors according to linguistic norms or evident misconstrual of facts.

      2.   Any additional linguistic or other behaviour that the teachers reacted to negatively or with an indication that improvement of the response was expected.

We will apply an ethnomethodological analysis to the study of feedback.

6.3.2. Explanation of types of errors and types of correction

The terminology used to describe the type of errors and the type of correction is partly adapted from Panova and Lyster (2002), Lyster and Ranta (1997), and partly we have established our own terms.

Types of errors

Errors are classified into the following categories:

1. phonological
2. lexical
3. grammatical
4. use of L1 unsolicited by the teacher
5. content.

Types of correction

We distinguish nine different types of feedback used by the two teachers in this study, plus two more categories which correspond to correction supplied by the students:

1. recast: an implicit corrective move that reformulates or expands an ill-formed or imcomplete utterance in an unobtrusive way.

Ex: S: Dangerous? (phonological error: /dange'rus/)

T: Yeah, good. Dangerous. (recast) You remember? Safe and dangerous. If you walk in the streets, you…

2. translation: it can be seen as a feedback move when it follows a student's unsolicited use of the L1 or when the teacher uses it to make the student understand their error.

Ex: T: all right, now which place is near the water?

S: No he acabado (L1)

T: You haven't finished? O.k. Bernard, have you finished? (translation)

3. clarification request: to elicit reformulation or repetition from the student with respect to the form of the student's ill-formed utterance.

Ex: S: I want practice today, today (grammatical error)

T: I'm sorry? (clarification request)

4.   metalinguistic feedback: it refers to either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student utterance, without explicitly providing the correct answer.

Ex: S: Nueva Escocia ... (L1)

T: Oh, but that's in Spanish (metalinguistic feedback)

5.   elicitation: it is a corrective technique that prompts the learner to self-correct. This can be done by pausing and letting the student complete the utterance, by asking an open question, or by requesting a reformulation of the ill-formed utterance.

Ex: S: New Escocia.(L1)

T: New Escocia. I like that. I'm sure they'd love that . New ...?

S: New Scotland. (repair)

6.   explicit correction: it involves a clear indication to the student that there is an error in the previous utterance and it also provides the correct form.

Ex: S: the day ... tomorrow (lexical error)

T: yes. No, the day before yesterday. (explicit correction)

7.   repetition: the teacher repeats the ill-formed part of the student's utterance, usually with a change in intonation.

Ex: T: ...Here, when you do a paragraph, you start here, well, let's see, anyway, you write, write, write, remember this is... What is this called?

S: comma (lexical error)

T: comma? (repetition)

S: period. (repair)

8.   asking another student: the teacher asks another student or the whole class to give the correct answer or correct the error.

Ex: T: do you see any problems with "Edinburg"?

S: yes

T: yes?

S: "h"

T: "h" here, just a spelling silly mistake...

9.   negation: the teacher shows rejection of part or all of the student's utterance.

Ex: S: blue, the blue, the blue pages

T: no, the telephone directory

10.   self-correction: it occurs when teacher feedback prompts the student who commited the error to self-correct.

Ex: S: Hace mucho calor. (L1)

T: It's very …? (elicitation)

Same S: hot (self-correction)

11.   peer-correction: it is the same case as self-correction, but this time the correct answer is provided by a different student from the one who initially made the error.

Ex: S: I don't understand wine /win/. (phonological error)

T: I'm sorry …? (clarification request)

Same S: wine /win/. (phonological error)

Different S: wine (peer-correction)

T: wine? Red, white wine (Confirmation)

The last two categories differ from the rest in the fact that they are provided by a student and not the teacher. They usually follow elicitative types of corrective feedback such as repetition, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback and elicitation.

We usually find in our database the case where more than one category of feedback types is used in the same move in answer to a single error. We call them combination of corrections. This is shown in the analysis of the different classes.

We must now define two more categories in the error treatment sequence that occur, in some of the cases, after the mistake has been corrected. They are student acceptance and teacher confirmation:

a.   student acceptance: it is related to the notion of uptake (Austin, 1962, Levinson, 1983, Mey, 1993; Lyster and Ranta, 1997). It refers to a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance. It could be defined as what the student attempts to do with the teacher's feedback. In the cases where there is no student's acceptance, then there is topic continuation, which is initiated by either the same or another student (in both cases, the teacher's intention goes unheeded) or by the teacher (in

which case the teacher has not provided an opportunity for uptake). For the purposes of our study, self-corrections were always considered as instances of student acceptance.

b.   teacher confirmation: it refers to the way in which teachers reinforce the correct form before proceeding to topic continuation by making short statements of approval such as "yes", "good", "o.k.", or by repeating the student's corrected utterance. In our study, we have considered teacher confirmation as a move included in the feedback exchange, but we have also taken into account the confirmation moves occurring out of this exchange.

6.3.3.   Results and discussion

Once the corpus analysed, the results are shown in the tables and graphs below. They are grouped into several types according to different aspects.

The general results of the two groups of lessons: 15 classes for teacher A and 15 classes for teacher B are shown in Appendix C. Results show the number of errors (including how many of them were left uncorrected), the number of corrections, which of them were originated by the teacher and which by the students, the number of accepted corrections, the number of confirmation moves in relation to acceptance and the number of confirmation moves occurring out of the corrective exchange in each lesson. We also offer information about the specific type of error in each case and the type or types of correction used by the teacher to deal with it, as well as the relationship between task type and acceptance of errors.

Once the general results of the classes have been offered, we must explain the specific results that the data analysis has originated.

In reference to types of errors, the analysis of the classes turned into the following results:

Types of Errors: Class A (N=444)

Types of Errors: Class B (N=551)
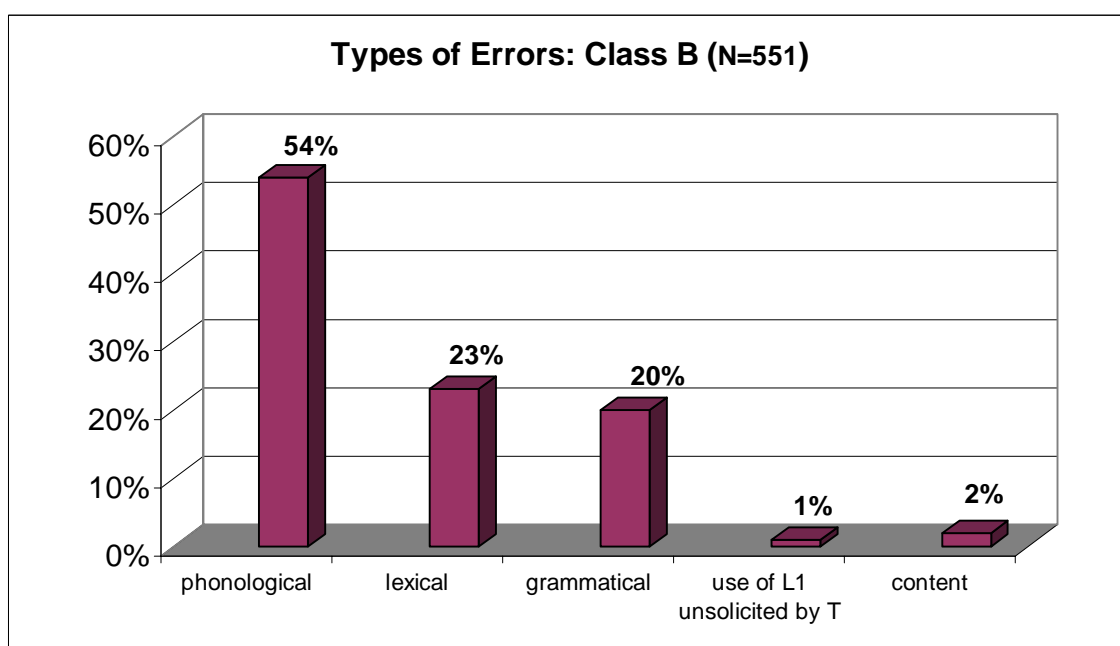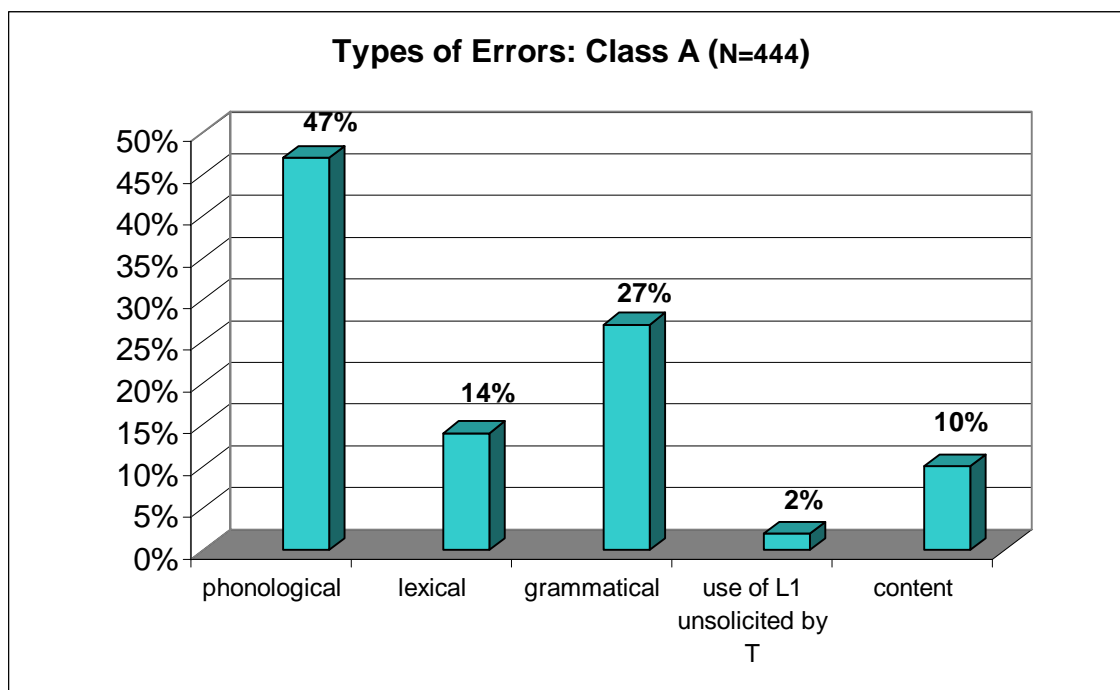
We can find some similarities in both classes with respect to the high number of phonological errors, which are the most commited errors in both of them. Both teachers share a communicative type of teaching, which promotes the occurrence of this type of mistakes, since students are proned to talk in class and make use of their oral competence in the L2.

The biggest difference in relation to types of errors is found in the second most used category of errors, which is lexical for students of Bachillerato and grammatical for students of E.S.O. This can be caused by the fact that students of Bachillerato are preparing for the selectivo exam and thus have quite a lot of practice on vocabulary and expressions and they have less grammatical errors due to their higher level of proficiency, whereas students in class B are in a different stage of their education where the focus on grammar is necessary and need to practice since their level of proficiency is not as high as in the case of the other group of students.

These differences and similarities can be better appreciated in the following graph, which is a combination of the previous ones:

Types of Error
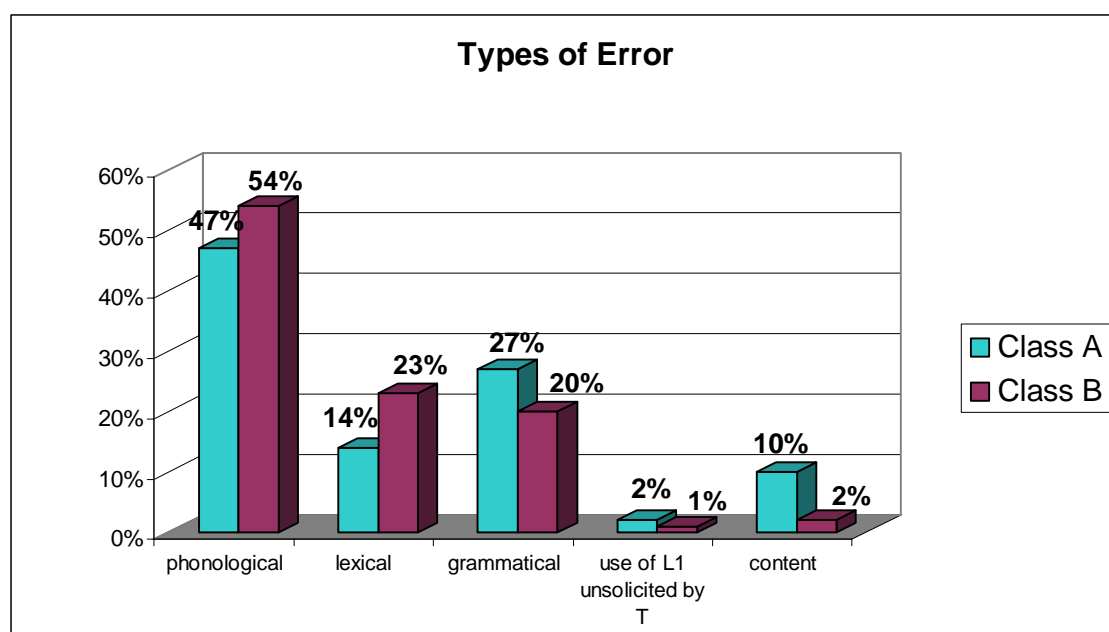
We can here see that content errors are more usual in class A than in class B. We could have thought that the higher proficiency of the students in class B, who feel free to give their opinion about topics, would result into a higher frequency of this type of errors in this class. However, this class, as we have mentioned earlier, is focused on the next "selectivo" exam and the lessons are usually constructed taking this fact into account, which makes them be practice for grammar and vocabulary and not leaving room for any other type of communicative activities in which content errors often take place. Class A, on the other hand, is more open in that sense; they are not worried about an important

type of exam coming and this results into a more relaxed atmosphere, the practice of more communicative activities and the production of content errors.

Next, we are going to show the results concerning the type of correction used by the two teachers.

Types of Correction: Class A (N=572)

Types of Correction: Class B (N=420)
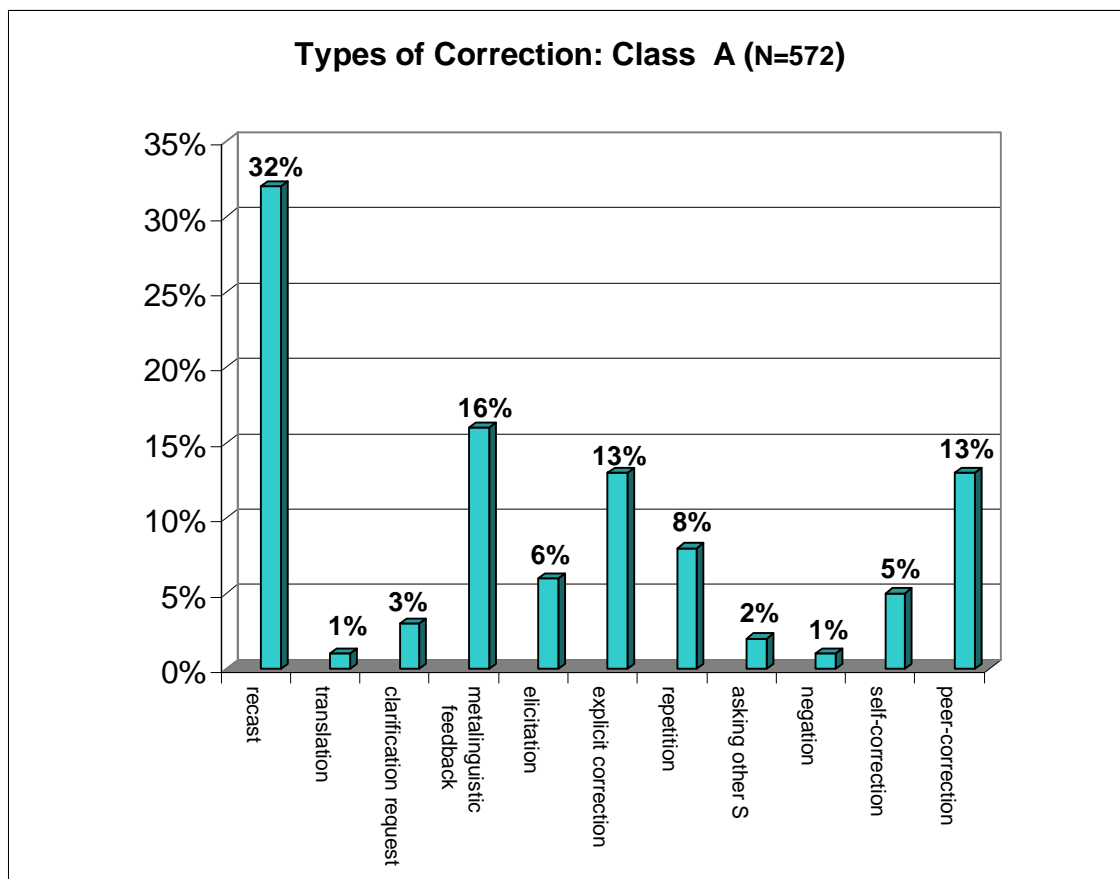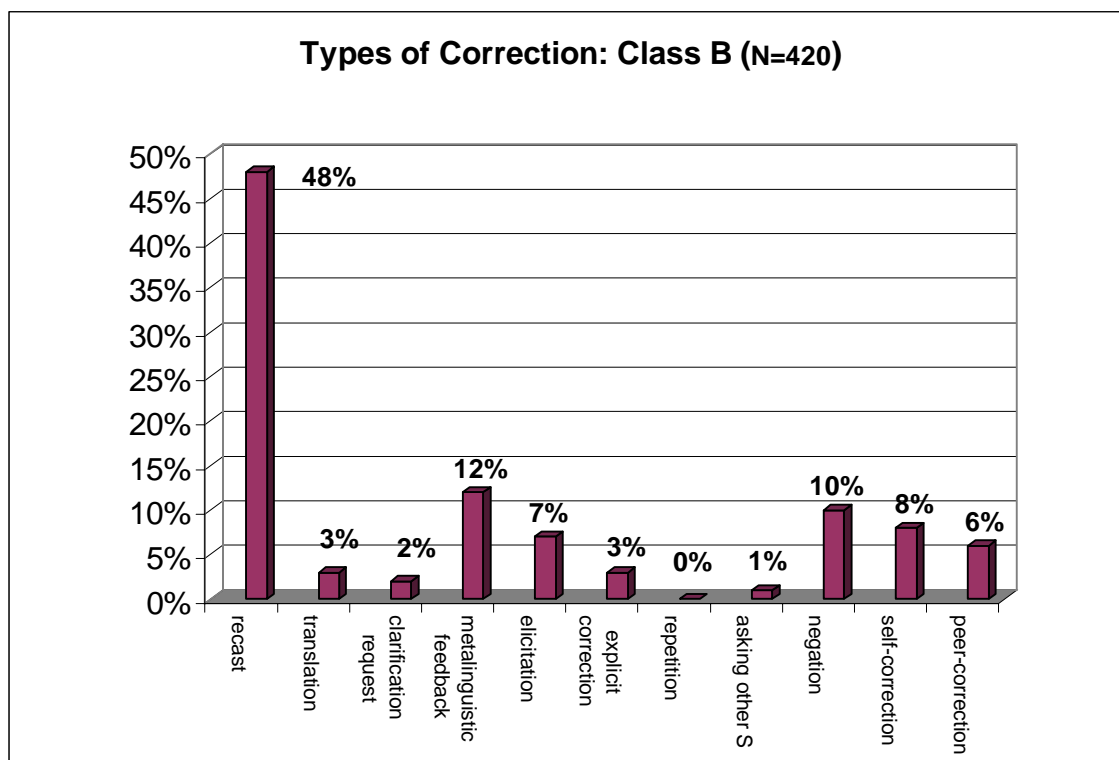
It can be stated that recast is the most used type of corrective technique in both classes, since it is the one mostly used to treat the phonological type of errors, which is the most frequent error category. Some authors have stated the importance of this corrective technique for the learning of a second language. Nicholas, Lightbown and Spada (2001) explain that some researchers, as Long and Robinson (1998) suggest that recasts are effective in showing learners how their current interlanguage differs from the target, and that others, as Lyster (1998b), have argued that recasts are ambiguous and may be perceived by the learner as confirmation of meaning rather than feedback on form. We will later try to shed some light on this question by commenting on the results of our study. We will find out if recasts are important for learners by checking the level of acceptance that recasts have according to different types of errors.

Once again, the graph containing the comparisons of both classes will be more illuminating:

Types of Correction
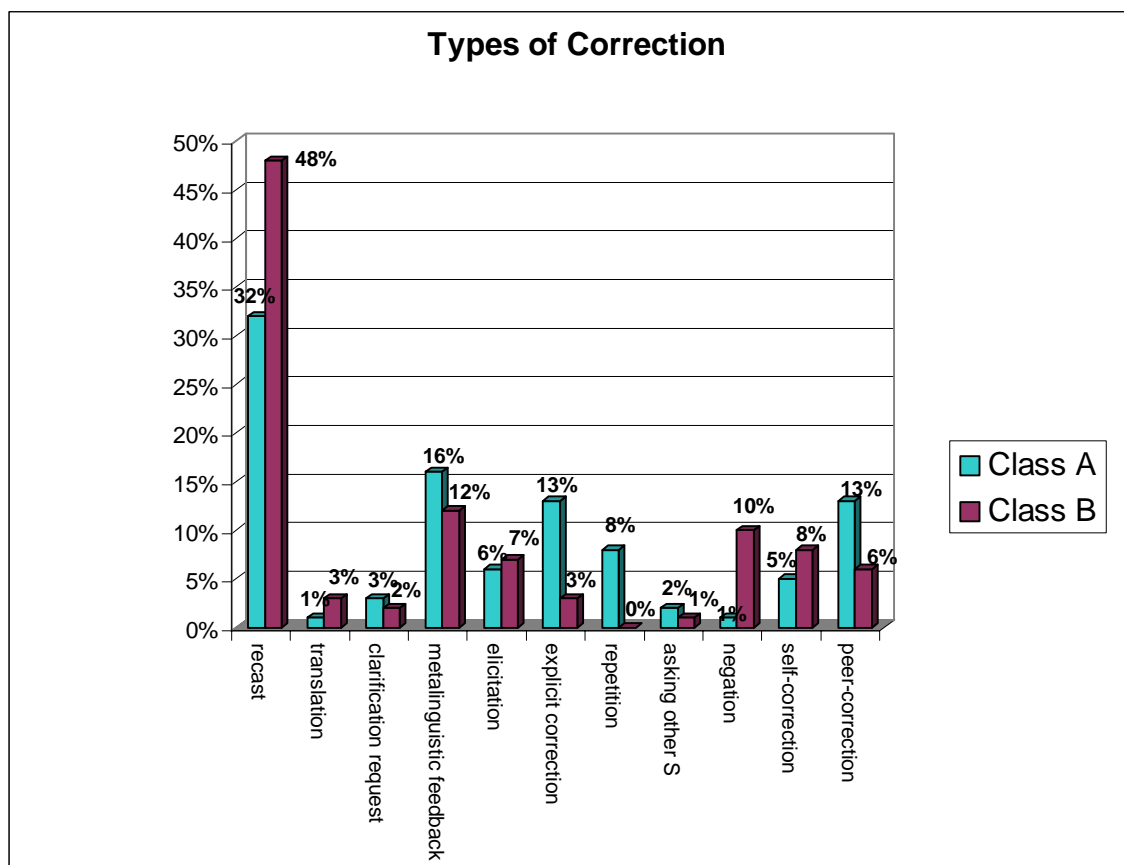
The greatest differences are found in the category of explicit correction, which is used more often by teacher A than by teacher B; probably because this is a type of corrective technique that is used in teacher-controlled classrooms where the teacher is not afraid of showing that he/she is in command of the class and can openly correct his/her students. On the other hand, teacher B probably thinks that other types of 'subtle' corrections are more appropriate for the age and characteristics of her students.

As it is shown in previous studies (Chaudron, 1977; Havranek, 1999; Lyster 1998a, Mackey at al., 2000), we need to look at the different types of correction according to the specific categories of errors in order to have a more accurate vision of the results on types of errors and types of correction, as it is proven that there is a tendency in interlocutors to use different types of feedback following phonological, lexical and morphosyntactic errors.

The following tables illustrate these results:

TABLE 1
Percentage of Correction Following Different Types of Error.

	Teacher A	Teacher B
Phonological	69,9%	28,6%
Lexical	98,4%	89,7%
Grammatical	93,3%	91,4%
Use of L1 unsolicited by the T	100%	100%
Content	97,9%	91%

TABLES 2 AND 3
Different Types of Correction According to Type of Error

	Teacher A			
Phonological	Recast (56,4%)	Combination (7,6%)	Self-Correction (3,3%)	Elicitation (0,9%)
Lexical	Combination (40,9%)	Explicit correction (22,9%)	Metalinguistic feedback (13,1%)	Recast (9,8%)
Grammatical	Combination (41,3%)	Recast (22,31%)	Explicit Correction (13,2%)	Metalinguistic Feedback (9,1%)
Use of L1 unsolicited by the T	Recast (28,5%)	Translation (28,5%)	Combination (28,5%)	Metalinguistic Feedback (14,2%)
Content	Combination (52,1%)	Explicit Correction (21,7%)	Metalinguistic Feedback (15,2%)	Recast (4,3%)

	Teacher B			
Phonological	Recast (22,4%)	Self-Correction (4,6%)	Combination (0,6%)	Elicitation (0,3%)
Lexical	Recast (40,4%)	Combination (29,3%)	Self-correction (6,3%)	Negation (3,9%)
Grammatical	Recast (39,1%)	Combination (26,9%)	Self-correction (10,4%)	Metalinguistic Feedback (5,2%)
Use of L1 unsolicited by the T	Recast (100%)			
Content	Combination (27,2%)	Self-correction (18,1%)	Recast (18,1%)	Elicitation (9%)

Table 1 gives the percentage of repairs per error type. As we can see, the most striking difference between the two teachers is the lower level of correction in relation to phonological errors found in teacher B. All the other categories have quite a high level of correction and although it is true that phonological errors are the category least corrected by teacher A (69,9%), we must state that there is a great difference in numbers when we look at teacher B (28,6%). Students in class B do make phonological errors, as most of the classes are based on oral correction of written activities, therefore students talk and so make errors. However, only a few of these errors are corrected. The explanation may be found in the characteristics of the class taught by teacher B: we have previously stated that the students in this class have to take an important written exam at the end of the school year. Thus, they concentrate on written aspects of the language, leaving aside communicative and pronunciation activities. From the analysis of the data, we can claim that class B is quite focused on grammatical and lexical aspects of the language and there is no time left for other type of activities, which are as important as the ones dealt with in the class, but are not necessary for the important exam that the students have to take. We can state that both teachers tended to provide corrective feedback in all categories with a certain degree of consistency – at rates of 90% and 100% (except for phonological errors). As Chaudron (1988) concluded, certain types of errors are much more likely to be treated than others: discourse, content and lexical errors receive more attention than phonological or grammatical errors; he also stated that many errors are not treated at all; that the more often a particular type of error is made, the less likely the teacher is to treat it; and he finally reported that there is a considerable variation among teachers in reference to the frequency of error treatment. We observe in our data that there is variability in the correction behaviour of the two teachers: Teacher A corrects more, even phonological errors; Teacher B does not correct most of the phonological errors student make.

With respect to different types of corrective techniques according to different types of errors, tables 2 and 3 show that recast and a combination of different types of corrective techniques are the two categories mostly use by the two teachers in general. We thought it could be interesting to find out the level of acceptance that these two categories have on the part of the students, since they

are the most used by the two teachers. We will later show the results on this aspect, once we have commented upon the question of acceptance of teachers' correction. We can conclude that teacher A uses recast mostly to deal with phonological errors and errors produced by the use of L1, and a combination of types of corrective techniques when she needs to explain why they have made a grammatical, lexical or content error. This seems to support Chan and Li's (2002) findings on this respect, as their study shows that the conciousness-raising approach to remedial instruction using explicit, form-focused negative feedback has great potential for helping learners notice morpho-syntactically well-defined errors in their L2 and progressively approximate target language norms. On the other hand, teacher B uses recasts to deal with all error categories except for content errors, where she uses the combination of techniques. We might explain this by hypothesizing that, apart from the different styles of the teachers, the difference must be caused by the higher proficiency of students in class B, which permits the teacher to state the correct answer without giving explanations about why they have made the error. They are given the correct form and, due to their level of English, do not need to hear the explanation. They are independent and mature learners and in the occasions where they do not understand the correction, they do not hesitate to ask the teacher for an explanation. However, students in class A need to be more tightly controlled by their teacher, otherwise they would probably continue the activity without understanding the reason why they have made a mistake and some of them would not dare to ask for an explanation, specially if they have to use the L2. The behaviour of teacher B with respect to error correction seems to be supported by the results obtained by Lyster (1997). He observed that grammatical and phonological errors tended to be corrected with recasts, while lexical errors tended to invite negotiation of form more often than recasts. However, this author recommends negotiation of form in response to grammatical errors, which is what we observed in the corrective behaviour on the part of teacher A.

Next we are going to deal with the question of length in number of moves per feedback exchange in both classes. These results will be shown in the form of a table explaining the different types of exchanges in reference to the number of

moves that they contain and a graph which shows these statistical results for each class.

Results for class A:

TABLE 4

Results on Number of Moves per Feedback Exchange (class A)

Moves x_i	Absolute Frequency n_i	Relative Frequency $f_i=n_i/N$	$n_i x_i$
1	14	0,031	14
2	64	0,144	128
3	65	0,146	195
4	84	0,189	336
5	95	0,214	475
6	38	0,085	228
7	34	0,076	238
8	18	0,040	144
9	17	0,038	153
10	4	0,009	40
11	4	0,009	44
12	0	0	0
13	0	0	0
14	0	0	0
15	1	0,002	15
16	3	0,007	48
17	0	0	0
18	0	0	0
19	3	0,007	57
	$\Sigma n_i = N = 444$	1	$\Sigma n_i\, x_i = 2115$

$$Average = \bar{x} = \frac{\sum n_i \cdot x_i}{\sum n_i} = \frac{2115}{444} = 4,76$$

Number of moves class A
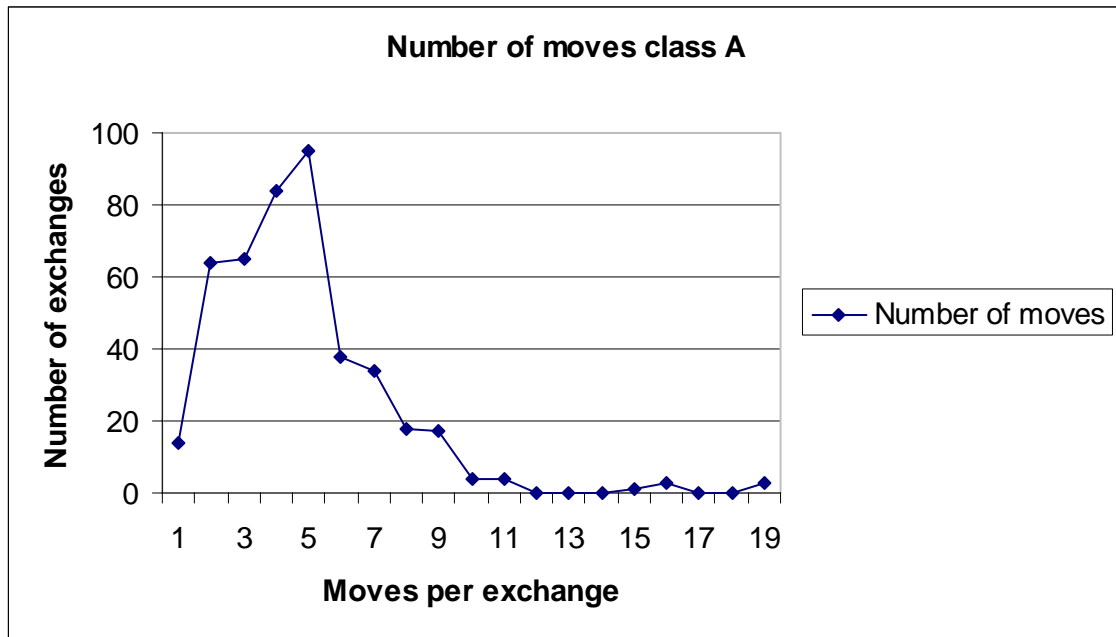
Results for class B:

TABLE 5
Results on Number of Moves per Feedback Exchange (class B)

Moves x_i	Absolute Frequency n_i	Relative Frequency $f_i = n_i/N$	$n_i\ x_i$
1	121	0,219	121
2	170	0,308	340
3	105	0,190	315
4	63	0,114	252
5	52	0,094	260
6	15	0,027	90
7	14	0,025	98
8	1	0,002	8
9	5	0,009	45
10	1	0,002	10
11	1	0,002	11
12	3	0,005	36
	$\Sigma n_i = N = 551$	1	$\Sigma n_i\ x_i = 1586$

$$Average = \bar{x} = \frac{\sum n_i \cdot x_i}{\sum n_i} = \frac{1586}{551} = 2,87$$

Number of moves class B
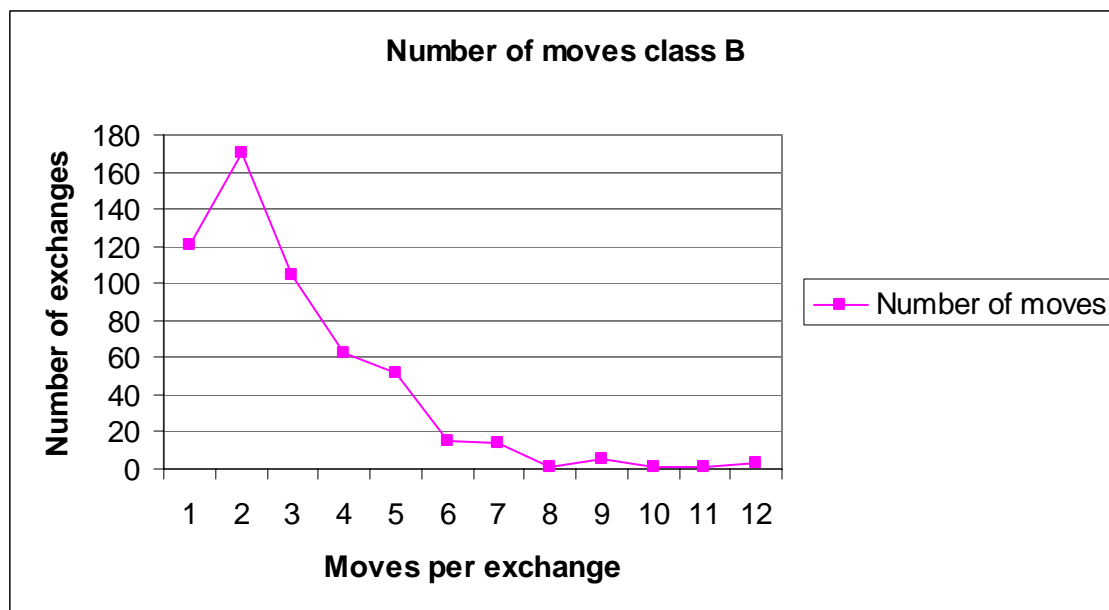
We can state from the results that feedback exchanges are much longer in class A than in class B: We mostly find exchanges of five moves in class A, followed by exchanges consisting of four and three moves, whereas in class B the most found exchange is the one composed of two moves followed by the ones consisting of one and then three moves. Examples are offered here:

Class A:

*T: March (writes on BB) o.k., we celebrate this on the eighth of March. Do you know what we celebrate on this day? Do you know what we celebrate on the International Women's Day? Do you know? Do you know anything about this day?(**Question**)*

*S: that the womans..(**Erroneous Answer**)*

*T: that the women(**Correction**)*

*S: that the women work(**Acceptance**)*

*T: o.k.(**Confirmation**)*

Class B:

*S: she should listen (**Erroneous Answer**)*

*T: she should go to the quiz show, six...(**Correction/Question**)*

While the average number of moves per exchange in class A is 4.76, in class B the average is 2.87.

The reasons for this could be found in the different types of lessons to which the exchanges belong. In class B, they do quite a lot of practice on different lexical and grammatical points. Students know what their role is and many times feel free to start the exchange when correcting activities or at other stages of the lesson. The teacher is not always the one who starts the exchange and students feel confident enough to start participating. Since they are focusing on correcting specific points, they do not talk much, as it is the case in other communicative activities, and exchanges are limited.

On the other hand, students in class B usually wait for the teacher to start the exchange, but once the teacher has initiated it, as they are not as worried as the other students in relation to accuracy, they participate in a communicative way and ask questions and give opinions even when it is another student's turn. This results into longer exchanges.

Now, we will offer a table with the general results concerning the total number of errors, the number of them which were not corrected, the number of them which were or not accepted and the number of confirmation moves both in and out of the feedback exchange.

TABLE 6

General Results on Errors, Acceptance and Confirmation

	Class A	**Class B**
Total Number of Errors	N=444	N=551
Corrections Accepted by Students	188 (42,3%)	182 (33,1%)
Corrections Non Accepted by Students	184 (41,4%)	132 (23,8%)
Uncorrected Errors by Teacher	72 (16,2%)	237 (43,1%)
Teacher Confirmation of Acceptance in Feedback Exchange	138 (37% of the corrected errors)	82 (26% of the corrected errors)
Teacher Confirmation of Acceptance out of Feedback Exchange	505	241

Looking at the results, we can claim that there is a higher percentage of number of mistakes in class B. However, there is also a higher number of uncorrected errors in this class. This means that although students in class B make more mistakes than students in class A, teacher A corrects more her students. There is also a higher rate of acceptance and confirmation in class A, with a

42.3% of the corrected errors accepted by the students and a 37% of corrected errors confirmed by the teacher. This contrasts with the results for teacher B, with a 33.1% of corrected errors accepted by her students and a 26% of corrected errors confirmed by her.

These results and the causes for them become clearer when showed in different graphs:

General Results of Errors (Class A)
N=444

16%

43%

41%

■ Accepted Errors
■ Non-accepted errors
□ Uncorrected errors
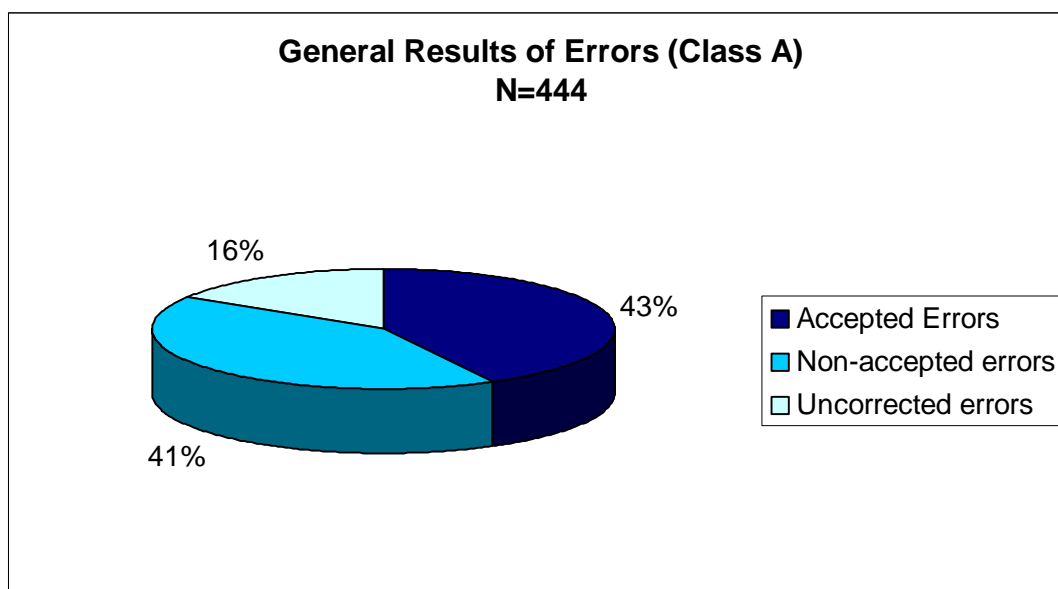
In class A, only 16% of the errors were left uncorrected and the rate of acceptance on the part of students is of 43% of them.

The results are different for class B:

General Results of Errors (Class B)
N=551

33%

43%

24%

□ Accepted Errors
■ Non-accepted errors
□ Uncorrected errors
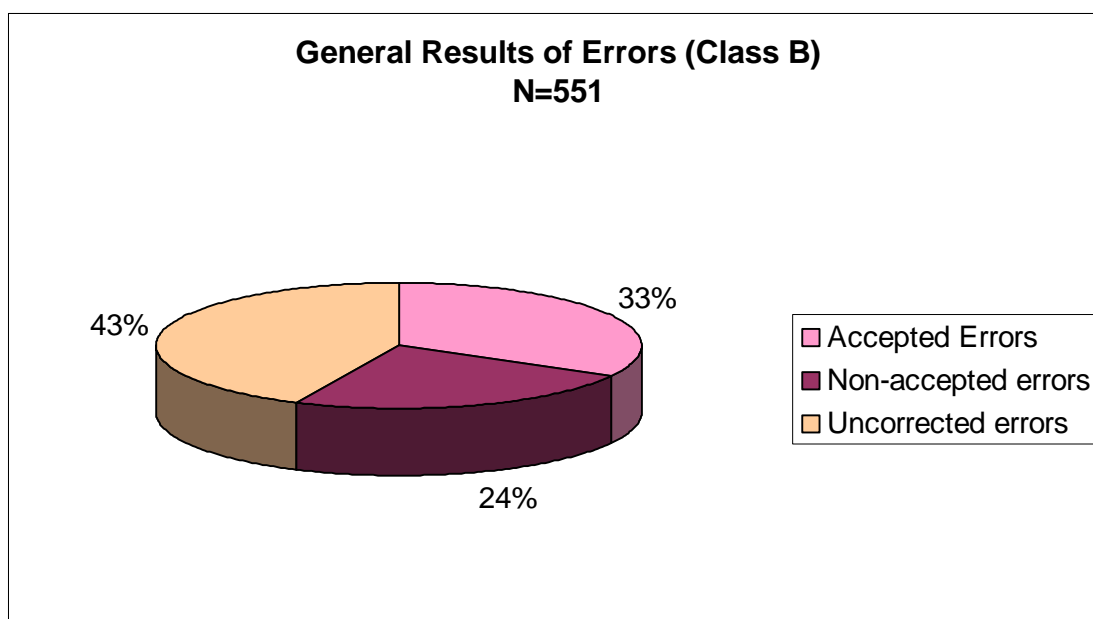
In this class the percentage of uncorrected errors is 43% and the rate of student acceptance is of 33% of the corrected errors. We must state that most of the errors left uncorrected were phonological, while the grammatical and lexical errors had a higher percentage of corrections and this is probably so because the focus in these type of lessons is on accuracy at these levels due to the fact that they are preparing for a written official exam. The teacher prefers to focus on the grammatical and lexical errors and does not worry too much about the phonological ones. However, class A is a more teacher-controlled type of class and thus their teacher corrects more and in a wider way.

Regarding the uncorrected errors in both classes, we can propose Mackey, Gass and McDonough's (2000) statement that, if learners were able to correctly perceive all of the feedback that they received, this would result in a cognitive overload for them; if this is the case, then perceiving a limited amount of feedback at exactly the right developmental time is the optimal condition for the learner.

We have tried to find out the reasons for both acceptance and non-acceptance in both classes.

The following graphs show the results for the type of corrections which resulted into a higher number of acceptance moves:

Types of Corrections Accepted by Students (Class A)

- Recast — 42%
- Explicit correction — 13%
- Self-Correction — 8%
- Metalinguistic Feedback — 6%
- Other types — 31%

Types of Corrections Accepted by Students (Class B)

23%

4%

5%

20%

48%

- Recast
- Self-Correction
- Elicitation
- Negation
- Other types
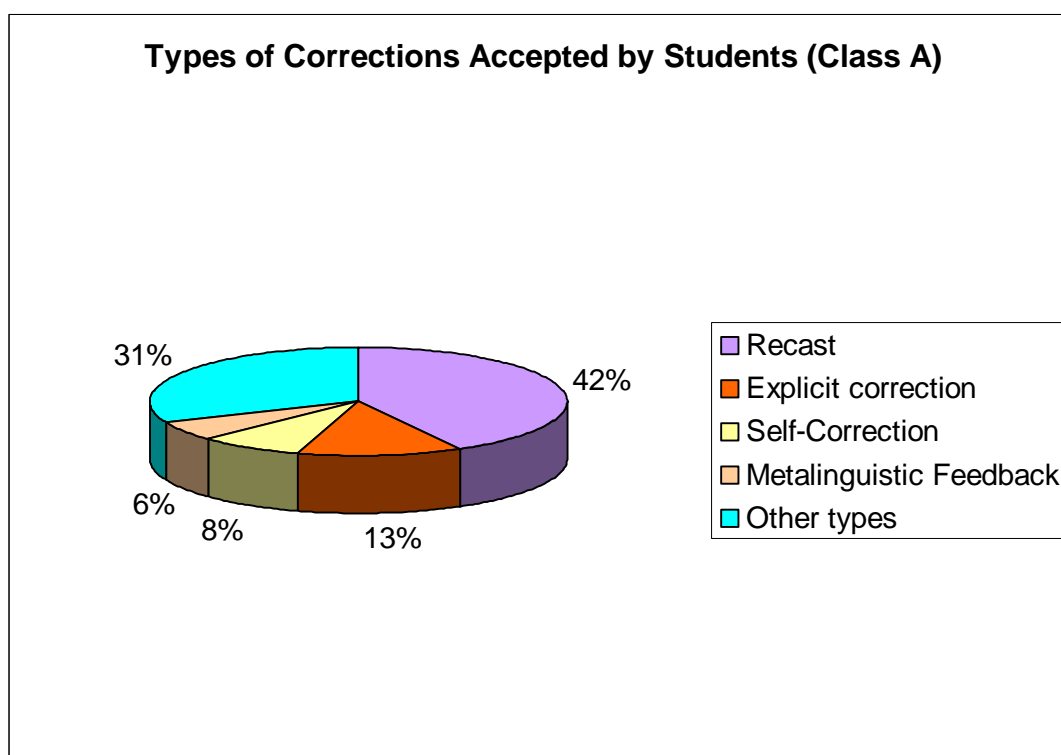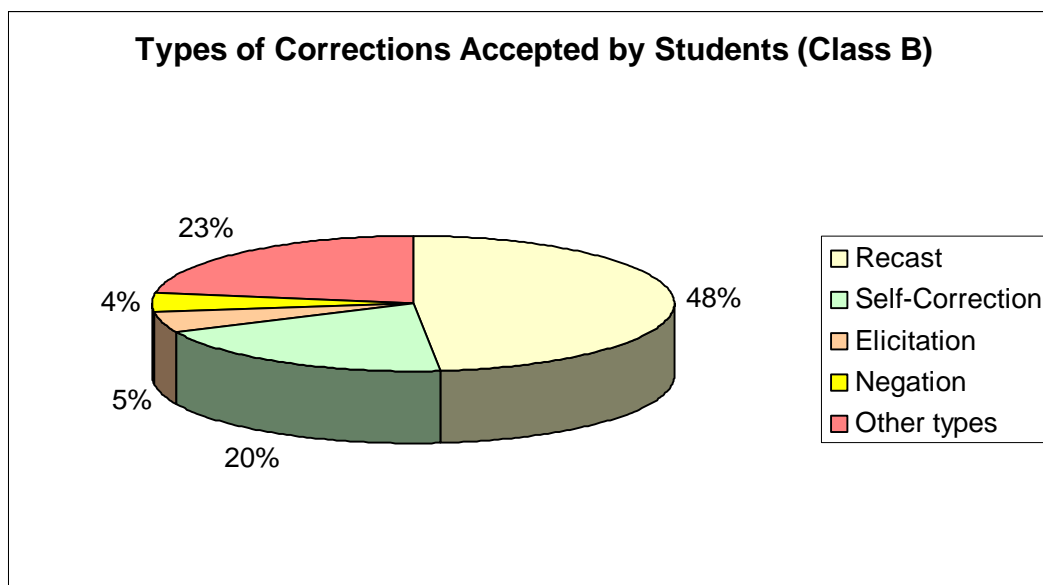
It can be observed that in both classes recasts are the type of corrective technique which were most widely accepted by students. This is quite logical as recast is the correction mostly used for phonological errors and recasts are the number one category in both classes in terms of types of corrections and phonological errors are the most common type of error in both classes, too.

Ex:

Class A

*T: So I need a volunteer to read the first paragraph, the first paragraph, a volunteer, Marta is a volunteer. O.k. (**Question**)*

*S: Last week we met Hollywood superstar Sandra Bullock. She talked about her /latest/ (**Erroneous Answer**)*

T: latest (Correction: Recast)

*S: latest film Speed 2 and we discovered that the life of a famous actress isn't always as comfortable as it seems. (**Acceptance**)*

*T: o.k. (**Confirmation**)*

Class B

*S: I won! Ken declared, a ver, she /apologis/ (**Erroneous Answer**)*

T: apologized (Correction: Recast)

*S: apologized for hurting my feelings (**Acceptance**)*

The differences are found in the other categories: students in class A accept explicit correction in the second place, while self-correction is the second most accepted type of correction in class B.

This shows that students in class A are more tightly controlled by the teacher, who is not afraid of showing this command in the form of explicit corrections and students in class B are more proficient, mature and independent, and thus use the self-correction technique more widely.

As we stated earlier, there has been some discussion on the question of the effectiveness of recasts in the second language classroom. Nicholas, Lightbown and Spada (2001) claim that it is important to bear in mind that there are differences between the findings of laboratory and classroom studies, differences between primarily structure-focused and primarily content-focused classrooms, and differences between observational studies of naturally occurring feedback patterns in classrooms and experimental studies that focus on specific linguistic features and feedback types. They state that the effectiveness of recasts may depend on the overall developmental level of proficiency or interlanguage variety of the learner and that recasts can be effective if the learner has already begun to use a particular linguistic feature and is in a position to choose between linguistic alternatives. They explain that there is a point beyond which recasts are ineffective in changing stabilized interlanguages. They add that the effectiveness of recasts can vary depending on the area of language or on the specific linguistic feature. We found in our results that recasts are the corrective technique mainly used to correct phonological errors. We wanted to find out if there was any co-relation between type of error, type of correction and acceptance of the correction. We decided to look at the statistical differences for the two main types of correction used by the two teachers, namely recasts and a combination of several corrective techniques. We looked at the two types of correction in relation to the five categories of errors and tried to find out which of them was mostly accepted.

The results are as follows:

TABLE 7

Results on Acceptance of Correction Depending on Type of Error (Recast)

RECAST	Teacher A		Teacher B	
Phonological	Accepted: 67 (56,8%)	Non-Accepted: 51 (43,2%)	Accepted: 21 (31,3%)	Non-Accepted: 46 (68,6%)
Lexical	Accepted: 1 (16,7%)	Non-Accepted: 5 (83,3%)	Accepted: 37 (72,5%)	Non-Accepted: 14 (27,5%)
Grammatical	Accepted: 7 (26%)	Non-Accepted: 20 (74%)	Accepted: 27 (60%)	Non-Accepted: 18 (40%)
Use of L1	Accepted: 1 (50%)	Non-Accepted: 1 (50%)	Accepted: 1 (100%)	Non-Accepted: 0 (0%)
Content	Accepted: 2 (100%)	Non-Accepted: 0 (0%)	Accepted: 2 (100%)	Non-Accepted: 0 (0%)

TABLE 8

Results on Acceptance of Correction Depending on Type of Error (Combination)

COMBINATION	Teacher A		Teacher B	
Phonological	Accepted: 9 (56,2%)	Non-Accepted: 7 (43,8%)	Accepted: 1 (50%)	Non-Accepted: 1 (50%)
Lexical	Accepted: 11 (44%)	Non-Accepted: 14 (56%)	Accepted: 16 (43,2%)	Non-Accepted: 21 (56,8%)
Grammatical	Accepted: 26 (52%)	Non-Accepted: 24 (48%)	Accepted: 15 (48,4%)	Non-Accepted: 16 (51,6%)
Use of L1	Accepted: 1 (50%)	Non-Accepted: 1 (50%)	Accepted: 0 (0%)	Non-Accepted: 0 (0%)
Content	Accepted: 12 (50%)	Non-Accepted: 12 (50%)	Accepted: 1 (33,3%)	Non-Accepted: 2 (66,7%)

If we pay attention to the results for class A, we can state that corrections through recasts are effective in the case of phonological errors, as they are accepted by the students in more than half of the occasions. They are accepted in

100% of the the occasions when recasts are used to deal with content errors, although the results for this category are not conclusive because there were only two content errors corrected with this technique. However, when we look at the other categories of errors, recasts are not accepted by students at that high rate. On the other hand, looking at the results for class B, we must claim that corrections done through recasts are accepted most of the times in the case of lexical and grammatical errors, not being that the case for phonological errors. Once again, the results for use of L1 and content errors are not conclusive since they correspond to one and two errors respectively. The reason for this could be that students in class B are more proficient and independent students and they understand their teacher's correct restatement of their erroneous answer inmediately without needing a further explanation. However, less proficient and more dependent students in class A need further explanations, particularly when they are dealing with lexical and grammatical errors; that is why recasts are effective and accepted by students with respect to phonological errors, but not in the case of the categories that need to be further explained, namely lexical and grammatical errors.

Our results seem to coincide with those of Mackey, Oliver and Leeman (2003) in their study of feedback in NS-NNS and NNS-NNS dyads; they state that much of the feedback in their study offered learners the opportunity to produce modified output. And our results contrast with the pattern observed in earlier research on L2 classrooms, where teachers provided limited opportunities for adolescent learners to modify their own utterances in response to negative feedback (Lyster, 1998a, 1998b; Lyster and Ranta, 1997).

Braidi (2002) also pointed out the fact that recasts are of some utility for the learners when learners are able to use these recasts in the short term. This seems to be the case in our study, specially when we take into consideration particular types of errors.

In Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study of error treatment, recasts were by far the most widely used technique among the six types used by the four teachers. Nevertheless, they observed that recasts were one of the two feedback types least likely to lead to uptake. From our results, however, we can conclude that recasts are widely used by the two teachers and lead to learner uptake in many occasions.

If we look at the results of the other type of corrective technique, that is a combination of corrective techniques such as elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, repetition, explicit correction, etc., we can observe that they are accepted by the learners in all types of errors except for the lexical ones in the case of class A and in the category of phonological errors in the case of teacher B. We must, however state, that the levels of acceptance are close to the 50% in the other categories. Therefore, we can claim that our results, differently to what other studies show, lead us to think that uptake is a common characteristic of the two classes and that the techniques and styles of the teachers when dealing with error correction lead their students to accept their corrections in quite a high number of occasions.

Our study does also differ from the one by Panova land Lyster (2002) in which they found out a preference for implicit types of reformulative feedback, that is, recasts and translation, leaving little opportunity for other feedback types that encourage learner-generated repairs. Therefore, according to them, rates of learner uptake and immediate repair of errors were low in the classroom studied. We can state that, similarly to their study, there is a preference for recasts in both classes, but that does not mean that this type of reformulative feedback does not encourage learner-generated repair. Contrarily to that, students in our study, specially those in class B, seem to accept quite often corrections made through the use of recasts.

In general, we can state, following Mackey, Oliver and Leeman (2003), the need to recognize the vast array of variables that can affect not only the amount and nature of negative feedback, but also the extent to which feedback actually leads to modified output. We must add that, as Lyster and Ranta (1997) pointed out, student-generated repairs in the error treatment sequence may be important in L2 learning for two main reasons: they allow opportunities for learners to automatize the retrieval of target language knowledge that already exists in some form and they lead students to draw on their own resources and thus actively confront errors in ways that may lead to revisions of their hypotheses about the target language. It is important to state that none of the feedback types used by the teachers in our study seemed to stop the flow of classroom interaction and that learner acceptance of teacher correction does not break the communicative flow either; on the contrary, uptake means that the student has the floor again. Consequently, we can claim, following Lyster and Ranta (1997), that

"corrective feedback and learner uptake constitute an adjacency pair that is clearly anticipated in classroom discourse and that occurs as an insertion sequence without stopping the flow of communication" (Lyster and Ranta, 1997, p.58).

In the case of the corrections which were not accepted by the students, we found that there were three different situations in which corrections were not accepted: when the same student who made the mistake continued with the topic without accepting the correction, when it was a different student the one who continued with the topic not permitting the student to accept the correction and when the teacher continued directly with the topic and did not let the student accept her correction.

The results are as follows:
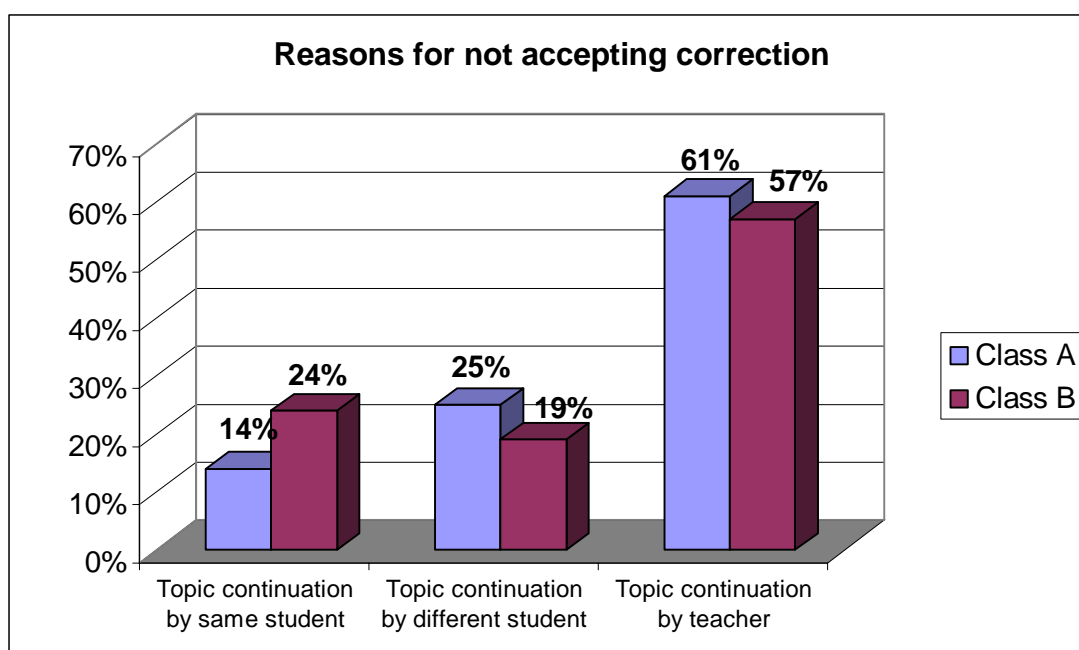
In both classes it is the third situation (the teacher continues with the topic) the most common reason for non-acceptance. Nevertheless, when observing the second reason, in the case of class A the responsible for non-acceptance is a different student, while in class B the responsible is the same student who made the mistake. We have stated before that lesson B mostly consists of practice of specific linguistic points, therefore, students probably think that the student who has initiated the corrective exchange is the one who has the right to accept the correction. This may be the case because they are worried about their performance at the exam and are focused on learning from their errors and from their teacher's corrections. However, less mature and proficient students in class A are not as

worried about their learning process and feel that they can interrupt their class mates before they have accepted their teacher's correction.

Examples of this in both classes are the following:

Class A

*T: why is it the first?(**Question**)*

*S: yes (**Erroneous Answer**)*

*T: why?(**Correction**)*

*Different S: porque lleva I'll (**Answer**)*

Class B

*T: three (**Question**)*

*S: three, please, please give me a clue, /beg/ the.. (**Erroneous Answer**)*

*T: **begged** the contestants (**Correction**)*

*Same S: the contestants. Four, Mike offered...(**Answer**)*

We must now pay attention to a further aspect which has also been studied in our data: teacher confirmation of student acceptance. Together with other authors like Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Ellis (2000), we think that the way a teacher reinforces the student's acceptance of his/her correction is an important feature of the classroom communication that needs to be taken into account. We believe that the feedback exchange does not only comprise the classical three-move exchange, i.e. teacher question-student answer-teacher feedback; as we stated before, we believe in the importance of the learner's acceptance of the teacher's correction, and we also think that the use of a confirmation or reinforcement move after this acceptance is positive for the student, as it helps him/her internalize the linguistic feature he/she did not understand at first (i.e. the error he/she made) and it is also beneficial to maintain and improve communication in the classroom.

For the purpose of our study, we calculated, as it is shown in table 6, the percentage of teacher's confirmation in both classes. We found out that teacher A confirmed a total of 138 of the accepted corrections, that is, 73.4% of the total number of accepted corrections were confirmed by her. Out of the feedback exchange, we found that this teacher confirmed her students in 505 occasions.

On the other hand, teacher B confirmed a total of 82 accepted corrections, which means that she confirmed her students 45% of the times in which a correction was accepted. We also found that she used confirmation 241 times out of the corrective exchange.

This shows that both teachers used confirmation in a high rate, taking into account that this move does not always appear in the feedback exchange due to several reasons. There are times in which the teacher, another student or the same student that has been corrected continues with the topic after the correction and does not allow for the acceptance of the correction: in those occasions confirmation can not occur either. There are times when the teacher, or another student, or the same student who has accepted the correction continue with the topic after the acceptance and confirmation is not allowed. Therefore the possibilities of confirmation appearing in a feedback exchange are reduced.

We examined the utterance used for confirmation by both teachers and we found the following:

Confirmation of Acceptance of Teacher A

1%
1%
1%
4%
8%
1%
8%
29%
47%

very good
o.k.
yes
vale
commentary
repetition
ah!
right
that is right
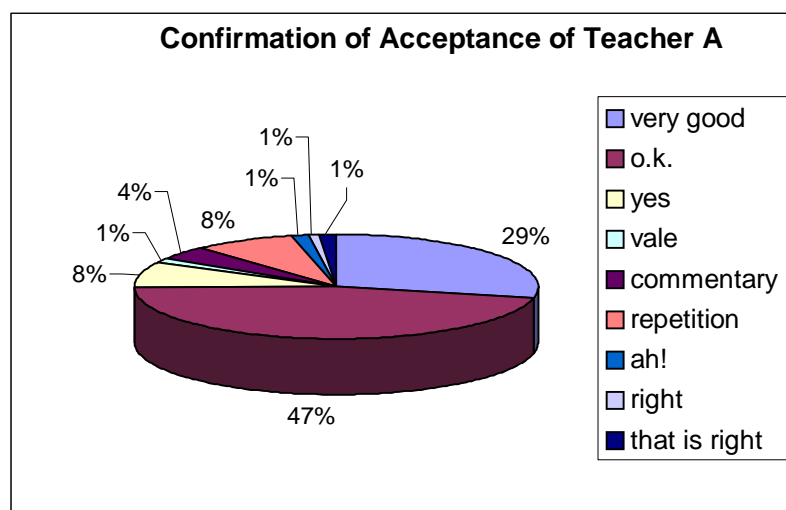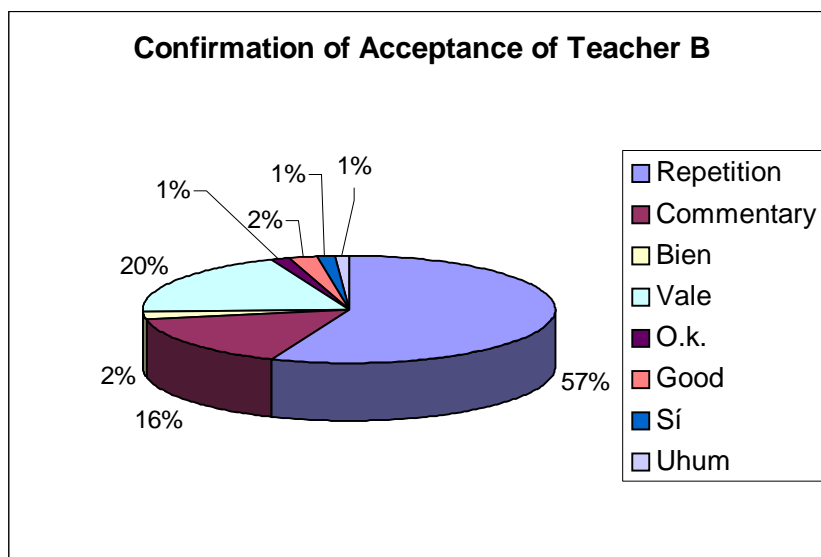
As we can observe, teacher A (E.S.O.) usually employs the utterance "O.k." followed by repetition of the student's accepted utterance most of the times. The second most used category is "very good" also followed by repetition or the name of the student.

Ex:

T: *was born, and what is it? Past Continuous, Past Perfect or Past Simple?***(Question)**

S: *Past Perfect* **(Erroneous Answer)**

T: *Past Perfect?***(Correction)**

Ss: *no! Past Simple!* **(Peer-correction)**

T: *Past Simple, o.k.* **(Confirmation)**

Teacher B uses repetition of the student's acceptance of correction most of the times, followed by "vale", which was used as the second category.

Ex:

S: *Have you ever been a viewer on a quiz show?***(Erroneous Answer)**

T: *no, a viewer no. What is it?* **(Correction)**

S: *a contestant* **(Acceptance)**

T: *a contestant.* **(Confirmation)**

We can notice that teacher B, although she is native American, employs Spanish utterances in her confirmation, like "vale", "bien" or "sí". Her commentaries used as confirmation of acceptance are also in Spanish most of the

times. On the other hand, the non-native teacher uses English utterances most of the time, although her students are of a lower level. Her commentaries as a way of confirmation are also in English.

When dealing with correction and its acceptance, we also took into account the question of tasks and their influence on classroom interaction. There are many variables which can be studied in reference to this topic in order to find out how they can affect the interaction that occurs when learners attempt to perform a specific type of task.

Following Martí Viaño et al. (1999), we classified classroom discourse into several types of tasks according to the purpose of the interaction and the topic the class is dealing with. As these authors did, we used the category of purpose of the interaction as described by Hymes (1972b) in his description of context characteristics and the category of topic to identify classroom interaction variation as the one proposed by Selinker and Douglas (1985) in their description of task variability. Acording to these two categories, the flow of discourse in both classes has been divided into three types of tasks:

-**Linguistic tasks**: tasks focused on a linguistic discussion of vocabulary or grammar.

-**Communicative tasks**: tasks focused on a non-linguistic topic (commentary of a text or pictures, discussion about the International Women's Day, discussion on exams, etc.). Students in class B often talk about the important exam they are going to take. In this type of tasks there is little correction because the students and teacher usually talk in Spanish (particularly in class B).

-**Instructions**: in these tasks the teacher gives instructions to students on the task they have to perform. There usually is some grammar explanation or introduction of new vocabulary.

We have measured the time of the classes and we have calculated the time each task takes. In order to do so, we have considered the unit of five minutes that is the usual time for a task. We have calculated the time each task takes and we have added up the times of the different tasks and divided the addition per type task by five minutes in order to calculate the ratio of tasks. The results are as follows:

TABLE 9

Types of Tasks for Both Teachers

	Teacher A		Teacher B	
	Total N	Percentage	Total N	Percentage
Communicative tasks	43	40.6%	14	14.9%
Linguistic taks	50	47.2%	68	72.3%
Instructions	13	12.2%	12	12.8%

$$\rho_{x,y} = \frac{\text{cov}(x, y)}{\sigma_x \cdot \sigma_y} = 0.67$$

We have calculated the coefficient of correlation based on the results obtained for the number of tasks comparing both teachers.

We can observe that the correlation obtained is less than one, which indicates that one teacher (Teacher of Bachillerato) devotes a great amount of time to linguistic tasks, while the other teacher (Teacher of E.S.O.) shows a greater balance between the number of tasks devoted to communication or linguistic activities.

We must remark that the teacher of Bachillerato focuses more on linguistic aspects as they are preparing an important final examination.

We measured the number of turns per exchange in every type of task and the number of those exchanges which were started by the teacher and the number of them which were introduced by a student. The results of this are shown in the following tables and graphs:

TABLE 10

Number of Turns per Exchange according to Task in Class A

Number of turns per exchange	Linguistic Tasks		Communicative tasks		Instructions	
	Teacher	Students	Teacher	Students	Teacher	Students
2	18	25	12	9	0	0
3	24	7	27	7	3	0
4	40	14	22	5	3	0
5	49	6	34	2	4	0
6	21	6	10	4	0	0
7	22	0	12	0	0	0
8	10	1	6	1	0	0
9	11	1	5	0	0	0
10	3	0	1	0	0	0
11	2	1	1	0	0	0
12	0	0	0	0	0	0
13	0	1	0	0	0	0
14	0	0	0	0	0	0
15	0	0	1	0	0	0
16	2	1	0	0	0	0
17	0	0	0	0	0	0
18	0	0	0	0	0	0
19	3	0	0	0	0	0

TABLE 11

Number of Turns per Exchange according to Task in Class B

Number of turns per exchange	Linguistic Tasks		Communicative tasks		Instructions	
	Teacher	Students	Teacher	Students	Teacher	Students
2	61	91	8	8	0	2
3	55	35	2	3	6	4
4	28	27	5	2	1	0
5	43	7	1	1	0	0
6	9	5	1	0	0	0
7	9	3	1	0	1	0
8	1	0	0	0	0	0
9	4	0	0	0	1	0
10	0	1	0	0	0	0
11	1	0	0	0	0	0
12	2	0	1	0	0	0

In the analysis of number of turns per exchange, we have not considered the exchange with only one turn, since we are studying who starts the exchange in the different tasks and for that purpose we need at least two turns.

From our data, we can state that the most common exhange when teacher A starts a turn in all types of tasks is the one containing five turns. It usually has the following design: Teacher Question – Student Erroneous Answer- Teacher Correction – Student Acceptance – Teacher Confirmation.

In the case of teacher B the pattern is quite different. The native teacher of Bachillerato applies the exchange of two turns in both linguistic and communicative tasks. This fact shows that this teacher does not spend much time on correcting students as the pattern of this exchange is: Teacher Question – Student Erroneous Answer.

As for exchanges started by students we must remark that there is no difference between the two classes; the most common exchange in all types of tasks is the exchange with two turns: Student Erroneous Question – Teacher Answer (with or without correction).

In the following graphs we show the percentage of exchanges that were started by teacher and by students in the three different types of tasks comparing the two classes:

Linguistic Tasks (Teacher A)
24%
Teacher
Students
76%

Linguistic Tasks (Teacher B)
44%
Teacher
Students
56%

Communicative Tasks (Teacher A)
20%
Teacher
Students
80%

Communicative Tasks (Teacher B)
42%
Teacher
Students
58%
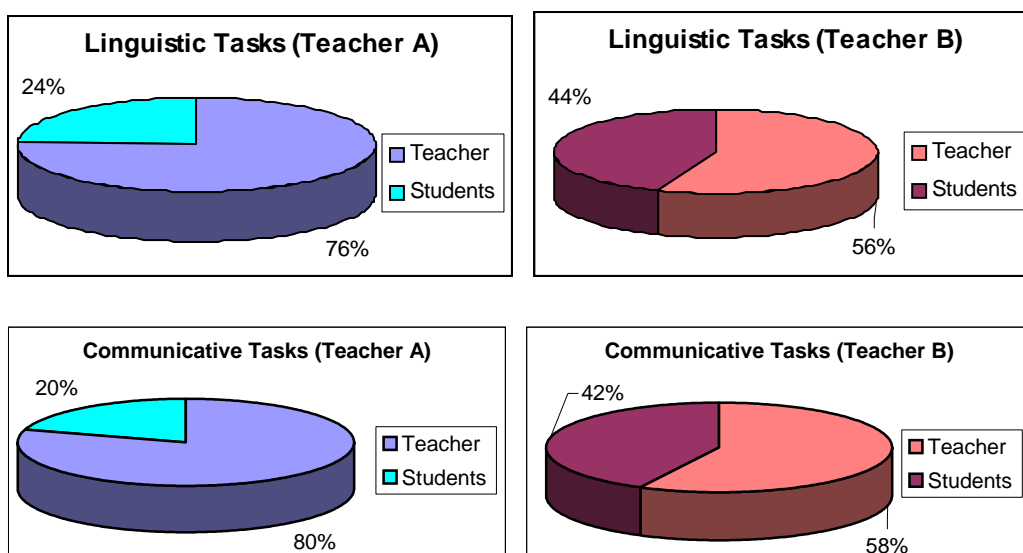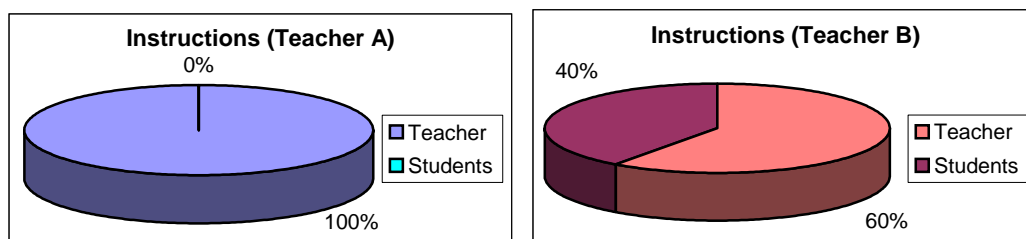
According to the graphs, we can state that both teachers dominate classroom interaction by starting most exchanges in all types of tasks. Nevertheless, we have observed some difference between students in both classes. Students in Bachillerato start many more turns than student of E.S.O. We think that this is due to the age, proficiency and maturity of students of Bachillerato, who dare to interrupt the interaction in class and ask a question when they have any doubt. On the other hand, students of E.S.O. are more docile and less proficient, and thus prefer to be called on by the teacher to respond.

In relation to the number of corrections and the acceptance and non-acceptance of them in the different types of tasks, we found the following:

TABLE 12

Results on Acceptance according to Task in Class A

	Corrections	Acceptance	Non-acceptance
Communicative	107	37	70
Linguistic	264	151	113
Instructions	1	0	1

TABLE 13

Results on Acceptance according to Task in Class B

	Corrections	Acceptance	Non-acceptance
Communicative	21	11	10
Linguistic	287	170	117
Instructions	6	1	5

Our statistical analysis indicates that the behaviour of both teachers is quite similar when we consider the topic of students' errors according to type of task globally. Both teachers correct more errors in linguistic tasks than those appearing in the other two types of tasks. However, we have observed that there is a lower percentage of acceptance when dealing with a communicative task in class A. This may be due to the fact that less proficient students of E.S.O. do not consider communicative tasks as "real" practice of language and do not feel their teacher's feedback as actual correction of their performance. On the other hand students of Bachillerato are more conscious that all the tasks in English are useful for their learning process.

Correction according to Type of Task
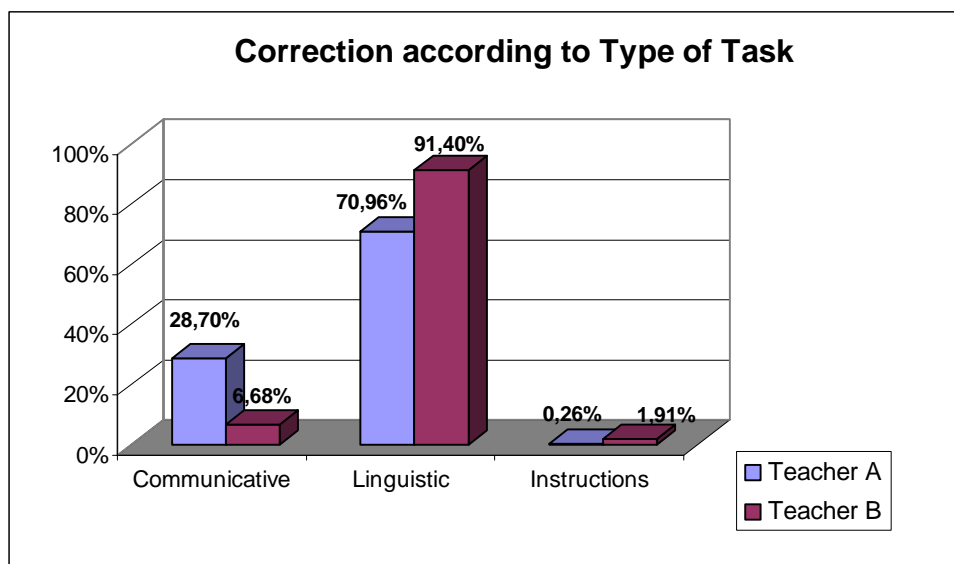
We can observe in the graph that most correction takes place in linguistic tasks for both teachers. In the class of Bachillerato there is a dramatic difference between the communicative and linguistic tasks. This is due to the fact that communicative tasks in the class of Bachillerato (native teacher) are most in Spanish, while in the class of E.S.O. they are in English.

As in the tasks of giving instructions there is very little correction, we also find very few instances of acceptance of correction. That is why we have not included this task in the analysis of acceptance and non-acceptance according to type of task:

Acceptance and Non-Acceptance in Linguistic Tasks

Acceptance and Non-Acceptance in Communicative Tasks
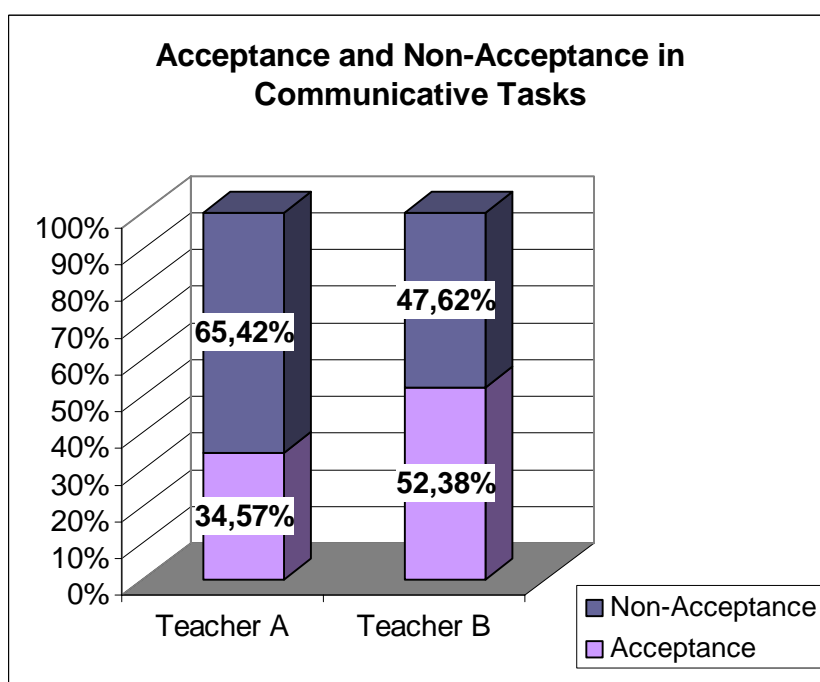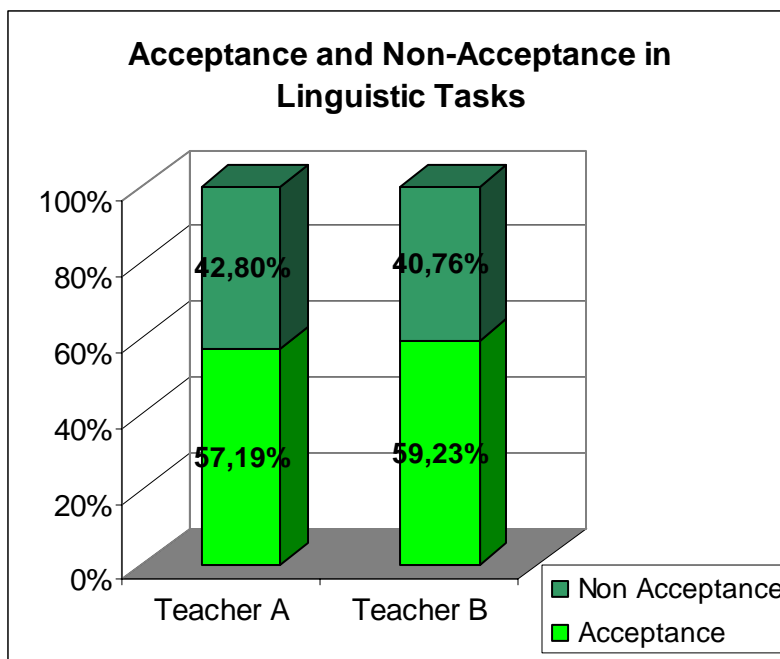
The graphs indicate that there is not much difference in the acceptance of correction in the linguistic tasks. However, if we consider the communicative tasks, the difference is that students of E.S.O. do not accept correction in communicative tasks as much as students in Bachillerato due to the reasons we have stated above.

In our research project, we have taken into consideration self-correction by the students themselves because according to several authors this indicates attention to the linguistic form of the utterance on the part of the students. How non-native speakers manage their attentional resources influences their performance and we find this is of crucial importance not only in second language acquisition, but also in the production research. Rubin (1987) considered self-correction a combination of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. The learner notices errors, observes how a message is received and interpreted by the addressee, and then decides what to do about it.

In class A this corrective technique was used 5% of the times, whereas in class B, students self-corrected themselves in 8% of the occassions. In the first place we are going to show a graph where the total percentages of self-correction in both classes is shown:

Percentage of Self-correction

42%

58%

☐ Class A
☐ Class B
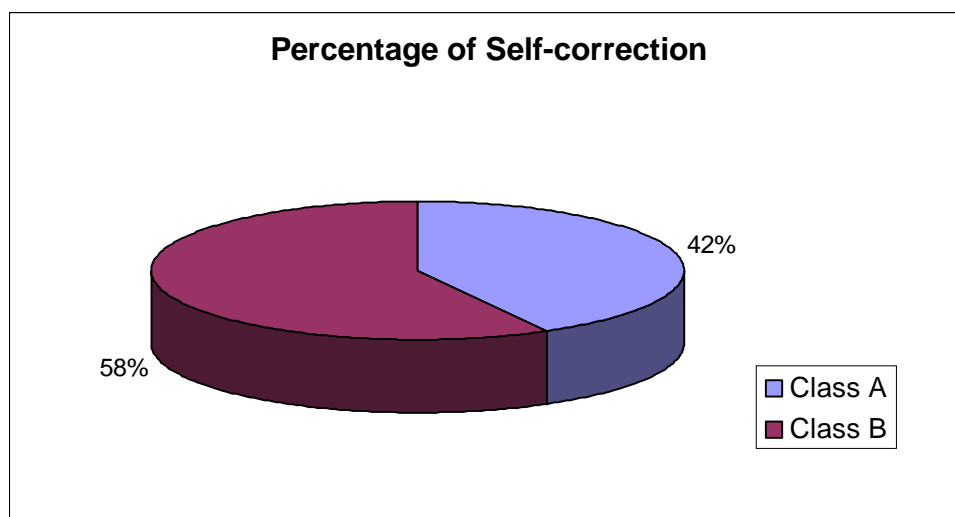
We have discussed the conflictive results on the relationship between proficiency and self-correction; however, we have analysed the data of our students in this research project and our results agree with Lennon (1990) and Kormos (2000) who found that more competent students self-corrected more than beginner students. As Lennon (1990) explained, the increase of language competence allows learners to monitor and self-repair. We have also noticed that in the class of Bachillerato students self-correct more than the beginner students. The area where students of E.S.O. corrected themselves more was that of grammatical errors, followed by the phonological ones; it shows that they are

insecure about the rules of their interlanguage competence and they are at the stage of trial and error. In the class of Bachillerato, students corrected most phonological errors themselves and in the second place grammatical errors. We must remark that the teacher of Bachillerato did not correct her students most of the times in the area of phonological errors. However, students are conscious of the importance of pronunciation and they correct themselves. In the following graphs we can observe the difference between the two classes:

Self-correction in class A

Self-correction in class B
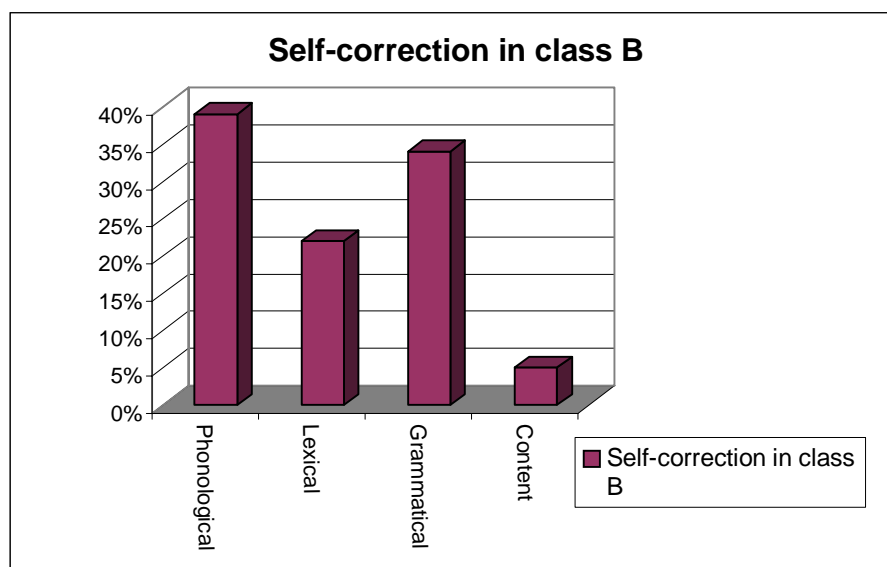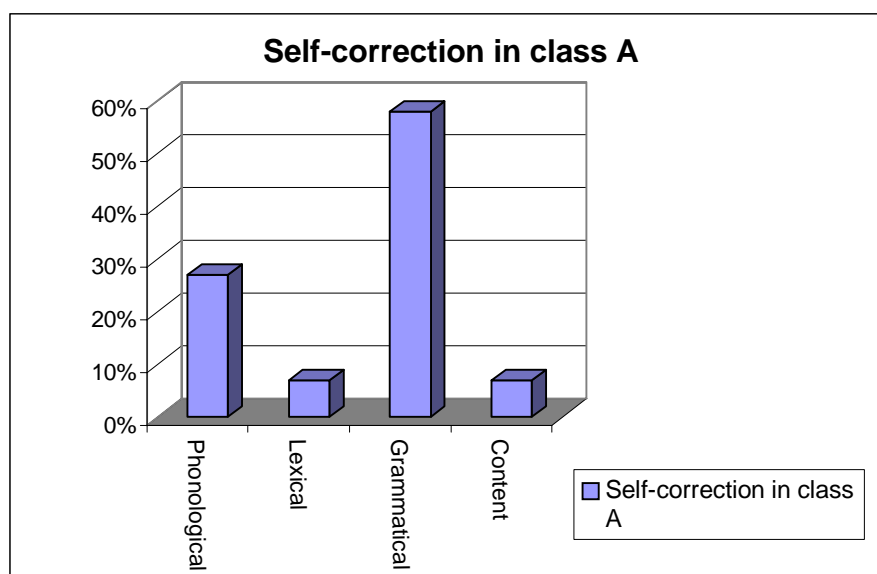
In relation to task variability, we have observed that students of E.S.O. corrected themselves more often in communicative tasks, while students of Bachillerato corrected themselves most of the times in linguistic tasks. As we have seen in task analysis, in class A there are as many communicative tasks as

linguistic tasks, whereas in the class of Bachillerato, communicative tasks are very few and most of them are in Spanish. The following graphs will illustrate this point:

Self-correction according to Task: Class A

20%

80%

■ Communicative tasks
□ Linguistic tasks

Self-correction according to Task: Class B

3%   14%

83%

■ Communicative tasks
■ Linguistic tasks
□ Instructions
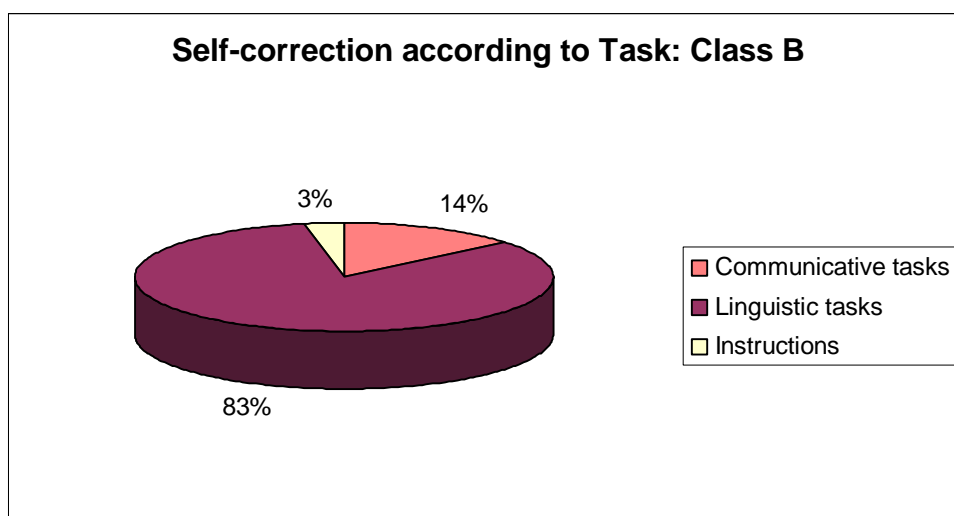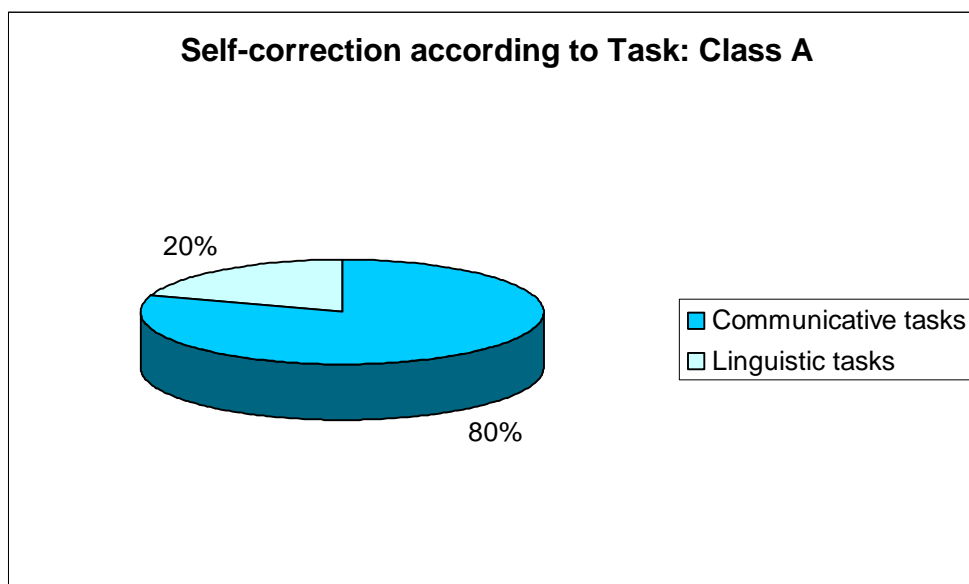
Here we offer an example of self-correction in both classes:

Class A

*S: what would you do if you sing..sang (**Self-correction**)*

*T: you sang, very good (**Confirmation**)*

Class B

T: *today is March the 6ᵗʰ. We are going to continue the exercises in Unit 5. O.k., page 42, level 1, vocabulary. Ángel* **(Question)**

S: *Choose the correct answer. One: Deb is a soap opera addict. She's /glued/,* ***glued*** *to the box* **(Answer/Self-correction)**

T: *she is* ***glued*** *to the box all day long. Number 2* **(Confirmation)**

Once the results for both classes have been discussed, we are going to turn back to the research hypotheses. We hypothesized the following points:

- There will be more correction in the non-native teacher group (class of E.S.O.).

- In the native teacher classroom (class of Bachillerato) the feedback exchanges will be longer.

- There will be more acceptance of correction in the native teacher's class (Bachillerato) because the students are more proficient and responsible.

- There will be more confirmation in the class of E.S.O. because students are less competent and insecure and need this confirmation.

- The feedback exchange will contain more turns in communicative tasks than in linguistic tasks as there is more participation on the part of students.

- There will be more correction and acceptance of correction in linguistic tasks than in communicative tasks in both classes.

- The experienced teacher (native teacher of Bachillerato) will encourage more self-correction, specially in linguistic tasks.

We thought that there would be more correction in the class of E.S.O. and this is confirmed by the results: teacher A has a higher rate of correction in her classes since her students are less proficient and need her to correct them. They are at a stage in which they need to be tightly guided through their learning process and expect their teacher to do so. However, students in the class of Bachillerato are more independent learners and do not need their teacher's correction so much. We must though state, as we previously did, that the high

level of uncorrected errors in class B corresponds mainly to the phonological ones, which are the least necessary for the purpose of the selectivo exam.

We can comment that, differently to what we predicted, the feedback exchanges were not longer in the class of Bachillerato. We thought that being the students in class B more mature and proficient learners, they would participate more in class and produce longer exchanges. However, as we stated before, these students were quite worried about their exam and the exchanges consisted most of the times of the making of an error on the part of the student and a corrective reaction by the teacher. They focused on the accuracy of the answer and did not offer any communicative type of intervention. In the case of teacher A, the students were quite spontaneous and even though the teacher is in control of the class and the type of lesson is teacher-centred, they sometimes get involved in communicative type of language.

We did not confirm our third hypothesis. Students of E.S.O. accepted more the corrections of errors. On the other hand, students of Bachillerato showed less acceptance. We think that there are two reasons for that: one reason is that these students were too anxious about learning vocabulary and grammar and they did not want to hold up their learning process. The other reason is that the native teacher of Bachillerato was too worried about the students' acquisition of language and encouraged them to proceed quickly in the tasks they had to perform.

The results seem to confirm our fourth hypothesis, which expressed that there would be more confirmation in class A. Teacher A is in command of her class and students expect her to confirm their interventions. They are less independent learners and need this type of confirmation on the part of their teacher. By contrast, students in class B, although they expressed they liked being confirmed, do not need this way of controlled teaching as much as students in class A.

We thought that exchanges would be longer in communicative tasks as it is supposed that students in those tasks participate more. Nevertheless, we have

found out that there are not great differences with repect ot length of exchanges according to task.The difference was found in the behaviour of the two teachers.

Our sixth hypothesis has been cofirmed. There is more correction in linguistic tasks than in communicative tasks for both teachers. Also, students in both classes accepted more correction in linguistic tasks.

Finally, we stated that teacher B would encourage more self correction and this was certainly the case. In class B, students have a higher level of performance and thus are endorsed with the ability to correct themselves. Nevertheless, we must claim that the small difference with respect to this type of correction in class A make the results of this hypothesis not totally conclusive.

6.4. Conclusions and teaching implications

We have observed that the two types of classes are very different. The younger students are very relaxed, they make jokes and they have a good time in the English class. The Bachillerato students are always obsessed with their final examination and they are always anxious of learning the vocabulary and the grammar of the language. As this final exam is a written one, the teacher and the students do not care much about pronunciation and most of the phonological errors are not corrected. We think that this obsession with the exam is not good for a learning situation, but we know the pressure exams can cause. This anxiety students show does not seem to be positive. Some authors, like McIntyre and Gardner (1991), have explained that taking a test can provoke negative anxiety and that it can affect negatively in all areas of the learning task. These authors also suggest that the performance of tasks that can be difficult for students may cause even more anxiety. We have observed in the class of Bachillerato that there are some students who are lost in the performance of various tasks. They often mention they have not done their homework because they did not know how to do it. We would recommend to pay more attention to these students and with

McIntyre and Gardner (1991), we would suggest to introduce some humour into the classroom so as to make students feel more relaxed.

Students in both classes do meaningful activities even when dealing with linguistic tasks. Anderson (1985) claims that language `production is viewed as an active process that involves meaning construction and the expression of such meaning in speaking. We have observed that the learners in this study generate language by setting meaningful goals and by producing meaningful sentences.

We have also observed that there are many more communicative tasks in the class with the younger students. And they talk about a variety of topics like Agatha Christie's life, comparison of pictures, etc. The communicative tasks in the class of Bachillerato are all related to the exam they are going to take or to the results of the partial exams they have taken at their school. These communicative tasks do not relax students at all, but cause more anxiety. This difference in the interaction of both classes is shown in the length of feedback exchanges: the class with younger students usually shows more moves per feedback exchange than the class of Bachillerato.

We have observed that the native teacher of Bachillerato does not correct as many phonological errors as the other teacher. We do not think that this is a negative aspect on the part of the native teacher; as McLaughlin (1990) has pointed out, learners are not capable of attending to all the information available in the input both for the nature of the task and the limitations of their own information-processing ability. He has also remarked that learners are able to focus on a part of the input, while the rest remains unattended or attended to peripherally.

From the data we have analysed, we could recommend recast for the correction of phonological errors. Students may think that the correction of these errors does not need any additional information and they tend to repeat the correction without hesitation as we have observed in the number of recasts accepted by students in the correction of pronunciation. Mateo del Pozo (1986) recommends this type of correction of errors which he considers a subtle type of corrective technique. He says that a global disapproval can lead to dissatisfaction and confuse the students. We think that this type of correction does not stop the flow of communication in classroom interaction as the students repeat the correction quickly and the teacher continues with her questioning behaviour.

For the correction of grammatical and lexical errors it seems that a combination of different corrective techniques including negation and metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and explicit correction or repetition and metalinguistic feedback, seems most adequate. The students need some explanation about the lexical or grammatical error they have made in order to accept the correction.

We have observed that acceptance of correction is more common than the non-acceptance and that even the lack of acceptance is not often caused by the student himself. We consider with Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Panova and Lyster (2002), that uptake is a necessary step for a student to confirm or disconfirm his/her hypotheses about the language. According to Bowen and Marks (1994) we learn through trial and error, by actively constructing and testing hypotheses, and revising these in the light of direct feedback and new data. We learn a language through using it, rather than learning it first before being able to use it: not so much learning to speak as speaking to learn. The students in our study receive the information about the language from teacher's correction and once they have tested their hypothesis and noticed what the right choice is, they tend to repeat this information in order to retain it in their minds.

Teacher confirmation of student's acceptance of correction provides high level evaluation of student's utterance and creates a positive atmosphere in the classroom. Nystrand & Gamorand (1991) describe this evaluation as consisting of two parts:

1. the teacher's certification of the response (e.g. good)
2. the teacher's incorporation of the response in the form odf repetition or elaboration.

We have observed this type of behaviour in both teachers, which makes us think that the students in these classes feel encouraged by the teachers to participate.

As for teacher confirmation in the feedback exchange, we would propose a new pattern for the EFL classroom exchange. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) proposed a three-move exchange (Teacher's question-Student's answer-Teacher's feedback). McTear (1975) added a new move: student's acceptance of feedback; we propose a new move: teacher's confirmation of student's acceptance. We think that this confirmation reassures the student on his/her acceptance of the correct

answer and shows a positive attitude to the whole class. For all these reasons, we highly recommend this new move in the teaching exchange. We can remark that the confirmation move is very important because it shows interest on the part of the teacher in the students' learning process and it creates a positive atmosphere in the classroom.

With respect to self-correction, we can say that it is beneficial for students as they apply the knowledge they have about the language to improve their output. We have observed that the more competent students in our research correct themselves more and in that respect we think that we should encourage self-correction from the early stages of second language acquisition. Del Pozo (1986) suggests several techniques to develop self-correction: a gesture of the teacher, or eliciting the answer from the student by repeating the utterance up to the error. We could recommend that in the correction procedure, the teacher may simply show that a mistake has been made. There are several ways of showing incorrectness:

1)   the teacher could indicate to the student that his response is unsatisfactory by asking him to repeat it. As Harmer (1992) points out, the problem with this technique is that the students might simply think that the teacher did not hear his response. Using expression or gesture simultaneously is an effective way of reinforcing the signal of incorrection, but one that should be performed with subtlety, so that the learner does not feel that he is being mocked.

2)   the teacher could also opt for echoing what the student has said with a questioning intonation. As a way of focusing on the mistake, Harmer (1992) suggests stressing the part of the utterance that is incorrect. However, there is a great danger in over stressing besuse we are emphasizing an error. Edge (1989) remarks that "we must keep to natural stress and pronunciation, so that our students can actually hear what they are supposed to produce (p.29). Alternatively, we could echo the student response up to the point where the mistake was made.

3)   when there is something missing, whether it is a sound, or a syllable in a word, or a word in a sentence, the technique of counting on fingers can be used.

If the teacher realises that the student cannot comply with an accurate version of his/her flaw, he/she will need to resort to other forms of correction.

Asking other student will be the second best option. We have observed that in both groups of students peer-correction is used in spontaneous way. We could mention soe advantages of this type of correction:

1) it makes students more attentive if they know they could be called on to analyse the error.

2) By asking the rest of the class, the teacher can get an idea of the depth of the problem. If most of the class is affected by it, the teacher should think of remedial work.

3) It gets students used to the idea that they an learn from each other, making them less dependent on teachers.

According to the answers the students gave to our questionnaire, most of them preferred being corrected by the teacher and only a few of them opted for self- or peer-correction. For that reason, teachers should work cautiously and slowly on this area in order to create an atmosphere where self- and peer-correction is carried out in a positive way.

Finally, we could highlight that in today's approaches to teaching, errors are not evidence of failure to learn; they are rather evidence of learning taking place. We learn through trial and error, by actively constructing and testing hypotheses, and revising these in the light of direct feedback and new data. We learn a language through using it, rather than learning it first before being able to use it: not so much learning to speak as speaking to learn. Errors are visible evidence of the invisible process of learning.

7. APPENDIX A. BIBLIOGRAPHY

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8. APPENDIX B. NEED ANALYSIS

1. Identidad del alumno:

Sexo: H   M

Edad:

Curso:

Lugar de origen:

Edad a la que empezaste a estudiar inglés:

2. Estudios del padre

a. ninguno

b. primarios

c. bachillerato

d. universitario

3. Estudios de la madre

a. ninguno

b. primarios

c. bachillerato

d. universitario

4. ¿Qué esperas alcanzar con el estudio del inglés?

a. comunicarte con gente de otros países y aumentar tu cultura

b. conseguir un buen trabajo

5. ¿Te gusta el inglés?

a. mucho

b. bastante

c. un poco

d. nada

6. Si te gusta es por

a. el libro que usaste

b. el método del profesor

c. la personalidad del profesor

d. tu interés por la lengua inglesa

7. Si no te gusta es por

a. el libro que usaste

b. el método del profesor

c. la personalidad del profesor

d. tu falta de interés

8. ¿Has estado en algún país de habla inglesa?

9. Si no, ¿te irías a un país de habla inglesa si tuvieras la posibilidad?

10. ¿Tienes algún amigo o conocido inglés con quien hablas o mantienes correspondencia?

11. ¿Lees alguna revista o libro en inglés?

12. ¿Te gusta ser corregido?

  a. sí, siempre

  b. no, nunca

13. En caso afirmativo, ¿por quién te gusta ser corregido?

  a. el profesor

  b. otro alumno

  c. tú mismo

14. ¿Cuándo te gusta que te corrijan?

  a. inmediatamente

  b. después de acabar lo que estés diciendo

  c. al final de la actividad

15. ¿Cómo te gusta que te corrijan?

  a. el profesor te proporciona la forma correcta

  b. el profesor te indica con un gesto que has hecho algo mal

  c. el profesor te indica que has hecho un error de gramática, vocabulario

    pronunciación para que tú te corrijas

       d. el profesor te explica por qué has hecho el error y te corrige

   e. el profesor pide a otro compañero que te corrija

16. ¿Te gusta que el profesor te confirme que has hecho algo bien?

17. ¿Cómo te gusta que te confirme el profesor tus respuestas correctas en inglés?

  a. con una señal de la cabeza

  b. diciendo: (elige 1 ó 2 opciones) o.k. ☐

                       good ☐

                       very good ☐

                       right ☐

                       all right☐

18. ¿Dónde tienes mayor dificultad en aprender inglés?

  a. hablar

  b. escribir

  c. escuchar - entender

  d. leer

19. ¿Cuáles de estas áreas consideras más importantes para aprender inglés?

  a. hablar

  b. escribir

  c. escuchar – entender

  d. leer

20. ¿Cómo prefieres aprender el inglés hablado?

  a. repetir frases

  b. conversación sobre un tema

  c. representar diálogos

d. juegos relacionados con lo estudiado

e. aprender canciones

21. ¿Cuál consideras que es la mejor manera de aprender inglés?

    a. traducción y reglas gramaticales explicadas en castellano

    b. practicar el inglés sin tener en cuenta las reglas gramaticales

    c. practicar el inglés teniendo en cuenta las reglas gramaticales

22. ¿Cómo te gusta trabajar en la clase de inglés?

    a. individualmente

    b. con otros compañeros

    c. con un grupo reducido

    d. con toda el aula

9. APPENDIX C. CLASS RESULTS

TEACHER A , LESSON 1

Number of errors: 58 (18 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 68 (Teacher corrections: 51 / Student corrections: 17)
Student Acceptance: 17
Teacher Confirmation: 19
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 63

1. use of L1 unsolicited by the teacher: translation
2. phonological: recast
3. content: metalinguistic feedback
4. phonological
5. phonological
6. phonological
7. phonological
8. phonological
9. phonological
10. grammatical
11. phonological: recast
12. lexical: metalinguistic feedback / peer-correction
13. phonological: recast
14. phonological
15. phonological
16. phonological
17. phonological: self-correction
18. phonological: recast
19. phonological: recast
20. lexical: peer-correction / recast
21. phonological: recast
22. phonological
23. phonological
24. phonological
25. lexical: self-correction
26. content: metalinguistic feedback / metalinguistic feedback
27. grammatical: repetition / peer-correction
28. grammatical
29. grammatical: negation / explicit correction
30. grammatical: explicit correction / elicitation
31. grammatical: repetition + elicitation
32. content: explicit correction
33. content: repetition / peer-correction / repetition / metalinguistic feedback / metalinguistic feedback / peer-correction
34. grammatical: metalinguistic feedback / self-correction
35. phonological: recast
36. grammatical: metalinguistic feedback / self-correction
37. lexical: elicitation / peer-correction
38. lexical: explicit correction
39. content: explicit correction / peer-correction
40. content: explicit correction
41. grammatical: asking another student / metalinguistic feedback / peer-correction
42. grammatical: asking another student
43. grammatical: repetition / self-correction+ peer-correction / metalinguistic feedback
44. phonological: clarification request / repetition / peer-correction / peer-correction / recast
45. lexical: metalinguistic feedback / explicit correction
46. content: metalinguistic feedback
47. phonological
48. grammatical: metalinguistic feedback+ elicitation / self-correction
49. content: explicit correction

50. phonological
51. phonological
52. content: explicit correction
53. phonological: recast
54. content
55. phonological: recast
56. phonological: recast
57. phonological
58. phonological: recast

TEACHER A, LESSON 2

Number of errors: 27 (5 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 24 (Teacher corrections: 23 / Student corrections: 1)
Student Acceptance: 16
Teacher Confirmation: 3
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 26

1. phonological: recast
2. content: explicit correction
3. content: explicit correction
4. lexical: repetition / metalinguistic feedback
5. lexical: explicit correction
6. phonological: peer-correction / recast
7. phonological: recast
8. phonological
9. phonological: recast
10. phonological: recast
11. phonological
12. phonological: recast
13. phonological: recast
14. lexical: explicit correction
15. phonological: recast
16. phonological
17. phonological: recast
18. phonological
19. phonological: recast
20. phonological: recast
21. phonological
22. phonological: recast
23. phonological: recast
24. phonological: recast
25. phonological: recast
26. phonological: recast
27. phonological: recast

TEACHER A, LESSON 3

Number of errors: 23 (5 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 25 (Teacher correction: 18 / Student correction: 7)
Student Acceptance: 10
Teacher Confirmation: 3
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 27

1. grammatical: explicit correction
2. lexical: explicit correction
3. grammatical: recast
4. content: explicit correction / explicit correction
5. phonological: recast
6. phonological: self-correction
7. lexical: metalinguistic feedback
8. lexical: metalinguistic feedback / peer-correction
9. phonological: recast
10. lexical: metalinguistic feedback
11. grammatical: explicit correction / explicit correction
12. phonological: repetition / self-correction
13. content: explicit correction
14. content: peer-correction
15. content: peer-correction / explicit correction / metalinguistic feedback
16. phonological
17. phonological
18. phonological: recast
19. phonological: self-correction
20. phonological
21. phonological: recast / peer-correction
22. lexical
23. phonological

TEACHER A, LESSON 4

Number of errors: 11 (3 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 10 (Teacher corrections: 9 / Student corrections: 1)
Student Acceptance: 1
Teacher Confirmation: 4
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 37

1. content: explicit correction
2. phonological: recast
3. phonological
4. phonological
5. phonological
6. lexical: peer-correction / recast
7. content: metalinguistic feedback
8. phonological: recast+repetition
9. grammatical: explicit correction
10. phonological: recast
11. phonological: recast

TEACHER A, LESSON 5

Number of errors: 37 (11 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 34 (Teacher corrections: 29 / Student corrections: 5)
Student Acceptance: 19
Teacher Confirmation: 8
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 30

1. phonological: recast
2. phonological: elicitation / recast
3. grammatical: repetition / peer-correction / self-correction / recast
4. phonological: recast
5. phonological: recast
6. phonological: repetition / recast
7. phonological
8. phonological: recast
9. phonological
10. phonological
11. phonological: recast
12. phonological: self-correction
13. phonological: recast
14. phonological: recast
15. phonological: recast
16. phonological: recast
17. phonological
18. phonological
19. phonological: recast
20. phonological: recast
21. phonological: recast
22. phonological: recast
23. phonological
24. phonological: recast
25. phonological: recast
26. phonological: recast
27. phonological: recast
28. lexical: explicit correction
29. phonological: recast
30. phonological: recast
31. phonological
32. phonological: recast
33. phonological
34. phonological
35. phonological
36. phonological
37. lexical: metalinguistic feedback / peer-correction / peer-correction / recast

TEACHER A, LESSON 6

Number of errors: 11 (2 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 15 (Teacher corrections: 12 / Student corrections: 3)
Student Acceptance: 4
Teacher Confirmation: 3
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 24

1. phonological: self-correction
2. grammatical: recast / metalinguistic feedback
3. phonological: recast
4. phonological
5. phonological: recast
6. phonological: recast
7. phonological: recast
8. phonological: recast
9. grammatical: peer-correction / repetition+metalinguistic feedback / self-correction
10. phonological
11. lexical: recast / recast / recast

TEACHER A, LESSON 7

Number of errors: 31 (0 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 59 (Teacher corrections: 47 / Student corrections: 12)
Student Acceptance: 16
Teacher Confirmation: 14
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 18

1. grammatical: metalinguistic feedback
2. grammatical: asking another student / peer-correction
3. grammatical: repetition / peer-correction / elicitation
4. grammatical: repetition / peer-correction / explicit correction
5. phonological: recast
6. grammatical: repetition+ metalinguistic feedback / peer-correction / metalinguistic feedback / peer-correction
7. grammatical: recast
8. lexical: recast
9. phonological: recast
10. grammatical: explicit correction
11. grammatical: repetition / self-correction / recast
12. grammatical: repetition / self-correction / recast+ metalinguistic feedback
13. lexical: explicit correction
14. lexical: explicit correction
15. lexical: explicit correction
16. grammatical: metalinguistic feedback / elicitation / elicitation / metalinguistic feedback / elicitation / self-correction
17. grammatical: metalinguistic feedback
18. grammatical: explicit correction / self-correction
19. grammatical: explicit correction / self-correction
20. lexical: recast
21. grammatical: recast+ metalinguistic feedback
22. grammatical: self-correction
23. grammatical: elicitation / elicitation / elicitation / metalinguistic feedback
24. grammatical: metalinguistic feedback
25. grammatical: explicit correction / recast
26. lexical: recast
27. phonological: recast
28. content: metalinguistic feedback / metalinguistic feedback / self-correction
29. grammatical: recast
30. grammatical: recast
31. grammatical: recast

TEACHER A, LESSON 8

Number of errors: 34 (3 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 40 (Teacher corrections: 34 / Student corrections: 6)
Student Acceptance: 16
Teacher Confirmation: 12
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 45

1. content: metalinguistic feedback / peer-correction / peer-correction / explicit correction
2. phonological: recast
3. grammatical: repetition
4. phonological: elicitation
5. content: metalinguistic feedback
6. phonological: recast
7. phonological: recast
8. phonological
9. phonological: elicitation
10. grammatical: recast
11. grammatical: recast
12. grammatical: recast
13. phonological: recast
14. lexical: metalinguistic feedback / explicit correction
15. lexical: metalinguistic feedback
16. lexical: metalinguistic feedback
17. lexical: translation / peer-correction / metalinguistic feedback
18. phonological: recast
19. phonological: recast
20. phonological: recast
21. content: clarification request / peer-correction
22. use of L1 unsolicited by the teacher: translation
23. content: clarification request / elicitation / peer-correction
24. phonological: recast
25. lexical: self-correction
26. phonological: recast
27. phonological: recast
28. lexical: recast
29. grammatical: recast
30. phonological: recast
31. phonological
32. phonological: metalinguistic feedback / recast
33. phonological
34. grammatical: clarification request

TEACHER A, LESSON 9

Number of errors: 54 (11 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 65 (Teacher corrections: 51 / Student corrections: 14)
Student Acceptance: 21
Teacher Confirmation: 19
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 49

1. lexical: peer-correction / explicit correction
2. content: metalinguistic feedback / peer-correction
3. lexical: metalinguistic feedback
4. lexical: negation / peer-correction
5. lexical: peer-correction
6. lexical: elicitation / metalinguistic feedback
7. lexical: peer-correction
8. lexical: peer-correction
9. lexical: metalinguistic feedback
10. phonological: recast
11. phonological: recast
12. phonological
13. phonological
14. phonological
15. phonological
16. phonological: elicitation / peer-correction / recast
17. lexical: explicit correction
18. lexical: explicit correction
19. phonological: recast
20. phonological
21. phonological: recast
22. phonological: recast
23. phonological: recast
24. phonological: recast
25. phonological: self-correction
26. phonological
27. grammatical: recast
28. phonological: recast
29. grammatical: metalinguistic feedback
30. phonological
31. phonological: recast
32. content: clarification request / explicit correction
33. lexical: repetition / peer-correction / peer-correction / explicit correction
34. grammatical: elicitation / peer-correction / explicit correction
35. grammatical: metalinguistic feedback
36. grammatical: explicit correction / explicit correction / elicitation / peer-correction
37. phonological
38. phonological: recast
39. phonological: metalinguistic feedback
40. phonological: recast
41. phonological: recast
42. phonological: recast
43. phonological: recast
44. phonological: clarification request / recast
45. phonological
46. phonological: elicitation / recast
47. phonological: recast
48. phonological
49. phonological
50. phonological: recast
51. phonological: recast
52. phonological: recast

53. use of L1 unsolicited by the teacher: elicitation / peer-correction / explicit correction
54. content: repetition / clarification request / peer-correction / elicitation

TEACHER A, LESSON 10

Number of errors: 33 (3 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 43 (Teacher corrections: 37 / Student corrections: 6)
Student Acceptance: 24
Teacher Confirmation: 11
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 37

1. grammatical: repetition
2. grammatical: metalinguistic feedback
3. grammatical: elicitation
4. phonological: elicitation / repetition
5. lexical: explicit correction
6. content: explicit correction
7. grammatical: metalinguistic feedback / elicitation
8. lexical: explicit correction
9. grammatical: metalinguistic feedback
10. phonological: recast
11. grammatical: explicit correction
12. grammatical: explicit correction
13. grammatical: explicit correction
14. content: explicit correction / asking another student
15. phonological: recast
16. phonological: repetition / metalinguistic feedback / peer-correction / peer-correction
17. grammatical
18. grammatical: recast
19. grammatical: recast
20. grammatical: explicit correction
21. content: explicit correction
22. phonological
23. phonological
24. grammatical: explicit correction
25. phonological: self-correction
26. phonological: recast
27. phonological: recast
28. grammatical: clarification request / negation / peer-correction / metalinguistic feedback / peer-correction / explicit correction
29. phonological: recast
30. phonological: recast
31. grammatical: repetition / metalinguistic feedback
32. phonological: recast
33. phonological: peer-correction / recast

TEACHER A, LESSON 11

Number of errors: 27 (1 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 39 (Teacher corrections: 33 / Student corrections: 6)
Student Acceptance: 16
Teacher Confirmation: 13
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 18

1. lexical: translation / clarification request / repetition / peer-correction
2. phonological: recast
3. grammatical: clarification request / repetition / metalinguistic feedback / peer-correction / elicitation
4. lexical: elicitation / peer-correction
5. phonological: recast
6. grammatical: recast
7. grammatical: elicitation
8. grammatical: clarification request / peer-correction / self correction
9. grammatical: repetition / explicit correction
10. grammatical: explicit correction
11. lexical: explicit correction
12. grammatical: explicit correction
13. grammatical: recast
14. phonological: recast
15. grammatical: explicit correction
16. lexical: explicit correction
17. lexical: metalinguistic feedback
18. grammatical: translation
19.content: metalinguistic feedback / metalinguistic feedback / metalinguistic feedback
20. grammatical: repetition / peer-correction / metalinguistic feedback
21. phonological: recast
22. phonological: recast
23. grammatical: metalinguistic feedback
24. grammatical: explicit correction
25. use of L1 unsolicited by the teacher: recast
26. grammatical: recast
27. grammatical

TEACHER A, LESSON 12

Number of errors: 26 (2 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 37 (Teacher corrections: 34 / Student corrections: 3)
Student Acceptance: 7
Teacher Confirmation: 7
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 14

1. phonological: recast
2. grammatical: recast
3. grammatical: recast
4. grammatical: recast
5. grammatical
6. use of L1 unsolicited by the teacher: recast
7. content: metalinguistic feedback
8. grammatical: recast
9. grammatical: repetition / explicit correction / peer-correction / metalinguistic feedback
10. grammatical: recast
11. phonological
12. grammatical: explicit correction
13. lexical: recast
14. grammatical: recast / metalinguistic feedback
15. grammatical: metalinguistic feedback
16. lexical: metalinguistic feedback
17. grammatical: metalinguistic feedback
18. grammatical: repetition / translation / explicit correction
19. grammatical: clarification request / metalinguistic correction
20. grammatical: explicit correction + metalinguistic feedback
21. lexical: clarification request / explicit correction / recast
22. grammatical: asking another student / peer-correct / metalinguistic feedback
23. grammatical: peer-correct
24. grammatical: explicit correction
25. grammatical: metalinguistic feedback / recast
26. grammatical: recast

TEACHER A, LESSON 13

Number of errors: 19 (2 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 25 (Teacher corrections: 20 / Student corrections: 5)
Student Acceptance: 5
Teacher Confirmation: 6
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 32

1. use of L1 unsolicited by the teacher: metalinguistic feedback
2. grammatical: recast
3. grammatical: recast
4. phonological: recast
5. lexical: metalinguistic feedback / peer-correction
6. lexical: elicitation
7. lexical: metalinguistic feedback / peer-correction
8. lexical: recast / metalinguistic feedback
9. lexical: peer-correction / recast
10. phonological: recast
11. grammatical: metalinguistic feedback
12. grammatical
13. grammatical: explicit correction
14. phonological: recast
15. grammatical: negation / recast
16. phonological: recast
17. phonological
18. grammatical: asking another student / peer-correction
19. grammatical: metalinguistic feedback / elicitation / self-correction

TEACHER A, LESSON 14

Number of errors: 26 (3 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 42 (Teacher corrections: 38 / Student corrections: 4)
Student Acceptance: 8
Teacher Confirmation: 9
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 49

1. phonological
2. phonological
3. phonological
4. phonological: recast
5. phonological: recast
6. grammatical: recast
7. content: clarification request / explicit correction / metalinguistic feedback
8. phonological: recast
9. content: metalinguistic feedback / explicit correction
10. lexical: asking another student / asking another student
11. content: asking another student / asking another student / peer-correction / explicit correction / explicit correction
12. grammatical: repetition / asking another student / peer-correction
13. lexical: repetition / peer-correction
14. lexical: repetition / peer-correction
15. phonological: recast
16. grammatical: repetition / metalinguistic feedback
17. grammatical: repetition + clarification request
18. phonological: elicitation / recast
19. content: metalinguistic feedback / elicitation
20. content: repetition / negation
21. phonological: recast
22. phonological: clarification request / recast
23. content: repetition / metalinguistic feedback
24. content: metalinguistic feedback
25. content: repetition
26. phonological: recast

TEACHER A, LESSON 15

Number of errors: 27 (3 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 46 (Teacher corrections: 39 / Student corrections: 7)
Student Acceptance: 10
Teacher Confirmation: 7
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 36

1. content: peer-correction / metalinguistic feedback
2. phonological: recast
3. grammatical: recast
4. grammatical:repetition / elicitation / peer-correction
5. grammatical: repetition / elicitation / self-correction
6. grammatical: explicit correction
7. grammatical: recast
8. grammatical: recast
9. phonological: recast
10. grammatical: recast + metalinguistic feedback
11. lexical: repetition / peer-correction / metalinguistic feeedback
12. content: repetition + metalinguistic feedback / metalinguistic feedback
13. use of L1 unsolicited by the teacher: repetition + clarification request / repetition / repetition
14. grammatical
15. grammatical
16. lexical: repetition + elicitation / peer-correction
17. content: metalinguistic feedback / metalinguistic feedback / negation + metalinguistic feedback
/ metalinguistic feedback
18. phonological
19. phonological: repetition
20. content: recast
21. phonological: recast
22. content: recast
23. phonological: recast
24. phonological: explicit correction
25. phonological: recast
26. content: metalinguistic feedback / peer-correction / peer-correction
27. content: negation + metalinguistic feedback

TEACHER B , LESSON 1

Number of errors: 26 (4 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 32 (Teacher corrections: 30 / Student corrections: 2)
Student Acceptance: 10
Teacher Confirmation: 5
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 26

1. phonological: elicitation / peer-correction
2. phonological
3. phonological: recast
4. phonological: recast
5. phonological
6. phonological: recast
7. grammatical: explicit correction
8. grammatical: recast+metalinguistic feedback
9. grammatical: recast
10. grammatical: recast+metalinguistic feedback / metalinguistic feedback
11. phonological
12. lexical: recast
13. grammatical: recast+metalinguistic feedback
14. phonological: recast
15. phonological: recast
16. phonological: recast
17. phonological: recast
18. content: negation+metalinguistic feedback
19. grammatical: recast
20. grammatical: negation
21. grammatical: elicitation
22. grammatical: recast+metalinguistic feedback
23. lexical: negation+elicitation
24. phonological
25. lexical:peer-correction / negation+explicit correction
26. phonological: recast

TEACHER B , LESSON 2

Number of errors: 54 (26 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 43 (Teacher corrections: 35 / Student corrections: 8)
Student Acceptance: 12
Teacher Confirmation: 6
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 28

1. phonological
2. phonological: self-correction
3. phonological
4. phonological
5. phonological
6. phonological: recast
7. lexical
8. phonological: self-correction
9. phonological: recast
10. phonological: recast
11. phonological
12. phonological
13. grammatical: negation+recast / metalinguistic feedback
14. phonological
15. grammatical: recast+metalinguistic feedback
16. grammatical: negation / peer-correction / recast
17. phonological
18. lexical: elicitation / peer-correction
19. phonological: recast
20. phonological
21. phonological
22. phonological: self-correction
23. lexical: negation+recast+asking another student / peer-correction / translation
24. phonological
25. lexical:negation / elicitation / recast
26. lexical: recast
27. phonological
28. phonological: self-correction
29. grammatical: recast
30. grammatical: recast+metalinguistic feedback
31. phonological
32. phonological
33. phonological
34. phonological
35. phonological
36. phonological: recast
37. phonological
38. phonological: recast
39. phonological
40. lexical: self-correction
41. phonological: recast
42. phonological: recast
43. lexical: translation+metalinguistic feedback
44. phonological
45. phonological: recast
46. phonological: recast
47. phonological
48. phonological
49. phonological
50. phonological
51. phonological
52. phonological: recast / recast

53. phonological: recast
54. phonological: recast

TEACHER B , LESSON 3

Number of errors: 27 (2 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 44 (Teacher corrections: 37 / Student corrections: 7)
Student Acceptance: 13
Teacher Confirmation: 11
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 35

1. Phonological
2. Phonological
3. Lexical: negation / peer-correction.
4. Phonological: self-correction.
5. Lexical: negation + metalinguistic feedback / peer-correction.
6. Phonological: recast.
7. Phonological: recast.
8. Phonological: recast.
9. Lexical: metalinguistic feedback.
10. Lexical: negation / peer-correction
11. Lexical: peer-correction / elicitation
12. Lexical: recast.
13. Lexical: recast.
14. Content: peer-correction
15. Lexical: negation + metalinguistic feedback
16. Lexical: negation + metalinguistic feedback / metalinguistic feedback / peer-correction / recast.
17. Phonological: recast.
18. Lexical: negation + elicitation.
19. Lexical: negation + elicitation + recast / metalinguistic feedback / recast.
20. Grammatical: recast.
21. Lexical: negation + metalinguistic feedback + recast.
22. Grammatical: negation + metalinguistic feedback
23. Grammatical: recast.
24. Grammatical: recast.
25. Grammatical: recast
26. Grammatical: recast
27. Grammatical: recast + metalinguistc feedback.

TEACHER B , LESSON 4

Number of errors: 80 (32 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 59 (Teacher corrections: 43 / Student corrections: 16)
Student Acceptance: 36
Teacher Confirmation: 8
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 23

1. Phonological.
2. Grammatical: recast.
3. Phonological: self-correction.
4. Phonological:
5. Grammatical: self-correction.
6. Phonological
7. Phonological
8. Phonological
9. Grammatical: recast.
10. Phonological
11. Grammatical: metalinguistic feedback / explicit correction.
12. Phonological
13. Lexical: recast.
14. Grammatical: self-correction.
15. Grammatical: recast.
16. Grammatical: recast / recast + translation.
17. Phonological
18. Lexical: recast / metalinguistic feedback / translation.
19. Grammatical: recast.
20. Lexical: elicitation.
21. Lexical: negation + translation / recast.
22. Grammatical: recast.
23. Phonological: recast
24. Grammatical: negation / recast.
25. Grammatical: recast / recast.
26. Grammatical: recast.
27. Grammatical: recast.
28. Content: self-correction.
29. Phonological
30. Phonological
31. Phonological
32. Phonological
33. Phonological
34. Phonological
35. Phonological
36. Phonological
37. Phonological
38. Phonological
39. Phonological: self-correction.
40. Grammatical: recast.
41. Phonological: recast.
42. Phonological: self-correction.
43. Grammatical: recast.
44. Phonological: self-correction.
45. Grammatical: recast.
46. Phonological: recast.
47. Phonological
48. Grammatical: self-correction.
49. Phonological
50. Grammatical: self-correction.
51. Content: metalinguistic feedback.
52. Grammatical: recast.

53. Phonological
54. Lexical: recast.
55. Lexical: recast.
56. Content: self-correction.
57. Phonological
58. Phonological: recast.
59. Phonological
60. Lexical: self-correction.
61. Lexical: recast.
62. Grammatical: self-correction.
63. Lexical: recast.
64. Lexical: recast.
65. Lexical: recast.
66. Lexical: asking another student / peer-correction.
67. Grammatical: self-correction.
68. Grammatical: peer-correction/ recast.
69. Lexical: recast.
70. Phonological
71. Phonological
72. Phonological
73. Phonological
74. Phonological
75. Phonological
76. Phonological
77. Phonological
78. Phonological: self-correction.
79. Phonological
80. Phonological

TEACHER B , LESSON 5

Number of errors: 9 (1 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 11 (Teacher corrections: 10 / Student corrections: 1)
Student Acceptance: 1
Teacher Confirmation: 1
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 3

1. Grammatical: recast.
2. Lexical: metalinguistic feedback + clarification request.
3. Lexical: explicit correction.
4. Phnological: recast.
5. Lexical
6. Lexical: metalinguistic feedback.
7. Grammatical: metalinguistic feedback.
8. Grammatical: recast.
9. Grammatical: elicitation / peer-correction / metalinguistic feedback.

TEACHER B , LESSON 6

Number of errors: 45 (29 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 17 (Teacher corrections: 15 / Student corrections: 2)
Student Acceptance: 16
Teacher Confirmation: 3
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 3

1. Phonological
2. Phonological
3. Lexical: clarification request / recast.
4. Lexical: recast.
5. Lexical: self-correction.
6. Grammatical
7. Lexical: recast.
8. Lexical: recast.
9. Lexical: recast.
10. Phonological
11. Phonological
12. Phonological
13. Phonological
14. Lexical: recast.
15. Phonological
16. Phonological
17. Phonological
18. Lexical
19. Lexical
20. Grammatical
21. Lexical
22. Lexical
23. Lexical: recast.
24. Phonological
25. Phonological
26. Phonological
27. Lexical: self-correction.
28. Lexical: recast.
29. Lexical
30. Grammatical
31. Lexical: recast.
32. Lexical: recast.
33. Lexical: recast.
34. Lexical: recast.
35. Phonological
36. Phonological
37. Phonological
38. Phonological
39. Lexical: recast.
40. Lexical
41. Lexical: recast.
42. Phonological
43. Phonological
44. Grammatical
45. Lexical

TEACHER B , LESSON 7

Number of errors: 20 (10 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 13 (Teacher correction: 10 / Student correction: 3)
Student Acceptance: 6
Teacher Confirmation: 3
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 13

1. lexical
2. lexical: peer-correction / recast / peer-correction
3. phonological: recast
4. phonological
5. phonological
6. phonological: recast
7. phonological
8. phonological
9. phonological
10. grammatical: recast
11. phonological
12. grammatical: recast
13. phonological
14. use of L1 unsolicited by the teacher: recast
15. lexical: recast
16. lexical
17. lexical: negation / peer-correction
18. grammatical: recast
19. lexical: recast
20. phonological

TEACHER B , LESSON 8

Number of errors: 47 (28 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 26 (Teacher correction: 20 / Student correction: 6)
Student Acceptance: 11
Teacher Confirmation: 5
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 8

1. phonological
2. phonological
3. phonological
4. phonological
5. lexical: self-correction
6. phonological
7. phonological
8. phonological
9. phonological
10. phonological: self-correction
11. phonological
12. phonological
13. phonological
14. lexical: recast
15. phonological: self-correction
16. phonological: recast
17. phonological: recast
18. phonological
19. grammatical: recast
20. lexical: negation+recast
21. phonological
22. lexical: recast
23. phonological
24. phonological
25. phonological
26. phonological
27. grammatical: recast
28. phonological
29. lexical
30. phonological
31. lexical
32. phonological
33. phonological
34. grammatical: recast
35. grammatical: recast
36. phonological
37. grammatical: recast
38. phonological
39. phonological
40. grammatical: clarification request
41. grammatical
42. grammatical: self-correction
43. grammatical: recast
44. phonological
45. grammatical: clarification request / negation+explicit correction
46. grammatical: asking another student / peer-correction / metalinguistic feedback
47. grammatical: asking another student / peer-correction / metalinguistic feedback

TEACHER B , LESSON 9

Number of errors: 8 (1 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 13 (Teacher correction: 13 / Student correction: 0)
Student Acceptance: 3
Teacher Confirmation: 2
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 17

1. lexical: metalinguistic feedback
2. lexical: negation+ metalinguistic feedback+translation
3. lexical: negation+ translation
4. lexical: negation+ translation
5. lexical: negation+ metalinguistic feedback
6. phonological
7. lexical: explicit correction+ metalinguistic feedback
8. lexical: explicit correction

TEACHER B , LESSON 10

Number of errors: 5 (2 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 6 (Teacher correction: 4 / Student correction: 2)
Student Acceptance: 1
Teacher Confirmation: 1
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 12

1. grammatical: peer-correction / metalinguistic feedback
2. grammatical: recast / recast / metalinguistic feedback
3. grammatical: self-correction
4. grammatical
5. grammatical

TEACHER B , LESSON 11

Number of errors: 14 (0 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 18 (Teacher correction: 16 / Student correction: 2)
Student Acceptance: 4
Teacher Confirmation: 1
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 12

1. Phonological: recast.
2. Content: clarification request / peer-correction.
3. Lexical: recast.
4. Phonological: recast.
5. Phonological: recast.
6. Phonological: self-correction.
7. Grammatical: negation + explicit correction.
8. Grammatical: metalinguistic feedback.
9. Grammatical: elicitation / explicit correction.
10. Lexical: elicitation.
11. Lexical: elicitation.
12. Grammatical: metalinguistic feedback.
13. Lexical: clarification request / explicit correction.
14. phonological: recast

TEACHER B , LESSON 12

Number of errors: 44 (16 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 34 (Teacher correction: 32 / Student correction: 2)
Student Acceptance: 11
Teacher Confirmation: 2
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 21

1. Phonological.
2. Phonological.
3. Phonological: recast.
4. Phonological: recast.
5. Lexical: negation + metalinguistic feedback.
6. Phonological: recast.
7. Phonological
8. Phonological
9. Phonological
10. Phonological: recast.
11. Lexical: explicit correction / translation.
12. Lexical: elicitation / metalinguistic feedback.
13. Phonological
14. Phonological: recast.
15. Lexical: self-correction.
16. Phonological: recast.
17. Phonological: recast.
18. Lexical: translation / recast / translation.
19. Phonological
20. Phonological
21. Phonological
22. Lexical: recast.
23. Lexical: translation.
24. Lexical: recast.
25. Lexical: recast.
26. Lexical: peer-correction.
27. Lexical: recast.
28. Lexical: recast.
29. Phonological: recast.
30. Phonological
31. Phonological
32. Grammatical
33. Lexical: recast.
34. Lexical: recast.
35. Phonological
36. Phonological
37. Phonological
38. Phonological
39. Lexical: recast.
40. Lexical: recast.
41. Grammatical: elicitation / recast.
42. Grammatical: metalinguistic feedback
43. Lexical: metalinguistic feedback
44. Grammatical: metalinguistic feedback

TEACHER B , LESSON 13

Number of errors: 95 (56 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 45 (Teacher correction: 42 / Student correction: 3)
Student Acceptance: 25
Teacher Confirmation: 12
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 20

1. Lexical: recast.
2. Content: recast.
3. Lexical: self-correction.
4. Phonological: recast.
5. Phonological
6. Phonological: self-correction.
7. Phonological
8. Phonological
9. Phonological
10. Phonological
11. Phonological
12. Phonological
13. Phonological
14. Phonological: recast.
15. Phonological
16. Phonological
17. Phonological
18. Phonological
19. Phonological
20. Lexical: negation + elicitation.
21. Phonological
22. Phonological: recast.
23. Phonological
24. Phonological: recast.
25. Phonological
26. Phonological
27. Phonological
28. Phonological
29. Lexical: negation.
30. Phonological: elicitation.
31. Phonological
32. Phonological
33. Phonological
34. Lexical: negation.
35. Phonological: recast.
36. Phonological
37. Phonological
38. Phonological
39. Phonological: recast.
40. Phonological
41. Phonological
42. Lexical: recast.
43. Phonological: recast.
44. Phonological
45. Phonological
46. Phonological
47. Phonological
48. Phonological
49. Phonological
50. Phonological
51. Phonological
52. Phonological

53. Lexical: recast.
54. Phonological
55. Lexical: negation + recast.
56. Phonological
57. Phonological
58. Phonological
59. Lexical: self-correction.
60. Content
61. Phonological: recast.
62. Phonological: recast.
63. Phonological
64. Phonological
65. Phonological
66. Phonological: recast.
67. Lexical: recast.
68. Lexical: negation.
69. Lexical: negation.
70. Phonological
71. Phonological
72. Phonological
73. Phonological
74. Phonological
75. Phonological
76. Lexical: negation.
77. Phonological
78. Phonological: recast.
79. Lexical: recast.
80. Phonological: recast.
81. Phonological
82. Phonological
83. Lexical: recast.
84. Phonological
85. Lexical: recast.
86. Phonological
87. Phonological
88. Phonological: recast.
89. Lexical: recast / translation.
90. Phonological: recast.
91. Lexical: recast.
92. Lexical: clarification request.
93. Lexical: negation + metalinguistic feedback.
94. Lexical: recast.
95. Phonological: negation + recast + metalinguistic feedback.

TEACHER B , LESSON 14

Number of errors: 31 (8 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 33 (Teacher correction: 33 / Student correction: 0)
Student Acceptance: 12
Teacher Confirmation: 10
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 17

1. Phonological
2. Phonological
3. Phonological
4. Grammatical: elicitation / elicitation.
5. Phonological
6. Grammatical: metalinguistic feedback.
7. Grammatical: recast.
8. Lexical: recast.
9. Phonological: recast / recast.
10. Grammatical: explicit correction / metalinguistic feedback.
11. Phonological: recast.
12. Grammatical: recast / metalinguistic feedback.
13. Phonological: recast.
14. Grammatical: recast.
15. Content: elicitation / elicitation.
16. Phonological: clarification request.
17. Grammatical: elicitation / elicitation.
18. Grammatical
19. Grammatical: negation.
20. Grammatical
21. Content: negation + explicit correction + elicitation.
22. Phonological: recast.
23. Phonological
24. Grammatical: elicitation.
25. Grammatical: recast.
26. Grammatical: recast.
27. Grammatical: negation + recast.
28. Grammatical: metalinguistic feedback + elicitation.
29. Grammatical: recast.
30. Phonological
31. Lexical: recast.

TEACHER B , LESSON 15

Number of errors: 46 (21 uncorrected)
Number of corrections: 28 (Teacher correction: 23 / Student correction: 5)
Student Acceptance: 21
Teacher Confirmation: 10
Teacher Confirmation out of error: 7

1. Grammatical: negation.
2. Grammatical: negation.
3. Grammatical: negation / peer-correction.
4. Grammatical: recast.
5. Grammatical: recast.
6. Phonological
7. Grammatical: recast.
8. Phonological
9. Grammatical: self-correction.
10. Phonological
11. Grammatical: recast.
12. Phonological: recast.
13. Grammatical: self-correction.
14. Phonological
15. Grammatical: recast
16. Grammatical: negation + metalinguistic feedback.
17. Phonological
18. Phonological
19. Phonological
20. Grammatical: recast.
21. Phonological
22. Phonological
23. Phonological: recast.
24. Phonological
25. Lexical: recast.
26. Grammatical: recast.
27. Grammatical: explicit correction.
28. Phonological: recast.
29. Content: recast.
30. Phonological
31. Grammatical: elicitation.
32. Phonological
33. Phonological
34. Phonological
35. Phonological
36. Phonological
37. Phonological
38. Grammatical: recast.
39. Phonological
40. Grammatical: recast / metalinguistic feedback.
41. Phonological
42. Phonological
43. Phonological
44. Grammatical: self-correction
45. Grammatical: self-correction.
46. Grammatical: recast.

10. APPENDIX D. CLASS TRANSCRIPTIONS

Class Transcriptions Teacher A (4<u>th</u> of E.S.O.)

(Lesson 1) 4th B February, 27<u>th</u>, 2002

T: o.k. Sergio! Fernando! Sergio! Alejandro!

S: yo!

T: Stand up, we are going to pray... O.k. Are you ready?

T and Ss: our father in heaven, hallowed be Your name, Your kingdom come, Your will be done, on earth as it is in heaven, give us this day our daily bread and forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors and do not lead us into temptation, but deliver us from the evil one, for Yours is the kingdom and the power and the glory forever. Amen.

S: Amen.

T3: Instructions

T: Shsss.. O.k.... Now, open your books...Shsss... Can you please open your books? We are on page 66...Is there anyone missing?

S: Merce

(Error 1)

T: Merce... What day is today? **(Q)**

S: veintisiete **(A)**

T: twenty-seventh...o.k., now, I told you to read the text, I told you to read the text... **(F)**

S: ¿tienes los exámenes?

T: no, I don´t, next day, maybe. O.k. I told you ... Nati!

S: María, la taula està plena de pols...

S: (...) esta clase

S: no limpian, eh.

(Error 2)

T: go down to Puri and ask for a dust cleaner, o.k.? Now... shsss... I told you to read the text about Agatha Christie on page 66 and then you had to answer the three questions, but you couldn't use the dictionary, remember? You couldn't use the dictionary.

T1: Communicative task

Now, question A, Sergio. **(Q)**

S: what /kind/ of.. **(A)**

T: kind of stories **(F)**

S: (...) detective

(Error 3)

T: detective novels or detective stories, o.k., very good. Question B... Adela. **(Q)**

S: (...) **(A)**

T: you have to say.. not what kind of characters, the **name** of the famous characters... Alicia **(F)**

S: Hercule P..

T: Poirot

S: and Miss Marple

T: and Miss Marple, o.k., very good, those are the two famous characters: Hercule Poirot and Miss Marple, o.k.? Now, question C, Marta.

S: 1976

T: 1976, very good. Now, is there any word you don't understand in this text? Was there any word, when you were reading it, that you didn't understand?

S: all

T: all of them? O.k. Alejandro

S: yo

´T3: Instructions

T: you are going to read the first paragraph, and then you will ask me the words you don't know.

S: yo?

T: yes

S: (…)

T: o.k. words you don't understand

S: very good

T: sorry ?... very good? O.k., what you don't understand... are there any words in this first paragraph you don't understand?...O.k., now

S: (...)

T: sorry?

S: (...)

T: in the same year

S: (...)

T: but you couldn't use the dictionary

S: que?

T: you couldn't...

S: ¿no podía mirarlo?

T: no...

S: ah! Yo pensaba que me estabas diciendo: no sale, y yo digo anda que no, en el de mi prima...

T: you couldn't use it.

S: ah, vale,vale

T: O.k., First World War is Primera Guerra Mundial... o.k. second paragraph

S: airforce

(Errors 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10)

T: airforce? Las fuerzas aéreas. O.k., Pablo, second paragraph **(Q)**

S: during the war Agatha worked, worked as a /nurs/ . While she was working in a hospital, Agatha wrote her first /detek'tiv/ novel. Although she completed it in a year, it wasn't /publi∫ed/ until five years later, in 1920. It was called *The /mysterious/ Affair at Styles* and it /introduθed/ the /detek'tiv/ Hercule Poirot who become a world famous character. **(A)**

T: o.k., any questions here?... any questions here?

S: Styles

T: Styles is the name of a place,...it's the name of a place

(Errors 11 and 12)

S: /until/ **(Q)**

T: until? Does anyone know the word **until**? **(A/F)**

S: inútil **(A)**

T: no, it is related to time **(F)**

S: hasta **(A)**

T: but it is hasta, very good... words? **(F/Conf)**

S: character

T: character?

S: ¿personaje?

(Error 13)

T: yes... o.k. fourth paragraph, Lorena. **(Q)**

S: In 1927 her husband left her and Agatha /disapeared/, /disapeared/ **(A)**

T: disappeared (F)

S: disappeared.] **(Acc)**

(Errors 14 and 15)
[When the police found her three weeks later in a small /otel/, she had lost her memory. Four, four years later she married Max Mallowman, an arch... archeolo... **(A)**
T: archaelogist (F)
S: archaelogist.] **(Acc)**

(Errors 16 and 17)
[She had met him some months before on a trip to /mesopotamia/. Also in nineteen /θirti/, thirty **(A/Self-correction)**
T: very good **(Conf)**

(Error 18)
S: Agatha wrote *Murder at the Vicar...Vicar...* **(A)**
T: vicarage (F)
S: *Vicarage*] **(Acc)**

(Error 19)
[with another famous detective, Miss Marple. Miss Marple is an old lady from a small English /vilaðʒ/ who...**(A)**
T: village (F)
S: village who solves mysteries and murders. **(Acc)**

(Error 20)
T: o.k. there are only two lines, so you can finish. **(Q)**
S: in total Agatha Christie wrote over 67 novels and numerous **(A)**
S: 66 **(F)**
T: 66 **(F)**
S: 66, me he equivocado,] **(Acc)**

(Error 21)
[novels and numerous short /histor/ **(A)**
T: stories (F)
S: stories] **(Acc)**

(Errors 22, 23, 24 and 25)
[and several of her books later became /sukθesful/ films. She /died/ in 1976, at /ðe/ age of 86, seventy.. **(A/A/A/A)**
T: o.k.
S: eighty-six **(Self-correction)**
T: eighty-six, very good.] **(Conf)**

[Now, questions about this last paragraph
S: several
T: does anyone know the word several?
S: ¿varios?
T: varios, very good
S: vicarage
S: a church
T: vicarage? It's like a kind of church, yes
S: successful?
T: successful, anyone? No? De éxito, success means éxito, successful: exitoso, de éxito, que tiene éxito
S: solve
S: resolver
T: resolver,yes, very good Pablo
S: murder
S: asesinato

(Error 26)

T3: Instructions
T: murder, asesinato, yes. More words? No more words, o.k. now, we are going to do activity 5, on page 67. We have some pictures about... Agatha Christie's life, do you see them in activity 5? But they are **not** in order. You have to order the pictures according to the text, according to the story the text tells us. Do you understand? About Agatha Christie's life, but they are not in chronological order, they are not in the correct order. So, we are going to put them in order. Which one do you think it's the first one?... O.k., you have to think about the order in her life, not in the way they appear in the text, in her life, O.k.? **(Q)**

T1: Communicative task
S: (...) **(A)**
T: It's not the first one, because... **(F)**
S: e, e, **(F)**
T: **before** becoming a nurse, o.k. she marries, so, it's picture e... before she becomes a nurse, she had marrried, o.k.? e, then? **(F)**

S: c
T: c, o.k., e, c,
S: a
T: a
S: a que es a, no?
T: yes
S: f
S: f
T: f
S: d
S: d
T: d
S: and b

T3: Instructions
T: and b, very good, so, it's e, c, a, f, d, and b. O.k.? Now, that is the order in which these events took place in her life.O.k.? First she got married, she became a nurse, she wrote stories, her husband left, then her husband was found and she went to work with an archaelogist, right? Now, activity 6, on this same page, page 67, is about writing. You know there is a writing part in every unit, o.k.? In this part you are going to find examples of Past Continuous, Past Perfect and Past Simple. Those are the three tenses we are studying in this unit: Past Continuous, Past Perfect, Past Simple. So, we are going to look for examples in the text. You can underline examples of Past Continuous, Past Perfect, Past Simple. You are going to write...PC by the examples, o.k?(writes on the BB) Past Continuous, Past Perfectand Past Simple. You are going to write that besides the examples, in the text, o.k.? so, now, first paragraph: Agatha Christie was born in Devon, England in 1890. Any examples of a past form?
S: was born

T2: Linguistic task
(Error 27)
T: was born, and what is it? Past Continuous, Past Perfect,or Past Simple? **(Q)**
S: Past Perfect **(A)**
T: Past Perfect? **(F)**
Ss: no! Past Simple! **(F)**
T: Past Simple, o.k. Her real name was Agatha Miller and she was the youngest of three children... **(Conf)**

S: ¿qué es? ¿pasado qué?
T: Past Simple. The second sentence.
S: Past Simple
S. was
T: Past Simple: was and was, o.k. Agatha did not go to school because her parents had decided that they...

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S: ¿dónde estás?

T: wanted her to have classes at home. Third line. Everyboby in the correct place, we are reading the first paragraph, o.k.? Now, there are more than one verb in this line. Agatha did not go to school

S: Past Simple

T: Past Simple. Because her parents had decided

T: Past Perfect

S: Past (...) ah, no.

T: Past Perfect, very good. That they wanted her.

S: Past Simple

T: Past Simple, o.k. In 1914 the First World War started.

S: Past Simple

T: Past Simple. And in the same year Agatha married Archie Christie, an airforce pilot.

S: Past Simple.

T: Past Simple, o.k.Second paragraph. During the war Agatha worked as a nurse.

S: Past Simple

T: Past Simple. While she was working in a hospital

Ss: Past Continuous

T: Past Continuous. Agatha wrote her first detective novel

S: Past Simple

T: Past Simple. Although she completed it in a year...

S: Past Simple

(Errors 28 and 29)
T: it wasn't published until five years later **(Q)**
S: Past continuous o pasado Perfect de ese **(A)**
S: Past Perfect **(A)**
T: no **(F)**
S: Past simple **(F)**
T: It's Past Simple, but... **(F)**
S:¿es(...)? **(Q)**
T: no,o.k., it wasn't published, that is in the Past Simple,] **(F)**

[but there are two verb forms, why?... **it wasn't published**... what happens with this sentence?... **it wasn't published**...it is the Past Simple form, but it has two..

S: (...)

T: published? It's a past participle. So, why do they use a past participle? Think. It was in the grammar of the other test, the other exam. Think about it, it's a past participle. So...

S: yes

T: what could it be?...It was for the grammar for the other test, it was in the grammar of the other test

S: fue publicado

(Error 30)
T: no fue publicado, that's in Spanish, o.k? what is that? **(Q)**
S: because Past Continuous **(A)**
T: it's not Past Continuous, it's Past Simple **(F)**
S: Past Simple **(Acc)**
T: but... but **(F)**
S: because **(A)**
S: pasiva **(A)**

T: pasiva, very good, it's the passive, yes. It's past Simple in the passive, that is why there is a past participle: published. Very good, Alicia... A passive sentence because it has a past participle and , it wasn't published, it is the book, they didn't publish the book, the book wasn't published by them. Do you understand María? O.k. Now, it was called *The Mysterious Affair at Styles* and introduced the detective Hercule Poirot who became a world famous character. **(Conf)**

S: Past Simple

T: Past Simple, all of them, yes. In 1926 her husband left her and Agatha disappeared.

S: Past Simple

T: Past Simple. When the police found her three weeks later in a small hotel...
S: Past Simple
T: Past Simple. She had lost her memory.
S: Past Perfect
T: Past Perfect, very good. Third paragraph.
S: ¿dónde?
S: (...)
T: Four years later, she married Max Mallowman, an archaelogist.
S: Past Simple
S: Past Simple..
T: Past Simple. She had met him some time before on a trip to Mesopotamia.
Ss: Past Perfect.
T: Past Perfect, very good. Also in 1930, Agatha wrote *Murder at the Vicarage* with another famous detective: Miss Marple.
S: Past Simple

(Error 31)
T: Past Simple. Miss Marple is an old lady from a small English village who solves mysteries and murders. **(Q)**
S: Past Simple **(A)**
T: Past Simple? Are you sure? **(F)**
Ss: no! **(F)**
S: presente **(F)**
T: Present Simple. O.k. You are repeating Past Simple all the time and you don't pay attention. In total Agatha Christie wrote over 66 novels **(Conf)**

S: Past Simple

(Error 32)

T1: Communicative task
T: and numerous short stories **(Q)**
S: Past Simple **(A)**
T: I haven't said any verb now **(F)**

S: bien, Paco, bien
T: and several of her books later became succesful films.
S: (...)
T: became, Past Simple. She died in 1976 at the age of 86
S: Past Simple.
T: o.k. Which is the tense we have found many times?
S: Past Simple

T3: Instructions
T: when we write a story in the past, Past Simple is the most common tense, then we can use sometimes Past Continuous and sometimes Past Perfect. But the most frequent is the Past Simple, cause we are saying a story in the past, right?, and we are saying when it happened. If you say when, in 1976 or in 1890, if you specify the date, the time, then you use the Past Simple. O.k.? Now look at activity 7. Here we find some notes, o.k? These notes are about Arthur Conan Doyle. Do you know Arthur Conan Doyle? 67 Do you know Arthur Conan Doyle? Do you know anything about him? Do you know anything about Arthur Conan Doyle?

T1: Communicative task
S: yes
T: do you know him?
S: yes
T: who is he?
S: un escritor
T: he's a writer...
S: pero que aquí no está

T: Arthur Conan Doyle
S: ah!

(Error 33)
T: activity 7, o.k.? Er, is he very famous? **(Q)**
S: no **(A)**
T: not very famous? **(F)**
S: yes **(F)**
T: yes? **(F)**
S: yes **(F)**
T: What did he write? Why is he famous?...He wrote about Sherlock Holmes, he created Sherlock Holmes, the character Sherlock Holmes. **(F)**
S: ah! **(Acc)**
T: and he wrote several novels about Sherlock Holmes. O.k., do you know anything about Sherlock Holmes? Who is he? **(F)**

Ss: a detective
T: a detective. Where does he live?
S: in London
T: in London. Does he have an assistant?
S: yes
T: what was his name?
S: doctor..
T: doctor... he always says a sentence, a famous sentence
S: Watson
S: Watson
T: elemental querido Watson
S: yeah

T3: Instructions
T: and so, Dr. Watson is the name of his assistant. O.k., now, we are going to read the notes and then you are going to use , shss, you are going to use the Past Simple, the Past Continuous or the Past Perfect to write that story. If you see the notes: Arthur Conan Doyle be born in Scotland in 1859. When be 18, go to Edinburgh University.O.k.? The verbs are infinitives, you have to write them in the form of Past Simple, Past Perfect or Past Continuous, o.k.? So, the first one: Arthur Conan Doyle...

T1: Communicative task
S: was born
S: was born
T: was born, very good, was born, in Scotland in 1859.
S: it's the Past Simple
T: yes
S: yes
T: when...
S: he was
T: he was 18, when he was 18...
S: went

(Error 34)
T: he went, very good, to Edinburgh University...**(Q)**
S: he decided **(A)**
T: he decided no, if he went to university...first he decides to become a doctor, first he decides to become a doctor and then he goes to university, so, become, oh sorry, decide **(F)**
S: had decided **(Self-correction)**
T: had decided, very good Marta.] **(Conf)**

(Error 35)
[He had decided to become a doctor at the age of four...While... **(Q)**
S: he was /studiŋ/ **(A)**

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T: he was **studying**, while he was studying at university **(F)**

S: (...)
T: he was studying, what tense is that?
S:Past Continuous
T: Past Continuous, he was studying. He have idea for a book
S: he had
T: He had an idea for a book. After...
S: he had finished
T: he had finished university, after he had finished university, move to the south of England
S: he moved

(Error 36)
T: he moved, to the south of England... while... **(Q)**
S: he had lived **(A)**
T: is it in the past Perfect? **(F)**
S: no **(F)**
S: he was living **(Self-correction)**
T: he was living, very good Maria. While he was living there...he wrote his first story about Sherlock Holmes. At the time of his death, in 1930... **(F/Conf)**

S: he had written
T: he had written, very good, four novels and 46 short stories about Holmes. O.k., good.
S: good, good
T: go back to page 65, go back to page 65... Lorena and Nati, go back to page 65
S: ¿ahora tenemos que hacerlo?

T3: Instructions
T: yes, Investigating Vocabulary, on page 65, 3, prefixes, look at these words from the conversation, which part of the words is a prefix? O.k., here we have three words: unusual, disappear, misunderstand. Which part of these words do you think it's the prefix? What about unusual? Do you know what a prefix is? Do you know what a prefix is? What is it?

T2: Linguistic task
S: It's a part of a word that goes before a, the, other word
T: o.k., it's a part of a word that comes before the word and it gives a meaning to the word, for example, unusual, what part is the prefix...and what part is the word?
S: un
S: un
T: o.k.un, (writes on BB) and then usual. What about the other one? Disappear
S: dis
T: (writes on BB)o.k., dis is the prefix, prefix, it's **pre**fix because it comes before, pre...fix, o.k.? Misunderstand.
S: mis
T: (writes on BB)... What is the difference between usual and unusual?
S: es lo contrario
S: lo contrario
T: o.k., it's the opposite, usual, and the opposite is unusual. Appear and disappear
S: the opposite

T3: Instructions
T: it's the opposite too, and understand and misunderstand is the opposite. If you understand someone, you understand correctly, o.k.? They tell you: we will meet at five o'clock, and you go to that place at five o'clock, you understood. But, if you misunderstand, you understand not correctly, right? They say, for example, we'll meet at five, and you go to the place at four, because you didn't understand correctly, and you go to that place at four, instead of five. O.k.? Misuderstand is to understand badly, right? Not to understand, o.k.? So, (points at the BB) un, dis and mis, they are all negative prefixes; they transform the words that come after them in the opposite meaning, they transform the words in their opposites. Do you understand?

T2: Linguistic task

S: yes

T: yes? O.k.? Un, mis and dis transform the words in their opposite meanings, o.k.? Now, we have three other words: dishonest, it's the opposite of honest, what about misread?

S: (...)

(Error 37)

T: o.k., you don't understand something when you read it, and unfriendly...unfriendly... **(Q)**

S: enemigo **(A)**

S: enemigo **(A)**

T: o.k. it's someone that... **(F)**

S: que no es amigo **(F)**

S: que no es simpático **(F)**

T: que no es simpático, very good, que no es simpático, que no es amigable, que no, no es fácil que haga amigos, o.k.? **(Conf)**

S: (...)

T: yes. What about sentence a? Which one of the words could you use in a?...Adela, could you read the sentence and tell me which of the three words...?

S: (...)

T: o.k., very good. Unfriendly is in sentence a. What about sentence b? Inma

S: (...)

T: o.k. dishonest, very good, he never tells the truth. And sentence c... Fernando, sentence c

S: (...)

(Error 38)

T: on sentence c **(Q)**

S: I misread your note, I thought you were arriving at seven **(A)**

T: I misread, very good, **misread** because it is in the past, it's not **misread**, it's **misread**, because this sentence is in the past, o.k.? Now, if you go to your Activity Book now.. **(F)**

S: the activity is finished

T: the activity is not finished, because there is an activity on page 55 we didn't do...o.k., these three prefixes, these three prefixes are not always used with all the words, you can say unusual, but you cannot say disusual. You can say misunderstand, but you cannot say ununderstand, o.k.? Mis goes with understand and goes with read; dis goes with disappear and dishonest; and unusual and unfriendly. O.k.? You cannot change them everywhere, right? So, in this activity, this student here confuses the prefixes. For example, I think you disunderstood the homework, it was page 10, not page 9. Disunderstood is not correct, it's misunderstood, o.k.? So, you are going to work on this for two minutes, and then we are going to correct it. O.k.?

S: si

T: o.k.

S: unhappy

T: but don't say it aloud... any problem María?

S: que estos prefijos ¿cómo sabemos cuál va?

T: (...) and know the words, you just have to learn them, to memorize them, there is no other way. When you read a lot in English, you read books, you read texts, then they go to your mind, but there is no other way. Inma, shut up and work...You just have to write the word, not all the sentence, just the word. Misunderstood, right?, here mishappy, is it mishappy?

S: no

T: what is it?

S: unhappy

T: unhappy [...] o.k., if you have finished, just wait in silence, in silence

S: Adela (...)

S: ya lo sé

T: shss... you finished? Yes?

S: yeah

T: o.k. Pablo.. tell me sentence b

S: unhappy

T: o.k. What was incorrect?

S: mishappy
S: er.. mishappy
T: mishappy is incorrect and... unhappy, o.k., very good... Cristina, c
S: unappeared
T: unappeared is not correct
S. y disappeared is very correct
T: disappeared is very correct, o.k. Now, Alicia... sentence d
S: unread is not correct and misread

(Error 39)
T: O.k. unread is not correct, misread is the correct word. Nati, what about sentence e? **(Q)**
S: unread es misread **(A)**
T: we are in sentence e **(F)**
S: la otra **(F)**
S: (...) **(Acc)**
T: disfriendly, unfriendly, o.k., very good, and the last one, Silvia **(Conf)**

S: mishonest, dishonest
T: mishonest is not correct, dishonest, o.k.... shsss, we have to do activity four on page 56...we have Holmes' diary here, this is a page of Sherlock Holmes' diary, o.k.? What is a diary? What is a diary?
S: it is a place where you write the things that (...)

T3: Instructions
(Error 40)
T: o.k., it is... shsss, Alejandro, if you pay attention to Marta, you will learn something you don't know. She said: a diary is a place, or is a book, where you write the things that happen to you every day, o.k.? That's good. So, we are going to look at: Monday, April, 1st, 1953. And you have to choose between two verbal tenses. We had left or were leaving London the day before and the journey had been long and difficult. The correct verb here is had left, right? What about sentence b? María ... sentence b, we finally... **(Q)**

T1: Communicative task
S: arrived! **(A)**
S: we finally **(A)**
S: arrived! **(A)**
T: Alejandro, I'm asking María **(F)**
S: ah, es que me he confundido... **(Acc)**

(Error 41)
S: were arriving **(A)**
T: were arriving, Alejandro, were arriving, is it correct? **(F)**
S: arrived **(F)**
T: arrived, why? Why, Alejandro? Why did you choose arrived and not were arriving? **(F)**
S: porque lo he traducido **(F)**
S: ha, ha
T: you translated, o.k. It is at eleven p.m., that is, that is a time expression. Can we use were arriving with a time expression? Or should we use arrived with a time expression? **(F)**
S: arrived **(F)**
T: arrived, o.k... O.k., Sergio, sentence c **(Conf)**

S: it was raining...
S: (imitating him) it was rain..., ha, ha, ha
T: shsss
S: it was raining very hard and the wind was blowing
T: o.k., Sergio, very good, it was raining very hard and the wind was blowing, Past Continuous. We knocked on the door, come in said Dr. Jones, welcome to Shifold Castle.
S: castle?
T: what is castle?
Ss: castillo

T: castillo
S: es que (...)
T: Lorena, d.
S: were having
T: Lorena
S:(...)

(Errors 42 and 43)
T: while we were having dinner, very good, Dr. Jones told us about Lord Carter, a rich explorer who... Nati...(...) or lived, what do you think? **(Q)**
S: (...) **(A)**
T: no, Silvia, do you know? **(F)**
S: who...lived? **(A)**
T: lived? **(F)**
S: espera, dice que vivía en el castillo, que había vivido **(Self-correction)**
S: had lived! **(F)**
T: before he died, so, before he died is a past action and this is a past action before another past action **(F)**
S: es que no había terminado de leer la frase **(F)**
T: yes, you have to finish reading before answering, had lived, o.k. Nobody? Inma... continue reading: and : Dr. Jones thought... **(Conf)**

S: had found
T: had found and then, g, is it hid or had hidden?... thought, that is past
S: hid... had hidden

(Error 44)
T: had hidden, o.k. Adela, h: that night while we, talked or were talking? **(Q)**
S: were /talkiŋ/ **(A)**
T: were talking, er, can you repeat the verb? **(F)**
S: were /talkiŋ/ **(A)**
T: were /talkiŋ/? **(F)**
S: talking (F)
S: talking (F)
T: talking, o.k., very good. We... Marta **(F/Conf)**

S: discovered
T: discovered a secret door behind the bookcase. We found the door and entered a small room. In the room, Alicia
S: we found
T: we found an old box with a key, very good. So, do you have any questions about the use of the Past Perfect, Past Continuous or Past Simple?
S: no
T: do you have any question? Anything you don't know?
S. (...) found?
S: (...) qué era?
T: Find, yes

(Error 45)
S: what means (...)? **(Q)**
T: hide, hid hidden **(A)**
S: ah! Golpear **(A)**
T: no, that is hit, hit, hit **(F)**
S: ah! **(Acc)**
T: hide, hid, hidden means esconder. O.k., now we are going to do the Project Work activity. We are working a lot today, I am very happy. We are working a lot today **(F)**

S: ya, es que
T: and yesterday we worked a lot, too. You are very good students, yes. So, this is the last activity we are going to do, right?

S: sí

T: and it is a detective quiz, this is, this is fun, o.k., this is not a boring activity, this is like a game, right?

S: o.k.

T: so, don't look at the answers, please, don't look at the answers and we are going to try to answer the quiz without looking at the answers, right? How much do you know about famous detectives? Read the sentences and decide which of the five detectives below is being described, then read the key. We have five detectives: Colombo, Inspector Gadget, Hercule Poirot, Miss Marple and Sherlock Holmes. Do you know who Hercule Poirot is?

S: te lo he preguntado antes, te lo he preguntado antes

S: (...)

T: Agatha Christie wrote about him, yes. So, we will find the others and then for elimination we will know

S: Colombo

S: ¿y Miss Marple?

T: Miss Marple? Who is Miss Marple?

Ss: de Agatha...

T. Agatha Christie's character

S: ah! Ya

(Error 46)

T: she's an old lady, she's an old lady who lives in an English village, do you remember, the text? Now, this detective always smokes a pipe. Fernando... is it Colombo... **(Q)**

S: /holmes/ **(A)**

T: Inspector Gadget, **(Q)**

S: /holmes/ **(A)**

T: Hercule Poirot, Miss Marple or Sherlock Holmes? **(Q)**

S: no sé quién es **(A)**

S: /holmes/ **(A)**

T: Holmes, o.k. Write Holmes. Later we will correct. Later we will correct all the answers.]

(F)

(Errors 47 and 48)

[Lorena, b. **(Q)**

S: These detectives were /kreated/ by Agatha Christie. Miss Marple. **(A)**

T: these detectives, plural, so it's Miss Marple and... **(F)**

S: and Her.. **(Self-correction)**

T: Hercule Poirot, very good **(F/Conf)**

(Error 49)

S: no! **(A)**

T: c. **(A)**

S: no! Que no es ese **(A)**

T: Alejandro, we will correct later, at the end, o.k.?] **(F)**

(Errors 50, 51 and 52)

[c, Nati **(Q)**

S: espera, this detective can /ðʒang/ parts of his /bodi/... **(A)**

S: Gadget **(A)**

T: shsss **(F)**

S: ... into objects **(A)**

S: Gadget **(A)**

T: (...) Gadget o.k. Adela, this detective always wears an old raincoat **(Conf)**

Ss: (...)

T: shsss

S: Colombo

T: Colombo, probably, we will find later, we will correct later. María, e

S: this detective was an old (...)

(Errors 53 and 54)
T: no? Does anyone know? **(Q)**
S: ¿cuál María? **(Q)**
T: e **(A)**
S: e **(A)**
S: Miss /marple/ **(A)**
Ss: ha, ha
T: Miss **Marple** you think? **(F)**
S: ¿la e, no? **(Q)**
T: probably **(A)**
S: sí, Miss /marple/ **(A)**
T: o.k.,] **(Conf)**

(Errors 55 and 56)
[Alicia, f **(Q)**
S: this detective is from Bel... **(A)**
T: from Belgium, so, it has to have a French pronunciation, because it's from Belgium. **(F)**
S: /ercule poirot/ **(A)**
T: **Hercule Poirot** , o.k., Marta, g, can you read it? **(F/Conf)**

S: This detective has two assistants, his niece and a dog
T: ah, o.k. his niece and a dog. Which one?
S: Inspector Gadget

(Errors 57 and 58)
T: Inspector Gadget, yes, probably. Pablo. **(Q)**
S: this /detektiv/ has an enemy called (...) **(A)**
T: Sherlock **(F)**
S: /holmes/ **(A)**
T: Sherlock Holmes o.k. **(F/Conf)**

S: /holmes/
T: Fernando
S: Colombo
T: i
S: This detective lives in America and smokes cigars
S: Colombo
S: Colombo
T: Colombo, o.k., now, we are going to look at the answers: for a it was Holmes, is that correct?
S: sí
T: yes, b: Poirot and Miss Marple
S: yes
T: is it correct?
S: sí
S: yes
T: c: Inspector Gadget
S: yes
T: Yes, d: Colombo
S: yes
S: yes, yes
T: e: Miss Marple
Ss: yes
T: f: Poirot
Ss: yes
T: g: Gadget
Ss: yes
T: h: Holmes
Ss: yes
T: i: Colombo

Ss: yes

T: Now, do you have, do you have all the answers correct?

S: yes

T. then you are...

S: (...) aquí pone...

T: sorry?

S: ¿ahora te enteras que están las soluciones?

S: no, nada, nada

T: you are between 7 and 10 points, then, o.k.? If you are between 0 and 3 points, it says: you are clearly not interested in detectives. You probably never watch t.v., go to the cinema or read books either. But this is not your case. From 4 to 6: shsss, Silvia, pay attention, you know a bit about detectives, but only the really famous ones. Maybe you prefer other type of stories such as love stories or adventure stories. And now this is yours: you are quite an expert, aren't you? Maybe you will become a famous detective one day. So maybe one of you could be a detective in the future.

S: yes

S: María

T: O.k., María?

S: what is the meaning of (...)?

T: the meaning of ...?

S: raincoat

T: raincoat. O.k., when it rains, you wear a special kind of coat

S: gabar...

T: how do you say?

S: gabardina

T: gabardina, very good. O.k., the class is finished.

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T: ...we are going to pray

S: vale tío!

Ss: (talk)

T: are you ready?

S: go!

T and Ss: our father in heaven, hallowed be Your name, Your kingdom come, Your will be done, on earth as it is in heaven, give us this day our daily bread and forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors and do not lead us into temptation, but deliver us from the evil one, for Yours is the kingdom and the power and the glory forever. Amen.

Ss: (talk)

T3: Instructions

T: o.k., listen! Silvia! If you don't shut up, you will have to copy and translate a text... O.k., now, we are going to do some activities today, I'm going to give you some photocopies...(she counts the copies)

S: 16

T: this line, so it's 8... 1,2,3,4,5,6,7 and 8... wait a minute, please.

T1: Communicative task

S: the exam is for the second term? Is for the second term?

T: o.k., shsss... Silvia is asking me about the exam for next Tuesday, right? Next Tuesday we have an exam, it's going to be for this term, for the second term, because I need to have another mark, I just have one mark, I need to have another mark, two marks, right? And it's going to be about verbs and vocabulary. Verbs are the verbs in your list, right? And the vocabulary is the vocabulary in this unit, it's at the end of the book, o.k.?

(Another T enters the classroom): perdona María,

Ss: (laugh)

T2: demà les xiques teniu que vindre en la mascarilla ficà dels dissabtes

T: oh!

T2: la que no vinga conforme ve els dissabtes a confirmació, no apuja al autobus

S: ale Lorena

T2: tu t'has de fer les ratlles ixes que te fas, pero va en serio, eh? Nos vamos de excursión y nos vamos a Segorbe y vienen otros colegios, como no vengáis con la mascarilla, no sube nadie al autobus

Ss: (laugh and comment)

T2: oye, que vienen los sábados a confirmación que no las conozco

Ss: (comment)

S: don Paco, te están grabando

T2: lleva això!

(The other teacher leaves the classroom)

T: o.k., Silvia, shut up

(The teacher hands in the photocopies)

T: o.k., now, look at that photocopy you have now. O.k., ... you have a photocopy with a title, what is the title...shss, Alejandro!

S: calla

T: Alejandro!

S: yo!

T: do you want to sit there?

S: no.

(Error 1)

T: no? Then shut up. If you shut up, you'll stay there. O.k. Now, which is the title of this page? **(Q)**

S: A Good /kaus/ **(A)**

S: A Good /kaus/ **(A)**

T: A Good **Cause (F)**

S: cause (Acc)

T: what is a good cause?
Ss: una buena causa
T: right, and...It says: in this unit you are going to talk about different types of charity...
S: what is charity?
T: charity?
Ss: caridad

T3: Instructions
T: caridad, yes, when you do good causes, you work with charity, right? Now, first we are going to do the activity "What do you know?", "What do you know?". One: match the meanings of these words with their definitions. We have seven words that are related to the topic of charity or a good cause, right? We have: the poor, shsss, the disabled, the homeless, the unemployed, the elderly, the immigrants, refugees, o.k.? Now, those seven words have a definition. What is the definition of word number one, the poor?

T2: Linguistic task
S: people who have little or no money
T: o.k., people who have little or no money, so one goes with d, very good... the disabled
S: espera a ver
S: what is disabled?
T: What is disabled?
S: yes
T: does anyone know what a disabled is?... nobody? We, we explained this in third of E.S.O.
S: people who have a physical disability

(Error 2)
T: o.k., people who have, where is it?, a physical disability, c, yes. **(Conf)**
S: ¿la c otra vez? ¿la primera cuál es? **(Q)**
T: one, d, two, c **(F)**
S: ah, vale **(Acc)**

T: the homeless
Ss: people who have nowhere to live
T: o.k. people who have nowhere to live, so, three, f. Four, the unemployed.
S: people who have no work, la a
T: people who have no work, very good
S: ¿cuál, María?
T: people who have no work...
S: la a
T: a
S: a es a, ¿no?
S: sí
T: yes. The elderly...
S: people who are old
T: people who are old, yes, g, five-g. Six, immigrants.
Ss: people who have come from another country
T: people who have come from another country, usually to work, so it's six-d. Refugees.
S: b, people who have left their country because of war(...)
T: very good, Silvia, so seven-b. Now, what do you think it's the most important problem in Spain?... Is it about the poor, disabled...? Which of these groups...
Ss: immigrants

T!: Communicative task
T: o.k., why do you think that immigrants are a problem now, in Spain?
S: because here, er, ...
T: (...) their country, o.k., and, is it a problem that people come from different countries? Is it a problem? What can be the problems? If people come from another country, what is the problem we have here in Spain, if we meet people from other countries here?

S: (...)

T: sorry?

S: the racism

T: the racism, o.k. But, more things.

S: the work

T: the work, they don't find a job, there is no job for everybody, right? And... do you think is it a problem for somebody to live in a different country because they don't think the same way as we do? They have a different religion, right, they have a different, er, I don't know, different opinions about things, right? And it's difficult to share...

S: they have the worst... jobs

T: yes, they always get the worst jobs

S: because...

T: they always get the jobs that people in Spain don't want. People in Spain don't want to work, for example, picking up oranges...

S: yes

T: and all the immigrants are working there, right? So, there, there are jobs, there are more jobs than we think

S: yes

T: but some people don't like immigrants and they say: they come to take our jobs. And that is not true. They think that immigrants come to Spain and they take our job, but that is not true, right?, because they take the job that we don't want, right? Do you understand?

S: yes

T: o.k., so, you think immigrants are a big problem here, any other problems, here? Any other?

S: no

T: I think that one is the most important, yes. Now, "Getting ready": match the photographs on this page with these slogans, use a dictionary if you need to. O.k., we have three slogans and they are related to the pictures, pictures, can you see the pictures quite well or not? (points at the paper) a, b and c. B is on the other side of the page, right? A, b on the other side and then c. Can you see them?

S: yo no me entero, María.

(Errors 3, 4 and 5)

T: o.k., these pictures, we have picture a, picture b on the other side and picture c, right? Look at them. Look at them, and then here are three slogans, three slogans, right? We are going to match the slogans and the pictures, o.k.? Now, one of the slogans is: Ban Landmines Now, do you understand that? **(Q)**

S: a **(A)**

S: landmines are minas **(A)**

S: a **(A)**

T: landmines are... **(Q)**

S: las minas estas **(A)**

S: minas antipersona **(A)**

T: minas antipersona, o.k., but, what is the meaning of the word ban? **(Conf/Q)**

S: a **(A)**

S: (...)

S:(...)

S: ¿eh? Explotar **(A)**

T: ¿explotar? **(F)**

S: sí **(A)**

T: no **(F)**

S: a **(A)**

T: what is the meaning of the word ban? We are not in the picture yet. What is the meaning of the word ban? O.k., I'm going to give you a synonym **(Q/F)**

S:(...)

T: you think you know what it is? **(Q)**

S: (...) **(A)**

T: no, that is big bang with a g, b-a-n-g. O.k. ... shut up and pay attention, I was asking about the meaning of ban and nobody knows that, so, I'm going to give you a synonym: prohibit, ban is the same as prohibit. So, what is the meaning of ban? **(F/Q)**

S: prohibir **(A)**

T: prohibir, yes, very good, very good, Marta. So, it says: Ban Landmines Now, prohibit landmines now. That is the first one, right? The second one is: Save the Whales. **(Conf)**

S: salvad a las ballenas

T: salvad a las ballenas, o.k., Save the Whales, and the third one is: Help this Child ayuda a este niño, no, you were right, why is it este niño and not estos niños?

S: porque pondría these

T: this is singular, right? Child is one, children is plural

S: ¿muchos cómo es?

T: many... o.k., what do you think is the picture that goes with the first slogan?

S: b

S: b

Ss: b

T: Ban landmines Now, o.k. it goes with picture b. What about Save the Whales?

Ss: c

(Error 6)

T: c. And Help this child **(Q)**

S: /a/ **(A)**

Ss: a **(F)**

T: a. Why do we have...shsss, what is the problem with this girl? What is the problem with this girl? **(F)**

S: the problem is that..

S: because...

S: la edad

S: she's very young

T: she's working...

S: she's very young

(a pause in the tape)

T. So, we were talking about the problem with picture a... What is the problem with this girl?

S: the girl is too young

T: the girl is too young to work, o.k., what is the age for working in Spain?

Ss: 16

T: 16, good, but in some countries, in some Third World countries... do you understand Third World?

S: tercer mundo

T3: Instructions

T: very good (writes on BB) Third World countries... in some Third World countries, they work being younger than 16. They are 8, 9, 10 years old and they work, o.k.? So this is a problem. Nobody should work before being 16, right? So, that is picture a, b, and c. We said the slogans were Ban the Landmines Now for picture... for which one? For picture...

T1: Communicative task

S: b

T: b. Save the Whales for picture...

S: c

T: c, and Help this Child...

S: a

T: a. O.k., Alejandro, do you have all the letters?

S: yo que sé (...) las tengo controladas

T: o.k., listen, Alejandro, the first line, Ban Landmines Now, goes with picture...

S: (...)

T: (points at the paper) o.k., this one, this one, Ban Landmines Now, right? This goes with picture b.

S: esa es la b, ¿no?

T: o.k., that is all

S: ¿qué?
T: eso es todo
S: están hablando media hora tío...

T3: Instructions
T: o.k, now, we are going to read the texts on page 21, you see on the other side of the page? Page 21? We have three texts. There are some words that you don't understand, right? But you are going to try to understand the text without asking me the words, right? You are going to try to understand this without asking any word. Later, you will ask me. O.k.?

T1: Communicative task
S: María, what is without?
T: without?
S: yes
T: It's the opposite of with, what is with?
S: con

(Error 7)
T: with is con, without sin, o.k.? So, you are going to read this without asking me any question about words, right? Now, the first text, Inma **(Q)**
S: (...) are practically, practically? **(A)**
T: practically (F)
S: practically extinct, extinct,] **(Acc)**

(Errors 8 and 9)
[this is because of /komerθial/ whaling, for example, there may be only two hundred blue whales left. This is probably not enough for the /speθies/ to sur... **(A)**
T: species (F)
S: species] (Acc)

(Error 10)
[to /surviv/ **(A)**
T: to **survive (F)**
S: to **survive**] **(Acc)**

(Errors 11 and 12)
[but still the hunting continues. Why? Because there are too many countries that make more money from /uals/. In Ja... **(A)**
T: Japan **(F)**
S: Japan,] **(Acc)**

(Error 13)
[for example, a kilo of whale meat can /sei/ **(A)**
T: can **sell (F)**
S: can **sell**] **(Acc)**

(Error 14)
[for a hundred forty in the.. **(A)**
T: that L is the name of the coin: pound. One hundred and forty pounds. **(F)**

(Error 15)
S: (...) is /kampaigniŋ/...**(A)**
T: is **campaigning (F)**
S: is **campaigning**] **(Acc)**

(Errors 16 and 17)
[to stop /komerθial/ whaling forever. We need your /'suport/ to put... **(A)**
T: your **support (F)**

S: pressure on countries like Japan.

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(Error 18)
T: and the last line...**(Q)**
S: /u**it**/ your help we can save the whales. **(A)**

T: o.k., very good. This is the first one. Do you understand the text more or less?
S: yes
T: Does it correspond to picture a, b or c?
S: c
T: c?
S: c
T: o.k. It's about whales and about saving the whales. What is the slogan that you can find at the end of this text?
S: save the whales, no?
S: save the whales

(Error 19)
T: with your help... we can save the whales, o.k.? This is the slogan in this text. It is related, it is connected to Save the Whales, but this is more elaborated: with your help, we can save the whales, o.k.? Now, we are going to read text number two... Adela. **(Q)**
S: Eleven-year-old Kar... **(A)**
T: Kariatu **(F)**
S: Kariatu lives in Sierra Leona.] **(Acc)**

(Error 20)
[Her family are farmers and they grow just enough food for themselves. They also grow some /riθ/ **(A)**
T: rice (F)
S: rice] **(Acc)**

(Errors 21 and 22)
[and /nuts/ to sell. But there isn't enough /fertiliser/ **(A)**
T: **fertiliser (F)**
S: **fertiliser**] **(Acc)**

(Error 23)
[in the villa... /vi'laðз/ **(A)**
T: village (F)
S: village.] **(Acc)**

(Error 24)
[This means that they don't sell much and they haven't got enough money. Another problem is that there isn't enough clean water. There is too much dirty water and dirty water causes /diseases/ **(A)**
T: diseases (F)
S: diseases.] **(Acc)**

(Error 25)
[There aren't enough doctors to treat them. One in four children dies before their fifth birthday. But you can help. By sending a donation to /aktion aid/ **(A)**
T: Action Aid (F)
S: Action Aid you can help support a child like Kariatu. All you have to do is pick up a pen. **(Acc)**
T: o.k. Now, this corresponds with picture... **(Conf)**

S: a
T: o.k., very good, a, because it talks about a girl that is working, o.k.?, Kariatu. She works, right? Now, what is the slogan in this text? What is the slogan at the end of this text?
S: sending...
(A student who comes late enters the classroom)

Ss: Pablo

T: Pablo

S: ¿a que te has dormido?

T: what is the problem Pablo?

S: sleeping

S: sleeping

Ss:(laugh)

T: were you sleeping?

S: sí

S: ah!

S: collins

S: te lo he dicho

T: o.k....we are working...

Ss: (comment)

T3: Instructions

T: Pablo, we are working on this page, right? (T gives him the photocopy) We are reading these texts. So, I was saying, or you were saying, Silvia, she said that: but you can help by sending a donation to Action Aid. You can help support a child like Kariatu. All you have to do is pick up a pen. She said that, she was saying, that this is the slogan, right? O.k., do you see the word Action Aid? Action Aid

T1: Communicative task

S: Ayuda en Acción

T: o.k. Action Aid are two words and they make up a new word. Action and Aid, they have put them together. Action is acción and Aid is ayuda

S: ayuda

T: in Spain we say: Ayuda en Acción, right? When we ask people to do things, we ask people to give money or to do some help for this people, Ayuda en Acción, right? O.k., now, text number three... Marta.

S: (...) workers in Camboya (...) found ten-year-old (...) a week after a mine accident which blew off his left leg. (...) was feeding their cow from our field when he stepped on a mine

T: shss

S: (...) every week more than a hundred fifty people are killed (...)

T: O.k., what is UN?... Do you kow?

(T walks to the BB)

S: la ONU

T:(writes on BB) la ONU: Organización de las Naciones Unidas, right? In Spanish, in English you say UN. We say ONU...

S: in Ética..

T: o-n-u, but in English they just say u-n, they don't say organisation, they say United Nations. In Spanish we say: Organización de las Naciones Unidas, right. O.k., can you finish?

S: Save the Children is campaigning for a complete ban on the production of landmines. With your help we can put pressure on governments to hope that there are not more young victims like (...)

T3: Instructions

T: o.k., very good. Now, I want you to re-read the texts and on your notebook write four words you don't understand for every text. O.k., you write one and four words you don't understand, four words or less, right? It can be one, two, three or four, but four is the maximum. Four words for every, each text, right? One, and then four words you don't understand, number two: four words you don't understand, number three: four words you don't understand. If you know all the words, that's perfect. If you don't know one word, o.k., good. But the maximum is four, right?

S (talks)

T: shsss ... work! (The T goes to the S that has arrived late and explains what they are doing) O.k., this is the homework for today, they are working on this photocopy

S: vale

T: right? We have matched this. This is about a good cause, this is about charity, do you understand? A good cause, charity?

S: sí

T: yes, so all these words are related to charity and these are the definitions, right? So I'll tell you now: one goes with d; two, disabled, here; three, the homeless, is here; four, the unemployed, here; five, the elderly; six, the immigrants and refugees, here. So, these are some problems people have in the world. And these are three slogans that go with these three pictures

S: ah, vale

T: this one, Ban Landmines now, is this picture, see this boy? b. Save the Whales is picture c (...) Greenpeace; and this girl is working, Help this Child, she's too young to work, o.k.? So, these texts go with these pictures: one goes with picture... c; two goes with picture a and this one with picture b. And now we have to look for four words you don't understand in every text. O.k.? Do you understand?

T1: Communicative task

S: yes

T: good

S: ¿qué hay que hacer, María?

T: o.k., Alejandro ... Silvia, can you explain Alejandro in Spanish what he has to do?

S: yes, tú tienes que coger los dos, los tres textos y tienes que subrayar cuatro palabras que no entiendas

S: ¿arreu?

S: si son menos mejor... no, las que menos entiendas

T: muy bien explicado, las que menos entiendas, es decir, si hay más de cuatro palabras que tú no entiendas,...

S: sí

T: tienes que escoger las que más problemas te den para entender el texto. Ysi son menos de cuatro, perfecto, eso quiere decir que sabes mucho Inglés. Pero como mucho, como máximo cuatro.

S: María,una palabra la entiendes o no la entiendes, tú no la entiendes más o menos

T: a ver...

S: no! Pero...

T: sí, Paco, hay palabras que aunque tú no las sepas puedes entender el texto

S: y esto que si no lo sabes ...

T: y palabras que si no las sabes, no entiendes el texto

S: no lo entiendes

S: ah! vaya! vaya!

T: pues tú tienes que tener criterio para saber elegir cuáles son ésas

S: claro

T: vale

(A pause in the tape)

T: I cannot tell you now

S: María

T: yes

S: diseases es (...) o algo

T: I cannot tell you now, you have to choose. I can't tell you any word now. Shsss... Adela, don't tell her anything

S: No, si no le he dicho ninguna palabra

S: (...)

S: que no te lo puedo decir ahora

S: (...)

T: ¿cómo?

S: que eso, que whaling ¿qué es?

T: whaling?

S: ¿es algo de las ballenas?

T: I cannot tell you now

S: ah! ¿entonces quién me lo va decir?

T: later, but not now

Ss (comment)

T: not always

S: si whale ese, si whale ese es ballena, whaling ¿qué es, ballenando?

S: ha,ha

T: o.k., you said –ing means –ando , but it's not always like that

S: no es ballenando

T: it's not always for gerunds, it can be for different things. Not only for gerunds

S: es un (...)

T: no, it's only a suffix that you can use for gerunds, but you can use for other things too, not only for gerunds, ¿vale?, ese prefijo, perdón, es un sufijo, no lo utilizas solamente para hacer gerundios, se utiliza para hacer el gerundio, pero aparte para otras cosas más.

Ss: (comment)

T: o.k., if it's the month of May, it should be on capital letters then

S: ya

T: the months of the year are always with a capital letter...

S: ya, ya

T: is this a capital letter?

S: no

T: so, it's not May the month

S: ¿entonces? ¿doncs?

T: maybe, maybe is an expression...

S: (...) es una palabra, se refiere a una palabra, no a un nombre, ¿verdad? Meanwhile

T: It's, it's, you mean if it's the name of someone?

S: que si es un, un pueblo, o el nombre de algo, o es una palabra

T: it's not... it's a word, it's not the name of a town ... Have you finished, Lorena?

S: sí

T: o.k.! have you finished?... has everybody finished?

Ss: yes

(Error 26)

T: o.k., we are going to copy the words on the blackboard and then, from all the words that you tell me, we'll choose only four, right?... o.k., text number one, now, from text number one, which words do you want to know the meaning? **(Q)**

S: /mai/ **(A)**

T: may (writes on BB) more words **(F)**

S: still

Ss: por favor!

S: qui ha dit eixa?

S: todavía

S: que no es may, es (...)

(Error 27)

T: more words **(Q)**

S: /huntiŋ/ **(A)**

S: /huntiŋ/ **(A)**

S: /huntiŋ/ **(A)**

S: h-u-t- **(A)**

T: hunting (F)

S: hunting (Acc)

S: campaigning

S: sí, forever

Ss (comment)

S: pressure

S: es superfície, o algo así, porque en un juego de la videoconsola...

Ss (comment)

T: under pressure is not the same to be under water

Ss (comment)

T: yes, shsss, you are right Marta, so we can erase this one

Ss (comment)

T: shsss

S: María!

T: wait a minute, let's do this in order, let's do this in order, first we write them on the blackboard, and then we will choose four. We write all of them and we just keep four, o.k.? Paco, any other word you want to know? Any other word?

S: no sé lo que me estás diciendo

T: good!

S: good es bien o algo así, ¿no?

T: you don't know the meaning of the word good?... O.k., more words, any other word?

S: pressure

T: pressure

Ss: whaling

T: whaling, o.k. we'll write pressure again and (...). Pressure and whaling. O.k., we have to keep four, so which ones do we keep? Which are more important for the text?

S: may (...)

T: sorry?

T: may and still no

S: ¿cómo que no? (...)

T: may no

S: may no, still

(A pause in the tape)

(Lesson 3) 4th B March, 8th, 2002

T: Stand up, we are going to pray ... are you ready?

T and Ss: our father in heaven, hallowed be Your name, Your kingdom come, Your will be done, on earth as it is in heaven, give us this day our daily bread and forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors and do not lead us into temptation, but deliver us from the evil one, for Yours is the kingdom and the power and the glory forever. Amen.

(noise and voices)

S: ¡ocho minutos!

T1: Communicative task

T: Alejandro! Can you please be quiet?... Alejandro, can you be quiet, please?

(voices)

T: shsss, Merce! Shut up! Is everyone, anyone missing? Anyone missing, today?... O.k., before we continue with the book and with the lesson, we are going to talk about a special topic. O.k.? We are going to talk about a special topic. What day is today?

S: el día...

(Ss talk at the same time)

T: o.k., what day is today?

S: the women's day, no?

T: o.k., it is the International Women's day (T writes on BB)

S: Sergio! ¿Eres del Depor? ¿Tú marcaste?

T: Francisco, can you shut up now?

S: ha,ha,

S: o.k.

T: o.k., look, today is the International Women's Day. What day do we celebrate it? On which day? On, the, what day?

Ss: eighth

T: eighth (writes on BB)

S: March

(Error 1)

T: March (writes on BB) o.k., we celebrate this on the eighth of March. Do you know what do we celebrate on this day? Do you know what do we celebrate on the International Women's Day? Do you know? Do you know anything about this day? **(Q)**

S: that the womans... **(A)**

T: that the women **(F)**

S: that the women work **(Acc)**

T: o.k. **(Conf)**

(Error 2)

S: and after the women worked in the house **(A)**

T: before **(F)**

S: before **(Acc)**

(Error 3)

T: people, or women worked at home. O.k., could women work in a factory, or in a school or in a shop before? Last century for example. **(Q)**

S: the womans closed, closed in the factory, y the fire... **(A)**

T: there was a fire in a factory, o.k., and they, they died in that fire.] **(F)**

[O.k., that is true. What Silvia said is true, what Pablo said is true, that's right, but, we are going to read a text in Spanish, right?, about the International Women's Day to know why do we celebrate it on that day. But Don Paco is making the photocopies, right?, so, we have to wait for Don Paco; he's making the photocopies, so, when he comes, we will read the text with the explanation about the International Women's Day. It's going to be in Spanish.

S: internet

T: It is from Internet, yes. You have here the page, the, the, what page, where I found it, in case you want to look for more information and this is this year's poster, this is this year's poster: 8th March, 2002. This is a national poster. It's going to be, or it is now on many in Spain. This is in

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Spain, right? And Miriam and I have added these two, these are from earlier years, earlier posters. This is this year's poster, o.k.? it's written in Spanish, and then Catalan, Euskera and Gallego. O.k.? But, er, you cannot see very well because is black and white, this has colours, I mean is quite nice, and it says: "con nosotras sí es posible otro mundo", right? So, it is in our hands to change the world. Do you understand?

(A S comes in and gives the T the photocopies)

T: o.k., do you understand what I said? It is in our hands to change the world. Right? Do you think women have all the rights they need? Do you think women have all the rights they need? Are we now equal to men? Are men and women the same now?

S: no

S: no

T: no, not yet, we are better than earlier, than before, but, are we the same as men?

Ss: no

T: if this day exists, it's because we are not equal yet, right?

S: sí

T: some day we will be the same, equal, men and women, and then we will, we will not celebrate this day, we won't need it, right? Do you understand? Can anyone explain in Spanish what I've said now? Silvia, can you explain in Spanish what I said?

S: pues has dicho que, que si existe ese día es porque no está igual la mujer que el hombre...

T: y que algún día ojalá que no...

S: que algún día seremos iguales

T: muy bien, y que no tendremos razón para celebrarlo. Se podrá celebrar como algo conmemorativo, pero no porque necesitemos esa igualdad. Vale, estamos mejor que antes, pero no tan bien como deberíamos

S: el día de la igualdad

T: claro, se podría cambiar por el día de la igualdad, muy bien, buena idea

S: men's day

T: no, because the man has always (...)., the man has always (...), so why should they celebrate? We are going to read it now

(voices)

T: we are going to read this text now in Spanish and we are going to talk a little about this. We are not going to talk about (...) Day

S: no

T: falta una, ¿compartís ésta vosotras? O.k. now, Cristina, can you start reading?

(S reads the text)

T: when was the first demonstration about women's rights? When? In what year?

S: in 19..

T: that was the first, the first time they organised the International Women's Day, that's right. And, what was the next date? 19..

S: 9

T: 9 and then

S: 1910

T: 1910, o.k., er, María continue reading: por qué el ocho de marzo

(S reads the text)

T: see, Pablo is right, on that date, 8th of March, right?, some women wanted to protest against their working conditions and the owner of the factory said: "you cannot go on strike" do you know what is a strike? To go on strike (writes on BB)

S: huelga

T: go on strike means

S: en huelga

T: ir a una huelga, right, so, the owner of the factory said: "you cannot go to the strike, so, you stay in the factory" and he locked the door. There was a fire inside and they couldn't go out because they were locked inside and they died. O.k.? 129 of these women died. So, this provoked, provoked that they decided to celebrate the International Women's Day on the 8th of March, right?, because their conditions, their working conditions were not very good, right?, only a few women, only a few women could work, most of the women stayed at home, right?, taking care of their children and cleaning the house, they couldn't go to work. Only a few could go to work and their working conditions were very bad, right?, they didn't earn the same money as men because they were women and they, they, they didn't get the same money as a man, right?, and they had to work for many hours in very dark places, it was very cold in winter, very hot in summer, they didn't

have very good conditions, so they started to protest and now we are better than then. In this school, how many women are working? There are many women working because there are many women teachers, right? There are not many teachers who are men, but many women teachers, right? So, in here, in the school for example, in education, there are many women and our minister is a woman, but, think about other fields, think about for example banks or think about politics, are there many women working in banks?... They work in...

S: en la obra

T: for example, yes, there are not many women builders, not many women builders. So, there are some fields where women are not working yet: miners, for example, are there many women miners?

S: no

(Error 4)

T: no, they don't want women to work in the mines, right?, but, step by step, right?, step by step, we are getting more places and I hope, I hope, one day we will be the same as men, right? Do you have any comments about this that we have read?, we have read, sorry, or about this, do you have any comments? Would you like to say something in English or Spanish? Would you like to say something? What do boys in this class think about this? What do boys in this class think about this? Do you think it is fair, es justo, do you think it is fair to celebrate this day? **(Q)**

S: (A girl talks) yes **(A)**

T: I'm asking boys, Marta **(F)**

S: María **(A)**

T: o María, I'm asking boys **(F)**

S: depende, si es fiesta

T: I need good opinions, people who are thinking with their heads, I don't want Paco's opinion

S: ha,ha

S: pues yes

T: I don't want your opinion, so shut up

S: yo no quiero dártela

S: ha, ha

T: then, why do you answer? Shut up. O.k., the rest of you, what do you think? Pablo

S: que sí, que sí es justo

T: ¿por qué crees que es justo?

S: pues porque las mujeres no estaban igual que los hombres, que ya casi no, pero aún falta algo

T: aún falta algo, ¿no?

S: ¿hoy hacen alguna manifestación por eso?

T: todos los ochos de marzo hay manifestaciones en todas las ciudades

S: entonces no sería justo porque sería...

S: hoy, hoy...

S: sería una fiesta, en la que no hacen nada

T: no, pero a ver, las manifestaciones las hacen fuera del horario laboral, así que es por la tarde

S: yo no la haría

T: las hacen a una hora en que pueda ir la gente que trabaja, claro

S: es que los hombres...

T: a ver, ya existe el día del trabajador, el uno de mayo, que es para todos, hombres y mujeres, el día del trabajador es para todos y ese día es fiesta. Este día lo que se celebra, se conmemora, es para recordar lo que pasó, para que no vuelva a pasar nunca más y para recordar a la gente que existe una organización...

S: ¿el día del hombre no existe, María?

Ss.¿ pero no lo ha explicado ya?

S: estás pavo

T: ¿para qué hay que celebrar el hombre, el día del hombre cuando el hombre siempre ha tenido más derechos que la mujer? ¿qué vas, qué vas a conmemorar?

(Ss talk)

T: no, no hagáis caso porque es que lo hace adrede... porque no se explica

S: ha, ha, porque es machista

T: entonces, esas manifestaciones, Sergio, son fuera del horario laboral y se intenta pedir que eso que se empezó en 1908 continue hoy en día hasta que por fin haya completa igualdad, es decir, hay lo que se llama, hay una expresión que se llama "techo de cristal" y eso quiere decir que las condiciones se van igualando, es como una pirámide, ¿vale?, las condiciones a nivel por ejemplo de trabajos más bajos se van igualando entre hombres y mujeres, pero cada vez que vamos subiendo puestos, en una compañía, en política, en empresas (...) vamos subiendo más los puestos, cada vez hay menos mujeres: es como una pirámide; "techo de cristal" significa que hacia arriba del todo está, es un techo que se rompe fácilmente, es decir, hay muy pocas mujeres, de hecho en política, por ejemplo, pues ahora aún tenemos la, hay una ministra que es mujer, la Presidenta del Congreso y poco más, es decir, y hasta hace poco ni eso, es decir...

S: es que , por ejemplo, para presidente del gobierno, ¿se presenta alguna mujer?

T: de momento no se ha presentado, pero

S. yo me voy a presentar

(Ss talk)

T: shsss, no se ha presentado una mujer porque tampoco ha sido viable hasta ahora, es decir, los partidos no se arriesgan a que porque sea una mujer vaya a perder un número de votos, porque los perdería, porque habría muchos hombres que no la querrían votar

S: ¿no querrían?

T: habría muchos hombres que no querrían votar a una mujer

S: eh, a mi no me...

T: es triste que sea así, pero así es, eso está estudiado

S: María

T: habría hombres que sí votarían, votarían a ese cabeza de partido

S: (...)

T: habría hombres y habría mujeres que no la votarían por ser mujer. Hay mujeres que son muy machistas y eso es cierto, entonces habría muchos hombres y muchas mujeres que pensarían: "una mujer como presidente del gobierno no lo va a hacer bien". Entonces, ¿qué pasa?, que un partido sólo puede presentar un candidato y prefieren presentar a uno que sepan que va a ganar, entonces presentan a un hombre. Entonces, eso sí que se le ha preguntado al gobierno Popular,

S: sí

T: que si van a presentar una mujer alguna vez, y dicen que sí, que de momento no, pero que alguna vez sí que próximamente quieren presentar a una mujer.

S: de aquí a diez años

T: o sea, no para esta candidatura, que viene ahora

(Ss talk)

T: shsss, vale, a ver

S: yo tengo una pregunta

T: dime Francisco

S: pero vamos a ver, ¿las mujeres que se quieren presentar arriba de la pirámide?

S: tu eres tonto

T: no, las mujeres quieren estar en todos los sitios, compartiendo todo con los hombres

S: ¿cuántas mujeres hay en el campo?

T: ¿cómo?

S: ¿cuántas mujeres hay en el campo?

S: sí que hay eh

S: claro que hay

S: y en la obra, y en la obra

T: ¿tú sabes..., Francisco, ¿tú sabes cuántas mujeres rumanas y cuántas mujeres magrebíes, mujeres de otros países...

S: sí que hay...

T: están trabajando en el campo sobre todo en Andalucía?... Muchísimas

S: muchas, sobre todo polacas de esas

T: polacas, rumanas

S: Paco, y ¿cuántos hombres trabajan (...)?

S: pues muchos, muchos

T: a ver

S: sobre todo tú

T: es cierto, ¡vale! Es, a ver, Francisco,

S: ¿cuántos hombres están limpiando (...)?

S: muchos

(Ss talk)

T: a ver, vamos, vamos a seguir un orden, Lorena, vamos a seguir un orden porque si no, no se entiende lo que estáis diciendo. Shsss, Sergio, acabo de decir un orden, y tú hablando, por tu lado: María, un orden. A ver, sí es cierto, en parte lo que están diciendo ellos, cada vez hay más mujeres, uy, perdón, más hombres, que ayudan en su casa

S: sí

T: que ayudan en su casa o que, por ejemplo, si la mujer tiene trabajo y el hombre no, hay hombres que yo sé, Adela, que cuidan a los niños, que limpian la casa, que (...) la ropa, sé que hay, pero igual que todas las mujeres no están consiguiendo los puestos que deben, no todos los hombres están ayudando en casa. Y, hombres que se dediquen profesionalmente a la limpieza, no los hay casi, hay muchas más mujeres, claro cada vez habrá más

S: pero porque para dedicarse a limpiar casas, se van a la obra y cobran el doble y "au"

T: exacto, pero las mujeres, por ejemplo, no las cogen en la obra, entonces tienen que ir a limpiar pisos

S: ya

T: entonces, lo que hay que intentar conseguir, que eso sí que lo podéis hacer vosotros, es que, yo no sé cómo os habrán educado a todos vosotros, yo no sé si a los chicos de esta clase su madre les ha enseñado a limpiar. Igual que a las chicas se les enseña

S: a mi no me han enseñado

T: ¿a ti no te han enseñado?

S: yo no (...)

S: yo sí

S: yo no sé hacer nada

T: eso depende, claro, depende de la madre y del padre. A ver, lo que hay que intentar conseguir es que si una persona tiene hijos y tiene hijas, que los eduque exactamente igual; que no porque, a la niña le enseñe a limpiar y al niño no le enseñe a limpiar. O a la niña le enseña a comprar,...porque ir a comprar, por ejemplo, sí que se lo llevan a comprar al niño, muchas veces, ¿no?

S: normal, para llevarle las bolsas

T: para llevar las bolsas o para...

(Ss talk)

T: vale... shsss, entonces, vosotros sí que podéis, yo no sé, no podéis cambiar la educación que os han dado u os están dando, a pesar de que muchos de vuestros padres sí que son gente moderna y sí que os están enseñando igual a los hombres que a las mujeres

S: todo el mundo no, eh

T: pero, vosotros... todos no, eso está claro,

S: (...)

T: claro, no, pero a ver, uno es moderno y tiene la mente abierta y podrá educar mejor, en ciertos sentidos, pero lo que sí que podéis hacer vosotros es, el día que tengáis hijos, no caer en los errores que cometieron algunos de vuestros padres, ¿vale? Es decir, que tenéis un hijo y una hija, pues educadlos exactamente igual, porque hay que enseñar que no por el hecho de ser hombre o por el hecho de ser mujer, uno tenga que ser diferente. Es decir, tanto un hombre, como una mujer puede llegar a donde quiera y puede estudiar, puede decidir trabajar, puede decidir seguir estudiando y se dedique a lo que quiera dedicarse, debería poder llegar a cualquier puesto sin, eso, independientemente de que sea hombre o de que sea mujer. Y eso lo podéis conseguir vosotros, lo podéis conseguir vosotros el día de mañana. Vale, ¿tenéis algún comentario que hacer?... vale, si alguien tiene algún comentario, o se le ocurre de aquí a final de clase algún comentario, a mi me gustaría que escribiéramos alguna cosa en estos huecos que hemos dejado aquí... A ver, Lorena, por favor,

(Another T comes in and talks to the T)

(Ss talk)

T: vale, a ver, shsss, vale Lorena, os estaba diciendo que me gustaría que de esta clase saliera algún comentario, alguna frase, a alguno se os ocurriera alguna reflexión...

S: no comment

T: shsss, si es en inglés, mejor aún o si no se os ocurre en inglés, lo podéis decir en castellano y yo lo traduzco a inglés. Lo podemos escribir aquí, porque este cartel va a estar en todas las clases, pero, y lo vamos a colocar en el panel, pero me gustaría que en cada clase hubiera algo especial, de algo que, de lo que yo haya dicho, de lo que otro compañero haya dicho, os haya hecho pensar, y que cada cartel sea especial y que cada clase sea distinta. Entonces, de aquí al final de la clase, pensáis a ver algo que se os pueda ocurrir...

S: ¿y dónde hay que ponerlo?

T: pues lo vam..., lo podemos poner aquí o aquí, es decir, que puede ser una frase de una línea, varias líneas, porque aquí hay un poco de hueco, luego lo colocamos en el panel. ¿Vale?, entonces lo pensáis de aquí al final de la clase y me lo decís. Ahora, now we go back to the class in English and with your book

S: si damos clase, no podemos pensar

T: yes, you can think, you can work and think, you are a very intelligent person, you can do the two things at the same time. O.k., now, did we have any homework for today?

S: no

T: did we have any homework?

S: no, no homework, de ese

T: no homework?

S: no

T: Francisco, I'm getting very tired of you

S: ¿qué has dicho? Repeat

S: ¡que se está cansando de ti!

T: o.k., open your activities, open your activities on page 57...57, on your activity...we are going to read the "Speaker's Corner"

S: ¿en que parte, María?

T: what page? 57...We are going to read the "Speaker's Corner"

S: ¿del activity?

(Error 5)

T: activity book, I need a volunteer to read the first bubble, a volunteer to read the first bubble... o.k., Silvia... **(Q)**

S: Silvia, chupacámara **(Comments)**

T: shsss **(Directs)**

S: an Agatha Christie story, the /moustrap/ **(A)**

T: the **Mousetrap (F)**

S: the **Mousetrap**,] **(Acc)**

(Error 6)

[is the longest /runiŋ/ theatre play of all times. It has been **running** for 46 years. **(A/self-correction)**

(Error 7)

T: o.k., now, do you understand what Silvia has read?... do you understand what Silvia has read? Do you understand the text?...o.k., what is the meaning of play here in this text? **(Q)**

S: tocar **(A)**

T: what is the meaning of play? O.k., play can be "tocar" an instrument, but here it's not playing an instrument. **(F)**

(Error 8)

S: representar **(A)**

S: pues representar **(A)**

T: o.k., it's not a verb here. it's a noun **(Conf/F)**

S: obra de teatro **(Acc)**

T: a theatre play, obra de teatro, very good Silvia, here is obra de teatro, theatre play.] **(Conf)**

[And people, people can see this theatre play now and it has been running for 46 years, imagine, 46 years it has been represented, right?, so it's the longest running theatre play of all times, right?, it's the most famous. Do you understand the mousetrap? What is the mousetrap?

S: ¿la trampa de ratón?

T: la trampa para ratón o la ratonera. In Spanish they have translated that theatre play as "La Ratonera". O.k., now, second bubble, a volunteer,

S: Silvia

T: o.k., Marta

S: During the last century criminals...

T: o.k., how could you...?
S: called

(Error 9)
T: o.k., very good, now, shsss... any questions about the second paragraph or second bubble? **(Q)**
S: /rimiŋ/ slang
T: rhyming slang, o.k.,] **(F)**

(Error 10)
[what is rhyming? **(Q)**
S: ritmo, ¿no? **(A)**
T: ritmo is rythm, rythm;] **(F)**

(Error 11)
[rhyming, what is rhyming? **(Q)**
S: (...) **(A)**
T: que rima, rimeando, we don't say that in Spanish... **(F)**
S: ay, rimeando **(Comments)**
T: ...but que rima. O.k., and slang, slang is a kind of language, a kind of dialect that people from a special group talk, for example, er, thieves, robbers, bank robbers and thieves, they talk a special kind of language, that only they understand **(F)**

S: (...)
T: es, en castellano es una jerga
S; ¿qué es una jerga?
T: a ver, ¿alguien puede explicarle a María lo que acabo de decir que es una jerga, slang en inglés?
S: un tipo de, por ejemplo los polic, los ladrones y todo hablan un lenguaje especial.

T3: Instructions
T: es un tipo de lenguaje que se habla no porque vivas en una zona determinada, o no porque seas de una etnia determinada, sino porque por tu trabajo o por un grupo social, un grupo sobre todo de un trabajo, hablan con un lenguaje que sólo entienden en, la gente de ese trabajo, ¿vale?

T1: Communicative task
S: si,¿no?
T: si...shss, I need a volunteer for the third paragraph
S: Alejandro

(Error 12)
T: third paragraph, a volunteer **(Q)**
S: Silvia **(Comments)**
T: o.k., María, very good ( )
S: María **(Comments)**
S: In Britain a policeman is often /kaled/ a bobby **(A)**
T: er, do you say /kaled/? **(F)**
S: called, called, called (Self-correction)
T: called, o.k. **(Conf)**
S: called a bobby. Bobby is the short form of Robert **(Acc)**

T: shss
S: after Sir Robert Peel founder of the first metropolitan police force

T3: Instructions
T: o.k., (...) about the text we read, we read about, er, Scotland Yard? Remember? Who was the founder of the metropolitan police force? Robert Peel, remember that? We read about him. Robert Peel. Robert is a name in English, in Spanish is Roberto and in English they call Bob or Bobby people who are called Robert. (T writes on BB) For a short, for a short name, they are

called Bob or Bobby. So, the police in Britain, the policemen in Britain are called bobbies because their founder was Robert Peel, right?, and they are called bobbies. Have you heard that name before? Un bobbie, a los policías típicos de Inglaterra les llaman

T1: Communicative task
S: ¿esos del gorro así?
T: una cosa son los de la guardia, esos son los que llevan
S: eso de...
T: el sombrero este más alto, pero los bobbies son los que llevan el, esto redondo así de color az.., que van vestidos de azul, esos se les llama bobbies, allí en Inglaterra. O.k., now, we have finished unit 7... We still have the Project Work, but we still have the Project Work
S: ¿otro Project Work de esos?
T: another Project Work, yes
(Ss talk)
T: shsss, o.k., this Project Work, Alicia, is going to be for a positive, shss, ... page 68, it's going to be for after "Fallas", right? It's not going to be for now, it's going to be for after "Fallas"
S: después de Pascua, ¿no?
T: we will talk about it, we will talk about it
S: no, antes de "Fallas" no
T: we can negotiate
S: pues si es después

T3: instructions
T: we can negotiate, so, now, I'm going to explain you what you have to do in the Project Work, right? Now, activity one: work in groups. How many detectives from films and tv programmes can you think of? Make a list. Decide on your group's favourite detective and answer these questions. O.k., now, you are going to tell me names of famous detectives that you have found on tv, on programmes on tv, or in the cinema, so on your notebook you are going to write the names of all the detectives you can think of (...) right?so, on your notebook, copy this

T1: Communicative task
S: copy?
T: yes, copy, can you tell me the name of any famous detective?
S: Sherlock Holmes
T: Sherlock Holmes (T writes on BB)
S: Walker
T: o.k., Walker is a ranger, but he is a kind of detective, yes (T writes on BB)
S: Inspector Gadget
T: Inspector Gadget (T writes on BB)
S: Colombo
T: Colombo (T writes on BB)... who else? Names of detectives
Ss: Colombo
T: Colombo is here, are you blind? Are you blind?
S: Torrente
T: Torrente? He's a kind of false detective and policeman (T writes on BB) more names
S: el de expediente X
T: el de expediente X, what is his name?
S: Mulder
T: Mulder and Scully (T writes on BB) Mulder
S: efectivamente querido Watson
S: Watson ese, ¿no?
T: o.k., Dr, Watson is the companion of Sherlock Holmes
S: ahí, ahí, Watson
S: Mulder y Scully
T: Mulder and Scully? X-files?
S: ah, ya, ya
S: ¿eso hay que copiarlo, María?
T: yes
S: ¿todo?
T: all of them, yes

S: ¿por qué?

S: Walker? ¿pero, qué pinta ahí Walker?

T: because I said so... more detectives

S: more..

S: tú eres un payaso

S: ¿no sabes quién es Walker?

T: more detectives?

S: el ranger

T: sorry?

S: no, nada

S: el comisario

T: o.k., they are special detectives but they are, they (...)

(Ss talk)

T: o.k., that is the name of the programme "Bewitched", "Embrujadas" in Spanish

S: ¿y qué es eso?

T: "Embrujadas" in Spanish

S: eso que son tres brujas

T: they are, they, they solve mysterious cases

S: Mortadelo y Filemón

T: Mortadelo y Filemón, they are detectives, yes (T writes on BB)

S: mi hermano ve unos dibujos de ratones que son inspectores también

S: el policía de los Simpson

S: el policía de los Simpson

T: pero es policía, no es detective. Se llama, espera, a ver, ¿cómo se llama?

S: Biggum

T: Biggum, sí Biggum, but he is a policeman, he's not a detective

(Ss talk)

T: any other detective name? No? O.k.,now, ...we are going to choose one of them, one, to answer these four questions here

S: yeah

T: which one do you want? Only one

S: Inspector Gadget(...) lo conozco

T: Inspector Gadget?

S: Torrente, Torrente

(Error 13)

T: o.k., we can do it with these two, we'll do it with Inspector Gadget and Torrente, and you can write the answers about Inspector Gadget or about Torrente, right? With your pencil on your notebook. You can choose Inspector Gadget or Torrente. Where is the detective from? Where is Inspector Gadget from? **(Q)**

S: es que viaja por el mundo **(Comments)**

T: but he is from a specific place... he is from France **(Comments)**

S: ah France **( )**

T: yes **( )**

S: ¿quién, Torrente? **(Q)**

T: no, Inspector Gadget, he's from France, right,] **(F)**

(Error 14)

[but, for example, people who have chosen Torrente, Pablo, where is Torrente from? **(Q)**

S: Málaga **(A)**

S: Málaga **(A)**

S: no **(Peer-correction)**

(Error 15)

S: Marbella **(A)**

S: no, no, Marbella no **(Peer-correction)**

T: no, he's from Madrid, he's from Spain, from Madrid **(F)**

S: es de Madrid, que es del Athletic, ¿no? **(Acc)**

T: he's from Madrid... but he goes to Marbella in the second part, but he's from Madrid **(F)**

S: yo es que no la he visto

T: o.k., is your detective famous, shsss, is your detective famous for any special object or clothes? O.k., first, Inspector Gadget, is he famous...?

S: raincoat

T: raincoat (T writes on BB)

(Ss talk)

T: o.k., raincoat is for Inspector Gadget and any special object?...he has changing parts of his body, changing parts of his body (T writes on BB)

S: ¿eso se copia también, lo del changing ese?

T: o.k., Inspector Gadget has parts of his body that he changes into wheels or

S: (...)

T: yes, to fly and things like that, a helicopter in his head and he has wheels on his feet to move, right? "gadgetos", yes?, they are "gadgetos". Now, shsss, what about Torrente? Is he famous for any special object or clothes?

S: t-shirt with a lot of colours

S: lleno de mierda

S: the t-shirts are dirty

T: o.k., he wears very dirty clothes and he's wearing an Athletic pin, (T writes on BB) dirty clothes ...

(Ss comment)

T: and Athletic pin... shsss, o.k., we are not talking about that film, we are talking about the character, er, that is for Inspector Gadget and this is for Torrente

S: con su amigo Cuco, pon a Cuco por ahí

T: shsss, wait, that is question c

S: no, no wait

T: yes, does your detective work with an assistant? Does detective, sorry, Inspector Gadget work with an assistant?

S: su sobrina

S: a dog

S: su sobrina y un perrito

T: his niece and a dog, o.k., his niece (T writes onBB), this is for Inspector Gadget, that is question c for Inspector Gadget

S: pero luego esto (...)

T: you will see later, you will see later, what about Torrente?

S: Cuco

T: does he work with an assistant?

S: Cuco

T: Cuco

S: Cuco y en la otra el Rafi ese, en la primera es Rafi

S: ¿el Rafi es el de los dientes todos negros?

S: no, ese es el Cuco

S: ese es el Cuco

T: Rafi era el...

S: el de gafas

S: el de las gafas

T: sí, Javier Cámara

S: el que hacía Siete Vidas

T: o.k., shsss, what are your detective's most famous cases? Do they have any famous case?...not really, famous cases, casos famosos, do they have any famous case?

S: claro, sí

S: joder

(Ss comment)

T: o.k., so, for Torrente we can say (T writes on BB)

S: Inspector Gadget contra MAD

T: but he's always against MAD, he's always against, it's not a famous case, vale, Inspector Gadget siempre va en contra de éste, de MAD, pero no era un caso especial concreto...

S: en la película sí, en la película sí

T: ah, en la película

S: en la película ¿qué pasó?(...)

T: no lo sé, no la he visto

S: no me acuerdo, la he visto pero no me acuerdo

T: o.k., shsss, o.k. MAD para Inspector Gadget y para el otro ponemos...

S: MAD es la asociación secreta, María

T: ¿tú sabes por qué? Esas siglas en Inglés MAD es loco

S: ¿eso para quien es? ¿para el Gadget ese?

T: this is for Inspector Gadget

S: ¿no era crazy? ¿no era crazy?

T: crazy and mad are synonyms, and this is for Torrente... o.k., now. Look at activity two, shsss, this is what you have to do, this is what you have to do, but you cannot choose Sherlock Holmes, you have to choose any other detective, here, or any other you think of. So, we are going to read this project, this project, and you are going to do it similar to this project, right?

S: (...)

T: with one of these or any other you think of, any detective, right?

S: ¿para qué día?

(Errors 16, 17 and 18)

T: wait, we are going to read this first, we are going to read this and then I'll tell you the date. O.k., Merce, red the project, please **(Q)**

S: ¿este? **(Q)**

T: yes **(A)**

S: Sherlock Holmes. Are you looking for a good detective? Then choose the best, Sherlock Holmes. Sherlock Holmes is /easi/ to /find/, he always has a /magnifiŋ/ glass **(A)**

T: magnifying (F)

S: magnifying glass] **(Acc)**

(Error 19)

[and he smokes a /pip/, a **pipe**.] **(A/Self-correction)**

(Errors 20, 21 and 22)

[He usually wears a hat. Sherlock Holmes has a lot of /ekspe'riens/ and he has an excellent assistant (...) Holmes /solved/ his first case in 188..., 188 **(A)**

T: solved, o,k? **(F)**

S: solved (Peer-correction)

S: since then he has **solved** more mysteries than any other detective.] **(Acc)**

(Error 23)

[His most famous cases are "The Hound of the Baskervilles", "A /studi/ in Scarlet" and (...) If you think your case is difficult, don't worry, Sherlock Holmes will solve it. **(A)**

T: o.k., B21 or two hundred and one...

S: Baker Street, London

T: o.k., very good. Now, are there any words you don't understand in this text, in this project?

S: solve

T: solve? Resolver

S: se lo he dicho yo

T3: Instructions

T: yes, very good, resolver. Now, this is like an announcement, this is like an advertisement you have on a newspaper, right? This has the form of an advertisement, so, you have to think about a famous detective and you are going to write an advertisement for him or her. Imagine that you work, you work in an advertisements agency, a publicity agency, right? And then they tell you: "I am Sherlock Holmes and I want you to write an advertisement for me", right? You work in an agency and they ask you to write an advertisement for him or her, right? So, you have to say good things about this detective, you have to give all the necessary information, like famous mysteries or cases he or she has solved, you have say, you have to say where he lives or a telephone number, right? Because people who are interested are going to phone this number, right? So you have to make an attractive advertisement, right? Do you understand? O.k., can anyone explain what I said? Marta, can you explain?

S: (...)

T: que la gente que lo necesite llame ahí, entonces, a ver. Tenéis que pensar en hacerlo, shsss, en hacerlo atrayente, es decir, que la gente cuando lo lea, cuando vea el anuncio quiera seguir, continuar leyendo, que sea, que le interese, es decir, tenéis que empezar con alguna frase que sea interesante, un título que sea bonito y que la gente cuando lo vea, por la decoración que tenga alrededor, por la primera frase que llame la atención, quiera continuar leyendo y después poner toda la información necesaria para que alguien que necesite un detective pueda llamar a vuestro detective. Entonces, como van a haber muchos anuncios de todos los de esta clase, hay que competir con los demás para que la gente llame a vuestro detective y no al del otro

S: ¿y el (...) no se puede traducir?

T: no

(Ss comment)

T: pero, vamos a imaginar que... vamos a estar en un sitio, vamos a escribirlo para, además como está en inglés, puede ser para Estados Unidos o para Inglaterra o para un país que hablen inglés, en el que sí que estén más de moda los detectives, ¿vale? So, next day we will work in class with this and then I'll tell you the exact date you have to give me the project.

S: ¿lo haremos en clase?

T: we are going to start working with this in class

S: ¿hoy?

T: not today, next day, right?

S: no, next day tampoco

T: yes, next day

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T: O.k., everybody stand up, we are going to pray...

S: everybody

T: stand up

S: come on everybody

T and Ss: our father in heaven, hallowed be Your name, Your kingdom come, Your will be done, on earth as it is in heaven, give us this day our daily bread and forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors and do not lead us into temptation, but deliver us from the evil one, for Yours is the kingdom and the power and the glory forever. Amen.

T3: Instructions

T: o.k., listen to me, you had to do, shsss, you had to do a competition for today, because I have to correct it today, give it to you tomorrow and then on Easter Holidays you have to type it, right?, because on the first day after holidays we have to go to send it, to post it, o.k.?, to the post office. We have to go there on the first day after holidays. So, we can do two things: you can work on it this evening at your home, right? and you give it to me tomorrow and I can correct it in class tomorrow, I will give you some activities, I will give you some activities for you to do in class, then I correct the compositions in class. We can do that or you can do the composition during the holidays and take the risk of sending it without correction. So you have two options: you can do it this evening and give it to me tomorrow and I correct it in class or you do it during the holidays and I don't correct the composition. I think the first option is best.

S: yeah

T: so if you have time this evening, you can, you can do it this evening and give it to me tomorrow, yes, Cristina?

S: María, que también se puede hacer, tu lo escribes en sucio, lo pasas tú a ordenador en sucio, tú lo corriges y como lo tienes memorizado en el ordenador, después mismamente lo corriges ahí en el ordenador y lo imprimimos

T: but we need to go to the post office that day at one o'clock because if we wait, then the post office is closed

S: (...)

T: we need to do it together

S: María, cierran a las dos y media

T: o.k., but I have to have lunch. I can wait until one, half past one

S: no, pero es que salimos a las dos

T: no, it's a Tuesday and you go out at one. The only solution is...

S: internet

T: do it tomorrow, internet? The, the thing, the paper says that you have to post it, you have to post it

S: María

T: it doesn't say anything about E-mail

S: María

T: yes?

S: (...)

T: sorry?... shsss, o.k., if you pay attention and shut up, maybe her question is interesting for you too. It's not compulsory, it's not obligatory, it's not compulsory, but if you are going to write it for me, then we can send it. You don't loose anything, you only can win, you don't loose anything, you can only win, so.

S: pero yo no quiero enviarlo

T: why? I will tell you if it's a good composition or no, o.k.? I will tell you if it's a good composition or no, if it's not a good composition, you don't send it, o.k.? But if I think it's good, we will send it, o.k.?

S: vale

T: now, we have to start a new unit today... tomorrow, you will have to do some activities about the grammar we are going to study today and while you work, I will correct the compositions.

S: podíamos hacer una canción o algo así

T: sorry?

S: una canción

T: no

S: o leer las cartas que te entregarán hoy leerlas mañana y así tenemos una idea de cómo hay que hacerlas

T: we are going, we are going to work on some activities about the grammar we are going to study today. We cannot miss any more classes. O.k., it's not your fault that I was ill, I was ill this week, it's not your fault, I know, but tomorrow we need that hour to study English, cause you have missed some classes and you cannot miss any more classes. María

T1: Communicative task

S: María, ¿los exámenes de verbos están corregidos?

T: yes, didn't I give you the marks?

S: no

S: ni la nota, ni la nota final

T: no?

S: no

S: la nota final es verdad

S: la nota final, María

T: o.k., I gave, I gave the test on a day that you weren't here, I gave the tests on a day you weren't here, but I can tell you the, the marks again and then tell you the mark you have for the second term, o.k.? Lorena Aguado: 7.5 and then Notable. Fernando: 7, Suficiente, because you had 4.8. Silvia...

S: ¿un 7?

S: eso es lo de los verbos

T: I say only the the grade or the mark for the verbs and then the second term, o.k.? Silvia: 10, Sobresaliente. Alicia: 10, sob.. Notable, because you had a 7.8 in the other one. Jose Laza, no está

S: dilo

S: María, dimelo y así el miércoles que lo veo...

T: Insuficiente. Cristina: 9, Suficiente. Inma: er, (T coughs) 9.5, Bien. Alejandro: 8.5, Bien. Marta: 10, Sobresaliente. Sergio: 6. Notable. Nati: 9, Notable. María: 9.5, Sobresaliente. Francisco. He's not here

S: dimelo a mi que (...)

T: Bien. Pablo: 10, Notable.

S: María no te has estirado, ¿eh?

T: you had a 7.8

S: ya, sí, yes

S: hasta ocho y medio...

T: until 8.5

S: están por ahí positivos y todo

T: and negatives too

(Ss laugh)

T: you have one positive and one negative

S: one?

T: one positive and one negative

S: ¿sólo un positivo? Sure?

T: one, and one, yes, and one. Merce: er, 7., not sorry, 10, Notable. And Adela: 9.5, Sobresaliente. O.k. So, Francisco Reyes and Jose Laza are not here today (T writes on the class assistance paper)

S: a ver que estuche, de Agatha Ruiz

S: de la Prada

S: es bonito eh? lo de Agatha Ruiz de la Prada

T: Francisco Reyes and Jose Laza

S. María, ¿cómo se dice redacción en Inglés?

T: composition

S: you will give a positive...

T: we'll give one, two or three positives

S: si, hombre y si no lo hago...

T: depending, depending on the, on the quality

S: uno

T: o.k.? depending on the quality

S: eso es injusto, María

T: it is unfair because you don't want to do it

S: yo también la hago y si la hago mal me pones dos positivos

T: one, two or three depending on the quality

S: yo por dos te la hago, por uno no

T: you try, maybe I will give you two

S: por dos positivos la hago

T: try

S: María, ¿la mía la has corregido?

T: ahora luego te la doy, o.k., open your books... open your books on page 69... Lorena, I cannot speak very well, so I would thank you if you didn't speak

S: yes

T: o.k.? because I can't speak very well, page 69...o.k., we are going to start a new unit today, what is the name of this unit, unit 8? What is the name?

Ss: Danger

S: peligro

T: Danger, o.k., the meaning of danger is...

Ss: peligro

(Error 1)

T: peligro, good, we are going to talk about dangerous activities or hobbies, so, like puenting, puenting is in Spanish, o.k.? Puenting is the name of an activity in Spanish, but it's not a correct English word. Puenting does not exist in English. **(Explains)**

S: jumping **(A)**

T: it has a different name, we will see later **(Explains)**

S: bungee jumping **(A)**

T: o.k., yes, bungee jumping, but we will see later. First we are going to read **(Conf/F)**

S: ¿cómo, cómo?

T: bungee jumping, we are going to read the pink square, o.k.? Pablo

S: dime

(Error 2)

T: can you read the first part, Language in Context? **(Q)**

S: think about dangerous activities, describe possible sit.. situations in the future, describe impro.. /improbable/ and... **(A)**

T: imaginary ( )

S: situations ( )

T: o.k., very good, Pablo, **improbable**, o.k.? that word is **improbable (Conf/F)**

S: he dicho **improbable (Acc)**

T: o.k., then it's good.] **(Conf)**

(Errors 3 and 4)

[Inma, the second part, Developing Skills. **(Q)**

S: listen to a conversation about phobias, /red/ about a dangerous /tip/ of food, write about a dangerous moment **(A)**

T: o.k., good, and now the third part, o.k., some people have "Project Work", but it's not the "Project Work", it's "Learning to Learn", there's a mistake, it's not "Project Work", it's "Learning to Learn"

S: vale

(Error 5)

T: o.k., some people in the third part have a "Project Work", but that's a mistake, that's not correct, you have to have here "Pro.., er "Learning to Learn", right?, o.k., Learning to Learn, Cristina **(Q)**

S: think about /hou/ to have successful conversations **(A)**

T3: Instructions

T: o.k., do you have any question about any of these three parts? Language in Context: we will talk about dangerous activities, o.k.? about bungee jumping, rock climbing, about type of

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dangerous activities, we will describe possible situations in the future,things that may happen in the future, maybe will happen in the future, o.k.? probable situations in the future and we will describe improbable and imaginary situations, situations which are not very probable, right? We will see what grammar parts we will use fo.., to do that. O.k.? In Developing skills we will listen to a conversation about phobias, what is a phobia?

Ss: miedo

T: o.k., when you are afraid of something, you have a phobia for something. Some people have a phobia for closed spaces or indoor spaces, some people have a phobia if they are in a high place, right? Some people have a phobia for water, right? some people have a phobia for spiders, right? do you know what a spider is?

S: araňa

T: aracnophobia, o.k.? you have a phobia for spiders... we will read about a dangerous type of food, o.k., there is a type of food that you can die, you can die if you eat it. Have you heard of this? Do you know this type of food? Shsss have you ever heard of a type of food that when you eat it, you can die?

S. pez globo o algo así

T. o.k., that's it. We will read about a kind of fish that if you eat it, you can die, o.k.? It has a poison inside, but not, the poison is not in all the fish, it's just in a specific part of the fish. You can eat and not die, you can eat and die. If you have the part with poison, if you eat the part with poison, then you die. We will read about this fish, o.k.? you will have to write about a dangerous moment. You can talk about your real life, or you can invent a dangerous situation in your life, o.k? And in the Learning to Learn you will think about how to have a successful conversation. You will learn how you can understand better someone who is speaking English to you and how you can speak better English. In this class you can keep a conversation in English, cause you understand me, and some of you try to speak English in class, so you already have successful conversations, you have good conversations inEnglish, but we will try to make it better, o.k.? Now, we are going to do activity one. In activity one, first I'm going to read the words and you are going to repeat them, right? every word I read and you repeat, and then we are going to match the activities and the pictures, all right? o.k., canoeing

T1: Communicative task
Ss: canoeing
T: horse riding
Ss: horse riding
T: mountain biking
Ss: mountain biking
T: rock climbing
Ss: rock climbing
T: bungee jumping
Ss: bungee jumping
T: scuba diving
Ss: scuba diving
T: o.k., what about picture a? what is the name of picture a?
S: scuba diving
T: scuba diving, o.k., do yu understand scuba diving? Does anyone know the name of scuba diving in Spanish?
S: buceo
S: bucear
S: submarinismo
T: buceo o submarinismo, yes, o.k., Sergio?
S: yes
T: b
S: bungee jumping
S: bungee jumping
T: bungee jumping, o.k., "puenting" is a word they have invented in Spanish, they say: "they do bungee jumping from a bridge, from a puente, so we invent "puenting"", like "footing", to do "footing", but it's not correct in English
S: jogging

T: you do jogging, very good Alicia, but sometimes in Spanish they invent words, they sound like English words but they are not correct, "puenting" does not exist, o.k.? the right word is bungee jumping. O.k., c

S: canoeing

(Error 6)
T: canoeing, very good, how do you say canoeing in Spanish? **(Q)**
S: canoa **(A)**
S: piragüismo **(Peer-correction)**
S: piragüismo **(Peer-correction)**
T: piragüismo, very good, d **(F/Conf)**

S: mountain biking
T: mountain biking, o.k., what about e?
Ss: horse riding
T: horse riding and f
Ss: rock climbing
T: how do you say rock climbing in Spanish?
Ss: escalada
T: escalada
S. alpinismo también
T: is more escalada than alpinismo...o.k., do you have any questions with this activity?
S: no
T: do you understand all the words now? O.k., now, we are going to start the grammar for today, the grammar for today is conditional sentences type I, o.k.? so, on your notebook, on your notebook write, shsss, write this grammar (T writes on BB) what day is today? What day is it?
S: the 26th

T3: Instructions
T: (writing on BB) 26th, March, 2001, sorry, 2002, grammar, conditional sentences type I, o.k., you have to pay attention to this, this is very important because there are three types of conditional sentences, right?, there are three types. Today we are just going to study the first one, but the structure of this type is going to be the same in the second one and in the third one, o.k.? if you understand type I, then type II and type III are very easy, if you understand type I, right? So you have to pay attention and try to understand this very well, right? o.k. I'm going to write an example and we are going to study the structure and then I will dictate the grammar, right? o.k., the example is going to be. (T writes onBB)... sunny, I will go canoeing. O.k., if you look at the example, you can see two different sentences: if it is sunny, one sentence and we'll go canoeing, the second sentence, right? What is the difference between the first one and the second one?
S: (...)
T: the verbal tense, o.k., what tense is this?
Ss: present
T: Present Simple (writes on BB) what tense is this?
Ss: Future
T: Future (writes on BB) is there any other difference between the two of them?
S: the "if"
T: "if". This one has an "if" and is there anything to separate both sentences?
S: comma

T: comma, we can write a rule, structure about this (writes on BB) If + Present Simple, Future. This is the structure, the rule, for the first conditional, for the conditional type I. If + Present Simple, and Future. But, you can also find this in a different order, you can find the second part first and the first part second. You can find (writes on BB) I will go canoeing, I will go canoeing, if it's sunny. We find the Future here, in the first place, and the Present Simple in second place (writing on BB). What is the difference between the first example and the second example?
S: que no hay coma
T: the comma. Is there a comma in the second example?
Ss: no
T: why?
S: because the "if"

T: o.k., the "if" is in the middle, it separates the two sentences, we don't need a comma, right? so the rule is the same, the only difference is the order and the comma, the comma is not here. So the rule is : Future If and (..) o.k., the two rules are the same, they are for the first conditional. Any question until now? Any question until now? Do you understand this?

S. yes

T: now I think it is better if I copy the grammar on the blackboard because if I dictate the grammar in English is going to be worse. I will write the grammar on the blackboard, right? Can I clean the balckboard now?

S: yeah

T: o.k.,... copy this and see if you understand, if you don't understand, I will try to explain in Spanish, o.k.? (T writes on BB) o.k., we use the first conditional for a possible future situation, o.k.? this is what we use it for, it is for a possible situation in the future, something that is very probable that will happen, o.k.?(T writes on BB) O.k., the sentence introduced by "if", which is in the Present Simple, expresses a condition, there is a condition, if it is sunny, if I have money, if I have the time, o.k.?, that's a condition. And the sentence without "if", which is in the Future, expresses a consequence of the condition, o.k.? (T writes on BB) o.k., if the condition happens, then the consequence will happen for sure, it is sure that the consequence will happen, right? But, if the condition does not happen, then the consequence will not happen, o.k.?

S: ¿for sure qué es?

T: seguro... do you understand this? Do you want me to explain in Spanish? Do you want me to explain that in Spanish? Yes? Aparecen dos oraciones unidas por un "if". El "if" bien puede ir delante o bien puede ir al medio. Si va delante, tiene que aparecer una coma para separar las dos oraciones. Si el "if" va al medio, no hace falta coma para separar. Las dos significan lo mismo y me da igual que utilicéis una que utilicéis la otra, tanto que pongáis el "if" delante, como el "if" al medio. El "if" suele ir delante, suele aparecer delante en las condicionales, pero también puede aparecer al medio y es igual de correcto, ¿de acuerdo? El "if" lo traducimos en castellano por el si condicional. Si, ¿vale? Entonces, en todos los condicionales va a haber una condición y una consecuencia. Hemos dicho que el primer condicional se usa para una posible situación del futuro, es decir, que hay bastante probabilidad de que ocurra y os digo que hay una oración introducida por "if" que va en Presente Simple, que expresa una condición y una que no lleva "if", que va en Futuro y que expresa la consecuencia de esa condición. Y siempre que se cumpla la condición, es cierto y seguro que se va a cumplir la consequencia. Ahora si no se cumple la condición, no se puede cumplir la consecuencia.En el segundo es más difícil que se cumpla y en el tercer condicional es imposible que se cumpla, pero ahora nos vamos a centrar en el primero. En el primero hay bastantes posibilidades de que sea así. Y si se cumple la primera oración, la que va con el "if", la segunda se va a cumplir seguro, ¿vale? ¿lo tenemos claro esto? Es decir, ¿qué condición tiene que cumplirse para que yo me vaya a hacer piragüismo? Según el ejemplo

T2: Linguistic task
S: que haga buen día

T: que haga buen día, que haga sol, si sale un día nublado, sale un día lloviendo, ¿voy a hacer piragüismo yo?

S: no

(Ss laugh)

T: tiene que...

S: que haya agua

T: bueno, eso está claro, a ver Sergio,sin agua no podemos hacer piragüismo, está claro, pero yo he dicho qué condiciones tienen que cumplirse según el ejemplo, ¿vale? Entonces, eh, ¿todo el mundo tiene claro lo que yo he explicado?

S. sí

T: ¿seguro? Vale. Vamos a hacer una actividad del libro. We are going to do an activity in the book, on page 70, activity five, can I clean the blackboard?

S: yes

S: yes

S: yes

T: o.k., in activity five, in activity five you have some pictures, o.k.? Those pictures, those pictures are giving you ideas, so, you have to think about a sentence in the first type of conditional that is related to that picture, for example: if I go shopping, I'll buy a tennis racquet, which picture does it go with?

T1: Communicative task

S: b

T: with picture b. O.k., picture b (T writes on BB): if I go shopping, I'll buy... What is the other, the other, shsss, Silvia, what is the other form for this same sentence? Can you tell me that sentence in a different form?

S: (...)

(Error 7)

T: o.k., very good, I'll buy a tennis racquet if I go shopping. Both of them are correct, but this is the most common one, this is more common than the other one, o.k.? Now, what about the second example?: if it rains, I won't play tennis. Which picture does it go with? **(Q)**

S: a **(A)**

T: a **(Conf)**

S: b,no? **(A)**

T: but it's only one picture for every one, for every sentence, only one picture.] **(F)**

[If it rains, I won't play tennis (T writes on BB) Can you think of an example for picture c?

We are going to do this activity all together, right? Can you think of an example for picture c? Silvia

S: (...)

T: o.k., very good (T writes on BB): if I finish my homework, I'll go to the burger bar, very good. Can you think of an example for picture d? María

S: If I go to the burger bar, (...)

T: I'll ring you, o.k., very good (T writes on BB) This is just one option, you can think of different ideas, but this is an option, o.k., very good, if I go to the burger bar, I'll ring you or I'll phone you, o.k.? you can use ring or phone (T writes on BB) the same thing, they are the same thing. O.k., what about picture e?... Can you think of an example for picture e? María

S: if I finish (...)

T: I'll go to play tennis, o.k., good (T writes on BB) I'll go playing tennis, or I will go to play tennis, I'll play tennis. And the last one is picture f

(A pause in the recording)

T: o.k., you can add, you can say: if I go shopping in Harvey's, I will buy a t-shirt or if I go shopping, I will buy a t-shirt in Harvey's, Harvey's is the name of a shop, o.k.? If I go shopping, (T writes on BB) I'll buy a t-shirt in Harvey's. Good. Pay attention. I know it's the correct time for a nap

S: ha, ha

T3: instructions

T: now it's the correct time for a nap, but you are not at home, you are in class... o.k., now, open your activity on page 58, open your activity on page 58. We are going to do activities one, two and three. We start with activity one, page 58, Sergio. Activity one. O.k., Arturo copies the dangerous activities down incorrectly in his notebook, can you write the words correctly for him? O.k., this boy is not very good in English, Arturo is not very good in English and he copied down the words incorrectly, right? He wro.., he wrote: horse climbing, is that correct, horse climbing?

Ss: no

T2: Linguistic task

T: mountain diving, is that correct?

S: no

T: rock jumping, bungee biking, scuba riding, they are all incorrect. So, we are going to write them correctly. Horse...

Ss: riding

T: o.k., you can write that, horse riding, horse riding... What about the second one?

Ss: mountain biking

T: very good, mountain biking, mountain biking

(A pause in the tape)

(Error 8)

T: rock **climbing**, not rock /klimbiŋ/, good. Pablo, bungee... **(F)**

S: jumping

T: bungee jumping, very good and Fernando, scuba...

S: diving

T3: instructions

T: diving, very good. Now, I'm going to explain you activity two. Activity two says: use the picture to write dialogues, look at the example. O.k., you have three pictures, right? the first picture is something, it's an action that the first person says, for example, maybe I'll go to the cinema this weekend. Do you understand the word maybe?

S: yes

T: what is the meaning?

S: quizá

T: quizá, o.k., maybe I will go to the cinema this weekend, that is the first picture and the other person says: but, what will you do if it's sunny? O.k.? that is the second picture, what will you do if it's sunny?, second picture. And then Mark, the first person, says: if it's sunny, I'll play tennis. He uses the second and the third picture. O.k.? Do you understand? So you have to write three conversations, using those pictures, o.k? o.k., you can start now and we will correct that in five minutes, come on. If you have any question, just call me. (A pause) (...), can you come here... to get your composition? O.k., I don't understand this word and that word, I don't know what you mean.

T2: Linguistic task

S: eso, es un vegetal

T: vegetal?

S: (...)

T: a very strange vegetable...

(The S goes to check on the dictionary)

(Error 9)

T: shsss, eh, a trabajar,...o.k., let me see, legumbre... es que yo pensaba que era pulsación y claro no me, no me pegaba para nada. Con vegetable se va a entender mejor. I saw a strange vegetable or strange.. type.. of vegetable, ¿vale? Silvia, can you shut up and work? And this one? In dawn my friend Ana called me **(Q)**

S: cuando amanecía **(A)**

T: ah! **( )**

S: es que no sé **( )**

T: es que dawn es el amanecer, pero no se puede utilizar como verbo **(F)**

S: o when the morning **( )**

T: when the sun came down puedes poner, no? Or when the morning arrived, cuando llegó la mañana, when the morning arrived, my friend Ana called me... o.k., it's very good, yes **(F/Conf)**

(Error 10)

S: (...) ah, María, ¿y esto está bien? ...lo de muchas banderas que colgaban en las calles **(Q)**

T: sí **(A)**

S: /hanged/ **(A)**

T: **hanged**... yo he puesto colgadas, he puesto el participio, María, muchas banderas colgadas por las calles. O.k., why is everybody talking? Silvia, Nati... **(F)**

S: ¿cómo lo paso esto?

T: era a doble espacio, ¿recuerdas? El, el tamaño de letra no te dice cuál, pero cuando lo pases, fíjate que no pase de tres folios por una cara, a doble espacio

S: (...)

T: no. Lo que puedes hacer es darle a párrafo y dentro de párrafo interlineado, te pondrá sencillo porque es lo que sale de normal, pues tú pinchas en sencillo y le pones doble y ya te sale todo el texto así, ¿vale?

S: ¿el título está bien?

T: sí, no está mal

S: es que iba a poner (...)

T: a real inexperience, yes

S: se aburre, ¿eh? claramente

T: Pablo, have you finished?

S: sí

S: no

S: sí, ya lo he acabado, ahora

T: have you finished the activity?... your dictionary

S: (...), María

T: sorry?

S: (...) lo traigo

T: if you want to do it today and then tomorrow give it to me and we can see if you have found how to do it with the computer, how to type it, and everything's perfect, you can do it for tomorrow

S: lo paso...

T: porque imaginate que lo dejas para el último día y te sale mal o no tienes tinta o no sabes hacer lo del interlineado, pues hazlo antes mejor.

(A pause)

T: ski

S: ¿para poner está lloviendo es it rains o it's raining?

T: it's raining, like the song "It's raining men"

S: it's raining...

T: venga... if you haven't brought the Activity, you help her but you shut up

S: (...)

T: this is for today, this is for now

S: pero para mañana (...)

T: we are going to correct it now ... and another activity, shsss, o.k., shut up

S: (...)

T: sorry?

S: (...)

T: tomorrow? Yes

(Ss work and T goes around)

T: Alejandro, sit down!

S: María para decir (...)

T: (...) shsss, o.k, we are going to correct activity two because you are talking, everybody is talking, you must have finished. If everbody is talking, you must have finished. O.k., Silvia

S: yes

T: b

S: b, Valerie: maybe I will go moun.., moun..,

S: Silvia

S: I will go mountain biking tomorrow. Mark: and what will you do if it rains? If it rains...

T: shsss, Inma, we are correcting

S: repeat

T: if it rains, we will go to the swimming pool, o.k., very good, but is that a special kind of swimming pool?

S: (...)

T: indoor swimming pool

S: ah, ¿es indoor?

T: indoor swimming pool (T writes on BB) o.k., indoor swimming pool... c, Adela, c.

S: maybe I'll go to the disco this Saturday

T: shsss, maybe?

S: I will go to the disco this Saturday

T: maybe I will go to the disco this Saturday

S: but what will you do if ...(you have a Maths test on Monday)

S: mira están tirando algo, María

T: but what will you do if you have a Maths test on Monday

S: if I have a Maths test on Monday, I will study (...)

Voices

T: shsss

S: no sé si es in the weekend o at the weekend

T: at the weekend... if I have a Maths test on Monday, I will study at the weekend. Silvia, shut up

S: I will stay in my house to study

T: sorry?

S: I'll stay in my house to study

T: I'll stay in my house to study, Alejandro, ¿quién te ha preguntado quién está aquí?

S: ¿qué?

T1: Communicative task

T: ¿quién te ha preguntado...

S: pero si me han tirado una tiza hombre...

T: y te estaban preguntando con qué profesor estabas

S: sí

S: mira, mira

S: te van a dar en un ojo, eh

T: Alejandro, ¿puedes bajar y decir que dejen de tirar tiza?

S: voy a supervisar

T: no, va Alejandro

S: voy yo

Voices

T: o.k., Marta, did you want her to repeat the question? Or was it Alicia?

S: yo

T: o.k., what will you do if you have Maths test on Monday? What will you do if you have a Maths test on Monday? o.k.? Now, d, María

S: (...)

T: maybe I'll go to the mountain this weekend, or I'll go skiing this weekend

S: (...)

T: what will you do if the temperature goes down?

(A S from a different class comes in)

S: mira el culpable,

S: es Asins, eh, a mi casi me da

T: ¿no está don Paco con vosotros?

S: no

T: vale, dile a don Paco cuando venga que suba un momentito a hablar conmigo, ale bajad, cuando venga don Paco, le decís que suba a hablar conmigo, vale ya está

Voices

T2: Linguistic task

T: o.k., María, finish the conversation, please

S: ya, la clase finished

S: (...)

T: if the temperature goes down, I'll wear warm clothes... wear warm clothes, ropa de abrigo en inglés es warm clothes

(Error 11)

S: ¿por qué no wear many /kloθes/? **(Q)**

T: porque **clothes** no es contable, no puede ser many **clothes (F)**

S: many, muchas

T: puedo decir ropa de abrigo, pero muchas ropas no se puede decir, many es para contables... o.k., shsss, no, activity three for homework

S: mira, aún está tirando

T: ahora bajaré

S: que poca vergonya

T: shss, o.k., I will not give you any homework for tomorrow, but we are going to do it in class, o.k.? You have to bring your book and your Activity, you don't have to do it for homework, but we will work in class with this tomorrow, o.k.?

S: it's for tomorrow

T: I'll see you tomorrrow then.

(Lesson 5) 4th B 27th , March, 2002

T: Stand up, we are going to pray... Can everybody stand up, please?...shsss

T and Ss: our father in heaven, hallowed be Your name, Your kingdom come, Your will be done, on earth as it is in heaven, give us this day our daily bread and forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors and do not lead us into temptation, but deliver us from the evil one, for Yours is the kingdom and the power and the glory forever. Amen.

T3: instructions

T: o.k., has anyone, has anyone written the composition for today?

S: yo

S: corrígelas

T: you are going to do some homework

S: esto (...) es que sólo he puesto esto y esto porque ya me ocupaba bastante (...)

T: did you write it for me?...(...) ...aynone else? Just Merce and Adela?... Alejandro, can you shut up?...(...) O.k., now, I told you yesterday, shsss, Adela, pay attention, I told you yesterday that I was not going to give you any homework because we were going to work in class, o.k.?, so, the first activity you are going to do is on page 59, the first activity is on page 59 on your activity...o.k., activity three, activity three is a conditional chain, do you know what a chain is? This word, chain, there is no chalk

T1: Communicative task

S: voy, voy a por tiza

T: yes, please

S: yes, yes

T: ¿hay parte?

S: no

S: y parte

T: espera un momento, Alejandro, porque si no quedan, coges tú uno de paso que...

S: eh, pero llévate ese de ahí bajo

S: yo cojo un puñado de partes y au

T: vale, trae partes y tiza

S: vale

(S leaves the classroom)

T: o.k., now, I was saying the word chain, if you read the activity: Emma is thinking about her week, write her sentences in the conditional chain. Do you understand the word chain?

S: no

T: no, a chain can be something you wear on your neck, I'm not wearing any chain, it can be something you wear on your neck

S: cadena

T3: instructions

T: cadena, very good, but if we are talking about, Lorena, shut up, if we are talking about a conditional chain, that means una cadena de condicionales, o.k.?, so, we are going to read these sentences, see, that girl is thinking and she has different ideas: if I go out tonight, go to a party, dance a lot, be tired tomorrow, fail the exam, etc. You have to construct conditional sentences with those thoughts, with those sentences, for example: If I go out tonight, I'll go to a party. Then the second one is: If Igo to a party, I will dance a lot. If I dance a lot, I will be tired tomorrow, etc.o.k.? you have to use all of them, in all the sentences, o.k.? The second part of the first sentence, there's no chalk, the second part of the first sentence is the first part of the second one. ¿entendéis eso? La segunda parte del primer condicional en la primera oración, ¿vale?

S: (...)

T: exacto, es la primera parte de la segunda oración, la segunda parte de la segunda oración es la primera parte de la tercera, ¿de acuerdo? Vale, pues haced eso y lo corregimos enseguida.

T2: Linguistic task

(Error 1)

S: (...) **(Q)**

T: sorry? **(Q)**

S: /able/? **(Q)**

T: able? Es poder, cuando no podemos utilizar can ... , en futuro o en cualquier otro tiempo que no, porque can sólo es presente y pasado, entonces se utiliza be able to. Silvia, shut up and work... Lorena, Silvia and Nati **(F)**

S: (...)

T: no, shut up and work... Thank you... Alejandro, activity three on page 59, please, it's not very difficult, it's very easy... Fernando, it takes you a lot of time to get a handkerchief, que te lleva mucho tiempo coger un pañuelo... shsss, o.k., if you don't work on your own, we will all work together

S: ¿qué?

T: que si no trabajáis cada uno solo, trabajaremos todos juntos, no hay problema, venga... Who is missing? Francisco Reyes

S: y Laza

T: and nobody else

S: Laza

T: Alejandro

S: ¿yo, qué?

T: tu estás, pero (...)

T1: Communicative task

S: María, las notas (...)

T: sorry?

S: las notas, que cuando nos las dan

S: lo dijo ayer

T: today

S: ¿hoy?

S: ¿y por qué a todos se las dieron ayer?

T: I didn't give my marks yesterday, some teachers did, the day is today, but some people didn't have class with their tutory today, so they gave it yesterday, do you understand? Some teachers, I have class with my class, with my tutory later today and I will give them the marks, but some teachers didn't have class with them today, so... but the correct day is today. Alejandro, work

S: ¿qué?

T: work, trabaja... Fernando, have you finished?

S: no

T: you haven't started

S: ha, ha

T: come on...(...) Silvia, can you work and shut up?...Inma, shut up...have you finished?

Ss: yes

T2: Linguistic task

(Error 2)

T: o.k., we are going to correct then...o.k.... can anyone read sentence b?can anyone read sentence b? Alicia **(Q)**

S: if I go out tonight, /il/... **(A)**

T: o.k., can you pronounce the future form correctly? **(F)**

S: I'll dance a lot **(Acc)**

T: o.k., **I'll** dance a lot, very good, Merce **(Conf)**

S: ¿qué?

T: the next sentence...menos mal que está Silvia al lado para decirte que es c

S: if I dance a lot, I'll be tired tomorrow

(Error 3)

T: I dance a lot, I will be tired tomorrow, if Jose Laza speaks a lot, he will have a negative, it's not an example, o.k., Jose, d, Pablo **(Q)**

S: if I **be** tired tomorrow, I'll fail the exam **(A)**

T: o.k., is it correct to say: if I be tired tomorrow? ¿es eso correcto? Si yo estar cansado mañana **(F)**

Ss: no **(Peer-correction)**

S: I am **(Self-corection/Acc)**
T: if I am tired tomorrow, very good, if I am tired tomorrow, I will fail the exam, Fernando **(Conf)**

S: if I fail the exam (...)

(Error 4)
T: o.k., if I fail the exam, I will have to do another exam next Monday, Inma **(Q)**
S: (...) **(A)**
T: o.k., if I have to do another exam next **Monday**, not /mondai/, Monday, I will not or I won't, that is correct, I won't be able to go out at the weekend, o.k., very good **(F)**

S: can you say I'm not?
T: I will not?
S: I'm not
T: no, you need to use the future in the negative, I will not or I won't, o.k.? María
S: if I (...)
T: good, if I am not able to go out at the weekend,
S: I'll be bored at home

(Error 5)
T: I'll be bored at home, I'll be bored at home, o.k.? If I am not able, the first sentence is: if I am not able, o.k.? I will be bored, o.k., Nati, next one **(Q)**
S: if I am /bored/ **(A)**
T: if I am **bored** at home,] **(F)**

(Error 6)
[what else? **(Q)**
S: /il/ watch tv **(A)**
T: /il/ watch tv? /il/ watch tv? **I'll** watch tv, Nati, o.k, Lorena, the last one **(F)**

S: (...)
T: I won't
S: I won't be able to study
T: if I watch tv, I won't be able to study, o.k., very good. What is your problem Alejandro? O.k., go to the toilett... o.k., now, go to page 61, please, go to page 61, there is a reading activity here, there is a reading activity here and there is a famous actress in the picture, there is a girl and there are two boys, o.k? do you know the name of that girl?

T1: Communicative task
Ss: Sandra Bullock
T: Sandra Bullock, o.k., do you know any film she has made?
S: Miss Agente Especial
T: Miss Agente Especial, any other?
S: Las Fuerzas de la Naturaleza
T: Las Fuerzas de la Naturaleza, any other? One with a bus? They are driving a bus?
Ss: Speed
T: Speed, o.k., any other?
S: el otro día hicieron una (...)
T: Las Fuerzas de la Naturaleza, o.k., so she is a famous American actress, right?, but the title says: A Superstar's Phobia, who is the superstar?
S: estrella
T: o.k., a superstar is a very famous Hollywood actress, right? and she's got a phobia, can you imagine what her phobia is?
S: al agua
T: what is she afraid of? Afraid of heights? Adela, if you have (...), you cannot say anything
S: pain

(Errors 7 and 8)

T: pain, she's afraid of pain, probably, she's afraid of heights, you said, she's afraid of pain, o.k., there are many phobias, so we are going to read the text and find out what her phobia is, o.k? So I need a volunteer to read the first paragraph, the first paragraph, a volunteer, Marta is a volunteer. O.k **(Q)**

S: Last week we /mit/ Hollywood superstar Sandra Bullock. She talked about her /latest/ film **(A)**

T: latest (F)

S: latest film Speed 2 and we discovered that the life of a famous actress isn't always as comfortable as it seems. **(Acc)**

T: o.k., are there any questions here? Do you have any questions? **(Conf)**

S: seems

T: seems? Does anyone in the class know the meaning of seems?

S: parece

T: parece, o.k., very good, as it seems, como parece. Are you better now? Do you feel better?

S: (...)

T: yo que sé, si no lo sabes tú

S: si no sé lo que has dicho

S: que si estás mejor

S: sí

(Error 9)

T: o.k., Alicia, second paragraph **(Q)**

S: after the incredible /sukθes/ of Speed **(A)**

T: shsss

(Errors 10 and 11)

S: the film producers /deθided/ they had to make a seq../se'kuel/? **(A)**

T: a **sequel (F)**

S: a sequel.] **(Acc)**

(Error 12)

[In Speed 2 the action doesn't happen on a /bus/, on a **bus,** it happens at sea and this, this is where problems began for Sandra. **(A/Self-correction/Acc)**

T: o.k., any question here in the second paragraph? **(Conf)**

S: sequel

T: I cannot say sequel because that word is on bold writing

S: secuencia

T: no, and we need it for the second activity, I cannot say it now. Shss. Any other word?... o.k., Adela, third paragraph

S: "when I was fourteen I nearly drowned when I was learning to surf. Water became a real phobia for me. To make this new film I decided that I had to attack my phobia by learning to scuba dive.

(Error 13)

T: o.k., any question here? **(Q)**

S: /drouned/ **(A)**

S: /drouned/ **(A)**

T: where is it? Oh, I nearly **drowned,** anyone knows the meaning of drowned?... It means ahogarse. **(F)**

S: nearly

T: it's the same as almost, nearly and almost are synonyms. María

S: scuba diving

T: scuba diving?

S: it's the vocabulary

(Error 14)

T: it's in the vocabulary, very good, o.k., María **(Q)**

S: Not only did Sandra learn to scuba dive, she also decided to swim one day with sharks. That was /defi'nitli/ the most **(A)**

T: definitely (F)

S: definitely the most frightening experience of my life.] **(Acc)**

(Error 15)

[Suddenly the sharks were swimming with me. They were watching me all the time. The really terrifying wi.., no, terrifying thing is when you go back up to sea /le'vel/ **(A)**

T: level, sea **level (F)**

S: sea **level** because you think they're going to attack you and pull you back, you back under the water". **(Acc)**

T: o.k., a long paragraph, any words here? **(Conf)**

S: frightening

S: level

T: frightening? Does anyone know the meaning of frightening? What does it mean?

S: terrorífica

T: terrorífica

S: iba a decir terrorosa

S: terrorosa

S: sea level

T: sorry?

S: sea level

T: I cannot say sea level, it's in bold writing, we need it for the second activity, any other word?... Do you understand the word pull? On the fourth line, pull you back, do you understand the word pull? Under the water, do you see it? O.k., if you enter a shop in England, in the door, right here there are two signs, push and pull, o.k., push and pull (the T makes gestures with the door)

Ss: tirar

(Error 16)

T: tirar, pull means tirar, very good. O.k., next paragraph, Inma **(Q)**

S: Sandra /overkam/ her phobia but **(A)**

T: overcame (F)

S: overcame her phobia, but when she was making the film **(Acc)**

T: shsss

(Errors 17, 18 and 19)

S: she almost /drouned/ for the second time in her life. She was swimming in the sea when suddenly the sea /bekam/ /roug/? (A)

T: rough (F)

S: rough] (Acc)

(Error 20)

[and the **(A)**

T: waves **(F)**

S: waves] **(Acc)**

(Errors 21 and 22)

[were more than two /metres/ /hig/ **(A)**

T: metres high (F)

S: metres high.] **(Acc)**

(Errors 23 and 24)

[Sandra inmediately began to panic because she thought the waves /uold/ push her /against/ **(A)**

T: against ((F)

S: against the ship that was filming her **(Acc)**

T: shsss

(Error 25)
S: /lukili/ **(A)**
T: Luckily (F)
S: Luckily her co.. co star **(Acc)**

T: yes co star
S: Jason Patrick was there and saved her. He saved my life
T: Silvia, shut up

(Error 26)
S: and became a real life /hero/ **(A)**
T: hero (F)
S: hero”] **(Acc)**

(Error 27)
[Sandra told /us/ **(A)**
T: told us (F)
S: us (Acc)
T: o.k., any question here? **Conf)**

S: overcame?

(Error 28)
T: overcame? Do you understand overcame? **(Q)**
S: sobrevivir **(A)**
T: oh.., o.k., if she has a phobia and she tries to learn scuba diving and she learns to swim with sharks, she wants to overcome... superar, su fobia, o.k.? sobrellevar, superar su fobia **(F)**

S: (...)
T: yes
S: (...)
T: against, do you understand against? If I say: Valencia is playing against Barça
Ss: contra
T: contra o.k.
S: (...)
T: sea? Ah, ship. O.k., a ship is a means of transport
S: un barco
T: right? It’s a means of transport that travels on water. Any other word? O.k., the last paragraph Cristina
S: (...)
T: sorry?
S: co-star
T: co-star means the famous actor that is acting with you in a film
S: (...)

(Errors 29 and 30)
T: es el que está de co-protagonista con otra estrella, o.k.? Cristina **(Q)**
S: Apart from that, while making the film Sandra almost /kraʃed/ a /spedboat/ too **(A)**
T: crashed (F)
S: crashed a /spedboat/ too **(A)**
T: a **speedboat (F)**
S: boat.] **(Acc)**

(Errors 31 and 32)
[Is it too dangerous being the star of an /aktion/ film, we /uondered/? **(A)**

T: we **wondered (F)**
S: wondered, we **wondered**.] **(Acc)**

(Errors 33, 34, 35 and 36)
[/id/ do it all /again/ tomorrow, /replid/ Sandra /uiθout/ a moment's hesitation **(A)**

T: o.k. Words here
Ss: hesitation
T: hesitation means doubt, if you have a doubt, if you are not sure, that means hesitation, how do you translate that in Spanish?
S: (...)
T: what is doubt? I don't have any doubt. What is that?
S: duda
T: when I say.. duda, o.k.hesitation is the same thing is a synonym, sin un momento de duda, without a moment's hesitation, sin dudarlo un momento
S: wonder
T: wonder es preguntarse
S: (...)
T: it's like una lancha, right? any other word? No words? O.k., now, did you understand the text? What was Sandra Bullock's phobia
Ss: water
S: agua
T: o.k., she had a phobia for water, right, why had she a phobia for water? Why did she have a phobia for water?
S: when she was fourteen years old
T: when she was fourteen years old, what happened?
S: she nearly drowned
T: she nearly drowned, o.k., she nearly drowned, so...
S: (...)
T: doing surfing, trying to do surf, surfing, o.k., very good, so since she was fourteen she has had a phobia for water, right? but, how did she try to overcome her phobia? How? What was the method?
S: she started a film on the water
T: she started to film, or a new film, o.k., film a film and how did she do it? What did she do?
S: she did scuba diving
T: she swam with the sharks and she tried scuba diving, o.k., very good, now, was it dangerous to make the film? Was it dangerous to make the film? Did she have any problem?
S. sí
T: yes. What was the problem?
S: (...)
T: the sharks
S: (...)
T: the problem was with waves, o.k., she had a problem with waves, she was swimming and there was some waves, all right? and the waves almost pushed her against the ship, o.k.? was there any other problem? Were there any other problems?
S: (...)
T: that was not a problem making the film, there was another problem making the film, something about a speedboat, maybe?
S: (...)
T: no
S: she almost crashed

(Error 37)
T: she almost crashed a speedboat, o.k., good, now, we are going to try to understand these words: sequel, sea level and waves, and rough. O.k.? what do you think it's the meaning of sequel? **(Q)**
S: una toma, ¿no? **(A)**
T: it's not that, it says: after the incredible success of Speed, the film producers decided they just had to make a sequel, but in Speed 2... Speed 2 is the sequel **(F)**

S: una escena o algo así **(A)**
T: Speed 2 is the sequel of Speed **(F)**
Ss: la segunda parte **(Peer-correction)**
S: continuación **(Peer-corection)**
T: the second part, continuación, o.k., or segunda parte **(Conf)**

S: yo me he perdido
T: I can't believe you are lost Alejandro, no me creo que estés perdido
S: (...)
T: estoy siendo irónica
S: ha
T: estoy siendo irónica. O.k., b, sea level, what is the sea level? It says
Ss: el nivel del mar
T: el nivel del mar?
S: la marea
S: la superfície
T: la superfície, the surface, o.k, the surface
S: (...)
T: s-u-r-f-a-c-e
S: ¿no hay que ponerlo en castellano?
T: it is better if you write it in Spa.. in English, it's better if you write them in English
S: (...)
T: s-u-r-f-a-c-e, surface se escribe, o.k., what about rough? What is rough? Suddenly the sea became rough and the waves were more than two metres high
S: (...)
T: sorry
S: (...)
T: waves are olas, that is right, waves are olas, but rough
S: peligroso o algo
T: it's something similar to dangerous
S: marejada
T: marejada o que está el mar movido, empezó a ponerse movido el mar
S: ¿movido? ¿ya María?
T: no
S: jo
T: o.k., page 62, page 62, activity 2
S: la más larga
T: read the text on page 61 again and answer these questions, o.k., do you understand all these questions? Why was Sandra afraid of water? Do you understand that question?
S. question
T: yes, why did Sandra learn to scuba dive? Do you understand?
S: esta..
T: what was the worst moment when she swam with the sharks?
S: what is afraid?
T: afraid?
S: miedo
T: miedo, miedo de , afraid of. Why did Sandra nearly drown the second time? Any problem here?... Apart from nearly drowning and swimming with sharks, what other dangerous thing happened to Sandra? Any problem here?... After her experiences making Speed 2, was Sandra too afraid to go under water again? Any problem? O.k., now, using the words in the text, you have to answer those questions now, o.k.? you have 5 minutes. If you have any question, raise your hand and I will help you. Pablo, start working please.
S: (...)
S: que treballes
T: ahí, esa, page 62... I'm going to be very angry, Fernando
S: (...)
T: me da igual, quiero que continúes, no hables... (...) can you come here a moment? (...) Adela come here,... try to see if you understand all my corrections, it is quite, quite a good text, but when you translate from Spanish into English, we make mistakes, more mistakes than when you write in English direcly, o.k? so try to see if you understand everything and then you just type it.

S: María, (...)
T: sorry?
S: para decir regresar es go back
T: go back
S: go back up
T: go back up es volver arriba, shsss, o.k., you are not working enough... Cristina
S: ¿qué?
T: work... she is not afraid now, she was, she has overcome her phobia, right?...
S: (...)
T:eh, sorry?
S: para decir ella ha superado es she
T: she has
S: she has overcome

T3: instructions
T: overcome, yes... o.k., María, Adela and Merce, I haven't written the positives yet, before we post the composition, I will make a photocopy of the compositions to keep it, because maybe there is a problem with the post and I want to photocopy and keep all your compositions, right? And then I will decide if I give you two or three positives, o.k.? But I haven't

(There is a cut in the tape)

T: o.k., shsss, listen to me, next day, after Easter we will correct this activity, right? and then you will study the second conditional, the second type of conditional, right? o.k., the class is finished, have a nice Easter holidays
S: tú también
T: o.k., thank you

T: Stand up, we are going to pray... O.k.... are you ready?

S: yes

T and Ss: our father in heaven, hallowed be Your name, Your kingdom come, Your will be done, on earth as it is in heaven, give us this day our daily bread and forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors and do not lead us into temptation, but deliver us from the evil one, for Yours is the kingdom and the power and the glory forever. Amen.

T1: Communicative task

T: is anyone, is anyone missing? Shsss, is anyone missing?

S: Paquito

T: Paquito, Paco

S: Sergio

S: y Sergi, Sergi

T: Paco and Sergio

S: María, Paco (...)

(Ss talk)

T: shsss, Fernando, shut up

S: Paco has an exam

T: an exam?

S: pero no está seguro, porque no se sabe si ha venido

T: but with whom?

S: with Susi

S: with Susi

T: with Susi?

S: in third of E.S.O.

T: in first of E.S.O?

S: yes

S: sí

S: no, in third

T: it's o.k., it's o.k., we will see later, Francisco Reyes and Sergio Perales

S: pero sí que está

T: but he's not in my class

S: pero eso ya es culpa de Susi que se lo ha ..

T: ah

S: se lo ha llevado

S: lo ha mandado

T: but she is the tutor, she is your tutor

S: pues ya está

T: she's Paco's tutor, so I will write Francisco Reyes there and Susi will see. O.k., before, before we went on Easter holidays, before we went on Eater holidays, we started the first conditional, right?

S: yes

T2: Linguistic task

T: o.k.can anyone, can anyone remind me about the first conditional? Marta, for example

S: the first conditional is used with if

T: o.k., we use the first conditional with if

S: and.. plus Present Simple plus Future

T: o.k., shss, Alejandro pay attention

S: estoy buscando la página

T: we are reviewing, o.k? reviewing, do you know what it is to review?

S: recordar

T3: Instructions

T: recordar o repasar, o.k., we are reviewing the first conditional, on your notebook o.k.? on your notebook, Alejandro, notebook, yes, look for the grammar, she said that in the first

conditional we use if plus Present Simple and then Future, or Simple Future, o.k? Good. What do we use the first conditional for? What do we use it for?

T2: Linguistic task

S: for a possible future situation

T: o.k.,something which is quite possible, right? o.k., do you remember if we could, is it always if at the beginning of the sentence?

S: no, it can be (...)

T: o.k., and do we need a comma then?

S: no

T: no, because the if separates the two sentences, o.k.? do you remember that? Do you remember? O.k., we did some activities on this and I think it's quite clear now, I think it's quite clear, but, did we correct the sentences I dictated? Did we correct the sentences I dictated?

S. no

T: check

S: no dictaste

S: no

T: I didn't dictate any sentence here?

S: no

T: then open your notebook, I'm going to dictate some sentences

S: ¿más?

S: (...)

T: page 70? On page 70, what?

S: activity 5

T: o.k., you had some homework, did we correct this?

S: no

T: no, it was for homework, it was for today, o.k, o.k., sentence a, because sentence b is already done, and sentence a is already done, sentence c, Merce

S: if I finish my homework

T: if I finish

S: if I finish my homework (...)

(Errors 1 and 2)

T: o.k. I'll go to the burger bar, if I finish my homework soon, I will go to the burger bar, o.k., good. Sentence d, Lorena d. **(Q)**

S: if I go to the /burger/ bar, **burger** bar, I'll rang phone you **(A/Self-correction/Acc/A)**

T: I'll phone you **(F)**

S: I'll rang phone you **(A)**

T: I will ring you or I will phone you, you can use ring or phone, but not the two, o.k.? I will ring you or I will phone you, o.k. e, Alicia **(F)**

S: if I finish my homework soon, (...)

T: If I finish my homework soon, I'll play tennis, o.k, very good, and f, Adela

S: (...)

T: can you invent it now?

S: (...)

T: (...) shop, I'll buy a t-shirt, very good, o.k., any question about the first conditional before we go to the next one? Any question about the first conditional? O.k., then we are going to study the second part of grammar, o.k.? on your notebook...

S: María, (...)

T: after the grammar I will dictate some sentences, yes

S: es que yo había puesto sentences

T: o.k. you can, you can continue on the other page and then we will be back

(T writes on BB)

T3: Instructions

T: o.k., before Easter holidays we studied the first conditional or conditional type I. Now we are going to study type II or second conditional, o.k.? First I'm going to write an example on the blackboard and we are going to analyse the structure, right? and then I will dictate the grammar or I will write the grammar on the blackboard and you will copy it. O.k., the example is (T writes

on BB): If I had a million pounds, I would travel around the world. If I had a million pounds, I'd travel around the world. Is this similar to the first conditional? Is this similar to the first conditional?

T2: Linguistic task

S: yes

T: in what is this similar?

S: if

T: we have an if (T writes on BB)

S: and the comma

T: we have a comma and then we have two different

S: sentences

T: tenses, sentences and tenses, o.k.? verbal tenses. The first sentence: I had one million pounds, what tense is that, had?

S: Past Simple

T: Past Simple, very good (T writes on BB) and I'd travel around the world, do you know that tense? We haven't studied that tense, this is new, we haven't studied that, but can you guess? ¿Podéis adivinar? Can you guess?

S: would

S: (...)

T3: instructions

T: conditional (T writes on BB) and in Spanish we translate it as yo viajaría alrededor del mundo, o.k? we use 'd instead of (T writes on BB), remember, in the first conditional we had apostrophe l l, now apostrophe d, right? can, can we do this in this way? (T writes on BB) can we write this part first and that part in the other way?

S: yes

T: yes (T writes on BB) then we have conditional (...) the past simple. O.k.? so the structure would be: if plus Past Simple and Conditional. This is the structure, but you must remember that we can change the order. O.k? we can change the order of these two sentences, right? We said that we used the first conditional for probable situations. Do you think it's very probable that I have a million pounds?

Ss: no

T: no, I wish I had a milion pounds, ojalá tuviera un millón de libras, I wish I had a milion pounds, is that probable? It's not probable, so this second conditional is for improbable or imaginary situations, something that I imagine, right? but I don't have it, right? Do you want me to write the grammar? Can I clean the blackboard? Can I clean these two?

S: yeah

T: (T writes on BB) o.k., copy this: we use the second conditional... (...) and improbable or imaginary situations... o.k.? any doubt? Any question?... the first part of the sentence, if I had a million pounds, expresses that imaginary situation and the second part is the consequence of that situation. If I had a million pounds, which I haven't, but if I had a million pounds, I would travel around the world, right? or if I had.. If I had a dog, I would walk him in the park every day, but I don't have a dog, if I had a dog, I would walk him every day in the park, right? for example. So, we are going to do activity 6 on page 71 and we are going to imagine that we are living a dangerous situation, right? activity 6, page 71, are you an expert in dangerous situations? Do the questionnaire below with a partner, then turn to page 99 to see if you would survive. So, they are going to give us some imaginary situations, these are not real situations, these are imaginary, right? They are quite improbable because we are not going to be in the Sahara desert, so that is quite improbable. This takes place in the Sahara desert, right? so, we are going to answer them and the solution is on page 99, right? first we are going to do the questionnaire and then we will go to page 99. So, one, well first the title is Living with Danger, imagine it, an expedition in the Sahara, but how well would you survive in the desert? Right? so we must imagine we are in the Sahara desert now, right? first question, Nati

T2: Linguistic task

S: what would (...)

T: do you understand the question? Do you understand the question? O.k., (...) do you understand the three answers?

Ss: no

T: o.k., the first one, pick up the shoe and shake it, to pick up is, for example, this is on the floor and I go and pick it up (T makes gestures) pick up something

S: recoger

T: o.k., so, pick up your shoe and shake it, do you understand shake? Shake

S: agitar

S: temblar

T3: instructions

T: yes, agitar, and it can be temblar, but in this case it means agitar, right? pick up the shoe and shake it, that is the first option in the first answer, leave your shoes, o.k., you take off your shoes, you leave your shoes and you continue walking without shoes (T makes gestures) in the desert (...) c: put your hand inside your shoe to pull the scorpion out. Remember push and pull? Remember, on the door?

T2: Linguistic task

S: tirar

T: yes, pull and push (T uses the door to explain) o.k.? Pull, so, if you put your hand in the shoe and pull out the scorpion (T makes gestures)

S: sacar

T: yes, sacar, tirar, depending on the context

S: (...)

T: these are boots, but shoes, o.k.? so, you choose your best answer: a, b, or c, right? with your pencils on your books, a, b or c. Lorena, two

S: what type of clothes would you need if you were in the (...)? b, very light clothes, c, no clothes

(Error 3)

T: a, b or c. Merce, three **(Q)**

S: eh what what would you do if a snake bit you? A, try to take the /poi'son/ out with your mouth, b, sit down, c, kill the snake **(A)**

T: do you understand the question? **(Q)**

S: yes **(A)**

T: yes? Snake and the verb bit? Right, try to take the **poison** out with your mouth, right, you do like this with your mouth (T makes gestures) and take the poison out, right? b is sit down and c, kill the snake, after, after the snake has bitten you, what would you do? right? **(F)**

(Errors 4, 5 and 6)

T: o.k., Silvia, four **(Q)**

S: which of these things /uould/ be the most useful if you had no other food? Some /salt/, some sugar, fresh /fruit/ **(A)**

T3: instructions

T: o.k., you have to choose one of the three, you don't have any food, o.k.? you are very hungry, you don't have any food, and you have to choose some salt, some sugar and fresh fruit, but you must think about the most convenient for you, sometimes maybe you feel like eating something but you have to think about the most convenient, o.k.? right **(F)**

T1: Communicative task

S: (...) of water you would need to drink.. **(A)**

T: each day

(Error 7)

S: each day, to survive? A, one /litre/ **(A)**

T: one **litre**

S: b, five and a half litres y c, nine litres **(Acc)**

T: o.k.,] **(Conf)**

(Error 8)

[do you understand? The smallest quantity of water, that is the minimum quantity of water you would need to drink each day if you wanted to survive, right? the minimum you would need, o.k., Pablo, six **(Q)**

S: what would you, what would you do if you /mit/ **(A)**

T: met (F)

S: met a Beduine? a, run away, b, ask for a ride to the nearest oasis **(Acc)**

T: uhum **(Conf)**

S: c, say hello and then continue your trip **(A)**

T: o.k., do you understand run away? **(Conf)**

S: (...)

T: that is right, o.k., escape, run away, ask for a ride to the nearest oasis, do you understand?

S: a Bedouine is a man?

T3: instructions

T: a Bedouine is someone who is born in the desert, it's like people from Spain are Spanish and people from the deserts are called Bedouines, right? They are natives of the desert, we say Beduinos in Spanish too. B; ask for a ride to the nearest oasis and c, say hello and then continue your trip. Any question on this? No? O.k., now we are going to turn to page 99, we are going to check our answers, page 99, o.k., one, raise your hands people who chose a as the right answer, o.k., you are right, the correct answer for one is a and it says: shoes are the favourite place for scorpion to hide, o.k., if you go camping, if you go to a campsite, you go camping, or you go to the desert most of the times scorpions hide inside the shoes, o.k.? so you have to be careful with shoes. Two, who chose a for two? Raise your hand, people who chose a on two, warm clothes, only two people! O.k., you were right. You need warm clothes, o.k., pay attention to the explanation, you need warm clothes because at night the desert can be very cold, o.k., the desert is very hot during the day, but some people die at night because it's very cold, so you need warm clothes, you can take your clothes and carry them, but at night you need warm clothes on you

S: ¿eso no es malo pasar de ...?

T: it's very bad for you yes, but you need warm clothes, ropas de abrigo, right? you don't wear them during the day, but you wear them at night. O.k., three, who chose b? Did anyone choose b? No? O.k., it's b because if you stop moving, the poison will only go very slowly through your body. If you move, your blood needs to go faster and the poison is in your blood and it moves faster, so you can die, but if you sit down then the poison goes very slow because your blood is not moving, it's not moving very fast. O.k.? because if you try to take the poison out with your mouth, you might poison you through your mouth, right? and if you kill the snake, if the snake has bitten you, it is stupid to kill the snake

S: yes

T: it has already bitten you, right? o.k, four, four is a, did anyone choose a? four, a, do you know why is it salt, the necessary food? Four, a, salt is necessary to replace the minerals you use up when you sweat. When you sweat, you lose your minerals, o.k.? in the desert it's very hot during the day, and when you are sweating, do you understand sweat?

S: yes

T: what is sweat?

Ss: sudar

T: sudar, o.k., when you sweat, you loose your minerals and you need, if you have salt, then the water inside your body, the salt keeps the water inside your body and you don't sweat it, o.k.? Five, did you choose a, b or c?

T2: Linguistic task

Ss: a

T: a, o.k., a is the correct one, one litre, you need more than that, but if you drink one litre a day, then you can live. Six,

Ss: b

T: b is the correct one, people of the Bedouine tribe always know where to find water. O.k., if they live in the desert, if they are natives from the desert, they know where the water is and they can tell you your way to a, to an oasis, right? and then you can find food and water in the oasis, right? o.k., now we are going to work with your activity book

S: (...)

T: sí, veremos

S: son menos cuarto

T: but we need to work on this first, right? and it's twenty til, not fifteen til, o.k., we did activities one two and three on page 59, didn't we? We did activities one, two and three, yes or no?

S: yes

S: no

T: one, two and three, right?

S: yes

S: sí

S: no

T: Alejandro, do you have activities one two and three?

S: ¿de qué página?

T: 58 and 59... do you have them? Do you have them corrected?

S: claro

T3: Instructions

T: o.k., now, we are going to do activity four, activity four says: write what you would do in these imaginary situations. The first one, these are imaginary situations, they are not real. If my house was on fire and I could only rescue one object, I'd take... and then you have to write the object you would take, right? your most precious object, right? then , if I had more free time, I'd... and then you have to write the things you would do if you had more free time, o.k.? you have some minutes to do activity four, and if you need my help, raise your hand.(...) Where is your Activity Book? Do these activities for next day because we did them and we corrected them, o.k.? you must do them for next day, but now do this one, four, o.k.? do you understand Alejandro? This number four?

S: número four, sí

T: do you understand?

S: no

T: no? O.k., do you understand the second conditional, the blackboard? Here you have the first part and you have to write the second sentence. This one is in the Past, was, past, had, past, and then you have to write in the conditional, all these sentences must be in the conditional form, o.k.? ¿seguro? ¿te lo digo en español?

S: la verdad es que sí

T: el segundo condicional siempre se utiliza... a ver, como yo le pregunte a alguien ahora, Silvia, y no sólo Silvia, más gente, y no lo tengáis hecho, me voy a enfadar porque estáis hablando, ahora voy Fernando. El segundo condicional, igual que el primero era una situación que era bastante probable, yo veo que hay nubes y digo: si llueve, no saldremos de casa, porque lo veo probable, este segundo es algo que es poco probable, improbable, o imaginario, es decir, que yo pienso: yo no tengo un millón de libras, pero si las tuviera, me iría de viaje por todo el mundo. Entonces, aquí te dan situaciones: si mi casa estuviera en llamas y sólo pudiera coger un objeto, sólo pudiera rescatar un objeto, yo cogería tal cosa. Entonces son todo situaciones que tú, te ponen en esa situación que es imaginaria y tienes que poner lo que tú harías, siempre sabiendo que el primero con el if va en pasado y la segunda, que no lleva if, es la que va en condicional, ¿vale? Ya, work.

T2: Linguistic task

S: María, ¿qué quiere decir ésta?

T: wait, Adela, I'm with Fernando, I will go now.

S: si tuviera más tiempo libre que haría yo, ir con la bici, pero ¿cómo digo eso?

T: I'd ride my bike

S: ¿y ya está?

T: yes, but you can write more things, ride my bike, and...

S: ¿más cosas?

T: yes, one more thing

S: vale

S: (...)

T: I'd buy a dog and I'd walk him, lo sacaría a pasear

S: ya, ya

T: Adela

S: this sentence

T: if I could be somewhere else right now, o.k., if I could be in a different place, not in here, in a different place

S: somewhere else?

(Error 9)

T: somewhere else, en algún otro lugar, en algún otro lugar, right? I'd be in Miami, in the beach, sunbathing, for example, or I'd be in a concert of Manu Tenorio **(Q)**

S: in her life **(A)**

S: her life no **(Peer-correction)**

T: her life? He's not a woman, he's a man **(F)**

S: ay, his, ha, ha **(Acc)**

T: o.k., ...o.k., work, we must correct this in three or four minutes... what's the problem? What's the problem? **(Conf)**

S: que no entiendo las frases

S: (...)

T3: Instructions

T: a singer or sportsman or Santiago Segura for example, vale, ¿el primer condicional te enteraste bien o no? Son dos estructuras en las que hay dos oraciones, una que lleva if y otra que no lo lleva, ¿vale? La que lleva el if va en un tiempo y la que no lleva el if va en un tiempo, entonces puedes intercambiar y poner primero la del if y luego la que no lo lleva, o al revés, pero siempre, Silvia, ¿ya?

S: es que a veces me pone

T: Lorena, la que lleva el if siempre va en Presente Simple y la que no lleva el if va siempre en Futuro. Ahora es una estructura paralela, es lo mismo, también hay dos oraciones, una lleva if, la otra no lleva if, como he puesto yo en la pizarra, pero ahora cambiamos los tiempos: en lugar de Presente y Futuro, van Pasado y Condicional, ¿vale? ¿cómo se forma el condicional? Igual que el Futuro lo formamos con will, el Condicional es con would, con la partícula (...). Entonces aquí te da el, todas las que están con Pasado, porque es la primera, la que va con if, como el if va delante, todas van en Pasado y tú tienes que poner las de Condicional, porque a ti te dicen una situación que tú tienes que imaginarte y tú haces, tú escribes lo que tú harías en esa situación, lo que tú harías lo escribes en Condicional, ¿vale? ¿ahora ya sí? Venga... o.k., somewhere else means not in here, in a different place, en algún otro sitio, que no sea éste

T2: Linguistic task

S: que no es aquí

T: en algún otro sitio

S: vale, vale, vale... else, entonces?

T: si yo pudiera estar en algún otro sitio, else, it can have different meanings, it depends on the context, más, otro, because if I say

S: ah, vale, vale, ya

T: something else? Algo más?

S: ya, ya, entonces...

T: but here it means otro, en algún otro sitio

S: ¿else qué significa?

T: if I could be somewhere else right now, o.k., if I could be in a different place, not in here, if I could be in (...) place in the world, where? In what country or in what city, in what, or in what place, I would be in the beach sunbathing or I would be in the Caribbean like Silvia

S: Caribbean

T: in the Caribbean

S: pues tampoco es mala idea, no es mala idea

T: or I, I would be in, I'd go, I'd be in, I don't know, sorry, I'd be in a rock music concert, or I would be watching a film

S: (...)

T: sleeping in my house

S: esta xiqueta està...

T: have you finished?

S: espera que està llegint el Kily, saps?

T: o.k., shss, listen to me now, shss, listen to me now please, if we correct this activity, then I will tell you your homework for next day and you can review for your test, right? so, one: if my house was on fire and I could only rescue one object, I'd take... Lorena

S: (...)

T: yes, I'd take

S: my clothes

T: my clothes, o.k. B, Merce: If I had more free time, I'd...

S: sleep more

T: sleep more, o.k.

S: ¡qué copiona!

T: you are very lazy, c, shss, Alicia

S: ha, ha

T: if I could meet a famous person, I'd like to meet...

S: Kily

T: and we'd talk about

S: his life

T: his life, o.k., very good, Marta, d,

S: if I could be somewhere else right now, I'd be in Hawaii

T: in Hawaii, very good choice, very good election, e, Adela

S: if I didn't live in this country, I'd go and live in New, eh copiona!

T: you are very lazy, c, shss, Alicia

S: ha, ha

T: if I could meet a famous person, I'd like to meet...

S: Kily

T: and we'd talk about

S: his life

T: his life, o.k., very good, Marta, d,

S: if I could be somewhere else right now, I'd be in Hawaii

T: in Hawaii, very good choice, very good election, e, Adela

S: if I didn't live in this country, I'd go and live in New York

(Errors 10 ad 11)

T: in New York, o.k., very good, nice city, now, María, f, **(Q)**

S: if I could do any /profe'sion/, I'd like to be the President of a place **(A)**

T: the President of a country **(F)**

S: iba a poner, no, una empresa **(Comments)**

T: oh, the president of a company **(F)**

S: collons **(Comments)**

T: or the manager, the manager of a company,] **(F)**

T3: Instructions

[o.k., now, for homework, you must do, shss, you must do activity five for homework and activity six, o.k., listen, in activity five you have to write the whole sentences, in this activity four we have just corrected, right?, you just had to write the second part of the conditional, in activity five you have to write the first part and the second part, in the Past Simple and in the Conditional form, o.k.? And in activity six you have to circle the correct alternative in each sentence, you must choose will or would, has or had, go or went, don't or didn't, you must find out if it is the first conditional or the second conditional and then choose, o.k.?

S: o.k.

T: any question? Any doubt? O.k., you can review for your test now, right? you have ten minutes to review for your next test.

(Lesson 7) 4th B 10th, April, 2002

T: we are going to pray

S: (...)

T: mejor no digas nada

S: stand up

T and Ss: our father in heaven, hallowed be Your name, Your kingdom come, Your will be done, on earth as it is in heaven, give us this day our daily bread and forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors and do not lead us into temptation, but deliver us from the evil one, for Yours is the kingdom and the power and the glory forever. Amen.

S: Amen.

T 3: Instructions

T: Alejandro, I don't think Amen and Eminem are the same thing, o.k., you had to do two activities for today...o.k., shsss, we did and corrected, we did and corrected activity four on page 59, but you had to do five and six on page 60 for today. Silvia, where is the "parte"?

S: ¿voy a por partes María? Yo soy el encargado del parte, can I go to the "parte"?

T: yes, there are, there are, today is the tenth, isn't it? The tenth?... o.k., activity five, Nati: John hasn't got enough money, so he can't buy a motorbike

T2: Linguistic task

S: la b no la tengo

T: a, ah que la a ya está hecha

S: la c sí

T: then Lorena does b and you will do c, o.k? Lorena, b, Lorena...

S: es que no...

T: if you don't do the homework, you will have a negative, o.k.? So, next time, you will have a negative... (...)

S: María, ¿la puedo decir yo (...)?

T: o.k., raise your hands people who have done the activity, raise your hands people who have done the activity

S: ¿(...) no vale, María?

T: yes, people who have, you are going to have a positive and the others are going to have a negative

S: María, yo lo intenté, eh

T: people who have done

S: ah

T: yes, you have, Alicia, (...) but you have the rest, so raise your hand, Marta, María, Inma, Pablo; Lorena, Fernando, Silvia, Alejandro

S: yo lo intenté, María, pero (...)

T: Sergio and Francisco, who is out, you don't have the homework... Alejandro

S: sí, dime

T: if you tried, you won't have a negative, o.k.?

S: eh?

T: as you tried... o.k., can anyone translate what I said?

S: que como lo has intentado, no tendrás negativo

S: ¿qué?

S: ahora ni en castellano lo entiende

T: and Sergio, you weren't in class yesterday

S: que yo...

T: you weren't in class yesterday, so you don't understand the homework, you won't have a negative, o.k.?... O.k., Alicia, can you write the first one on the blackboard?... En esta actividad, Alejandro y Sergio, hay que utilizar el segundo condicional. Tú Sergio, como ayer no viniste, tendrás que copiarte la gramática de alguien para poder enterderlo. Entonces lo que hay que hacer es que te dan una situación, en la primera nos dice: John hasn't got enough money, so he can't buy a motorbike, ¿vale? John no tiene suficiente dinero, por tanto él no puede comprar una moto. ¿Cuál es la situación imaginaria o improbable que saldría de ahí? Que si él tuviera dinero, sí que se compraría la moto: if John had enough money, he'd buy a motorbike. El if lo ponemos con pasado y la otra con condicional, y eso a partir de la situación que tenemos ahí, ¿vale?

S: ah pues yo(...)

T: hacer eso, poner el if delante y cambiar el verbo

S: yo no veía ni la coma ni nada y (...)

(Error 1)

T: pero porque ahí te da la situación real y tú la tienes que hacer irreal con el segundo condicional... There isn't any bread, so Neil can't make a sandwich, do you understand that sentence? Sergio, Alejandro, do you understand the sentence? There isn't any bread, so Neil can't make a sandwich **(Q)**

S: si hubiera pan **(A)**

T: no, aquí te dice, no te, ¿hay algún if? ¿hay algún si? ¿hay? **(F)**

S: no **(Acc)**

T: entonces ¿qué dice? **(Q)**

S: que no hay pan **(A)**

T: que no hay pan, y por tanto... **(F)**

S: que no se puede preparar un sándwich **(Acc)**

T: vale, ¿cúal sería la situación que podríamos hacer en condicional? **(Conf)**

S: que si hubiese pan, haría un sandwich

T: muy bien...(T reads from BB) If there was bread, Neil'd make a sandwich, o.k., with names it is better if you say: Neil would make a sandwich... you can use could too, cause the conditional form of can, conditional form of can, se haría un sandwich, se podría hacer un sandwich, no está mal el would y el make, pero si ponéis could lo que hacéis, estáis cambiando el can que hay en la oración por su forma condicional que es could, could vale para pasado y para condicional, del verbo can solamente, todos los demás verbos van con would, excepto can que lleva could

S: pero could lo podría poner también

T: no,no, o sea o pones would o pones could, una de las dos... es decir si pones would, lo traducirías Neil se haría un sandwich; si pones could, lo traduces por Neil se podría hacer un sandwich, ¿entendéis la diferencia? ¿cómo?

S: las dos cosas están bien

T: sí, lo que pasa es que si aquí pone can y no pone make, no pone que él no se hace el sandwich, que él no se lo puede hacer, tú pones que sí que se lo podría hacer, o sea, es más correcto poner could, pero lo otro, y en un examen, no estaría mal. O.k., sentence c, Nati, Diana has a headache, so she won't come to the party, Alejandro, do you understand sentence c?

S: sí, que tiene dolor de cabeza y por eso no va a la fiesta

T: o.k.,can you say the second conditional in Spanish? ¿cómo sería en español el condicional de esta oración?

S: que si no hubiese tenido...

T: dolor de cabeza,

S: iría a la fiesta

(Error 2)

T: vale... She has written: if Diana had a headache, she'd come to the party, do you think that is correct? **((Q)/A/F)**

Ss: no **(Peer-correction)**

T: what is the problem Merce? **(F)**

(Error 3)

S: el has **(A)**

T: had, has? Why? **(F)**

S: no **(F)**

S: it's in the negative **(Peer-correction)**

T: o.k., it's in the negative: if Diana...**(Conf)**

S: didn't **(F)**

T: didn't, very good, didn't... **(Conf/Q)**

(Error 4)

S: has **(A)**

T: didn't has? **(F)**

S: no **(Peer-correction)**

T 3: Instructions

T: it's in the negative because she has a headache, so if she didn't have a headache, right? si tú pones que si tuviera dolor de cabeza iría a la fiesta, estás poniendo lo mismo que pone aquí, aquí te pone que tiene dolor de cabeza y que por eso no puede ir a la fiesta, pues tú dices: si no tuviera, sí que iría, ¿vale? La otra sí que la has cambiado, de negativa a afirmativa, pero ésta no la has cambiado. O.k., sentence d **(F)**

(Error 5)
S: María, despúes de /hedaðɜ/, ¿va (...)? **(Q)**
T: despúes de **headache**, iría una coma, sí.] **(F)**

[(T writes on BB). We use the negative form not with had in the Past Perfect, but not in here, ¿o.k.? because this is a Past Simple and Simple Past or Past Simple, the negative form is didn't and the interrogative did, ¿o.k.? Now, Adela, can you do sentence d? Robert isn't very tall, so he can't become a police officer. Silvia, what is the meaning of sentence d?
S: Robert no es muy alto, por tanto él no (...)
T: o.k., how would that be in the conditional? Merce, how would you say that in the conditional in Spanish?
S: eh,
T: si
S: si, Robert (...), entonces él no puede ser policía
T: this is the real situation, he is not tall, so he cannot become a police officer. You have to imagine now a different situation. (...) lo estamos corrigiendo a ver si nos enteramos. A ver si todo el mundo que no lo hizo lo entiende, por favor. En todo esto nos dan situaciones reales y nos dicen cosas que no pueden ser por una razón: no tengo dinero, no me puedo comprar la moto; no tengo la altura suficiente, no puedo convertirme o no puedo hacerme policía. Entonces, ¿qué tenemos que pensar nosotros? Lo que tendría que pasar para que sí que pudieras hacer eso: pues, si tuviera dinero, sí que me compraría la moto; si fuera alto, sí que sería oficial de policía, ¿vale? Vale, una cosa que no os dije, porque no salía el verbo to be en ninguna de las oraciones de ayer, es que cuando aparece el verbo to be en el condicional, estamos hablando de una situación irreal, ¿vale?, nosotros en castellano tenemos algo que se llama subjuntivo, ¿vale? Yo no digo: si yo fui alto, digo: si yo fuera alto, lo digo en pasado, pero en subjuntivo, ¿sí o no? Entonces, el Inglés no tiene el subjuntivo, todo está en indicativo, bueno en verdad no es que esté en indicativo, es que no tienen otro modo más que el indicativo, ¿de acuerdo? Nosotros tenemos indicativo y subjuntivo, ellos no. Entonces, ¿de qué forma pueden hacer que este was se distinga de un pasado normal? Pues poniendo were para todas las personas. If Robert were tall, he'd become a police officer. Y entonces, no está mal el was eh, no es que esté mal, pero si ponemos esto resulta ser que entonces el que nos escucha inmediatamente distingue que es una situación irreal, ¿vale? Si yo fuera rico, if I were rich, puedo decir if I was rich, no es incorrecto, pero if I were rich suena mejor si estamos escribiendo una carta formal o estamos escribiendo una redacción, queda mucho mejor y al que nos oye le facilitamos que entienda desde el principio que es una situación irreal.
S: (...)
T: con todos no podemos hacer eso, porque todas las formas de pasado son iguales, el único verbo que cambia su forma de pasado según las personas es el to be, los demás verbos tienen la misma forma: es acabado en -ed o la segunda columna, ¿vale? Entonces quedaría: if Robert were tall, he'd become a police officer, very good. E, Silvia. Emma doesn't like science fiction films, so she won't go to the cinema with her friends. Inma, what is the meaning of that sentence?

T2: Linguistic task
S: Emma no le gus..(...)

(Error 6)
T: no le gustan las películas de... **(Q)**
S: ciencia ficción, por lo tanto ella no quiere ir al cine... **(A)**
T: ¿ella no quiere ir? O ella no... ¿cómo traducimos ese tiempo verbal? ¿qué tiempo es ese? ¿es presente el segundo? She won't go to the cinema **(F)**
S: futuro **(Peer-correction)**
T: futuro, y ¿cómo traducimos el futuro? **(F)**
S: ella no irá **(Peer-correction)**

T: ella no irá al cine con sus amigos. How would you do the conditional sentence? In Spanish. How would you do the conditional sentence? **(Conf)**

S: si a ella le gustara (...)
T: o.k., if Emma liked the science fiction films, o.k., an "s", she'd go to the cinema with her friends, very good Silvia, that was just a small mistake. O.k., any doubt here? O.k., f, eh, Pablo. Did you raise your hand, Marta? Next one, ¿o.k.?
S: uhum

(Error 7)
T: next activity. Have you copied all the sentences? Yes? O.k., f, Larry can't play a musical instrument, so he won't join the pop group. Marta, how would you translate that? **(Q)**
S: (...) **(A)**
T: no sabe, very good **(Conf)**
S: tocar un instrumento musical, por eso no unirá.. **(A)**
T: no se unirá al grupo. How would the conditional form be? How would the conditional form... **(F)**

S: (...)
T: yes
S: si Larry tocara...

(Error 8)
T: o.k., Pablo has written: if Larry played a music instrument, a music**al** instrument, (...) the pop group. That is o.k., that is all right, but, could we say a different form, could we say something else, something different? **((Q)/A/F)**

Ss: yes
T: (T writes on BB) If Larry...
Ss: could

T3: Instructions
T: could play a musical instrument. This one is: si Larry tocara un instrumento musical, él se uniría al grupo. And the second one is: si Larry supiera tocar un instrumento musical, él se uniría al grupo. O.k., do you see the difference? Do you see the difference between the two sentences? (...) si Larry supiera tocar o pudiera tocar, o.k.? Now, activity six, circle the correct alternative in each sentence. The first one says: if Norman took more exercise, he would feel better. They have chosen would because it's the second conditional, o.k., if Norman took, that is the past, so would in the conditional, right? What about sentence b? Marta

T2: Linguistic task
S: If (...) goes to the shops (...)
T: o.k., what is that, the second or the first conditional?
S: the first
T: o.k., and the first conditional is the present and the ...
S: future
T: future, o.k., very good. Now, Alicia, c.
S: Sally would go (...)
T: why did you choose had?
S: second type
T: ..la, d
S: if I went to (...)
T: why did you choose went?
S: because it's the second
T: why did you choose had?
S: because it's the (...)
T: (...) conditional, very good. Inma.
S: (...)
T: o.k., why did you choose (...)
S: (...)

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T3: Intructions

T: first, or conditional type I, very good, o.k., do you have any problem with these two activities? Do you have any problems? Is it o.k. now? Do you understand? Now we are going to go back to your books, on page 72. We are going to work on some activities about the first and the second conditional, page 72, remember that when we finish this unit, we have two or three more pages, then we have Consolidation 4 and we have a test with units 7 and 8, o.k., 7 and 8? Or, wait a minute, 7 and 8, ok., remember, I will tell you the exact date but you have to think that when we finish this, next week or the other week, we will have a test, right? (...) next day, right? (...) on page 72. Look at this girl, Sarah, she's imagining what she would do in different situations, match the pictures with these clauses and write complete sentences. O.k., we have, one, two three, four , five, six pictures and these are things that Sarah is imagining, these are not real situations, right? these are not real, she's thinking about this, she's imagining, you have the beginning of the sentences, right? if Sarah had a holiday next week... and then we have to find the picture that corresponds to that sentence and finish the second conditional, o.k.? What is the picture that goes with sentence a?

T1: Communicative task

S: e

T: if Sarah had a holiday next week...Silvia

S: e

(Error 9)

T: e, o.k., very good. Sentence a goes with picture e. And how would you finish the sentence? How would you finish it? **(Q)**

S: she would go to /pa'ris/ **(A)**

T: she would go to **Paris**, very good. She would go to Paris. She would, would go, o.k.? (T writes on BB) she... all the sentences are going to start with she would and then a verb, o.k.? because we have to write the second part of the conditional and it's always about Sarah, it talks about her, she would... o.k? B, if Sarah saw a car accident, what is the picture that corresponds to this sentence? **(F)**

Ss: a

(Error 10)

T: a, very good. And, how would you finish the sentence? **(Q)**

S: if Sarah saw (...) **(A)**

T: an ambulance, you don't need to say to, phone to no, phone an ambulance, o.k.? She would phone an ambulance or she would ring an ambulance, right? Tengo que escribir todas las oraciones o ya sabéis que todas van con she would y luego un verbo, en este caso go to Paris, en la siguiente sería phone an ambulance, ¿vale? C, if Sarah became Prime Minister...what picture? **(F)**

S: d

(Error 11)

T: d and how would you write the sentence?... could you say: if Sarah became Prime Minister, she... **(Q)**

S: she visit a hospital **(A)**

T: she visit a hospital? **(F)**

S: would **(Acc)**

T: she would visit a hospital, o.k., Adela? She would visit a hospital (..)onal form, any problem, Adela? **(Conf)**

S: no

T: o.k. D, if Sarah's parents gave her a hundred pounds

S: b

(Error 12)

T: b, and the sentence? **(Q)**

S: she would buy a clothes **(A)**

T: a clothes? **(F)**

S: some **(Acc)**

T: she would buy some clothes or she would buy clothes. It's in the plural, clothes, right? you cannot say a clothes, buy clothes or some clothes. If there was a fire in Sarah's house... **(Conf)**

S: *(S says a letter)*

T: *(T repeats the same letter)*, very good, María, and the sentence?

S: she would (...) phone

T: with her telephone?

S: (...)

T: she would call for help, she would call (T writes on BB)

S: scream

T: scream? Yes, that is good, too, she would scream (T writes on BB) scream is like the film, o.k.? gritar, chillar, o.k., any question about activity eight? Can we do activity nine now? O.k., now, write three questions to ask your group what they would do in strange situations, o.k., you have to think about the strangest situations, right? Imagine very improbable situations and you have to write three sentences: what would you do if... and then three situations, three strange, improbable, very unreal situations, right? and then you will ask other people in your class, o.k? do you understand?

S: (...)

T: on your notebook, yes, three questions, all of them are going to start with: what would you do if... and then etcetera, what would you do if..., and then what would you do if..., right? The three of them start in the same way, right? o.k., if you have any question, raise your hand

S: ¿las contestamos?

T: (...) because later you will have to ask other people in your class, o.k? (...) and Jose, can you be in silence and do the activity? can you?

S: (...)

T: (...) answer them because you will ask other people in the class

S: (...)

S: lo que tu quieras

T: (..) invent, your situations

S: (...)

T: yes, yes ... (...)?

S: no lo entiendo

T: o.k., Inma, listen, the conditional sentences have two parts, one with if and the other one without if, o.k.? the part without if goes in the conditional form, o.k.? conditional form and the part with if, look

S: (...)

T: and that is, the second or the third column? Past Simple

S: ¿cúal es?

T: think, second or third?

S: second

S: ¿esto está bien?

T: what would you do if you went to the Caribbean?

S: yes

(Error 13)

T: with two 'b's, Caribbean, Caribbean, with two 'b's **((A)/F)**

S: María!

(Error 14)

T: (...) Hollywood is with two els and then y **((A)/F)**

S: así, ¿y qué más? **(Acc)**

(Error 15)

T: y, (S writes a different letter) that is not correct, y, (S corrects) yes **(F/Acc/Conf)**

T: (...), Fernando

S: casi

S: María! ¿cómo se dice dinosaurio en inglés?

T: sorry?

S: ¿dinosaurio en inglés cómo se dice?
T: dinosaur, dinosaur (the second time the T pronounces the word as it is written)
S: ¿con y?
T: no, i
S: dinosa..
T: u, r,... u, r, letter u and letter r
S: ¿una r?
T: yes...o.k.

(Error 16)
S: ¿esto estaría bien, María? **(Q)**
T: (...) would you do if you play? **(Q)**
S: no, player football **(A)**
T: play, ah! Tú quieres decir si fueras jugador de fútbol **(Comments)**
S: sí **(A)**
T: entonces te hace falta fuera, si tú fueras **(F)**
S: ah! **(Acc)**
T: ¿qué verbo es, fueras, de qué verbo viene? **(F)**
S: was, ¿no? **(Acc)**
T: del verbo... **(F)**
S: del verbo estar, ¿no? **(Acc)**
T: exacto, y entonces aquí tendrías que poner el verbo ser o estar en pasado **(Conf)**
S: was **(Acc)**
T: pero yo he dicho antes.. **(F)**
S: were **(Acc)**
T: vale **(Conf)**

S: a ver, ya está
T: you need two more
S: ¿dos más?
T: yes
S: (..)
T: p,l,a,n,e ... plane, p, l, a, n, e, o.k., that plane means like this (T makes gestures) it's the opposite of mountains, mountains, and then plane, o.k?
S: yes
S: (...)
T: t,r,y, in the past tried
Ss: (talk)
T: shss

(Error17)
S: (...) **(Q)**
T: what would you do if ... that is in the present **(F)**

(Error 18)
S: ¿tiene que ser el futuro? **(Q)**
T: no! **(F)**
S: el pasado **(Self-correction/Acc)**
T: ah! **(Conf)**

(Error 19)
S: entonces, ¿la tercera columna? **(Q)**
T: second column **(F)**
S: (...) **(Acc)**
T: o.k. **(Conf)**

S: María, que..
T: you need two more, sorry?
S: suicidarse
T: kill yourself

S: kill

T: if your father tried , to, estaba bien de la otra manera

S: ah, ¿estaba así bien?

T: sí, if you, if your father tried to kill and now himself

S: eh?

T: I'll write it for you... o.k., if it's I kill myself, you kill yourself, he kills himself, o.k.? this corresponds to the subject... o.k., raise your hand people who haven't finished, people who haven't, you haven't, raise your hand, Jose, have you finished? Fernando, Cristina, try to finish...(...) ¿ ves como sí lo sabes? Tú en seguida dudas, y luego sí que sabes

S: yo lo entiendo a trozos

T: ya, pues oye, ¿tú te crees que en esta clase todo el mundo entiende todas las palabras? ¿o entienden trozos y de ahí ellos entienden lo que digo en la oración? ¿lo ves?

S: María, ¿habías dicho (...)

(Error 20)

T: (...) no habiais acabado que por favor acabéis rápido... if you have two questions that's enough, Nati, you have to read one of your questions and after you read it you will choose someone in the class, first you read, and then you choose someone and he or she will answer. O.k. **(Q)**

S: what do, what do you, no (...) **(A)**

T: (...) would you do if you found a famous person? O.k., who do you want to ask?.. Lorena **(F)**

S: (...)

T: Lorena, what would you do?

S: ¿qué tengo que contestarle?

T: what would yo do if you saw or if you met, if you found a famous person? I would...ask for an autograph or I would kiss him on his cheeks, I don't know, what? I would, what?

S: I would..

T: what?

S: pedir?

T: ask

S: ask

T: for

S: for an autograph

(Error 21)

T: o.k., very good, now, Lorena, your question **(Q)**

S: er, what would you do if you went to the Hollywood? **(A)**

T: what would you do if you went to Hollywood? Without the, what would you do if you went to Hollywood? Who do you want to ask? **(F)**

S: Fernando

T: Fernando, what would you do if you went to Hollywood?

S: eh?

T: what would you do..

S: sí

T: if you went to Hollywood?

S: ¿qué si fuera para allá?

S: si fuera para allá, ha, ha

Ss: ha, ha

T: I would...

(A pause in the tape)

(Error 22)

S: what would you do if you sing..sang **(A/Self-correction/Acc)**

T: you sang, very good **(Conf)**

S: in the group of the Mojinos Escocíos? Esta va para Alejandrito

S: ¿qué? ¿qué ha dicho?

T: o.k., what would you do if you sang in the group Los Mojinos Escocíos?
S: y ahora en castellano qué quiere decir
S: ha, ha
T: intenta entender Alejandro
S: a ver, repite
T: what would you do if you sang, shss,
S: ¿si yo viera a los Mojinos?

(Error 23)
T: if you sang, la, la, la, in the group Los Mojinos Escocíos **(Q)**
S: I was the king, yo sería el rey **(A)**
T: I would ... **(F)**
S: pues eso, would **(Acc)**
T: I would, what? **(Conf)**

S: ah tengo que..
T: I would...
S: yo que sé María

(Error 24)
T: se traduce al inglés: yo sería el rey o yo sería el líder, ¿cómo sería yo sería el rey? **(Q)**
S: I was **(A)**
T: I would, it's not in the Past, it's in the conditional **(F)**

(Error 25)
S: pues, I would a king, ¿no? **(A)**
T: I would be the king **(F)**
S: pues eso **(Acc)**
T: I would be the king or I would be the leader. O.k., your question **(F/Conf)**

S: what would you do if you were a football player, Levante or Valencia?
S: (...)
T: eh, Jose, por favor, ese lenguaje
S: que está grabado, tío
S: repeat
T: what would you do if you were a football, what would you do if you were a football player in the Levante or Elche?
S: ¿qué en qué equipo me gustaría jugar?
T: no, what would you do if you were a football player in the Levante or Elche?... would you be a goal keeper? Portero, would you be in the defense?
S: ah, ¿de qué?
T: él te dice qué harias si fueras jugador del Levante o del Elche, entonces tú puedes decir cualquier cosa: si serías bueno, si serías malo, si serías..
S: recogepelotas, ha, ha
T: portero
S: ¡qué tío!
S: I would be (...)
T: shss

(Error 26)
S: central **(A)**
T: I would be central, I would be middlefield, es como se dice en inglés, I would be middlefield, o.k., your question, Lorena, pay attention **(F)**

S: ¿esto está bien?
T: yes

(Error 27)
S: what would you do if you /bougt/ **(A)**
T: shss **(Directs)**

S: a car **(A)**
T: can you repeat? Because those girls are there (...) **(Q)**
S: yes, what would you do if you /bougt/ a car? **(A)**
T: if you **bought** a car, o.k **(F)**
S: bought (Acc)

T: who do you want to ask?
S: Pablo

(Error 28)
T: Pablo? What would you do if you bought a car? **(Q)**
S: ah hombre pues tener.. **(A)**
T: shss, he doesn't ask which car, he says: what would you do if you had a car or if you bought a car? I don't know, would you go to somewhere? Or would you keep it in the garage? Or what? ¿qué harías si te compraras un coche? **(F)**
S: ah! **(Acc)**
T: no te dice qué coche, te dice qué harías si te compraras un coche **(F)**
S: ah, ya, ya, I would.. **(Acc)**
T: shss **(Directs)**
(...)
T: you would drive, o.k., very good, Pablo **(Conf)**

S: a ver
T: your question
S: what would you do if you could travel to London?
T: what would you do if you could travel to London? Very good, and very well done, who do you ask?
S: eh, a Merce
T: Merce? Did you understand the question, Merce?
S: no
T: no because you were talking
S: negative!
T: did anyone listen to Pablo?
S: yo sí
S: yes
T: o.k., Marta, can you answer?
S: I would talk a lot of English
T: I would talk a lot of English, very good. Now, the last question, shss
S: (...)

(Error 29)
T: it didn't stop raining in two months, what would you do if it didn't stop raining in two months? And who do you want to ask? **(Q)**
S: to Inma **(A)**
T: Inma **(F)**

S: (...)

(Error 30)
T: o.k., imagine, it is raining for two months and it doesn't stop, what would you do? Raining for two months **(Q)**
S: ah! Dos meses? **( )**
S: buah, me muero en casa **( )**
S: I was, was? **(A)**
T: I would be **(F)**
S: I would be] **(Acc)**

(Error 31)
[in home **(A)**
T: at home **(F)**

505

S: at home **(Acc)**
T: I would be at home, o.k., we will continue next day, the class is finished. **(Conf)**

(Lesson 8) 4th B 12th, April, 2002

T: everybody go to your places, shsss, stand up, we are going to pray

T and Ss: our father in heaven, hallowed be Your name, Your kingdom come, Your will be done, on earth as it is in heaven, give us this day our daily bread and forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors and do not lead us into temptation, but deliver us from the evil one, for Yours is the kingdom and the power and the glory forever. Amen.

S: Amen.

T1: Communicative task

S: María, ahora es a la Mare de Deu, no es el Padrenuestro

T: but you know in this class we don't pray the normal prayers

S: ah no

T: we have one prayer for all the year

S: (...)

T: no, we go the other way

S: (...)

T: o.k., did you have any homework for today?

S: no

S: que no

T: I'm too good, I am too good with you

(Ss talk)

S: no te fías, ¿eh?

T3: Instructions

T: no, estoy mirando lo que vamos a hacer ahora...o.k.,...we have studied, shsss, we have studied the first and the second conditional, right? do you have any question, any doubt about the first or the second conditional form? Do you understand the first and the second conditional? Any question? We are going to do one last activity about this and we are going to check if you understand this, right? activity seven on page 60 on your Activity; page 60, activity seven. Activity seven, Nati, can you read activity seven, please?

S: (...) the sentences, then match the (...)

T: o.k., 60, Alejandro, in this activity you have to match the two parts of the sentences, right? a, b, c, d, e, f and g have two parts, right? they all have two parts. First we are going to match them and then you are going to write a P for possible future situations or I for improbable or imaginary situations; which is the first conditional: P or I?

S: P

T: which one, Adela?

S: P

T: P o.k., very good, possible future situations, that is the first conditional and improbable future situations, I, ...

S: the second conditional

T: o.k., Merce, the second conditional, very good, right? So you can write P and I, or you can write 1 and 2. I don't mind , o.k.? Now, if we arrive late to the airport, the plane will leave without us, that is P or first conditional, right? a possible future situation, why is it the first conditional? Why is this the first conditional? How do we know?

T2: Linguistic task

S: cause it's (...)

(Error 1)

T: o.k., in this sentence they have used the Present Simple and the Future, so that is the first conditional or P, right? Do you understand? Do you understand this activity? Yes? O.k., if I see your brother, that is sentence b, Lorena **(Q)**

S: esa no la he hecho **(A)**

T: it doesn't matter, we are doing this now, we are doing this activity now **(F)**

S: que..

S: ahora **(Peer-correction)**

S: ahora **(Peer-correction)**

T: it wasn't for homework, we are doing it now, o.k? it doesn't matter, don't worry, look at this sentence, Lorena: if I see your brother... **(F)**

S: (...) **(Acc)**

T: (...) give him the message, o.k., very good, if I see your brother, I'll give him the message, is that the first or the second conditional? **(Conf)**

S: first

T: Lorena

S: first

T: first, o,k. So we can write P. O.k., Merce, the next one

S: if I knew his adress, I'd go and visit him tomorrow

T: If I knew his adress, I'd go and visit him tomorrow, very good, is that the first or the second?

(Error 2)

(A pause in the tape) **(Q)**

S: if the /bus/ is late **(A)**

T: if the /bus/? **(F)**

S: if the **bus** is late, he'll be late for school **(Acc)**

T: o.k., is that the first or the second conditional? **(Conf)**

S: the first

(Error 3)

T: why is it the first? **(Q)**

S: yes **(A)**

T: why? **(F)**

(Error 4)

S: porque lleva /il/ **(A)**

T: porque lleva.. **(F)**

S: futuro **(Acc)**

T: because it's in the future, o.k.] **(Conf)**

(Error 5)

[Francisco **(Q)**

S: Francisco no.. **(A)**

T: we are doing this now, it wasn't for homework **(F)**

S: yo que sé María, yo no sé hacer esto

T: o.k., look, if I wasn't afraid of flying, right? is that present or past?

S: past, no?

(Error 6)

T: past, so that's the second conditional, you need another part here in the conditional form, because it's the second conditional (...) if I wasn't afraid of flying, si no tuviera miedo a volar, which one of these? **(Q)**

S: ah **(A)**

T: it could be this, this, this, that's all (T points at S's Activity Book) **(Q)**

S: if I wasn't afraid of flying, /id/ **(A)**

T: **I**'d **(F)**

S: **I**'d go by plane more often **(Acc)**

T: o.k., and is that the first conditional or second? **(Conf)**

S: uhm...

T: first or second

S: first.. second, yo que sé

T: second

(Error 7)
S: (...) meet Tom Cruise, I'd ask for his /autograf/ **(A)**
T: o.k., very good, if I met Tom Cruise, I'd ask for his **autograph,** and is that the first or the second? **(F)**

S: second
T: o.k., very good.]

(Errors 8 and 9)
[Alejandro **(Q)**
S: yo no estoy **(A)**
T: this is the easiest one because it's the last one **(Q)**
S: if I had lots of /monei/, /id/ buy a big house **(A)**
T: /id/ buy a big house? /id/? **(F)**
S: I'd **(Acc)**
T: I'd buy a big house, is that the first or the second? **(Conf)**

S: the second
T: o.k., very good... Now, do you remember, do you remember the first day we started with this lesson I said we were going to talk about phobias? Remember that? That is on your book on page 73, go to your book to page 73... O.k., what can you see on this page in activity one in those pictures? What can you see? What is picture a?
S: a plane
T: a plane, o.k.What is picture b?
Ss: a spider
T: a spider, o.k., what about picture c? What is that?
S: heights
T: o.k., heights means..., Sergio
S: altura

(Error 10)
T: altura, but what can you see in the picture? **(Q)**
S: /klimb/ **(A)**
T: you can see a man **climbing**, very good. What about picture d? What is that? What can you see? **(F)**

S: eyes
T: eyes, but can you see the rest of the face?
Ss: no

(Error 11)
T: you can only see the eyes, why? **(Q)**
S: dark **(A)**
T: because he's in the dark or she is in the dark, o.k., what about e? What are they? **(F)**

S: rats
S. ay, ¡qué asco!
T: they are, what?
S: rats
T: rats, o.k.,do you, do you know the difference between a rat and a mouse?
S: ratas y ratones
T: o.k., and what about in English? (T goes to the blackboard) There is no chalk... o.k., can anyone go to Puri to get some chalk? Pablo? O.k, thank you Pablo.
S: gracias
S: (...)
T: yes
S: si ayer trajo Silvia partes
T: o.k., o.k., when Pablo, shss, when Pablo comes back with the chalk, Alejandro and Jose, Marta and Alicia, when Pablo comes back with the chalk, I will write the singular and plural of the

words rat and mouse, o.k.? and what about the last picture? What can you see there? (...) can you see there? In picture f

Ss: (...)

(Error 12)
T: María? **(Q)**
S: a small place **(A)**
T: a small place **(Repeats)**
S: where there are **(A)**
T: where there are **(Repeats)**
S: more people **(A)**
T: many people, many people, o.k.? What day is it today? Is it the twelfth? Who is missing? Silvia? **(F)**

S: ahora viene

(Error 13)
T: now, Lorena, can you read the activity? Can you read it? **(Q)**
S: the pictures show (...) **(A)**
T: terrifying **(F)**
S: terrifying to see, the (...) **(Acc)**
T: o.k., stop there, thank you, what you have to do here, what you have to do is to think about the most terrifying and order them from one to six **(Conf)**

S: ¿para nosotros?
T: yes, according to you, from one to six, but before that, rat is rata in Spanish, o.k? and what is the plural?
S: ratas
T: in English
Ss: rats
(T writes on BB)
T: (...) mouse?
S: mice?

T3: Instructions
T: mice, yes. (T writes on BB) this is an irregular word, it has an irregular plural form: mouse-mice, this is regular, just one s, o.k.? This could be on your test, this could be on your test. If you didn't take note of that, you will not know this in the test.(...) What you have to do is to order them from one to six, from the most terrifying to the least frightening, do you understand that? Do you understand that? Marta, can you explain what they have to do?
S: (...)
T: you have two minutes or one minute... are you finished? Alejandro, have you finished?...have you finished the activity? That doesn't mean you can talk, o.k., now, raise your hands people who have chosen a as the most frightening, did anyone choose a, flying, as the most frightening? Did anyone choose a? Nobody, who has travelled by plane in this class? Who has travelled by plane? Raise your hand, people who have travelled by plane... so the rest of you don't know if you are afraid of this because you haven't travelled,... but, I'm asking now: who has travelled by plane? Only two people, so the rest don't know if they are afraid or not because they haven't travelled, o.k., b, who has chosen b as the most frightening? Who is afraid of spiders?... It's the worst, o.k. who has chosen heights? Afraid of heights? You and Alicia, o.k., who is afraid of the dark? María

T1: Communicative task
S: (...)

(Error 14)
T: you are the only one afraid of dark **(Comments)**
S: ¿es a la oscuridad? **(Q)**
S: dice que a los negros, dice que a los negros **(A)**
(Ss talk)

T: o.k., o.k., Lorena, **(Nominates)**
S: la madre que te parió **(Comments)**
T: Lorena, this book, shss, this book is not racist **(Explains)**
S: hago: a los negros **(Comments)**
T: she thought it was afraid of black people **(Explains)**
S: mare de Deu **(Commnents)**
T: no, it's afraid of the dark **(F)**

S: digo..
T: o.k., who is afraid of rats? Sergio, Adela..
S: ¿a qué? ¿a las ratas? Yo
T: and Lorena, and Merce, and Nati... who is afraid of small places?
S: (...) ¿qué, qué?

T3: Instructions
T: afraid of small places, Pablo, o.k., and Merce, o.k., now, we are going to listen to three people talking about their fears, talking about their phobias, o.k? They are Jenny, Anne and Mark. And you are going to listen to this and you have to tell me what are they afraid of, what is Jenny afraid of, what is Anne afraid of and what is mark afraid of, o.k.? As I don't have different voices, as I don't have different voices, I will read the name of the person who is talking every time, o.k.?, so you can understand, right? Jenny: oh, no! Help quickly. Mark: Jenny, what is it? Anne: what's the matter? Jenny: look, over there, in the sink. Mark: what? all I can see is a spider. It's very small. Jenny: exactly, but I'm terrified of spiders. I can't stand them. Anne: well, look. It's gone now. You can relax. I didn't know you were afraid of spiders Jenny, why is that? Jenny: I don't know really. Mayde it's because when I was small, I remember one night I was going to bed, I put back the sheet and there was this enormous red spider in my bed. Anne: oh, how horrible! Jenny: yes, And I'm terrified of spiders, big or small, you know, some people get angry with me or they laugh at me because they think I'm being silly, but there's nothing I can do. Mark: I suppose the same thing happens to me with rats and mice. When I was a child, I was in bed one night and I could hear the sound of something in the dark. I turned on the light and I saw a rat eating my comics. Jenny: ugh! Mark: afterwards I had dreams of a big rat coming to eat me when I was aslept. Luckily I don't dream about them any more.The dreams have stopped now. Anne: I don't know why you are both afraid of animals and insects. I'm interested in them. Mark: yes, but I bet you are afraid of something else. Anne: uhm, well, yes, flying. Mark: what? you don't like flying?Anne: no, I can't stand it. Jenny: oh, so that's why aren't you coming with us on the school trip to Italy? Anne:yes. (...)
S: no

(Errors15 and 16)
T: it's a part of the kitchen, it's something(...) does anyone know the meaning of the word sink? We studied it in Third of E.S.O. What is the sink in the kitchen? Sink, s, i, n, k **(Q)**
S: (...) **(A)**
T: that's in the living room, it's only in the kitchen, it's bigger than a pan (...) where you can do the washing up **(A)**

T2: Linguistic task
S: el lavaplatos **(A)**
T: (...) it could be that you said, but it's the sink **(F)**

S: si acaba en k
T: yes
(Ss talk)
T: o.k., so what is Jenny afraid of?
Ss: spiders
T: spiders, very good. What is Anne afraid of?
Ss: flying
T: flying. And what is Mark afraid of?
Ss: rats
T: rats and...
S: mice

T: rats and mice, o.k., very god, now, do you think, do you think you could answer those questions there without me reading it again? We are going to try to answer the questions, right? If you don't know all of the answers, then I will read the text again, right? The first question is: Jenny has been afraid of spiders since she was a child, o.k., they are not questions, they are sentences, is that true or false?

Ss: true

T: o.k.

S: true

(Error 17)

T: Jenny found a big red spider in her bed **(Q)**

Ss: false **(A)**

S: era small **(A)**

Ss: era big **(Peer-correction)**

T: it was a big red spider, o.k., listen Francisco, the small one is in the sink in the present, but in the past, when she was a child, she found a big red one in her bed. **(F)**

(Ss talk)

T: o.k., that is for you to understand, do you remember about the cookie monster? Remember that? Sesame Street? Exagerating things? This is for you to understand, if I say big, you don't understand, if I say big red spider

S: (...)

T: stop saying stupid things, I didn't call you stupid

S: (...)

T: that's your opinion, that's what you say, o.k., Jenny is only terrified of big spiders

S: false

T: is that true?

Ss: false

T: she's terrified of all the spiders, big, small, red, black all of them, not only big spiders. Anne saw a big rat in the kitchen one night

Ss: false

T: o.k., it was not Anne, it was...

Ss: Mark

T: and it wasn't in the kitchen, it was...

Ss: bedroom

T: in his bedroom, o.k., Anne has stopped dreaming about rats now

Ss: Mark

T: Mark has stopped dreaming about rats now. Jenny, Mark and Anne are going on a school trip to Italy

S: false

T: false? Why?

S: cause Anne doesn't go

S: (...) but Anne

S: (...)

T: Jenny and Mark go, but Anne is not going. Why isn't Anne going? Why isn't Anne going?

S: (...)

T: she is frightened of flying, she's afraid of flying. O.k., now, shss, have you noticed what is the preposition that goes after afraid or frightened? Afraid.. or frightened.. and what is the preposition that goes, if I say afraid and rats, what is the preposition that goes between the two words?

Ss: of

T: of, o.k., do you think all the adjectives have the same preposition?

S: (...)

T: (...) say: I'm interested, do you say interested of?

Ss: no

S: in

T: no, o.k., we have three prepositions here, yes, Marta, you were right, it's in. We have three prepositions here: of, in and with, and we have er six, no,sorry, five sentences, we are going

to complete them with of, in or with. We are in the Investigating Vocabulary, right? Henry's frightened...

Ss: of

T: of... (...) rested...

Ss: in

T: in music. I'm afraid...

Ss: of

T: of heights. My father is angry...

Ss: with

T: with me. Jenny is terrified...

Ss: of

T: of spiders. O.k., why do you think frightened, afraid and terrified have the same preposition, of? Why?

S: (...)

T: they are three similar words, they are synonyms, they mean the same and they have the same preposition, very good, Marta. Afraid, frightened and terrified, they are more or less the same word, the same meaning, right? So, they are a kind of synonyms and they have the same prepositon: of. o.k.? Let's see. Go to your Activity, to page 62, go to your Activity, to page 62 and we are going to practice on the use of prepositions, right? Fernando, read sentence a, activity three, sentence a.

S: er, he's afraid of flying

T: o.k., why have they used the preposition of?

S: eh?

T: why have they used the preposition of? and not in or with, they have used of, why?

S: no sé

T: he's afraid with flying, he's afraid in flying, is that correct?

S: sí, sí que está correct

T: this is correct, yes

S: sí

T: but why of with afraid?... o.k., look at your list here, afraid goes with of

S: uhum

T: not with in or with, o.k? so, here afraid

T and S: of

T: right?

S: ya está

T: o.k.

S: ¿qué querías?

T: ¿por qué of y no otra? Me tenías que decir que esa palabra, afraid, lleva esa preposición

S: ah, pues ya está

(Error 18)

T: Pablo, can you write or can you tell me the sentence for b?... you have to use one of these words **(Q)**

S: yes **(A)**

T: and one of the other prepositions: of, in or with, right? **(Q)**

S: he's /terrifid/ of spiders **(A)**

T: he's **terrified** of spiders, very good, he's terrified of spiders, good.] **(F)**

(Error 19)

[Inma, c **(Q)**

S: she's /interested/, er **(A)**

T: interested (F)

S: interested (...) **(Acc)**

T and Ss: in **History**,

T: not in History, she's interested in History, very good, d, Cristina

S: my father is angry, er, with me

(Error 20)

T: o.k., you could say: my father is angry with me or his father is angry with him, o.k.? very good, what about e? Adela **(Q)**

S: She's /skared/ **(A)**
T: scared (F)

S: (...)
T: scared of
S: heights
T: heights, very good, scared is the fourth synonym, we had: afraid, terrified, frightened and now we have scared. O.k.? we have four synonyms. Do you understand that?
S: yes
T: o.k. Now,
S: ¿lleva of?
T: of, yes, because it is a synonym of frightened, terrified and afraid, and they all have of, o.k.? Now, we are going to read the text about a famous actress, we have to go back to page 61, we have to go back to page 61, and we are going
S: esto ya está hecho, eh?
T: but did we, did we answer all these questions? No, we just did this, yes?
Ss: yes
T: did we correct it? Did we correct it?
S: yes
T: yes?
Ss: yes
T: o.k., that's good. Then, go to the writing part, o.k., go to page 74 on your book, go to page 74, on your book. O.k., what can you see on those pictures?
S: animals

(Error 21)
T: animals, shss, we can see animals in these pictures and, are they animals you can eat? Are they animals you can eat? **(Q)**
S: yes **(A)**
T: yes? All of them? **(F)**
S: yes **(A)**
Ss: no **(Peer-correction)**
T: o.k., have you ever tried picture a, ant? **(Conf)**

S: no
T: but there are people who eat ants. Some people in China and in other places, they eat ants
S: mi abuelo
T: and they sell them in jars, glass jars, they eat ants, o.k.? and you can buy them at the supermarket. What about picture b?
S: fish
T: that's a kind of fish, yes, do you know the name of that fish?
S: pez globo
S: globo

(Error 22)
T: o.k., we will read, we will read something about this fish later, so I'm not going to talk about that fish now, we will read a text about that fish, right? What about c? **(Q)**
S: ostras **(A)**
T: oysters (F)
S: oysters (Peer-correction)
T: oysters, we studied that word in a previous unit, remember, On the Coast? The unit On the Coast? We learnt the word oyster. O.k., oyster, have you ever tried oysters? Have you ever tried oysters? Have you ever eaten oysters? **(Conf)**

S: no
S: sí
T: are they good? Do you like them?
S: no sé

T: I said: have you tried? And you said: yes...Primero digo: ¿lo has probado? Y me dices que sí, y digo: ¿están buenas? Y dices: no lo sé, no las he probado.

S: no, es que había entendido: ¿las has probado? Y digo no.

T: o.k., no problem, has anyone in this class

S: no, María, (...)

T: ah, vale, no pasa nada, has anyone in this class eaten oyster?

S: ah, yo

T: and do you like them?

S: no

S. yes

T: Pablo likes them and Fernando doesn't like them. I like them, I think they are very good. They are nice. What about picture d? What about d?

S: caviar

T: caviar, yes

S: ¿rojo también?

T: there are two kinds of caviar: red and black

S: yo que me creía que eran moras

(Ss laugh)

T: no, it's caviar, Francisco, have you ever tried caviar? Have you ever eaten caviar? No?

S: sí, pero

T: o.k., there is a false one, it's not real caviar, it's an imitation of caviar and it is cheaper, but the real caviar is very very expensive, o.k.?

S: pero ese es malo

T: what about picture e, snails?

S: caracoles

T: do you eat snails, do we eat snails in Spain?

S: yes

T: yes, we do. O.k., in other countries in the world they don't eat snails, but here in Spain we eat them. Shss, in other parts they think we are crazy to eat snails

S: claro

T: and they think we are crazy because we eat rabbit, f, in the paella there are, there is chicken and there is rabbit, o.k.?

S: ay, pobre, me da una lástima

T: but, the people in England or

(A pause in the tape)

T: and in the U.S.A., right? they have rabbits at home, they have rabbits as pets, and they think we are crazy because we eat rabbits. It's like if you ate a hamster, or

S: a dog

T: a turtle, or a dog, yes, they think we are crazy, right? but rabbit is very good and it gives a special taste, un sabor especial, a special taste to the paella, right? the paella is not the same without rabbit, right? Now,

S: y sin arroz

(Error 23)

T: sin arroz seguro que no es lo mismo, eso es obvio, no hace falta que lo digamos. O.k., so, shss, you must think, Jose, you must think that people don't eat the same things in all the world, right? We eat different things, and for us, it is strange to eat ants, but for English or Americans, it is strange that we eat rabbit, for example, right? O.k., we are going to read text five, text, the text in activity five. What type of food from activity four is this text about? Is it about the rabbit? **(Q)**

S: fugu **(A)**

T: is it about the ants? **(Q)**

S: fugu **(A)**

T: it's about **(F)**

S: fugu **(A)**

S: a fish **(Peer-correction)**

T: the fish, o.k.,] **(Conf)**

(Errors 24 and 25)

[now, María, can you start reading first paragraph, please? **(Q)**

S: What is the most special food in the world? Caviar, oysters, no, it's fugu or /pufer/ fish **(A)**

    T: puffer fish **(F)**

    S: puffer fish and a plate of it can cost more than twen.., no, two thous.., no, two hundred pounds, but, that isn't the most surpris.., the most surprising thing about fugu: the most surprising thing is that fugu can kill you. **(Acc/A/Self-correction)**

    T: o.k., any doubt, any question on the first paragraph? **(Conf)**

    S: ¿cuánto son 200 pounds?

    T: two hundred pounds? O.k., a pound is around two hundred and seventy pesetas, more or less, two hundred and seventy pesetas, so two hundred is quite a lot for just one plate (...) word you don't understand? In the first paragraph?

    S: puffer fish

    T: sorry?

    S: puffer fish

    T: puffer fish, it's the name of that fish, it is called fugu or puffer fish, fugu o pez globo, we call it pez globo, but in English they call it puffer fish, shss, when you say something is puffy, it means is like, how would I say? A ver, ¿cómo lo puedo explicar? Es que no me sale ahora, no pienso en un ejemplo, cuando algo está esponjoso, ¿vale? Por ejemplo, (...) lavar y está esponjoso o el pelo a veces del tiempo o eso se queda como de punta (...) o algo así, pues eso sería

    (A T comes in: María, que ya le he dicho a Pura que (...))

    (Error 26)

    T: o.k., so, puffy, right? and this is puffer fish, it is a fish that is like puffed, o.k.? Now, second paragraph, Adela **(Q)**

    S: Fugu is an ugly fish which contains a type of poison that is twenty (...) than... **(A)**

    T: cyanide **(F)**

    S: cyanide.] **(Acc)**

    (Error 27)

    [(...) every day, every year in Japan from eating fugu. So, why do hundreds of people eat it? I /deθided/ to **(A)**

    T: I **decided (F)**

    S: I decided to go to a restaurant (...) **(Acc)**

    T: o.k., is there any word you don't understand here? **(Conf)**

    S: sí cyanide

    T: can you tell me (...) cyanide, it's a type of poison, a type of poison

    S: veneno

    S: un tipo de veneno

    T: which one?

    S: cianuro

    T: cianuro, very good

    S: ¿cianuro?

    T and Ss: yes

    S: ¿tiene cianuro?

    S: que no, que es más..

    T: no, it is two hundred and seventy.five times more dangerous than cyanide. Cyanide is very dangerous, this is two hundred and seventy five times more dangerous, the poison that fugu has. O.k.?

    S: ¿ugly qué significa?

    T: sorry?

    S: ugly

    T: ugly, o.k., it's the opposite of beautiful or handsome

    S: feo

    T: yes

    S: ¿dónde está?

    T: it's in the first line

    (Errors 28 and 29)

S: people because eat .. **(Q)**
T: why **(F)**
S: why eat.. **(Q)**
T: why do they eat it? O.k., let's finish the text and you will find out the answer to that question, o.k.?] **(F)**

(Error 30)
[Marta, can you go on? **(Q)**
S: When I /aktuali/ tried **(A)**
T: actually (F)
S: actually tried fugu,] **(Acc)**

(Error 31)
[I was surprised by the taste: I was surprised because it has almost no taste (...) the poison /aded/ to the pleasure of eating it (...) **(A)**

T: (...) word here you don't understand?
S: added
T: added?
S: added
T: er, añadido... (...) the meaning of almost? Anyone in the class? Almost?
S: (...)

(Error 32)
T: it's the opposite of demasiado (...) is quite different, too, demasiado... almost no taste, second line, o.k.? any other word? O.k., last paragraph, Alicia **(Q)**
S: the hazard (...) an attempt to kill secret agent 007 (...) /puason/, the truth is that the /puason/ **(A)**
T: /puason/ is in French **(F)**
S: ha, ha
T: poison (F)
S: poison, ha,ha, inside, ha, ha, inside one fugu could kill forty adults or more.] **(Acc)**

(Error 33)
[The victim dies a rapid and dramatic /diθ/ within four to six hours (...) the poison. There is no known antidote. **(A)**

T3: Instructions
T: o.k., any word you don't know here?
S: hazard
T: I, I don't want to tell you hazard because in activity six you are going to guess the meaning, right? So, I don't tell you now, I will tell you later, any other word?
S: within
T: within? En (...) cuatro, de cuatro a seis horas, quiere decir dentro de o en... en un periodo entre cuatro y seis horas después de haber consumido el, er, veneno muere, pero de manera dramática. Any word you don't understand? No other word? O.k., we are going to answer the questions and we will finish the class with that. Why.. we are going to answer the questions and then we will finish the class, why is fugu special? Why do you think fugu is special?
S: porque (...)
T: María
S: because (...)
T: (...) very expensive, o.k., but, why is it expensive?
S: because it... it...
T: (...) poison in it, that is why this fish is special, o.k.? it has poison in it and people eat it, people know that it has a poison in it, but they eat it, o.k.? b, what does fugu taste of?
S: it has (...)
T: o.k., very good, Marta, it has almost no taste, that is on the third paragraph, it has almost no taste
S: taste es (...)
S: sabor

T: sabor, ¿a qué sabe el fugu?... is the poison from fugu strong?
S: te has saltado una

(Error 34)
T: oh sorry, why do Japanese people like fugu? **(Q)**
S: yes **(A)**
T: why? **(F)**
S: because it's (...) **(Acc)**
T: (...) of the texture and... because of the risk **(Conf)**

S: the risk of dying
T: the risk of dying, yes, they want to take the risk of dying
S: pero, (...)
T: that is that, to take the risk of dying, it is exciting for them, right? Is the poison from fugu strong?
S: yes
T: yes, it is very strong (...) long does it take to kill an adult?
(...)
T: four to six hours, o.k, (...) that the time it takes to kill (...) medicine cures fugu poison?
Ss: there is no known antidote
T: there isn't a known antidote or there isn't any medicine or antidote, do you remember the word antidote? We studied that in third of E.S.O., too. Antídoto, antidote (...) there is no known antidote, if you eat, o.k., the poison is not in all the fish, right? when they cook the fish and they serve you the fish in the restaurant, right? the poison is not in all the fish, they cut the fish in parts and they give you a part and one can live and another person can die, right? do you understand that?
S: yes
T: and Japanese people do this because they like the pleasure of the risk of dying. O.k., does anyone in Spain do something similar? Anything similar? For example, some people here play a game with a gun, they call it in Spanish ruleta rusa, right? they put five bullets, right? sorry, there are six places and they just put one bullet, right? there are five opportunities that you don't die and one opportunity that you die, and they shoot the gun
S: (...)
T: not many people, but not many people eat fugu, either, that is not a very common thing, only a few people do that, right? this is not as strong as the ruleta rusa, but it's something similar, o.k.? you know that you can die and you take the risk, right? And that is something that some people do, a type of thing they are very (...) they do that. Now, you are going to try to do activity six for homework and that is the end of the classroom, the end of the class, o.k.

(Lesson 9) 4th B 16th, April, 2002

T: shss, are you ready?

T and Ss: our father in heaven, hallowed be Your name, Your kingdom come, Your will be done, on earth as it is in heaven, give us this day our daily bread and forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors and do not lead us into temptation, but deliver us from the evil one, for Yours is the kingdom and the power and the glory forever. Amen.

S: Amen.

T1: Communicative task

T: o.k., shss, Francisco, sit down,... on the chair, o.k., ...now, did you have any homework for today?

Ss: no

T: no? Are you sure?

S: party

S: ha, ha

S: fiesta

(Error 1)

T: o.k.,... we read, shss, we read a text about a special kind of fish, do you remember the name? We read a text.. **(Q)**

S: figus **(A)**

Ss: fugu **(Peer-correction)**

T: o.k., the correct name is fugu, o.k., Alejandro **(F)**

S: lo han cambiado

S: ¿qué le ha puesto, le ha dicho, sugus?

S: figus

T: figus, o.k., it's called fugu or .. what other name? Fugu or..?

S: puffer fish

T: puffer fish, o.k., very good, fugu, it's a special kind of fish

S: ah!

T: do you remember the text we read?

S: the last day I don't..

T: oh, you weren't here last day, o.k., you must, Silvia, you must read the text on page 74 about fugu and if you have any question, ask me at the end of the class, o.k.? So we read a text about a special kind of fish called fugu or puffer fish and we had to answer some questions, we were answering some questions, did we finish?

S: yeah

T: the questions, questions a, b, c, d, e and f?

S: yes

T: o.k., so, activity six on page 74, guess what these words mean from the context, o.k., we are going to read these words and find them in the text and then you have to give me a synonym or an explanation in English of the meaning of this word, o:k.? Cyanide, on paragraph two, what is cyanide? What do you think?

S: a poison

S: cianuro

T: can you explain cyanide in English?

S: it's a poison

T3: Instructions

(Error 2)

T: it's a type of poison, o.k.? very good, on your notebooks write (T writes on BB) activity six, page 74, ... o.k., shss, cyanide, this group of girls here told me that cyanide is a kind or a type of poison, o.k., very good. Type...of poison (T writes on BB) poison is a word from French origin, o.k.? That is why Alicia read /puason/, because **poison** is a French word they use in English, o.k.? it's not a British word, not an English word, it's a French word. It is English, but it comes from French, o.k.? Find out, on paragraph two, what is the meaning of find out? (T writes on BB) (...) can you give me a synonym or an explanation? **(Q)**

T1: Communicative task
Ss: descubrir **(A)**
T: a synonym or an explanation in English **(F)**
S: discover **(Peer-correction)**
S: discover **(Acc)**
T: discover, very good (T writes on BB) **(Conf)**

(A S talks)
T: Lorena, can you shut up, pay attention and copy?
S: yes
T: risk, on paragraph three..
(The door is shut)
Ss: ah!
S: ¡ostras!
S: ¿s'ha tancat?
T: I think the door is closed now, yes
S: yes
T: Francisco, the difference is you did it on purpose, lo hiciste a propósito, I didn't, don't talk about that day
S: (...)
T: don't talk about that day, o.k.?
S: (...)
T: what did I say?
S: (...)
T: he wants to know what is: don't talk about that day
S: (...)

(Error 3)
T: no hables más de ese día, yes, now, risk **(Q)**
Ss: dangerous **(A)**
T: it's not an adjective, so it's not dangerous, it's a noun **(F)**
S: danger **(Acc)**
T: danger, very good (T writes on BB) (...) needs danger, what about pleasure? **(Conf)**

S: (...)
T: O.k., pleasure is what Alicia says, but we must think about a word in English, do you remember about the word, the verb like, the verb love, the verb.. what, can you think of a synonym of the verb like?
S: (...)
T: that starts with letter e?
S: enjoy
T: enjoy, very good, but we need a noun because pleasure is a noun. So, we will use enjoyment, o.k.? enjoyment (T writes on BB) (...) word, hazard, (T writes on BB) do you remember the meaning of the word hazard?
S: no lo has dicho
T: I didn't say it because I wanted you to guess it, o.k.? so, ..
S: (...)
T: hazard is something very similar to risk
S: danger
T: so, we'll use danger, yes, very good
S: no, eso es plagio
S: ha, ha
S: pero, (...) entonces
S: riesgo
T: es como riesgo, sí
S: más o menos
T: riesgo
S: riesgo

(Error 4)

T: the last one is attempt (T writes on BB)(...) meaning of the word attempt? **(Q)**
S: atacar **(A)**
T: no **(F)**
S: es una prueba **(Peer-correction)**
S: intentar **(Acc)**
T: intento o prueba, very good, can you think of a synonym in English? **(Conf)**

S: try
T: try, very good (T writes on BB) try, o.k., very good, ... Alejandro
S: yo, ¿qué?
T: shut up and pay attention...it's good that you speak English, but it has to be related to the topic, not anything, está bien que hables inglés, me parece bien, pero no cualquier cosa que se te ocurra, algo que tenga que ver con lo que estamos haciendo.. O.k., activity seven on page 75, Writing, look at the words in the box, o.k., Jose, can you tell me the meaning of the first word in the box?
S: (...)
T: can you tell me the meaning of the first word in the box? O.k., did anyone understand me?
S: yes
S: yes
T: Marta
S: que si sabemos el significado (...)
T: primera palabra del recuadro, o.k., what is the meaning? Do you understand life boat?
S: una barca de esas..
S: salvavidas
T: una barca salvavidas, un bote salvavidas, very good
S: life boat
T: what about ferry? The second word
S: ferry
S: un ferry
T: yes, it's the same in Spanish, it's a kind of ship, or a type of ship, ferry, ferry in English, ferry in Spanish, o.k.?...
S: (...)

(Error 5)
T: no relation between the two words, o.k., France **(Q)**
S: francés **(A)**
S: Francia **(Peer-correction)**

(Error 6)
T: that is quite easy to understand, Silvia, what about smoke? What is the meaning of smoke? **(Q)**
S: fumar **(A)**
T: but.. **(F)**
S: com ho sap! **(Comments)**
T: in this text, in this context, it's not smoke the verb, it's smoke the noun **(F)**
S: humo **(Acc)**
T: humo, very good,] **(Conf)**

(Errors 7and 8)
[fire **(Q)**
Ss: fuego **(A)**
T: fuego or **(Q)**
S: quemarte **(A)**
S: llama **(A)**
S: incendio **(Peer-correction)**
T: incendio, very good, Alejandro] **(Conf)**

(Error 9)
[and what about announcement? **(Q)**

S: anunciamiento **(A)**
T: announcement is when for example, if there is a fire in this school, they will say: come on everybody, go out from the school! **(F)**
S: un anuncio **(Acc)**
S: ah! **(Acc)**
T: go out from the school!o.k.? **(Comments)**
S: anuncio? **(Acc)**
T: yes **(Conf)**

S: ¿qué es eso?
S: un anuncio
T: now, we are going to read
S: (...)

(Error 10)
T: so, we are going to read the five parts of the text and we are going to put them in order. Merce is going to read the first paragraph or first part. **(Q)**
S: ¿éste? **(Q)**
T: this one **(A)**
S: ah!, er, we got on the ship and it had started to sail. The sun was /ʃiniŋ/ **(A)**
T: shining (F)
S: shining and it was a beautiful day. I started to relax. **(Acc)**
T: o.k., any word you don't understand here? **(Conf)**

S: shining
T: shining? Do you know the meaning of the word shining?
S: brillar
T: brillar, right, here brillando
S: brillando
S: ¿ship es bote?
T: ship?
S: sí
T: it's not a small ship, it's a big ship
S: uhum
T: o.k.? because a small ship is a boat
S: vale
T: right?
S: uno grande, una barquita?
T: un barco
S: un barco normal, vaya

(Errors 11, 12, 13, 14 and 15)
T: pero que cuando es pequeño, que tú lo traduces en castellano por una barca, es boat, ¿vale? y ship es un barco, mediano o grande... por eso life boat es un bote salvavidas y es una barca, es decir, es una barca pequeñita no es un barco grande. O.k., any other question? Second paragraph, Silvia, please **(Q)**
S: yes. After a few /minuts/, there was an /anounsment/ **(A)**
T: a few **minutes (F)**
S: after a few **minutes**, there was an /anounsment/, there was a fire in the engine room and so we had to get into the /lif/ boat. When people heard the /anounsment/, they all started to run. **(Acc/A)**
T: o.k.,] **(Conf)**

(Error 16)
[any word you don't understand here? **(Q)**
S: /feu/ **(A)**
T: sorry? **(F)**
S: /feu/ **(A)**
S: a few **(Peer-correction)**
T: a **few**, a few means, Adela **(F)**

S: pocos
T: unos pocos, yes, very good
S: (makes a noise)
T: Alejandro, you seem like a cat
S: tiene complejo de foca

(Error 17)
S: engine room? **(Q)**
T: engine room **(A)**
S: sí **(Confirms)**
T: o.k., it's the part of the ship where the engine is and that engine controls the movement of the ship **(Explains)**
S: sala de control**(A)**
T: sala de.. máquinas **(F)**

S: ¿no era donde estaba el volante y eso?
T: no, no, esto es la sala de máquinas, te he dicho que es donde está el motor y que es donde controla el movimiento del barco
S: (...) donde controla, digo será..
T: no, para que entendieras lo que es motor, el motor controla el movimiento del barco...o.k., any other word?... do you understand all the words in the text?.. o.k., good

(Error18)
S: ¿heard qué es? Cabeza, ¿no? **(Q)**
T: heard, it's the past form of the verb hear, hear, heard is the past **(F)**
S: ah! Oír **(Acc)**
T: yes.] **(Conf)**

(Error 19)
[Sergio, next paragraph.. this one **(Q)**
S: yes. One summer, my family /deθided/ **(A)**
T: decided (F)
S: decided to go to the France on holiday.] **(Acc)**

(Errors 20 and 21)
[My parents chose to go by ferry. I was not very happy about this /bekaus/ I am /frigtened/
(A)
T: frightened (F)
S: **frightened** of water. **(Acc)**
T: o.k.,] **(Conf)**

(Error 22)
[any question? **(Q)**
S: /tʒose/, /tʒose/ **(A)**
T: chose? It's the past form of the verb choose **(F)**

S: choose
T: elegir
S: entonces será eligió, ¿no?
T: that is an easy joke, Paco, I think you have a good brain and you can think of better jokes
S: elegir
T: tienes más cabeza tú como para hacer esas bromas tontas,
S: (...)
T: podrías haber pensado una broma mejor, sorry?
S: (...)
T: frightened, what is the meaning of frightened?
S: (...) o algo así
S: asustado
T: asustado

S: sorprendido, asustadamente
T: asustado de, remember, frightened of, afraid of , scared of, remember that
S: hale, Paco, tú

(Error 23)
T: no, Jose, next paragraph.. Paco is not reading today **(Q)**
S: (...) no va, María **(Comments)**
T: yes **(Confirms)**
S: before people got into the life boat, there was another anounce.. /anounsment/ **(A)**
T: anouncement (F)

(Error 24)
S: this time the news was good: the fire was under control and there was no danger /nou/, /neu/ **(A)**
T: now (F)

S: However, er, I could not relax until?
T: until, yes, very good

(Errors 25, 26, 27 and 28)
S: until we got off the /boat/, **boat** and we all /agred/ to the by /plain/ next time **(A)**
T: to go by **plane** next time, o.k., words you don't understand **(F)**

S: (...)
T: sorry?
S: got off
T: got off, o.k., if the ship travel is finished, o.k., the travel is finished, you get off the ship (T makes gestures)
S: ¿fuera del barco?
T: you get off the ship, when the trip finishes, when the travel is finished, you arrive to France and then you get off, get in and get off are opposites
S: sería como un aparato: on y off, lo apagas, lo enciendes, cuando se apaga..
T: get in and get off are opposites, o.k?
S: ah, vale
T: any other word?
S: agreed?

(Error 29)
T: agreed, o.k., to agree means llegar a un acuerdo o estar de acuerdo...o.k., look, pay attention to the word this time, or to the sentence, this time the news was good, is there anything that calls your attention here? **(Q)**
S: no **(A)**
T: the news.. was.. good **(Q)**
S: son buenas **(A)**
S: news está en plural y luego está was **(A)**
T: o.k., news seems plural, but it's not plural, it's a singular word ending in –s, but it's singular, so we use the word was, the verb was, o.k.? It's not the news were, it's the news was, it is correct because the word news seems plural, but it is singular, o.k.?] **(F)**

(Errors 30 and 31)
[Pablo, the next paragraph, please **(Q)**
S: twenty minutes later, something /hapened/ while, while we were having some /sanuitзes/ **(A)**
T: sandwiches (F)
S: sandwiches, sí, we suddenly saw smoke coming from somewhere inside the ship. As soon as I saw the smoke, I started running **(Acc)**
T: very good! O.k., any question in this last paragraph? **(Conf)**

S: somewhere?
T: somewhere? What is the meaning of somewhere?

S: en algún sitio

S: en algún lugar

T: en algún lugar o en algún sitio, yes.. any other word?.. no other word? O.k., good, now, as you could see, these texts are not in order. Which one of these texts do you think it's number one?

Ss: c

(Error 32)

T: why Silvia? **(Q)**

S: por (...) **(A)**

T: are you Silvia? **(F)**

S: no **(Acc)**

T: you are not, Silvia **(F)**

S: because... because (...) a presentation **(Acc)**

T: o.k., it's like, it's like the introduction or the presentation, yes, it is: one summer, like Paco said, one summer.. my family decided to go to France on holiday, that's the introduction, good, so, c is the first one.] **(Conf)**

(Error 33)

[Which is the second one? **(Q)**

S: e **(A)**

T: e? **(F)**

S: a **(Peer-correction)**

S: no **(Peer-correction)**

T: a, first they get on the ship, Francisco, right? first they have to get on the ship. We'd got on the ship and it had started to sail, o.k.? c and then a.. a **(F)**

S: ¿a qué es?

Ss: la a

Ss: ha, ha

T: which one is the third one?

S: e

T: e: twenty minutes later, something happened, o.k.? So, we've got c, a and e..the next one?

S. b

T: b? Why b?... why is it b the next one?

S: porque.. because (...)

T: o.k., after the fire, there was an anouncement, very good and then the last one is d because it's the end of the story, it couldn't be d and then e, it must be e and the last one d. O.k., so, were there, were there any words that helped you to order the text? Were there..

S: one summer

T: one summer, very good

S: after a few minutes

T: after a few minutes

S: before

T: before

S: as soon as

T: as soon as

S: while

(Error 34)

T: o.k., those words that Adela has said, those words, they help you to order the texts, right? What about the verbal tenses? What about the verbal tenses? What is the most frequent verbal tense? **(Q)**

S: the past perfect **(A)**

T: past.., o.k., the most frequent **(F)**

S: no, no **(Peer-correction)**

T: past perfect is not, there is one past perfect **(F)**

(Error 35)

S: past continuous **(A)**

T: past continuous, there is no past continuous, well there is one, but which is the most frequent? Past simple **(F)**

S: (talks)

T: shss, Lorena, I told you when we studied the three past tenses, that the past simple is the most frequent when we are telling a story, o.k.? if we write or if we tell a story, the most frequent is the past simple. And then, we can use past continuous and past perfect, too, right? here in this text we find past simple as the most frequent one, but then we have past perfect and past continuous, too, o.k.? do you understand? Silvia, can you explain what I said?

S: (...)

T: you can explain, explain in Spanish

S: pues que para cuando cuentes una historia

T: uhum

S: hay que utilizar los verbos, pero los tienes que utilizar en pasado

T: vale

S: pasado, pasado simple

T: a ver

S: pasado simple

S: pasado perfecto y pasado continuo, lo que más el pasado simple

T: muy bien, pasado perfecto y pasado continuo también, pero el que más pasado simple, o.k., very good. Now, if you want to get a positive for next day, you want to get a positive, you are going to write a text

S: ¡otra vez escribir textos!

T: a short text, it's not a composition, it's just a text

S: ¿con esto que hay aquí?

T3: Instructions

T: I will explain now Alejandro, wait...Francisco, stop! Stop! O.k., I said: if you want to get a positive, right?, you must write a text for next day, it has to be a frightening moment in your life. It can be real or you can invent it, right? it can be real or you can invent it, but, these questions here on activity nine, they are going to help you

S: ¿y para cuándo es?

T: for next day

Ss: para mañana

S: para mañana no

T: it's just a paragraph, it's not all the story!

S: yo mañana tengo que hacer una (...)

S: vaya

S: ¿diez líneas?

T: you can do it..

S: viene un profesor del instituto, eh, a lo mejor pilla en tu clase o algo

(Ss talk)

T: shss, o.k., so, these, shss, these questions here on activity nine, they are going to help you to organize your story, right?

S: María, podrías (...)

T: o.k., I will translate now, but if everybody shuts up

S: (talks)

T: if they don't shut up, I don't explain in Spanish...para quien quiera ganar un positivo, y lo digo en castellano a petición de una compañera, si queréis ganar un positivo, escribís un texto, que puede ser un párrafo o dos como mucho, no tiene que ser un texto completo, en un párrafo se puede escribir, antes me preguntaba Fernando, pues ocho o diez líneas se puede hacer, tiene que ser sobre un momento que os haya dado miedo algo, un momento de terror en vuestra vida..

S: ¡la abeja!

Ss: ha, ha

S: esta mañana

S: ¿qué ha dicho?

S: la abeja

S: era como una cucaracha tú

(Ss talk)

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T: hombre, sería como una cucaracha con alas, digo yo

(Ss talk)

T: vale, shss, ... a ver, podéis escoger ese momento de esta mañana o cualquier otro momento, ¿vale?, shss, y siguiendo las preguntas que tenéis en la actividad nueve, que os pueden servir como guión, escribís vuestra historia, ¿vale? por tanto, you must read these questions to see if you understand them: Where and when did it happen?... How had you got into this situation?...What were you doing when the dangerous event happened?... What happened next? What did you do? How did it finish? O.k., do you understand all the questions? Do you understand them?

S: no

T: yes? Which one you don't understand, Alejandro?

S: todas

Ss: ha, ha

T: Alejandro, you don't understand any of them!

Ss laugh

S: no

T2: Linguistic task

T: o.k., Adela, can you translate sentence a?

S: ¿cuándo y dónde sucedió?

T: o.k., very good, María, can you translate sentence b?

S: espera, espera

S: ¿cuándo, no, cómo (...)

T: meterse

S: (...)

(Error 36)

T: ¿cómo te metiste en esta situación?(...) sentence c **(Q)**

S: espera, espera **(Comments)**

S: ¿qué hiciste tú cuando el miedo pasó? **(A)**

T: qué hiciste tú, no **(F)**

(A S laughs)

T: shss, Adela, shut up. Alicia **(Directs/Nominates)**

S: ah, vale, vale **(A)**

T: (...) qué hacías tú, no o qué hiciste tú, no. Qué.. **(F)**

Ss: estabas haciendo **(Peer-correction)**

T: estabas haciendo tú cuando el suceso peligroso ocurrió? Event **(Conf)**

S: (...)

T: no

S: suceso

T: suceso, peligroso es dangerous...

S: el suceso...

T: (...) ocurrió...Marta, d

S: espera

T: Alejandro..

S: es que no me da tiempo

T: do you know any other word, apart from espera?

Ss: ha, ha

T: do you know any other word?

S: no

S: wait

T: o.k., you can use espera sometimes, and stop other times, puedes alternarlas, ir utilizando una y otra, para que no sea siempre la misma, ¿vale?

S: vale

T: Marta

S: ¿qué pasó después?

T: ¿qué pasó después? O a continuación. Y..

S: ¿qué hiciste tú?

T: ¿qué hiciste tú?... Nati, sentence e

S: ¿cómo terminó?

T: ¿cómo terminó? O ¿cómo acabó? Good...

S: (...)

T: it is for positive, for a positive, so you give it to me

Ss: (...)

T: correct... now..

S: ponlo para otro día (...) no lo podemos quitar

T: o.k., shss, Pablo is telling me, Lorena, Pablo is telling me to let you do that activity for Friday so you have more time to do it because you have something to do for a different subject, o.k., you can do it for Friday.

S: ¿el texto, no?

T: o.k., we are going to do..

S: ¿cómo es farola en inglés?

(The T goes to the S's table to explain)

T: o.k., you can write about an accident with a street lamp, yes.. o.k., pay attention boys, ...

T1: Communicative task

S: no son boys, el único boy es Sergio que (...)

S. ha, ha

T: they are boys, but they are not men..o.k.!...María...Now, open your Activities on page 63, activity four; open your Activity..

S: page?

T: on page 63, activity four.. Sergio, your Activities

(Ss laugh)

T: he's on the book...

(Ss talk)

S: ¿cómo se dice abeja, María?

S: bee

T: ¿cómo se dice qué?

S: abeja

S: bee!

(Ss laugh)

S. queen bee

S: Sergio (...)

T: Lorena, stop now and pay attention

(Ss laugh and talk)

T: o.k., what is the problem today?

S: lo normal

T: what is the problem today? Do I have to get angry? ¿me tengo que enfadar?

S: María!

T: I'm afraid of your questions

S: ha, ha

T: o.k., go on

S: (...)

T: sorry?

S: ¿insecto?

T: insect... o.k., activity four, er, Lorena, can you (A pause in the tape)... Shss

S: silence

(Errors 37 and 38)

T: Listen to Lorena..shss **(Q)**

S: look carefully at the different tenses and the words that tell you when things /hapened/, then put the sentences in the /'istori/ in the correct order **(A)**

T: story (F)

S: story (Acc)

T: o.k.,] **(Conf)**

T3: Instructions

[now, you have different sentences here, if you put all these sentences together, you have a story, but they are not in order, you have to put them in order using the different tenses and the

words like five minutes later, or when, next, o.k.? they help you to order them. You have some minutes, five or seven minutes, to do this, o.k.? If you need my help, raise your hands...

T1: Communicative task
S: (...) una historia? O (...)
T: sorry?
S: tú no puedes (...)
T: (...) story, all of these sentences make up one story, o.k.?... very difficult... sit down correctly (...)
S: midnight
T: midnight, twelve o'clock at night
S: (...)
T: midnight is twelve o'clock at night, o.k.?
S: vale

(Error 39)
S: /midnit/, /midnit/ **(Repeats)**
T: Alejandro needs to practise his pronunciation **(F)**

S: ha, ha
S: muchas frases, muchas
T: yes, there are many, but it's not very difficult
S: sí
S: very hard
T: very hard? No, it's not
S: very difficult

(Error 40)
S: /easi/ no **(A)**
S: ¿qué ha dicho? **(Q)**
S: ¿qué? ¡está bien! **(Q)**
S: /easi/ no? **(Q)**
T: /easi/ no **(F)**

S: ¿empty qué es, María?
T: empty?...o.k., pay attention, Alejandro
S: no!
T: pay attention, at five o'clock, when all of you are out of the classroom, the classroom is empty
S: vacío
T: the classroom is empty
S: vacía!
T: vacía, yes
(Ss talk)
T: did you finish, Adela?... and Marta
S: Alejandro, tinc un (...)
T: shss!... o.k., some people have already finished, so
(Ss talk)
T: shss, but you have some more minutes to work...
(Ss talk and work in pairs)
S: ¿el exámen de qué tema será?
T: the test will be on units seven and eight
S: ¿siete y ocho? ¿el siete no lo hemos hecho aún?
T: ¿cómo que no lo hemos hecho aún, si va a ir para el exámen?
S: no me acuerdo ya del siete
S: pues si estamos en el ocho..
T: seven was about Past Simple, Past Perfect and Past Continuous and eight is about the two conditionals, right?
S: yo no me acuerdo de esto
T: there is a lot to study for this test

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S: ¿cuándo es el exámen, María?.. when is the exam?
T: when is the exam? I will tell you at the end of this class or next day.. I will tell you..
S: ¿la semana que viene?
T: at the end of this class or next day
S: ho dirà hui o (...)
S: pero, será para la semana que viene?
T: yo siempre doy una semana, justo una semana entera, desde el día que lo digo, por lo menos, cuando no doy más, entonces como mínimo tiene que ser el martes que viene
S: el 30
S. yo prefiero (...)
S: ¿el día 30?
T: twenty three or..
S: el 23!
T: it could be twenty three, twenty third, it could be..
S: el 25 no que (...)
S: el 23 no, que (...) estudiar (...)
(Ss talk)

T2: Linguistic task
T: shss, o.k., shss, o.k!...o.k., are you ready to correct? Alejandro, pay attention. If you haven't finished, just pay attention, o.k.?
S: espera
T: o.k., can you read the first sentence?
S: yes, er, one is d

(Error 41)
T: the first one is d, o.k., can you read it? **(Q)**
S: yes, it was /midnit/ **(A)**
T: midnight (F)
S: midnight and I was alone in the big empty house. **(Acc)**

S: que suba el tono (...)
T: o.k., shss, the first one..
S: es que lee (...)
T: o.k., she will read louder, yes, she's going to read louder, but shut up, o.k.? o.k., the first one is d, and she read sentence d, now, Marta, which is the second one?
S: it's g
T: o.k., the second one is g, right? Can you read it?
S: my parents had gone to visit my old grandmother who was ill

(Error 42)
T: o.k., very good, any question? O.k., the next one, Alicia **(Q)**
S: /i/ (Spanish pronunciation) **(A)**
S: er, /i/ (Spanish pronunciation) **(A)**
S: ¿cuál es? **(Q)**
T: i (English pronunciation) **(F)**
S: i (English pronuntiation) **(Acc)**
T: o.k., number three is i, do you agree? ¿estáis de acuerdo? Do you agree? **(Conf)**

S: yes
T: it's d, g, i, o.k.? now, can you read it?
S: but I had decid..
T: shss
S: es que no se oye
S: la i
S: la i
T: but now you can read it, you have the text, o.k., Alicia, shss
S: (...) María
T: i, i is like in Italy

S: i
S: i que dolor
T: the first letter in Italy
S: ¿la i?
T: yes, o.k., Alicia
S: but I decided, I had decided to stay and study at home in my room
T: o.k., very good, now, can you say the next one?
S: a

(Error 43)
T: a, four is a, o.k., read it, please **(Q)**
S: I was reading my Maths book when I heard a strong noise /dounstairs/ **(A)**
T: downstairs, o.k., very good. Adela, the next one **(F)**

S: h
S: ¿eh?
S: as soon as..
T: five is h

(Error 44)
S: as soon as I heard the noise, I put my book down and /listened/, and /listened/ **(A)**
T: sorry? **(F)**
S: /listened/? **(A)**
T: listened (F)

S: but the noise stopped
T: o.k., very good, the next one, number six
S: b

(Error 45)
T: b, number six is b, Francisco **(Q)**
S: after a few /minuts/, the noise started again, so I decided to go downstairs **(A)**

T: shss
S: and investigate
T: o.k., María, can you tell me number seven?
S: c
T: number seven is c and can you read it now?
S: when I got downstairs I went to the kitchen.
T: o.k., the next one, eight
S: j
T: j, o.k., eight is j
S: j
S: er, some.. someone had been in there and eaten the food that had been on the table
T: o.k
S: ¿la ocho?
T: shss
S: ¿la eight que ha dicho?
T: la eight is j
S: j
T: j
S: j, ¡toma!

(Error 46)
T: o.k.?...Inma, what about nine? **(Q)**
S: f **(A)**
T: nine is f, o.k.? **(Q)**
S: I was looking at the kitchen /taibol/ when.. **(A)**
T: at the kichen..? **(F)**
S: /taibol/ **(A)**

T: table (F)
S: table] **(Acc)**

(Error 47)
[when I heard a noise /behind/ me **(A)**
T: behind (F)
S: behind] **(Acc)**

(Error 48)
[me coming from the /flur/ **(A)**
T: o.k., very good (Conf)

S: ¿esa cuál es?
T: nine is f
S: ¿la e cómo se dice?
T: o.k., Sergio?
S: e?
S: la e?
S: e

(Error 49)
T: e, ten is e and she's going to read it (Q)
S: I turned around /inme'diatli/, looked at the floor and saw three rats (A)

(Error 50)
T: o.k., and the last one, Cristina (Q)
S: it's the /ke/ (A)
T: k (F)
S: k (Acc)
T: eleven is k, o.k.,] **(Conf)**

(Error 51)
[Merce, could you pay attention to the class? O.k., Cristina **(Q)**
S: as soon as I saw them, I ran off of the kitchen, closed the door and /uaited/ (A)
T: waited (F)
S: waited there un..until my parents came back home.] **(Acc)**

T1: Communicative task
(Error 52)
[I /hait/ rats. **(A)**
T: I hate rats, o.k., was it very difficult? **(F)**

S: no
T: was it very difficult?
S: no
S: very difficult
T: o.k., some girls say it's not difficult and some boys say it is difficult, I think you don't agree, vosotros no estáis de acuerdo, me parece
S: claro que no
T: o.k., go back to your book, go back to your book on page 76, María! Go back to your book
S: eh! cerrad la ventana
T: shss, ...Silvia can you say that in English?
S: yes, can you close the window, please?
S: no
S: ha, ha
S: eh, la va a (...), no la va a cerrar
T: Alejandro, can you close the window, please?
S: close

S: calor? Pues yo estoy helada

T: it's not hot

S: cold

S: it's cold

S: no, no, cold, no

T: o.k.

S: (...)

T: Alejandro, do you think we are stupid?

S: María

S: stupid

Ss talk

T: shss, o.k., ...o.k., now, page 76

S: 76

T3: Instructions

(Error 53)

T: Learning to Learn, you are going to listen to two conversations: conversation A and conversation B. You have to tell me which one is A and which one is B. I am going to read the conversations and you have to tell me which one goes with picture A and which one goes with picture B, o.k.? there are two boys talking, but their attitudes are not the same in the two pictures, o.k.? so, listen to me: I went to see a film on Saturday. Hum. It was a science fiction film. Oh. You should go and see it. Ah. O.k., that is conversation number one, and now conversation number two: I went to see a film on Saturday. Yeah, what did you see? Oh, it was a science fiction film. Fantastic! I like science fiction films, what was it like? It was really good, Jack Swallow was in it. Really? That's interesting, he's good, I think. Yes, I think so, you should go and see it. I'd like to, do you go to the cinema a lot then, Steven? Yes. O.k., that was conversation number two. Which one is picture A? **(Q)**

S: la dos **(A)**

T: the first one or the second one? **(F)**

Ss: the second one **(Peer-correction)**

T: the second one, Alejandro, why? ¿por qué? **(F)**

S: porque está más atento y le da...

T: o.k., y le da conversación, yes. In picture A the listener, o.k., the boy with the red sweater is the speaker and the boy with the blue sweater is the listener, right? the listener listens with attention to the speaker and he gives him conversation, he replies. But, in picture B the boy with the brown jacket, he's like this (T makes gestures), right? his attitude is not the attitude of a good listener, right? he does not pay attention to the boy with the red sweater and he does not speak a lot, right? So, we are going to do activity two, activity two, listen again to conversation two and look at the corresponding picture. So, we are going to listen to conversation two, looking at picture A, o.k.? Which of these techniques does the listener in conversation two use to help the speaker? We have five techniques: a, b, c, d, and e, five techniques that a good listener can use, right? you have to tell me which of these techniques does the listener in the conversation use, o.k.? uhm, do you understand all the techniques? Do you understand a, b, c, d and e?

T2: Linguistic task

S: no

T: o.k., a: smiling at the speaker, what is that?

S: sonreir al..

T: sonreir al hablante, o.k., o al que habla, ... b: using expressions like really or that's interesting

S: usar expres(...)

T: usar expresiones como y nos ponen dos ejemplos: de verdad, es interesante...c: asking longer questions for more information

S: hacer preguntas más largas para más información

T: hacer preguntas más largas para más información, es decir, no respondo o te hago una pregunta escueta, sino que yo le doy pie haciendo preguntas más largas...d: looking interested

S: mirar interesado

T: mirar con interés o parecer interesado, e: asking questions about the speaker's opinion

S: preguntar (...) la opinión de los que hablan

T3: Instructions

T: es decir, pedir la opinión del que habla o hacerle preguntas sobre su opinión, yes. So, I am going to read conversation number two again and you must tell me which of these five techniques does the listener use, o.k.? for smiling, you must look at the picture, right? because I'm not going to smile, you have to look at the epicture, right?: I went to see a film on Saturday. Yeah, what did you see? Oh, it was a science fiction film. Fantastic! I like science fiction films, what was it like? It was really good, Jack Swallow was in it. Really? That's interesting, he's good, I think. Yes, I think so, you should go and see it. I'd like to, do you go to the cinema a lot then, Steven? Yes. O.k., will you please close the window? Just for five minutes, cause they speak very loud

S: ya era hora

(Error 54)

T: o.k., just two minutes, Alejandro, close the window and sit down, please. O.k., now, shss, Sergio, did they use technique a? smiling at the speaker? **(Q)**

S: no **(A)**

T: no? **(F)**

S: no **(A)**

T: the listener does not smile? **(F)**

Ss: yes **(Peer-correction)**

T: yes, ¿en el dibujo qué cara pone? **(F)**

S: ah, en el dibujo **(Acc)**

T: a ver, tendrás que fiarte del dibujo porque yo no estoy todo el rato sonriendo cuando leo el listening, ¿vale? en el listening no se oye la sonrisa, se ve en el dibujo

S: vale

T: yes, so they use a

S: they use all

T: o.k., very good, Adela, they use all of them, they use all of them, right, so, you are going to do, shss, Activity Book page 7., sorry 63, Learning to Learn, that is for homework, yes, that is for homework, you are going to do the Learning to Learn activity, right? that is for next day, so the class is finished

S: ¿ya?

(Lesson 10) 4th B 17th, April, 2002

T: stand up, we are going to pray... Fernando, go to your place.. go to your place..Jose, stand up, shss

T and Ss: our father in heaven, hallowed be Your name, Your kingdom come, Your will be done, on earth as it is in heaven, give us this day our daily bread and forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors and do not lead us into temptation, but deliver us from the evil one, for Yours is the kingdom and the power and the glory forever. Amen.

S: Amen.

Ss talk

T2: Linguistic task

T: shss, listen, .. can you listen to me, please? We have to correct some homework for today, .. we have to correct some homework for today

S: no

T: I said that the text, I said, in the past, that the text, shss, about a frightening moment in your life was going to be for Friday, right?, so you have more time to do it, but you had to do an activity for today, what page is it , Marta?

S: (...)

T: page?

S: (...)

T3: Instructions

T: 63, shss, ...Learning to Learn, page 63 on your Activity Book... write three questions to help the speaker to say more in each conversation, o.k., we have, Jose, can you shut up and pay attention to me? Yes, o.k., good boy (...) we have four conversations, right? The speaker says something and we had to write three questions to make the speaker speak more, do you understand? Do you understand the activity? Yes? O.k., the first one, the speaker says: I did well in my Maths exam last week. O.k., can you please close the window, Alicia and Cristina? Can you please close the window?...

S: aquí me ahogo, me ahogo

T: shss, I'm very sorry, but the noise outside will not let you hear me

S: bajamos y (...)

(Error 1)

T: o.k., now, the first, the first question is: really? Do you like Maths? The second question is: that's good, do you think Maths is easy? And the third question is: well done, what was your mark? These three questions make the speaker continue the conversation, he is a good listener, this person who has written the three questions is a good listener, right? and you have to be good listeners, too. So, Marta, .. can you read your questions for conversation B? **(Q)**

T2: Linguistic task

S: yes **(A)**

S: ¿puede ponerlo en la pizarra, María? **(Q)**

T: I will **(A)**

S: my brother has an accident yesterday. Really? **(A)**

T: my brother has an accident yesterday? **(F)**

S: had **(Acc)**

T: o.k. **(Conf)**

S: had, had an accident yesterday. Really, how is he feeling?

T: o.k., very good.

(Error 2)

S: what trouble! He will recover soon? **(A)**

T: is that a question? He will recover soon? If that's a question, there's a mistake **(F)**

S: will he **(Acc)**

T: will he, very good, Marta, will he recover soon?] **(Conf)**

(Error 3)

[And the third one? **(Q)**

S: poor! what he had? **(A)**

T: poor! what did .. **(F)**

S: what did **(Acc)**

T: what did he have?.. o.k., do you want me to write the questions on the blackboard? **(Conf)**

S: yes, escríbelo

T: these are Marta's questions, you can invent your questions

S: es igual

T: o.k.? these are Marta's questions... we are going to improve your questions, o.k., Marta? We are going to make your questions better

S: yes

T: can you tell me your first one?

S: really, how is he feeling?

(T writes on BB)

S: (...) trouble

T: o.k., in this one we are going to write what a trouble!o.k.? because it's a better expression (T writes on BB) What a trouble! (...)

S: will he recover soon?

T: will he recover soon? (T writes on BB) and c?

S: (...)

T: (...) (T writes on BB) you don't say just poor, poor boy!

S: what did he have?

(Error 4)

T: what did he have? (T writes on BB) Now I need a volunteer for conversation c, a volunteer for conversation c, o.k., María, what was the question María? **(Q)**

S: I went to the /united/ States this summer **(A)**

T: to the ...? **(F)**

S: /united/ **(A)**

T: /united/ Satates? Are you sure? **(F)**

S: this summer **(A)**

T: /united/ States? **(F)**

S: United (Acc)

T: United States, o.k **(Conf)**

(Error 5)

S: er, you, he puesto, really? Do you like EEUU? **(A)**

T: do you like the USA? **(F)**

S: the USA?] **(Acc)**

(Error 6)

[Yes, it's enormous. Do you think.. **(A)**

T: o.k., I think you didn't understand the activity **(F)**

S: er? **(Q)**

T: you didn't understand the activity. You don't have to make a conversation, you have to write three options for the answer of the listener, o.k., I am the speaker, right? and I say: I went to the United States this summer and you have to give me three options, three questions you can ask me after I say that. Do you understand María? **(F)**

S: sí **(Acc)**

T: es decir, lo que pone ahí es lo que dice el hablante y tú tienes que dar tres opciones..

S: ¿y no puedo contestar?

T: no

S: ah, vale

T: tú tienes que dar tres opciones como listener, como el que escucha, ¿vale?, y entonces lo que tienes que hacer es dar tres opciones en las que tú provoques que él siga hablando, que es de lo

que trata esto, la primera está bien, pero las otras dos tienes que cambiarlas. O.k., did anyone do it correctly? A volunteer? No volunteers?

S: ¿la c o la d?

T: c, Silvia

S: no, yo la d

(Error 7)

T: you will do d, then Alicia is going to do c, o.k., I am the speaker and I say: I went to the United States this summer, o.k., what are your options? **(Q)**

S: really? Where do you go? **(A)**

T: where do you go? I went to the United States this summer, I went, in the past, so, where.. **(F)**

S: did **(Acc)**

T: did you go? O.k., where did you go? Alejandro, the first question, where did you go? Really? Where did you go?] **(Conf)**

(Errors 8 and 9)

[Second question Alicia. **(Q)**

S: what's funny, you will be alone? **(A)**

T: uhm, o.k., what funny, we don't say that in English, we say: that's fun, that's fun (T writes on BB) then you wrote a sentence in the future, you will be alone, is that correct? **(F)**

S: no **(Acc)**

T: o.k., the question must be in the past and how do you do that question, Alicia? **(Conf)**

S: espera, you, you did

T: the verb to be

S: no espera

T: the verb to be doesn't need a did

S: did you , no, (...)

(Error 10)

T: were you alone? O.k (T writes on BB) (...) you alone? And the third one? **(Q)**

S: you are very /luki/ **(A)**

T: you are very **lucky (F)**

S: **lucky**,] **(Acc)**

(Errors 11 and 12)

[how many time will, has you be here? **(A)**

T: o.k., the same mistake, it must be in the past, so, yes, sorry, you are very lucky, how long, we don't say how many time, we say how long, ... then we use did, because it's in the past, the subject is you , how long did you stay there? How long did you stay there?...O.k.? **(F)**

S: uhum **(Acc)**

T: did you stay, s-t-a-y, there, o.k? **(F)**

S: María

T: yes?

S: ¿para poner qué ropa (...) what clothes (...)

T: what clothes were you wearing that day?

S: (...)

T: because you talk.. oh,

S: (...)

T: o.k., what clothes will you wear that day? Will you wear or will you be wearing

S: ¿y no tengo que poner el did?

T: if you are talking about the future, you use will; if you talk about the past, you use did

S: will you wear, entonces? what clothes (...)

(Error 13)

T: what clothes will you wear or will you be wearing that day? O.k., Alejandro, the third one, you are very lucky, you are very lucky, this one, (T writes on BB) you are very lucky, right? how long, how long did you stay, how long did you stay there? María, we haven't get, we haven't

got to that question yet, we are in c, now we are going to do d, and then you ask me your question, o.k.? conversation d, the question is **(Q)**

    S: my sister had a party last Saturday **(A)**

    T: o.k. **(Conf)**

    S: really? Do you like the party? **(A)**

    T: really? Did you like.. **(F)**

    S: did **(Acc)**

    T: the party?

    (Error 14)

    S: did you like the party? Yes. Who was in the party? All my partners of class, es que no sé si es did **(A)**

    T: es que me parece que tú has hecho lo mismo que ha hecho María, es decir, tú has continuado la conversación **(F)**

    S: sí **(Acc)**

    T: y has dicho: er, ¿y te gustó la fiesta? ¿y quién estaba? Mis compañeros de clase y no es eso, a ver, ¿alguien puede explicar en qué consiste la actividad? ¿alguien se ha enterado de lo que yo he explicado, por favor? Pablo **(F)**

    S: pues que hay que hacer tres preguntas para que (...)

    T: es decir, el speaker te dice algo y tú tienes que dar tres opciones, tres posibles cosas, que tú le podías decir para que él continuara hablando, pero cada una de ellas no tiene que ver la una con la otra, no es toda una conversación

    S: vale

    T: la primera la tienes bien, vale, la segunda la puedes hacer aparte también, porque tú no tienes por qué.., puedes preguntarle

    S: vale

    T: si te gustó y también quién estaba, pero luego responder con mis amigos de clase eso ya no te vale

    S: vale, vale

    T: ¿vale?

    S: a ver, did you like the party?

    T: did you like the party? Está bien como primera opción

    S: who was in the party?

    T: who was in the party?

    S: y la tercera a ver, no sé, déjame a ver...

    T: (...) ask María's question, María said: what was your sister wearing? María, that sentence cannot be in the future because the party was last Saturday

    S: yo he confundido last

    T: you understood next Saturday, no, last Saturday, so, what was your sister wearing? Or what was she wearing? What was your sister wearing or what was she wearing? O.k.? any question here?

    S: la última (...)

    T: what was ...your sister ... wearing?

    S: ¿y la primera?

    T: the first one?

    S: did you like the party?

    T: did you like the party?... Francisco, do you like repeating my words?

    S: (...)

    T: you like it

    S: (...)

    Ss laugh

    T: I'm saying: do you like repeating my words?.. you usually repeat what I say.. you imitate me, I said: do you like repeating my words?

    S: sí

    T: it's good for you because you can practise pronuntiation

    S: (...)

    T: did you like the party?

    Ss talk

T: o.k., they were all speaking downstairs, so we cannot open the window

S: ¿por qué?

T: cause I can't hear you and you can't hear me

S: (...)

T: no, I'm not going to speak louder, Cristina, pay attention, please...O.k., did we read, did we read the Speaker's Corner the other day? Did we read the Speaker's Corner? Did we?

S: no

T1: Communicative task

(Error 15)

T: no, we didn't, o.k., I need a volunteer to read the first bubble.. María is a volunteer, o.k. **(Q)**

S: (...) possible to survive for several weeks without food as long as you have water. If you only have water, the important thing is not to move, /saimpli/? **(A)**

T: simply (F)

S: simply (Acc)

T: o.k., do you understand this paragraph that María has read? (...) without food, as long as you have water? that is, if you have water, you can survive, you can live, you will not die, if you don't have any food, but you need water, o.k.? you need water to survive and the important thing is not to move, why don't you have to move? **(Conf)**

S: because you .. loose your water

T: o.k., if you move, you need energy and if you don't eat, you don't have lots of energy, right?(...) o.k., resting, do you understand the word rest?

S: descansar

T: descansar. If you rest, if you don't move, then you don't spend your energy, right? you don't spend your energy and you can live without eating, but you need to drink,o.k.?

S: yes

T: second bubble, a volunteer?

S: (...)

T: sorry?

S: without

T: without, o.k., I have explained that word before, it's the opposite of with

S: con

T: with and the opposite, with is con, the opposite is

S: sin

T: (...) Adela, second paragraph

S: in Britain the bungee jumping industry (...) a year

T: (...) million pounds

S: (...)

T: do you remember the word bungee jumping?

S: puenting

S: lo de..

T: puenting, o.k., in Spanish we say puenting, that is bungee jumping in English (...) bungee jumping industry is worth, o.k.?, that is the prize, that is the money they earn in that industry, is worth about 15 million pounds a year, so many many people in Britain want to do bungee jumping, o.k.? and they get all that money, they earn that money.

S: ¿worth qué es, María?

(Error 16)

T: to be worth es valer o costar, el valor que tiene algo materialmente.. third bubble, a volunteer.. Silvia **(Q)**

S: the longest bungee jump was done by Gregory Rippley in 1992. He /ðɜumped/ two hundred.. **(A)**

T: he /ðɜumped/ ? **(F)**

S: he /ðɜumped/ **(A)**

T: is that correct? He /ðɜumped/ ? **(F)**

S: no (Peer-correction)

S: jumped (Peer-correction)

S: jumped (Acc)

T: o.k., very good Fernando, **jumped (Conf)**

S: two hun.. he **jumped** two hundred forty nine pa..
T: point
S: point nine metres from a helicopter, helicopter above the Loirre Valley in France
T: o.k., now, what are they talking about in this paragraph? What are they talking about?
S: a man that
S: (...)
T: de un salto, about a man that.. Silvia continue
S: he, ¿cómo se dice?, jumped
T: uhum
S: in a bungee
T: he did a bungee jump, he jumped doing bungee jumping and was that from a bridge? Was it from a bridge? Do you remember the word bridge? What's bridge, María?
S: (...)
T: puente, very good, was it from a bridge?
S: no
T: no
S: from a helicopter
T: it was from a helicopter, o.k., and how long was the jump? How long?
S: 249.9
T: o.k., 249.9 metres, o.k., very good, now, you must take notes of the date for your test, the date for your test, .. it's going to be next Wednesday, ..next Wednesday, yeah, you have a week
(Ss talk)
T: shss, Sergio! Alicia is asking me a question, so you shut up and listen to her and to me.
S: (...)
T: was the party funny? because the subject goes beside the verb, was the party, o.k, the test, Francisco, this is important, ...o.k., .. it's going to be on the 24th
S: no (...)
T: yes, Cristina, yes
S: 24?
S: María, lo pones todo el mismo día
S: es el miércoles, ¿no?
S: es el miércoles, ¿no, María?
T: Cristina, I said about Friday, I talked about Friday and you said: no, please, not on Friday, then I changed it to Wednesday and you say: no, Wednesday
S: tenemos examen (...)
T: but, it doesn't matter the day, no importa el día que lo ponga, alguien va a protestar, con lo cual se queda el miércoles y punto
S: (...)
T: it's Wednesday, on Wednesday the 24th and it's going to be units eight and nine, Alejandro, units eight and nine
S: ya, ¿cómo, cómo? ¿ocho y nueve?
T: sorry, seven and eight, yes
S: ah!
T: sorry, seven and eight, you are right, Alejandro
(Ss talk)
T: o.k., ... seven and eight, ...but, I said I was wrong, Alejandro reminded me,
S: ¿qué?
T: he dicho que me lo has recordado, que era el siete y el ocho, se lo estaba explicando a María, que andaba un poco perdida, o.k., so, we are going to start with the Consolidation part
S: Consolidation

T3: Instructions
T: and then, if we have time today, or if not, next day, I'm going to give you, or I'm going to write on the blackboard the most important things for your test, o.k.? if we have time, we will do it today, if not, next day, right? but we are going to start with the Consolidation, page 77... o.k., activity A, read these sentences, choose six you think are true for your partner. Here you have some sentences, one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight sentences and they are all in the same verbal tense, what verbal tense is that?

S: (...)
T: María

T2: Linguistic task
S: Past Continuous
T: o.k., Francisco is right, Past Continuous, now all these sentences are in the Past Continuous, how do we make questions in the Past Continuous? You remember that? How do we make questions with the Past Continuous?... María
S: with the subject
T: with the subject
S: the verb to be
T: the verb to be
S: in the past
T: in the past
S: and the other verb (...)
T: can you repeat?
S: with the subject (...)
T: o.k., but that's in the affirmative, o.k.? I was asking about the questions, that is right, but now how do we make the questions? María, the interrogative form
S: ah!
T: the questions
S: the verb (...)
T: (...)
S: then the subject
T: o.k.
S: (...)
T: o.k., very good, and what about the negative? Marta, how do we make the negative form?
S: (...)
T: so we have subject, verb to be plus not, wasn't or weren't, and then the verb ending in –ing, now, what I want you to do, what you must do is ask your partner, and Fernando will do it with Silvia, cause you don't have a partner, so in pairs, with your partner, you're going to ask him or her those questions, you have to make questions from these sentences and you have to mark with this that are true for him or for her
S: (...)?
T: yes, and I will go checking that you speak English, I will go around checking that you are speaking English, o.k.? you can sit there with Silvia, no, you sit there, you do it with Alejandro and I will do it with Jose
S: (...)
T: o.k., you work together, right? and I work with him, o.k., did everybody understand what you have to do?
S: no, yo no lo entiendo

(Error 17)
T: o.k., Silvia, can you explain the rest of the class what they have to do? Shss, Lorena pay attention **(Q)**
S: in partners **(A)**
S: in partners **(A)**
T: in pairs **(A)**
S: we, a ver, we ask, I ask my partner and my partner ask me **(A)**

T: wait, Alejandro, she's going to explain, in English and then in Spanish
S: and we.. cómo (...)?
T: we cross
S: we cross the true of these, of these sentences
T: but now, can you explain in Spanish especially for Alejandro?
S: vale, que tienes que preguntar a tu compañero y tu compañero te pregunta a ti sobre estas frases y luego tú tienes que tachar las que son verdaderas
T1: Communicative

T: una marca al lado de las verdaderas para tu compañero, pero ten en cuenta que están en afirmativa, tú tienes que hacerlas en interrogativa, o.k.? now... Jose, do you want to be first? Or I am first?

S: tú primero

T: o.k., were you watching a film at ten o'clock last Thursday?

S: ¿la traduzco o ...?

T: you have to say: yes, I was, no, I wasn't

S: yes, I was

(Error 18)
T: o.k., were you studying at eight p.m. last Wednesday? **(Q)**
S: no, I was **(A)**
T: no, I wasn't,] **(F)**

(Error 19)
[were you reading a magazine at seven p.m. last Tuesday? **(Q)**
S: no, I was **(A)**
T: no, I wasn't **(F)**
S: no, I wasn't **(Acc)**

T: were you shopping at five p.m. last Saturday?

S: yes, I was

T: were you talking to your parents at nine p.m. last Monday?

S: uhm, yes, I was

T: were you listening to some music at eleven p.m. last night?

S: er, no, I wasn't

T: were you eating in a restaurant at two p.m. last Sunday?

S: no, I wasn't

T: were you dancing in a disco at ten p.m. last Friday?

S: no, I wasn't

(Error 20)
S: was you.. **(Q)**
T: o.k., Silvia, were you? **(F)**
S: were you... **(Acc)**
T: o.k.,] **(Conf)**

(Error 21)
[now you ask me **(Q)**
S: uhm, was I watching a film **(A)**
T: no, you ask me.. were you...? **(F)**
S: er, were you watching a film at ten o'clock last Thursday? **(Acc)**

T: no, I wasn't

S: er, were you studying at eight p.m. last Wednesday?

T: yes, I was

(Error 22)
S: er, were you reading a magazine at seven p.m. last /tuesdai/? **(A)**

T: no, I wasn't

S: were you shopping at five p.m. last Saturday?

T: five p.m. last Saturday? No, I wasn't

(Errors 23 and 24)
S: er, were you /talkiŋ/ to my parents **(A)**
T: to your parents **(F)**
S: to your parents at nine p.m. last Monday? **(Acc)**
T: yes, I was

(Error 25)
S: were you /listen/..listening to some music at eleven p.m. last night? **(Self-correction)**

T: no, I wasn't
S: er, were you eating in a restaurant at two p.m. last Saturday?
T: no, I wasn't
S: were you dancing, dancing at the disco at ten p.m. last Friday?
T: no, I wasn't, o.k.
S: ya está
T: o.k.

(Error 26)
S: were you (...) last /tuesdai/? **(A)**
T: Tuesday (F)

S: were you talking to your parents at nine p.m. last Monday?

(Error 27)
S: were you studying at eight /peeme/? **(A)**
S: no, que si estaves parlant **(Comments)**
T: p.m. **(F)**

S: last, last, Wednesday?
S: yes?
S: yeah, yeah, no
S: la noche pasada, no?
T: last night is la noche pasada, yes
(Ss continue with the activity)
T: o.k!
(T claps her hands to call for attention)
T: now he has to ask you. O.k., we will wait, continue
(Ss finish their conversations)
T: Silvia and Fernando, be quick, o.k.?
(the two Ss finish the activity while the rest are chatting)
(A pause in the tape)

T3: Instructions
T: (..) students, you spoke English, that was a good activity, now, the class is not finished, Lorena, we are going to do activity C, activity C, on page 77, is about Past Perfect, it says: Julia Brown is a housewife and mother, yesterday she had a lot of things to do, when she arrived home from work, her son Paul had done some of them, with a partner, look at her list and the picture and write what Paul had or hadn't done before his mother arrived home, o.k? do you understand the activity?
S: yes
T: Julia is a housewife, right? she went to work and when she came back home her son Paul had done some things and hadn't done other things, she had a list and Paul had helped her, he had done some of the things in the list, but he didn't do all of the things in the list, right? so, looking at the picture, you must write one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten, well one is already done, so you have to write nine sentences in the Past Perfect in the affirmative or in the negative, looking at the picture, for example: he had painted the door, in the picture you can see that the door is painted, so, he had painted the door, o.k., what about the washing up? Did he do the washing up?

T2: Linguistic task
S: no
T: no, so that sentence in the Past Perfect, how would it be?
S: hadn't

(Error 28)
T: he hadn't .. go on, Alejandro, continue, he hadn't.. **(Q)**

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S: did **(A)**
T: did? Are you sure? **(F)**
S: no, pues do **(A)**
T: no **(F)**
Ss: done **(Peer-correction)**
T: it's the past participle: to do, did, .. **(F)**
S: done **(Peer-correction)**
T: done, he had, sorry, he hadn't done **(F)**

S: the washing up
T: the washing up
S: ¿washing up es fregar?
T: yes, ..he hadn't done the washing up
S: (...)
T: por eso, que no lo ha hecho, porque están ahí
S: ah, vale
T: o.k.?
S: (...)
T: yes
S: (...)

(Error 29)
T: no, a ver María, estamos hablando de lo que él había o no había hecho antes de que su madre llegara a casa, Past Perfect, en pasado, o.k., you have to write that sentence: he hadn't done the washing up, you must write that sentence, he hadn't done the washing up, .. what about the next sentence? Nati, clean the bathroom, look at the picture **(Q)**
S: he had ../klined/ **(A)**
T: cleaned.. **(F)**
S: cleaned (Acc)

T: the bathroom
S: the bathroom
T: o.k., he had cleaned the bathroom, he had, Pablo, write the sentences, he had cleaned the bathroom, Alicia, what about the next one? Water the plants, water can be a noun or a verb, right?, here to water is a verb, how would you translate to water in Spanish?
S: regar
T: o.k., very good
S: er, he hadn't (...) plant
T: he hadn't watered the plants, very good, he hadn't watered the plants, Jose, write the sentences
S: ah, vale
S: estamos comentando la (...)
T: yes, I'm sure you are commenting on the sentences, o.k., Marta, the next one
S: he hadn't (...)
T: (...) hadn't made the beds, he hadn't made the beds, María
S: he hadn't... tid(...)
T: (...) hadn't tidied the bedroom, Adela will rest,
S: ¿es regular?
T: she doesn't have a lot of voice, sorry?
S: ¿es regular tidy?
T: yes, Inma.. prepare lunch
S: ¿es regular?
T: yes, it is

(Error 30)
S: he had /prepared/ lunch **(A)**
T: he had **prepared** lunch, he had prepared lunch (...) do the shopping **(F)**

S: (...)

(Error 31)
T: yes, hacer la compra. Look at the picture **(Q)**
S: he, he, espera, espera, he done **(A)**
T: he done? **(F)**
S: a ver, espera, espera... **(A)**
T: first we need the auxiliary had **(F)**
S: ya me he situado, he had **(Acc)**
T: o.k. **(Conf)**
S: done **(Acc)**
T: very good **(Conf)**
S: the shopping **(Acc)**
T: he had done the shopping, very good, he had done the shopping...] **(Conf)**

(Error 32)
[(...) wash the clothes **(Q)**
S: he hadn't /uaʃed/ the clothes **(A)**
T: washed (F)
S: washed the clothes **(Acc)**
T: o.k., very good, he hadn't washed the clothes,] **(Conf)**

(Error 33)
[Silvia, the next one is paint the door, o.k., that one was already done, so the last one **(Q)**
S: ha hadn't /klined/ the windows **(A)**
S: cleaned (Peer-correction)
T: he hadn't **cleaned** the windows, o.k.? **(F)**
S: yes **(Acc)**

T3: Instructions
T: very good, he hadn't cleaned the windows.. o.k., go to page 78, ..we are going to do activity F and that will be the last one, o.k.? that will be the last one, activity F, I'm scared of spiders, that is the title, that is the title, add the correct preposition from the box and then complete the sentences to write true sentences about yourself. O.k., the first one could be the same as the title: I'm scared.., what preposition?
S: of
T: of, and then you can use spiders or you can use rats, you can use mice, you can use (...), you can use.

T1: Communicative task
S: (...)
T: sorry
S: (...)
T: snakes, o.k., yes
S: the class is finished
T: the class is not finished, what about I'm terrified?
S: of
T: of, and then I'm terrified of the dark or I'm terrified of English tests, for example
S: abejas
T: bees, o.k., what about I'm interested?
Ss: in
T: in, I'm interested in.. English, or I'm interested in Biology or in Geography, I'm interested in music, for example or in, in films. I'm fascinated...
Ss: by
T: by, what? I'm fascinated by, what Pablo?
S: this classroom
S: smoke
T: ha, ha, this classroom, this burnt classroom
S: smoke
T: sorry?
S: I'm fascinated by motorbikes
T: o.k., good, e

S: the colour of pared

T: I'm never angry.. with.. with you, I'm never angry with you, I'm never angry with my teacher of English

S: ha, ha

T: now, the last one, I'm often surprised

S: by

T: by

S: (...)

S: (...)

T: by my students

S: the burnt class

T: the burnt class

S: (...)

T: shss, o.k., pay attention to me now, next day we will finish with the Consolidation part and then I'll write on the blackboard the most important points for the test, o.k.?

S: yes

T: o.k., the class is finished now.

(Lesson 11) 4th B 19th, April, 2002

T: everybody please stand up, we are going to pray... Jose, Paco... are you ready?

T and Ss: our father in heaven, hallowed be Your name, Your kingdom come, Your will be done, on earth as it is in heaven, give us this day our daily bread and forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors and do not lead us into temptation, but deliver us from the evil one, for Yours is the kingdom and the power and the glory forever. Amen.

T: shss, .. o.k., you listen to me! Listen to me! Boys and girls! Listen, we have a test next week, so we have to review for the test, review for the test and then.. and then you can ask me any questions you have about the grammar...

(Ss talk)

T1: Communicative task

T: o.k., Fernando, can you please be quiet?

S: yes, yes

T: yes? O.k., good boy, now, you have to give me a composition today

S: ah, ¿pero que era (....)?

T: yes, because I have to correct it, I said I would give you some mark, so you have to give it to me and I'll correct it, but you can just write your name, ...

(Ss talk)

S: María

T: o.k., who has

S: (...)

T: sorry?

S: el título

T: the most frightening moment in my life

S: yo he puesto (...)

S: yo he puesto (...)

S: escríbelo

(T writes on BB)

(Ss talk)

T: o.k., ..

S: es que no me he traído la carpeta

T: o.k., we'll talk next day, bring it next day and we will talk about it, o.k.? O.k., who is going to give it to me now? Who is going to give it to me now? Adela, Inma

S: ¿lo vamos a leer (...)?

T: no, maybe next day.. Silvia, ...

S: María, yo te lo estoy pasando, ahora te lo doy

T: sorry?

S: que te lo estoy pasando, ahora te lo doy

T: o.k., when you finish it, give it to me, shss, ..Alejandro, can you please be quiet? Silvia, can you be quiet? O.k., (...) we did , we did two activities about the Consolidation part... we did activities A and C, o.k.? we did A, C and F, didn't we?

Ss: yes

T3: Instructions

T: yes, o.k., .. we are going to do activity D now, right? we are going to do activity D, in this activity you have to imagine you are going to visit London, right? you have to imagine that you are going to visit London, and you have to think about possible problems for this journey, possible problems for that travel, look at the example: what will we do if we don't like the food? If we don't like the food, we'll go to a burger bar. What will we do if the weather is bad? If the weather is bad, we'll.. and then you can continue this sentence, o.k., you have to think about problems and write questions and answers in the conditional form. Which of the two conditionals is this? Which of the two conditional forms is this in the example?

T2: Linguistic task

S: first conditional

T: why is the first? Why is it the first? Adela

S: because (...)

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T: there is a will, if there is a will form that is the Future, the first conditional was Present and Future, all right? This is the first conditional, right, you are going to write questions and answers using the first conditional, do you understand? Does everybody understand.. the activity? yes? o.k., you have to write three questions and three answers, come on, and I will write on the blackboard the most important points for the test

S: María, (...)?

T: (...) scared, or what a scary thing

S: I am scared

T: (writes on BB) what a scary thing! I'm scared

S: I'm scared sólo

T: qué cosa más de miedo o qué cosa más terrorífica, qué miedo, o.k., while you are working on this, I'm going to write on the blackboard the most important points for the test, right?

S: (...)

T: (...)blem Alejandro? I think you didn't understand (...) activity D and while you are doing activity D, I am going to write the things on the blackboard

S: ah, vale

T: o.k.?

(Ss talk)

T: you must work in silence

S. (...)

T: sorry?

S: (...)

T: sorry?

S: (...)

T: (...) can you work individually and in silence? Alejandro and Jose (...) enfadar con vosotros, que trabajéis en silencio y punto!

(T writes on BB and Ss work)

T: are you deaf? ¿estás sordo? I said you must be quiet!

S: María., (...)'

T: m-o- (...)shss(...) i-c-h-o (...)... yes, all this is for the test

(T writes on BB)

S: (...)

T: yes, you must finish the activity and then copy this, but first do the activity, I'm not going to clean the blackboard.

S: (...)

T: I never tell you, I never tell you, you find out that day

(Ss talk)

S: (...)

T: umbrella

S: la maleta no volará. ¿no?

S: eh? umbrella?

T: umbrella

S: ¿y cómo se lee eso?

Ss: umbrella

S: (...) como sombrilla (...)

S: maleta

T: ¿maleta? Suitcase, suitcase.. o.k., a case is..this is a case

S: un maletín ¿no?

T: this is a case, but a suitcase is a special case for clothes, o.k.?

S: entonces, ¿suit que será?

T: a suit is a jacket and trousers or a jacket and a skirt

S: traje

T: suit, and then case, suitcase all together maleta

(T writes on BB)

(Ss talk about the word plane)

(Errors1 and 2)

T: avión is the same, are you sure? **(F)**

S: yes **(A)**

T: avión is the same in Spanish and in English? **(F)**

S: plane **(Acc)**
S: /plain/ **(Acc/A)**
T: plane very good **(F/Conf)**

S: plane
S: plane
(T writes on BB)
S: ¿esto qué es, María?
T: three questions and three answers
S: vale
(T writes on BB)
T: o.k., did you finish? Silvia, did you all finish that activity? ActivityD? O.k., then, we are going to correct it, we are going to correct activity D and then we will talk about the test.. Marta, can you read one of your questions and answers? Or you were working on the composition?
S: yes

(Error 3)
T: o.k., Alicia can do it, Alicia will read her first question and answer **(Q)**
S: what will you do.. **(A)**
T: can you speak louder, please? **(Q)**
S: what will you do if we don't know speak in English? **(A)**
T: o.k., what will you do if we don't know speak in English? Is that right? **(F)**
S: no, yo no he dicho eso, what will we do.. **(A)**
T: yes, what will we do if we don't know speak in English? Is that correct?... speak English or speak in English, that is correct, but we don't know speak English? **(F)**
S: el know le sobra **(Peer-correction)**
T: we don't use the verb know, we use the verb...what verb do we use, when we don't know how to do something? **(F)**

(Error 4)
S: be, no **(A)**
T: when we don't know how to swim, when we don't know how to walk, or how to.. **(F)**
S: can **(A)**
T: can or can't yes, if we can't speak in English and English has a capital letter.. eso no, ¿lo has tachado? **(Conf)**
S: sí, sí **(Acc)**

(Error 5)
T: vale, o.k., and the answer? Shss, listen to Alicia, please **(Q)**
S: if we don't know to speak in.., bueno, if we can't speak in English, we'll make gest.. **(A)**
T: gestures (F)
S: gestures (Acc)
T: o.k., if we can't speak English, we'll make gestures, o.k., we can use our hands and our body to express what we want, o.k., good, Adela **(Conf)**

S: (...)
T: (...) he dicho que hablara más alto, de todas maneras yo repito lo que ella ha dicho, ¿quieres que la repita otra vez?
S: sí
T: what
S: what will we do..
T: espera, wait a minute Adela, what will we do... we can't... speak English... that is the question, right? and the answer is: if we can't speak English...
S: ¿qué?
T: if we can't, if we cannot speak English, comma, ...we will make gestures, do you know how to write that word, Alejandro? Gestures?
S: we will ¿qué?
T: we will make
S: hacer el memo

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T: eso ya lo hacéis bastante vosotros
(T writes on BB)
T: gestures, (...) sotros no hacéis el mimo, el memo sí, a ver, Adela now
S: what will we do if we haven't got any friend?
T: what will we do
S: if we haven't got any friend
T: if we haven't got, or if we don't have any friend, shss
S: if we haven't got any friend, we'll have a party
T: if don't have any friend, or if we haven't got any friend, we'll have a party, o.k., good, Alejandro, you don't have to copy all of them, if you have one example, you don't have to copy all of them, later Adela will let you her notebook... o.k., María
S: what will I do if I don't find my house?
T: what will I do if I don't find my house?
S: I will ask some people for the street if I don't find my house
T: I will ask some people for the street if I don't find the house, o.k., anyone else wants to say any of his or her examples? Does anyone want to say one of his or her sentences, so I can correct it?
S: Paco

(Errors 6 and 7)
T: ¿alguien quiere decir alguna que no sepa si está bien para que se la corrija? Antes de que pasemos a otra cosa, o.k., Sergio **(Q)**
S: what do will we do if there aren't taxi? **(A)**
T: what will we do if there aren't.. **(F)**
S: taxis **(Acc)**
T: taxis, o.k., if there aren't any taxis **(Conf)**

(Error 8)
S: if there aren't any taxis, er, we will we **(A)**
T: we will, what? **(F)**
S: we will we? **(Self-correction)**
S: no, we will go with a bus **(Peer-correction)**
T: we will go by bus, o.k.?] **(Conf)**

(Error 9)
[Silvia **(Q)**
S: what will we do, what will do if we arrived to the hotel and it didn't reserve it? **(A)**
T: sorry, what will we do.. **(F)**
S: if we arrived to the hotel **(A)**
T: if we **arrive**, in the present **(F)**
S: **arrive (Acc)**
T: arrive to the hotel] **(Conf)**

(Errors 10 and 11)
[and **(Q)**
S: the hotel and it didn't **(A)**
T: it is not **(F)**
S: it is not reserved **(A)**
T: booked **(F)**
S: ah, booked, vale **(Acc)**
T: remember? To book a hotel **(Conf)**

S: ¿cómo? ¿así?
T: no, b-o-o-k
S: vale
T: and then –ed
S: ah, vale

(Error 12)

T: because it's booked, reservado, booked, -ed, booked, -ed, o.k., good, we'll.. **(Q)**
S: we'll call to the agent **(A)**
T: we'll call the agency, not to, not to, Lorena shut up **(A)**
S: lo demás no, ya está, call the agency **(Acc)**
T: and the rest is like in the question, o.k.? **(Conf)**

(Error 13)
S: pero porque ésta no está bien **(Q)**
T: you change this **(F)**
S: porque yo he puesto and then the hotel know that all were false **(A)**
T: and the hotel will know that all is false **(F)**
S: all is false **(Acc)**
T: o.k. **(Conf)**
S: lo he puesto en pasado, no sé por qué **(Acc)**
T: o.k., any other question and answer? Any other? O.k., activity E and this is the last one **(Conf)**

S: (...)
T: this is the last one, o.k., in activity D we worked with the first conditional, with conditional sentences type 1, now in activity E we are going to work with conditional sentences type 2, can you remind me
(A S makes a noise)
T: Alejandro, do you have any problem?
S: no
T: ¿te pica el ojo y por eso haces esos ruidos?
(Ss laugh)
T: buena terapia, igual la tenemos que probar los demás, o.k., now, can you remind me what verbal tenses we use for the second conditional?
Ss: the past
T: Past Simple and
S: conditional

T3: Instructions
T: and the conditional, very good, Past Cond.., sorry, Past Simple and Conditional, so here we have four situations, o.k.? the first situation is: I have a six months holiday, we don't have a six months holiday, do we? We don't, this is an imaginary situation, this is not real, this is not true, I live in Hollywood, we don't live in Hollywwod, this is not true, right? I can sing very well, all of us don't sing very well, so this is not true and I have a lot of free time, we don't have a lot of free time, these are all unreal or imaginary situations, right?
S: right
T: you have to write one sentence for every situation, for each situation, and you tell me what you would do in those situations, right? if I had a six month holiday, I would travel all around the world, for example, right? if I had this holiday, I would travel all around the world, this is just an example, you can invent your imaginary situations, right? the situations are here, but you must imagine your consequences, right? four sentences, then, and then we will talk about the test

T2: Linguistic task
S: (...)
T: yes, four, no, it's not a question and an answer, it's just a sentence
S: (...)
T: no, María, no questions, right? you have to write four sentences, one for every situation
S: (...)
T: yes I can go

(Error 14)
S: la /tipe/ 2, esa **(Q)**
T: type 2 **(F)**

S: er, ¿qué es eso?

T: that is, give me your pencil, that is would, it is contracted, this is the conditional form, the conditional tense

S: se supone que eso se traduce cómo

T: iría

S: ah

T: it makes the verb conditional

S: es que eso me lo ha explicado Sergio, pero eso no lo sabía, eso tampoco lo sabía

T: you didn't come that day

S: ¿qué?

T: you didn't come to class that day

S: yes

T: so you must copy the grammar from someone

S: (...)

T: ¿vale? debes hacerlo...it's not holiday, o.k., it tells you the type of holiday, it can be a summer holiday or an Easter holiday and in this case it's a six months holiday, and this is like a possessive, a kind od possessive, when you say this is Mary's book, it tells you whose book

S: (...)

T: yes, something like that, it's not really possessive, but it's like a possessive, o.,k.? It tells you , it specifies the type of holiday

S: María, one question

T: o.k., very good, Alejandro

(Error 15)

S: ¿rico es rich? **(Q)**

T: sorry? **(Q)**

S: rico es rich **(Q)**

T: rico is rich, yes... you don't use that form, you use the infinitive **(F)**

S: ah, uso el infinitivo **(Acc)**

T: yes **(Conf)**

S: ¿éste?

T: yes

S: María

T: shss

S: María

S: entonces qué es Richie Rich?

T: Richie Rich is because he's very rich

S: ah

S: ¿es esto lo que hay que hacer?

T: if I had a six month's holiday, I'd go to the beach, yes, very good

S: María, que aquí alrededor del mundo, all around?

T: all around the world

(Error 16)

S: around es así? **(Q)**

T: with one r **(F)**

S: ¿una erre? **(Acc)**

T: the world, yes... That film you were talking about it's called Richard Rich, but Richie is a short name for Richard, Richie Rich **(Conf)**

S: Richie Rich

(Error 17)

S: ¿cantante cómo se escribe? sing, ¿no? **(Q)**

T: singer, to sing is (a pause in the tape) that is like a possessive, el genitivo sajón, similar **(F)**

S: pero no lleva la "s"

T: because it ends in "s"

S: ah!

S: ay, pero (...)

T: no, because when a word is in the plural or it ends in "s", you just write the apostrophe, you don't write the "s", cuando es plural o acaba en "s" la palabra, le ponemos el apótrofe y no le ponemos la "s"

S: (...)

T: claro, pero eso ya , lo que pasa es que eso lo dimos, bueno lo disteis en primaria

(Ss talk)

T: ¡oye! Listen to me! Can you please work and be quiet?

S: María, ¿cómo es pintar?

T: (...)Lorena and Silvia, you have a negative, both of you.

(Error 18)

S: ¿estaría bien esto? **(Q)**

T: Fernando? **(Q)**

S: ¿esto estaría bien? **(Q)**

T: if I had rich, no, ¿si you tuviera rico? **(F)**

S: no, entonces no **(Acc)**

(Error 19)

T: and you have the situations here **(F)**

S: ah, ya **(Acc)**

T: you cannot invent the situations **(F)**

S: ¿entonces no me las invento? **(Acc)**

T: the beginning is this but in the past **(F)**

S: o sea que pongo esta y me invento yo lo que quiera **(Acc)**

T: this one in the past and you invent the second part, yes, shss **(Conf)**

S: María, ¿cómo es conocer?

T: ¿conocer a alguien o conocer?

S: conocer a alguien

T: meet

S: tu dijiste que cuando era..

T: Francisco, you have a negative, too

S: ha, ha, yeah

S: ..condicional

S: (...)

T: Francisco, speak properly, right? don't speak like that to me, que me hables correctamente, que no me hables como me has hablado y si te he oído reirte a ti, tú tienes el negativo, no sé quien ha provocado tu risa, pero tú estás en clase riendo. Yes, María

S: (...)

T: were, it's in the past,

S: in the past

T: if it's, if the verb to be is in the first part, you say: if I were rich, si yo fuera rico, if I were rich, but in there, it's infinitive

S: (...)

T: plate or dish, plate, plate(spelling it) or dish

S: plate no es plato, plata

S: ¿eso que es? Un falso..

T: en este caso no porque no te engaña, parece lo que es, eso es cuando te engaña, cuando no es

S: (...)

T: wait a minute... a (...) yes... all the (...), yes, you can say that... yes, Pablo?

S: ¿esto está bien?

T: this one?

S: sí

T: if I had a lot of free time, I'd ride a bike, yes

(Error 20)

S: María, ¿esto va en futuro, no? **(Q)**

T: conditional in the future? **(F)**

S: que va! **(Peer-correction)**
T: are you sure? O.k., Sergio, look for the grammar and then ask me again **(F)**

S: es que no la tengo

T1: Communicative task
T: Silvia, can you lend him the grammar for the Second Conditional, just one minute? Can you lend him? O.k., your grammar, Second Conditional, just one minute (...) copy, Sergio
S: ya,
T: I explained it to you personally
S: me lo tengo que copiar
T: te lo expliqué a ti personalmente cuando viniste al siguiente día
S: sí
T: y luego te dije que te lo copiaras y ahora se te ha olvidado, normal
S: sí
T: pues míralo y entíendelo, y si no, me llamas... así os va...
S: es una amenaza
T: si quiere aprobar, es una amenaza
S: (...)
T: exacto, y aún así, no lo hace, pues fíjate si fuera de otra manera
S: María, dice que (...)
T: sorry, Alejandro? I couldn't hear you, ..Inma
S: te han tangado
T: te han tangado en inglés? Do you need it?
S: yes
T: no, you don't need it
Ss: yes
T: shss
S: María, ¿cómo se dice?

T2: Linguistic task
T: Alejandro, I'm not going to tell you that, ..o.k., ..er, Pablo, can you tell me one of your sentences?..o.k., we are going to correct now, listen to this, you will talk about the grammar later, o.k.? Pablo
S: if I had six months' holiday, I'd travel around the world
T: o.k., if I had a six months' holiday, I would travel around the world, Fernando
S: no la he hecho aún la segunda, estoy en ello
S: o.k., work on that and then I will come back again, Merce
S: ¿cómo era grabar un disco, release?
T: grabar un disco, record a CD, shss, Merce and then Alejandro and then Fernando, o.k.?
S: entonces, ¿digo la a?
T: la que tú quieras
S: (...)
T: shss

(Error 21)
S: if, er, er, I had six months holiday, I'd visit all /amusment parks/ **(A)**
T: o.k., all the **amusement parks, amusement parks,** o.k.?] **(F)**

(Error 22)
[Alejandro **(Q)**
S: yo te digo la c **(A)**
T: vale, puedes elegir la que quieras **(Comments)**
S: vale, if I /kuld/ sing very well, I'd be a singer **(A)**
T: o.k., listen to Alejandro's sentence, he has done sentence c and he said: if I could sing very well, remember the past of the verb can is could, if I could sing very well, I would be a singer, o.k., very good. Fernando, are you ready now? **(Conf/F)**

S: no lo voy a hacer, che
T: Alejandro, uy, digo Alejandro, Fernando, venga

S: es que no..
T: tienes que intentarlo, va venga
S: pero que no me lo sé
T: vamos, Fernando
S: que no María
T: pregunto a alguien más y te lo preparas, pero me tienes que hacer una, la que tú quieras
S: que no
T: además te dejo la que tu quieras
S: no

(Error 23)
T: Cristina..pues tendrás un negativo Fernando **(Q)**
S: if I (...) ah, espera, espera, que me he saltado, esperate **(Comments)**
T: que te has ido de actividad, shss **(Comments)**
S: if I had a lot of free time, I'd go to see to Cañizares **(A)**
T: if I had a lot of free time, I'd go to see.., without to, Cañizares, o.k.? you don't need to, see somebody, see Cañizares.. you have a bad taste, you have a bad taste **(F)**

S: (...)
T: busca la palabra taste
S: mal gusto
T: yes, Marta
S: que dius?

(Error 24)
T: shss, Fernando, shss, listen to Fernando **(Q)**
S: if I have a lot of free time **(A)**
T: if I had, had **(F)**
S: had.. a lot of free time, I'd go to the cinema **(Acc)**
T: o.k., very good **(Conf)**

S: o.k.
T: it wasn't that difficult, it is easy, o.k., now,

(Error 25)
S: María, yo tengo una question **(Q)**
T: you have one question? O.k. **(F)**

S: sí, vamos a ver, en la primera parte es (...)
T: yes
S: se traduciría: si yo tuviera seis meses de vacaciones
T: uhum
S: yo iría a Australia, ¿no es lo mismo? O sea..
T: ¿como que si no es lo mismo?
S: yo tuviera, que yo iría, ¿no es lo mismo?
S: no
T: no, en castellano..
S: ¿no se podría traducir así? Si yo iría a Australia, si yo tuviera seis días, seis meses de vacaciones
T: lo que has hecho es cambiarlo de orden, pero es lo mismo
S: entonce, ¿se pondría igual?
T: no, a ver, en castellano tú estás utilizando el subjuntivo, el pasado de subjuntivo, pretérito de subjuntivo y el condicional, en inglés no tienes subjuntivo, utilizan el pasado normal y luego el condicional. A ti te parece que es lo mismo, pero no, son dos tiempos distintos. O.k.,...
S: the class is finished
T: no, the class is not finished
S: (...)
T: Alejandro, shut up! O.k., shss, look at the blackboard, Silvia
S: estaba explicándole una cosa a (...)

T: vale, pero a ver, me parece muy bien que se lo quieras explicar, pero si vamos explicar lo del examen, es más importante y eso se lo explicas después

S: no pasa nada, era una palabra

T: pues, bueno, una palabra, o.k., test units 7 and 8, right? here on the blackboard you have the most important points for the test, right?

S: right

T: did you write them on your notebook?

S: sí

T3: Instructions

T: o.k., physical description, page 61, go to your books to page 61, 61, o.k., remember that on this page we studied different characters, it was a (a pause in the tape) right? so, you have to say if he or she has a round face, if he or she is tall or short, if he's wearing a suit, if she's wearing a dress, etcetera, do you remember that?

S: (...)

T: o.k., 62, we studied the different parts of a house, the different rooms of a house, right? the kitchen, the music room, the bedroom, hall, reading room, dining room and living room, right? this is just vocabulary, and then on page 63 we studied the first part of grammar: Past Continuous and Past Simple, the difference between Past Continuous and Past Simple, and how we can use them in the same, in one sentence. Miriam was having a shower when the phone rang, remember that? Or when Susan was walking to school, she met Tom. I read the newspaper while I was waiting for the bus. There are two actions, one is a longer action and the other one interrupts that longer action, do you remember that?

S: sí

T: o.k., that is Past Continuous and Past Simple and it's on page 63 and on your notebook, right? 64, Past Perfect, do you remember the Past Perfect?

S: no

S: yes

S: yes

T: o.k., María, can you explain what we use the Past Perfect for?

S: with the verb to have in the ...

T: (...)past

S: past and the (...)

T: very good, and what do we use it for? For what kind of situations do we use this?

S: for (...)

T: (...)help María?

S: a situation in the past, anterior a otro pasado

T: o.k., María said: a situation in the past that is behind in the time, there is one situation in the tim.., in the past and then another one is in the past, but earlier, o.k.? in the book you have: you use the Past Perfect to talk about an action that happened before another action in the past, o.k.? and in your notebook you have the explanation, too. Jose, pay attention please. O.k., that is the Past Perfect, Vocabulary, page 65, preffixes, we studied three preffixes: un-, dis-, and mis-. And you have those words and the words in the Activity, you have to know, if you say disappear, unappear or misappear, which one?

Ss: dis

T: disappear

S: de memoria

T: or if you say unfriendly, misfriendly or disfriendly. Unfriendly. You have a list of words, you have six words here and some words in the Activity Book, but they are the same more or less. Writing: page 67.

S: esto es lo mismo que la gramática, ¿no?

T: yes, it's like the application of the grammar in a text, es la aplicación de lo que aprendes en gramática a un texto. We studied that if we write a text in the past, if we write a text in the past, a story about Sherlock Holmes' life or Conan Doyle's life, you can use the Past Continuous, the Past Perfect and the Past Simple. What is the tense that we use most of the times?

S: Past Simple

T: Past Simple, very good. And then some times we use the Past Continuous and some times the Past Perfect, but the most frequently used is the Past Simple, in these cases, all right? page 69

T1: Communicative task
(Errors 26and 27)
S: María **(Q)**
T: yes, Silvia **(A)**
S: I have for..forget **(A)**
T: I have forgotten **(F)**
S: I have forgotten,er Ø write my name in the composition **(Acc/A)**

T: o.k., I recognize your writing, so I will write your name, don't worry. O.k., Francisco, are you on page 69? **(Conf)**

S: sí

T3: Instructions
T: No, you are not, now you are, now, o.k., on this page you have the vocabulary for the dangerous activities, we studied: canoeing, horse riding, mountain biking, rock climbing, bangee jumping and scuva diving, right? This could be in a question about vocabulary, right? Grammar: we have two grammar parts: Conditional Sentences type I and Conditional Sentences type II, page, page 70 and page 71, and on your notebook. Do you have any problem with conditional one or conditional two? With the first or the second conditional?

S: no

T: do you have any problem? I think you understood this, right? and we worked with it right now, so I think you understand. Vocabulary: adjectives and prepositions, page 73. On this page we have of, in and with, and those prepositions are related to certain adjectives. You say frightened of, interested in, afraid of, angry with and terrified of. You have the word scared, that is not here, but it's in the Activity Book, remember? Scared, this could be on the test, too. (T writes on BB) scared

S: of

T: of, very good, this word is not on the book, but it's on the Activity Book, so this could be on your test, too. María

S: frightened, afraid and (...)

T: (...) they are synonyms, those three and scared of, they are four synonyms

S: ¿Y significan tener miedo?

T: tener miedo de o estar asustado de o estar aterrorizado de, o.k.? and the last part is the Writing part on page 75 and you have to know how to order a story using the time expressions, o.k.? do you remember? You had a story here and we had a different story in the Acitivity Book and you have to order them according to the time expressions. O.k., that is all for today, the class is finished, we will finish this next day

S: María!

(Lesson 12) 4<u>th</u> B 23rd, April, 2002

T: everybody stand up, we are going to pray...

T and Ss: our father in heaven, hallowed be Your name, Your kingdom come, Your will be done, on earth as it is in heaven, give us this day our daily bread and forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors and do not lead us into temptation, but deliver us from the evil one, for Yours is the kingdom and the power and the glory forever. Amen.

(Ss talk)

T1: Communicative task

T: shss, o.k., Lorena, pay attention, please, Inma, Francisco, sit down and shut up, Alejandro

S: yo

T: go back to your place

S: es este ahora

T: no, it's not, ... go back to your place, ..do you want to sit here by my side? Do you want to sit here by my side?

S: ahí, sí, ha

T: then that place is good for you

S: yo aquí

T: o.k., very good, now, you have a test tomorrow, you have a test tomorrow, so we must finish the Consolidation and then review for the test, o.k.? Did we do all the activities in the Consolidation part? Did we do all the activities in the Consolidation part? Page, ... page 78

S: ya lo hemos hecho

T: did we finish it? Did we finish?

S: yes

T: yes? O.k., then..

S: ¿qué página es?

T: page 78

S: 78?

T: Silvia...we don't, we won't do G, we won't do G, because Learning to Learn is not for the test...o.k., now, if we finished this part, if we finished this part, we are going to start reviewing, page...(...)1, page 61, ...o.k., in this page

(Error 1)
S: ¿qué /page/? **(Q)**
T: page 61, 6, 1, **(F)**

S: bingo

S: línea

S: line

T: you could use your imagination, because that is an old joke, that is not very original, to say ´linea or bingo, that is not very original, I thought you had a big, a great imagination, but you don't.

S: ¿quién ha abierto la puerta?

Ss: ha, ha

(a S asks something)

T: shss, ...

S: Asins, Asins! Llámale, llámalo

T: vale! no! No le llamo ahora

S: ¿qué ha pasado?

T: a ver, Lorena, interrumpen porque es de otra clase y tienen que preguntar eso, pero no hace falta ya pararles y decirles más cosas que no tocan, vale. O.k., so they have the right password now

S: that's right

T: o.k., the right password, I was saying that Francisco and Alejandro are not very original people, you don't have much imagination

S: I don't (...)

T: but, since I am the teacher, eh, I give you my opinion when I want

S: ¿sí?

T: yes, o.k., now, we must continue with this because this is more important than Francisco's problem, this is more important, so we continue with this

S: (...)

T: creo que es obvio aunque yo no lo dijera, continuamos, page 61, you have some characters here, right? and you must know how to describe someone physically, o.k? do you remember? Francisco, if you continue with that attitude, you'll be out of my class

S: oh!

T: do you understand?

S: yes

T3: Instructions

T: yes? O.k., next time you interrupt me, you will be out of the class, o.k., you have to say if someone is tall or is short, is fat, is thin, if he has got a round face, if he has got a beard, and you have to say the clothes he or she is wearing, d'you remember that? We use the Present Continuous, in Spanish we say: el lleva una camisa roja y un pantalón azul, for example, but in English they say: he's wearing a red sweater and blue trousers, o.k.? so you must remember that. Good, page 62, we have some vocabulary, some vocabulary about parts of a house

T1: Communicative task

S: María, que eso me lo estudio y luego no sale

S: o.k., there are two, shss, pay attention, Alejandro, there is, there are two units and there is a vocabulary question in very unit, but in the, in the test I just have one vocabulary question, so it can be this vocabulary or the vocabulary on Unit 8, but not the two

S: ¿uno sale seguro?

T: yes

S: igual que en el examen pasado

T: o.k., you can believe me or not, it's your option, I tell you that one question is going to be about vocabulary, it could be 7 or 8, I don't know, well I know, but you don't know, o.k.? now, this is just some vocabulary about a house and this vocabulary is not new for you, you knew how to say kitchen, music room, bedroom, hall, o.k.? these are not new words for you

S: María, ¿que pondrás? ¿palabras por ejemplo (...) y

S: for example, or a picture

S: ¿o pondrás sobre (...)?

T: o.k., this is vocabulary and describing someone is not vocabulary

S: ah, eso no es vocabulario

T: this is physical description

S: ah, ya

T3: Instructions

(Error 2)

T: o.k., page 63, First Conditional or Conditional, sorry, that is in the other unit, past Continuous, o.k., what can you tell me about the Past Continuous? What do we use the Past Continuous for? What do we use it for? **(Q)**

T2: Linguistic task

S: for.. describe an action that it's in progress **(A)**

T: to describe an action in progress or in process, very good, when an action was not finished in the past and it was in process of being finished, we use the Past Continuous, very good, para los que no lo han entendido.. **(F)**

S: yo, yo

T: cuando una acción en el pasado no se acabó, sino que estaba en proceso de ser realizada, que eso en inglés se llama in process o in progress, cuando no se había acabado y estaba en proceso de ser realizada, utilizamos el Pasado Continuo, porque si sí que está acabada, ¿qué utilizamos?.. el Pasado

S: Simple

(Error 3)

T: Simple, vale, que es el pasado que, el primero que sabíamos, es decir, la relación es parecida entre Presente Simple y Presente Continuo con la de Pasado Simple y Pasado Continuo, parecida, vale, here in this grammar part, they use the Past Continuous and the Past Simple, can you tell me the structure? Francisco **(Q)**

S: the Past Continuous.., er, action long **(A)**

T: a long action **(F)**

(Error 4)

S: and Past Simple action short in the action long **(A)**

T: o.k., it is a short action that interrupts a longer action, yes, very good, there is a long action and then a shorter action interrupts the other one, right? Past Continuous and Past Simple, for example, like here, Miriam was having a shower when the phone rang, Miriam was having a shower is a longer action, and the phone rings and interrupts this action, o.k.? it can be joined by while or by when **(F)**

S: pero, María, tengo una duda (...)

T: yes, I can write sentences without the verb and you must write the verb in the correct tense, for example or I can write sentences in Spanish and you must translate them to English, shss, one of the questions is like that, you have sentences and you have to write the correct tense and another question is translating Spanish into English, O.k.?

S: me cago en tu madre Paco

T1: Communicative task

T: Alejandro, stop!

S: (...) en inglés?

T: yes

S: María, (...)

T: sorry?

(Error 5)

S: the test is easy? **(Q)**

T: which text? The test?

S: sí

T: oh, I thought the text, the test? I think it's easy, but I don't know what your opinion will be, in my opinion it is not very difficult, but, if you study, it's easy, o.k.? if you know the grammar, if you study, the test will be easy

S: ¿pero no, no mezclarás Pasado con ningún (...), el Pasado Continuo y el Pasado Simple en una pregunta, lo otro en otra pregunta?

T: there is one question, one writing in the book that is Past Perfect, Past Continuous and Past Simple, so I can ask you the three of them in one..

S: question

T2: Linguistic task

T: yes, but just with that, Past Continuous, Past Perfect and Past Simple, ok? I'm getting very tired with someone in this class, o.k., Past Perfect, on page 64, ..what about the Past Perfect? Can anyone explain what we use the Past Perfect for?

S: pasado

T: what do we use the Past Perfect for?.. nobody knows?..María

S: we use the Past Perfect

T: shss

(A pause in the tape)

S: (...)has happened

S: has hapenned

T: o.k., but it is related, is it related to any other action?

S: ¿qué es related?

T: relacionada

S: er

(A pause in the tape)

T: (...) the action is in the ..

S: no entiendo, que está relacionado con otro..

T: con otra acción

S: sí, una que ya..

T: sí, y ¿en qué tiempo está esa acción, con la que está relacionada?

S: Pasado Simple

T: o.k, we use the Past Perfect to talk about a past action that has happened before another past action, remember that? I wrote this (T writes on BB) (...) past action, o.k., something that happened in the past, past action, and it is in the Simple Past, (...) we have another action that happens before that one,(...) that one is in the Past Perfect

S: eso está más pasado que pasado

T: yes

S: ese Past Perfect es de Past Simple al Past Perfect

T: (writes on BB) this is today

S: porque si es el today al Past Perfect, es Past Simple

S: María

T: o.k., listen, can you repeat your question? Can you repeat your question, Paco?

S: que el Past Perfect

T: yes

S: es lo que estamos hablando del Past Simple y a la vez más atrasado

T: exacto

S: porque si estamos hablando de hoy al Past Perfect, sería Past Simple

T: exacto, muy bien

S: yo no lo entiendo

T: a ver lo que ha dicho Francisco tiene razón, si yo estoy a día de hoy y digo algo que ocurrió ayer y luego digo algo que ocurrió antes de esa acción de ayer, utilizo el Pasado Perfecto. Sin embargo, si yo estuviera en este punto, hubiera utilizado para decir esto un Pasado Simple, no un Pasado Perfecto, porque es la acción que va después de ésta

S: María¿es..

S: eh, no marees más

T: a ver eso es para..

S: (...)

T: ¿es eso lo que has dicho o no?

S: yo decía que para, que si el eso

Ss: cállate Paco, cállate tío

T: a ver, no, si se queda con la duda, que lo pregunte

S: (...) directamente hablaba de aquella, y aquella utilizaba para el Simple

T: es lo mismo que he dicho yo también, a ver, si hoy digo algo que ocurrió ayer sin que haya ninguna otra por el medio, también sería Past Simple

S: vale, ya está

T: vale, imagine I am here today and I say: my brother arrived home yesterday, right? and then, before my brother arrived, I had cleaned the house, I had cleaned the house before my brother arrived, or when my brother arrived, so, this is a past action, past Simple, and this is before this one, and it is in the Past Perfect, o.k.?

S: en la frase en que aparezca el pasado, el Past Perfect..

T: uhum

S: ¿tiene que aparecer obligatorio el Past Simple?

T: aparece obligatoriamente junto al Past Simple o estamos hablando de un texto de una acción, primero nombran una acción en Pasado Simple y todo lo que nombres anterior a eso, aunque no la nombres cada vez esa, será Pasado Perfecto

S: se supone que lo has nombrado antes

T: se supone que tú ya lo has nombrado antes y todo lo que venga después que sea anterior a eso, es Pasado Perfecto, cuando estás contando una historia o cuando estás contando la vida de alguien, ¿vale?

S: (...)

T: sorry?

S: (...)

T: shss

S: (...)

T: sorry? Pasado Perfecto que está..?

S: (...)

T: puede aparecer before y after, claro, porque como son relaciones temporales...
S: si pones un texto, para saber...

(Error 6)
T: exacto, si (...) alguna relación temporal, tu piensas: antes de o después de y tú pones el tiempo que sea, o.k., now, Silvia, how do we form, how de we form the Past Perfect? ...we write the subject first and then? **(Q)**
S: vale, er, Past Perfect? Subject más **(A)**
T: plus **(F)**
S: más **(A)**
T: plus **(F)**
S: the verb to have in the past, had **(Acc)**
T: had, very good **(Conf)**

S: and past participle

T3: Instructions
T: past participle, the third column, very good, remember: for the Past Simple we use the second column and for the Past Perfect we use the third column, o.k., good. Now, 65, Investigating Vocabulary, preffixes, we have studied three preffixes, un-, dis- and mis-, that transform the word in its opposite meaning
S: ¿qué?
T: if I have usual, unusual is just the opposite, o.k? if I have appear, disappear is the opposite, but you must study the words here and in the Activity Book, because you cannot use mis- with all the words or dis- with all the words, or un- with all the words. Some words have un-, some words have dis- and some words have mis-

T1: Communicative task
S: María
T: yes?
S: ¿qué vas a poner, las seis y las que (...)?
S: ha, ha
S: lo único que digo yo es que si te las sabes de memoria
T: yes
S:¿hay alguna regla?
T: no, o.k., page 67,
S: ha chafado una mierda, tío
T: ¿quién?
S: Laza
(Ss talk)
S: pero que no huele
T: no, sí que huele
S: y encima la enseña el desgraciado
T: no, Laza, ve fuera y a ver si encuentras papel de plata o alguna cosa donde puedas restregar el pie, en serio, es que sí que huele, yo creía que venía de fuera
S: a verla
T: no, no, a verla nada, no la enseñes!!
Ss: ha, ha
T: o.k., ay que olor, o.k.,
S. (...)
T: shss, déjalo, déjalo que se vaya, ya luego le dejas el papel de plata, shss
(Ss talk)
T: 67
S: es una shit
T: Merce, Silvia, Lorena, page 67
S. ha chafado una shit

T3: Instructions
T: o.k., here we have a text about Arthur Conan Doyle's life and they have used the Past Simple, the Past Continuous and the Past Perfect. What is the most frequently used tense?

S: Past Simple, ¿no?

T: Past Simple, very good, they use Past Simple the most and then Past Continuous some times and Past Perfect some times. If I write a text, you must know when to use Past Perfect, when to use Past Continuous and when to use Past Simple, o.k.? you must know the difference, o.k. Page 69. On page 69 we have vocabulary for dangerous activities, you just study them, o.k.? page 70, Conditional Sentences type I, remember that these are very probable situations, right? I say: if it rains, we will go to the cinema. It is quite probable that it will rain, right? or in a very good day, like today I say: if it's sunny, we will go to the park, because I think it is very probable that it is sunny, o.k? so this is quite probable. The Second Conditional is not so probable, right? the second is imaginary or unprobable, sorry, improbable. The First Conditional: we use if, plus..

S: (...)

T: present Simple, and then?

T2: Linguistic task

S: Future

T: Future, very good. Second Conditional: we use if, plus

S: Past

S: pasado

T: Past Simple, and?

S: (...)

T: the would form, that is the Conditional form, o.k., can we start the conditional sentences without if? Can we start a conditional sentence without if?

Ss: yes

T: yes, and then..

S: the if (...)

(Error 7)

T: (...) put the if in the middle, very good, but, if the if is at the beginning, what do we need? **(Q)**

S: if you have a comma, no, **(A)**

T: shss, I was asking Marta, if we start the sentence without the if, the if goes in the middle **(F)**

S. yes

(Error 8)

T: but, if we start with the if, **(Q)**

S: in the middle goes a comma **(A)**

T: we need a comma in the middle, very good, Alejandro! **(F)**

S: yo

T: if you don't shut up, you are going to have a negative, some of your mates, some of your classmates have three positives and you are going to have three negatives if you don't shut up, no sé si lo has entendido o no, pero la palabra negative te sonará de algo

S: (...)

T: o.k., Cristina

S: María, que tú cómo sabes cuando tengo que (...) y cuando (...)

T: a ver,

S: traduciendo

T: primera, yo no voy a ser tan mala de ponerlas mezcladas

S: ahí, ahí, muy bien

T: va a haber una pregunta del primer condicinal y una pregunta que será del segundo

S: pero, ¿pondrás..

T: yo te diré si es el primero o es el segundo, ¿vale?

Ss: ah, vale

T: o sea que no hay problema, pero, a ver, uno tiene que entenderlo y tiene que saber para que utilizarlo

S: claro

T: yo acabo de decir que si la situación es bastante probable, yo te digo que hay que utilizar el primero, mientras que es algo que yo te digo que tú te lo imagines o que es algo improbable, yo digo: no tengo mucho dinero, si tuviera mucho dinero, daría la vuelta al mundo

S: si tuviera una escoba

T: por ejemplo, también, si tuviera una escoba, barrería a mucha gente de esta clase también

(Ss talk)

T3: Instructions

T: o.k., shss, listen, she's saying if the order is important or not, o.k., if I give you the information and I tell you: write conditional sentences type II with this information, you can write it one way or the other way, you can start with if or not, but then you have to change the order of the information

S: uhum

T: right? but you can choose to start with if or without if. O.k.? any other question about the First or Second Conditional?

S: no

T: no? O.k., page73, o.k., when I wrote, when I wrote the important points on the blackboard, I think I forgot to tell you that we have frightened, interested, afraid, angry, terrified, we also had scared in the Activity Book, but on the Consolidation part, on page 78, we have fascinated and surprised, fascinated by and surprised by, those are for the test, too. O.k.? so, we have the prepositions of, in, with and by, but it's not in here, o.k.? remember, when you study this part, you have to study activity F on page 78, too, right? when you study page 73, you have to study page 78, too. O.k.?

S: María,¿aquí no hay más remedio que aprendérselo de memoria, no hay ninguna regla?

T: it is, it is quite similar to Spanish, tener miedo de, estar interesado en, o estar enfadado con, it is quite similar

(Error 9)
S: enfadado de **(Comments)**
T: ¿estar enfadado de? **(F)**
S: sí, estar enfadado de que (...) la clase, por ejemplo **(A)**
T: enfadado de que, that is not correct **(F)**
S: no! (...) **(Peer-correction)**
T: estoy enfadado porque...estoy enfadado porque tal cosa, pero si yo te estoy diciendo cuando es un sustantivo detrás, estar enfadado con alguien, una persona, ¿vale? o.k., page 75, page 75 is a writing activity about ordering parts of a text, shss, and there are some words in the text, like after a few minutes, one summer, twenty minutes later, before, there are some time expressions that help you to order the text, o.k.? and this is just to know how to order it, o.k.? **(F)**

T1: Communicative task
S: está fácil, ¿no?
T: but it's not very difficult
S: está easy el examen, eh?
T: o.k., now, is there any specific part of the grammar, vocabulary, etc. that you want to review? Silvia?
S: this, bueno no sé cómo se hace lo de ordenar
T: this, I could, er, put different parts of a text and you order it, or I can tell you to write a story
S: hala!
T: in the past
S: no
S: no
T: about the most frightening moment in your life
S: no dará tiempo
T: yes
S: María, ¿ya lo has corregido, eso?
T: I'm going to give it to you now
S: (...)
T: you are angry, who are you angry with?

S: with you

T: with me? Why?

S: por no sé qué, toda la gente está quejándose por no sé qué, yo también

S: que dice que va a poner un writing

T: the question is to complain, o.k.,

S: (...)

T: ahora os lo doy

S: (...)

T: pero, ¿me estás preguntando por lo de Irlanda o por lo del texto de the most frightening moment?

S: (...)

T: er, lo de Irlanda ahora me lo quedo yo porque hasta que no ..

S: a mi lo de Irlanda no me lo has (...)

T: (...)? bueno, pues lo de Irlanda que tengo ahí me tenéis que decir de quién es, el de Merce y el de..

S: yo tengo aquí el mío, ¿te lo doy?

T: dámelo cuando acabe el examen, porque ahora no voy a poder corregírtelo, cuando pase el examen, me lo das, ¿vale?

S: ¿y lo otro?

T: no te lo corregí porque me preguntaste en clase y te lo dije, me acuerdo de, no sabías decir el amanecer y eso

S: (...)

T: anda que después de hacer el trabajo de hacerlo y no (...), shss, o.k.

S: María, ¿y lo otro?

T: what? I will give it to you now, o.k.? o.k., now, if you don't have any other question, if you don't have more questions, I'm going to dictate you some sentences

S: no

T: to review, yes, because one question is going to be translating

S: Past Perfect

T: Past Perfect and (...) most difficult (...)... o.k., copy this on your notebook...Alejandro, please, ...o.k., listen, sentences, the first one

S: I don't want (...)

T: you don't have a choice, tú no tienes elección, María,

(Error 10)

S: I'll do the homework if you will put me a positive **(Comments)**

S: ah!

T: if you do the homework, I have to give you a positive, o.k., listen to me, if you don't do the homework, you will have a negative, but if you do the homework, you don't have anything, because it's your **(F)**

S: a positive?

S: obligation

S: obligation

T: exacto

S: never, never

S: María

T: I give positives, but not to you

S: María

T: I give positives many times, but not to you

S: pero por portarse bien no pones

T3: Instructions

T: o.k., you must behave well, you must behave well... o.k., first sentence: cuando mi hermano llegó a casa... cuando mi hermano llegó a casa, ...coma, ...yo había ordenado la habitación...

T2: Linguistic task

S: (...) en pasado

T: shss, don't say anything, just copy and people will think

S: ¿yo había ordenado la habitación?

T: yo había ordenado la habitación

S: María, (...)

T: Alejandro, shut up, don't say anything, just do it

S: (...)

T: I won't tell you, second one, .. ellos estaban viendo la televisión... cuando su madre, ellos estaban viendo la televisión, cuando su madre entró en la habitación... cuando vi a Susan, coma, cuando vi a Susan, coma,

S: espera María que voy a coger otro boli... ¿cuándo vi a quien?

(A pause in the tape)

T: cuando vi a Susan yo estaba comiendo en un restaurante...

S: (...)

T: él, ¿cómo?

S: (...)

T: tú, tú lo piensas, María, pero no lo tienes que decir ahora

(Ss talk)

T: a ver, oye, pero ¿qué pasa que os ponéis a hablar todos?, vale

S: (...)

S: (...)

T: María, don't say anything, think about it. Él había preparado la comida, ..él había preparado la comida...cuando..(...) se fue

S: anda!

T: shss

S: (...)

T: o.k., ...si yo..

S: ¿qué?

T: si yo..

S: ¿eso qué es?

S: si yo

T: si yo tuviera

S: una escoba

T: más tiempo libre, coma, ...si yo tuviera más tiempo libre, coma, ..estudiaría alemán

S: hala!

T: si él fuera más tonto, ..si él fuera más tonto

S: pero ¿sí, en serio?

T: en serio, si él fuera más tonto, coma,

S: no tiraré indirectas como ésta

S: ha, ha

T: a ver, que pienso, ...si él fuera más tonto...él sería, él sería fan del Barça

S: no te pases , eh

S: ya estás ahí con tu...

S: ¿por qué del Barça?

T: a ver, el que ya lo es no es tonto, sería el que se hiciera de ese equipo, el que ya lo es no

S: ¿cómo es tonto?

S: sería fan del Madrid

T: silly

S: silly?

T: dumb también

S: dumb

T: o.k., er, the last sentence

S: María!

T: the last sentence

S: the last

S: the last?

T: ellos, the last, yes, ellos... irán al concierto... ellos irán al concierto, si consiguen una entrada...now, shss, you must work on that and in silence please

S: in silence, o.k.

T: because if you are not in silence, I'm going to be very angry with, angry with you, and the test will be very, very difficult tomorrow

S: no, no

S: paciente?

T: o.k., Silvia, I think you didn't hear me, if I am angry, the test will be difficult, if you have heard it, why are you talking?.. You don't have a good reason to be talking. Cristina

S: ¿(...) en castellano cómo se traduce? Había comido, o..

T: pretérito

S. (...)

S: ¿ordenado cómo es?

S: tidy

T: ah, ¿qué cómo se dice la oración en castellano? Ellos habían llegado o yo había comido... o.k., all the words are in the book, so don't ask anyone, look for in the book

S: busca

S: (...)

(Error 11)
S: /arrive/, cuando arribe a casa.. **(A)**

T: Alejandro

S: ¿qué?

T: we are in English class, not in Italian class

S: me ha preguntado cómo se dice llegar

S: (...)

T: go in, go into or go in, or, enter

S: María, ¿ordenar cómo es?

T: it's in the book

S: ¿y salir cómo es? Go out?

T: go out

S: ¿y entrar cómo es? Come in?

S: (...)

T: tidy means ordenado or ordenar, shss

S: come in, no, María?

S: come in no, go in

S: ¿y cómo es sucio, María?

T: dirty

S: ah! Claro

T: Adela, can you come here? Can you come here?

T: what is this? I said not too?

S: que dice que no también, que también dijo que no

T: oh, o.k., ... a comma here, o.k.? this is for you, very good, this is for you

S: María!

T: yes?

S: (...) no?

T: sorry?

S: la primera es Pasado Continuo, no?

T: la primera, which one is the first one?

S: cuando mi madre llegó a casa, yo había ordenado la habitación, primera...

T: there are two sentences, sorry, there are two tenses, two tenses

S: sí

S: es que había algo..

(Error 12)
S: (...) **(A)**

T: when my brother arrived, home, not to house, arrived home, I had tidied the bedroom, yes, ... and not to, you don't need the to, o.k.? **(F)**

(Error 13)
S: ¿preparado cómo es? **(Q)**
S: ready **(A)**
T: preparar is to prepare **(F)**

S: (...)

T: sorry
S: (...)
T: to prepare
S: (...)
T: cook... meal or prepare lunch, the best is to prepare lunch
S: María! ¿comida qué es? ¿food?
T: no, food means comida, if you go to the supermarket to buy food, you go to buy comida, yes?, but if you have to prepare lunch, when you prepare lunch... preparar la comida...Lorena, here is your text, o.k., look at the mistakes
(Ss talk)
S: María, ..María
T: o.k., if you don't, if you don't shut up, shss..
S: one question
T: wait a minute, I am talking to Lorena now
S: ah
T: wait, if you don't shut up, I cannot hear Lorena
S: vale
T: first Lorena and then Alejandro, o.k.?
S: vale

(Error 14)
S: aquí es por ejemplo: he wears y ya está **(A)**
T: he is wearing **(F)**
S: he is wearing? **(Q)**
T: we use the Present Continuous **(F)**

S: María
T: Alejandro
S: ¿se fue es (...), no?
T: sorry?

(Error 15)
S: se fue, se fue,...was going, no? **(Q)**
T: that is not se fue, se fue is a finished past action **(F)**
S: sería went y au **(Acc)**
T: she went or she left, left is better, she left **(Conf)**
S: ah y si pongo was going está mal? **(Acc)**
T: was going es Pasado Continuo y no es eso lo que yo te he preguntado **(Conf)**

S: María, ¿sería fan de (...)?
S: Barça's fan
T: Barça's fan or fan of Barça... Inma
S: ¿qué?
T: come here to get your text...(...) at the mistakes
(Ss talk)
S: María? (...)
T: shss
S: (...)sería (...) o (...)
T: tú pones sujeto más would más verbo en infinitivo
S: be
T: be, muy bien
S: ¿entrada cómo era?
T: ticket
S: (...)
T: Alejandro, work
S: (...)

(Error 16)
S: Deutsch, es Deutsche, ¿no? **(Q)**

T: Deutsche is German in German, o.k., but in English is German, o.k., Deutsche means German in German, right? **(F)**
S: claro, Deutsche **(Acc)**

S: ¿consiguen es get?
T: sorry?
S: ¿conseguir es get?
T: yes
(Ss talk)
T: Cristina, come here to get your text
S: María
T: yes?
S: para ver la tele, watching t.v. o watching the t.v.?
T: watching t.v.
S: (...) tonto? Stupid? No, María?
T: o.k., tonto is silly, stupid es estúpido
S: si fuera más tonto

(Error 17)
S: if he was very silly **(A)**
T: it is a two-syllable adjective ending in –y, ..sillier, like heavier or happier **(F)**

S: María, (...)?
T: sorry?
S: enter en pasado
T: entered, it is a regular verb
S: (...)
T: yes
(Ss talk)
T: María, your text... very good
S: ¿qué?
T: very good
(Ss talk)

(Error 18)
T: Fernando **(Q)**
S: ¿qué? **(A)**
T: come here... the sun was climbing on top? no tiene mucho sentido **(F)**
S: es que ahí quería decir.. **(Comments)**
T: el sol estaba escalando, cerca de la cima? **(F)**
S: (...)
T: el sol estaba brillando? **(Q)**
S: sí **(A)**
T: (the T corrects by writing) es que no tenía mucho sentido esto, eh **(F)**
S: ya es que.. **(Acc)**

T: Adela, stop... vale
(Ss talk)
T: o.k., Adela, go to the blackboard and write the first sentence
S: (...) cómo es, María?
T: sorry?
S: ¿entrada cómo es?
T: ticket... whose text is this? Whose ..
S: Silvia
T: ..text is this?
S: es de Silvia
S: te dije que se me había olvidado el nombre
T: come here and get it, or Nati...
(Ss talk)
T: Pablo

(Ss talk)

S: es mi habitación, ¿no es my bedroom?

T: o.k., pay attention: when my brother arrived home, I had tidied the room, o.k., I said la habitación, I didn't specify dormitorio, bedroom is dormitorio, but you can say room or bedroom, the two are correct, o.k.?

(Error 19)

S: María, ¿puede ser when my brother come home? **(Q)**

T: when my brother..? **(F)**

S: come home **(A)**

T: if you use the verb come, you have to say came **(F)**

S: came, eso, (...) **(Acc)**

T: o.k., María, the second one **(Conf)**

(Ss talk)

S: María

(Error 20)

S: María, ¿no sería arrive to the house o algo así? **(Q)**

T: no, arrive home, con la palabra home después del verbo arrive no hay ninguna preposición por el medio **(F)**

S: (...)

T: can you repeat your question?

S: en el condicional

T: ¿en el segundo condicional?

S: en los dos

T: ah, en los dos, ¿qué? Es que en el primer condicional no hay condicional, es decir, no hay tiempo condicional

S: ay, pero se usa un verbo, ¿no?

T: ¿pero tú de que me estás hablando? ¿de ..

S: del pasado

T: ..del primer condicional del segundo condicional o del tiempo condicional?¿ de qué me estás hablando?

S: no lo sé

T: vale

(Error 21)

S: vamos a ver, decimos si él fuera, ¿no? **(Q)**

T: sí **(A)**

S: if he be? **(Q)**

S: María, ¿salgo? **(Q)**

T: no! **(A)**

S: if he.. **(A)**

T: en ese va pasado **(Explains)**

S: if he, if he go en pasado, fue **(A)**

T: ¿estás hablando de si él fuera más tonto? **(Q)**

S: sí **(A)**

T: vale, en ese no es el verbo ir, es el verbo ser, si él fuera no es si él fuera al cine **(F)**

S: ah es el ser, be, be o, .. **(Acc)**

T: he were **(F)**

S: ah, o sea que es la segunda, (...) igual **(Acc)**

T: cuando es en pasado, es la segunda columna, en la type I no hay pasado, es presente y futuro, sólo está en el segundo, claro **(Conf)**

S: (...)

T: they were watching t.v., when her mother went in the room or went into the room, o.k.

S: ¿enter también estaría bien?

T: o.k., if you use enter, (T writes on BB) you don't say entered in the room, you say entered the room, o.k.? o.k., next one, Inma. We have to finish correcting the sentences.

S: (...)

T: o.k., I will finish correcting the texts and will come in later and give it to you, o.k.?

S: (...)

T: I will give it to you in ten minutes, o.k., so you can study for the test

S: María (...)

T: shss, when I saw Susan

S: (...)

(Error 22)

T: what is the mistake in this sentence? **(Q)**

S: the to **(Peer-correction)**

T: to, we don't use to, when I saw Susan, to is not correct, I was eating in a restaurant, o.k., very good **(F/Conf)**

(Error 23)

S: María, aquí es their mother, no her mother **(Peer-correction)**

T: yes, that is correct, their mother, their mother, o.k., the next one, I will give you the solution **(Conf)**

S: ya es la hora

T: he had prepared lunch, when his mother went or his mother left, o.k., he had prepared lunch, when his mother left

(Error 24)

S: the lunch estaría bien? **(Q)**

T: no, prepare lunch...if I had more free time, I'd study German.. **(F)**

(Error 25)

S: y a lot of free time no se puede? **(Q)**

T: more free time, because I said más **(F)**

S: mira **(Comments)**

T: pero es que en el libro pone mucho tiempo libre y yo te he dicho más tiempo libre **(F)**

S: entonces, ¿cómo sería? **(Q)**

T: more free time, if I had more free time **(F)**

S: (...)

(Error 26)

T: shss, if he were sillier, if he were sillier, he would be fan of the Barça team or he would be Barça's fan **(F)**

S: sillier, en vez de more silla **(Acc)**

T: sillier, yes, and the last one: they will go to the concert, if they get a ticket, o.k., the class is finished for today. **(Conf)**

(Lesson 13) 4th B 24th April, 2002

T: pay attention, stand up everybody, we are going to pray, stand up

T and Ss: our father in heaven, hallowed be Your name, Your kingdom come, Your will be done, on earth as it is in heaven, give us this day our daily bread and forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors and do not lead us into temptation, but deliver us from the evil one, for Yours is the kingdom and the power and the glory forever. Amen.

T1: Communicative task

S: (...)

T: sorry?

S: a la confirmación

T: what?

S: que si vienes

T: the people in 4th A invited me some weeks or some months ago, they invited me to go and they told me it's on the 5th of May

Ss: yes

T: but I thought you didn't want me to go

Ss: no, no

T: because they invited me, but you didn't

S: no (...)

S. lo olvidamos

T: o.k., if I can, I will go, if I have the opportunity, I'll go, yes, is it here in the "ermita"?

Ss: no

S: bajo

T: in the big church, o.k., shut up, o.k., if I can, I will go to your Confirmation celebration, yes, o.k., now, today we are going to do a special activity, as Alejandro likes false friends, as he likes false friends

S: qué!

T: I am going to do or we are going to do an activity about false friends, so on your notebook we are going to work on this today: false friends

S: María, (...) no era party o algo así?

T: sorry?

S: (...) no era party?

T: o.k., we don't celebrate parties in class, Lorena pay attention, we don't celebrate parties in class, shss, o.k.,

S: quedan dos días...

T3: Instructions

(Error 1)

T: this is an activity for you to participate, so, shss, you must pay attention, you must listen to me and you must talk to me, so pay attention. False friends (T writes on BB) o.k., people, shut up and listen to me...o.k., d'you know what a false friend is? Can anyone in the class explain or try to explain in English what a false friend is? **(Q)**

T2: Linguistic task

S: (...) **(A)**

T: in English, Silvia **(F)**

S: a word that] **(Acc)**

(Error 2)

[er, espera, appear **(A)**

T: appears **(F)**

S: a thing and, espera que no sé cómo decirlo

T: appears as a thing or means a thing

(Error 3)

S: and not it's **(A)**

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T: and it's not **(F)**
S: is not this thing, it's other, other one **(Acc)**
T: o.k., **(Conf)**

S: ¿lo digo en castellano?
T: wait, can someone else explain in English, a false friend? Silvia did it quite well, but, can anyone else try to give an explanation in English?
S: it's a word (...)
T: that it's
S: a thing
T: uhum
S: but after it's (...)

(Error 4)
T: o.k., very good, any other explanation? Any other explanation? Why do you think that a word means a thing and then it is another?why? **(Q)**
S: /bekaus/ **(A)**
T: because (F)

S: it is
S: similar
S: similar or..
T: it is very similar to.. Spanish, it is very similar to Spanish, o.k., so, can anyone give an example of a false friend? Can anyone give an example?
S: no
T: no? Nobody?
S: sí, success
T: success, what is (T writes on BB)
S: éxito
T: o.k., now, we know that success is éxito, but if you don't know the meaning and you look at the word..
S: suceso
T: it looks like suceso
S: éxito
T: it looks like suceso, but, as Alejandro says, success means éxito, o.k.? so, it is a false friend, it is not a real friend, because you think it is a Spanish word, it is similar to a Spanish word and then it's not that, o.k.? so, I'm going to tell you words and you have to tell me, shss, what do you think the meaning is, right? and then, we will see what it is the real meaning of the word, o.k., actually, this is the first one
S: pero ¿esto entrará en el temario? No, no
T: I don't know yet, maybe
S: no
T: if you pay attention and you work with this, you will not have to study it, but if you don't pay attention, this will be on the next test, it depends on your attitude
S: ¿cuántas vas a poner?
T: I don't know yet, actually, what do you think the meaning of actually is?
S: actualmente
T: it looks like..
T and Ss: actualmente
T: but it's not actualmente (T writes on BB) o.k., actually means en realidad and actualmente is nowadays (T writes on BB) I think that you want this to be in the test, if you talk, all this will be on the test, if you don't talk, we just do the activity now and it won't be in the test
S: o.k.
T: o.k., next word..anxious..(T writes on BB) what do you think anxious..what do you think is the meaning of anxious?
S: ansioso
T: ansioso, o.k., but it's no ansioso (T writes on BB) it's nervioso,
S: ¿y no es lo mismo?

T3: Instructions

T: inquieto, no, because if you say you are ansioso it means that you wish something very much, o.k.? wish to go to a party on Saturday night and you are ansioso, right? you are not nervous, you have, er, you are very, how would I say? You wish very much to go to that party, o.k.? estás deseoso, ansioso o deseoso sería la palabra correcta en castellano. Alejandro is anxious because he is always.. he is not quiet, he is always nervous, he is moving, he can't stop, it is in his character, o.k.? ...(...)so means eager, o.k.? this one (T writes on BB) we studied it in 3rd of E.S.O., argument, what does it look like?

T2: Linguistic task
S: argumento

(Error 5)
T: it looks like argumento, but (T writes on BB) argument is not argumento, what is the meaning of argument? Do you know? ...(...)from the verb argue **(Q)**
S: dialogar **(A)**
T: it is more than dialogue because it is like.. **(F)**
S: discutir **(Peer-correction)**
T: yes, you are nervous and you argue, argument means discusión (T writes on BB) (...)do we say argumento in English? How do you say, er, el argumento de la película? **(Conf)**

S: (...)
T: no, in a book, you can talk about a book or a film, ..the plot (T writes on BB) this one, this term, we studied it in 3rd of E.S.O., but you have forgotten
S: (...)?
T: lo vimos en 3º, además os puse este ejemplo... o.k., the next one (T writes on BB)(...)?
S: esperar
T: attend esperar?
S: (...)
S: atender
T: atender (T writes on BB) but attend means, er, aparecer en un sitio o ir a una clase, vale? ir a una clase o a una conferencia
S: toma ya

(Error 6)
T: es hacer presencia, hacer presencia, when I tell you to atender in class, what do I say? **(Q)**
S: listen **(A)**
T: listen yes, but I say two words **(F)**

(Error 7)
S: be quiet **(A)**
T: no, that is a different one, what do I say when I want to, when I want you to listen to me? And to.. **(F)**
S: pay attention **(Peer-correction)**
T: pay attention, very good (T writes on BB) (..)another way, yes, be quiet or you'll have a negative (...)argument? **(Conf)**

S: (...)
T: ah, claro, claro, por eso Francisco antes lo ha buscado, Francisco ha buscado (...) carpet, what does it look like? Carpet?
Ss: carpeta
T: carpeta, it looks like carpeta (T writes on BB)
S: María (...)?
T: sorry?
S: (...)
S: carpet no es alfombra?
T: carpet means alfombra very good, ..
S: alfombra

T: alfombra or moqueta (T writes on BB) and carpeta we say folder... o.k., casual, casual looks like

Ss: casual

T: casual (T writes on BB) when you talk about casual clothes, for example, it means desenfadada, it means something it is not very serious, o.k.? desenfadada, deportiva, pero se refiere a algo que no es muy serio (T writes on BB) and casual in English is accidental, accidental en castellano también se dice (T writes on BB) ahora va una que le va a gustar (...) (T writes on BB) what does it look like, constipated?

S: (...)

T: it looks like..

Ss: constipado

T: constipado (T writes on BB) but, constipated is a very different thing, it means (T writes on BB)

S: ha, ha

T3: Instructions

T: and to be or have a constipado in English is to have a cold, to have a cold, I have a cold (T writes on BB) this, this, we studied it in 3rd of E.S.O., right? we studied to have a headache, to have a stomachache, to have a swolen, shss, to have a swolen ankle, to have a cold, to have a temperature, o.k.? to have a cold means tener un constipado, so you have to be very careful when you are speaking English because sometimes you say one thing and people understand a different one, right? it happens very often, you go to England and you say something to the family you live with and you think they understood what you said, but they understood a different thing, a complete.. a completely different thing...(T writes on BB)

T2: Linguistic task

S: dices you are very constipated y quiere decir que te cagas

T: shss, discussion, what does it look like?

Ss: discusión

T: discusión, but we know that discusión is not discussion because..

S: argument

T: yes, an argument, discussion is like a, like a, when you share your ideas and you talk about something and you say: this fact is going to be for, or a topic, this fact is going to be against that topic, and you talk about it, right? but you don't argue

S: un debate

T: un debate, yes, debatir, debate (T writes on BB) can I clean this part? can I clean the blackboard on this part?

S: yes

T: shss

S: María, ¿quedan muchas?

T: Jose, quedan las que yo quiera que queden y por mucho que preguntéis no voy a acabar antes

S: (...)?

T: si me sigues preguntando querré cada vez más (T writes on BB) (...)gust

S: disgusto

T: disgusto, yes, it looks like disgusto (T writes on BB)disgust, disgust means asco, right? asco, if I say that (...), that (...) is disgusting, it means that (...) is asquerosa,right? and disgusto is annoyance (T writes on BB) if I say: Francisco's attitude annoys me, what is the meaning of that?

S: que la actitud de Francisco te disgusta

T: la actitud de Francisco me disgusta, o.k.? (T writes on BB) embarrased, what does it look like?

Ss: embarazada

T: embarazada (T writes on BB)

S: (...)

(Error 8)

T: we are talking about similar words to Spanish, not to your special language, o.k., embarrased is not embarazada, it means incómodo, embarazoso, una situación embarazosa, right? (T writes on BB) so you are in an embarrasing situation, shss, when you are in an embarrasing

situation, you don't feel very confortable in that situation, o.k.? and embarazada, do you know the word in English? **(Q)**

S: have a child **(A)**

S: ha, ha

T: pregnant (T writes on BB) **(F)**

S: have a children, dice **(Comments)**

T: she's going to have a child, but she's pregnant **(F)**

S: ya, ya **(Acc)**

T: eventually, it looks like... it looks like..

S: eventualmente

T: eventualmente, eventualmente in Spanish means that something is temporary, that is happening during a period, but it's not always like that, it's temporary, right? eventualmente in English is temporarily

S: temporarily

T: (T writes on BB)(...)imitating, and eventually means finalmente, al final, en definitiva, finalmente (T writes on BB), now the next one is exit

S: ha dicho last one?

T: no, the next one, not the last, Alejandro, pay attention to this, (T writes on BB)o.k., what does it look like?

S: éxito

T: éxito, (T writes on BB), but you know that éxito is success, yes, very good, so exit..

S: salida

T: salida (T writes on BB) (...)what does it look like?

S: idioma

T: idioma, but idioma in English is language (...)modismo o expresión idiomática (T writes on BB) (...)something, ..., this is something... there's no chalk, can you go to get me some chalk, please? Can anyone in the class go to Puri and get me some chalk, please?

S: yo

T: o.k., thank you Silvia, now, an idiom is like a fixed expression, right?, that has a meaning in a language, una expresión idiomática, algo que tiene un significado fijo en un idioma y no podemos traducirlo palabra por palabra, de acuerdo?, una expresión, una frase hecha, vale? frase hecha también valdría (T writes on BB)large, what is the..

S: largo

T: largo? It looks like largo, but it's not its meaning,

S: grande

T: large means grande, very good, because when you buy a shirt, or you buy a t-shirt, it says S, M, L, XL, I told you that that was small, medium, large, extralarge, I explained that

S: María

T: so large means grande, not largo, sorry?

S: que me ahogo

T: you can close that, not the window, but the curtain, will you see without lights?

(Ss talk)

T: you must move that curtain, o.k., what is the meaning of largo, in English?

S: long

T: long... parents (T writes on BB) shss, what does it look like, parents?

Ss: parientes

T: parientes, it looks like parientes (T writes on BB)

(The S with the chalk comes back to class)

T: thank you, it looks like parientes, but parents, María, are not parientes, what are parents?

Ss: padres

T: padres...your father and your mother are your parents, o.k.? and how do we say parientes in English?...relatives (T writes on BB) relatives, o.k., ...

S: (...)

T: no, it does not exist, o.k., ...(T writes on BB) pretend, pretend looks like..

S: pretender

T: pretender

S: me he perdido

T: (T writes on BB) where did you get lost? Francisco? Where, did you get lost? ¿dónde te has perdido?

S: en (...) pero da igual, ya lo he entendido

T: ¿ya lo entiendes? Pues si ya lo entiendes vamos a la siguiente, venga, pretend looks like pretender, but pretend means fingir (T writes on BB) pretender would be want or try, querer, intentar, cuando pretendes hacer algo, buscas hacer algo, intentas o quieres hacer algo, right?...o.k., this one, the next one is going to be dedicated to Jose Laza and Alejandro, the next one

S: que la siguiente..

S: (...)

T: I said that if you asked, the list would be longer...o.k., the one dedicated to Jose and Alejandro, ...quiet, what does it look like?

Ss: quieto

T: quieto, but it's not quieto

S: que te calles

T: it means callado and estar quieto is be still, be still, estar quieto...

S: (...)?

T: preparando esto?

S: ya estaba hecho

T: no, no estaba hecho, I had this before, this is not from this year

S: (...)

T: I have lot of things I have studied and things I have taught in other places, so, do you understand me?

S: yes, yes

T: what did I say Marta?

S: que tienes muchas cosas que (...)

T: o.k., the next one is going to be sensible (T writes on BB)

S: no la ha hecho para ti

T: o.k., no, it's not specially for him, sensible looks like..

Ss: sensible

T: sensible

S: y es sensato

T: but, very good Silvia, sensible means sensato, very good (T writes on BB) someone who is responsible and who thinks with his head, not with other parts of his body and sensible in English is sensitive (T writes on BB) o.k., yes it is (...)o.k., if you have read Harry Potter, if you have read Harry Potter, you might know this word: spectacles (T writes on BB) spectacles look like..

S: espectáculo

(Error 9)

T: espectáculo, (T writes on BB) spectacles are not a show, are not shows, are not shows, spectacles is something you use when you cannot see very well. Marta, Francisco, Pablo and Jose, and Merce are wearing them **(Q)**

S: pantallas **(A)**

S: no, gafas **(Peer-correction)**

T: gafas **(F)**

S: ah, ¿gafas es así? **(Acc)**

T: you can say glasses or you can say spectacles, spectacles and glasses are synonyms, o.k.? **(Conf)**

S: yo sólo había oído glasses

T: the most common word is glasses, but spectacles is correct, too. And in Harry Potter's shss, in Harry Potter's book they talk about the half moon spectacles that er, what is the name of that character? Who is wearing half moon spectacles?

S: Dumbledore

T: Dumbledore, yes, Dumbledore, he is wearing, shss, the book says: Dumbledore wears half moon spectacles

S: media luna

T: yes (T writes on BB)

S: pero como no está en inglés el libro...

T: but I have it (...)original version

S: half moon

T: half moon spectacles, o.k.

S: ¿gafas de media luna?

T: yes, because they are like..they are not round glasses, they are like this (T draws on BB)

S: ah, ah

T: suburbs, suburbs looks like...

S: suburbios

T: suburbios (T writes on BB)o.k., if we say in Spanish suburbio, that means a part of the city outside of the city where poor people live, poor people, o.k., suburb is outside the city, but it's not for poor people, it's a barrio residencial

S: barrio gitano

T: no (T writes on BB) and suburbio in English is slum, where poor people live, poor people live there...o.k., only two more, only two more,... we are going to practice later, o.k., next one, I'm sure you know this one, success (T writes on BB)

S: otra vez! Ya lo has puesto

T: but you didn't copy it, success, it looks like...

S: suceso

S: éxito

(Error 10)

T: suceso (T writes on BB) but it is really, it is actually éxito... and how do you say suceso?

(Q)

S: /ˈevent/ **(A)**

T: event (T writes on BB) **(F)**

S: ¿por qué siempre es la next one?

T: sorry?

S: ¿por qué siempre es la next one?

T: ¿siempre es qué?

S: ¿next one es siguiente?

T: I said only two more, this is one and now the last one, not the next one, it is the last one, the next and last one

S: ya, pero yo creía que (...) la última, y la última...

T: this is the next and last one

S: siguiente y la última

T: o.k.?

S: vale(...)

S: (...) te está diciendo que es la última (...)

T: simpathy, it looks like...

S: simpatía

T: simpatía (T writes on BB) simpathy, if you feel simpathetic for someone, if you are simpathetic for someone, it means that you understand him or her, you understand him or her, you are comprensivo

S: (...)

T: comprensivo... comprensivo, well comprensión in this case, sorry, comprensión because it is a noun, right? comprensión and simpatía, how do you say simpático?

S: happy

S: happy

S: friendly

T: you say kind, simpático (T writes on BB) so this is the noun kindness

S: huevo kinder, ¿huevo kinder qué significa?

T: kinder comes from the German in that case

S: ah!

T: that chocolate egg comes from Germany and kinder, shss, and kinder means children, that chocolate egg is for children

S: entonces ya no me lo como, eh!

T: kinder means children in En.. in German, o.k., right, I'm going to dictate you some sentences and they are going to have false friends, so you have to translate them, but, shss, you must pay attention to the false friends, o.k.? copy this down

S: this qué?

T: copy this, what I'm saying, down, take note of what I'm saying

S: more copy, more copy, eso lo he aprendido hoy

T: first one, first sentence

S: first sentence

S: espera

S: copy

S: copy down

T: shss, ellos trabajan... ellos trabajan... en un hospital eventualmente... ellos trabajan en un hospital eventualmente

S: ¿el qué?

T: ellos trabajan en un hospital eventualmente... el inglés es un idioma, second sentence, el inglés es un idoma... fácil y divertido...third one, el éxito de la película... el éxito de la película dependerá de su argumento... el éxito de la película dependerá de su argumento

S: o de los efectos especiales

T: in this case is argumento, o.k., next one... la carpeta.. de Silvia está sobre la alfombra...

S: llega tarde

S: llega tarde

T: she was not late today

S: ¿cómo que no?

(A pause in the tape)

T: ...incómoda..incómoda debido a... una situación embarazosa... me sentí incómoda debido a una situación embarazosa.. next one.. ellos están constipados... ellos están constipados... se sienten..inquietos... o.k., now you are going to work on that, on those sentences and I'm going to go around the class to help you if you need me, o.k.? we have to correct them now, so finish them quite quickly, we are going to correct them now, come on, start

(Error 11)

S: María (...) **(Q)**

T: but if it's third person singular you have to add an -s ...if you don't stop talking, you will be sitting down there **(F)**

S: no, yo allí no

T: then work

S: depende, bueno, depender

T: depend on, depender is depend on, but it's in the future

S: María

T: yes

S: fácil?

T: fácil, easy, you don't remember the word?

S: ah, es verdad

T: o.k., if you say funny, that means someone who is gracioso or that makes you laugh, if you understand divertido as it makes you laugh, then you can say funny, but if not, you can say amusing

S: ah, ya

T: do you know? (T writes on BB) amusing is more like entretenido, right? and funny is more gracioso

S: (...) tem-po-ra-ri-ly

T: tem-po-ra-ri-ly, yes

S: ri-ly o..

S: ri-ly

T: tem-po-ra-ri-ly

S: ly

T: ly, it's an adverb, temporal-mente, -mente in English is always –ly

S: temporarily

T: temporarily, shss, Pablo work, Jose, don't call anybody

S: María

T: que no llames a nadie, que siempres estás con uno o con otro

S: no llamo a nadie

T: ya...yes, Silvia

(Errors 12 and 13)

S: these sentences are right? **(Q)**

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T: the success of the film will depend on, on, of is not correct, depend on its plot, yes. Good **(F)**

S: María, María, dependerá?
T: to depend on, depender de in English is depend on
S: pero dependerá, es futuro
T: yes, so, what do we write before the verb to make it future?
S: pues pones el verbo normal como si fuese en presente y delante le pones algo,es que no me acuerdo lo que es
T: that is what I'm asking you, what Sergio?
S: el will
T: will, very good, will
S: calla, que yo en el examen no lo puse
T: it was in the first conditional
S: lo tengo todo mal

(Error 14)
S: joder, pues yo no puse will, yo puse /uold/ **(Comments)**
T: would is for the second conditional **(F)**

S: María!
S: ¿y cómo es depender?
T: depend on
S: vale
S: ¿sobre la alfombra cómo es? On the carpet?
T: yes, very good
S: María, María, ¿debido cómo es? Deber
T: due to or because of (T writes on BB)
S: María ¿para decir..
T: how was the sentence, Adela?
S: me siento incómoda debido a una situación embarazosa
T: due to or because of
S: ¿para me sentí es I feel?
T: I felt, it is not reflexive in English, right?.. Lorena, any problem?
S: due to?
T: due to or because of means debido a
S: eh, María, su para cosa, it, what o its, todo junto
T: i, t, s
S: vale
S: María ¿cómo se dice dependerá?
S: (...)
T: I don't know, maybe Monday, maybe after the holidays, we have five holidays, five days holidays
S: Monday
T: before or after the holidays, I don't know, Pablo
S: ¿dependerá cómo es?
T: depend on, the verb is to depend on, but it's in the future
S: will
T: will depend on, yes... Marta, when you finish that sentence, go to the blackboard and write the first one, o.k.?
S: yes

(Error 15)
S: in **(A)**
T: no **(F)**
S: sí **(A)**
T: on..have you finished Lorena? **(F)**

S: No

(Error 16)

S: esta frase de me sentí incómoda debido a una situación embarazosa, ¿es I feel /embarased/? **(Q)**

T: embarrassed (F)

S: pregunto si puede ser /embarased/ **(Q)**

T: an embarrassing situation, you feel embarrassed, ending in -ed and the situation is embarrassing, ending in -ing, because –ed is for people and –ing for things, o.k.? **(F)**

S: María!

T: shss

S: ¿me sentí es (...)?

T: me sentí? Simple Past, me sentí

S: no, es me sentía

T: me había sentido, o.k., me sentí and me sentía are Past Simple, the two forms, in Spanish we have: pretérito perfect.. sorry, er pasado perfecto o imperfecto, o pretérito perfecto o imperfecto, sentí is perfecto, sentía imperfecto, but in English they just have Past Simple

S: es que, ¿es que en inglés sólo hay eso? Continuo, perfecto

T: comí, comía, bebí, bebía, in Spanish we have two forms, perfecto and imperfecto, but in English it's just one

S: ¿y sentir?

T: el pretérito perfecto, perdón, el pasado perfecto que me decías, el past perfect, sería me había sentido

S: sí, ya

S: ¿y sentir cómo es?

S: feel

T: feel, in the past felt.. yes, Pablo?

S: no, nada, ya

T: nada?

(Ss talk)

T: o.k., Marta is writing the first sentence on the blackboard, if you have finished, look at the blackboard to correct the sentences, if not, finish your sentences, this is individual

S: (...) no lo encuentro

T: sorry? Which one?

S: incómodo que lo has dicho

T: incómodo

S: no lo encuentro ahora

(Error 17)

S: /embarased/? /embarased/? **(A)**

T: ... Alicia, can you write the next one?... below that one, they work in a hospital, Silvia, they work in a hospital temporarily, is that correct?

Ss: yes

T: why didn't she use, shss, why didn't she use eventually? Eventualmente, eventually, why didn't she use that? What is the real meaning of eventually?

S: ah, er, al final

T: al final, o.k.. so, the correct one is temporarily

S: ¿cómo es debido a?

T: ah, la he borrado, it can be due to or because of (T writes on the S's notebook) of, due to or because of, both are correct, yes, María?

S: can I write the next sentence?

(Errors 18 and 19)

T: o.k., is there anything wrong about this sentence: the English is a language very easy and fun **(Q)**

S: English **(Peer-correction)**

T: o.k., English without the, because it's a general thing, in Spanish we say el inglés, but in English we say English, o.k., there are two more mistakes in here **(Conf/F)**

S: fun **(A)**

T: first, where does the noun and the adjective go into a sentence? What is the right order? Do you say I have a car red? **(F)**

S: ah, no, al revés **(Self-correction)**

T: o.k., so this should be here (T writes on BB) and you can use language, that is correct, but a very easy and fun language, she used the word fun, you can use the word amusing, too (T writes on BB) o.k.? amusing, and why didn't she use idiom? Why didn't she use idiom? **(Conf)**

S: (...)

T: idiom doesn't mean language, it means...

S: modismo, frase hecha

T: modismo, expresión idiomática o frase hecha, o.k., María the next one, Alejandro, you will be next

T1: Communicative task

S: yo no

T: yes

S: no la tengo hecha

T: Pues entonces no hables y no te sacaré

S: tengo las tres primeras

T: mira qué lástima y qué coincidencia

S: mira, mira

T: claro, ahora que ya están hechas y corregidas

S: no, (...) María

T: vale, yo confío en tu palabra, pero te callas o no confiaré en tu palabra y te pondré un negativo... el éxito de la película dependerá de su argumento.. the success of the film, dependerá

S: will

T: will (T writes on BB)

S: ah, vale

T: depend , with one –p, depend on the plot, but I said: dependerá de su argumento

S. its

T: (T writes on BB)o.k., the rest of the sentences, which are, there are three more, o.k., the rest, the three other sentences, we will correct them next day, o.k.? the class is finished.

(Lesson 14) 4ᵗʰ B 8th May, 2002

T: everybody stand up, we are going to pray,... stand up

T and Ss: our father in heaven, hallowed be Your name, Your kingdom come, Your will be done, on earth as it is in heaven, give us this day our daily bread and forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors and do not lead us into temptation, but deliver us from the evil one, for Yours is the kingdom and the power and the glory forever. Amen.

T1: Communicative task

T: o.k., yesterday...

S: ¿(...)?

T: there is one here, there is one here, so no problem, o.k.?

S: ¿puedo (...) el otro?

T: no

S: (...)

T: no, o.k., yesterday I gave you your marks for the last test and there were some people who weren't here

S: se la pelaron

T: Jose and Alicia weren't here, so your marks are these: Alicia Escudero 9, and Jose Laza 1.9. If you want to look at your tests, I can show you later, they are in my class, I can show you at the end of the class, if you want to look at the test, o.k.? Now, yesterday we started with a new unit, I gave you your marks and then we started a unit and you had to do some homework, the homework was about, er, have to, don't have to and mustn't, o.k.? remember that?... is anyone missing today? Is anyone missing today? Nobody... o.k., shss, Alejandro... Jose and Alicia we are on page, Activity Book,

S: page 1994

T: 19..

S: 65, 65

T3: Instructions

T: we have to correct activities 1 and 2 and then activity 3. Activities 1 and 2 were about vocabulary and 3 was about grammar, o.k.-? so we are going to start with 1, about vocabulary...activity 2, in activity 2 you have to decide, shss, Nati, you have to decide one job that was more interesting than another one and give a reason, than one that is more difficult than another one and give a reason and then one that is more important and give a reason, o.k.? Let's start with 1.

S: o.k.

T: a, Adela, read the definition and tell me the job

T2: Linguistic task

S: this person types letters (...)

T: b

S: this person (...)

T: (...) find c? Adela

S: this person defends somebody (...)

T: (...) o.k., lawyer is spellt -l-a, -a, -w-y-e-r

S: huy, huy, huy

T: o.k.,. I'll write it on the blackboard

S: (...)

S: ha, ha

T: yes, that's right (T writes on BB) -l-a-w-y-e-r

S: no es pa tanto

T: o.k., the person that puts into practice tha law is the lawyer, the law means.. what in Spanish? What is law?

S: ley

T: ley, very good, so the person that puts into practice the law is a lawyer, Marta, do you have the next one?

S: yes, the person that looks after patients in a hospital, nurse

T: o.k., there are, there are two, er, sentences about the hospital, this person looks after the patients in a hospital and the next one, this person, cures people who are ill (...) one is a doctor and Marta was right, d is the person who takes care of patients that is (...) person who cures people, that is a doctor, o.k.? so in d is nurse and in e is a doctor, what about f? Inma

S: this person (...)

T: o.k., if it's a girl, do we call her waiter?.. if that is a girl, if it's a girl working in a restaurant, do we call her waiter?... waitress, o.k., if the person is a girl, we call her waitress

S: ah! Vale

(Error 1)
T: if it's a boy, we call him waiter, o.k.? now, Cristina **(Q)**
S: this person /prepars/ food in a restaurant, cook **(A)**

T: cook, very good, Alejandro, h
S: yo?

(Error 2)
T: read and give the definition **(Q)**
S: this person /repairs/ cars: a mechanic **(A)**

(Error 3)
T: o.k., very good, Fernando, I **(Q)**
S: this person /repairs/ electrical problems: electrician **(A)**

T: electrician, o.k., very good, now a volunteer for.. to do a in activity 2, a volunteer cause some people didn't understand activity 2, so people who did it, people who understood it, I want volunteers, ...María, a

S: I think waiter, waiter (...)

T: about, you mean talk about someone? Hablar con alguien o hablar de alguien?

S: con alguien

T: con? To

S: talk to

T: talk to someone (...) who wants to do b?

S: Silvia te toca

S: (...) is a more difficult job than nurse because you have to study more and you have to be more intelligent

T: o.k., she said that I think, er a lawyer

S: yes

(Error 4)
T: is a more difficult job than a nurse.. because you have to study more and you have to be more intelligent.. c, a volunteer to do c.. (...)Sergio **(Q)**
S: I think doctor is more important /hob/ than electrician **(A)**
T: job, Sergio, **job (F)**
S: job than electrician] **(Acc)**

(Errors 5 and 6)
[/bekause/ /kure/ people who are ill **(A)**
T: beacause he **cures** people, he or she, cures people (...) those are or those were the two activities about vocabulary, now we have a grammar activity **(F)**

S: no lo tienes hecho
T: I know
S: negativo
T: (..) need, you need to do it but I don't, o.k., three, it's about grammar and you had to use the verb forms have to or don't have to, o.k.? what about a? who wants to do a?...Cristina
S: (...) have to wear a helmet
T: o.k., very good, in Spain it is compulsory, it is obligatory to wear a helmet, so you have to wear a helmet, o.k.? good
S: wear helmet, no?

T: you have to wear a helmet

S: ay! ¿yo por qué he puesto do?

(Error 7)

T: I don't know (...) b, Alejandro **(Q)**

S: you have to have passport **(A)**

T: are you sure? You have to have a passport? Is it obligatory, is it compulsory to have a passport in Spain? **(F)**

S: sí, ahora sí **(A)**

T: no, if you want to go to the U.S.A., or to Canada **(F)**

S: lo dijeron ayer por la tele **(A)**

T3: Instructions

T: it is not compulsory, only if you want to go to some specific countries, if you go to the U.S.A., you need a passport, if you go to South America, to Cuba or any other place in South America, you need your passport, but if you go to France, to Portugal, England, you just need your D.N.I., o.k.? your identity card, you don't need a passport, so you don't have to have a passport..or I don't have to have a passport, o.k., what about c? c..(...) have to vote, o.k., it is your right, derecho, right? right means derecho, it's your right if you want to vote or not, but it is not compulsory, o.k.? if you want to vote, you go and vote and if not, you don't go, o.k.? what about d?, d, Marta **(F)**

S: you don't have to do military (...)

T: o.k., you don't have to do the military service, some years ago, about two or three years ago this sentence should have been: you have to do the military service, because two or three years ago boys had to do the military service in Spain, but this changed about three years ago

S: si estudiamos...

T: no, if you are studying you have to go..o.k., you have to be 18 and then if you are 18 and you are studying, if you are 18 and you are studying, then you go with a certificate, you go to the, to the city hall, yes, the city hall, ayuntamiento with this certificate, they give you some time and when you finish your studies, then you have to do the military service or a social service, you could help old people or you could help poor people and do a social service instead of the military service(...)

T: (...) not

S: (...)

T: that is

S: mejor

T: yes, if you want to do it, you do it and they pay you, if you want to do the military service or you want to be a militar, they pay you a salary, o.k.?

S: sí, pero nada

T2: Linguistic task

T: but it's o.k., it's better than to be without a job, o.k., what about e?

S: a Silvia (...) las fuerzas armadas

(Errors 8 and 9)

T: what about e? Alejandro **(Q)**

S: ¿cuál es el e? ¿éste, no? Pues you don't have to learn two /languaðɜes/ **(A)**

T: you don't have to learn two **languages**? We have Spanish, Valenciano and English **(F)**

S: aquí pone French y English **(A)**

T: but that is just an example in the book, French is not obligatory, you don't have to study French, if you don't want, right? because it's optional, but you have to study Spanish and then Valenciano, and then English **(F)**

S: en Madrid no estudian valenciano **(A)**

T: o.k., but we have to think about our situation **(F)**

S: ah

T: o.k.? **(Q)**

S: vale **(Acc)**

T: so you have to learn two languages,] **(Conf)**

(Errors 10 and 11)

[what about f? what about f? Lorena, f, read it **(Q)**

S: (...) **(A)**

T: o.k., Lorena said they don't have to 18 years old get married **(F)**

S: no **(Peer-correction)**

T: there are some words missing, María, what is the problem? **(F)**

S: what's the problem? **(Q)**

T: What is the problem in her sentence? **(Q)**

S: ella ha puesto primero el (...) **(Peer-correction)**

T: a ver, ella ha puesto don't have to.. **(F)**

S: (...)

T: don't have to es correcto, porque es verdad que no te obligan a casarte, es decir, a ver, no que no te obliguen a casarte, que, er, a ver, ¿tú has dicho don't have to Lorena? Vale, bien María, sí es verdad que no es don't have to porque sí que tienes que tener 18 para casarte en España, o sea que en primer lugar **(F)**

S: con el permiso de los padres **(Peer-correction)**

S: si tienes 16 años ya te puedes casar **(Comments)**

T: bueno, vale.. con 16 años, shss, **(Comments)**

S: te puedes casar con el permiso de los padres **(Comments)**

T: a ver, shss, con 16 años es con permiso de los padres, esto lo vimos también anteriormente, en otro tema de inglés, el año pasado, con 16 años con permiso de los padres te puedes casar, pero es cierto que tienes que tener18 años para casarte si no quieres tener el permiso de tus padres, vale, en este caso como no está muy claro que pongáis have to o don't have to, no me importa, pero la forma verbal de lo que ha dicho Lorena está mal porque ella ha dicho: they don't have to 18 years old, ¿qué le falta ahí? **(F/Q)**

(Error 12)

S: el have **(A)**

T: have? **(F)**

S: tener **(A)**

T: a ver, ¿los años son con have en inglés? **(F)**

S: con is, is o are, is o are **(A)**

T: ¿is o are, en infinitivo? **(F)**

S: el be **(Peer-correction)**

T: ah, be, vale **(Conf)**

S: ¿has visto? Si yo lo tenía, mira

T: be, Lorena, you have to be 18 or you don't have to be 18

S: tú tienes

T: years old to get married

S: ¿y no se podría (...) el mustn't?

T: pero a ver, mustn't es que te prohiben hacer algo, ¿no? Y aquí no te prohiben, en ninguna de ellas te prohiben hacer nada

S: yo he puesto está prohibido casarse antes de los 18 años

T: ah, vale, bien, no está mal tampoco

S: you mustn't get married before 18 years old

T: it's correct

S: (...)

T: it doesn't matter, it's correct, o.k., now, you are going to do activity four in some minutes and then we are going to correct it, in activity four, er, we have a hotel, the Bonavista Hotel, and this hotel has very strict rules, so they prohibit many things, you have to write sentences with mustn't and, looking at the picture, you write those sentences with mustn't and the correct verb, o.k.? you don't have the verb, in activity three you had the verb, but in this one you have to think about the verb, right? for example you mustn't listen to music in your room (...) Francisco work

S: Alejandro

T1: Communicative task

T: shss (...) and Jose, who weren't here yesterday, you have to ask someone to let you copy his or her grammar, o.k.?, you have to copy the grammar part and then if you have any question,

ask me, o.k.?... it was raining very hard, we came to class and next day we didn't come and it didn't rain

S: (...)

T: (...)last year it was too much rain, I couldn't come because I couldn't drive my car, the road was broken.

S: ¿este año no hacen la huelga esa o lo que sea?

T: it depends on the weather

S: ¿eh?

T: it depends on the weather

S: pues va, que (...) ya

T: do you know why is it raining, why is it raining so much?

S: ¿por qué?

T: do you know why? Silvia

S: eh?

T: do you know why is it raining so much?

S: sí, lleva dos, lleva tres días ya

T: but, do you know why? Because the Valencia team has won the league and the sky is crying three days

S: açó és perque ha guanyat el València

S: gana el Madrid y nos caen hasta piedras

T: am I right, Fernando? ¿tengo razón?

S: sí

T: I'm right

S: después de 30 años...

S: (...)

T: no, so many days, three days, crying

S: ¿cómo se dice (...)?

T: sorry?

S: (...)... coger

T: take

S: ¿eh?

T: take, o.k., shss, ...let's finish the activity

S: ¿eso se oye?

T: o.k., let's finish the activity please

S: quasi, quasi

T: have you finished? Have you?

S: no

T: Alejandro! Leave her alone, que la dejes en paz

(Ss talk and work)

S: fish

S: ¿(...)?

T: fish

S: ¿vivo? Yo creía que ése era el muerto

T3: Instructions

T: no, fish en inglés vale para pez y para pescado, lo que pasa es que en castellano tenemos la palabra pez, cuando está vivo y la palabra pescado cuando está muerto, cuando nos lo vamos a comer, pero en inglés no distinguen, dicen fish, ahora no tiene plural, fish es uno y three fish en plural, ¿vale? tres peces, three fish. Ahora, ahí lo que tienes que saber es alimentar, la palabra dar de comer o alimentar.

T2: Linguistic task

S: yo he puesto tocar y ya está

S: ¿no es tocar?

T: no, es darle de comer, mira cómo hay como miguitas que tiran

S: yo he puesto tocar y ya está

(Errors 13 and 14)

T: o.k., do you know the verb, o.k., what verb have you used for.. **(Q)**

S: take **(A)**

T: the picture with the fish **(Q)**
S: take **(A)**
S: catch **(A)**
T: catch? Take? It's not that **(F)**
S: feed **(Peer-corrrection)**
T: feed, o.k., very good Marta **(Conf)**

S: yo no he dicho feed, pero bueno...
T: ah! ¿qué has dicho Marta?
S: give
T: give?
S: yo creía que era tocar
T: give what? give food or..
S: food
T: o.k., give food is correct yes, but the correct verb is to feed yes (T writes on BB)
S: ¿es eso? Feed?
T: that is to give food to someone or to an animal, the picture shows a hand giving food to the fish...let's correct
S: pero, ¿cómo sería, María? Feed...
T: the fish, feed the fish (...)
S: yo?
T: yes
S: you mustn't smoke in reception
T: you mustn't smoke in the reception, o.k., good
S: good
T: the third one, c,
S: Nati, Nati, te ha tocado

(Error 15)
T: Merce, ... shss **(Q)**
S: you mustn't enter hotel after /eleven/ p.m. **(A)**
T: you mustn't enter the hotel after **eleven** p.m, o.k., enter the hotel, not enter in, because enter means entrar en, o.k.? enter the hotel,] **(F)**

(Error 16)
[what about d, Fernando? **(Q)**
S: you mustn't do not use the telephone **(A)**
T: you mustn't do not use the telephone? **(F)**
S: claro **(A)**
T: two negatives, you mustn't do not use, two negatives **(F)**
S: dos negativos, pues you mustn't use the telephone **(Acc)**
T: you mustn't use the telephone, that is right, Sergio, he has said another one and you didn't listen to him, can you repeat it for Sergio? **(Conf)**

S: no
T: can you, please? Fernando
S: you mustn't use the telephone
T: o.k., you mustn't use the telephone, Pablo
S: you mustn't feed the fish
S: shss, Silvia, can you listen to Pablo, please?
S: please
S: you mustn't feed the fish
T: you mustn't feed the fish, o.k., very good, Jose
S: yo no voy a hacerlo
T: why?
S: que lo diga Sergio

(Error 17)
T: Francisco **(Q)**
S: ¿cuáles faltan, María? **(Q)**

T: falta la de los visitantes, visitors, y la de la comida en la habitación **(A)**
S: you mustn't food in your room **(A)**
T: you mustn't food in your room, and where is the verb? **(F)**
S: eat **(Acc)**
T: o.k., Silvia and the rest of the class, can you listen to him? He said **(F)**
S: (...)
T: you mustn't eat food in your room, that is right,] **(Conf)**

(Error 18)
[shss, Inma, the last one, shss **(Q)**
S: you mustn't receive visitors **(A)**
T: you mustn't? **(F)**
S: receive visitors **(A)**
T: you mustn't **receive** visitors, o.k., very good, **(F)**

S: (...) you mustn't visit people who are in the hotel
T: you mustn't visit people who are in the hotel or you mustn't take visitors to your room, or you mustn't bring visitors to the hotel, o.k.? there are many options, shss, o.k., .. now, we are going to go back to your books
S: books, books

T1: Communicative task
S: ¿qué hora es?
S: eres más pesado..
T: what time do you go to the theatre? What time is it?
S. nueve y media
S: a las nueve y media
T: no, because I have class with you now and then I have class with the other course of E.S.O. at the end of the morning, so I think I don't go
S: si go
T: and my class, this class here will go next Tuesday and I will be giving classes to you, so I won't go either
S: oh!
T: I'm not going to the theatre
S: yo me voy con ellos también, si quieres
T: it doesn't coincide with my timetable, do you understand timetable?
S: no
S: horario
T: horario, yes, the theatre doesn't coincide with my timetable
S: oh!
S: pues con eso te ibas a (...) la hora
T: que tengo clase con ellos a final de la mañana, a las, de 12 a 1
(Ss talk)
T: o.k., shss, o.k., .. can everybody go to page 81? Can everybody go to page 81?...o.k.
S: ¿qué página?
S: 81
T: 81, yes,
S: eres corto, eh
S: eh?

T3: Instructions
T: shss, on page 81, you have activities five and six, because we already studied activity four, o.k., activity five is for homework, you have to choose two jobs, two jobs, any job you want, you can choose two jobs, María and Adela pay attention, you have to choose two jobs and then you have to write one sentence with have to, another sentence with mustn't and another sentence with don't have to for the two jobs, explaining the characteristics of that job, do you understand? O.k., two jobs, three sentences for every job explaining the characteristics

T1: Communicative task
S: ¿esa es la cinco o la seis?

T: five, that is for homework, now we are going to do activity six, look at these questions from a job interview, o.k., do you know what a job interview is?

S: el Inteviu

T: job interview

S: ah, una entrevista

T: if you want to get a job, if you want to get a job

S: (...)

T: your mind is very hot

S: ah, el Interviu

T: your mind is very hot

S: (...)

S: ¿tu mente está muy caliente?

T: o.k., es que tú imagina con que ha relacionado él job interview

S: ah!

S: ah, que (...) estaba caliente

T: no, la mente

S: que ahí también salen reportajes

S. mentales

S: también salen reportajes, va en serio

T: o.k., María didn't understand activity five, shss, vale, María didn't understand activity five, can anyone explain her what she has to do?

S: no

S: ¿en castellano?

T: Cristina? Yes in Spanish

S: tú coges un oficio y tienes que (...)

T: dos oficios, o sea, eso que tú has dicho, pero con dos oficios

S: los explicas, ¿no? Es como si los explicáramos

T3: Instructions

T: a ver, claro, las frases con have to, don't have to y mustn't se supone que con ellas vas a explicar las características de ese trabajo, otra cosa es que se deban hacer en un trabajo o que no se puedan hacer o que si quieren se hacen y si no, no, con dos trabajos

S: como ahí (...)

T: vale, pero es que yo de lo que hay ahí lo hago a mi manera, ¿vale? o.k., activity six, we were in the job interview, o.k., if you want to get a job, if you want to get a job and there are more people that want to get that job, you go to a job interview, thay ask you things, and then they choose the best person for that job, o.k.? Here we have some questions that they might ask you in a job interview, but thay are for different jobs. We have a list of jobs there and we are going to see which question is for every job, o.k., first we are going to read the jobs: do you understand the word astronaut?

T2: Linguistic task

S. sí

S: sí

T: yes, journalist

Ss: yes

T: what is a journalist?

Ss: periodista

T: o.k., very good, journalist, he works in a newspaper, he or she works in a newspaper, o.k.? what about an interpreter? What is the job of an interpreter?

S: traducir

Ss: (...)

T: it's not the same to be a translator than to be an interpreter, what is the difference, between a translator and an interpreter?

S: el intérprete interpreta

T: a ver, el intérprete interpreta y el traductor traduce, obviamente, pero ¿qué significa eso de interpretar y qué significa traducir?

S: yo que sé, por ejemplo, es un tío que no sabe(...)

S: ¿interpretar no es..

S: no, por ejemplo, el que hace las voces, a veces

S: (...)

T: a ver

S: ¿no es el que hace las voces?

T: no, eso es un doblador

S: un doblador

S: un intérprete es el..

S: un intérprete..

T: no, a ver..

S: un doble, el que hace de doble en las películas

S: no

S: no, un intérprete es el que tú hablas en un idioma y él te lo traduce

S: claro

T: vale, a ver cuando es por escrito, es un traductor, shss, a ver, Fernando, si no lo sabéis, déjame que lo diga yo

S: (...)

T: ya, a ver, pero no tiene nada que ver con ciegos que decías tú, un traductor, shss, a translator translates by writing, Adela, forget about him, o.k., a translator translates by writing, he tranlates texts or books, o.k., but an interpreter is the person that translates orally, for example, if you go to a conference and that conference is spoken in English or in French or in German, there are some people who are in some rooms, in some small rooms and they in..interpret what the people, what that person is saying. And then, some people have this little thing on their ears and they listen to that translation. Vale, ¿veis esas cabinas que hay en todos esos sitios, igual que cuando hay una conferencia o cuando hay por ejemplo una reunión de políticos de una cumbre, cuando hubo ésta en Valencia, la última cumbre que hubo en Valencia, lo que hacen es que lo preparan y hay una cabina por cada idioma, lo que no tienen es un montón de gente interpretando, tienen una cabina por cada idioma, esa gente se mete en su cabina y está escuchando lo que dice en inglés o en alemán o en francés el que da la conferencia y traduce al idioma que ellos, cada uno de ellos a un idioma distinto, entonces tú cuando te pones el aparatito este que tienen todos los asientos, tú eliges el idioma y esa persona te está interpretando en ese momento lo que dice ese político o ese conferenciante

S: en la Ciudad de la Ciencias, en el teatro ese (...)

T: pero la Ciudad de las Artes y las Ciencias, en el Hemisfèric, lo que tú dices, eso ya está porque siempre es lo mismo, es decir eso son unas órdenes a la hora de cómo tienes que ponértelo, de cómo tienes que hacer, en la película, cómo tienes que actuar mientras dura la película y eso está grabado ahí. Y eso una persona puso esa voz, lo hicieron y ya está grabado ahí, pero tú en una conferencia no puedes grabarlo de antemano, tú no sabes lo qsue esa persona va a decir

S: ya

T: entonces, lo que hacen es estar en la cabina, pensad que un traductor tiene todo el tiempo que quiera para mirar en el diccinario, para intentar pensar qué opción es la mejor, qué palabra es la mejor que le va a esa palabra en inglés, mientras que un intérprete en ese mismo momento, mientras está escuchando con un oído, está él hablando y tiene que estar traduciendo constantemente y pasando de una lengua a la otra, con lo cual es bastante más difícil, porque además, ya os digo, no tienen ningún diccionario delante, no tienen nada, es simplemente ir oyendo lo que le dicen, además tienes que estar escuchando y a la vez hablando. Cuando algún, en algún programa de televisión viene algún famoso que también lleva el pinganillo este, pues ocurre lo mismo, hay uno que está traduciéndole a él lo que le dicen y luego otro que está traduciendo lo que él dice a los demás, porque si lo hiciera la misma persona, no podría estar, no daría tiempo a todo, ¿vale? ¿qué ocurre? Pues que a veces se equivocan, es cierto, pero son gente profesional e intentan no equivocarse, es un trabajo que, por ejemplo, en la Unión Europea, pues, er, se necesitan y sale una oposición con el número de intérpretes y el número de traductores, cada X tiempo y si (...) la licenciatura de Interp..Traducción e Interpretación o tienes la licenciatura de Filología puedes acceder a ello, pero tienes que tener dos idiomas mínimo, aparte del castellano. Y luego, tienes que irte a Bruselas a trabajar, pero claro, esa gente, los que están trabajando de traductores no, pero los que están de intérpretes, cada trea meses, tienen obligación de descansar, porque no pueden estar más de tres meses seguidos trabajando así

S: ¿tú puedes hacer eso?

T: uhum

(Ss talk)

T: ¿sabes lo que ocurre? Que para llegar a esas plazas, no todo el mundo llega, tienes que ser una persona, aparte que yo sé traducir por escrito, pero yo interpretar no sabría, para eso tienen

que enseñarte, hay una serie de técnicas, no sólo tienes que saber el idioma, tienen que enseñarte unas técnicas de cómo tienes que escuchar y a la vez hablar, de cómo, eso lo estudia la gente que estudia Interpretación y Traducción

S: (...)

T: mi hermana sí ha estudiado eso y ella es intérprete, lo que pasa es que no trabaja de intérprete en este momento

(...)

T: un filólogo puede trabajar de traductor, de intérprete, a no ser que haga un curso, o a no ser que, es difícil que, porque no sabes, no sabe las técnicas que tienes que seguir, igual que para traductor, tampoco es que cualquier filólogo pueda ser traductor, pero si has hecho algún curso referente a eso, sí puedes hacerlo...(...) estudiar, la verdad es que uno nunca acaba de estudiar, o.k., so that's an interpreter, what about a spy? What is a spy?

(...)

T: espía, o.k., a voluntary worker, do you understand voluntary worker?

S: trabajador voluntario

T: un trabajador voluntario, yes, a football referee

S: arbitro

T: a football referee (A pause in the tape) that, shss, a football referee is the person in a football match that dresses in black, o.k.?

S: the (...) of Madrid, en inglés y todo

T: no, o.k., what about the fire officer, what is a fire offficer?

Ss: bombero

T: o.k., is there a different name for fire officer?

S: fireman

T: fireman, very good, o.k., do you know why they call fire officer.., oh, there is another one, firefighter (T writes on BB)

S: la chica de..

S: el

T: shss

S: bombero recepcionista

T: we have..

S: no, el edificio

T: shss, fireman,(T wrtites on BB) fire officer, Alejandro, pay attention

(Ss talk)

T: Silvia and Lorena, if you don't shut up, you are going to have a negative, shss, pay attention, please, o.k., you have fireman, fire officer and fire fighter, they are all the same meaning, they all have the same meaning, but, do you know why they changed fireman and now they use fire officer or fire fighter? Do you know why? Can you imagine why?

S: fire es fuego, cambia man, officer and fighter

T: o.k., the three are the same, they are for bombero, but before they used this one, and now they use these two, why do they use these two and not fireman?

S: (...)

(Error 19)
T: what is the problem with fireman? Why did they change it? **(Q)**
S: (...)
S: because it was (...) **(A)**
T: they use fireman, firemen **(Comments)**
S: porque uno se dice en Estados Unidos y el otro.. **(A)**
T: no, no, it could be that, but that's not **(F)**
S: uno está en prácticas y el otro no **(A)**
T: o.k., what do you think is the problem with fireman? All the firemen are men? Are all the firemen men? **(F)**

S: hombres fuego

T: o.k., if there's a woman, why should she..

S: firewoman

T: ..be called fireman, if she's a woman? And so this is a sexist word, right?, sexist word, but fire officer and fire fighter are not sexist, it can be a man or a woman

S: pero, ¿es lo mismo?

T: yes
S: ah!
T: o.k.?
S: por eso, abogado, abogado, también es sexista
T: no, lawyer, in English? Or in Spanish? In English lawyer is not sexist
S: no, no, no, en español
T: in Spanish, yes, but there are abogadas, you can say abogada
S: pero no se dice abogada, se dice abogado
S: abogada
S: se dice abogado
T: no, eso ocurre con juez, que aunque sea mujer se le dice juez
S: jueza
T: ahora empieza a utilizarse jueza, pero hasta ahora era siempre juez
S: Alejandro! Me estás...
T: Alejandro no agobies
S: estoy..
S: tíralo de clase
T: shss
(Ss talk)
T: Alejandro
S: yo
T: look at here, not there, o.k.?
S: ponlo..
T: o.k., in Spanish there are many, many, sexist words, too. And they are working on it, but in English they are changing some words that are sexist, o.k.? Now, what about athlete?
S: atleta
T: athlete, the last one
S: atleta
T: o.k., it is very similar to Spanish
S: atleta

(Error 20)
T: now, if they ask you in a job interview, if they ask you in a job interview: do you work well in a team? What job could that be? **(Q)**
S: a football referee **(A)**
T: a football referee? a football referee? No, not really **(F)**
S: in a team? **(Comments)**
T: team, what is a team? **(Q)**
S: equipo **(A)**
T: Valencia is a team, Valencia club de fútbol is a team **(A)**
S: un atleta **(A)**
T: an athlete? It depends **(F)**

(Error 21)
S: a /fire/ officer **(A)**
T: a **fire** officer could be one, a fire officer could be one, yes, and a journalist could be one too. What about an astronaut? Do they need to work good in a team? An astronaut? **(F)**

S: claro
T: they need to work in a team because there usually are three or four people in a spaceship and they need to work well..shss, Alejandro, pay attention
S: (...) María?
T: sorry
S: el que hace ten, nine, lo has oído?
T: yes
S: ha, ha
T: Houston we have a problem
S: yo no lo he oído
T: he's counting backwards, ten, nine, eight, but his English is not very good
S: seishs, hace seishs

S: ha, ha

T: and then the spaceship has to come out, he's counting backwards, but he doesn't know how to count, so they have a problem with the spaceship, and he says: if you need to learn English quickly, then call us...

S: parroquiales

(Error 22)

S: María, ¿y qué es /paper/ boy? **(Q)**

T: what is what? **(Q)**

S: paper boy **(A)**

T: paper boy, o.k., this activity, we will do it next day and I will explain you what a paper boy is, because this is a listening and I need to bring the cassette player, o.k.? so, we will do this next day and I will explain you that word, right? now, shss, what about b? Do you enjoy working hard? Do you enjoy working hard? **(F)**

S: el journalist

T: that could be for the journalist, what else?

S: interpreter

T: for the interpreter, very good

S: astronaut

T: for the astronaut

S: espera, un tipo rápido, ay, afortunado

S: un espía

T: do you enjoy working hard?

S: ay, que estaba en la d

S: fire officer

S: un espía

T: fire officer

S: un espía

S: an athlete

S: un espía! Un espía!

T: an.. athlete

S: un espía

T: a spy yes!

S: María, un árbitro de fútbol

T: a football referee

S: eres pesaete, eh?

S: yo no me entero, tía

S: a social worker

T: a social worker, yes, o.k., actually, shss, actually you have to word hard in almost all the jobs, right? in almost all... do you think carefully before you take decisions?

S: football referee

T: a football referee, o.k., very good, for example, what else?

S: astronaut

T: an astronaut, very good

S: a spy

S: a spy

T: for an astronaut..sorry, a spy, o.k.

(Error 23)

S: an interpreter **(A)**

T: an interpreter? **(F)**

S: a journalist **(A)**

T: o.k., if you are an interpreter, you cannot think carefully, you cannot think for a long time, you have to take fast decisions **(F)**

S: claro, sí **(Acc)**

T: right? because you have to talk all the time, that.. **(Conf)**

S: el journalist también

T: it could be, or a journalist yes, what about d? can you type quickly?

S: journalist

(Error 24)
T: journalist, o.k., Silvia, type is this (T makes gestures), o.k.? can you type quickly? A journalist and.. **(Q)**
S: an interpreter **(A)**
T: but the interpreter talks, he or she doesn't type **(F)**
S: ah! **(Acc)**

T: only for the journalist, and for the voluntary worker, maybe, o.k.?
S: o (...)
T: pero que te lo pidan en una entrevista de trabajo, que te pregunten esto.. hombre, como poder cualquiera puede, tenga el trabajo que tenga, pero que te lo pidan para tu trabajo..es distinto, o.k., e, how many languages can you speak fluently?
S: interpreter
T: interpreter
S: journalist
T: and the journalist, maybe, yes
S: y el espía
T: and the spy, probably
S: y el astronaut
T: the astronaut, it depends, yes, it could be too

(Error 25)
S: y el atleta **(A)**
T: languages, for an athlete? **(F)**

S: y el árbitro, no te digo
S: ay, pues el árbitro, pues igual
T: shss, o.k.
(Ss talk)

(Error 26)
T: what about f? Alejandro, f, can you run fast? **(Q)**
S: el /atlet/ **(A)**
T: the **athlete (F)**

S: y el espía
T: athlete, and the spy, maybe, yes
S: y el espía
T: o.k., now, I'm going to
(Ss talk)
T: shss

T1: Communicative task
S: si es como Torrente
S: ha, ha
T: listen to me, I was going to give you an extra task, but I think you are not interested
S: qué gili..
S: ¿qué hay que hacer en el extra task?
T: I **was** going , I **was** going to give you the extra task
S: claro
T: but I think you are not interested, because you are talking
S: ah, no?
S: ha,
T: Lorena, Silvia and other people are not interested in the extra task, so I'm not going to explain it.. are you interested?
S: yes
T: then, shut up
S: shut up

T3: Instructions

T: and pay attention, o.k., the extra task is going to be voluntary, so it's optional, you don't have to do the extra task, you have to do is not correct, you don't have to do the extra task, if you want, you do it, right? and you will have a positive. And in this extra task, you have to write a list of the rules for your ideal school. Imagine an ideal school for you, what would be the rules for that school? right? the rules that your ideal school would have, right? I want you to do it as

(Ss talk)

T: shss, as a project work, because I want to put those rules on the board, so you have to do it as a project work, it has to be decorated and you have to give me a list of the rules you want your ideal school to have

S: (...), ¿no?

T: me tienes que escribir las reglas que tiene o las normas que tiene tu colegio ideal, el que fuera tu colegio ideal, qué reglas tendría, pero en cartulina, tamaño folio, tipo project work, para luego colocarlos en el tablón

(Ss talk)

S: Y..

T: shss (T claps her hands)o.k., shss, pay attention

T1: Communicative task

S: ¿cuántas..

S: ¿qué tipo de reglas?

T: seis reglas mínimo y cuantas más mejor, porque si queda pobre, luego no pongo el positivo

S: ¿cómo que no?

T: según la calidad

S: sí, encima que lo hago

T: según la calidad, cuando hay calidad hay positivo

S: cuenta la cantidad

T: no, perdona, mínimo seis, ya tienes una cantidad mínima y luego aparte la calidad

S: María, ¿para cuando?

T: for, next day not, the next day

S: ¿viernes?

T: Friday? is it?

S: no, qué va

T: no, next Tuesday, not next day, but the other one, o.k.?..o.k., if you have it on Friday, you can give it to me on Friday, right?

S: es que tenemos un examen a la otra semana

T: o.k., then you can give it to me on Friday if you want, it can be Friday or Tuesday, you choose, o.k.? o.k., the class is finished for today.

(Lesson 15) 4th B, May, 10ᵗʰ, 2002

T: Stand up, we are going to pray ... stand up, we are going to pray…Francisco, pay attention

S: joder

T and Ss: our father in heaven, hallowed be Your name, Your kingdom come, Your will be done, on earth as it is in heaven, give us this day our daily bread and forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors and do not lead us into temptation, but deliver us from the evil one, for Yours is the kingdom and the power and the glory forever. Amen.

(Ss talk)

T1: Communicative task

T: shss…o.k….shss…the extratask

S: María

T: the extratask was… Lorena, can I finish my sentence and then you ask me?

S: vale

T: the extratask was for today or for Tuesday, you choose, o.k.?, so the people who have it ready now, you can give it to me

S: yo lo tengo en guarro

T: then you give it to me on Tuesday

S: vale

T: who else? Alicia…o.k….anyone else?

S: (…)

S: pero María (…)

T: Francisco, I'm talking to her, wait a minute, o.k.?

S: vale

S: (…)

T: you cannot work (…)

S: (…)

T: any other one? Any other?

S: no lo has hecho?

S: (…)

S: mira Laza, mira Laza (…)

(Error 1)

T: you give it to me on Tuesday…but, it has to be a nice work, o.k.?... o.k. now, did you have any homework for today? Apart from the extratask **(Q)**

S: no, no, no **(A)**

S: yes! **(Peer-correction)**

T3: Instructions

T: yes, you had to describe, you had to describe, Francisco, can you sit down properly?...o.k., you had to describe characteristics of two jobs using the verbal forms have to, don't have to and mustn't, remember that? That was on page…that was on page…81, o.k.? page 81…]**(F)**

(Error 2)

[So, Lorena, can you please read your two descriptions? **(Q)**

S: (…)doctor **(A)**

T: o.k., listen to her **(Directs)**

T2: Linguistic task

S: you have to visit the /patients/ **(A)**

T: you have to visit the **patients**, o.k. **(F)**

(Error 3)

S: you don't have borrow money the patients **(A)**

T: you don't have … **(A)**

S: borrow **(A)**

S: borrow **(A)**

T: to borrow money from the pa…from the patients, you don't have to borrow money from the patients, o.k. **(F)**

S: you mustn't smoke in the consult

(Error 4)

T: you mustn't smoke in (…), o.k., you mustn't smoke, or in the hospital, o.k., what is the other job? **(Q)**

S: a teacher **(A)**

T: a teacher **(Repeats)**

(a pause in the tape)

T: sorry? **(Q)**

S: you have teach the students **(A)**

T: you have teach the students? Are you sure there's nothing missing? You have teach the students, what is the problem there? Lorena? You have teach the students, there is a problem **(F)**

S: to **(Peer-correction)**

S: ah **(Acc)**

T: to, o.k., Nati helped you **(Conf)**

(Errors 5 and 6)

S: you don't have wear a uniform **(A)**

T: you don't have wear a uniform? A problem there…(…) wear a uniform, what is the problem? Marta pay attention **(F)**

S: an **(A)**

T: no, it's a uniform, that is correct, a uniform **(F)**

S: an **(A)**

S: an **(A)**

T: no, a uniform is correct because uniform is pronounced not as a vowel, o.k., you use an before vowels, but uniform, u, is not pronounced as a vowel, so you use a uniform, that is correct. ¿Eso lo habéis entendido? La regla dice que a va delante de cualquier palabra que empiece por consonante y an delante de vocales, pero uniform, en ese caso la u es una semiconsonante, porque no se dice 'uniform' se dice **uniform**, ¿vale? Entonces suena como si fuera una 'y' más o menos, parecido, lo consideran una semiconsonante y entonces le ponen a uniform. Pero ese no es el error, that is not the mistake, o,k. can anyone tell me? You don't have **(F)**

S: to **(Self-correction)**

T: to wear, very good, Lorena, and the last one? **(Conf)**

S: you mustn't smoke in the..in the class

T: o.k. Any other volunteer? Alicia

S: baby-sitter

T: a baby-sitter, o.k., does everybody know what a baby-sitter is? What is a baby-sitter?

S: niñera

T: o.k. a person, a girl or a boy, that takes care of children, o.k.? that is a baby-sitter

(A S talks)

T: Shss, pay attention please

(Error 7)

S: you have to work on weekend **(A)**

T: you have to work **at** the weekend **(F)**

(Error 8)

S: (…) scream of children **(A)**

T: you mustn't scream **to** children **(F)**

S: (…) to read a.. to read a story for children

T: you don't have to read a story for children, o.k. And what is the other job?

S. teacher también

T: a teacher, o.k.

(Error 9)
S: you have to be good with the /estudents/ **(A)**
T: you have to be good with the **students (F)**

(Error 10)
S: you mustn't hit childrens **(A)**
T: you mustn't hit **children**, children without 's', children is plural **(F)**
S: ah **(Acc)**
T: child singular **(F)**

S: you don't have to write on the blackboard
T: you don't have to write on the blackboard, o.k., very good. Any other volunteer?...Any other volunteer?
(A pause in the tape)

T3: Instructions
T: o.k., now we are going to do a listening activity, open your books on page 80, activity 2 and the activity says: 'Brian is looking for a summer job and rings one of the advertisements in his local newsagent's window. Look at the jobs advertised and listen to the conversation. Which job is he interested in? Does he take it?' O.k., where is this boy? Where is Brian? What is this place in the picture?... where is Brian?
S: in (…)
T: (…) Brian and where is he?
S: local newsagent's
T: in the local newsagent's, o.k., in the newsagent's in his town, right? He's looking at a board which (…) newspaper or (…) note, right?, they are not from a newspaper, they are from everywhere. Those are advertisements about jobs, right? He wants to look for a job and he phones one of these telephone numbers in one of the notes, o.k.? So, you are going to listen to the conversation and you have to tell me which job he is interested in and if he takes the job, right? If he wants, if he finally gets the job, right? Do you understand? O.k., pay attention.

T2: Linguistic task
(Tape: 'Language in context, activity 2. Crustham 603837. Erm hello…It's Brian Owen here, Mrs Owen's son. Oh hello Brian. I'm calling about the job in the newsagent's window. Oh, yes. I need somebody to look after my two children on Friday evenings and Saturday mornings. How many hours is it altogether? It's 3 hours on Friday evening and 3 hours on Saturday morning. What about cooking? Do I have to cook? No, you don't have to cook or do the washing up. You only have to play with the children and help them with their homework – but you mustn't do their homework for them, of course! Can you start this Friday? Oh erm, well, yes… I suppose so… Good. Now, you mustn't be late because I have to go to work. OK. So see you.)

(Error 11)
T: o.k. What is the job that Brian.. **(Q)**
S: baby-sister **(A)**
T: is interested in? **(Q)**
S: baby-sister **(A)**
T: baby-sister? **(F)**
S: no **(Peer-correction)**
T: baby-sitter, no sister, baby-sitter **(F)**
S: sitter **(Acc)**
T: o.k.? a baby-sitter, o.k., it's a baby-sitter, a kind of baby-sitter, what what other papers does he phone? What is the number? What is the name of the person in charge? **(Conf)**

S: (…)
S: (…)
S: Jones
T: o.k., the note says: baby-sitter wanted for two young children, weekends only, phone 603 837 and ask for Mrs Jones. So, that is the advertisement he takes, he looks at, and then he calls, he phones this number, right? Does he take the job?
S: yes

T: yes, he does, he takes the job, right. Now, you have to listen to it again and this time you are going to do activity 3. In this activity you have to match both parts of the sentences, right? This is the information that Mrs Jones gives Brian and you have to match the sentences, o.k.? do you understand?

S: sí

T: yes or no? do you understand?

S: (…)

T: o.k., now listen to it again

(Tape: 'Language in context, activity 2. Crustham 603837. Erm hello…It's Brian Owen here, Mrs Owen's son. Oh hello Brian. I'm calling about the job in the newsagent's window. Oh, yes. I need somebody to look after my two children on Friday evenings and Saturday mornings. How many hours is it altogether? It's 3 hours on Friday evening and 3 hours on Saturday morning. What about cooking? Do I have to cook? No, you don't have to cook or do the washing up. You only have to play with the children and help them with their homework – but you mustn't do their homework for them, of course! Can you start this Friday? Oh erm, well, yes… I suppose so… Good. Now, you mustn't be late because I have to go to work. OK. So see you.)

T: o.k.

S: (…)

T: sorry?

S: be late

T: be late, what is be late

S: llegar tarde

T: llegar tarde, yes. O.k., so, now, you have to..what did you match it with?

S: play with the children

T: play with the children, very good Francisco and..

S: the homework

T: help the children with their homework, o.k., so, with a and with f

S: (…)

T: sorry?

(Error 12)

S: (…) **(A)**

T: have to do the washing up? Did you listen to it properly, María? The tape doesn't say that he has to do the washing up, the tape doesn't say that, o.k.?, the listening.. **(F)**

S: sí que lo dice **(A)**

T: that he has to do the washing up? **(F)**

S: no, que no lo tiene que hacer **(A)**

T: ah, we are in you have to, we are in you have to, o.k.? So, you have to play with the children and you have to help the children with their homework, o.k.? Now, 2, you don't have to.. **(F)**

S: cook

T: you don't have to cook, right, d, you don't have to cook, d, and then...

S: the washing up

T: you don't have to do the washing up, that is, c. And what about 3? You mustn't..

S: be late

T: sorry?

S: be late

T: you mustn't be late, b, and..

S: and do the children's homework

T: and do the children's homework, and e, o.k., very good. Where is your book, Pablo?

S: (…)

T: are you matching it? With your pencil, please. O.k., one goes with a and f..

S: (…)

T: you were writing them? Were you writing them?

S: yes

S: sí

T: o.k., you, I said you have to match the sentences, unir las oraciones, o.k., so, one goes with a and f, 2 goes with d and c, and 3 goes with b and e. Do I have to repeat that? Do I have to repeat that?

S: no

T: no? Francisco? (…) repeat it? Do you want me to repeat it?

S: sí

T: one with a and f..

S: ah, estás repitiéndolo, no?

T: 2 with d and c, and 3 with b and e, o.k.?

S: vale

T3: Instructions

T: now, er, we have already finished with the part of grammar that is related to have to don't have to and mustn't and now we are going to study the second part of grammar, that is related to adverbs, o.k.? Adverbs. Can you tell me, can you tell me what an adverb is? What is an adverb?

T2: Linguistic task

S: eh?

T: what is the function of an adverb?

S: the function

T: of an adverb

S: ah, an adverb

T: adverb, yes

S: había entendido advert

S: adverbio

T: advert, no, adverb, o.k., adverbio, and what is the function of an adverb? What does an adverb do in a sentence? What is its function? (…) what do we use an adverb for? Do we use it to express an action? Do we use it to express or to…

S: express (…)

T: o.k., we use an adverb to describe how we do something, so, an adverb completes the meaning of a verb, o.k.? ad-verb, no chalk, o.k., can anyone go to get some chalk, please?

S: yo

T: thank you, Pablo

(Error 13)

S: and María, a noun **(A)**

T: sorry? **(Q)**

S: a noun también **(A)**

T: a noun? Are you sure? **(F)**

S: (…)

T: it decribes a noun? **(F)**

S: yes **(A)**

T: do you think an adverb describes a noun? **(F)**

S: no, verdadero o falso **(Acc)**

T: o.k., they give you two sentences, one is true and the other one is false, the first one is related ot an adverb, describe or we use adverbs to describe how we do something, that is an adverb; and the second definition, we use adverbs to describe a noun, is not correct, because it should be: we use **adjectives** to describe a noun, we use adjectives to describe a noun. So, an adjective describes a noun and an adverb describes a verb, that is why it is called adverb, ad in latin means near, junto a o al lado de, cerca de, ad en latín significa junto a, entonces adverbio viene de ad-verbio, que es al lado del verbo, ¿vale? No tiene porqué estar colocado justo al lado de él, ¿vale? no es que tenga que estar en la oración justo al lado, lo que me dicen es que nos complementa o nos acaba de definir el significado de un verbo. ¿De acuerdo? Ahora cuando venga Pablo, escribiremos la gramática (…) ir a por ella, hay que esperarse (…) **(Conf)**

S: (…)

T1: Communicative task

T: this unit is very easy, because the first part of grammar, we studied it in 3rd of E.S.O., mustn't, have to, don't have to, we studied it in 3rd of E.S.O. and this part is very easy, so this unit is not very complicated

S: (…)

S: ¿sólo queda este tema?

T: this one and number 10

S: ah, vale

T: I think

(Ss talk)

T: yes, we will have a test

S: (…)

T: shss, Francisco, please, we will have a test (…) and then you'll have the (…). Then, we will try to review and we can do more things so you will be prepared for your first year in Bachillerato.

S: (…)

T: we will review and (…) thank you, Pablo. O.k., now, the second part of grammar, you have to copy this on your notebook, o.k.?

S: (…) devolver… (…)

T: Francisco, shut up and copy

S: (…) Paco, Paco (…)

T: Alejandro, what is your problem?

S: ¿qué?

T: what is your problem?

S: ah, ninguno

T: then shut up… o.k., shss…(…) we use adverbs to describe (T writes on BB) how we do something…

S: (…)?

T: unit 9, we've been studying all the year, nine units and now you ask me why I write that in English

S: no, porque el apartado de grammar está en castellano, el de (…)

T: because that one was a more difficult one and I said: 'this one I will explain it in Spanish'

S: ah

(The director comes in and talks to T)

T: o.k., now

S: (…)

T: that is next Friday, I am going with my tutory to (…) next Friday

S: (…)

T: yes

(Some Ss talk)

T: o.k., the school trip is not today, it's next Friday, shss, o.k., now, we were talking about the grammar and we said: we use adverbs to describe how we do something. They (T writes on BB) expand and, shss, (…) the meaning

S: the meaning

T: of a verb.

S: of a verb

T2: Linguistic task

T: Alicia, can you pay attention, please?...o.k.? did you understand this?

S: yes

T: did you understand this? O.k., if you understand how to use an adverb in Spanish, it's the same in English

S: ya pero es que si (…)

T: Francisco, ¿qué es lo que no entiendes del adverbio? Simplemente, igual que el adjetivo nos completa y define

S: (…) adjetivo

T: vale, es igual que el adjetivo, pero en lugar de definir un sustantivo o completar el significado de un sustantivo, éste lo que hace es completar el significado de un verbo

S: ah, (…)

T3: Instructions

T: si yo te digo que yo hablo, no te digo más información, pero si yo te digo que hablo rápidamente, o que hablo con calma, o que hablo.. hay adverbios y locuciones adverbiales, aquí sólo vemos adverbios, una sola palabra; una locución adverbial son varias palabras, que tienen la

misma función, ¿vale? O yo puedo decir: 'él canta bien, él canta mal, él canta fatal'. Con esos adverbios yo complemento el significado de cantar, cantar es muy general, y con el adverbio que yo le coloco al lado, te digo si canta bien, si canta mal, complementa el significado de ese verbo, ¿vale? Te dice cómo canta, la pregunta sería, para saber la parte que es un adverbio: ¿cómo canta él? Bien, pues sabes que 'bien' es el adverbio. Vale, preguntamos cómo alguien hace algo, how we do something, la pregunta sería cómo, para responder, para saber qué parte es el adverbio, ¿vale?

S: (…)

T: so, in English we have two types of adverbs, o.k.? Adverbs (T writes on BB) can be regular or irregular. O.k. regular adverbs, regular adverbs are words, adjectives (T writes on BB) adjectives that you add –ly and then you transform them into an adverb. Adjective plus –ly equals adverb, right? For example..

T2: Linguistic task
(Error 14)
S: only **(A)**

S. me cago en tu padre

T: that word..

S: eh, pásame el typex

T: o.k., patiently, quickly, careful, careful is an adjective, cuidadoso, but if you say carefully, that means cuidadosa..

S: mente

T: mente, o.k.

S: carrefour (…)

T: shss, I think the theatre play affected you

S: ha

T: -ly, l-y

S: ¿no has ido al teatro?

T: no, but I know something about it

S: mala suerte

T: -ly, shss, -ly is like –mente in Spanish, o.k.?

(Some Ss talk)

T: shss, this is not the same for all the adverbs, right? There are some irregular adverbs, and there are two types…(T writes on BB) Alejandro, pay attention to this

S: (…)

T: I know, but pay attention, please. (T writes on BB)…

S: (…)

T: Silvia, I just told you to shut up

S: eso!

T: and don't ask anything and you go and ask him

S: es que es conversa de delegado y subdelegado, eso no está permitido, ¿verdad?

T3: Instructions
T: o.k., irregular adjectives are the ones that do not use –ly to form the adverb, right? We have regular adverbs, most of the times the adverb comes from the adjective, o.k.? well, if you add –ly, you have the adverb, careful, carefully, but a small group, this is for most of the adjectives, but a small group has two little rules. They are irregular, you just have to learn them, you have to study them, right?

S: all right

T: it can be, good and well, two different forms for adjective and adverb, or they have the same form, hard, hard. But those are just a few, there are not many of them, the most common rule, the most common adverb is the one from –ly. ¿Esto ha quedado entendido o no? Es decir, la norma que hay para, la norma para hacer un adverbio regularmente es como en castellano, que yo le añado -mente al adjetivo y entonces formo el adverbio. Normalmente en la lengua, lo que es en la evolución de la lengua, aparecen antes los adjetivos que los adverbios, ¿vale? Entonces lo normal es que inventaran una regla para a partir del adjetivo formar el adverbio y eso es lo que en castellano es –mente y lo que en inglés es –ly, ¿vale? Pero, hay excepciones, y esas excepciones son unos pocos ad, ad, adverbios que tienen una forma distinta, no sería goodly, además good si recordáis es un adjetivo que ya su comparativo y su superlativo son irregulares

S: best, best

T: muy bien, better y the best

S: (…)

T. pues eso son razones de la evolución de la lengua, no se puede razonar, es decir, pues igual que el verbo to be ha quedado con una forma de pasado y una forma de participio distinta a los demás y se forma de manera distinta que los demás, son cosas que quedan así por razones que es muy difícil explicarte ahora.

S: (…)no?

S: no

T: so, shss, y éste otro sería otro grupo de adverbios también irregulares, porque no añaden –ly, pero que tienen la misma forma para adjetivo que para adverbio, all right?

S: all right

T: so, now, we are going to do activity..

S: page?

T: Activity Book

S: 67

T: page..

S: 67

T: 67, activities

S: 5

T: 5

S: and 6

T: and 6 … o.k., adjective or adverb, circle the correct word in each sentence. I had lunch quick or quickly and then went back to work, the correct word is quickly. And I'm really hungry, all I had this morning.. is a quick or quickly cup of..

S: quick

T: o.k. If you pay attention to this, if you look at it, you can see that quickly in the first sentence refers to have lunch, o.k.? It complements, shss, it complements the word have luch that is a verb. If it complements a verb, it's an adverb. But, in the second sentence, quick is complementing

S: cup of coffee

T: cup of coffee, very good, Silvia. If it complements a noun, it's an adjective, not an adverb, o.k.? Dependiendo de la palabra a la que esté definiendo o complementando, sabremos si es un adjetivo o es un adverbio. Si complementa un verbo, es un adverbio. Si complementa un sustantivo, un nombre, es un adjetivo. So, 2, Pete did really bad or really badly at school last term.

T2: Linguistic task

S: badly

S: badly

(Error 15)

T: badly. What is the word that complements badly? **(Q)**

S: did **(A)**

S: really **(A)**

S: did

T: did, very good, Silvia

S: really dice Paco

T: shss, Sarah misses a lot of classes and never does her homework. She is a really..

Ss: bad

T: bad student. What is the word that complements bad?

S. student

S: (…)

T: student

S: student, Paco

T: there's a lot of ice on the road, so drive..

S: carefully

T: carefully, what is the word that complements carefully?

Ss: drive

T: drive, very good. Although Janet is a ..

S: careful

T: careful driver, she's had several accidents. What is the word that complements careful?

S: driver

T: driver, o.k. I'm not feeling very..

Ss: well

T: well, I've got a terrible headache and a sore throat. What is the word that complements well?

S: feeling

T: not feeling

S: feeling

T: not feeling, yes. I saw a really..

Ss: good

T: good film on t.v. last night. What is the word that complements good?

Ss: film

T: film, o.k., very good. You understood this very well

S. very well

T: now, 6 (…) the superagent (…) steal the superformula

(A pause in the tape)

T3: Instructions

T: use the words in brackets, Francisco, use, use the words in brackets and the adverbs in the box to write a sentence about each picture, shss, o.k., now, you've got some minutes to write sentences describing what this agent is doing. You have to use these adverbs here

T1: Communicative task

S: ¿es para ahora?

T: can you leave that insect alone?

S: es carnívoro

T: ¿puedes dejar al insecto en paz?

S: es de la especie carnivolecus

T: sí, conozco a uno que también es de esa especie

S. ha

T: o.k., shss, do you know what you have to do? Do you know what you have to do? O.k., use those adverbs to write sentences for every picture. Come on.

S: come on

(Ss work and T goes around the class)

T: shss, come on, start, we have to correct it now.

S: ¿es para ahora?

T: yes

S: ¿me puedes decir(…)?

T: I don't have it here, I have it in my class. O.k., so at the time of the break, I will show you, o.k.? come to look for me and we will go to my class and I will show you.

S: que estarás ¿en la sala de profesores?

T: no, I will be in the playground, en el patio.

S: ¿qué es lift?

T: lift? Ascensor

S: hala

T: Alejandro, Nati, stop

S: (…)

S: (…)

T: dame eso

S: na, na, na, na

T: Nati, are those papers yours?

S: na, na

T: shss

S: (…)

T: come on, we have to correct this before I go

S: esos son mis apuntes de (…)

T: sit down

S: (…) de estudiantes

T2: Linguistic task
(Error 16)
T: if we don't correct this, I will not go (…) o.k., does everybody understand the word fluently? The adverb fluently? How would you translate it? **(Q)**
S: frecuentemente **(A)**
T: frecuentemente? Fluently.. **(F)**
S: con fluidez **(Peer-correction)**
T: con fluidez, yes, con fluidez, it is always, it is most of the times related to speaking languages **(Conf)**

(A pause in the tape)
T: (…)-ly? If I tell you to be quiet, it means..
S: (…)
T: to shut up, to be in silence, so quietly means we don't make any noise
S: ¿wait es regular?
T: sorry?
S: ¿wait es regular?
T: yes
(T continues going around helping Ss)
(Some Ss talk)
T: shss… Francisco, work…stop… Alejandro
S: ¿tú crees que así puedo trabajar? Míralo
S: María
T: yes?
S: quietly, ese
T: quietly means what I said

(Error 17)
S: es que (…) **(A)**
T: that one is that he speaks German fluently **(F)**
S: ah, fluently **(Acc)**
T: cause he understands the microchip in German **(F)**
S: ah, es que yo había puesto guardar **(Acc)**
T: no, here is he leaves the hotel quietly **(F)**
S: ah **(Acc)**
T: cause he doesn't make any noise, leaves the hotel quietly, o.k.? **(F)**

S: (…)
T: o.k., can we correct now?
S: no
T: if you haven't finished..
S: no
T: we will finish it all..
S: no
T: together, Alejandro, stop
S: no lo tengo hecho
T: I say: if you haven't finished, we are going to do it all together, o.k.?
S: ¿qué has dicho tú de, que no lo entiendo?
T: que si no lo has acabado, lo acabaremos todos juntos
S: ah, pues me espero
T: o.k., now, what about b
S: yo la primera María

(Errors 18, 19, 20 and 21)
T: Alejandro **(Q)**
S: he /uaited/ for lift /kietli/ **(A)**
T: quietly? **(F)**
S: /patientli/ **(A)**
T: patiently, yes **(F/Conf)**

(Error 22)
S: no **(A)**
T: he waited for the lift patiently **(F)**
S: esa es la.. ah, claro, que van juntas las dos **(Acc)**

T: a ver, ¿qué tiene que ver el tener paciencia o esperar pacientemente con estar callado? Está claro que estaba callado, pero hay otra a la que le va mejor salir del sitio sin hacer ruido, que se le ve en un dibujo, que se va sin hacer ruido de un sitio
S: sí
T: ¿vale? Pero en éste, tú fíjate que ha pasado mucho tiempo..
S: que yo creía que iban por separado
T: no, fíjate, ha pasado mucho tiempo y está ahí pacientemente esperando, he waited for the lift patiently
S: patiently

(Errors 23 and 24)
T: o.k., c **(Q)**
S: yo, María…he /ualked/, o algo así, to room.. **(A)**
T: 15 **(F)**
S: 15 quietly **(A)**
T: very good, he **walked** to room 15 quietly, es ésta la de quietly, er, Silvia, porque la de salir del hotel, sale corriendo y cuando sales corriendo es imposible que no hagas ruido, ésta es la de no hacer ruido. Además se ve que va así despacito, de puntillas.. **(Conf/F)**

S: ¿carefully qué es?

(Error 25)
T: ¿vale? Carefully, cuidadosamente. O.k., d, María **(Q)**
S: he read a /mikrofilm/ **(A)**
T: microfilm (F)
S: microfilm] (Acc)

(Error 26)
[quietly **(A)**
T: quietly ya la hemos utilizado **(F)**
S: carefully **(Peer-correction)**
S: carefully **(Peer-correction)**

(Error 27)
S: es que yo antes había puesto carefully **(A)**
T: no, a ver, carefully significa cuidadosamente, es decir, meticulosamente, viéndolo todo bien y quietly significa sin hacer ruido, ¿cuál va mejor con cada dibujo? La de quietly irá mejor con el c y la de carefully con el d. O.k., picture e… **(F)**

S: he had no problems to speak German fluently
T: he had no problems to speak German fluently, o.k.? he (…) the microfilm from German into English very well, fluently
S: fluently
T: and what about f?
S: he left the hotel quickly
T: he left the hotel quickly, very good
S: ya está
T: now, for homework, for next day..
S: ¿qué hora es?
T: you are going to do activity 8 on page 82 on your book… book, page 82, activity 8
S: hala
T: that is for homework
S: hala, hala
T: o.k.? the class is finished.

Class Transcriptions Teacher B (2<u>nd</u> Bachillerato)

(Lesson 1) 2<u>nd</u> A, February, 27<u>th</u>, 2003
T3: Instructions
　　T: today is February Thursday, February the 27th and I´m still in Bachiller, segundo de Bachiller, grupo A, and we are going to continue with exercises on reported speech and some vocabulary exercises. OK, let´s start, page 61, Jose Serra, reporting verbs, ¿el otro no?
　　S: (...)
　　T: no, no, Jose, in this book
　　S: (...)
T1: Comunication
　　T: ay...It´s 8:45 and I´m still missing about ten, ten or twelve students so if he have interruptions is because students are coming in late. Ok, Jose, do you have it done? the exercise? Javier on page 61, exercise reporting verbs
　　S: (...)
　　T: shss, you had time to do it yesterday
　　S: (...)
　　T: Ángel, do you have them done? the exercises? On page 61, er, reporting verbs
　　S: (...)
　　T: and should and had better? Reporting verbs and should and had better
　　S: yes

T2: Focus on language
(Errors 1, 2 and 3)
T: ok, let´s start with you, shss, vale, Ángel **(Q)**
S: yes, eh...(...) **(A)**
T: ok, number 1 **(Q)**
S: "Hurrah! I won! **(A)**
T: hey, hey (F)
S: pronunciation (Peer-correction)
S: I won! Ken /deklared/ a ver she /apologis/. **(Acc/A)**
T: apologized (F)
S: apologized for hurting my feelings **(Acc)**

(Error 4)
T: three **(Q)**
S: Three, please, please give me a clue, /beg/ the.. **(A)**
T: begged, the contestants **(F)**

　　S: the contestants. Four, Mike offered me his jacket to keep myself warm
　　T: five
　　S: five, you should study the facts, the teacher advised. Er, six, Cindy accepted his offer to go to the cinema
　　T: yeah
　　S: eh, seven, eh..yes..
　　S: (...)
　　T: Cindy accepted his offer to go to the cinema
　　S: eh, seven, yes, er, you're right after (…), er, eight, esa no la entiendo

(Errors 5 and 6)
T: he, what? He insisted... **(Q)**
S: he insisted he /neu/ for a fact that the /ansuer/ was wrong **(A)**
T: answer (F)
S: answer, eh, nine, you can only choose one answer, she explained **(Acc)**

　　T: and 10
　　S: I invited the guests to come in and make themselves at home
　　T: good, Ok, let´s go to the exercise "should and had better", er
　　S: Carlos, Carlos
　　T: Carlos, first of all, what´s the difference between should and had better?

S: should es advice y had better...
T: should is for advice and had better is a stronger,
S: stronger
T: stronger than. OK

(Errors 7 and 8)
S: complete the following sentences with the correct forms of should and had better, eh, your flight is about to take off, you should...**(A)**
T: you had better **(F)**
S: you had better to take..**(Acc/A)**
T: you had better hurry, o sea, your flight is about to take off, está a punto de despegar, **(Conf/F)**
S: ah **(Acc)**
T: you had better hurry, más te vale **(Conf)**
S: ah **(Acc)**
T: darte prisa, ¿no? **(Conf)**
S: sí **(Acc)**
T: you had better hurry, por ejemplo, darte prisa,] **(Conf)**

(Error 9)
[vale, number two **(Q)**
S: Marina is tired of living at home **(A)**
T: Marina is, shss, Javi do you wanna do it? Shss, would you be quiet, please? Marina...**(Q)**
S: is tired of living at home, she should **(A)**
T: she should **(Conf)**
S: to try...**(A)**
T: she should try to find a flat or she should go and live with some friends, ¿no? **(F)**
S: sí **(Acc)**

(Error 10)
T: number three, that boy lies, ¿qué quiere decir? este chico miente, miente pero siempre miente ¿Qué consejo darías? **(Q)**
S: eh, you had better... **(A)**
T: you shouldn´t listen to him, if it were "that boy is lying", está mintiendo, you had better not listen to him, but if he always lies, if he always lies, you give the advice that you shouldn´t listen to him, he always lies.**(F)**
S: más te vale es mejor **( )**
T: no, él no está mintiendo en este momento, siempre miente **(F)**
S: ah... **(Acc)**

T: vale, number four
S: Rob´s ear is infected, he had better to go the doctor
T: vale, Rob´s ear is infected, he had better go to the doctor

(Error 11)
S: Debbie always knows the /ansuers/ on the quiz show **(A)**

T: shss

(Error 12)
S: she should listen... **(A)**
T: she should go to the quizshow, six... **(F)**

S: your teacher will go mad if she sees the mess on the page

(Error 13)
T: what does that mean? The teacher will go mad, tu profesor se volverá loca, se enfadará muchísimo si ve el desorden en esta hoja, so.. **(Q)**
S: you had better... **(A)**
T: you had better... **(Conf)**

S: to.. **(A)**

T: write it over, do it again, after had better we never use a to, eh, we don´t use a to, ok, let´s go to some vocabulary, vocabulary on page 61, vale, Nuria, shss **(F)**

Ss: (students speak)

(Error 14)

T: Ok, in the vocabulary on page 61 we have to find a regular, a regular adjective and an extreme adjective, Isra, big is regular? **(Q)**

S: regular, /hug/ is extreme **(A)**

T: ok, the regular is big, and **huge** is extreme, enorme,] **(F)**

(Error 15)

[packed **(Q)**

S: packed, /kroud/ **(A)**

T: crowded, crowded is regular and packed is extreme. Surprised **(F)**

S: surprised is regular, astonished extreme

T: yeah, fascinating.

S: interesting

T: it's fascinating so, interesting is regular and fascinating is extreme. Furious

S: Furious is extreme, angry is regular

(Error 16)

T: bien**,** tired **(Q)**

S: tired is regular, /eksaust/ is extreme **(A)**

T: exhausted is extreme. Astonished, no, we weren't in astonished. Starving **(F)**

S: starving is extreme, hungry is regular

T: tiny

S: tiny is extreme, small is regular

(Error 17)

T: vale. Hungry, we've already done, thin **(Q)**

S: thin is regular, /skaini/ **(A)**

T: skinny (F)

S: skinny is extreme **(Acc)**

T: vale, ancient **(Conf)**

S: ancient is extreme, old is regular

T: y ... I think that is all, right? that's all. OK, let's start for antonyms, antonyms. What's the antonym of compliment?

S: compliment? Insult

T: insult. On purpose?

S: on purpose? accidentally

T: accidentally. Admit?

S: admit? Ehh, deny

T: deny. Inquire?

S: reply

T: reply. Valuable?

S: valuable? Worthless

T: worthless. Stormy?

S: stormy? Calm

T: whisper?

S: shout

T: shout, y ya está. OK, let's go to page ... continue on page 63, page 63. What is very important, shhhh, what is very important on page 63 is the review. The review because there are rewrites, and rewrites are what we usually find on an exam. Page 63. Ok, how would we rewrite "Her aunt gave her a ring for her birthday"? "her aunt gave her a ring for her birthday". Page 63, review. Is it an active or passive?

S: active

(Error 18)
T: Active, so we can change it into passive for example, could we? and it would be "she was given a ring for her birthday by her aunt". Number 2. **(Q)**
S: (…) **(A)**
T: She was given a ring ... no, 63 look at down here in the review, but I'm here. **(F)**
S: ah **(Acc)**
T: vale? "she was given a ring for her birthday by her aunt". "My advice to you is to accept the job" what are you doing? Giving advice, so it would be: "you ought to accept the job", you ought to accept the job. These are very important, they are going to be on the next exam.] **(Conf)**

(Error 19)
[How long ... uhmm, uhmm, when did you start studying English? **(Q)**
S: How long you have been **(A)**
T: How long have you been studying English? Pam won the contest Her knowledge was impresive. Pam, **(F)**

S: whose
T: whose knowledge was impressive,
S: won
S: won
T: won
S: the contest

(Errors 20, 21 and 22)
T: the contest. Pam, comma, whose knowledge was impressive, won the contest. And number 5 is the most difficult " Is this belt more expensive than that one?" Empezando con cost, bueno empezando con cost no, using cost. **(Q)**
S: (unaudible) **(A)**
T: how much what? **(Q)**
S: cost **(A)**
S: how much cost **(A)**
T: no, **(F)**
Ss: how much cost **(A)**
T: how much cost no **(F)**
S: how much costs **(A)**
T: how much.. **(F)**
S: does cost **(A)**
T: how much does this belt cost? No but that's still not the same, it would have to be. Does this belt cost more than that one? Does this belt cost more than that one?. OK. Jose can you correct exercise B on page 36 in our workbook. B **(F)**

S: I didn't want to leave, but I had no choice
T: Bien, choice, shhh, choice

(Error 23)
S: Have you ever been a viewer on a quiz show? **(A)**
T: no, a viewer no. What is it? **(F)**
S: a contestant **(Acc)**
T: a contestant. **(Conf)**
S: three, when will the United States abolish death penalty ?
T: vale, abolish
S: look, that boy has got wheels on the bottom of his shoes. It's the latest craze

(Error 24)
T: bien, praise **(Q)**
S: Annette was full of energy, despite the late /our/ **(A)**

T: despite, bien
S: how many viewers..?
T: how many viewers
(Ss talk)
T: how many viewers?
S: will see the advert.

(Error 25)
T: Seven, shhh **(Q)**
S: the programme chiefs paid a lot of money for the money.. **(A)**
S: for the rights **(Peer-correction)**
T: No, for the rights shhhh eight **(F)**

S: the question is hard to answer without any aid

(Error 26)
T: nine. **(Q)**
S: The actor got /uorlduid/ **(A)**
T: Worldwide, attention y number 10 **(F)**

Ss: (…)
T: ongoing, ongoing , crime is an ongoing problem in this neighbourhood (a pause in the
tape)
(The teacher speaks and sends homework)

(Lesson 2) 2nd A, March the 6th , 2003

T2: Linguistic task
(Errors 1 and 2)
T: Today is March the 6th. We are going to continue the exercises in Unit 5. Ok page 42 level 1 vocabulary. Angel **(Q)**
S: Choose the correct /ansuer/. One: Deb is a soap opera addict. She's /glued/, **glued** to the box **(A/Self-correction)**
T: She is glued to the box all day long. Number 2 **(Conf)**

S: I didn't have a choice, I had to go
T: No tuve elección, bien, choice

(Error 3)
S: Three. For the examination, you are not /aloud/ any aids such as dictionaries. **(A)**

T: Vale, ayudas, aids

(Errors 4, 5 and 6)
S: Four. Eating foods with too much /koleste'rol/ can /kaus/ a /hert/ attack **(A/A/A)**
T: A **heart** attack, ok. Five. **(F)**

S: That singer has got on international regulation. Her songs are known worldwide

(Error 7)
T: Worldwide, ok. Esteban, six **(Q)**
S: Despite his lack of training, he has a very talented musician **(A)**

T: Despite

(Errors 8 and 9)
S: You have got a very /brit/, **bright** future. Your richness and happiness will only /inkres/ **(Self-correction/A)**
T: Increase, vale **(F/Conf)**

(Error 10)
S: The doctor said that I should /kut/ down on the amount of sugar I eat
T: Cut down means reduce, reduce. O.k.? **(F)**

(Error 11)
S: the /net'uork/ just bought the rights to his story in order to make it into a film

T: Uhum
S: How did you arrive at that answer?
T: How did you arrive at that answer? OK. Grammar, reported speech. Rewrite the following in reported speech. Don't move!
S: The policeman ordered the burglar not to move
T: Not to move. Recordar que en imperativo es to y not to siempre. I can't find a place to park
S: she said that she couldn't find a place to park
T: Bien, three. She said that she couldn't find a place to park
S: Have you got any spare change? She asked her if she had got any spare change
T: Bien

(Errors 12 and 13)
S: Let's go to the /θi'nema/ tonight. She suggested that we should go to the cinema **(A/A)**
T: No. That we **go** to the cinema that night. **(F)**
S: (…)
T: Si no llevase el that sería con –ing pero al poner el that tenemos que poner sujeto y verbo pero se queda igual. She suggested that we go to the cinema that night. Number five.

Number five **(F)**

(Errors 14 and 15)
S: When will we know the exam /results/? They asked the teacher when would they know the.. **(A/A)**
T: When they would. Sujeto primero **(F)**
S: When they would know the exam /results/ **(Acc/A)**

T: y six?
S: We watched the Olympics last night. They said that they had watched the Olympics the night before
T: Vale, the night before y también the previous night. Writing teníamos, que era meter los adjetivos en orden, vale? Juan
S: Who's that beautiful tall black haired girl?
T: vale,¿habéis oído?
Ss: no
T: Pues, listen. Who's that beautiful (opinión), tall (size or shape digo age), black haired girl? Number two
S: She was wearing an elegant, red and silk dress
T: Vale. An elegant, red, silk dress, material el último. 3
S: Where did you get this delicious Thai food?
T: Delicious Thai food. Thai es tailandés

(Error 16)
S: He drives a brand, new, Italian and black sports car **(A)**
T: no **(F)**
S: black Italian **(Peer-correction)**
T: brand, new, black, Italian, **(F)**
S: ah **(Acc)**
T: sports car.] **(F)**

(Error 17)
[Ok and level 2. Level 2. Vocabulary, ... shhhh .....Azahara, listen carefully and speak up **(Q)**
S: ¿ya? "Survivor" is a very popular TV show which was first shown on the /θebeese/ network **(A)**

T: Network, shss

(Error 18)
S: In the USA and became a worldwide around the world. In the show, sixteen..**(A)**
T: And became a…**(F)**
S: runaway success **(Peer-correction)**
T: runaway success around the world.] **(Conf)**

(Error 19)
[Vale continuamos shhhh **(Q)**
S: in the show 16 /kontes'tants/.. **(A)**
T: contestants (F)

(Error 20)
S: are left in an /isoleited/ location. On an ongoing **(A)**

T: ongoing

(Errors 21, 22 and 23)
S: /basis/, each of the contestants votes to decide which of them must leave the /sou/, the **show**. Surprisingly, some of the people who don't seem to viewers **(A/Self-correction/A)**
T: No, stand a chance, no? **(F)**
Ss: sí **(Peer-correction)**

T: stand a chance, tener una oportunidad **(F)**

(Error 24)
S: of winning this popularity contest stay on the show while most /pleasant/ people are voted off. The last survivor strikes it rich **(A)**

T: strikes it rich
S: and is rewarded with $1 million in prize money
T: prize money, perdón.

(Error 25)
S: In many countries around the world, depend on **(A)**
T: No **(F)**
S: (…)
T: ¿Qué es? **(F)**
S: (…)
T: Viewers, viewers seem fascinated **(F)**

(Error 26)
S: with "Survivor" and similar shows. Perhaps it's exciting to watch people who have got nothing to .... **(A)**
T: depend on **(F)**

S: but their intelligence and courage. Whatever the secret, the show is a …la que falta

(Error 27)
T: worldwide success. Vale vamos al reported speech y terminamos la unidad 5 y pasamos al 6 que son los condicionales y descripciones también.Grammar: Reported speech. **(Q)**
S: ¿yo? She /mensioned/ that she had never seen the film. "I have never seen the film" **(A)**

T: Yeah. I have never seen the film and listening

(Errors 28 and 29)
S: Tom inquired whether we were /pleniŋ/, **planning** to visit Nina in hospital. "Whether are you planning ...? **(Self-correction/A)**
T: Are you planning ...? **(F)**
S: Are you planning to visit Nina in hospital?] **(Acc)**

(Error 30)
[Laura told me not to go into that room.. "You don't go into this ro.." **(A)**
T: Don't go. En un imperativo nunca ponemos sujeto **(F)**
S: vale **(Acc)**
T: ¿vale? "Don't go into the room!" **(Conf)**

(Error 31)
S: He /suʒested/ that it was time to go home. "It's time to go home"

T: It's time to go home. Vale. Leo el writing y corregimos y terminamos, a ver. He walked so slowly as though he had all the time in the world. He walked so slowly as though he had all the time in the world. I want to meet that nice
S: that?
T: I want to meet that nice tall, blue-eyed boy. I want to meet that nice tall, blue-eyed boy. Three. He doesn't bother anyone ... espera, espera, he is as quiet as a mouse and doesn't bother anyone.
S: as?

T3: Instructions
T: He is as quiet as a mouse and doesn't bother anyone. How much does that long red silk

scarf cost? How much does that long red silk scarf cost? And number 5. The young girl looked as pretty as a picture. The young girl looked as pretty as a picture. Ok, on your students' book on page 70, 71. 70, 71. Student's books, 70, 71. We are going to read sshhhh, we are going to read two articles about an incident with two friends. It has to do with driving drunk, driving drunk. D'you understand what driving drunk means? Page 70, 71. One article, the first article is from a newspaper and the second article is from a magazine, a teenage magazine. We are going to read first the Word Help vocabulary, bueno, let´s read the text Responsible teenager praised, what do you think the title means?

T2: Linguistic Task
Responsible teenager, adolescente,
S: (…)
T: responsable y praise? elogiada.
S: ¿cómo?
T: elogiada. Elogio es praise como sustantivo y el verbo praised elogiada.
S: elogiar
T: El título
S: elogiada
T: esto, adolescente responsable elogiada, o ¿cómo lo podemos decir mejor?
S: El verbo es elogiar no elogiada
T: Bueno, pero está en..
S: entonces está bien (…)

(Errors 32 and 33)
T: Eso, vale. Elogio especial fue dado esta semana by Chief, el jefe de policia, Chief Constable Jones. Vale. Alicia, can you begin to read? **(Q)**
S: Rosemary Spenser received special /prais/ from the Chief Constable after alerting the police that her best friend, Patricia Davies, had insisted on driving home from a party despite in fact that she was obviously drunk.. **(A/A)**

T: Drunk?
S: bebida.
T: bebida, all right.

(Errors 34 and 35)
S: It was clear that she was not only /enganʒering/ her own life, but /ði/ lives of others too. **(A/A)**

T: o.k., what does endanger mean?
S: poniendo en peligro.
T: poniendo en peligro.
S: I wish she had listened to me and that I hadn't had to call the police, but I did it out of concern for her well-being
T: well-being,
S: bienestar
T: bienestar.
S: Bienestar, said Miss Spenser. If she had continued driving, there could have been a terrible accident, she added.

(Error 36)
T: Vale continue please Nuria. **(Q)**
S: Miss Spenser's respon../responseibol/? **(A)**
T: Responsible (F)

(Errors 37 and 38)
S: action must surely have saved her best friend's life, /steit/ the Chief…ese **(A/A)**
T: Chief **Constable (F)**
S: Chief Constable. When our officers traced her **(Acc)**

T: what does trace..when our officers traced her

S: uhm

(Errors 39, 40 and 41)
T: trace es salieron a buscarla y cuando la encontraron.. es salir a la búsqueda y encontrar, pues cuando la encontraron, ¿qué pasó? She was, Miss Davies… **(Q)**

S: Miss Davies was so drunk that she was unable to /ansuer/ their questions. I wish there were more young people like Miss Spenser. Miss Davies, who has, who was /tʒertʒ/ **(A/Self-correction/A)**

T: charged (F)

S: ah **(Acc)**

T: what does charged with mean?
S: juzgada

(Errors 42 and 43)
T: juzgada y acusada de. Fue acusada de? **(Q)**

S: with drunk driving and had her /lisens/ suspended **(A)**

T: what does that mean? Had her **licence** suspended. **(Q/F)**

S: carné caducado **(A)**

S: (…)

T: Suspended doesn´t mean suspender el examen, retirada, le retiraron su carné. To suspend means retirar, y si suspendes un examen, you fail, nunca suspend. Vale, was unavailable for comment. **(F)**

S: for comment
T: O.k., now look at the differences. This was a newspaper article, now look at the differences between the article that came out and the magazine, and the student..teenage magazine. Carlos, My friend snitched on me. What does "My friend snitched on me" mean? My friend snitched on me
S: chivarse
T: chivó, mi amiga se chivó de mi. This is a different opinion of the same article

(Errors 44 and 45)
S: Trish Davies was having a great time at her best friend's party, but when the time came to go home, her friend, Rosie Spenser, advised her not to drive. She /tout/ Trish had drunk too much. Trish /asur/ **(A/A)**

T: Trish **assured** her, what is assured her? aseguró. Look at the different opinion, from one girl to the other girl. Vale, Trish assured her **(F)**

(Error 46)
S: her that she was ca../kapeibol/ **(A)**

T: capable (F)

(Errors 47, 48, 49, 50 and 51)
S: of /drivɪŋ/ and /ime'diatli/ left the party to start her /horni/ home. Imagine, imagine /tris/ surprise when a police, when a police car, which had been sent as the /'result/ of a tip-off

T: what's a tip-off?, chivatazo

(Error 52)
S: chivatazo, er a tip-off from Rosie Spenser, signalled her to pull over to the side of the road. /suskuentli/ **(A)**

T: subsequently, what does that mean?... Eh? Subsequently, y como resultado **(F)**

S: ah **(Acc)**

T: como resultado de que le dijeran que parase el coche al lado de la carretera. Pues, cuando pone Spencer signalled her to..signalled her to pull over to the side of the road, eso es parar en el lado de la carretera, a continuación, subsequently, **(F)**

S: vale, **(Acc)**

T: o.k.?] **(Conf)**

(Error 53)
[hale **(Q)**
S: er, Trish lost her licence and Rosie was praised by the /'polis/. **(A)**
T: and Rosie was praised by the **police**, vale. Pablo, would you continue reading? **(F)**

S: er..
T: I used to ...

(Error 54)
S: I used to get on well with Rosie, but what she did was unforgivable, Trish told our reporter. I'll never forgive her, /even/ if she begs me. How could she do such a thing? Real friends don't tell tales to each other.

T: what's tell tales?
S: mentir,
T: chivar, bueno, sí, contar cosas de otros, sí, chivar
S: chivar, on each other.
S: pero, ¿qué significa?
T: mentir..
S: Rosie, on the other hand, still believes she did the right thing. I wish Trish would give me a chance to explain. Even now, if I were in a similar situation, I would do the same thing, she claimed. In the meantime, Trish remains unconvinced, and refuses to be friends with Rosie. This looks like the end of a perfect friendship.

T3: Instructions
T: Vale, thank you. O.k., now, after reading sshhhhh after reading the text we (...) on page 72, shss, I want you to do exercises a, b, c and on page..bueno and phrasal verbs: get. At the bottom of phrasal verb get see grammar appendix page 131, on page 131 you´ll find the explanation for phrasal verb get, so now (…) to a, b and c and phrasal verb get … on page 73, shss, on page 73 we will review adjectives with too and enough and compound adjectives, do those two exercises, vale?
(Ss work)

(Lesson 3) 2nd A, March, 10th, 2003

T3: Instructions
T: It's Wednesday and we're in class segundo de Bachiller A and we're gonna start the class on page 60 in our books, in our class books, student's books. We have two exercises on page 60 that we have to correct. Working, working with words, A and exercise B, the vocabulary exercises. Who would like to start? Juanvi?
(Ss laugh)

(Error 1)
T: on page 60, exercise A... shss, please be quiet or we can't hear him, vale, Tom's mother.. **(Q)**

T2: Linguistic task
S: Tom's mother /seis/ that.. **(A)**

T: uhm, is this..?
S: cut down on?
T: on the run, sobre la marcha,
S: yes
T: cut down on, cut down on, what does cut down on mean?
S: reducir algo
T: reduce.. reduce, vale, number two, er, Javier
S: uh!
T: Karen is..
S: es que...
T: bueno, Esteban, do you have it done?
S: yes
T: would you like to start?
S: yes
T: O.k., continue
S: number 2. Karen is very clever. In fact, she could win the competition.
T: vale, it's obvious because: Kar..Karen is very clever, punto,
S: ah

(Errors 2 and 3)
T: in fact, comma, she could win the competition. Number three **(Q)**
S: ¿yo? Eventually, he /manaðʒ/ to rights the correct answer.**(A)**
T: no **(F)**
S: arrive at **(Peer-correction)**
T: arrive at.] **(Conf)**

(Error 4)
[Four. **(Q)**
S: /audiens/ audiences worldwide enjoyed the programme **(Self-correction)**
T: bien, audiences worldwide.] **(Conf)**

(Error 5)
[Five. **(Q)**
S: er, he is so clever that he arrive in the.. **(A)**
T: no, that his...we are looking for a noun **(F)**
S: success **(Peer-correction)**
T: success, his success in the show surprised no one.] **(Conf)**

(Error 6)
[Six. **(Q)**
S: your chances of winning will /inkres/ **(A)**
T: increase **(F)**
S: increase.] **(Acc)**

(Error 7)
[If you use your /aids/ wisely **(A)**
T: if you use your **aids** wisely. And number seven. **(F)**

S: The author owns the..

T1: Communication
T: er, wh.., Mariano come here, excuse me just a minute Esteban
(Ss laugh)
T: why are you late?
S: me he dormido
(Ss laugh)
T: o.k., sit down
S: rebobina un poquito la cinta

T2: Linguistic task
T: no, number seven Esteban, shss
S: owns the rights…the rights
T: shss, the rights, los derechos, vale, exercise B, er, Camila, speak up loudly.. shss
S: A dictionary is a tremendous aid when you are writing a composition
T: a tremendous aid, synonym for help, aid
S: how many contestants are taking part in the competition?
T: right, synonym for competitors, contestants
S: William worked very hard to achieve his goal
T: synonym for achieve, reach
S: This restaurant has a wonderful choice of desserts
T: has a wonderful choice, synonym for selection, another word, in, on an exam, if I give you en la parte B del exámen, if I say help, you can write aid because it's a synonym, o.k.? Vale, number five.. shss
S: The football game took place despite of the snow
T: despite of, a synonym for in spite of. Six
S: Currently Penny is studying at Oxford University
T: currently, currently. Seven.
S: Many people would like to abolish the hunting of animals in England.
T: bien, abolish, put an end to. Eight
S: your success will depend on the amount of effort you put in
T: will depend on, to be determined by and number nine
S: a British network says it has obtained the recordings
T: good. O.k. on page.. what?, number nine, network. O.k., on page 61
S: (...)
T: o.k., that's what I was gonna ask, we have the phrasal verbs and compound nouns?
Ss: (...)
T: Also. Vale, phrasal verbs with go. Shss, his tie doesn't really go with his shirt, go with, what does go with mean?
S: pegar
T: match, combinar, hacer juego con, combinar. She decided to go along with his plans even though they might be dangerous.
Ss: support
T: support. Please, get the milk, put the milk in the fridge, otherwise it will go off
S: (...)
T: go sour, se estropeará, se, what do you say when milk goes bad? Er, Karen is ready to go on to the next question
Ss: continuar
T: continue. My lawyer will go through the contract very carefully.
S: (...)
T: examine, hojear con hache, con hache ¿no? hojear
S: hojear viene de ojo
T: pero hojear, examinar, pasar página por página es con hache, ¿no?
(Ss talk)

T: shss, (...) but that's what that means

S: hojear es de ojo

T: I know you go through looking with your eyes but the verb hojear in Spanish is con hache, ¿no? shss, parece mentira, o.k., er, Pablo, come here

(Ss talk)

T1: Communication

(Error 8)

T: tell me why you are late **(Q)**

S: er, ¿en Inglés? **(Q)**

T: yes **(A)**

S: because I sl... **(A)**

T: slept, you overslept **(F)**

S: yeah, I overslept **(Acc)**

T2: Linguistic Task

T: hale, compound nouns, A, shss, shss, death..., death..., death what?

Ss: penalty

T: death penalty. Tennis..., tennis

S: tennis court

S: tennis court

T: tennis court. We are on exercise A, page 60, shss world

S: cup

T: cup. Heart...

Ss: attack

T: attack y quiz

Ss: show

T: show. And in B Jim's had a

Ss: heart attack

T: heart attack, but he's getting better now. I don't like playing on an artificial...

Ss: tennis court

T: tennis court, the ball moves too quickly. Who won the ...

Ss: world cup

T: world cup, Spain or France?

S: Spain

T: some states in the USA still have the...

S: death penalty

T: death penalty. And She is a genius, she should compete in a...

S: quiz show

T: quiz show.

T3: Instructions

T: Bien, on page 61, 61, er, the only important things on the page are the reporting verbs, I don't think I asked you to do this exercise, did I? Pues, do exercise, the reporting verbs for tomorrow and should and had better. What's the difference between should and had better?.. What do you use should for? You should study more, what do you use it for?

T2: Linguistic task

T: to give..

S: advice

S: (...)

T: advice, to give advice, aconsejar. And what does had better mean?.. you had better study more or you are going to fail your exams..

S: (…)

T: más te vale, it's much stronger, much stronger than should. Más te vale. Shss, do you understand? más te vale is stronger, shss, o.k., er, on page 61,... Vocabulary Booster, Vocabulary Boster

S: ¿el qué?

T: page 61, Vocabulary Booster, on the right part of the page

S: ah

T3: Instructions

T: Vocabulary Booster: regular and extreme adjectives... the quiz show is popular, popular is regular. The quiz show is a runaway success, a runaway success is extreme. Another example: interesting, interesante, is regular and fascinating would be extreme. Do you understand what we are doing? Regular adjectives como gordo y gordísimo, ¿vale?

S: ah

T2: Linguistic task

(Error 9)

T: hale, let's see group, please be quiet, shss, this should be on the vocabulary on our next exam, group the words below into pairs of regular and extreme adjectives. We have big, packed, what does packed mean? **(Q)**

S: empaquetado **(A)**

T: puede ser empaquetado, but for example, er, you have a crowded, a crowded room, or a crowded party, with lots of people, a packed, the room was packed, the party was packed with people, sería a rebosar, ¿rebosar? re-bo-sar ¿no? a rebosar, well that's what packed means.] **(F)**

[Shss, surprised, we know what that means, fascinating, furious, tired, astonished, starving, what does starving mean?

Ss: (...)

T: muerto de hambre, mucha hambre, tiny

S: pequeñito

S: (…)

T: estar atontad.., aton.. aton..

Ss: atónito

T: atónito, ¿atónito?

S: (...)

T: muy sorprendido

(Ss talk)

T: hale, tiny?

S: pequeñito

T: pequeñito, angry?

S: enfadado

(Errors 10, 11 and 12)

T: enfadado, thin, ancient, antiguo, exhausted **(Q)**

S: exhaustivo **(A)**

T: exhaustivo no **(F)**

S: exhausto **(Peer-correction)**

S: exaltado **(A)**

S: exhausto **(Peer-correction)**

T: exte.. **(F)**

Ss: excitado **(A)**

T: muy cansado] **(F)**

[hale, interesting, huge, what does huge mean?

S: enorme

Ss: muy grande

T: muy grande, crowded, shss, .. mucha gente, hungry

S: hambriento

T: hambriento, small, skinny

S: flaco

T3: Instructions

(Error 13)

T: flaco, en los huesos y old. Vale, lo que tenéis que hacer para mañana es unir en grupos un adjetivo regular con su extremo, de estos que hemos visto. Y luego abajo, shss, antonyms, antonyms,

T2: Linguistic task

T: we have compliment, ¿qué es compliment? **(Q)**
S: complemento **(A)**
T: cumplido] **(F)**

[shss, on purpose
S: a propósito
T: a propósito, adrede, admit, inquire, valuable, stormy, tempestuoso, tormentoso
S: (...)
T: preguntar, whisper
S: susurrar
T: susurrar, deny, shss, deny
S: denegar
T: denegar, accidentally, insult,
S: insulto
T: insulto, reply
S: contestar
T: contestar, worthless, sin valor, calm y shout.

T3: Instructions
T: Aquí tenéis que unir antónimos, para mañana. O.k., now let's correct, shss, let's correct the photocopies we had for today. It's the page in the middle, page in the middle of these photocopies...shss...
(Ss talk)

T1: Communication
T: er, Alberto, tell me, where are your photocopies? please
S: ah, yo no tengo photocopies (…)
T: here
S: no, las tengo, las tengo
S: tú no tienes nada
(Ss talk)

T2: Linguistic task
T: shss, ...shsss... vale, is everybody ready? Salva, shss, do you have your exercises? The one that is about reported speech statements..shss,...¿Por qué sera?
(Ss talk)

(Errors 14 and 15)
T: vale, can you start please? Vale, we're gonna correct the page in the middle. Pablo, can you start? **(Q)**
S: ¿qué? que yo sí que las tengo... **(A)**
S: you should try (...).. **(Peer-correction)**
(Ss talk)
T: shss, be quiet, shss **(Directs)**
S: you should try the new restaurant around the corner. My cousin said.. **(A)**
T: no, you (....) the verb (…) **(F)**
S: advise, advise **(Acc)**
T: 'you should' is advise. My cousin advised **(Conf)**

T1: Communication
S: (...)
T: the page in the middle,
S: (…)
T: maybe.., hale.. is there anybody (...)?
S: me he perdido
(Ss talk)

T2: Linguistic task
(Error 16)
T: does everybody know (...)?... does anybody (...) the photocopy?..ésta, ésta, vale, shss,

...a ver, repetimos, my cousin advised me to try the new restaurant round the corner, vale, **(Q)**

    S: the boy said (...) please forgive me, the boy asked me **(A)**

    T: no, **please** forgive me, **(F)**

    S: please (Repeats)

    T: please, forgive me **(F)**

    S: beg **(Peer-correction)**

    T: begged, shss, the boy begged his girlfriend to.. **(F)**

    S: forgive **(Acc)**

    T: please forgive him **(Conf)**

    S: ¿puedes elegir si (...)?

    S: forgive?

    T: forgive, forgive, what?

    S: if she could for..

    T: no, to forgive him, all of these verbs are like imperativo, they have the to or not to, to forgive him

    S: ¿if she could forgive no? ¿por qué?

    (Error 17)

    T: porque con beg no se puede poner if, vale, number three, 'Just keep trying John, keep trying', what's the teacher doing? **(Q)**

    S: he /enkoraðʒ/ **(A)**

    T: encouraged , the teacher.. **(F)**

    S: encouraged the student to just keep trying **(Acc)**

    T: the teacher encouraged John to keep trying, right,] **(Conf)**

    (Error 18)

    [number four, 'come over for dinner tonight', said Mrs. Smith. **(Q)**

    S: Mrs. Smith reminded **(A)**

    T: no, 'come over for dinner tonight', what's she doing? **(F)**

    S: invitar **(Acc)**

    T: she's inviting, she's inviting, but invite is not there, so you can use **(F)**

    S: ask **(Acc)**

    T: ask, que es pedir, invitar también, Mrs, Smith asked us, or asked me to.. **(Conf)**

    S: to come over for dinner **(Acc)**

    T: to come over for dinner that night. uhm? invited, invited him for dinner that night, bien,] **(Conf)**

    (Error 19)

    [vale, 'stand still and don't move' **(Q)**

    S: The bank robber warned to stand still and not move **(A)**

    T: warn no, what?... order **(F)**

    S: (...)

    T: es una orden, ¿no? 'stand still and don't move' **(F)**

    S: (...)

    T: the bank robber ordered us to stand still and not move **(F)**

    S: please

    T: order...please..

    S: (...) ahí beg

    T: no, beg no

    S: ¿cómo que no?

    T: que no

    S: podría ser, está please

    T: no, please buy some wine on your way home (exagerating begging intonation), no

    (Ss laugh)

    T: what she said**,** no

    S: le está (...)

    (Error 20)

T: no, más bien le está pidiendo, ¿no? my wife asked me to buy some wine on my way home... 'you can't go out with him any more', said my mother **(Q)**

S: my mother forbid **(A)**

T: forbade **(F)**

S: me to go out with him any more **(Acc)**

T: vale, my mother forbade me to go out with him any more **(Conf)**

S: ¿cómo, cómo?

T: forbade

S: ¿no es forbid?

T: no, you don't understand!

S: (...)

T: (...) la puedes repetir?

S: (...) de mierda!

T: oye, Alberto! shss, una cosa es que no parezca (...), pero otra cosa es (...)

(Ss talk)

T: shss

S: ¿has visto eso?

T: eh?

S: claro, no estás atenta, no estás atenta

T: but I've got your name, vale, number eight

S: (...) en la otra (...) the doctor advised his patient not to..

S: (...)

T: vale, the doctor warned, the doctor advised, the doctor told his patient not to smoke so much in the future, right, number nine

S: many people (...) my mother (…)

(Error 21)

T: bien and number ten **(Q)**

S: (...)my friend warned me to, not to **(A)**

T: no, warn no, warn is a little strong, reminded me **(F)**

S: recordar **(Acc)**

T: me recordó, don't forget to call me later, no te olvides **(Conf)**

S: (...)

T: (...)no, if it says remind me, no?

S: da igual

T3: Instructions

(Error 22)

T: my, my friend reminded me to call him later, or reminded me not to forget to call him later, vale, number..bueno the next exercise put the following in indirect speech, the same as before but put it in your own words: I did not do it, he said he hadn´t... **(Q)**

S: he said me that he hadn´t.. **(A)**

T: no, said me, no, told me, nunca puede ser said me **(F)**

S: ¿Y said sólo? **(Q)**

T: said sólo también, said sólo o told me **(A)**

S: he said he... **(Acc)**

T2: Linguistic task

(Error 23)

T: he hadn't done it, a ver the prices at the market are low **(Q)**

S: eh. She told me (...) **(A)**

T: uh? **(Q)**

S: she told me.. **(A)**

T: she told me that... **(Q)**

S: the prices at the market are low **(A)**

T: **were** low, **were** low; bring that book back **(F)**

S: she told me to bring that book back

T: she told me to bring that book back...you know what I mean? To bring that book back, I´ll call you tomorrow. He said he would call me the following day or the next day

S: ¿cómo?

(Error 24)

T: he said he would call me..(...), he said he would call me the next day or the following day, our cousins aren´t coming tonight, Nuria **(Q)**

S: he said that our cousins aren't coming **(A)**

T: weren´t, weren´t **(F)**

S: coming that night **(Acc)**

T: that night,] **(Conf)**

(Errors 25 and 26)

[the child has a gift for music, María **(Q)**

S: he said me... **(A)**

T: he said **(F)**

S: he said the child has a.. **(Acc/A)**

T: had **(F)**

S: had a gift for music **(Acc)**

T: bueno, la verdad María es que se podía dejar en has porque es un verdad general ¿no? el niño tiene un don de música, no se lo va a quitar mañana, lo podríamos dejar éste en has,] **(Conf)**

(Error 27)

[we used to live in that house, very important, shss, we used to live in that house, shss, Nuria **(Q)**

S: he said that they used to **(A)**

T: used to, claro, used to doesn´t change, very important **(Conf)**

S: used to live in this.. **(A)**

T: in **the** house, in **the** house, that changes to the, bueno podéis dejar el that o the, a ver, I won´t lie to you again, he said he wouldn´t lie to me again or he promised he wouldn´t lie to me again, whose book is this? He asked or he enquired or he wanted to know or he wondered whose book that was, where are you going tomorrow? **(F)**

S: (...)

T3: Instructions

T: he asked me, he wanted to know, he wondered where I was going the following day, vale, these photocopies are finished if anyone would like to do the other exercises I would correct them for them and I want you to do for tomorrow page 61 Vocabulary Booster, Vocabulary Booster, 61 in your book, shss, 61 in your books, reporting verbs, should, had better and Vocabulary Booster, also page 63, rewrite the mini-dialogues, shss, and review, rewrite the mini-dialogues and review, in your workbook...(Ss speak) just two, just two, just two exercises, page 36, A and B working with words (Ss speak), shss, A and B

S: ¿página?

T: page 36, A and B working with vocabulary ¿vale? Please, start working, (…I) A y B page 36, shss, vocabulary.

(Lesson 4) 2nd A, April the 1st, 2003

T2: Linguistic task
T: Today is April 1st. Hale, let's begin the class. Natalia exercise 1, shhh!
S: ¿lo corrijo yo? Ha, ha
T: shss, Natalia
S: ya, I will give you the money tomorrow if I can. If you see people running, what do you do?
T: shss
S: She wouldn't help anyone if they were in trouble.
(Ss talk and laugh)

(Errors 1 and 2)
T: shss, Marc **(Q)**
S: espera, ya está If you see people /runiŋ/, what would you do? **(A/A)**
T: What **do** you do **(F)**
S: Ahh, vale.] **(Acc)**

(Errors 3 and 4)
[She wouldn't help an..**anyone** if they were in /trubal/ **(Self-correction/ A)**

(Errors 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9)
T: Natalia, 4 **(Q)**
S: I will back, be back /hir/ by six unless the train is late. I will tell you of course if I knew the /answer/. If no-one /kals/ by next week, I will sell you the car to you **(Self-correction/A/A/A/A)**
T: I will sell the car to you.]**(F)**

(Error 10)
[Shss, Vicente **(Q)**
S: eh? **(Q)**
T: siete **(A)**
S: What will you do if she refuses to marry you? I might possibly lend you my stereo if you /promais/ to be careful. If there isn't enough for the guests to eat, we can phone for pizzas. If you accepted my advice, these things wouldn't happen to you. **(A)**

(Error 11)
T: vale, are there any questions? Ricardo, exercise 2 **(Q)**
(Ss talk)
T: shss **(Directs)**
S: er, If I had been coming, I would have bought more food. **(A)**
T: Vale, analicemos. Aquí hay que poner, shss **(F)**
S: lo tengo mal **(Acc)**
T: aquí hay que poner lo que, inventarlo más o menos, por ejemplo If I had known you were coming, I would have bought more food.] **(F)**

(Errors 12 and 13)
[Dos, dos, Ricardo **(Q)**
S: As long as you drive careful, I will give my car. **(A/A)**
T: I will give you my car.] **(F)**

(Error 14)
[Shss, vale, three **(Q)**
S: I will talk you, to you about it tomorrow if you arrive early **(Self-correction)**

(Error 15)
T: Vale, Andrés el cuatro **(Q)**
S: If we had left earlier, we would have catch the train **(A)**
T: we would have **caught** the train, **caught (F)**
S: Ah, vale (Acc)

T: catch, caught, caught. Five **(Conf)**

S: If you don't light the fire, we will catch a cold
T: we will catch a cold. Enrique, six
S: er
S: improvisa, improvisa
S: has cold?
T: or we will be cold
S: has cold?
T: no, have cold, no, we will be cold, we will catch a cold, have cold, no, you are cold, we will be cold
S: are cold
T: we will be cold,
S: vale, vale
T: shss, six Enrique
S: es que no sé qué poner
T: Jorge
S: no sé
T: venga
S: que no la sé, Teri

(Errors 16 and 17)
T: Nacho, six **(Q)**
S: If they had known how to get here, I would have got lost **(A)**
T: Vale, If they hadn't **(F)**
S: /asked/, /asked/, no? **(Q)**
T: shs, if they hadn't told me, if they hadn't told me, si no me hubiesen dicho **(F)**

S: or explain
T: or explained to me

(Error 18)
S: es /asked/, they had /asked/ **(Q)**
T: If they hadn't **told** me, or if they hadn't explained to me how to get here, I would have got lost, **(F)**
S: y ask no? **(Q)**
T: if they hadn't asked me? si tú no sabes cómo te van a preguntar a ti... **(F)**
S: por eso **(Comments)**
T: ¿por eso qué? **(Q)**
S: si no me hubieran preguntado **(A)**
T: si no me hubiesen explicado como llegar aquí, me hubiese perdido. El no sabía. **(F)**
S: ah, entonces, told **(Acc)**
T: sí, vale] **(Conf)**

(Errors 19, 20 and 21)
[Nacho, siete **(Q)**
S: Don't give them anything unless they will ask in cash **(A/A)**
T: ¿Qué quiere decir in cash? **(F)**
S: En caja **(A)**
S: en caja **(A)**
T: No, en efectivo. En efectivo, unless they pay in cash. **(F/F)**

S: Puedes repetir
T: Don't give them anything unless they pay in cash.
S: it?
T: it?
S: it
S: eso
T: Pero in cash quiere decir en efectivo.
S: it

S: es en efectivo
T: en efectivo
S: it in cash
T: pay it? En efectivo? No
S: No?
T: Celia
S: que no
T: shss
S: es que no (…)
S: will give no puede ser?
S: can you speak?
T: no, will give, no porque no les des, no es, sino págame al contado
S: Si no te lo dan al contado
T: Pues no.
S: vale

(Error 22)
T: eight, Celia, eight **(Q)**
S: She would have won the race easily if she ran faster **(A)**
T: if she **had run** faster. **(F)**
S: ah, ah **(Acc)**

T: Y nine
S: You'll feel much better if you take an aspirin
T: Take an aspirin.
S: la siete no puede ser (…)?
T: Alicia, ¿qué?
S: la siete no puede ser had gone
T: bien

(Error 23)
S: If you wrote more letters, your friends would /'replai/ **(A)**
T: would **reply** y once **(F)**

S: If the house were in better condition, I would buy it
T: Vale, twelve, Noemi
S: Let me know at once if you have any news
T: if you have any news, if you get any news, if you receive any news
S: If you hadn't stayed behind, they wouldn't have caught you

(Error 24)
T: Vale, wouldn't have, wouldn't have, catorce, Vicente **(Q)**
S: a ver, you can take photographs here unless you will permission **(A)**
T: unless you will, no. **(F)**
S: ah **(Acc)**
T: Unless you **have** permission, **(F)**
S: vale **(Acc)**
T: unless you have permission, unless you ask for permission,] **(Conf)**

(Error 25)
[fifteen **(Q)**
S: I wouldn't have done it if he had asked me to **(A)**
T: if he hadn't **(F)**
S: ay, Vicente **(Comments)**
T: hadn't. **(F)**

S: es que encima (…)
T: vale, the number one?
S: If she hadn't got up late, she wouldn't have missed the flight
T: Bien, y three

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S: If we hadn't left, er left our umbrellas at home, we wouldn't have got soaked

(Error 26)
T: vale, Laura, four **(Q)**
S: They didn't do the homework. The teacher punished them. If they had done the homework, the teacher wouldn't punish them **(A)**
T: wouldn't **have**, **(F)**
S: punished them **(Acc)**
T: wouldn't have punished them. **(Conf)**

S: es had done
S: cállate

(Error 27)
T: wouldn't have punished them, five **(Q)**
S: Paul forgot the car keys, so he couldn't start his car. If Paul hadn't forgotten the car keys, he would start his car. **(A)**
T: or, he could have started his car, no?] **(F)**

(Error 28)
[What Marc? **(Q)**
S: es que..¿Aquí qué hay que poner? They didn´t, es que yo he puesto aquí had done porque el tercer condicional **(A)**
T: If they had done, claro **(Conf)**

T1: Communication
S: es que ella ha dicho didn't, they didn't, ah! Claro es que ha leído el enunciado, déjalo **(Self-correction)**
T: ella ha leído.. **(Conf)**

(Ss talk and laugh)

T2: Linguistic task
T: six!...six!
S: I didn't go the party because I was ill in bed. If I hadn't been ill in the bed, I would have gone to the party
T: Y seven
S: I put my coat on as it was very cold outside. If it hadn't been so cold outside, I wouldn't have put on my coat
T: bien, y eight, Irene
S: ésta no la he hecho, If my watch hadn't been slow, I wouldn't have arrived at the station late

(Errors 29, 30, 31, 32 and 33)
T: Exercise two, shss, Marc, two **(Q)**
S: If you don't practise your /ritiŋ/, you will have /trubal/ in the /'egsam/. You will have /trubel/ in /ðe/ /'egsam/ unless you /prac'tis/ your /ritiŋ/ **(A)**

(Error 34)
T: three **(Q)**
S: If you don't explain the problem **(A)**
T: shss **(Directs)**
S: I can't help you. I can't help you unless you /eksplain/ the problem **(A)**

(Error 35)
T: vale, Andrés, four **(Q)**
S: I won't get into /yur/ car if you don't have it washed first. Unless you have washed you car I won't get in **(A)**
T: Vale. Or I won't get into **your** car unless you have it washed first.] **(F)**

(Errors 36, 37 and 38)
[Ricardo, five **(Q)**
S: If they don't arrive /son/, we will leave without them. Yo he puesto: /'unles/ they arrive /son/, we will /liaf/ without them.

(Errors 39 and 40)
T: Vale, Miguel six **(Q)**
S: He can't play tennis properly if he doesn't use his /favourit/ racket. He can't play tennis properly unless he use his **favourite** racket **(Self-correction/A)**
T: unless he **uses**. **(F)**
S: uses **(Acc)**
T: uses, seven. **(Conf)**

S: una cosa, ¿da igual..
S: she won't work..
T: espera, what?

(Error 41)
S: ¿da igual si pones el /'anles/ delante o detrás? **(Q)**
T: sí, da igual si pones el **unless** delante o detrás **(F)**

(Error 42)
S: She won't work for you if you don't /pai/ her. She won't work for you unless you **pay** her **(A)**

T: vale, eight
S: I'm not going out if it doesn't stop raining. I'm not going out unless it stops raining

(Errors 43 and 44)
T: Vale, any questions? Bien, exercise three, this is the last one we are gonna correct today then I'll give you some more to work on. Natalia, one **(Q)**
S: yo lo tengo hecho, Teri **(Comments)**
T: shss **(Directs)**
S: If people, er doesn't enjoy his music, **(A)**
T: If people **didn't (F)**
S: didn't enjoy his music, he wouldn't appear on local ra..radio **(Acc/Self-correction)**

T: and 2
S: If they didn't
S: Perdona, Teri, ¿qué ha dicho? Didn't enjoy?

(Errors 45 and 46)
T: if people didn't enjoy his music, he wouldn't appear on local radio, number two **(Q)**
S: if they didn't /her/ **(A/A)**
T: hadn't heard (F)
S: hadn't heard him on the radio, Decca wouldn't have offered him a contract **(Acc)**

T: Macarena, three
S: If Decca hadn't given him a contract, he wouldn't have had hit records
T: have.. hit
S: hit records.
T: Vale, and number 4
S: He wouldn't wear glasses if he were concerned with image
T: Ok, can everybody please shhh! can everybody, please be quiet?, he wouldn't wear glasses if he weren't concerned with image.
S: Can you repeat three, please

(Errors 47, 48 and 49)
T: three, if Decca hadn't given him a contract, he wouldn't have hit records. Vale, number five, Alicia

S: If his songs were bad, other groups /wuldnt/ /wuldnt/ record, wouldn't have /rikord/ their versions **(A/Self-correction/A)**

(Error 50)
T: Bien. Six, Noemi **(Q)**
S: If his parents liked his new wife, they wouldn't .. would accept her as part of the family. **(Self-correction)**

(Errors 51 and 52)
T: And number 7 **(Q)**
S: She won't work for you unless you pay her **(A)**
T: No, seven in number three **(F)**
S: If he hadn't got on the plane in Iowa, he wouldn't have dead **(Acc/A)**
T: He wouldn't have died. **(F)**

(A pause in the tape)
T: A Sadd Story. Os fijaréis que sad en el texto se escribe con dos des cuando solamente lleva uno.
S: ¿por qué?

(Errors 53 and 54)
T: Es porque hay una asociación, una asociación que se llama Students Against Drunk Driving, Students Against Drunk, perdón, Driving Drunk. Vale, Celia is going to begin to read. **(Q)**
S: A Sadd Story. Drunk driving claims many lives every year. In the United States there is an /organisei∫on/ run by and for students that was established to address this problem. The /organisei∫on/ is SADD, Students Against Drinking Drunk. **(A/A)**
T: driving drunk **(F)**
S: driving drunk **(Acc)**

(Error 55)
T: Can you translate that please? **(Q)**

T1: Communication
S: Conducir borracho llama **(A)**
T: o lleva **(F)**
S: lleva muchas vidas todos los años. En los United States, en los Estados Unidos hay una organización que está dirigida y va dirigida a los estudiantes y that was established para solucionar este problema. Esta organización es SADD, Estudiantes contra conducir borracho **(Acc)**
T: Vale] **(Conf)**

(Errors 56, 57, 58 and 59)
[Irene, continue, please. **(Q)**
S: SADD was started in 1981 by Bob Anastas, a hockey coach and health teacher at a high school in Massachusetts. Two of alcohol-related crashes, ah no espera, two of his star hockey players were killed in one week in /separeit/ alcohol-related crashes. Many students were very upset over the loss of their friends. Anastas thought of a way that the students could use their grief /konstruk/... **(Self-correction/A/A)**
T: constructively **(F)**
S: constructively to prevent accidents like these from happening /agein/, and he created the SADD programme. **(Acc/A)**

(Errors 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, and 66)
T: Can you translate that please? **(Q)**
S: SADD fue creado en 1981 por Bob Anastas , un jugad... ay un entrenador de jockey **(Self-correction)**
T: y profesor ( )
S: y profesor… **(A)**
T: de salud **(F)**
S: de salud del colegio, de un colegio en Massachussets. Dos de sus jugadores …

(Acc/Self-correction/A)

T: estrellas **(F)**

S: estrellas se mataron en una semana en diferentes accidentes de coche… **(Acc/A)**

T: relacionados **(F)**

S: relacionados… **(Acc/A)**

T: con el alcohol **(F)**

S: con el alcohol, sí. Muchos estudiantes estuvieron muy mal por la **(Acc/A)**

T: ¿upset qué significa? (F)

S: tristes **(Peer-correction)**

S: tristes, ha, ha, estaban muy mal…**(Acc)**

T: desmoralizados, tristes, preocupados **(Conf)**

S: por la pérdida de sus amigos.

T: Lost es perdida

(Errors 67 and 68)

S: Ya ¿qué he dicho? ha, ha, Anastas pensó de una manera.. no, pensó, a ver, en una manera en que **(Self-correction/A)**

S: para ayudar **(Peer-correction)**

S: para ayudar a los alumnos **(Acc)**

T: En usar su tristeza constructivamente para ayudarles.**(F)**

S: claro **(Acc)**

(Error 69)

T: Y, ¿prevent qué es? **(Q)**

S: para prevenir accidentes como estos **(A)**

T: Evitar **(F)**

S: para evitar accidentes como estos para que esto no vuelva a suceder **(Acc)**

T: para que esto no vuelva a suceder

S: y creó el SADD programme

(Errors 70, 71, 72 and 73)

T: El SADD programme. Vale, Vicente. From its modest beginnings… From its modest beginnings…**(Q)**

S: SADD has now got 4 million members and 20 thousand chapters or /subgroups/. SADD chapters sponsor a /varieti/ of activities, many of which the students create themselves. One of SAAD's main elements is the Contract for Life, a /raiten/ agreement which must be signed by teenagers and their parents. In the contract teenagers /promais/ to call home for a lift **(A/A/A/A)**

T: ¿Qué significa eso? Call home for a lift.

S: Llamar a casa

S: transport

T: llamar a casa para que le recoja

(Error 74)

S: someone from one place to another. If they are too drunk to drive or if their driver is drunk and cannot take them home safely. Parents agree to drive the teenagers home with no questions or /puniʃment/ until the following day. **(A)**

(Errors 75, 76, 77, 78, 79 and 80)

T: Vale. The founders of SADD, Andrés **(Q)**

S: The founders of SADD believe that all underage drinking is /iresponsable/. However, others outside /ðe/ organisation have sometimes /aʃumd/ that SADD believes that drinking is ok if you don't drive afterwards. For that reason, the /na/..the name has been changed to Students Against /destruktif/ Decisions. The new name also covers other problems, such as drugs, teenage pregnancy, /suisid/ and failure to use its seat belts **(A/A/A/Self-correction/A/A)**

T: ¿seat belts qué son?

S: Cinturones de seguridad

T: cinturones de seguridad.. Hacéis los ejercicios B,
S: no lo ha traducido, Teri
T: y D, da igual, B, C y D,
S: ¿tantos?
T: no (…)
S: (…) pero son muchos ejercicios
T: no, son tres, B, C y D
S: catalán
T: shss, y todos los ejercicios de condicionales para después de Pascua.
S: ¿qué dices?
T: todos, oye, Jose Luis, shss, vale, ¿queréis trabajar?... Does anybody have any questions?
S: yes
(Ss laugh)
T: shss, hale
S: ¿Lo vas a corregir ahora?
T: a trabajar, esto lo vamos a corregir al final de la clase, lo del texto…shss
(Ss work and talk)
S: yo tengo una duda, pero ¿me la tendrías que grabar?
T: what?
S: no me grabes
T: shss
S: a ver, que aquí detrás de unless, no se puede negar porque unless ya está negado
T: no, no, unless va con afirmativo
S: vale, pero como unless es negativo, exacto lo de detrás ya está…
T: claro
S: vale, that was my question
S: ¿lo del reported speech me lo puedes explicar o no? Tengo aquí las fotocopias ya
T: ¿las tienes?
S: (…)
T: vale

(Lesson 5) 2ⁿᵈ A, April, the 10ᵗʰ, 2003

T1: Communication
T: Vale, today is April the 10ᵗʰ, Thursday, April the 10th
(Ss talk)
T: shss, vale, he empezado teoría, pero (…) shss, ay, (…) las frases..
S: hoy es el cumple de (…)
(Ss clap)
T: vale, Fernando, (…) luego (…) de ayer
S: (…) dejar estudiar y corregir, eh ?
T: Shhh!
(Ss talk)
T: no, que no voy a corregir (...) en la pizarra
S: bien, frases, ¿no?
T: hace calor, ¿qué haces (…)? Vale, number one
S: just please moment

T2: Linguistic task
T: number 1… Juan (…) number one: Me advirtió que no dejara a Jane sola.
S: ¿cómo?
T: me advirtió shss, que no dejara a Jane sola. Number two: Reconoció que no podía evitar ver telenovelas.
S: (…)
T: No que luego cuando devuelvo los exámenes no voy a (…) que ya lo sabéis. Number three: Más te vale no molestarla, punto y seguido, parece que no está de acuerdo.
S: ¿más te vale..?

(Error 1)
T: más te vale no molestarla, parece que no está de acuerdo. Four: Se preguntaba, ¿cómo es se preguntaba? Me pregunto.. **(Q)**
Ss: she wonder **(A)**
T: I wondered, she wondered, con -ed. A ver … Se preguntaba si sería capaz de contestar todas las preguntas. **(F)**

S: ¿si sería capaz de ..?
T: contestar todas las preguntas,
S: ¿si sería capaz ..?
T: de contestar todas las preguntas, lo has dicho tu.
(Ss laugh)
T: five: En cuanto llegue te llamaré. En cuanto llegue te llamaré… Six: El conductor no tuvo suficiente cuidado, algunos habéis puesto: no era lo suficiente cuidadoso, da igual, no tuvo suficiente cuidado. Me encuentro demasiado cansado para conducir. Me encuentro demasiado cansado para conducir. Eight: ¿Crees que esa blusa va bien con mi falda roja?
S: ¿va bien..?
T: con mi falda roja?
(Ss talk while one writes on the BB)
T: nueve, nine: Se chivó y nos tiraron… and ten: Se ofreció llevarnos a casa. Se ofreció llevarnos a casa. Vamos a ponerlas en la pizarra (…)
(T and Ss talk)

(Error 2)
T: Vale, number one. Me advirtió, shhh, …Juan, number one, me advirtió que no dejara a Jane sola, shss **(Q)**
S: he advised me **(A)**
S: he advised me **(A)**
T: eso es aconsejar, pero el verbo advertir **(F)**
S: warn **(Acc)**
S: warn **(Acc)**
S: es warn **(Acc)**

(Error 3)

T: no es let, es leave, (…) or by herself, shss, vale, number two. Reconoció, ojo eh! Reconocer una cosa nueva es recognize pero reconocer una cosa que ha hecho es admit. Vale, she admitted... **(F)**

(Error 4)
S: ¿si pones /rekogniθed/? **(Q)**
T: eh? **(Q)**
S: /rekogniθed/ **(Q)**
T: No, **recognize** es reconocer a una persona. (…) simplemente (…) pero el resto (…).] **(F)**

(Errors 5 and 6)
[She admitted …que no podía evitar (…) ¿eso está bien? **(F)**
S: (…) avoid **(A)**
T: avoid (…) es que avoid (…) **(F)**

S: (…) está bien?
T: (…) vale (…). Más te vale, más te vale no molestar..shss (...) más te vale no molestarla. Parece que no está de acuerdo ¿más te vale? (F)
S: You had better (Peer-correction)
T: más te vale, no molestar, no preguntaremos a Esteban ésta, más te vale no molestar, parece que no está de acuerdo. ¿Más te vale?
S: you had better
T: (…) you had better not
S: (…)
T: not y… hay dos palabras en inglés, bother
S: ¿qué?
S: ¿cómo? ¿qué es eso?
S: ¿y disturb?
T: parece que no.. disturb
S: disturb
T: parece que no está de acuerdo
S: She seems
S: (…)?
T: (…)
S: (…)
T: not to agree.
S: pero, she seems not to agree
S: no veo
S: Ángel
T: Vale, esto, to agree con que (…) shss
S: bueno, she seems not to agree
T: bien, she seems not to agree,
S: (…)
T: she seems to disagree, bien, (…) no, what ?
S: (…)
T: she seems not to agree
S: (…)
T: (…)
S: (…)
T: no, se pone con (…)
S: Y ¿se puede poner she looks like ?
T: no, she looks like (…)
S: quiero decir que lo que me parece raro (…)
T: (…) she doesn't agree
S: (…) parece que
T: parece, quién parece, she
S: vale
T: vale number four. Se preguntaba si sería capaz de contestar todas las preguntas. Estoy

poniendo, I'm putting she all the times there should be me

Ss: (…)

T: questions son questions (…) … five … she wondered, she asked herself…Hale, esto, five. En cuanto llegue te llamaré (…)

(Ss talk)

T: I'll call you or I'll phone you

(Ss talk)

(Error 7)

T: and number six…El conductor no tuvo suficiente cuidado. El conductor, the driver,…(…) ha puesto otra cosa: the driver wasn´t careful enough. The driver was too careless, was too..didn't have enough care, es un poco rebuscado, he quitado algo.] **(F)**

[Shss, Seven. Me encuentro demasiado cansado para conducir ... very easy… I feel too, adjetivo, más infinitivo. I feel too tired to drive. Vale? Shhh! ¿Crees que esa blusa va bien con mi falda? Do you think …

(Ss talk)

T: Había dos, (…) goes with or matches, que combina

S: o sea goes with o matches

S: ¿cómo era (…)?

T: (…)

S: y ¿por qué no puede ser suit? ¿suit no es (…) bien ?

T: (…) es llevarse bien con alguien

S: claro!

T: pero con una falda no

S: pero ¿suits por qué no?

T: pero eso (…) no a la ropa. That suits me, eso me viene bien, pero..

S: falda roja

T: Nine, shhh!... Se chivó y nos ti.. se chivó y nos tiraron.

(A pause)

T: Camila, he snitched, he snitched and eso es una (…) he snitched and they caught us or he snitched and we were caught. Y se ofreció llevarnos a casa.

S: (…) offered

T: aquí sí habéis puesto lo de (…) He offered to give us a lift home. He offered to take us home.

S: offered..?

T: take us home

S: (…)

S: ¿cómo, cómo?

T: no, no, los, se ofreció en inglés no son reflexivos, no

S: pero, quiero decir to give us

(Error 8)

T: to give us a lift home or to take us home, sin el (…) **(F)**

S: así que quita el (…) **(Comments)**

T: to carry, to carry, a ver, tell the people to carry us home eso es a cuestas, que no me vale. To carry no me vale.

S: también te pueden llevar.

T1: Communication.

T: Shhh! Vale, los condicionales en general han salido muy bien. Shss

S: corrígelos en un momento

T: Shss, vale, shss, el vocabulario no ha salido mal del todo. Lo habéis hecho mejor de lo (…) muy poca (…). Bien. Condicionales han salido bien. Reported speech bastante bien y los rewrite..

S: mal.

T: no, mal no, bien.

T2: Linguistic task

Shss, Espe, although the weather was bad, aunque el tiempo era malo, we went. Despite the bad weather, a pesar del tiempo malo, we went.

S: (…)

T: Despite the fact that the weather was bad.

S: corrígelos

T: Shhh! No, primero sería leer el texto.

S: no!

T: a ver, el texto, shss, va!, y el otro que era un poco más problemático era they were such..no,

S: so

T: the flowers were so beautiful that it was a shame to cut them, o.k.?

S: (…)

T: they were such beautiful flowers…that it was a shame to cut them. Vale, el texto, answer the (…)

S: shss

T: please, be quiet! (…) because they have so many (…) people say he (…) why (…) in danger. A ver (…) false and true. First one was false and the second one is true. Er, looking after, I'm taking care of está claro que es un verbo que está en gerundio (…) looking after (…) sustantivo, a ver, shss, a ver a, b, c,

S: d

T: uno: (…)

S: b

S: no

S: sí

T: b, (…)

Ss: a

T: la c, ¿no?

S: sí, c

T: (…)

S: ah, la a

Ss: la a

S: la b

S: es la a

T: a, bien, vale, c (…) y los demás si lo habéis hecho mal es por falta de (…) shss, bueno (…) shss, un lugar ideal para vivir

(T and Ss talk)

T: bien, termino de corregir

S: (…)

S: una vez que estén corregidos..

T: shss, (…) no veo nada

S: (…)

T: vais a..

S: study, study

T: me faltan muy pocos de los que estáis aquí y puedo terminarlos y los reparto ahora

S: sí

S: sí

T: luego me venís a preguntar

(Ss talk)

T1: C0ommunication

T: shss… please be quiet…a ver, el reported entero te voy a corregir, Nuria, me falta de Ángel,

S: yo

T: Álvaro, Camila,

S: Isabel

T: Natacha no está, Carla no está, Juan, shss, Marta no está, Rafa, Christian, Alberto no está, Raúl, María Antón, Mariano, Cristina sí, Carlos también, creía que me faltaban menos, shss, a ver, David ya está corregido

(Ss talk)

T: shss, vale, vamos a ver, los que están corregidos los reparto, pero no (…) Javier Linares,

Mireia, Pablo no está, Nacho, Alicia, Esteban, vale, rápidamente los corrijo, termino el reported primero.

> (Ss study and talk)
> T: oye, Rafa, aprovechad el tiempo… Vale, Jose.
> S: ¿yo?
> T: Nuria, voy a corregir el tuyo…
> S: ¿esto qué era? ¿dos puntos y medio?
> T: (…)
> S: ya, ya, pero ¿toda la pregunta?
> T: cero veinticinco cada una
> S: ¿todo cuanta igual? ¿cero veinticinco cada uno?
> T: (…)…shss…
> S: Teri, ¿qué mandaste el otro día?
> T: ha?
> S: ¿el otro día que mandaste de homework? el otro día mandaste ejercicios
> T: (…)
> S: pero no me acuerdo qué..
> T: ¿era en el workbook o en el book?
> S: sí, ya, no sé, ochenta y cuatro? Pusiste éste, éste
> T: éste
> S: ¿los otros también?
> T: y luego
> S: (…) también
> T: es que no lo sé, ¿el de phrasal verbs también? ¿mandé?
> S: sí
> T: el otro día mandé (…)
> (Ss study and talk)
> T: ¿estáis..? who's playing cards? Put those cards out right now, right now, Juan (…)no, don't play cards, o.k.? do your..Christian, have you done your exercises? Christian! Have you done your exercises?... Nuria..shss, a ver David, let me see your..
> S: no, ya no es necesario
> T: pero, David. Ángel
> S: (…)
> (Ss talk)

T2: Linguistic task
(Error 9)
T: ay **(Comments)**
S: ¿ay qué? ¿qué pasó? **(Q)**
T: he never wants to share nothing **(Repeats)**
S: ¿qué? **(Q)**
T: he never wants to share **(F)**
S: nothing **(Peer-correction)**
T: nothing **(Conf)**
S: (…)
S: ¿qué? **(Q)**
T: two negatives **(F)**

(T talks to the tape: hoy sólo hay 10 personas en clase porque se van a las diez y media a la feria del empleo, por eso están haciendo, se supone, estudiando, porque empiezan los exámenes el lunes que viene)

T1: Communication
T: ay, Ángel
S: what?
T: a ver, Ángel, dos, tres, cuatro…cinco…Ángel
S: ¿ya?
T: (…)
S: ¿cómo?
T: disaster

S: disaster, ya

T: the conditionals

S: ya

T: had and been

S: ya, had and been

T: had and (…) pasado, presente, makes…Álvaro, voy a corregir el tuyo, shss…

(Ss talk)

S: ¿aquí podíamos decir (…)? Es que también podíamos decir con esto que dijiste tú

T: sí

S: ah, vale es que o sea, podía haber sido en vez de (…), she told me, er, not to say anything

T: uhum

S: ah, vale, es que (…)

S: (…)

T: no, no, no, no,…shss

(Ss talk)

T: shssss…Álvaro, shss

(Lesson 6) 2ⁿᵈ A, April the 22ⁿᵈ, 2003

T1: Communication

T: Exactamente, ya puse el examen ayer, os voy a decir exactamente que más que va, unidades que van, vocabulario, etcétera. Apuntaroslo en la er, son las unidades cinco, seis y siete

S: pero, pero, la siete no la hemos dado

T: estamos en ello

S: (…) no puede ir porque..

T: estamos en ello

S: sí, pero entre hoy y mañana no…

T: sí que tenemos tiempo para dar vocabulario, vale cinco, seis y siete, que son las páginas 67, que es el cinco, página 79, que es el seis y la página 91, que es el siete. Todas las palabras en el, en la página 91 vienen del texto que vamos a leer hoy.

S: o.k.

S: hola

T: Carmen… vale, además, además, y eso es muy importante, los phrasal verbs de la página 60, shss, página 60, phrasal verbs

S: phrasal verbs?

T: con go, página 60

S: con go?

T: phrasal verbs con go, página, esto, 72, phrasal verbs con get, y de la 7 es página 85

S: ¿cuál?

T: 85, phrasal verbs con put

S: ¿con qué?

S: ¿con qué?

T: put

S: put?

T3: Instructions

T: bien, lo primero que voy a hacer hoy es explicaros un poco, dictaros un poco de unas cuantas, unas quince creo, frases tipo examen. Son todos condicionales aunque en el examen, lo puse ayer, me parece recordar, shss, que sí que había alguna frase con gerundio e infinitivo, con estilo directo e indirecto y pasivas, y tiempos verbales.

(Ss talk)

T: shss, frases, frases hay de todo

S: pero de gramática. ¿no..

T: en cuanto a gramática, en cuanto a gramática, shss

S: ¿qué va?

T: van primero las frases, 10 frases, luego hay 10 rewrites. Los rewrites sabéis que pueden entrar estilo directo e indirecto, pasivas, condicionales

S: ¿cuántos son?

T: 10

S: ¿10?

T: 10 rewrites. Luego hay 10 condicionales que los he puesto de la siguiente manera: algunos para rellenar con lo que hay entre paréntesis y otros para terminar con vuestras propias palabras, por ejemplo If I were you, coma, y tenéis que poner una terminación a la frase, ¿vale? Luego vocabulario hay 10 palabras, 5 para usar en una frase como siempre y 5 para poner antónimos, sinónimos.

S: ¿cuáles son? ¿en qué páginas están?

T: Vale prepararos que voy a dictar las frases tipo examen primero

S: de sinónimo y antónimo

T: eh? Sinónimo, antónimo, definición o explicación en inglés.

S: ¿pero 5 y 5?

T: eh?

S: ¿5 y 5?

T: 5 y 5. Hale, frase number one, shss, frases tipo examen, number one:

S: ready

S: number one

S: ready, go

T: Lo…

S: lo

T: lo compraría si pudiera permitírmelo. Lo compraría si pudiera permitírmelo. Os daréis cuenta que casi todo son condicionales, es para practicar y el lunes los corregimos en clase.

S: ¿y el examen cuándo es?

S: el martes

T: el martes. Number two, number two, shss,

S: (…) entregar un trabajo

T: Carmen, si tú trabajas duramente, ganarás el aumento que quieres. Si tú trabajas duramente, ganarás el aumento que quieres. Number three. No se habría ido si no hubiese sido preciso. Si no hubiese sido preciso. No se habría ido si no hubiese sido preciso. Four. Si estáis de acuerdo, iremos.

S: ¿la cuatro cómo es?

T: Si estáis de acuerdo, iremos. Si estáis de acuerdo, iremos. Five. Si hubiera estado allí, le habría dicho algo.

S: si hubiera…

T: sí

S: habría o hubiera

T: da igual, ¿no? Six ¿Lo harás si te lo pido? Es pregunta. ¿Lo harás si te lo pido? Seven. Si me hubieses escuchado, no tendrías este problema. Si me hubieses escuchado, no tendrías este problema. Eight. Si tú estuvieras en mi lugar, ¿qué me aconsejarías? Nine. Ojalá que no llevase tanto maquillaje.

S: ¿hay 10 no?

T: hay más.

S: 16

T: nine

S: ten

T: ten, excuse me, ten, shss, ¿A qué universidad irías si pudieras elegir? Eleven.Yo de ti, no iría.

S: ¿cuántas hay, Teri?

T: pues unas quince. Twelve. Si al menos estuviéramos de acuerdo. Si al menos estuviéramos de acuerdo. Thirteen. Si no haces

S: si no estuviéramos de acuerdo, ¿qué?

T: nada, punto. Si no haces un esfuerzo, no puedes esperar tener éxito. Si no haces un esfuerzo, no puedes esperar tener éxito. Y catorce, la última. Si no están de acuerdo, tendremos que reunirnos de nuevo. Now open your books to page 82, 82…Shss, we are going to read the text and do the exercises

(Ss talk and laugh)

S: Leo the text? the text?

T: first paragraph

S: the first paragraph?

S: yo leo

T: shss

(Errors 1 and 2)

S: The water in the streams near Ras Jebel is deep blue, yet neither fish nor plants can survive in it. This deep blue water is not a natural shade of blue. It has been /transformid/ by large /'amunts/ of indigo which a foreign jeans factory pumps into it every day. **(A/A)**

T2: Linguistic task
(Error 3)
T: Can you translate that? **(Q)**
S: El agua en ...los ríos **(A)**
T: ¿Streams qué son? **(F)**
S: ríos **(A)**
T: arroyos **(F)**
S: arroyos] **(Acc)**

(Errors 4, 5, 6, and 7)
[cerca de Ras Jebel es agua profundas **(A)**
T: Azul profundo **(F)**

S: Azul profundo. Ni peces ni plantas pueden sobrevivir. Este azul, este agua azul profundo es no un azul… **(Acc/Self-correction/A/A)**

T: normal **(F)**

S: normal, al ser transformado por grandes cantidades de índigo **(Acc)**

T1: Communication

(Error 8)

T: Indigo, What´s indigo? Indigo es un tinte de vaquero, un tinte de color vaquero **(Q)**

S: El cual las fábricas de vaquero, **(A)**

T: en el extranjero **(F)**

S: en el extranjero] **(Acc)**

(Error 9)

[lo hacen **(A)**

T: bombean, bombean **(F)**

S: bombean cada día **(Acc)**

T: Vale.] **(Conf)**

(Errors 10, 11, 12 and 13)

[Please continue reading Sara…ay, Marta **(Q)**

S: The factory uses /in'dingo/ to dye its jeans. /in'dingo/ itself is harmless but when it is released from the factory into local streams it has a /didli/ /'efekt/. It /risults/ in irreversible damage by blocking out the light which causes plants and fish to die. **(A/A/A/A)**

(Error 14)

T: Vale. Can you translate that, please? **(Q)**

S: La fábrica utiliza índingo para teñir los vaqueros. Índingo no es dañino pero cuando se saca de la fábrica **(A)**

T: Cuando se vierte en los arroyos **(F)**

S: cuando se vierte en los arroyos tiene un efecto mortal. Resulta irreversible el daño y ….no deja pasar la luz **(Acc)**

T: bloquea la luz

S: lo que provoca que las plantas y los peces mueran

(Errors 15, 16 and 17)

T: vale, a ver, Guillermo, would you continue reading, please? **(Q)**

S: of course, Teri. **(A)**

(Some Ss laugh)

S: Why do jeans manufactures choose to produce their products in this small, insignificant Tunisian town with barely more than 3000 inhabitants? /ðe/ answer is money and /'konveniens/. Jeans which cost is 5 pounds to produce at Ras Jebel, sell for 6 times that amount in Britain. In this factory workers pay is not only lower than it is in Europe but it is even lower than the average pay in the Tunisian garment industry. In addition, western manufacturers are also able to take advan../advantadʒ/ to the lack of safety requirements in this part of the world. **(A/A/A)**

(Errors 18, 19, 20, 21, 22 and 23)

T: Can you translate that?

S: Yes, Teri. ¿Por qué los pantalones manufacturados eligen ser producidos en una pequeña ciudad insignificante en Túnez de más, o sea de más o menos 3000 habitantes? La respuesta es dinero y conveniencia. Los pantalones, cuyo coste es de 5 libras de producción en Ras Jebel, se venden por 6 veces su precio, o sea su costo, en Gran Bretaña. En esta fábrica la paga de los trabajadores no es sólo más baja que en Europa, sino que es la más baja en la industria (Ø) tunecina. Además la western manufacturers también tiene ventajas de seguridad, o sea ¿en las inspecciones de seguridad en esta parte del mundo? **(A/A/A/A/A/A)**

T: Porque hay una falta **(F)**

S: ah, sí, una falta de seguridad **(Acc)**

T: pero, una falta de] **(Conf)**

(Errors 24, 25 and 26)
[…Vale, Borja **(Q)**
S: The environment and people of Ras Jebel are not /ðe/ only victims of these killer jeans. The cotton used by the factory comes from Benin in western Africa. In that country´s cotton-growing /areas/, about 100 people died in one year alone as a result of the use of a /pestisid/ called endosulfin. Endosulfin has been made illegal in many developed countries; however, irresponsible dealers have no problem selling their product to unsuspecting farmers in Africa. **(A/A/A)**

(Errors 27 and 28)
T: Vale, can you translate that? El entorno ... **(Q)**
S: El entorno y las gente de Ras Jebel no son las únicas víctimas de este, de estos pantalones matadores **(Self-correction/A)**
T: bueno, esos vaqueros que matan **(F)**
S: esos vaqueros que matan.] **(Acc)**

(Errors 29, 30 and 31)
[El algodón usado en la factoría viene de Benin en el este de Africa. En estos países las plantaciones de algodón sobre 100 personas murieron en un año (Ø) **(A/A/A)**
T: sólo **(F)**
S: Sólo como resultado del uso del pesticida, de un pesticida llamado endosulfina.] **(Acc)**

(Error 32)
[La endosulfina la han hecho ilegal en muchos… **(A)**
T: países desarrollados **(F)**
S: países desarrollados **(Acc)**

(Errors 33 and 34)
T: sin embargo **(Q)**
S: sin embargo, irresponsable **(A)**
T: productores irresponsables **(F)**
S: productores irresponsables no tienen problemas para vender este producto a granjeros… **(Acc/A)**
T: inocentes, insospechados **(F)**
S: a granjeros inocentes en África **(Acc)**
T: vale,] **(Conf)**

(Errors 35, 36, 37 and 38)
[esto, can you continue please, Carlos?... Sadly **(Q)**
S: Sadly, the list does not end here. Who knows about the conditions of workers in thread factories in Pakistan? What about the /miners/ in Namibia who suffer from lung /disisi/ as a result of mining copper which is used to /manufakturi/ brass /butons/ for jeans? **(A/A/A/A)**

(Errors 39, 40 and 41)
T: Can you translate? Tristemente **(Q)**
S: Por desgracia la lista no termina aquí ¿Quién conoce sobre las condiciones de los trabajadores en las factorías, eso no sé lo que es **(A)**
T: en Pakistán, de hilo **(F)**
S: en las factorías de hilo en Pakistán? ¿Qué hay sobre los mineros de Namibia que sufren enfermedades (Ø) como resultado de… **(Acc/A/A)**
T: sacar de la mina cobre **(F)**
S: como resultado de sacar cobre de la mina que se utiliza en la fabricación de botones para los vaqueros? **(Acc)**

T: Y luego termina diciendo
S: yo lo leo, yo

(Errors 42 and 43)
T: (…) **(Q)**
S: The next time you put on your /designer/ jeans, remember that you are not the only one

who has to pay a high price for them. It is impossible to know how many people have paid, and are still paying, a much higher one – ecologically, socially and /personal/. **(A/A)**

T: ¿A que no sabíais todo eso de los vaqueros?
Ss: Noooo
S: yo sí
T: Bueno

(Errors 44 and 45)
S: ¿traduzco el texto? **(Q)**
T: si, traduce **(A/Q)**
S: La próxima vez que te pongas tus vaqueros de diseño recuerda que no eres el único que está pagando un alto precio por ellos. Es imposible saber cuanta gente ha pagado y (Ø) está pagando un precio mayor, ecológicamente, socialmente y personalmente. **(A/A)**

(Lesson 7) 2nd A, April the 24th, 2003

T2: Linguistic task
T: Vale. Las palabras de vocabulario que vienen en el word help van para el exámen. Dye hemos visto que como sustantivo es tinte, tinte, y como verbo teñir. Harmless es ¿qué?
S: inofensivo
T: inofensivo. Deadly
S: mortal
T: mortal. Damage
Ss: daño.
T: daño. Garment industry. What is a garment?
S: Una prenda.

(Errors 1 and 2)
T: una prenda. So garment industry **(Q)**
S: Prenda industrial **(A)**
Ss: industria de prendas **(A)**
S: textil **(Peer-correction)**
T: ¿Industria de las prendas? Industria de la ropa, or de **(F)**
S: textil **(Peer-correction)**
T: textil. Vale, safety requirements. Requisitos de **(Conf)**

Ss: seguridad
T: Y thread factories. Fábricas de
S: hilo
T: hilo. Vale, en la B de la página 83 había que buscar sinónimos de small rivers, ¿qué es la palabra en el texto?
Ss: Stream
T: Streams. Let out?
S: release
T: Release.
S: ¿cómo?
T: Scarcely? Let out es release.
S: release
S: ¿dónde está release?
T: Release está en la línea 12. Scarcely es barely.
S: ¿en qué línea está?
T: Barely está en la línea 20. Y unaware… unaware está en la línea 51, unsuspecting, unsuspecting. Vale, on page 84, page 84. Había que hacer …

T1: Communication
T: Sara ¿no has hecho las actividades?
(Ss laugh)
S: No tengo libro

T2: Linguistic task
T: Hale, Rubén, shss
S: Rubén, please
T: o.k., be quiet please. Rubén, exercise A
S: las voy diciendo las líneas. Safety con requirement.
T: Safety, requirement. Bien

(Error 3)
S: Garment con /industri/ **(A)**
T: Industry **(F)**

(Error 4)
S: Develop con countries. Lung with disease. Deadly with effect. Y /avereiз/ with pay **(A)**

(Errors 5 and 6)

T: Vale. Y el B **(Q)**

S: Smoking can cause lung disease. Many /develop/ countries have /ban / the use of endosulfin. Many /developed/ countries have /baned/ the use of endosulfin **(A/A)**

T: Have **banned** es han prohibido, shss, vale **(F)**

(Error 7)

S: The chemical spill in the Doñana /national/ Park had a deadly effect on the animals living there. **(A)**

(Ss talk)(A pause in the tape)

(Errors 8 and 9)

S: ¿sigo? Workers should always pay attention to the safety requirements in their factory. Most of the workers in the garment industry are /uomen/. /ðe/ average pay at that factory is very low. **(A/A)**

T: Vale. Either ...or, neither ... nor. Either ...or, neither ... nor irá… Either ...or, neither ... nor, vale. Esto va para el examen, Either ...or, neither ... nor sale de alguna manera
(Ss talk)

(Error 10)
T: vale, (…) **(Q)**
S: I'm sorry, I speak neither French or Spanish. **(A)**
T: nor **(F)**
S: nor Spanish.] **(Acc)**

(Errors 11, 12 and 13)
[You will have to ask someone else for help. Neither the Tunisian government nor the jeans manufacturers seems worried by the situation. You can either /talk/ to a friend or solve your problems by yourself. Either she lied to me or I misunderstood her. Either Bob ... **(A/A)**
T: Neither **(F)**
S: Neither Bob nor I had any cash, so we were told to /pai/ either by credit car or by cheque **(Acc/A)**

T: Vale. Phrasal verbs con..
S: (…)
T: neither…nor, vale phrasal verbs con put en la página 85 va para examen. Vamos a dar el significado de cada uno. Put up with en el 1¿significa qué?
S: ¿en la página qué?
T: 85 el ejercicio con put, phrasal verbs con put
S: ah, vale, vale

(Error 14)
T: put up with **(Q)**
S: soportar **(A)**
T: (…) soportas, pero (…) stand **(F)**
S: stand **(Acc)**
S: stand **(Repeats)**
T: Stand en este caso.] **(Conf)**

(Error 15)
[How can you stand her constant talking? Number two. As the pianist was ill, they had to put the concert off. What does put off mean? **(Q)**
S: er.. **(A)**
T: Postpone **(F)**
S: postpone **(Acc)**
T: posponer. Can you put me up for the night?] **(Conf)**

(Error 16)
[Put up? **(Q)**

S: accommodate **(A)**
S: propose **(A)**

T: Accommodate, dar alojamiento. Cuatro, nobody likes Alex. He always tries to put people down in front of their friends.
S: humiliate

(Error 17)
T: Humiliate, menospreciar. I'm sure Mr Rutherford will put forward an interesting solution to our problem. **(Q)**
S: connect with **(A)**
T: no **(A)**
S: propose **(Peer-correction)**
T: Propose, proponer. Y el último. "Just one minute please. I'll put you through to Mrs. Porter's office" **(Conf)**

S: connect with
T: Connect with. Bien. For Monday, for Monday, very important, o.k.?
S: (…)

T3: Instructions
T: conectar con. Very important for Monday is exercise B on page 86. Exercise B: rewrite tipo examen, exercise B on page 86 for Monday. Also page 91, exercises A and B. Exercises A and B. Vale, you have time to do your sentences, las frases, and the exercises in the book…
S: it is too late
T: no, no, it's only ten after eleven
S: it's really late for (…)
T: no, no, no. Get to work, I'm going to go around, shss, get to work, vale, get to work.
S: ¿has dicho página 85, de la 86 el B, el rewrite y la página 91? Son (…)
T: y las frases
S: sí, ya, y ¿ya está?
T: ya
S: seguro, ¿eh?
T: yes
S: no hay ningún ejercicio más…
T: para el lunes no, vale, empieza
S: vale+9

T1: Communication
T: Vale, las frases son super importantes, empezar las frases primero. Shss,…Gloria, las frases…Nacho, do you have any questions?
S: no, bueno sí, la primera, para llegar a ser famoso ¿se refiere a después de haber saltado…?
T: sí… shss,
S: (…) so, can I go to the toilet?
T: no
S: jo
S: please

(Errors 18 and 19)
S: I would go al..? **(Q)**
T: could, if I could **(F)**
S: if I could alone **(Acc/Q)**
T: afford **(F)**
S: afford **(Acc)**

T: it
S: es un lujo
T: afford
S: it

(Ss talk and work)
S: I'm working, Teri, like always
S: I'm too
T: if you have any questions, raise your hands
S: o.k.
T: start
S: (…)
T: with the sentences…what?
S: nada, nada
T: it's o.k.
S: nothing
T: Octavio, sit down and write, do your sentences. Borja, go to your seat…
(A mobile rings)
S: móvil
T: Guillermo Sánchez, you're not supposed to have cell phones in class
S: ¿tú te crees, Teri?
S: Teri (…)
T: I'm going to take this tape to the principal
S: mira!
S: una llamada perdida! Corre, mira, mira
S: Teri, this is a broma
S: it's broma, dice
T: shss…venga…Octavio, you're wasting time
S: (…)
T: Guillermo. Come on and do the sentences
S: yes
T: no, the sentences
S: ah, the sentences, yes, of course
S: mareas
S: tú si que mareas, que vas de te hago una perdida…
T: any questions?
S: a ver, si no hubiera sido preciso
T: if it hadn't been necessary
S: ah
T: necessary
S: (…)
T: ha?
S: (…) precise
T: no
S: no?
T: precise es preciso en funcionamiento, pero no en, si no hubiese sido necesario…shss…
er, a watch is precise
S: vale, o sea, la máquina, ¿no? Vale
T: Sara, sentences… no has visto el examen, eh?
S: (…)
T: bien
S: (…)
T: vale
S: (…)
T: ha?
S: aquí… es que, de esto no te dice nada, ¿no? si van las mismas..
T: sí, it says it's in the third paragraph
S: sí, pero te dice..
T: pero te dice cuántas ganó él y cuántas ganó el otro, entonces ya sacas conclusiones
S: (…)
T: ha?
S: (…)
T: sí, creo que en el primero, no sé, por ahí lo dice
S: Teri, estar de acuerdo, ¿cómo es? (…)?
T: to agree, to agree

S: vale
S: (…)
T: what?
S: no, nada, era, quería (…)
T: you haven't done the sentences
S: sí, Teri, están en la carpeta
S: (…)?
T: I don't believe it, ha?
S: ¿estás grabando?
T: sí
S: hola
S: (…) más bonita que tiene
S: oh! Teri!
T: Sara, you're not working

(Error 20)
S: I /finiʃis/ the work **(Comments)**

S: (…), please
S: callaros que (…) por favor
T: shss, va, come on and work, shss, for five more minutes… five more minutes

(Lesson 8) 2nd A, April the 26th, 2003

T3: Instructions

T: Today is April the 26th. We are going to correct, shsss, we are going to correct page 86 in our work..in our book, 86 in our student's book.

S: (...)

T: Sí, tipo examen. Shss,

S: (…)

T: 86 in our book, student's book. ... When we finish correcting the exercises and the sentences, I'll give you your exams so you can see them.Vale, exercise A. Exercise A on page 86. Shss…Marta.

S: this or this?

T: A.

S: A

T: shss, please, be quiet.

S: one moment

T: This is tipo examen, eh?

T2: Linguistic Task

S: Thank goodness my television is working now. You don´t have to tell me now if you don't want to.

S: (…)

S: he hecho la A

T: Shhh! (...)

(Errors 1, 2, 3 and 4)

S: You´ll be hearing rock music at the concert tomorrow night. This factory produces millions of /peirs/ of jeans every day. I had been travelling for a year before I reached Rio. Would you accept her advice if you were me? Oliver /seid/ that he would phone next week. I wish those /nois/ people would go /auei/. I'm trying to sleep.**(A/A/A/A)**

S: (…)

T: Please, be quiet!

S: (…)

S: would go

(Errors 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11)

T: would go, Carmen, please, shss **(Q)**

S: By the time we arrive there, everyone will have gone home. You didn't eat very much last time..last night. This /buildiŋ/, which was /built/ one year ago, doesn't look very safe. The boys are /exautid/. They have been working all day. We can't find Tim. He might have gone to the pub. Were the police /informed/ of the /krim/ of the crime? Have you seen that film yet? She asked why they had come so late. Madonna, whose latest disc is great, is my /favourit/ female singer. He crashed the car while he was crossing the bridge. If we don't hurry, we will miss the show. He told me not to open the window. **(Self-correction/A/A/A/A/Self-correction/A)**

T: you did very good, yes.

S: (…)

T: what? Page, page 86. A ver, Sara, please, start, exercise B is very important, es tipo examen, mañana tenéis examen, shhh! Exercise B is very important.

S: very important

(Errors 12, 13 and 14)

T: Vale. **(Q)**

S: Neither the dress nor the /ʃirt/ /suiter/ her. After trying the jeans on, he bought them. Joanne has seen sleeping for three months. **(A/A/A)**

T: has been sleeping, ¿no? Rocío, shss. **(F)**

(Error 15)

S: Unless you warn them, they will continue buying /ðes/ jeans..these jeans **(Self-**

correction)

(Errors 16 and 17)
T: And five
S: The use of /pestiθid/ has been /boun/ by the British government. **(A/A)**
T: What does **banned** mean? **(F)**
S: ¿Puedes repetir? **(Q)**
T: The use of these **pesticides** has been **banned**, ha sido prohibido, by the British government.] **(F)**

(Errors 18 and 19)
[Six **(Q)**
S: If you had /inventid/ Alice, he would have gone to the party **(A/A)**
T: She would have gone to the party.] **(F)**

(Error 20)
[Seven **(Q)**
S: I wish my neighbours didn't make, do? **(A)**
T: No, I wish my neighbours didn't make a lot of noise, or wouldn't make **(F)**
S: Vale. **(Acc)**

(Errors 21 and 22)
T: 8 **(Q)**
S: The invitation /arrif/ Ø week. **(A/A)**
T: Last week. **(F)**
S: ah, vale **(Acc)**
T: The invitation **arrived** last week.] **(F/Conf)**

(Error 23)
[Nine **(Q)**
S: She /kuldent/ understand why I /kuldent/ help her. **(A)**

(Errors 24, 25 and 26)
T: Vale, and ten **(Q)**
S: The /painters/ are painting /our/ /hous/.**(A/A/A)**

T: Vale, any questions? No questions? OK, get on your student's book page ... No, no, excuse me, excuse me, 91 and 93. Page 91 and 9... shhh! 91 exercise A and B. Shhhh! Gonzalo, no?

T1: Communication
S: (...) la clase Teri?
(Ss laugh)
S: es que he llegado tarde, ok (...)
T: Page 91. ¿Nadie lo tiene hecho?
(Ss talk)
T: class, shss, …hale, everybody listen

T2: Linguistic Task
S: Listen? Grammar?
S: yes

(Error 27)
T: Grammar. A. **(Q)**
S: I wish you told me... **(A)**
T: had told me **(F)**
S: had told me what your plans were **(Acc)**
T: Good, number 2 **(Conf)**

S: Why did he do that? He should have known better

S: ha, ha

T: shss

S: She asked whether the film was showing the following night…If you take these pills, you will feel better… We were listening to the radio when the electricity was cut off.

T: Very good David

S: Thank you very much. Thank you.

(Ss laugh)

(Error 28)

T: Ok, exercise B, ¿empiezas? Shss **(Q)**

S: Nearly half of the world's cocoa beans are produced in the /ivori/ Coast, in West Africa. **(A)**

T: Now we are correcting exercise B. Listen.

S: (…)

(Errors 29 and 30)

T: hale, are produced, shss **(Q)**

S: On these cocoa farms, many of the workers, who might work 12 to 14 hours a day, are boys between the ages of 12 and 16. They typically earn about 120 pounds a year, but some of them have not been /risaiviŋ/ their pay for as much as the past four years. **(A/A)**

S: (…)

S: cómo lee, ¿eh?

T: shss

(Errors 31, 32 and 33)

S: The situation is not being Ø closely by any government agencies or officials in the /ivori/ Coast. The problem is particularly embarrassing for some American chocolate manufacturers, who import tons of cocoa beans which come from the /ivori/ Coast each year. How can we help these boys? One idea is to stop buying /ivori/ Coast chocolate. However, critics say that prices would be /driven/ down by such a boycott, wages would fall, and the workers would get even less. **(A/A/A)**

T: Ok, good. In your other book, in the workbook...

S: Teri, Teri

T: What?

T1: Communication

S: Los exámenes, Teri

T: Los exámenes se van a quedar en el sobre porque no me estáis haciendo caso

(Ss talk)

T: 6 de media

S: Vamos a corregir las frases

T: 6 de media.

S: ah, seis de media

T: Un 6 de media

S: Pero con sacar un 6 en la tercera ya hace media, no?

T: No, no, no

S: ¿Cómo que no, Teri?

T: Que no. Pero en cuanto al examen global no. Eso no es justo, no habéis trabajado lo mismo en las 3 evaluaciones.

S: (…)

T: yo no he bajado ningún punto

S: Sí que lo has bajado y lo sabes

T: no, hale, ahora venimos con puntos bajados. Hale, page 57 in the workbook

S: what page?

T: 57. Sobre la marcha vamos a hacer este ejercicio, repaso, review for exam tomorrow. Shss, exercise, esto, wait, no, page 57 no, page 58

S : yes
T : exercise B. Page 58, exercise B.
S : B
T : Page 58, Gonzalo… Vale condicionales
S: ¿Quién lo hace?
T: Gonzalo

T2: Linguistic Task
S: B
T and Ss: Sí
S: If Molly, a ver, espera, if Molly had learnt to swim when she was younger, it would have been easier for her

(Error 34)
T: Vale, if Molly had learnt. Number two **(Q)**
S: I could bought stamps... **(A)**
T: could have bought **(F)**

S: stamps when I was at the post office but I didn't think of it
(Ss talk)
T: vale, bueno, shss
S: no, no, Teri, Teri
T: shss
S: (…)
T: vale, everybody get quiet, please, we're doing exercise B on page 58

T1: Communication
S: ¿tú no habías dicho 57?
T: no, 58
S: no, habías dicho 57
S: va, tío, va
S: lo has dicho

T2: Linguistic Task
(Error 35)
T: shss, …Vale, number 3 **(Q)**
S: Over the years many people have been helping by the.. **(A)**
T: have been helped **(F)**

S: by Dr Wilder. She's a great doctor.
T: four
S: She asked me if I had any idea when the concert would end

(Errors 36, 37 and 38)
T: tomorrow, just a minute, tomorrow at the exam (...) ese tipo de rellenar, con condicionales.Vale, five **(Q)**
S: she, er, I can't afford to go out tonight. I wish I had more /monei/. The, six, the police told me that my stolen car had been loca..**(A/A)**
T: hadn't **(F)**
S: hadn't been /lokaleit/ yet.] **(Acc/A)**

(Errors 39 and 40)
[When I finally /found/ Lynn and Joe, they have been sitting in the park for 20 minutes. **(A/A)**
T: had has dicho no? **(F)**
S: Sí **(A)**

(Errors 41, 42, 43 and 44)
T: Vale, eight **(Q)**

S: If you go to, if you go to the Paris this summer, you will have a great time. Have you taken your driving test yet? Ten: The book I read last summer I be. No. Have written **(A/Self-correction/A)**

T: was written **(F)**

S: was written by the well- known /outor/ **(Acc/A)**

T: Vale, I'm going to read exercise B on page 59, exercise B. It's tipo examen. Rewrite. El otro libro…vale **(Conf)**

S: ¿Cuál has dicho?

T: Exercise B.On page 59. It's typical exam exercise. Vale number one. The teacher has cancelled the lesson. Starting again rewriting with the lesson sería: The lesson has been cancelled by the teacher

S: ¿Dónde estamos?

T: Exercise B on page 59

S: 59

T: 59. The other book

S: Repeat, please

T: The lesson has been cancelled by the teacher. Number two. Have you ever worked in a factory before? Tom asked me

S: if

T: if I had ever worked in a factory

S: If I had?

T: if I had ever worked in a factory. Three. It wasn't a good idea to leave the door unlocked. Starting with you. You shouldn't have left the door unlocked.

S: you should?

T: You shouldn't have left the door unlocked.

S: espera, please

T3: Instructions

T: Vale. My sister Margaret has got a good job working with computers. Stop. She lives on her own. Esto es un pronombre relativo, ¿verdad? Uniendo las frases. My sister Margaret, comma, who has got a good job working with computers, comma, lives on her own

T2: Linguistic Task

S: who have what?

(Error 45)

T: My sister Margaret, comma, who has got a good job working with computers, comma, lives on her own. Shss, five. Scientists have discovered a cure for that disease. What can we do with that sentence? ¿qué es? **(Q)**

S: pasiva **(A)**

S: what? **(Q)**

S: (…)

T: eh? **(Q)**

S: (…)

T: no, no, pero..scientists have discovered a cure for that disease, está en activa, ¿verdad? **(F)**

S: sí **(Acc)**

T: Entonces lo tenemos que pasar a …

Ss: Pasiva

T: A cure for that disease has been discovered. Dan couldn't find the town because he didn't have a good map. Es condicional empezando con if. If Dan had had a good map,

S: Had qué?

T: if Dan had had

S: had had

T: a good map, he would have found the town. He said the firm would take care of all expenses. Al estilo directo. The firm will take care of all expenses

S: will take, ¿no?

T: will take

S: ¿Puedes repetir?

T: the firm will take care of all expenses. It's possible that Kelly is coming to the party. Kelly may come to the party. Puede, puede que venga. Kelly may come to the party. We called your name several times but you didn't answer. Activa, pasamos a pasiva. Your name was called several times but you didn't answer. Y ten. It´s a shame. ¿Qué significa? What does it's a shame mean? Qué lastima, es una pena. It´s a shame that the shop isn't open today. I wish the shop was open today

S: I wish qué?

T: the shop was open today

S: Por qué was?

T: estuviera

S: pero por qué se pone el was?

T: Porque I wish the shop was open

S: Pues yo no lo entiendo

S: ¿was open qué más?

T: I wish the shop was open today. Marilo, después the I wish un pasado

S: today?

T: ha?

S: today

T: today

S: ¿puedes repetir la nueve?

T: ¿Cuál?¿la nueve?

S: sí

T: Your name was called several times but you didn't answer

T1: Communication

S: (…) para el examen?

T: ha?

S: (…)

T: el cinco, seis y siete

S: (…)

T: pero puedes (…)er, page 73, página 73, shss

S: Del workbook?

S: Y los exámenes que

T: Al final, tenemos que corregir frases. (…) time para que repaséis con el B. Page 72, 73. Shss. Tipo examen. El B, ¿está corregido, no?

S: sí

T: el B, el G y el H. Hale, todos esos son tipo examen. Ahora get out the sentences the dictated sentences, we are going to correct them on the board. José Vicente one and two. Marilo three and four.

S: ¿Qué?

T2: Linguistic Task

T: Sentences. Sandra five and six.

(Ss talk)

T: shss, shss…

(Ss talk)

T: Marilo, why don't you come up to this side of the board? Shss

S: (…)

T: Están poniendo las frases en la pizarra.

S: (…) nos toca?

T: three, four…

(Ss talk)

T: hale, number 1. Lo compraría si pudiera permitírmelo. Shhh! I would buy it if I could afford it.

S: ay, se me ha olvidado(…)

S: o.k.

(Error 46)

T: Any question? Number 2, ¿dónde está el error? **(F)**

S: el hardly **(Peer-correction)**
T: Claro, hardly es apenas. Hard es adjective and adverb., duro y duramente. If you work hard you will earn the raise, el aumento, that you want. **(Conf/F)**

S: ¿Increase se puede poner?
T: Porque increase es aumentar, no es sustantivo.
S: aumentar
T: Number three. Él no se habría ido a menos que hubiese sido preciso. He wouldn't have gone unless it had been necessary, correct, ¿no?
S: El si no vale lo mismo que unless, no?

(Error 47)
T: O, if it hadn't is also correct. Unless or if it hadn't. If you agree, we will go. Bien. Number 5. If he had been here, I would have told him something. Bien, si habéis dicho I would have said (T writes on BB) something, is also correct. Would you do it if I asked you to? (T writes on BB) Would you do it if I asked you to? ¿Lo harías, no? **(Q)**
S: lo harás **(Peer-correction)**
T: ¿Lo harás? Will (T writes on BB) entonces instead of would, will. Will you do it if I ask you to? **(Acc/F)**

S: Teri, es hadn't been necessary
T: If it hadn't been necessary or unless it had been
S: Una cosa, en la 4 puede ser (...)
T: No, if you agree, we will go. Dida, seven and eight. Carlos nine and ten, Nacho, eleven and twelve.
S: no borres, no borres
S: si hay sitio de sobra
(Ss write on BB)
S: Teri…es told him (…)? En la cinco
T: Told him something.
S: ¿y el (…) ese?
T: en vez de told him.
(Ss write on BB)

T1: Communication
S: ¿han salido bien los exámenes, Teri? (…)
T: (…)?
S: (…) selectivo (…) de gramática, o sea, me refiero a final de curso

T2: Linguistic Task
T: no, hale seven. Si me hubieses escuchado, no tendrías ese problema. If you had listened to me, you wouldn't have that problem. Correct.
S: ¿Está bien, Teri?
T: Sí. Eight, if you were me, what would you advise me?
S: ¿eso está corregido?
S: ¿Qué pone ahí?
T: Were…
S: (…)
T: sí
S: la ocho 8 (…)?
T: todas, seven and eight are correct. nine and ten. Ojalá que no llevase tanto maquillaje. I wish she didn't wear (T corrects on BB) so much make up. ¿A qué universidad irías si pudieras elegir? What university would you go to (T corrects on BB) if you could choose? Correct… eleven and twelve. Yo de ti no iría. If I were you I wouldn´t go. Correct. Y twelve. Si al menos estuviéramos de acuerdo, ha?
S: Teri, ¿en la 5 es told something o have said something?
(T corrects on BB)
T: If only we agreed. ¿En cinco?
S: ¿qué es told him something o said something?
T: da igual.

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S: ah, da igual
T: Vale. If only we agreed
S: ¿Puede ser If at least?
T: If at least we agreed.
S: Teri, por favor
T: ¿Cuántos? ... how many more? ¿Qué falta, son 15?
S: Son 14
S: son 14
T: 13 y 14 esto …

(Lesson 9) 2nd A, April the 29th, 2003

T2: Linguistic Task

T: Today we are going to look at. Remember what? False friends (...) words that look alike, words that are often confused.

S: Teri, ¿dónde estás?

T: (…)We are going to see the meaning and then you are going to do the exercise. What does lose mean? Lose means perder y loose?

S: loose?

T: with two 'o's.

S: (…)

T: What? ... (...) vale lose, perder y loose, with two o's suelto. A ver, their y there, está claro, ¿no?

S: loose, pero..

(Error 1)

T: shss, se pronuncia igual pero their, de ellos y there, allí. Advice with a c y advise with an -s. What is the difference? **(Q)**

S: una cosa es avisar y la otra advertir **(A)**

T3: Instructions

T: Vale, the first one advice with a c is consejo, a noun, sustantivo. Y advise con s es aconsejar, verb. The same with practice and practise. Practice with a -c es práctica, a noun, y practise with an -s es practicar, verb. Five, weather y whether, está claro. Weather es el tiempo, clima, y whether es si. I don't know whether she will come or not. No sé si vendrá o no, whether, if. Beside y besides, with an –s. The first word, beside is a preposition, al lado de, al lado de, preposition y besides is in addition, además de. She speaks English besides French. Stationery with an -e, stationary with an -a. Stationery with an -e, the first one (strange sound) **(F)**

T2: Linguistic Task

S: cuidado

S: ¿Qué pasa?

T: shss, a, a papelería (...) los sobres, stationery and stationary with an -a, estacionario fijo, estacionario fijo.

S: ¿cómo?

T: estacionario, fijo, en un sitio sin moverse.

S: ah, vale

S: Teri, ¿qué has..

S: (…)

T: a ver, todo lo referente a papel, sobres, folios,

S: ¿una papelería, no?

S: y ¿cuál es la traducción?

T: Referente a papelería

S: Material de …

T: Shhhh! De cartas

S: ah, vale

(Error 2)

T: Accept, accept y agree. Accept es aceptar y agree es acordar. A ver, comprehensive and understanding. What does comprehensive mean? **(Q)**

S: Comprensivo **(A)**

T: No. That's what they want you to think it is. Comprehensive es completo. **(F)**

S: completo **(Acc)**

T: completo, por ejemplo, a comprehensive dictionary es un diccionario completo, que tiene de todo, y understanding **(Conf)**

S: comprensivo

T: comprensivo… comprensivo

S: (…)

T: ¿sen..cómo?

S: Sensato

T: Sensato, no es sensible, es sensato y sensitive, …

S: Sensible

(Errors 3 and 4)

T: Sensible. Sensitive, sensible. Actually y now. What does actually mean? **(Q)**

S: actualmente **(A)**

S: actualmente **(A)**

S: Actualidad **(A)**

S: actualmente **(A)**

T: No. No, no, no es actualmente. Es de hecho, de hecho. Y now? **(F)**

S: Ahora

T: Ahora, actualmente. Control es controlar y check es revisar, comprobar… Teacher and professor. Teacher es cualquier profesor, maestro, profesor, yo I'm a teacher, y professor son los

S: de universidad

T: de la universidad, catedrático. También se usa como título, Professor Jones. Vale, affect y effect. Affect is a verb, afectar y effect is a noun,

S: efecto

T: el efecto... Past y passed se pronuncian igual, past con -t es, pasar por, y passed con -ed es el pasado del verbo, aprobar o pasar.

S: Past con t es aprobar?

S: El pasado de aprobar

T: El pasado y el participio

S: el pasado, in the past

T: en el pasado, a ver, economic y economical. Economic es todo lo referente a la economía. The economic situation. Y economical es barato, cheap, cheap

S: (…)

T: the first one is, economic es todo lo referente a la economía y economical, cheap, barato. Principal, principal,…principal y principle. Se pronuncian igual. Principal, the first one es más importante, main, chief, más importante, también es el director del colegio.

S: sí

T: The principal of the school es …

S: Los principales

T: sí. Y principle, the second one es principio o principios. Puede ser con una -s … Grateful and thankful. Does anybody know the difference?

S: (...)

T: ha?

S: no

T: Grateful es

S: dar gracias

T: dar las gracias a alguien, I´m grateful to my parents y thankful es dar las gracias por algo. I'm thankful for all that I have… Vale, lend y borrow. Lend es

S: Prestar

T: Prestar y borrow

S: Pedir prestado

T: Coger o pedir prestado. Quite y quiet. Quite es bastante, rather, es lo mismo y quiet

S: callado

T: callado, tranquilo, pacífico. A ver, can..canal, the first one, y channel. Canal, the first one, son los canales, canales de…

S: De agua

(Error 5)

T: De agua. Esto, ojo, los canales de Venecia, los canales de **(Q)**

S: La Mancha **(A)**

T: No, no, el Canal de La Mancha, iba a decir esto, el canal de La Mancha como es, esto no está hecho por el hombre **(F)**

S: Natural

T: Natural, se dice con el segundo, channel, the British Channel

S: ¿pero channel no es canal de televisión?

T: También. Channel son canales de la radio o de televisión, pero todos el Suez, canal, The Suez Channel, con el segundo, Panama Channel.

S: (…)

T: ¿vale?

S: como (…) como (…)?

T: sí…channel

S: (…)

T: canales de agua

S: canales

T: canales del agua y de televisión, y canales naturales de agua. Vale, priceless y valueless, priceless es de precio incalculable, de gran precio muy (…) y valueless es lo mismo que dice el nombre, sin valor. Con mucho valor y sin valor

T1: Communication

S: ¿Has oído lo del cuadro de Picasso?

T: Eh?

S: Lo del cuadro de Picasso.

T: ¿Por cuánto se ha vendido?

S: 84 millones de euros

S: Eso es cultura

(Ss talk)

T2: Linguistic Task

T: A ver. Invaluable y worthless.

(Ss talk)

T: Invaluable, shss

S: (...)

T: vale, invaluable is de gran valor, de valor incalculable, de gran valor, shss, y worthless, no vale nada. Prácticamente es lo mismo que los dos anteriores.

(Error 6)

S: Entonces es lo mismo que /priseles/ **(Comments)**

S: Que si. Lo acaba de decir

(Errors 7 and 8)

T: A ver. Continuously y continually: a little difficult to explain. Yesterday it rained continuously. La primera sería sin parar todo el día, sin parar de llover. Y si digo Yesterday it rained continually, **(Q)**

S: a continuación **(A)**

T: the second one, quiero decir que por la mañana llovió, paró, y luego continuó lloviendo pero **(F)**

S: Alternando, intermitente **(Acc)**

T: parando **(Conf)**

S: alternando **(Acc)**

S: a continuación **(A)**

T: ¿continuación? Con..**(F)**

S: continuamente **(A)**

T: Continuamente sería la primera **(F)**

S: y la segunda intermitentemente **(Acc)**

T: Con pausa. Con pausa también. Shss, vale éste es, el siguiente es hard y **(Conf)**

S: hardly

T: hardly. Hard y hardly. Hard la primera es duro, duramente, adjetivo y adverbio, entonces ¿qué significa hardly?

S: Apenas

S: Apenas

T: Apenas. No tiene nada que ver con duramente, ¿eh?. Si me pones She works hardly es apenas trabaja, ¿vale? Avoid y prevent. Avoid es evitar, a veces adrede, evitar y prevent prevenir,

impedir.

S: Y avoid?

T: Evitar. Maybe, todo junto

S: quizás

T: es quizás, a lo mejor, tal vez, perhaps, sinónimo, y may be

S: Puede ser

T: Puede ser. Puede que. May be, la segunda nunca puede venir al principio de la frase, al principio de la frase vendría maybe, la primera. Rise rose risen y raise raised raised.

S: Aumentar

T: Rise rose risen es elevar, subir… y raise raised raised es hacer, hacer elevar o levantar. Raise your hands, er, ¿qué?

S: (…)

T: con algún esfuerzo

S: La primera es subir y ya está

T: Por ejemplo el humo sube: Smoke rises, smoke rises, pero

S: can you repeat, please?

T: Raise (…) your hand elevas la mano, levantar. Steal stole stolen y rob robbed robbed. Steal stole stolen es robar, es cualquier cosa que cogemos y nos llevamos. Por ejemplo: She steals

S: robar

T: a tape recorder, you steal a tape recorder, but you rob a bank.

S: (…)

T: No coges el banco y te lo llevas, ni coges a una persona y te la llevas. Atracas.

S: ah, bueno, ya

T: Más bien rob robbed robbed es para atracos

S: atracar

T: y steal stole stolen es robar cualquier cosa que nos podamos llevar. Un coche, puedes decir también steal the car, te llevas el coche o rob the car, te llevas lo que hay en el coche

S: ¿qué, qué, qué?

S: ¿cuál es la diferencia?

(Ss talk)

T: Shhh!

S: ¿el coche sería entonces steal y (…)?

(Ss talk)

T: shss, vale … Juan. Steal stole stole es robar cualquier cosa y llevárselo o robar dinero o robar un monedero y rob robbed robbed es you rob Noemi porque no la cojo a ella y me la llevo me llevo el pendiente o el dinero o …

S: si no sería secuestro

T: Si me llevo a una persona es (…)

S: Un secuestro

S: Teri! (…) y si quitas pastillas es robar?

T: ¿Unas pastillas?

S: Pastillas de freno, ha, ha

(Ss talk)

T: Vale, journey y trip.

(Ss talk)

T1: Communication

T: (…) pequeño. Ahora, ahora, ¡basta ya! shss

S: Now

T: Now I'm going to tell you your (…) that I want you to do the exercises.

(Ss talk)

T: esto es (…)

(Ss talk)

T: a ver, Juan!

S: sí, sí, sí, sí

T: something very important. O.k. if your grade, if your grade is marked out, and there's another one beside it,

(Ss talk)

T: if you have, shss

S: ¿Lo puedes decir en castellano?

S: es porque..
T: Bien, si veis que la nota ha sido cambiada y al lado hay otra nota es porque luego me di cuenta que no estaba … y he ido revisando los exámenes (…)
S: (…)
T: eh?
S: (…)
T: Vale, Laura
(Ss talk)
T: Andrés…Sandra…Dulce
S: Dulce
T: Magdalena…Natalia…Marc…
S: un ocho coma dos
(Ss talk)
T: Carlos
S: un ocho coma ocho
T: (…)
S: perfecto
S: un regalito
T: Alicia! Nacho!
S: espera, espera, espera, espera
T: Vicente… (…)…

(Lesson 10) 2nd A, May the 6th, 2003

T3: Instructions

T: Ok, today, shhh, …(…) are in preparation for el selectivo, ..., una pregunta de dos puntos y medio viene de aquí de ese tipo que cambia rewrite ... activa pasiva

S: ¿Esto va a ir en el selectivo?

T: Sí. Hombre pero escribiendo, cuando tu escribes una vez (…)

S: Ah!

T: ¿vale?

S: Vale

T: vamos a ver los cambios, because, los cambios, the first one is count nouns and non-count nouns. Count nouns are contables y non-count nous are incontables. For count nouns we use many, muchos o muchas, few es negativo, poco o poca y a few es (…) unos cuantos unas cuantas y fewer es el comparative

S: ¿el cómo?

T: Menos

S: ah menos

S: ¿Y many cómo has dicho?

S: muchos

T: Muchos. Los demás much, mucho mucha, little es negativo, poco o poca, a little es positivo, sería un poco o una poca y less es para menos.

S: vale

T2: Linguistic Task

S: repite little, ¿little qué has dicho que es?

T: eh?

S: little

T: Poco o poca

S: ¿Negativo?

T: Negativo, sentido negativo

S: Y una cosa, ¿a few es contable o incontable?

S: (…)

S: ¿contable o incontable?

T: unos cuantos.

S: contable, ¿no?

T3: Instructions

(Error 1)

T: Vale (…) menos, comparative. Vale and there's one of each, on the board para que lo veais. Let's see the first one. There aren't as many problems with the new traffic system as we expected. ¿Eso qué es? ¿Comparativo, no? The as…as. Entonces ¿problems es non-count or count? **(Q)**

S: Non-count **(A)**

S: Count **(Peer-correction)**

T: Count. One problem, two problems, three problems. Comparative for count nouns, you have here fewer en el cambio de estructura. Vale, there are, sería **(Conf/F)**

T2: Linguistic Task

S: fewer

T: (T writes on BB)are fewer problems with

S: the new traffic..

T3: Instructions

T: with the new traffic system than, than, than we expected. Cambiamos el as… as, problems es contable elegimos fewer, there are fewer problems with the new traffic system

S: than

T: than we expected. Vale, on each one, each of the other ones (…) vale? (...) So y such. So es tan y such es tan también. With the exception that so goes with an adjective and no noun.

S: no…

T: so goes with an adjective and no noun. Such, or such as,

S: What is the meaning of such?

S: Tan

T: Tan.(…) So goes with an adjective and no noun and such goes with a noun and a positive adjective. Vale, look at the first one. The film was so boring that I fell asleep. La película era tan

S: aburrida

(Error 2)

T: aburrida que me dormí. Cambiando changing the structure, it's, beggining with It was,

S: so boring **(A)**

T: (T writes on BB) it was such a boring **(F)**

S: no, so boring **(A)**

T: such a boring film, such y lo mismo **(F)**

S: ¿ahí no es (…)? **(Q)**

T: claro, porque es lo mismo **(F)**

S: ¿no sería (…)?

T: (…)

S: Teri with such siempre pasa si es adjetivo

T: a so

S: o sea que si pone era aburrido, es aburrir

T: Such siempre lleva un sustantivo

S: (…)

T: Vale the verb cambia too y enough. Too y enough. Too with and adjective y luego el verbo en infinitivo. Enough con adverb, bueno, not enough, y adjetivo y enough y el verbo.

S: ¿qué significan?

T: shss, too es demasiado y enough, not enough,

S: Bastante

T: suficiente, bastante. Look at the (…): The water was too shallow to swim in. El agua estaba demasiado poco profundo para nadar. Cambiando con el deep en paréntesis sería. (T writes on BB) The water, el not, wasn't deep, adjetivo y ahora enough... ¿Vale?

S: el to..

S: ¿El enough cuando va delante? Cuando es un (…)

T: No va delante.

S: ¿Qué no?

T: That is enough es suficiente, pero not, en el cambio con too siempre hay not enough

S: Enough siempre va después del verbo

T: Sí. Vale, look at the next (…) el too y enough, no, ya está, el so y el too.

S: yeah

T: So, más adjective, más that y el resto de la frase. Too más adjective más for más objeto e infinitivo. Esto parece fórmulas de matemáticas.

S: el significado, (…)

S: (…) matemáticas, Teri.

T: Look at the first one.

S: ¿el significado es el mismo de antes?

T: sí, tan y too demasiado. Vale, look at the first one: The case, la maleta, the case was so heavy, tan pesada, that he couldn't lift it, que él no la pudo levantar. The case, empezando con lo mismo, sería, the case (T writes on BB) was too

S: heavy for

T: heavy for

S: him

T: him to

S: lift

T: lift. A ver, el too más adjetivo más for más objeto más verbo en infinitivo. Vale, although, in spite of, despite. Although, aunque, in spite of y despite, a pesar de,

S: ¿A pesar de although? ¿qué significa..?

T: Aunque, although aunque.

S: Can you repeat?

T: In spite of, despite a pesar de que.

S: can you repeat, please, in spite of?

T: in spite of, (…) a pesar de que. Shss.
S: despite this one, can you repeat?
T: A pesar de,
S: a pesar de
T: Vale, although..
S: ¿Y in spite of qué es?
T: lo mismo, in spite of y despite are (…)
S: ah, (…)
T: sí
S: ah, o.k.
T: vale, although goes with a subject and verb, always, and in spite of y despite go with sustantivo or gerundio. Vale, Although he is bad-tempered, aunque él es malhumorado, de mal humor, she loves him, ¿vale? Despite..
S: ¿qué es bad-tempered?
T: (T writes on BB) Malhumorado. Shss, Despite, qué viene después?
S: Sustantivo
T: O gerundio. Despite being
S: bad-tempered
(Ss talk)
S: Teri, Teri, Teri
T: despite..
S: Teri (…)
T: no, despite being bad-tempered, she loves him. Vale, which is the next one?
S: let's go Teri

T2: Linguistic Task
T: In case, en el caso que.
S: in case
T: And the first one está, está hecho. Take an umbrella with you in case it rains, con –s. Take an umbrella with you because it may rain.
S: They are fighting in class, Teri. They are not (…)
(Ss laugh)
T: In case substitutes they may or it may. Ok. Look at the second one.
S: Teri, please (…) stole my..
T: Borja, will you be quiet? Shss, look at the second one.
S: second one.
T: We'll make an early start, partiremos temprano, partiremos temprano, because there may be a lot of traffic, porque puede haber mucho tráfico. Sería: We'll make (T writes on BB) an early start
S: in case
T: in case..

(Error 3)
S: and it's not just in case? can we say just in case? …Can you say just in case? **(Self-correction)**

T: Sí

(Error 4)
S: it's the same thing? **(Q)**

T: Sí, just in case.
S: excuse me

T3: Instructions
T: vale, number three is watch con –ch, es que no se ve. Vale, comparisons, d'you remember how we change in comparisons? Margaret isn't as beautiful as Susan. Susan is more beautiful than Margaret. Eso, los comparatives también son para (...). Y luego pasivas
S: Oh my God
T: Pasivas son cambios de estructuras, reported speech son cambios de estructuras.

(Ss talk)

T: look at Have something done, under reported speech, have something done, es el causativo cuando nosotros mandamos que alguien haga algo para nosotros, no lo hacemos solos. Por ejemplo: I'm going to the dentist, he'll take my tooth out. Ahora lo tenemos que hacer en causativa usando to have object y participio, que sería, I'm going to the dentist to have my tooth taken out.

S: And the next one

T2: Linguistic Task

T: I'm going to the passport office. They'll renew, renovar, mi pasap.. my passport.

S: ¿pare que lo escribes?

T: para que lo recordéis. (…)

S: ya por eso, que…

T: shss, I'm going to the passport office to have my passport renewed.

S: esto ya está hecho

S: ¿eso qué es, obligar a hacer algo?

T: sí. It's the causative. Y después está on one´s own y by oneself, es lo mismo, uno solo. He prefers to work on his own; you can change it and say work by himself.

S: ¿(…), please?

T: on one's own, by himself. You can't play tennis by yourself, you can't play tennis on your own. Y never y ever también es cambio de estructura. I´ve never eaten such good fish. It's the best fish I've ever eaten.

S: what does it mean?

T: er, nunca he comido pescado tan bueno. Es el mejor pescado que jamás he comido

S: such good fish, es el major pescado que he comido

T: pescado, vale, in, shss, start, start working with that, if you have some questions, raise your hands, in, er, 15 minutes, in 15 minutes

S: It is impossible…Teri

T: shss, no, no, no, listen in 15 minutes (...)

S: in what?

T: (…) and I mean hard, hale

(Ss talk)

T: Carmen…what?

S: (…) los exámenes

T: In 15 minutes

S: oh, my God, this is (…)

T: shss, esto no es, it's not homework, it's classwork. Start working y hasta donde llegais

S: recording?

T: Yes, it's recording the class.

S: oh, yes, working is possible

T: vale, va.

S: (…) have a good accent?

T: very good accent

S: (…)

T: er,

S: (…)

T1: Communication

T: Those of you who I think are not working, will not see their exams today.

(Error 5)

S: oh, he don't cares, I see, **(Comments)**

S: yes, I care, I really care, I'm really, really… (…)

T: (…) come here

(Ss talk and work)

T: María Roca is not here today…Octavio

S: Octavio (…) mucho

T: is Octavio sick?

S: no

S: yes, Teri
S: no, he's (…)
T: (…) come here…María, come
(Ss talk)
T: Marta… (…) para venir al examen?
S: no, no, no
T: no tengo mucha confianza en que (…), eh
S: Teri, it's really a (…)
T: en el selectivo, digo
S: sí
T: ninguna confianza
(Ss talk)
T: es lo más importante
S: Teri, Teri, por Dios
T: no, (…) la media
(T and Ss talk)
S: Teri…Teri…I've got a question
(Ss talk)
S: Teri, come here, please… can you…
(Ss talk)
T: ¿os he dicho que (…) hemos decidido para el final?
Ss: no
T: pues escuchad que es muy importante. Hemos decidido que los que tienen en los tres exámenes de gramática la media llega a 5 sin ningún tipo de ayuda, o sea que no es 4.7 o 4.6, que es un 5 o 6 o 7 o 8. (…) vale, ya (…) no hacen el examen global de gramática. Los que tienen por debajo de un 5 hacen el examen global de gramática y el texto también. Tenéis 2 horas para hacer las dos cosas, una hora cada uno.
S: Teri, vas a decir..
T: los que quieren subir nota, de los que tienen 5.45 o un 6 y quieren un 7, esas personas, normalmente la gente de 7, 8 y 9 no van a mejorar mucho la nota en gramática porque (…), pero los de 5, 6 (…)
S: Teri, va a decir quién tiene..
T: shss, los que no hacen gramática, escuchad, es importante, shss, los que no hacen gramática, el texto hará media con su media de gramática.
S: (…)
S: (…)
S: Teri di ya la nota.
(Ss talk)
S: ¿reparto los exámenes?
T: no, (…)
S: Teri, ¿vas a decir quién tiene..?
S: Where is my (…), I don't know where (…)
T: shss
S: Teri (…)
T: vale, voy a repartir los exámenes
S: ¿los puedo repartir yo, Teri?

(Lesson 11) 2nd A, May the 7th, 2003

T3: Instructions
T: today is May, the 7th; we are in Bachiller A, 8:30 in the morning. Vale, today you have to give me your compositions. Page 101. Javier Linares. Compositions. Can you collect all the compositions?
S: of course
(S collects compositions)

(Error 1)
T: OK. Everybody open your books on page 101 (...) page 1-0-1. The title is: Are British woman paid enough? (...) Maria, number one. Why is the group, shss, why is the group Steps mentioned?**(Q)**
S: Because the female /sindʒers/ in the band receive less money than the (…) **(A)**
T: than the male **singers**, shhh! The female singers receive less money, shss, less money than the male singers. Also, also we could say that it's mentioning the group Steps clearly illustrates, clearly shows, clearly points out the inequality of sexes, right? Vale, number 2, Camila: Decide whether the following statements are true or false. (…) de verdad no hay que decir nada, ¿vale? Each male singer in Steps received twice as much as a female singer **(F)**

T2: Linguistic Task
S: true
T: true. And the members of Steps negotiated their salaries together.
S: false
T: false. ¿Estáis atendiendo Javier? Next one: Complete the sentence using information from the text. Use your own words where possible.
S: (…)
T: Ángel,
S: (…)

(Error 2)
T: this is the embarrassing thing in the tape, when someone doesn't have their homework done. A ver, women on the US music scene .. What paragraph are we talking about? **(Q)**
S: (...)
T: What paragraph are we talking about? **(Q)**
S: the second **(A)**
T: The second paragraph? **(F)**
S: the third **(Peer-correction)**
S: the third **(Peer-correction)**

T3: Instrctions
T: no, the third paragraph, third paragraph, shhh! It says: shss, one expert says that this kind of situation is very common and that women in British music are at least ten years behind their counterparts in the USA. So women on the US music scene.. ¿qué podriamos poner? Are paid?, son pagodas, digo are ten years, excuse me, are paid no, are ten years ahead, por delante, of women on the British music scene. Right? Are ten years ahead, 10 años por delante. Excu.. well, later we will look at your exam. **(Conf)**

S: (…)

(Error 3)
T: o.k.? Vale, number four: Choose the best answer according to the text. Ahora Juanmi. In Britain ... **(Q)**

T2: Linguistic Task
S: female singers **(A)**
T: Women in the entertainment industry **(F)**

S: (…)

T: ha?

S: (…)

S: parece mentira

T: bueno pero it's in general, we are talking about all entertainment. Shss,women in the entertainment industry. Number two: some bosses, Jose, some bosses pay female workers less because..

S: They think their husbands´ salaries are enough

T: Vale, la C: They think their husbands´ salaries are enough. Number five, number five, Álvaro, explain in your own words the expression "pay inequality"

S: It means that one person earns less than other for doing the same work.

T: Yeah! Did everybody hear that?

S: sí

T: It means you do the same job but you are paid less, that is inequality. Bien, and number six, Isaac, rewrite the following sentence without changing its original meaning. Julia Roberts is the world's highest paid actress.

S: No actress in the world earns as much as Julia Roberts

T: Vale. No actress in the world earns as much as Julia Roberts.Y Esteban

S: ¿qué?

T: find words or expressions in the text that mean the same as "just and impartial"

S: Fair

(Error 4)

T: Fair. Supposed? **(Q)**

S: /asume/ **(A)**

T: Assumed.] **(F)**

(Error 5)

[Statistics? **(Q)**

S: /figurs/? **(A)**

T: **Figures, figures (F)**

(Error 6)

S: er, while es /uereas/, **whereas (Self-correction)**

T: While, **whereas (Conf)**

S: Y together, ¿no?

T: No, for every..

S: no sé

T: y per, per in line, paragraph five

S: (…)

T: per episode, cada episodio in line

S: while?

T: 31, 32, 33

S: 33

T: 33

S: y while?

T3: Instructions

T: ah, whereas, while, whereas and for every, per, line 33. Then we have the .. vale on page, on page 92 in the same book, you are going to get tired of doing summaries, but for tomorrow, and you have time to work on it, I want you to read Fashion Farming, Fashion Farming has to do with using animals, their skins, their furs for making clothes. I want you to do, write, bueno do the questions and then in number eight, instead of, instead of, what does that mean?

S: en vez de

T: en vez de, instead of writing a formal letter, I want you to write a composition, 100 to 150 words about your opinion using animal fur in the fashion industry

S: (…)?

T1: Communication

T: (...) En las reuniones de coordinación nos dijeron que puede pedir un diálogo en vez de

una comprensión, una narración, un formal letter, un..pero nos dijeron que si era como siempre en Valencia siempre ha habido una opinión a favor y en contra, o tipo resumen, entonces no, diálogo seguro que no habrá, formal letter seguro que no habrá, ¿vale? Y narración sería contra lo que ha pasado en el texto, ¿vale? Todo en el mismo tiempo. Vale, you have time to work on the exercises. In your workbook, if you..when you finish, because you want to finish, page 52 on your workbook (…) page 52 … vale, esto, vocabulary A… 52, Vocabulary A has to do with the text you have to read. El vocabulario del texto. Do A,

S: B

T: no

S: sí

T: Either .... or/ Neither ... nor, Either .... or/ Neither ... nor and Phrasal Verbs with put, Phrasal Verbs with put, in your books, in your students' books on page 131 you have information on either…or/ neither…no and phrasal verbs with put, ¿vale? 131… 131, please, start working now

(Ss work)

S: ¿cómo será?

T: (….) un texto, (…) de gramática, te sale la evaluación (…) y no tienes que (…)

S: ¿Por qué todas son negativas y aquí es (…)?

T: shss

S: Alberto me llamó y me dijo que está estudiando inglés (…) ¿vale?, bueno, eso es lo que me dijo. Él me ha dicho (…)

T: es que él tiene el examen hoy

S: Teri, si por ejemplo en el examen de gramática sacas un ocho, ¿eso te puede subir la media?

T: sí

S: o sea que puedes subirlo hasta lo que..

T: claro, en el global se dejará eso para subir nota, para salvar, para subir nota y nunca para bajar.

S: vale

T: ¿vale?

S: vale

T: y ánimo

S: puede estar hasta el siete

S: puede estar muy bien porque ya sabes que a mi…

T: vale, Cristina, pero ánimo hacia el final, eh?, ¿vale?

S: en el final no hay frases, ¿verdad?

T: no hay frases, ni vocab..

S: ah, ¿ni vocabulario tampoco?

T: ni vocabulario, no, sólo el bloque de gramática, pasivas, estilo directo e indirecto, condicionales, reported speech, esto, el gerundio e infinitivo

S: pero condicionales (…)?

T: no mucho (…) ¿vale? Shss…a ver, Nuria,…busca tu..¿si? what?

S: es que yo no entendía (…)

T: entonces sí

S: ¿no cuenta (…) son continuas?

T: sí, los que han suspendido éste, que tienen la segunda y la primera también, es continua para lo bien, pero, a ver, Isabel,

S: cinco (…)

T: cinco, cinco y seis, sí

S: (…)

T: si fuera seis, seis, cinco, …y David también

S: yo ya

T: and María

S: bien

T: cinco, seis, cinco

S: también, eso es (…)

T: eso es de la recuperación

S: ¿recuperación?

T: ¿tenías un cinco o seis en la primera?

S: sí, un cinco, espera que saque la agenda

T: no, si lo tengo aquí
S: seis
T: no, eso es la segunda, en la primera un cinco, y seis y cinco, sí, de (…)
S: (…)
T: eh?
S: (…)
T: seis, seis, seis (…)…shss
S: (…) buscar en el diccionario
T: (…) como tiempo (…) long ago
S: lo que necesitas es (…)

T2: Linguistic Task
(Error 7)
T: have been, have been, ¿qué te dice que tienes que poner? **(Q)**
S: –ing **(A)**
T: no, have been, un participio, un participio, discriminated **(F)**

S: (…)
T: no
S: ¿no podría ser (…)?

(Error 8)
T: podría ser discriminated against, discriminado, ¿vale? Es que discriminando, no, discriminados, against, they, shss, couldn't vote, work, think, they only stayed at home cleaning and taking care of the **children,** no lleva –s, ya es plural, ¿vale? **(F)**
S: uhum **(Acc)**

(Error 9)
T: and husbands. Now, the situation..¿situation qué persona es? **(F)**
S: tercera **(A)**
T: entonces…**has** improved, although they still have some problems like their] **(F)**

(Error 10)
[¿y un puesto de trabajo? **(F)**
S: job **(Acc)**
T: sería mejor aquí, jobs, ¿no? or salaries.] **(Conf)**

(Error 11)
[In my opinion, those sexes are (…) tú deberías marcar bien claro que esto es un párrafo, ¿eh? Right, shss, shss, in my opinion, those sexes are similar, woman and man have equal ability. In addition, comma, both are capable of doing the same **(F/F)**
S: job **(Acc)**
T: job. For this reason, colleagues on the same…bueno, work **(Conf)**

S: lo que quería decir es que..
T: sí, ahí está bien, should earn (…) of money. O podrías poner…como sinónimo, pero está bien, same salary. Last, but still important, last, but not least, es lo mismo, se suele decirlo así, last, but still important
S: no, esto es que me lo aprendí porque nos diste unas hojas de conectores y eso
T: ah, more people should change their minds and think that there are people …
S: era para no repetir tanto

(Errors 12 and 13)
T: people, sí, pero (…) present, no, tenías que poner eso, each person, cada persona, porque si no esto tiene que ser plural, por eso te lo he cambiado, all people have equal (…) and personalities for life. As soon as some bosses, as soon as? ¿tan pronto como? **(F/F)**
S: no, así que **(A)**

T1: Communication

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T: so, so, some bosses should take equal work, should pay, vale, a man and a woman equal pay…equally, equally for equal works, ¿vale? Ah, because we (…) support the family and pay the (…), vale…no está muy allá, sería un cuatro o un cinco, un cuatro sobre diez. Como creo que lo puedes hacer mejor, es que haces hoy, hazlo sin diccionario pensando y desde allí, ¿vale? Shss, ah, uhm, vale, let's see who's working, esto, you have to read this before you do this, porque el vocabulario está aquí **(F)**

S: ah, lo estamos (…)

T: ¿sabes? Pero está aquí

S: dye es teñir

T: dye es teñir

S: y ¿qué tiene que ver con arroyo? ¿stream es arroyo?

T: arroyo

S: y ¿qué tiene que ver con thread y con buttton?

T: pues, el, el, la palabra que no no cabe ahí es stream, thread es hilo, botón, teñir, tela, y stream no tiene nada que ver, es elegir la palabra que no..

S: muy rebuscado, ¿eh?

T: eh?

S: está muy rebuscado

T: pues sí, un poco bastante buscado, rebuscado, shss, venga, if you finish your composition today, you can give it to me today and not tomorrow, venga Rafa

S: ya, es que son palabras difíciles

T: es que están aquí

S: adonde?

T: no, en el 92

S: ah, ya, sí en la otra, ya

T: es que, the vocabulary words are, you can find them in the text on page 92…ay, voy a pasar lista, no he pasado lista todavía…

S: (…) el libro (…), que yo no me lo he traído

T: (…)

S: que no me he traído el libro

T: (…)

S: no, me da igual, era (…) me leo, me leo eso y..

(T goes around the class)

T: have (…) have any (…)?...ha? where are they? Four more

S: cuatro

T: (…) please

S: el lunes

T: (…)…(…)…does anybody have any questions?...any questions? Javier, ¿cómo?

S: ya, es que no tengo diccionario

S: hemos hecho esto

T: si..the words are here

S: claro

S: claro

T: después

S: (…)

T: eh? Claro! Look in your book

S: claro, estaban

S: ah

T: either or/ neither nor

S: sí, eso sí

S: (…)

T: ha?

S: ¿aquí una composición normal?, o sea, (…)

T: sí, va 150 words y tu opinión

S: ¿que no sea una carta?

T: no, composition, no, una composition, shss, venga, work, work, …where is Isabel?

S: no lo sé, yo cuando he llegado no había venido aún

T: eh?

S: se habrá dormido

T: shss, Juan

S: ¿esto hay que hacerlo?

T: no

S: pity, ¿what a pity no es qué mala suerte?

T: what a pity qué lástima

S: qué lástima

T: what a shame, ay, hoy tienes, you've got your exam today, any question?

S: bueno

T: come up here and show me what you are studying

S: ¿qué?

T: ven y enséñame lo que estás estudiando… es que necesito mis gafas para verlo bien…es que...

S: lo tengo todo, todos los contenidos, pero (…) me dijo que la pasiva y el reported speech y los condicionales era lo más importante y

T: claro

S: estuve haciendo frases que.. estas frases del cuadernillo nos las dio ella y he vuelto a hacer todas las frases y las más importantes para, o sea esta letra no es la mía, ésta es la corrección

T: pues yo creo que sí

S: esto es reported

T: el reported …bien … ¿activa, pasiva y condicionales no tienes nada?

S: ¿de qué?

T: condicionales

S: ¿de condicionales? Sí, lo tengo ahí

T: ¿este ejercicio? Es que deberías (…) ¿dónde lo tienes?

S: éste de ahí

T: shss…

(Error 14)
S: (…)
T: unable? **(Q)**
S: /enabled/ **(A)**
T: enabled (F)

S: ¿conservar puede ser?

T: (…) enabled is puede… (…) ¿dónde está? ... ¿dónde está?

S: no sé

S: yo lo que quiero saber es el significado de éste

T: ah, enabled? Hacer posible

S: ¿hacer posible?

T: sí … make possible, make possible

S: ¿enabled no es permitir?

T: también, hacer posible

S: furthermore

T: furthermore, además, (…) some people aren't working … that's what I like, silence and work …where is David? … no, give me the other book

S: es que tiene muchos significados

T3; Instructions

T: right, we are looking at phrasal verbs with put: The miners in Namibia put up with very dangerous working conditions, this is soportar, put up with is soportar, put down es menospreciar, to put through is poner, poner un examen, o una inspección, put up, put up si no va con with, es dar cobijo o tener invitados en tu casa, derles algún sitio para dormir, pero si va con with, es aguantar, soportar. Luego put off es posponer, ¿ves? Put the meeting off or put off, da igual. Entonces aquí tienes: The Scott family will be happy to put you…

T2: Linguistic Task

S: up

T: up for the night, darte cobijo. Ask the secretary to put you … ponerte, pasarte a un departamento, estás hablando por teléfono, put through, put you through

S: ah

T: ¿vale? Aquí pone: Could you put me through to the inspector? ¿Me podría poner con el inspector?

S: ah, vale

T: vale

S: es que me pensaba que era poner de, de justo poner aquí

T: no, eso sería put on

S: ya, ya

T: I'll put … forward, put forward, bien, why do you always put me down? You're no better than anyone..menospreciarme

S: ah

T: ¿por qué siempre me menosprecias? Me..

S: es que aquí tengo, en off también es animar, en el diccionario

T: no, posponer es lo único que pone aquí y put, put down, menospreciar

S: vale

T: ¿vale? Why do..why do you always put me down? You're no better than anyone in this room, no eres mejor que nadie. Shaun always puts off studying for his exams. You won't have to put up with her for long, aguantarla

S: vale

T: ¿vale? Se va pronto

S: vale

S: ¿esto qué significa? ¿qué es lo que puedes sacar de la expresión?

S: ¿tú has mirado el diccionario?

T: what can be inferred, qué puedes sacar tú, qué puedes entender tú de la expresión "or at least their facts".

S: qué puedes sacar

T: líneas 5 a 6, vamos a leer líneas 5 a 6, farmers, and a group of crocodile farmers has decided that the facts, or at least their facts, should be brought to the public's attention. O sea que ¿vamos a recibir todos los hechos o sólo los hechos que estos granjeros nos quieren hacer ver?

S: sólo los que..

T: claro, that's the meaning, that we're only going to get the information that the farmers are interested in, ¿sabes?

S: ¿y esto qué significa?

T: enabled, pues si ya sabes que es –ed …poder causar, entonces look for an –ed final, introduced no es, no es (…) "The farmers claim that, contrary to popular belief, crocodiles are not endangered species. They admit that this used to be true in the 1940s and 1950s when there were no restrictions on crocodile hunting in Africa. However legislation was introduced in the 1960s which allowed", enabled, que permitió, ¿vale? Shss, any more questions, if you have any questions, just come here … shss … farms es granjas …I'm going to spend the weekend correcting

S: (…)

T: like a normal, like a normal composition, your opinion …shss

S: the slightest possibility

T1: Communication

T: ni la más mínima posibilidad, incluso, a ver, incluso si hay la más mínima posibilidad… Isabel, ¿qué te pasó en Historia?

S: ¿qué?

T: que qué te pasó en Historia

S: (…)

T: ¿y David qué? Historia

S: (…) o sea tenía un cuatro (…)

T: un cuatro..Isabel tiene muy buenas notas except the History

S: ya, y por culpa de Historia, me ha bajado la media, podía tener un siete

S: ¿y mis notas cómo son?

T: y David has (…) grades except History, Math and Dibujo

S: (…)

T: es que un dos es muy poco

S: es que me salió fatal el examen

T: (…)

S: (…) seis con seis de media

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T: sí, pero el final te puede subir o ya veremos
S: (…) ser, si tienes aprobado con un cinco (…)
T: claro y ocho
S: ¿qué?
T: y algún ocho, ¿no?
(Ss talk about grades)
T: ¿el tres qué?
S: (…)
S: ¿os portaréis bien al final, verdad?
T: siempre, no, esta clase (…) bien, hay alguno…
S: sí, hay (…) esta clase
T: sí, Rafa dijo que había muchas notas, muchos dieces, pero muchos suspendidos también
S: ¿también?
S: yo tengo un ocho
T: en esta clase
S: en esta clase
T: algunos
S: hay algunos, pero…
T: de Física, uno, dos, tres, cuatro, cinco, seis, siete, ocho, nueve, diez, once y doce, trece, trece suspendidos. Y luego de dieces, uno, dos, cuatro.
S: solo
T: pero de nueves hay uno, dos, tres, cuatro, cinco, seis y siete
S: yo tengo un ocho
S: sí, yo también
S: sí, sí
T: un diez, un diez y un nueve, Física
S: en Física
S: tiene todas las notas, todas
S: (…)
T: siete
S: (…)
T: cambiado la evaluación
S: ¿me puedes decir qué tengo yo? ¿en Física?
T: nueve
S: ¿nueve? Ahora hablaré yo con él
T: ha?
S: ya hablaré yo con él
T: ¿tenías un diez?
S: tenía un nueve con cinco
T: bueno, pero…
S: es que la otra evaluación tenía también un nueve con cinco y (…)
S: ¿qué tiene Isabel en (…)? Es que no le dio la nota
S: no le dio la nota, se la guardó
T: hombre
S: (…)
S: Isabel cuenta
T: un cuatro
S: ¿me puedes, me puedes mirar mi nota?
T: nueve, nueve, esto no lo habéis visto, eh?
S: no, no
(Ss laugh)
T: esto no lo habéis visto
S: (…)
T: le había puesto un seis
S: ¿y en Química? Mírame Química y ya
T: ocho
S: ocho
T: todo bien menos Inglés
S: jolín, siempre
S: ¿cuándo vais a dar las notas?

S: (…)
T: de cine, esto, please remember to bring in your compositions tomorrow, shss
S: ¿cuándo dan las notas?
T: you can go out

(Lesson 12) 2nd A, May the 8th, 2003

T1: Communication
T: Today is Thursday, May the 8th
Ss: (speak)
T: Shss,…Vale, everybody open your books on page (...) shss, vale, we are going to correct grammar exercises, shss … bueno, pues a ver si os dejan … shss, vale page 52, exercise A. Camila, si, esto, voy (...) pondré una nota orientativa, pero que no.., hombre
S: que si no lo haces, no…
T: si no lo haces, lo tendré en cuenta
Ss: ah
T: y si lo haces aunque te sale mal la nota, también, bueno te cuenta que lo has hecho, te has esforzado, los que no lo hacen (…) examen global sirve para salvar el curso, para subir nota, para mantener la nota, (…)
S: vale
T: (…) correspondiente, puede estar (…) y nunca, nunca te baja de nota, pero tampoco sube la (…). Shss, vale
S: ¿mañana?
S: ¿tomorrow? ¿tomorrow is the …
T: Tomorrow no, Monday, Monday, shhh! Tomorrow I don't come to school, tomorrow is Friday. Hale, Camila, exercise, can everybody be quiet, please? shhh! Vale, vocabulary A. Working with Words.
S: deadly,

T2: Linguistic task
(Errors 1, 2, and 3)
T: vale, shss, callad, vale Camila **(Q)**
S: deadly, /letal/, /ilegal/ or /fatal/. /illegal/ **(A/A/A)**
T: Illegal is the word that doesn't belong with the other words. Shhh! A ver, what does.. the expression, we are looking for words that don't belong, don't belong, no pertenecen, no encajan en las series de palabras. Vale, illegal is the first one,] **(F)**

(Errors 4 and 5)
[two **(Q)**
S: Thread, /buton/, dye or stream,. Dye **(A/A)**
T: No. Shss, analicemos. It should be stream que es arroyo. Thread es hilo, **button** es botón, dye con y es teñir, teñir **(F/F)**
S: (…)
T: shss, we are saying, we are saying that (…) stream is the important word.] **(Conf)**

(Errors 6, 7 and 8)
[Vale, number 3 **(Q)**
S: /ire'versible/, factory, /in'dustri/ y /manufak'turer/. /ire'versible/
T: Irreversible.] **(F)**

(Errors 9, 10 and 11)
[Number 4 **(Q)**
S: Jeans, garment, /designer/, /developed/. Garment **(A/A/A)**
T: I think it should be **developed**, no? ha? **(F/F)**
S: ¿qué? **(Q)**
T: Developed, desarrollado **(F)**
S: ¿Y garment qué es? **(Q)**
T: Garment es tienda de ropa. **(A)**
S: ah, vale **(Acc)**
T: Jeans lo sabemos todos. Garment es tienda de ropa, **designer**, diseñador y developed, desarrollar.] **(Conf/F)**

(Error 12)
[Vale y 5 **(Q)**

S: barely, almost not, harmless y hardly. Almost not? **(A)**
T: a ver, ¿barely qué significa? **(F)**
S: no lo sé **(A)**
T: apenas, almost not, casi ninguno, o sea, que apenas, harmless, inofensivo and hardly, apenas. So harmless is the word. Vale, luego, shhh! Next we have to do, esto either ... or/ neither ... nor. **(F)**

T1: Communication
S: eh, lo tengo hecho, eh?
S: lo tiene hecho

T2: Linguistic task

(Error 13)
T: vale, a ver, Juanvi, either ... or/ neither ... nor. Shhh! **(Q)**
S: Neither your father nor I has got the time to help you with your homework. We're too /basi/. **(A)**

T: Neither your father nor I …
S: Either Glenn or Tara will show you how the photocopier works.They both know how to use it
T: Either or
S: If you've got any question speak to either me or one, one of the..
T: Either me or one. La pronunciación de estas palabras either y neither.
S: Either, neither
T: Yo pronuncio either o neither, pero en Inglaterra a veces oyes either /aiðer/ o neither /naiðer/ que da igual. ¿Vale? bien
S: Neither Greg nor Pam has got any talent for repairing cars, so don't ask them for help
T: Vale, Neither Greg nor Pam

(Error 14)
S: I thought it /mit/ **(A)**
T: might (F)
S: might be fun to go and see a film, but then it turned out that neither I nor my friends had enough money **(Acc)**

T: Neither I nor my friends, bien
S: You can always count on your friends. Either Ben or Tammy will drive you home if you are drunk
T: a ver this book talks a lot about being drunk. Vale. Phrasal verbs con put. What does put up mean Javier?
S: put up
T: Put up, Nuria, alojar. Put up with, put up with
S: aguantar
S: soportar
T: aguantar, soportar. A ver, put down,
S: menospreciar
T: menospreciar. Put through,
S: poner en una llamada
T: poner una llamada, conectar, vale. Put forward,
S: proponer
T: proponer una idea, una, ¿vale? y put off
S: posponer
T: ha?
S: posponer
T: posponer, y el verbo que los de 6º aprenden a la primera, put on,
S: (…)
T: ha?
S: poner
T: poner, colocar. Vale

(Error 15)
S: o encender, no eso no **(Self-correction)**

T: vale, The Scott family will be happy to put you… The Scott family will be happy to put you…
S: up
T: up for the night. Ask the secretary to put you…
S: through

(Error 16)
T: through to the personal department. I'll put … **(Q)**
S: /for'uard/ **(A)**
T: forward my proposal for the new art studio next week. Why do you always put me…
(F)

Ss: down
T: down. You are not better than anyone in this room. Shaun always puts
S: off
T: off studying for his exams. Y you won't have to put…put up with her
S: put up
T: put up with her for long
(Ss laugh)

T3: Instructions
(Errors 17 and 18)
T: Vale, er, now class I want you to do the following exercises, verbs and prepositions, verbs and prepositions, on page 52 prefixes. Prefixes, prefixes. Hay que añadir o no, hay que decidir si hay que añadir o no, un prefijo para formar una palabra en la, por ejemplo el primero, uno. Many of the villagers, shss, many of the villagers can't read or write. ¿Son qué? Analfabetos. In English how do you say that? Looking at the words below. **(Q)**

T2: Linguistic task
S: /literate/ **(A/A)**
T: literate es que si que sabe, **(F/F)**
S: ¿en cuál estás? **(Q)**
T: Illiterate. Il-, il- delante y sería, Many of the villagers are illiterate. Son analfabetos o no saben escribir ni leer. **(F)**

S: and where is that? Where in the book? Ha, ha
T: right here, Ángel. Shss, ok, do exercise on page 52, verbs and prepositions on page 53 and page 56 … Double page, double page, no para entregar, nada. You can do it on your book
S: what, what, what?
T: Page 56, the whole page. Ok, shhh! We are going to read the text in class right now. Mariano, can you start reading?
S: (…)

(Errors 19, 20 and 21)
T: shss, Juan, Juan do you want to read? Do you want to read? Shss **(Q)**
S: va a leer Mariano **(Comments)**
S: Aimee Mullins: A new concept of beauty. Please, please. Be quiet, please. Fashion model Aimee Mullins, 23, makes those /designer/ outfits look /grit/, but that is not her only talent. As an /'aθlet/, she has set unofficial world records in the 100 meters and the long jump. What makes her even more exceptional is the fact that she hasn't got any lower legs. **(A/A/A)**

T: vale, (…) the reason we are reading the text is to help you with words that you don't understand. A ver, can you try to translate, please?
S: Sí, la modelo fashion
S: la modelo fashion
T: Aimee Mullin

(Ss laugh)
T: shss

(Errors 22 and 23)
S: Aimee Mullin, de 23 años, er **(A)**
T: hace que… **(F)**
S: hace que los diseños **(Acc/A)**
T: ¿Qué son outfits? Outfits, conjuntos, conjuntos de ropa. Que esos conjuntos de moda parezcan **(F)**

(Error 24)
S: parezcan buenos, **(A)**
T: fenomenales **(F)**
S: bonitos, fenomenales **(Acc)**

T: shss
S: pero no es su único talento.
T: bien

(Errors 25 and 26)
S: Como atleta… eeehh **(A)**
T: ha conseguido **(F)**
S: ha conseguido el record mundial Ø en 100 metros **(Acc/A)**
S: El record no oficial **(Peer-correction)**
T: Sí **(Conf)**
S: el mundial, chaval **(Comments)**
T: Sí, pero no oficial, da igual. **(Conf)**
S: vale, vale **(Acc)**

T: En qué? En, en 100 metros
S: En 100 metros
T: y..
S: y salto
T: salto de distancia

(Errors 27 and 28)
S: lo que le hace ser más excepcional es … **(A)**
T: el hecho **(F)**
S: el hecho de que no tiene las piernas.. **(Acc/A)**
T: no tiene piernas debajo de las rodillas. **(F)**

S: (…)
S: tiene muñones
T: Vale, que no tiene piernas debajo de las rodillas.
S: ¿eso es por qué (…)
T: Shhh! Javier, por favor, could you be quiet? Shss, Aimee…
S: siempre leo yo
T: uhum
S: que lea Susana
T: no, Aimee…

(Error 29)
S: was born without any bones in her lower legs. When she was one year old her legs were ampu…, ampu… **(A)**
T: **amputated (F)**

(Errors 30 and 31)
S: below the knees, so that she could learn to /uolk/ on artificial legs. Her parents sent her to a normal school and /enkou'raðɜ/ her to have a normal life. Aimee was a bright, imaginative child who got good marks and did well at sport. She soon learned to ski and play football and

basketball. **(A/A)**

T: (…)

(Errors 32 and 33)
S: Aimee nació sin huesos en sus piernas. Cuando ella tenía un año sus piernas fueron amputadas por debajo de las rodillas y ella tuvo que aprender a andar con piernas artificiales. Sus padres le enviaron a un colegio normal y … **(A/A)**
T: le animaron **(F)**
S: le animaron a ella para tener una vida normal.] **(Acc)**

(Error 34)
[Aimee fue… **(A)**
T: brillante, imaginativa, una niña **(F)**

S: bueno, er la cual tuvo muy buenas notas y era buena en el deporte.
T: shss
S: Ella aprendió a esquiar, a jugar a fútbol y a jugar a basket.

(Errors 35, 36, 37, 38 and 39)
T: Vale, Sara. **(Q)**
S: At university, Aimee *com...,* competed in the women's track team and participated in the 1996 Paralympics, which is a sporting /'event/ for /disabel/ /adletes/. She also studied /is'tori/ and Diplomacy. ¿Traduzco? En la univesidad Aimee compitió en el equipo… **(A/A/A/A/A)**
T: en el equipo de las mujeres de, de ¿cómo se llama eso de deporte, correr, saltar, ...? ¡Atletismo! Atletismo, shss **(F)**

T1: Communication
S: y participó en las Paralimpiadas de 1996 que es un evento deportivo para atletas discapacitados. Tambien estudió Historia y Diplomacia.
T: Bien. Vale, everybody can finish reading the text by themselves, I'm tired of listening to all the talking, nobody is paying attention. Shhh! Hale, finish reading the text, do exercises A, B, C and D (…) and also pages 52 and 53, page 52 (…) page 53 (…) composition page 56, vale, I'm sick and tired of (…) Shhhhh! David
S: what?
T: no preguntes por donde empezamos
S: no, si quieres que
T: pues sigue la lectura, ¿no?
S: ya
S: (…) ayer y hoy?
T: sí
S: (…)
T: eh?
S: (…)
T: bien, a ver, eran esos primeros, shss, esto, después de exámenes … shss, Juan, I´d like to look at your face, not the back of your head, shhh! Después de exámenes hay unas cuantas clases que no es obligación venir, pero yo si que voy a repartir selectivos para hacer y los vamos a hacer en la pizarra y oral. Lo digo porque si alguien piensa venir a clase a charlar que se queden en su casa. Mira a Rafa, no trabaja ni nada,
S: (…) dices a mi
T: luego querrá una buena nota
(Ss speak)
T: vale, ¿qué querías decir con la primera frase? ¿cada vez más?
S: no, que muchas
T: pues many o lots of, si quieres decir cada vez más
S: no
T: sería more and more, si quieres decir muchas…y un plural, tiene que ser lots of, er, lots of or many, no usamos nunca much en afirmativo, usamos much en negativo en interrogativo, pero (…), ¿vale? Lots of
(T and Ss talk about marks)

(Error 40)

T: vale, lots of (…) can you please lower the mumbling and try to do some work? I can't even hear. Nuria, come here. Shss, this fact puts animals in danger and if animals are in danger they will…disappear **(F)**

S: uhum **(Acc)**

T2: Linguistic task

T: (…) they will disappear…extinct es adjetivo que sería con el mismo word que el nombre, un nombre, un sustantivo que (…) terminaciones puede ser.

S: (…)

(Error 41)

T: ah, extinct (…), vale? It's a serious problem for him too because this brings (…) of life, bien, punto, besides, comma, animal extinction can damage other kinds of… a ver, ¿qué has hecho mal? **(F)**

S: no sé, estaba ahí, éste será **(Acc)**

T: claro (…) other kinds of, mira este párrafo no está mal con los..In my opinion, they shouldn't buy product to product, they put animals skins (…) avoid this problem begging not to work with animals and abolishing **(F)**

S: vale **(Acc)**

(Errors 42 and 43)

T: si pones uno en gerundio y el otro and, el otro tiene que estar en gerundio, ¿vale? Y abolishing illegally, illegally ¿qué sería? **(F/F)**

S: que (…) **(A)**

T: no, sin la –y, ilegal es un adjetivo, ilegal hunting,] **(F)**

(Error 44)

[punto, pon los puntos, ¿eh? ¿vale? Punto, cuando pones un besides, y empieza, besides…
(F)

S: (…)

T: … ¿vale? Besides or in addition or also

S: ¿as well as puede ser?

T: as well as, no, as well, as well as es tanto como, as well, we can buy other products made with (…)

S: (…)

T: eso… eso es muy importante, ¿vale?

S: pero aunque sea (…)

T: nooo, no lleva (…)

S: (…)

T: all people should make a point of… debería preocuparse por no poner en peligro los animals, ¿no? All people should make a point of… and (…) in the world

S: (…) poner en castellano, de pensar que tengo que hacer algo (…)

T3: Instructions

T: a ver, en este que no es una composición para entregar, pero que si hay que pensar (…) aquí (…) deberías, ah, deberías (…), piensas tu, que debería (…) a una persona que no le gustara su apariencia, pues yo de ti, escribiría ideas, cuatro o cinco (…) lo vas escribiendo, aquí te lo pone (…) ¿ves? Siempre mira la, la pregunta que te indica en todo paso en qué tiempo, a lo mejor, si pone en pasado, tú sabes que lo tienes que poner en pasado. Y de ahí, apuntar ideas, ¿vale? Vale, it's o.k.? right, ¿Cristina ha venido?...shss, Juan Carlos, ¿por qué no escribes la redacción ahora?

T1: Communication

S: es que (…) sacar un (…)

T: ¿qué?

S: si al final saco un ocho, de gramática, bueno, todo, me cuenta por doble, ¿no?

T: si sacas un ocho al final te subirá

S: (…)

T: pues depende del ocho cómo esté

S: ocho es bueno, vale

T: ten en cuenta que todos los que se examinan en el final están pendientes, de..

S: (…) pero, puedes subir

T: sí

S: puede darte la vena

T: claro que puede subir nota

S: (…)

T: ¿qué?

S: la redacción, que si puedo dártela mañana, es que yo sí la hice, pero se la di a Octavio para que te la diera y se la ha quedado

T: pues dámela

S: no, es que la tiene Octavio

T: ¿por qué?

S: porque se la di a él y no..

T: (…) vale, se lo pediré

S: ayer se la di, y no te vieron y no te la dio

T: se la pediré a Octavio, ¿vale?

S: y..

T: oye, me parece que esto lo vamos a corregir hoy porque, shss, da tiempo de sobra, venga…quiero veros trabajando

S: y el examen (…) no estás (…) cuadernillo, me dijo, o sea un cuadernillo para que me lo corrigiera (…) un cuadernillo de ejercicios (…) que no te lo voy a corregir, que no me des ejercicios, supergore, (…) Alberto va a ir a hablar con ella (…)

(T and S talk about a test)

T: a ver, voy a terminar de sacar las notas medias, a ver quién exactamente se presenta a gramática

(Ss work and talk)

T: (…) sale un cinco con siete, shss, a mi me da igual, pero te corres el riesgo de quedarte con un cinco

S: si me sale (…)

T: tengo que hacer la nota media con un cinco con siete… ¿entiendes?

S: sí, sí

T: si hicieras el de gramática, haría la media entre gramática y texto, tú misma

S: pero el de gramática, ¿va a ser fácil?

T: sí

S: entonces me presento a gramática… y ¿si me sale mal gramática?

T: ay, Susana, bueno, vamos a decir, eso, ¿te conformas con un seis?

S: hombre, sí

T: es que si no te presentas a gramática, no te pongo más de un seis, si te presentas, puedes sacar más

S: vale

T: eso es lo que te estoy diciendo, no te obligo a presentarte, Susana, Susana es lo mismo pero al revés, seis, seis, cinco, ¿te conformas con un seis?

S: ¿por qué (…)?

T: porque tienes un cinco ahí

S: ya pero..

T: si quieres un siete por curso

S: ah, que hay que hacer la gramática

T: si te conformas con un seis aquí, yo te pongo un seis ya por curso

S: pero (…) el comentario no sube nada?

T: en tu caso (…) no… (…)

S: ah vale

T: ¿te presentas?

S: no, no, ya (…)

T: pues te quedas con un seis

S: (…) ¿la gente se presenta a gramática?

T: eh?

S: ¿la gente se presenta a gramática?

T: sí, Nuria sí, y Azahara también, esto (…) Esteban, Esteban, ven

S: voy

T: lo mismo que..tienes cinco, seis, seis

S: sí

T: ¿vale?

S: ¿yo qué hago ahí?

T: no lo sé

S: vale, vale

T: tienes un cinco, seis, seis también (…) ¿te vas a quedar con un seis o qué?

S: es que no lo sé

T: (…) gramática, puedes sacar un (…)

S: pero, ¿gramática va a ser difícil o qué?

T: no va a ser (…)

S: lo de siempre

T: (…)

S: sin vocabulario y sin frases

T: sí

S: ah, entonces sí

T: yo creo que te conviene, eh?

S: sí porque yo tengo..

T: terminas con un siete

S: (…)

T: sí, ¿vale?

S: y si puedo sacar un siete…

T: claro… Susana, Esteban se arriesga… si quieres el, el, seis ganado por ti en todas las evaluaciones, a (…) sacar nota

S: (…)

T: sí que puedes

S: (…)

T: ¿Qué no puedes sacar un diez?

S: (…)

T: sí…tú no te tienes que presentar a gramática, tú si sacas un diez en el texto, tienes un diez… con un nueve por medio…a ver, yo estoy hablando de la gente que tiene algún cinco por ahí, a ver si hay alguien más. Bueno, pues a gramática se presenta María Antón, Carlos, César,

S: Raúl

T: Esteban, Isabel Cuenca, Isabel Díaz, Cristina, David, Alberto, Nacho Lozano, Juanvi, Christian, Azahara, ¿Susana no?

S: oye

T: shss, Marta Parra

S: (…)

T: shss, Natalia, Raúl, Adrián, Nuria, shss, y ya está.

<u>**(Lesson 13) 2nd A, May the 13th, 2003**</u>

T1: Communication
T: We are going to correct pairs of words often confused. Shhh! Vale, Irene, where are your photocopies?
S: No las encuentro
T: Venga.
S: no las encuentro
T: Dulce
(Ss talk)
T: shss, …vale, esto…, Natalia, where are your photocopies?
S: (...)
T: (…) your photocopies
S: (…)

T2: Linguistic task
T: hale, Macarena, can you start? The first pair of words is lose, perder y loose, suelto.
S: ¿suelto?
S: look at..
T: lose, perder y loose, suelto
S: Look after that money or you'll lose it
T: Vale, with one –o

(Error 1)
S: That screw is a bit loose, you'd better… **(A)**
T: tighten it, 2 -os. Screw is a tornillo. Vale **(F)**

S: The opposite of "to find" is "to lose"
T: with one o
S: I tied the dog to a tree but it got loose and ran away
T: with 2 -os. O.k., do until number five…shss
S: The students brought their books
T: The first one
S: their, ¿no? their
T: the first one, say the first one or the second one, o.k.?
S: vale
S: (…)
T: their, the first one
S: ah, vale

(Error 2)
S: They are having their breakfast. La primera **(A)**
T: The first one **(F)**
S: the first one **(Acc)**

S: No, the second
S: No.There are my friends. The second one. It's a nice place. I often go there. The second one.
T: Vale. Advice with a c y advise with an s.
S: I advise you to see a doctor. With -s
T: with -s
S: She didn't listen to her father's advice. With -c
T: the first one
S: I'm very grateful to you for your advice. The first one.
T: the first one
S: I really don't know what to advise. The second one

(Error 3)
T: the second one, ok. Practice with a -c and practise with an -s.

S: they need more practice. The second, no, the first one **(Self-correction)**
T: the first one.**(Conf)**

(Error 4)
S: They are pi… **(A)**
T: pianists **(F)**
S: they are pianists. They practise six hours a day. The second one. **(Acc)**

T: o.k.

(Error 5)
S: You won't increase your typing speed if you don't get more practice. The first one. She took a job in a travel /aзensi/ to practise her language. The second one. **(A)**

T: Vale, and number 5.
S: I don't know whether to see that film or not. The second one. Their holiday was spoilt by bad weather. The first one. What's the weather like? The first one. She can't decide whether she ought to marry him. The second one.

(Errors 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11)
T: Vale, Marc. Beside, besides, do until number ten.
S: The post /ofais/, ha, ha, **office** is beside, the /firs/ one, the /si'nema/. They always sit beside, /firs/ one, each other in class. There are several big parks in London besides, second one, /hid/ Park. What /len'gueiʃ/ /dus/ he speak besides, second one, English? **(Self-correction/A/A/A/A/A)**

(Errors 12, 13 and 14)
T: Stationery with an -e and stationary with an -a.
S: ¿Yo? The /bus/ stood sta.. stationary, the second one, in the traffic jam for 20 /minuts/. The teacher got some /pipa/ **(A/A/A)**
T: Paper (F)
S: paper from the school stationery] **(Acc)**

(Errors 15, 16, 17 and 18)
[/firs/ one, /cupboard/. The /uiaðer/ system over Western Europe has been stationery, second one, for two days. The office staff were told to use /paper/ more carefully, since the stationery, /firs/ one, bill the month before had been very high. **(A/A/A/A)**

(Errors 19 and 20)
T: Accept y agree **(Q)**
S: Ehh! He thinks she's beautiful but I don't /aθept/ **(A/A)**
T: Nooo, but I don't…**(F)**
S: agree **(Acc)**
T: agree… with him **(Conf)**

(Errors 21 and 22)
S: with him. This /maðзin/ does not /aθept/ /aθept/ **(A)**
T: accept (F)
S: accept damaged coins.] **(Acc)**

(Errors 23, 24 and 25)
[They will only agree to do the job if you pay them /first/. He cannot accept the fact that his /uif/ is /dead/. **(A/A/A)**
T: wife, right,] **(F)**

(Errors 26, 27, 28, 29 and 30)
[comprehensive y understanding **(Q)**
S: A /priest/ is normally a /patient/, /compren'siv/ **(A/A/A/A)**
T: Noo, **(F)**
S: under..**(Acc/A)**

T: under…**(F)**
S: understanding person. **(Acc)**
T: bien **(Conf)**

(Errors 31, 32 and 33)
S: It's a very /compren'siv/ book. It covers all aspects of the subject. London taxi /drivers/ have a very /compren'siv/ /noulik/ of the city. Whatever stupid things he did, his mother was always understanding and she forgave him.

(Errors 34 and 35)
T: Vale, sensible and sensitive. **(Q)**
S: It's sensitive **(A)**
T: Nooo **(F)**
S: ay, /sensible/ **(Ac/A)**
T: sensible **(F)**
S: sensible to save part of your salary every month.] **(Acc)**

(Errors 36, 37, 38 and 39)
[Don't /lauf/ at him. He's very sensitive about his /aparens/. It's cold I think it /uold/ be /sensible/ **(A/A/A/A)**
T: sensible **(F)**
S: sensible] **(Acc)**

(Errors 40, 41 and 42)
[to take a /uarm/ /koat/ with you. My skin is very sensitive to the sun. Film is sensible **(A/A/A)**
T: sensitive **(F)**
S: sensitive to light **(Acc)**
T: Vale,] **(Conf)**

(Error 43)
[actually y now. Jose **(Q)**
S: Ten years ago he had nothing; now he is a millionaire. I've lost contact with him. I don't know where he is now. Is that necklace /aktuali/ made of gold? Tell me the truth. What /aktuali/ happened? **(A)**
T: vale, I don't wanna see **actually** como ahora, actualmente. **Actually**, de hecho. Vale **(F)**

(Errors 44, 45, 46, 47 and 48)
S: The police were /uneibl/ to /'kontrol/ the football fans, who ran on to the pitch fighting and shouting. An inspector /kam/ along the train to check all the tickets, the tickets. He is really a /uild/ boy. His parents can't /'kontrol/ him. I advise you to check all your exam /ansuers/ before you hand your paper in. Teacher **(A/A/A/A/A)**

(Error 49)
T: Teacher and professor **(Q)**
S: The teacher told his class to do their homework carefully. When I was at school I had a very good history teacher. He taught at the university for many years but he never became a professor. The /'profesor/ Bolton is head of the Chemistry Faculty at the University of York **(A)**

(Error 50)
T: Affect and effect **(Q)**
S: The punishment had no effect on him. As soon as he left prison he began to steal /agein/. **(A)**

S: ¿ha dicho effect?
T: Effect

(Error 51)
S: The new taxes will affect the rich. They will have to pay more. The higher bus fares

won't affect me. I have a car. The medicine had an /imediat/ effect. I felt better at once. **(A)**

(Error 52)
T: Y past y passed **(Q)**
S: I have passed, /pasid/ **(A)**

T: The second one

(Error 53)
S: the second one, the exam. She past, the first one, the post office on her way home, but forgot to go in. **(A)**
T: passed the second one.**(F)**
S: ah, **(Acc)**
T: la b is the second one **(Conf)**

S: the thief hid in a doorway and the policeman ran past, first one
T: right, ran past, the first one, him

(Error 54)
S: It was past, first one, midnight when I /finali/ got to bed.**(A)**

T: Vale, economic y economical

T1: Communication
S: ¿qué pasa? Ah yo! It isn't very..Es que me has preguntado, mira, la única que no tengo hecho
(Ss laugh)
S: es que
T: Pues sobre la marcha
S: Vale, pues espérate

T2: Linguistic task
(Error 55)
T: vale. Economic y economical **(Q)**
S: It isn't very economic **(A)**
T: no, economical **(F)**
S: economical, bueno, dejame acabar, **(Acc)**

T: shss

(Errors 56, 57 and 58)
S: to leave the lights on when you're not in the room. Because of the /resent/ /striks/ /ðe/ economic situation of the country is very bad **(A/A/A)**

T: bien

(Error 59)
S: She is an economist. She is an expert in economical, economic matters **(Self-correction)**
T: Vale **(Conf)**

S: It's a very economical little car

(Error 60)
T: Vale, y principal y principle **(Q)**
S: Ah, ¿que esto sigue? No sabía que seguía. **(A)**

T: shss

(Error 61)
S: Telling lies is against his /prinsiple/ **(A)**

T: Principle, the second one **(F)**

(Error 62)
S: He believed in the /prinsiple/, o sea, second **(A)**
T: Principle (F)

S: the second
T: the second one

(Errors 63 and 64)
S: that all men are /ekual/. Mr Williams is the /prinsipal/ of this college **(A/A)**

T: The first one

(Error 65)
S: Oxford Street is one of the /prinsipal/ shopping streets of London **(A)**

T: Grateful y thankful
S: I am very grateful
T: bien

(Error 66)
S: to you for your help. He was very /aʃamed/ **(A)**
T: ashamed (F)

S: ¿Qué es eso?
T: Avergonzado
S: Ah! of what he had done and was thankful
T: muy bien

(Error 67)
S: that his family didn't know about it. We were all grateful **(A)**
T: Thankful (F)
S: Thankful that the weather was good for the picnic. She was very grateful to her parents for their advice and support **(Acc)**

(Error 68)
T: Vale, grateful goes with to and thankful goes with for or that. Vale, lend y borrow **(Q)**
S: Lend y borrow. Can you borrow me some.. **(A)**
T: Nooo (F)
S: Can you lend me some money till Monday?] **(Acc)**

(Error 69)
[Britain had to borrow some money from the World Bank. We lend **(A)**
T: Noo (F)
S: borrow **(Acc)**
T: we borrow books (Conf)

(Errors 70, 71 and 72)
S: from the /librari/. I will lend you /mi/ car if you /pro'mis/ to drive carefully **(A/A/A)**

(Errors 73, 74, 75 and 76)
T: Y una más, quite y quiet **(Q)**
S: It's noisy here. Let's find a quiet, la segunda, place. I am /kuit/, o sea la primera, /satisfased/, thank you. Sometimes she /longed/ for the peace and, la primera **(A/A/A/A)**
T: Noo (F)
S: la segunda **(Acc)**
T: la segunda, quiet **(Conf)**

(Errors 77 and 78)

S: of the country. He hadn't quite /fini∫ed/ when I /kam/ in **(A/A)**
T: when I **came** in. Vale. The first one.] **(F)**

(Error 79)
[Canal y channel **(Q)**
S: The shorter sea-route from Europe to India is through the Suez channel **(A)**
T: Canal **(F)**
S: Canal **(Acc)**
T: Canal, first one. Suez canal **(Conf)**

S: (…)?
T: no, los que (…) son channel y los demás hechos por el hombre canal(…) igual que en Panamá. Vale, shss
S: Before railways, the canal between cities were important routes of transport.
T: Vale, canals, sí, the first one
S: The seaway between Britain and France is often called the English Channel
T: Channel, second one
S: He was bored by the television programme so he changed to a different channel
T: Channel, vale. Priceless, be quiet we don't have much more to go.
S: be quiet

(Error 80)
T: Priceless y valueless **(Q)**
S: The painting turned out to be /valiuies/, so I threw it away.**(A)**
S: valueless? **(Q)**
T: Valueless (F)

S: The Crown Jewels of the Royal family cannot be insured. They are priceless
(Ss imitate his pronunciation)
T: Oye, vale. Priceless. Shss, lo hace muy bien, shss, c
S: The contents of the British Museum are, of course, priceless. They are of incalculable value.
T: and d
S: Although these stamps are valueless, I like them for their colour and design
(Error 81)
T: Vale, and 23 **(Q)**
S: A cassette-recorder is /invaluable/ in a pronunciation class **(A)**

S: Es verdad, eh?

(Error 82)
S: Thank you so much for your advice. It was /invaluable/. The information was completely false, quite worthless. These bank notes are no longer in use. I'm afraid they're worthless. **(A)**

T: Vale. Continuously y continually, shss
S: She is

(Error 83)
T: shss, she is… **(Q)**
S: continuously **(A)**
T: Continually, la segunda **(F)**

S: Ahí que pone It rained
T: it rained
S: continuously
T: La primera
S: for three hours
T: continuously, la primera.Y la d
S: La d no se ve

(Errors 84 and 85)
T: The firemen…**(Q)**
S: The firemen /uorked/ continually through the night to put out the flames **(A/A)**
T: Continuously, la primera **(F)**
S: la primera **(Acc)**
T: Vale, hard y hardly. Como la primera no se ve, hemos dicho que hard es duro, duramente y hardly, apenas. **(Conf)**

S: (…)
T: la a, la primera, 24: it rained continuously, la primera y the firemen worked continuously, la primera. Vale. She is a hard worker. She works very hard
S: hard
T: vale

(Error 86)
S: I was so /taired/ I could hardly speak **(A)**

T: Hardly speak
S: He had hardly got home when the phone rang

(Errors 87 and 88)
T: Vale, avoid y prevent. **(Q)**
S: I tried to avoid travelling in the /ruʃ/ hour. It's so ti… **(A/A)**
T: tiring (F)
S: tiring. The police managed to prevent the crowd from moving forward. **(Acc)**

(Error 89)
T: Prevent. c. **(Q)**
S: We must do something to avoid **(A)**
T: prevent. Para impedir, prevent **(F)**

(Error 90)
S: He /suerved/? **(A)**
T: He **swerved,** esquivó **(F)**

(Error 91)
S: to the left to prevent **(A)**
T: avoid… to avoid the car coming towards him. Maybe y may be **(F)**

S: yo creo que se repite

(Error 92)
S: We don't know where he is. He maybe **(A)**
T: ¿La segunda? **(Q)**
S: Había dicho la primera **(Acc)**
T: May be, la segunda **(Conf)**

S: We don't know where he is. La primera
T: La primera, maybe

(Error 93)
S: He is not in the office today. May be, separado **(A)**

T1: Communication
T: No, la primera. La segunda no puede venir al principio de la frase, nunca **(F)**
S: Ah vale! Eso se dice antes Teri. **(Acc)**
T: Maybe, maybe he is ill. **(Conf)**

T2: Linguistic task

(Error 94)
S: It may be, la dos, la segunda **(A)**
T: Maybe, la primera. Vale. Rise rose risen y raise raised raised. Shss, hale, listen carefully, a ver si habéis acertado. Shhh! They, shss, they raised their glasses and drank to the happy couple. Elevaron sus copas. Of course prices always rise, la primera, in time of inflation. **(F)**

S: o.k.
T: The smoke rose, la primera,

(Error 95)
S: no, /rised/ **(Comments)**
T: No, rose. El humo se eleva **(F)**

S: me falta una
T: La b? Rise
S : rise
T : la primera
S: la primera has dicho rose
(Ss talk)
T: shss, d. College fees will be raised, la segunda
S: yes

T3: Instructions
T: from next September. Porque está en pasiva. En pasiva siempre es con la segunda. Vale. The two parts of Toser Bridge rise, se eleva, con la primera, pero en la siguiente The two parts of Tower Bridge rise, se eleven, con la primera, pero en la siguiente, the two parts of the bridge are raised, con la segunda, by very powerfull machinery. She couldn't hear him so he raised his voice, la segunda. The water level has risen, la primera, six inches in the last three days. The number of deaths in traffic accidents rises, la primera, every year. He raised, la segunda, his head and looked at her. Vale, steal stole stolen y rob robbed robbed.

T2: Linguistic task
S: (…)
T: pues steal stole stolen se usa con cualquier cosa que puedas coger y llevarte, ¿vale? Y rob robbed robbed es para atracar.
S: Tú cuando atracas no robas (…)
T: Sí pero no te..atracas un banco, pero no te llevas el banco, te llevas el dinero.
S: te llevas el dinero, sí, sí
T: … si pero eso es I, he robbed the bank, no te llevas el banco.
S: entonces sería, cuando atracas el banco estás robando el dinero
T: Claro.
S: atracas el banco, coges el dinero
T: Vale, steal stole stolen, rob robbed robbed. Shh! He stole a bottle of whisky from the shop. B. He was stopped and robbed by two armed men. Two banks were robbed last week. If you leave your money there it will be stolen. Someone's stolen my wallet!
S: (…)
T: ¿la que?
S: La primera
T: He ro..he stole. E: someone's stolen my wallet! F: they were planning to rob a shop. She stole some clothes from her employers. We've been robbed. Look! All our silver is gone! Vale. Esto, for …now I'm gonna write some expressions of quantity (...)…
(Ss talk)

T1: Communication
T: venga, venga, ahora os diré que va para el examen de gramática (…) shss
(Ss talk)
S: Teri, Teri
S: no le digas nada
T: déjala
(Ss talk)

T:Para mejorar la

S: la redacción

T: la redacción. Vale, a lot of…shss, a lot of, much and many. We use a lot of in affirmative, en afirmativo, and much and many, tenéis el costumbre de usar much y many en afirmativo instead of a lot of. Much y many en negativo y preguntas. shss

S: (...)

T: estoy harta de tí, te lo juro

(Lesson 14) 2nd A, May the 15th, 2003

T2: Linguistic task
T: Today we are gonna correct shhh! cambios de estructuras shhhh! Vale.

(Error 1)
S: /preparation/ for selectivo **(Comments)**

T: The first one is count nouns and non-count nouns. There aren't as many problems with the new traffic system as we expected. ¿Qué sería, Marta?
S: yo, ¿Qué Marta, yo? There are fewer problems with the new traffic system than we expected
T: muy bien, vale. Number two.
S: no las tengo

T1: Commnication
T: Sara, where are your photocopies?
S: yo, Teri

T2: Linguistic task
T: Number two, Nacho
S: I don't have much choice. I have little choice.
T: Number three.
S: Not many people showed up at the ceremony. Only a few people showed up at the ceremony.

(Error 2)
T: Four **(Q)**
S: Few of our friends were there. Not /mani/ of our friends were there. **(A)**

(Errors 3, 4 and 5)
T: Vale, five, five **(Q)**
S: He doesn't have as much time as he /taut/. He has fewer time as he /θrot/. **(A/A/A)**
T: ¿Time es contable o incontable? **(F)**
S: Incontable **(A)**
T: Incontable, ¿entonces? **(F)**
S: ah, less **(Acc)**
T: He had less time than he thought.] **(Conf)**

(Error 6)
[Y six **(Q)**
S: I don't know much about computers. I know few about computers. **(A)**
T: Much es incontable, ¿no? so, we have to know, I know little about computers.] **(F)**

(Error 7)
[Shhhh! So y such. So y such, Carlos. The film was so boring that I fell asleep. **(Q)**
S: It was such boring film that I felt asleep **(A)**
T: such **a** boring film that I fell asleep. Number two. The weather was so lovely that we went out for the day **(F)**

S: It was so lovely that he went out for the day
T: ¿Y cambiando a such?
S: It was such
T: lovely

(Error 8)
S: loving? **(Q)**
T: lovely weather **(F)**
S: lovely weather that we went out for the day **(Acc)**

T: Vale. It was such an expensive dress that I didn't buy it. Changing to so **(Conf)**

S: yes. The dress was so expensive that I didn't buy it.
T: Vale, María
S: No lo tengo hecho

(Errors 9, 10 and 11)
T: The traffic was so busy that we were delayed for hours **(Q)**
S: It was /sutʒ/ a /basi/ traffic that we were delayed for hours **(A/A/A)**
T: Such sin a **(F)**
S: ah **(Acc)**
T: porque traffic es incontable **(F)**
S: ah **(Acc)**
T: It was **such busy** traffic. A ver, Marilo, the water shh! was too shallow to swim in **(F/F/Conf)**

S: The water wasn't deep enough to swim in

(Errors 12 and 13)
T: Vale, and number two. I am not tall enough to paint the ceiling **(Q)**
S: I am not too short to /paint/ the ceiling **(A)**
T: I am too short **(F)**
S: Eso, eso es lo que he dicho too short **(Comments)**
T: You said I am not. **(F)**
S: to /paint/ the.. **(A)**
T: I am too short to **paint** the ceiling. Vale. Sandra, David isn't old enough to get a drivers licence **(F)**

S: David is too young to get a drivers licence

(Error 14)
T: Jose Vicente. It's too dark to see anything **(Q)**
S: It isn't light enough to see something **(A)**
T: It isn't light enough to see anything. Shhh! So y too. Sí, Marta. **(F)**

S: No, ya está
T: ah, shss
S: (…)
T: shut up, the case was so heavy that he couldn't lift it
S: The case was too heavy for him to lift
T: The tea was too hot for him to drink

T1: Communication
S: Esa no la tengo hecha
T: ¿No?
S: ésta no la sabía

T2: Linguistic task
T: a ver , Die..Rubén
S: The tea was so hot that he couldn't drink it.

(Error 15)
T: Vale. The metal, shss, the metal was too hard for them to break **(Q)**
S: The water was **(A)**
T: The metal **(F)**
S: ah **(Acc)**
T: was to hard for them to break **(F)**
S: Ahh! Ahh, yes! One moment, please, ah! Yes. The metal was so hard for them that they couldn't break it **(Acc)**
T: Bien **(Conf)**

S: Oh! Perfect Teri, perfect

T: Four, Marta.

S: The car was too expensive for them to buy

T: Vale. Although, in spite of or despite. Although he is bad tempered, she loves him

S: Despite being bad-tempered, she loves him

T: In spite of her beauty, she is unhappy

S: Although she is beautiful, she is unhappy

T: Despite being tired, I went

S: Although I was tired, I went

T: Vale, ahora,...

S: ¿although qué?

T: Although, although I was tired, I went.

T1: Communication

Ahora let's go over to pasivas, activas. Here venid, pasiva-activa is for el examen global, Gema.

S: yes, Gema

T: Es para el examen global, los que tienen que hacer examen global, este ejercicio va

S: ¿cuál?

T: activa- pasiva.

S: Vale

T: vale

S: ¿nos lo aprendemos?

T: sí

S: ¿van (…) también?

T: van activas y pasivas.

S: ¿puedes preguntar (…)?

T2: Linguistic task

T: Puede salir alguno. Vamos a ver, number one. The students were given their grades on Friday. Is it active or passive?

S: It's passive.

(Errors 16 and 17)

T: Passive. The students were given their grades on Friday. Shss, it's passive. How would it be in active? Nacho **(Q)**

S: The /gradis/ were **(A/A)**

T: The qué? **(F)**

S: Ah, si. **(Acc)**

T: they.. **(F)**

S: /gradis/ **(A/A)**

T: no, they gave **(F)**

S: ah, sí they, they gave…**(Acc)**

T: the students **(Conf)**

S: on Friday? **(Ac)**

T: their grades on Friday. Shss, this is very important. Did you hear? They gave the children their grades on Friday. **(Conf)**

T1: Communication

S: ¿dónde estamos?

T: Estamos aquí, here active passive.

S: no, pero (…), ¿no?

T: no

S: es que (…)

T: vale, number one, They gave the students their grades on Friday, shss, number two.

(Error 18)

S: ¿Dónde estamos? I have lost **(Q)**

T2: Linguistic task
T: Vale, number two. Have you taken out the dog today? Is it active or passive?
Ss: Active

(Errors 19, 20 and 21)
T: Active. Let's put it in passive. A ver, Marta. **(Q)**
S: Es: have you been…?**(Q)**
T: No **(F)**
S: the first one? It's the first one? **(Q)**
T: no, the second one. **(A)**
S: their grades were given to..**(A)**
T: No, that one, it's the second one. Have you taken **(F)**
S: Has the dog been taken out today? **(Acc)**
T: Has the dog been taken out today? He is being questioned by the police inspector now. Passive, let's put it in active **(Conf)**

S: The police inspector is questioning him now
T: Vale. The exam results won't be known until Monday.
S: Passive
T: Passive
S: Passive.
T: Put it in active
S: They won't know the exams results until…
T: Monday.
S: yes

(Error 22)
T: hale. Is he going to pick you up tonight as usual? **(Q)**
S: Active. Are you going to be taken up tonight as… **(A)**
T: usual **(F)**
S: usual **(Acc)**
T: usual. Good. A ver, his bad behavior and incorrect attitude in class, Guillermo **(Conf)**

S: Sorry?
T: His bad behaviour and incorrect attitude in class were mentioned at the meetings.
S: ah, what (…)
T: right, Nacho
S: no, I can do it Teri, I can do it

(Errors 23 and 24)
T: His bad behaviour…**(Q)**
S: oh, yes, his bad behavior and incorrect attitude in class were /mensioned/ at the meeting. They mentioned at the meeting that his bad attitude, no, **(A/A)**
T: his. **(F)**
S: his bad attitude and incorrect attitude **(Acc)**
T: vale, they mentioned his bad attitude..behavior and incorrect attitude in class at the meeting **(Conf)**

S: at the meeting. It's too long, this phrase

(Error 25)
T: Vale. She won't post the exam results today. It's active, put it in passive **(Q)**
S: the exam results won't be post **(A)**
T: -ted, posted **(F)**

S: today
T: today
S: today.
T: Vale, They announced the delay of the flight. Active.
S: The delay of the flight was announced

(Errors 26 and 27)
T: Vale. The delay of the flight was announced. Did they tell you what time to go? This is a little more difficult. **(Q)**
S: Was **(A)**
T: Were **(F)**
S: Were the time to go **(Acc/A)**
T: no, were you told **(F)**
S: Were you told what time to go? **(Acc)**
T: were you told what time to go?] **(Conf)**

(Errors 28 and 29)
[Y What he said didn't surprise me. Esto es tipo examen. What he said didn't surprise me. Active. **(Q)**
S: What he said I wasn't surprised **(A)**
T: Al revés. I wasn't surprised… **(F)**
S: Ø what he said **(A)**
T: by **(F)**

S: what he said
T: what he said. I wasn't surprised, no fuí sorprendido por lo que él dijo. Ah?
S: it's half past four
S: Teri, yo quiero (…)
T: Vale. On the next page active and passive. Shhh! Someone must do the job.
S: The job must be done
T: The job must be done. They make these machines in Japan.
S: These machines are made in Japan
T: These machines are made in Japan. Mariló. Sobre la, a ver, Reported Speech. "Put it on the table", she said
S: She said to put it on the table.
T: Vale. She said, she said to put it on the table. "Keep quiet", he ordered.
S: He ordered to keep quiet.

(Error 30)
T: vale, "Why didn't you tell me about it?", she asked. **(Q)**
S: She /asked/ why I hadn't told her about it **(A)**

T: Told her about it
S: ¿cómo, cómo?
S: ¿Cómo?
T: She asked why I hadn't told her about it.
S: pero, ¿Por qué had?
T: she asked
S: Ah, vale, sí

(Error 31)
T: vale, "We played football yesterday", he said. He said qué **(Q)**
S: that we played football the day… **(A)**
T: before **(F)**
S: before **(Acc)**
T: the day before. **(Conf)**

(A pause in the tape)
T: primera pareja, shss, (…)
(Ss talk)

T1: Communication
T: vale, María, where are your photocopies?
S: what?
T: where are your photocopies?

S: (…) she doesn't have (…)

T2: Linguistic task
T: Guillermo, vale. Lose with one o and loose with two o. Lose con one o es el verbo perder y loose con dos o es suelto, adjetivo.
S: ¿Qué es?
T: Suelto. Their es su de ellos y there, allí. Advice with -c es consejo, sustantivo; advise with -s is a verb aconsejar. Weather y whether lo sabéis, no?
S: practice, practise?
T: Ah, perdón. Practice with -c es práctica, sustantivo, noun and practise with an -s es practicar, verbo.
S: Practice es práctica, no?
T: (…) Weather y whether. Weather es el clima y whether es si. I don't know whether she will come or not. No se si vendrá o no. Beside, al lado de, preposition; besides, además, en adición. She speaks English besides French.
S: (…)
T: Stationery with -e and stationary with -a. Stationery with -e es todo lo referente a papelería: sobres, cartas,
S: Sellos
T: Sellos. Y stationary with –a, estacionario, fijo, sin moverse. Accept (…)
S: sí, the (…) is going
T: y agree acordar. Comprehensive es completo, completo y understanding, comprensivo. Completo y comprensivo. Sensible y sensitive, sensato y sensible.
S: ¿Sensato y sensible?
T: Actually y now. De hecho y actualmente. De hecho y actualmente
S: (…)
T: No, actualmente. Control y check. Controlar y comprobar. Teacher, professor. Profesor y catedrático.
S: (…)
T: controlar y comprobar. Affect y effect. Affect, verb, afectar y effect, el efecto. Past y passed con -ed. Passed con -ed participo del verbo pasar, pass y past es pasar de largo o pasado de tiempo. Economic, economía y economical, barato, cheap.
(Ss talk)
T: Guillermo, today you're gonna (…) Principal,…shss, principle, more important, main, y principle, con principios. Grateful y thankful. Grateful es agradecido a y thankful, agradecido por.
S: ¿y qué diferencia hay?
T: Pues grateful a alguien y thankful es agradecido por algo. Vale, lend, prestar y borrow pedir prestado. Quite es bastante, rather, y quiet, callado, quieto. Canal, shss, canal son todos, son todos los canales hechos por el hombre: el Suez Canal, Panama Canal, el, el…
S: De la Mancha
S: de la Mancha es canal
S: (…)
T: todos los que no, (…) Suez canal, (…) Channel porque es natural. Hale coger el chándal.

(Lesson 15) 2nd A, May the 20th, 2003

T3: Instruction
T: expressions of quantity: a lot of, much and many. Remember that we usually use a lot of in affirmative sentences and much and many in negative sentences and questions. Much y many en afirmativa no, eh?

T2: Linguistic task
S: no
T: Vale. We use many with countable nouns and much with uncountable nouns. We can use a lot of with both, countable and uncountable nouns.
S: Teri
T: There were, what?
S: ... es contable?
T: No, incontable. Y many contable. A lot of, a lot of Gonzalo, for both, countable and uncountable. Vale. There were a lot of people at the concert. Remember that people es plural, es contable. There wasn't much time left to get to the station. And, how many CDs have you got? A ver, Dider, exercise one. Complete the sentences with a lot of, much or many.
S: How many paintings were stolen from the art gallery?
T: Two
S: (…)
T: number two, no.

(Errors 1 and 2)
S: ah, How much money have you got? There were many **(A)**
S: Noooo **(F)**
T: There were much **(A)**
T: Nooo **(F)**
S: a lot of **(Acc)**
T: There were a lot of porque es afirmativo **(Conf)**

(Error 3)
S: Manchester United supporters at the football match. By the time we got to the front of the cinema queue, there weren't… many tickets left. Y,... Many flights **(A)**
T: Noooo **(F)**
S: no **(Peer-correction)**
S: A lot of flights **(Acc)**
T: A lot of flights were delayed because of the bad weather.] **(Conf)**

T3: Instructions
(Error 4)
[Vale, a few and a little. A few, we use a few with countable nouns and a little with uncountable nouns. There were only a few, unos cuantos, unos cuantos turistas at the museum today. By the time Clare got to the party, there was only a little, un poco de, sobraba sólo un poco de comida, food left. A few and a little are positive, son positivos. Few and little sin a are negative. Few sería pocos pocas y little, poco o poca. Vale. Complete the sentences with a few or a little. **(Q)**

T2: Linguistic task
S: Juan can't speak English very well. He only knows Ø few words **(A)**
T: a few words **(F)**
(Error 5)
S: Karen managed to save up a little money for her summer holidays. Helen had Ø few **(A)**
T: a few **(F)**
S: a few hours to wait before her flight left New York, so she went shopping.] **(Acc)**

(Errors 6 and 7)
[Tim /mof/ to Scotland Ø few years ago **(A/A)**
T: A few **(F)**

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S: There was only a little traffic on the road, so we got to the airport on time.

T3: Instructions
(Errors 8 and 9)
T: Vale. Some y any. We use some, someone/somebody, something etc in affirmative sentences. We use any, anyone/anybody, anywhere, etc in negative sentences and questions. Someone stopped me in the street and asked me for directions. Sue didn't have any time to go shopping. Have you got anything to wear for the party? Vale, complete the sentences with the correct words.

T2: Linguistic task
S: Did you buy her anything for her birthday? Oh no! I've forgotten my wallet. Have you got any money? Did you see any anyone you /neu/ at the party? I met something you used to, no someone **(A/Self-correction)**
T: someone **(Conf)**
S: someone you used to go out with last night. I've got something interesting to tell you! **(Acc)**

(Errors 10 and 11)
T: vale. Rubén. Summer holidays. Choose the correct words. **(Q)**
S: A lot of people go somewhere in Europe for their summer holidays. Paris is the number one destination. You don't need /mani/ **(A/A)**
T: much **(F)**
S: much money to get there and the city has something for everyone.] **(Acc)**

(Error 12)
[However, a lot of other people have the same idea, so the city can get very /kroud/. **(A)**
T: Crowded (F)

(Errors 13, 14 and 15)
S: Many holidaymakers like to go somewhere with beautiful beaches and not many tourists. The Caribbean is Ø popular, is a popular destination. You don't have to do anything except lie on the beach, but some people can get bored, so you often need a lot of money to get there. A few people prefer activity or /adventur/ holidays. These holidays often take you anywhere exciting **(Self-correction/A/A)**
T: somewhere **(F)**
S: somewhere exciting, so you need to be someone who is fit and healthy! **(Acc)**

T: someone who is fit and healthy. Ok, go straight to, shss, They'll have to save. On this page. This exercise. They'll have to pay. Marta. Nick and Tom have
S: a lot of saving to do before they can go camping. Neither Tom nor Nick has much money. The boys
T: Much

(Error 16)
S: haven't got very much time before the school holidays start. If they both do many jobs at home they should have enough. The train fares.. **(A)**
T: No, if they both do a lot of jobs at home, it's affirmative **(F)**

(Errors 17 and 18)
S: The train fares won't cost much. Nick wants to take as many tins of food and packets of /biskuit/ as possible. Many of the things they need are quite expensive. They won't need to take much spending money. Tom wants to buy a lot of books and magazines to read on the train. Tom doesn't usually do much work at home, but now he'll have to. The boys haven't been on many camping holidays, so they need lots of /ekuaipment/. **(A/A)**

S: (…)
T: ¿en la última?
S: No, en la cuarta

S: Much

T: Vale. Gerund and infinitive. This is very important for the global exam, en gramática. Gerunds and infinitives, there is a question. Hala, gerunds and infinitives. We use gerund after preposition

S: Una pregunta, el examen de texto ,…

T: tienes una hora

S: una hora (…)

T3: Instructions

(Errors 19 and 20)

T: We use gerunds after preposition for example, without or before, and after certain verbs, for example enjoy, can't stand or afraid of. She left without saying goodbye. He enjoys going rollerblading at the weekend. We use infinitives after certain verbs such as want, hope or offer. Paul offered to repair Sue's bike. And after some verbs, for example, like, love, hate, prefer, start or continue, we can use either the gerund or infinitive with no change in meaning. I like playing tennis, I like to play tennis. Gonzalo, rewrite the sentences using gerunds. **(Q)**

T2: Linguistic task

S: Rachel lost the /rais/. She was very angry. Rachel was angry about loose **(A/A)**

T: loosing **(F)**

S: loosing the race. **(Acc)**

T: You have to put a gerund in each, change the verb into a gerund.] **(F)**

(Error 21)

[Vale, number two. **(Q)**

S: We didn't go to the cinema, we watched a video at home. /instid/ of going to the cinema, we watched a video at home? **(A)**

T: uhum

(Errors 22 and 23)

S: Ivan passed his driving test because he /praktais/ every weekend. By /praktaisiŋ/ **(A/A)**

T: Practising (F)

S: By **practising** every weekend Ivan passed his driving test. ¿Sigo? **(Acc)**

T: sí

(Errors 24, 25, 26 and 27)

S: Gillian /rid/ the newspaper then she phoned her friend. Before phoning her friend, Gillian /rid/ the newspaper. They left the disco and went for a coffee. After… after going **(A/A)**

T: after leaving **(F)**

S: After leaving for a coffee **(Acc/A)**

T: the disco **(F)**

S: after leaving the disco … **(Acc/A)**

T: They…**(F)**

S: They went for a coffee. **(Acc)**

T: uhum **(Conf)**

(Error 28)

S: Six. Jake has split up with his girlfriend. He's upset. Jake is upset about /splaitiŋ/ up **(A)**

T: Splitting up **(F)**

S: splitting up with her girlfriend **(Acc)**

T: Vale, Guillermo **(Conf)**

S: Oh, yes.

(Error 29)

T: Choose the correct form. **(Q)**

S: Choose the correct forms. Tony wants to go, no **(A)**

T: Yes **(F)**
S: yes, Tony wants to go travelling before he goes to university.] **(Acc)**

(Errors 30 and 31)
[He promised to buy her a diamond ring for their anniversary. Have you ever /konsidered/ studying abroad? He agreed to buy the motorbike for 2,000 pounds. John has been a farmer for 20 years. He's used to get up early. **(A/A)**
T: Used **(F)**
S: getting up early, sorry. It's cold today. You shouldn't go without wearing your coat. **(Acc)**
T: Vale.] **(Conf)**

T3: Instructions
(Errors 32, 33 and 34)
[Please remember in your redacciones that when you have a preposition put a gerund after it. Preposición más gerundio. Mónica. Complete the story with gerunds or infinitives.

T2: Linguistic task
S: When I was a child I used to spend my holidays at my aunt and uncle's old country house. One summer I remember having a /stranðɜ/ /eksperiens/. It was a hot afternoon and my cousins /sugested/ playing? **(A/A/A)**

T: Uhum!
S: hide-and-seek.
T: Playing, gerundio.

(Errors 35, 36, 37 and 38)
S: hide-and-seek. But instead of going outside, we decided to play in the attic. After /turniŋ/ off all the lights, we all /haid/ in different places. I managed to hide behind an old sofa. Then something odd happened. In the darkness we heard /fotsips/ come into the room. The /fotsips/ seemed walking **(A/A/A/A)**
T: To walk. **(F)**
S: to walk towards the sofa.] **(Acc)**

(Errors 39 and 40)
[I wanted to /mouf/ but I couldn't. I expected something terrible happening **(A/A)**
T: To happen **(F)**
S: To happen.**(Acc)**
T: It is an adjective and after adjectives and to **(F)**

(Errors 41, 42 and 43)
S: Then suddenly the /fotsips/ stopped and the door slammed shut. After /uaitiŋ/ for a few seconds, we jumped up and ran downstairs without stopping. We told my aunt and uncle, but they /refus/ to believe us. Mysteriously the house burned down a year later. The fire started in the attic. **(A/A/A)**

(Errors 44 and 45)
T: Vale, the last page, time clauses, time clauses with as soon as, before, when, while, unless, as long as, provided that. After when, as soon as, before, while, unless, as long as and provided that we use the present tense, not will. I'll stay with Jake when I go to London next week. As soon as I get my exam results, I'm going on holiday. Before I go out tonight, I have to finish this essay. While I'm away, Penny's going to look after my dog. I won't be able to buy a car unless I find a job soon. I'll come with you as long as I don't have to drive. You'll pass your exam provided that you do enough revision. Maria, choose the correct words. **(Q)**
S: You can't go to the party unless you wear a fancy dress. I'll go out for a meal provided that you pay. They can have a party as long as there isn't too much noise. We'll play football tomorrow provided Ø it isn't, provided that it isn't raining. We're going to Seville in July unless Mandy changes her mind. I'll lend you the money as long as you promise to pay me back. I'll be there at eight o'clock unless the train, no, as long as the train isn't late. We won't be able to get into the flat unless we find our keys. He is going to get a job as soon as he leaves school. I saw a

strange girl while I was waiting for the bus. **(Self-correction/Self-correction)**

T: Vale. And let's do the last exercise, number 3. Marta. Combine the sentences using the words in brackets. **(Conf)**

S: As soon as Rob arrives, he will phone us. Er…

T: O se podría decir Rob will phone us as soon as he arrives

(Error 46)

S: While you decide where to go, I'll get ready. When he finish the painting **(A)**

T: When he finishes **(F)**

S: when he finishes the painting, he'll let you see it. Let's do something before it's too late. Unless Tim practises more, he will fail his driving test. **(Acc)**

(A pause in the tape)

T: Connectors. Connectors are very important writing your redacciones.

S: ¿qué página?

T3: Instructions

T: page 143, at the end of the book. Connectors and linking words which join ideas and show how those ideas are related to one another. Many students know the material, but have difficulty recalling it. But expresses a contrast. Knowing the material might not be enough, as health problems or pressure can affect the outcome. As expresses a reason. Most exams are no more than a short-term memory test so pupils who are poor in this respect fail miserably. So expresses a result. Leer la, el ensayo, la redacción que hay aquí, usando connectors y os pone ejemplos de connectors y cuando se usan. Para el selectivo, memorizad unos cuantos y usadlos, para que los examinadores vean que los habéis visto y sabéis usarlos. Memorizadlos, da igual, no vais..

T1: Communication

S: Teri (…) redacciones

T: (...) y se fijarán si (…) si habéis organizado lo que vais a escribir; podéis sacar una nota alta en inglés. Así que demostrad, demostrad qué sabéis. Si ya sabéis los conectores, usadlos; si no los sabéis, aprended de memoria lo que significan y usadlos (…) Una frase para usar en la redacción. Luego id diciendo ideas (…) una conclusión, ¿vale? Y ved esto de, de (…) de palabras, ¿vale? (…) hay exámenes que sólo hay (…) y exámenes que (…)

S: ¿cuántas palabras son?

T: (…) eh?

S: ¿lo pone en el examen?

T: sí, lo pone en el examen, pero digo yo que ahora (…) este texto, contad las palabras que tiene y todas las líneas (…) contando palabras, porque más o menos sabéis las líneas que tiene que haber para llegar al mínimo adecuado

S: Teri, y ¿los tiempos verbales?

T: los tiempos verbales ¿en el examen de gramática?

S: no en (…) cuáles empleamos más

T: el presente

S: presente

T: sí (…) no dejéis ninguna pregunta en blanco, ninguno, si no sabéis una palabra de vocabulario (…) adjetivo, sustantivo, verbo, etcétera, buscad una palabra en el texto con la misma terminación a veces (…) ¿vale? No os dejéis en blanco, por nada del mundo, siempre podéis acertarlo. Luego también un (…) estudiar para el examen, también, er, en medio de este libro, más o menos la página 98, 96, 98, hay textos hechos y corregidos, hay un texto en la 98 que está hecho y corregido, que podéis mirar que han corregido, ¿vale? Bien, er, (…) forever

S: o.k.

(T and Ss talk)