CLASSROOM DISCOURSE IN ESL: AN ANALYSIS

by

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Problem Defined

There are literally many millions of individuals engaged today in the learning of a language which is not their mother tongue. Some may pursue this activity independently, outside of formal classrooms, but most second language learners are enrolled in institutionalized instruction of some sort.

According to Burt and Dulay (1981:177) language learning is a "two-way street". Learners, and all the mental and physical machinery they come with, comprise one dimension. The environment, including the teacher, the classroom and the surrounding community, is the other. During the last twenty years of second language research the focus was mostly on the learner: on learning strategies and styles, on attitudes and motivation, on cognitive and neurological mechanisms (Lamendella, 1977; 1979; Faerch & Kasper, 1980; Rivers & Melvin, 1981). Recently, however, the research pendulum has begun to swing in another direction. Research indicates that interest in the language of the classroom has grown steadily over a number of years (Bellack **et al.**, 1966; Barnes **et al.**, 1969; d'Anglejan, 1978; Allwright, 1980; Sinclair & Brazil, 1982). It has been motivated by the recognition that whether in a subject lesson or a language lesson, the type of language used by the teacher and the type of interactions occurring in the classroom may have an influence on second language acquisition.

The traditional view of classroom second language acquisition (SLA) is that it is different from naturalistic SLA. The difference which is envisaged is that between a "free" learner who uses language to convey messages and a "captive" learner who approaches language as if it is a formal puzzle (Corder, 1981:58). Studies of classroom talk tend to suggest that the classroom is a world of its own, with its own rules and conventions and that the language used there is not "natural": that it is different from the language used outside, in "real life".

Stubbs (1983:44) states that: "A major part of our commonsense knowledge of classrooms is that teachers have more power and control than pupils, and this should also be identifiable in their language. Much classroom talk is characterised by the extent to which one speaker, the teacher, has conversational control over the topic, over the relevance or correctness of what pupils say, and even over when and how much pupils may speak". Pupils, therefore, have few conversational privileges. This has often been pointed out by educationalists (e.g. Barnes **et al.**, 1969; Flanders, 1970).

Research has been conducted which considers both the teacher's and the learner's contribution in the classroom. The analysis of classroom discourse that has been conducted

tends to focus on the three-phase discourse, the IRF (initiate-response-feedback) pattern. This focus owes much to research done in discourse analysis (e.g. Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Coulthard & Montgomery, 1981; Sinclair & Brazil, 1982). According to Ellis (1984:146) IRF exchanges are prevalent in teacher-centred classrooms, where the teacher takes control of the lesson content and management. Many researchers (e.g. Macnamara, 1973; Sinclair & Brazil, 1982) believe that the kind of discourse which typically occurs in teacher-centred classrooms is distorted and that this might inhibit the opportunities for language learning.

In an article entitled "Nurseries, Streets and Classrooms", Macnamara (1973:254) makes the point that in a language class language learning cannot be successful, because the natural "faculte de langage" which operates in the nursery or in the street, that is, in an authentic communicative situation, is not engaged.

Sinclair and Brazil (1982:58) observe that there are also differences in the discourse contributions made by the pupils in the classrooms:

> The pupils have a very restricted range of verbal functions to perform. They rarely initiate and never follow-up. Most of their verbal activity is response, and normally confined strictly to the terms of the initiation.

What Macnamara (1973:254) and Sinclair and Brazil (1982:58) are advocating is that a language is learned when the learner becomes involved in real communication so that he is a user of the language rather than a detached observer who analyses and rehearses the language for later use. Implicit in the position these researchers take up is the belief that learners need the opportunity to participate in the same kinds of interactions as naturalistic learners do in order to develop the capacity for what has been called "communicative" speech. Current research is revealing the gaps second language pupils have in "conversational competence" (Hymes, 1971a; Widdowson, 1979; Johnson, 1979). According to Widdowson (1979:49) students have difficulty coping with language in its normal communicative use. Students frequently remain deficient in the ability to actually use the language and to understand its use. Pupils must possess the ability to use the language appropriately; they must know the right thing to say at the right time. According to Coulthard (1985:157) all the language used in the classroom is more or less artificial because it arises not from a need to use the language, but from a requirement by the teacher to produce language.

A problem arises from the criticism levelled against interactions occurring in the classroom. Very little research, which focuses on the different kinds of interaction patterns that can occur in ESL (English Second Language) classrooms, has been conducted in South

Africa. The problem is, therefore, to determine what ESL classroom discourse in an Afrikaans school actually looks like:

* Do IRF exchanges in fact dominate in the classroom?
* Does the teacher dominate all the interactions?
* Do opportunities for pupil-initiated discourse arise?

Closely related to these questions about ESL classroom discourse are the questions relating to Second Language Acquisition:

* Can the type of questions asked by the teacher influence SLA?
* Can the interactions that do occur be expected to contribute to SLA?

1.2 Purpose of this Study

The aim or purpose of this study is to establish the different types of discourse patterns that emerge in a typical English Second Language classroom in an Afrikaans school and to determine whether the discourse patterns that do occur can be expected to contribute to Second Language Acquisition (SLA).

1.3 Method of Research

A thorough literary survey, dealing with the role of input and interaction in both naturalistic and classroom settings, was conducted. A few concepts pertaining to discourse analysis were also surveyed, because of their use in various frameworks that have been used to analyse classroom discourse. A number of frameworks that have been proposed by various researchers (e.g. Bellack et al., 1966; Barnes et al., 1969; Flanders, 1970; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Ellis, 1984) for analysing classroom interaction are investigated. A framework is proposed for analysing the different types of discourse patterns that can occur in a second language classroom. A combination of Sinclair and Coulthards' (1975) and Ellis' (1984) framework is used for this purpose. A pilot study was undertaken beforehand to ensure that the proposed framework would enable the researcher to determine the different kinds of interaction patterns that could occur in the second language classroom as accurately as possible.

The most important part of this study constitutes the practical application of the proposed framework in a typical Afrikaans ESL school. The concern of this study is entirely descriptive. All lessons, in which there was interaction between teacher and pupils, were observed. This mainly included language and literature lessons. Examples of the speech produced by both teacher and pupils were collected primarily by means of tape recordings

and a paper-and-pen method. The focus of this research was only on the spoken discourse that occurred between the teacher and the pupils.

1.4 Programme of Study

In chapter 2 literature dealing with the role of input and interaction in naturalistic language acquisition - both first language acquisition and second language acquisition, is reviewed. The importance of input and interaction is considered and important features of "Motherese" and "Foreigner Talk" are discussed in order to establish the major features that characterize the linguistic environment that learners are exposed to in a "naturalistic" setting.

In chapter 3 the role of input and interaction in classroom second language acquisition is considered. Important features of "Teacher Talk" and "Classroom Discourse" are discussed in order to establish the major features that characterize the linguistic environment that learners are exposed to in a second language classroom.

In chapter 4 a few concepts pertaining to discourse analysis, especially the basic units of analysis used in analysing discourse in the classroom, are discussed, because of their importance in the discussion of various frameworks. Several frameworks that have been used to analyse classroom discourse will be discussed and evaluated. Following this a framework is proposed for use during this study.

In chapter 5 the collected data are analysed according to the proposed framework.

In chapter 6 the results of the analysis are given and discussed. The chapter also includes a section on the evaluation and recommendations for future input and interaction types in the ESL classroom which might also have implications for teacher training.

Chapter 7 contains a brief conclusion and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2
THE ROLE OF INPUT AND INTERACTION IN NATURALISTIC LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter the role of input and interaction in First Language Acquisition (FLA) and Second Language Acquisition (SLA), in "naturalistic" settings, is investigated. In the context of this study "naturalistic" language acquisition refers to the acquisition that takes place in an untutored or informal environment. The purpose of this chapter is to examine the input and interactional features of "motherese" and "foreigner talk" and the effect that these types of input and interaction might have on FLA and SLA. The starting point of this chapter gives a brief discussion of input and interaction. This is followed by an account of three different views on the role of input in language acquisition: the behaviourist, the nativist and the interactionist views. The importance of the input and interaction provided by mothers in first language (L1) acquisition is then briefly considered. This section on motherese research provides a basis for considering the role of input and interaction in SLA. In the subsequent section foreigner talk, as an exponent of a simplified register used by native speakers when addressing non-native speakers or L2 learners in natural settings, is examined. The aim is descriptive - to identify the major features that characterize the linguistic environment that learners are exposed to. It is hoped that a conclusion can be arrived at regarding the role that input and interaction play in language acquisition in "natural" settings.

2.2 Input and Interaction

Input is used to refer to the language that is addressed to the L2 learner either by a native speaker or by another L2 learner. **Interaction** consists of the discourse jointly constructed by the learner and his interlocutors.

It is self-evident that SLA can take place only when the learner has access to L2 input. This input may be in the form of exposure in natural settings or formal instruction. Currently, there is considerable interest in the input provided by native speakers when talking to L2 learners and the influence that this might have on SLA. Research is beginning to show that mere exposure to the L2 is not enough. Learners appear to need L2 data that are specially suited to their current stage of development. However, there is some controversy about what precisely constitutes an optimal input. Is it, as most teachers assume, an input selected and graded according to formal criteria, or is it, as Krashen (1981:102) argues, simply a matter of "comprehensible input", providing learners with language that they can understand?

Recently, researchers have attempted to show that it is not so much "input" (i.e. getting L2 data) as "interaction" (i.e. taking part in communicative activities) that is important for SLA. It is the conviction of Wells, Montgomery and Maclure (1979:337) that one of the main ways in which a child's language develops is through his participation in linguistic interaction and that some of the variation between children in rate of development is related to variation in the kinds of linguistic interaction they experience. According to Berko-Gleason (1982:20) children do not learn language from overhearing the conversations of others or from listening to the radio, but acquire it in the context of being spoken to. During the course of this study the importance of input and interaction for aiding language acquisition will be established.

2.3 Three Views on Input in Language Acquisition

Ellis (1986:127) states that in order for SLA to take place, there must be (i) some L2 data available to the learner as input and (ii) a set of internal learner mechanisms to account for how the L2 data are processed. A major issue in the study of SLA has been to decide what weight to allot to (i) and (ii). Various views on input in language acquisition will now be discussed.

2.3.1 Behaviourist Views

Behaviourist accounts of SLA view the learner as "a language-producing machine". Behaviourist psychology set out to explain behaviour by observing the responses that took place when particular stimuli were present. The availability of suitable stimuli is regarded as an important determining factor in SLA. Behaviourist theories emphasize the need to regulate the stimuli by grading the input into a series of steps, so that each step constitutes the right level of difficulty for the level that the learner has reached. Brown (1987:17) states that, "the extreme behaviouristic position would be that children come into the world with a **tabula rasa**, a clean slate bearing no preconceived notions about the world or about language, and these children are then shaped by their environment, slowly conditioned through various schedules of reinforcement". The regulation of the stimuli and the provision of feedback shape the learning that takes place and lead to the formation of habits.

2.3.2 Nativist Views

Nativist accounts of SLA view the learner as "a grand initiator". They maintain that mere exposure to language is not satisfactory for acquisition to take place. Input is seen merely

as a trigger which activates the internal mechanisms. According to this view the human being possesses an inborn capacity which enables him to acquire language. This capacity is by definition universal. It involves the capacity to abstract and internalise unconsciously the structural rules underlying the raw language material. According to Chomsky (1965:52) this innate knowledge is embodied in a "little black box" of sorts, a language acquisition device (LAD).

Chomsky went so far as to label the linguistic input produced by mothers as "degenerate". He argued that it was logically impossible for a child to develop a competence that generated well-formed sentences from exposure to data consisting of mistakes, garbles, inconsistencies, complexities and false starts. McNeill (1966:73) writes: "The speech of adults from which a child discovers the locally appropriate manifestation of the linguistic universals is a completely random, haphazard sample, in no way contrived to instruct the child on grammar".

Thus, whereas a behaviourist view of language seeks to explain progress in terms of what happens outside the learner, the nativist view emphasizes learner-internal factors.

2.3.3 The Interactionist View

The interactionist view treats the acquisition of language as the result of an interaction between the learner's mental abilities and the linguistic environment. The learner's processing mechanisms both determine and are determined by the nature of the input. Similarly, the quality of the input affects and is affected by the nature of the internal mechanisms. Language acquisition, therefore, derives from the collaborative efforts of the learner and his interlocutors and involves a dynamic interplay between internal and external factors. According to Ellis (1986:129) the third view is more tenable, because the important data are not just the utterances produced by the learner, but the discourse which learner and caretaker jointly construct.

Whatever approach one chooses to support, the speech young children hear and the interactions they participate in must be taken into account in any attempt to explain the process of language acquisition. Many of the early studies of input and interaction concerned the acquisition of a first language rather than a second language. The next section, therefore, looks at the way mothers talk to their children.

2.4 Input/Interaction and First Language Acquisition

In this section "Motherese" will be discussed as an exponent of a simplified register used by mothers when talking to their children. The effect that "Motherese" might have on First Language Acquisition is also looked at.

2.4.1 Motherese

For some time Chomsky's assertion that the linguistic input provided by parents was degenerate and so could not adequately serve as a basis for the child's acquisition of grammatical competence went unchallenged. However, not all persons held this view. Labov (1970:42) pointed out that:

> The ungrammaticality of everyday speech appears to be a myth with no basis in actual fact. In the various grammatical studies that we have conducted, the great majority of utterances - about 75% - are well formed sentences by any criterion. When rules of ellipsis are applied, and certain universal editing rules to take care of stammering and false starts, the production of truly ungrammatical and ill-formed sentences falls to less than two percent.

Other researchers (e.g. Waterson, 1971:179-211; Snow, 1972:551; Snow & Ferguson, 1977:149) have also noted that the language heard by children is neither phonologically nor grammatically deviant.

2.4.1.1 Characteristics of Motherese

Studies of speech directed to young children have considered phonological and lexical features (Ferguson, 1977:213-224) and syntactic, semantic and redundancy features (Snow, 1977:40). Snow (1976:84) lists a number of features of "Motherese": a lower mean length of utterance than that observed in speech to adults, the use of sentences with a limited range of grammatical relations, few subordinate and coordinate constructions, the frequent use of certain language functions such as instructions and also the use of simple pseudo-questions (i.e. questions to which the mother already knows the answer and which seem to serve as prompts or conversational guides). Sachs (1977:52-58) has demonstrated how the mother systematically tunes such suprasegmental features as pitch, intonation and rhythm in conversations with a young child. Landes' (1975:355-376) summary of a wide range of research on parental input supports these conclusions.

All these features suggest that the child is the recipient of language which is highly reduced in structure, but with a dramatic increase in redundancy. It seems that most, if not all,

young children have access to a highly specialized speech register (Ferguson, 1977:214) that is sensitive to their communicative immaturity (Snow, 1977:39). In adapting to their children's cognitive and communicative immaturity, mothers are providing young language-learning children with a data base that may be highly appropriate to their linguistic needs.

An important question would, therefore, be: Is the mother's speech "finely tuned" or "roughly tuned"? Krashen (1981:125) argues that it is "roughly tuned" (i.e. x+1). There is some evidence for this. According to studies by Newport et al. (1977:145) and Cross (1977:171), the syntactic complexity of caretaker speech does not grow in exact proportion to the child's competence. According to Krashen (1982:23) rough-tuning has the following advantages:

* It ensures that x+1 is covered, with no guesswork as to just what x+1 is for each child. On the other hand, deliberate aim at x+1 might miss!
* Roughly-tuned input will provide x+1 for more than one child at a time, as long as they understand what is said. Finely-tuned input, even if accurate (i.e. even if it "hits" x+1), will only benefit the child whose x+1 is exactly the same as what is emphasized in the input.
* Roughly-tuned input provides built-in review. We need not be concerned with whether a child has "mastered" a structure, whether the child was paying attention to the input that day, or whether we provided enough. With natural, roughly-tuned input, x+1 will occur and reoccur.

The mother, therefore, does not consciously aim at x+1. Rather she estimates the child's level of competence via the child's own linguistic output. In attempting to communicate with the child she provides input that covers x+1 as well as structures the child has already acquired and some which he has not. According to Krashen (1981:127) the caretaker or mother's speech provides a "net" of structure that includes x+1, but also contains a little extra. The net must be of an "optimal size". A "finely-tuned" net which hits x+1 and a little less may be less efficient. On the other hand, the "net" is not so wide that the child has difficulty understanding and "tunes out" (Shipley, Smith & Gleitman, 1969:338).

However, mother-child interaction cannot adequately be accounted for in terms of the characteristics of just the adult's language. A far more subtle and complex relationship exists between caretaker speech and child speech. It needs to be seen as a process involving the joint contributions of child and adult.

According to Phillips (1973:182-185) mothers' speech is a product of carefully adjusted interactional processes. He found that true mothers' speech did not appear reliably until children were old enough to respond to adults' speech. Snow (1972:561) also found that

even an experienced mother was not capable of producing fully adequate mothers' speech if the child was not present to cue her. According to Berko-Gleason (1977:204) feedback from children in the form of eye contact, blinking, nodding and other small responses undoubtedly assist adults in adjusting their speech to children. As children acquire language and become more competent in the grammar and lexicon, they also acquire the signals that keep conversations flowing. At the same time the adults adjust their speech to accommodate the child's emerging competence.

Given that mothers do tune their speech in the ways described above, certain questions now arise. What functions does "motherese" serve and how do mothers determine the extent and nature of the modifications needed?

2.4.1.2 Adjustments made by Mothers

According to Ferguson (1977:232) "motherese" serves three main functions: (i) an aid to communication, (ii) a language teaching aid, and (iii) a socialization function. Ellis (1986:130) states that it is the communication function that motivates motherese. Mothers want to communicate with their children and this leads them to simplify their speech in order to facilitate the exchange of meanings. Brown (1977:12) describes the primary motivation as "to communicate, to understand and to be understood, to keep two minds focused on the same topic".

The willingness of the child's parents to produce simplified and redundant speech, combined with the child's own ability to attend selectively to simple, meaningful and comprehensible utterances (Shipley, Smith & Gleitman, 1969:324), provide the child with relatively consistent and relevant linguistic information from which to formulate the rules of grammar. According to Snow (1977:39) children learn to talk by conversing with adults. Snow (1977:47) states that the semantic content of mothers' speech is largely limited to constructions the child has already mastered and it is this semantic limitation which produces the grammatical simplicity. The semantic content, unlike the grammar, of the mothers' speech, is limited to what the child can already produce himself. According to Snow (1977:47) the simplicity and redundancy of mothers' speech are the effect of very specified adjustments to the child, cued by what he says and tries to say as much as by his attentiveness and comprehension. The consistent simplicity and redundancy may help to minimize confusion and aid language acquisition. Of crucial importance, therefore, is the extent to which the child comprehends what is said to him and the extent to which he shows his comprehension or lack of comprehension to his mother.

The following section looks at the ways in which the adjustments made by mothers might affect first language acquisition.

2.4.1.3 The Effects of Motherese on First Language Acquisition

2.4.1.3.1 The Route of Acquisition

Investigations into the effects of parental speech modifications in L1 acquisition have centred on two areas, namely the route and the rate of acquisition. Little is known about the relationship between motherese and the route of acquisition. Attempts have been made to establish what effects, if any, parental speech modifications have on morphosyntactic development. Newport **et al.** (1977:145-146) in a correlational study of maternal discourse features and a range of child language measures were able to demonstrate that some aspects of the child's speech were influenced by the mother's usage (e.g. elements of verb auxiliaries by the use of yes/no questions), but that other aspects remained unaffected (e.g. range of sentence types). They concluded by suggesting that the acquisition of universal aspects of language "proceeds in indifference to the details of varying individual environments" whereas language-specific features were sensitive to environmental conditions. In general, the available evidence suggests that the route of L1 acquisition does not change in any significant way as a result of differences in the linguistic environment.

2.4.1.3.2 The Rate of Acquisition

Whereas the profile of morphosyntactic development appears universal for a given language, the rate at which children acquire this profile varies greatly from child to child. Thus, although the parental input may not play any significant part in determining the acquisitional order of grammatical features, it remains a possibility that variations in the linguistic environment can account for differences in the speed with which children acquire productive use of the grammatical system.

There is considerable evidence from studies conducted by Cross (1977:169-172), Ellis and Wells (1980:55-57) and Barnes **et al.** (1983:65-84) to suggest that the way mothers talk to their children influences how rapidly they acquire the language. According to Ellis and Wells (1980:55) fast learners receive substantially more acknowledgements, prohibitions, instructions, repetitions, questions and commands. These features enable the child to help sustain his involvement in conversations. Therefore, when the adult acts as the initiator he/she can best do so in a directing mode, for example by using commands or questions to initiate the discourse, but when the child initiates discourse the adult can facilitate

acquisition by acknowledging, clarifying, confirming or correcting. Acknowledgements and corrections provide the child with the essential feedback which he requires to verify the adequacy or validity of his communicative efforts. It seems that it is predominantly discourse features which are related to fast development.

This brief review of motherese research provides a basis for considering the role of input and interaction in SLA. It indicates the nature of the questions which need to be asked. In general, however, SLA research has not progressed as far as L1 research, particularly with reference to the effects of input and interaction on SLA. Most of the research has been concerned with describing what adjustments occur in the input and interaction directed at learners and why and how these adjustments occur.

2.5 The Role of Input and Interaction in SLA in Naturalistic Settings

In this section attention will be given to the study of "foreigner talk" (i.e. the register used by native speakers when they address non-native speakers) in a natural setting. Ferguson (1971:143) notes that foreigner talk is a simplified language system used to facilitate communication in speech situations where the extent of shared language among participants is severely limited. The question, therefore, arises whether the input and interaction offered by foreigner talk are analogous to that offered by motherese.

2.5.1 Characteristics of Foreigner Talk

According to Long (1983b:126) there have been at least forty studies in recent years investigating the speech by native speakers (NSs) addressing non-native speakers (NNSs). Most researchers report finding the NSs using a reduced or "simplified" variety of their language, commonly observed features of which include shorter utterances, more yes/no and or-choice questions and the omission of the copula (Hatch, Shapira & Gough, 1978:43; Arthur et al., 1980:117; Long, 1981:144; Scarcella & Higa, 1981:418). The range of vocabulary employed has also been found to be more restricted, as measured by type-token ratio (Arthur et al., 1980:117).

Ungrammatical foreigner talk can also occur under special conditions. According to Long (1983b:126) this occurs when two or more of the following conditions are met: (i) the non-native speaker has very low or no proficiency in the language of communication; (ii) the native speaker considers he holds a superior status to the non-native speaker; (iii) the native speaker has considerable prior foreigner talk experience, but of a limited kind; and (iv) the conversation occurs spontaneously.

2.5.2 Modifications and Simplifications

The considerable interest in research on speech modification for non-native speakers has largely been due to claims made by Krashen (1981:102) that input which is understood by the learner is the primary data for second language acquisition. It is widely assumed, and probably rightly, that samples of a second language heard, but not understood by a learner of that language serve no useful purpose in the SLA process. Krashen (1982:102) states that L2 learners need comprehensible input. The question is, how does that input become comprehensible to the learner?

Recent research on NS-NNS conversation (Long, 1983b; Scarcella & Higa, 1981) suggests that even though understanding may be facilitated by encoding in shorter syntactically less complex utterances, speech modifications are rarely sufficient. Native speakers also make a lot of adjustments to the interactional structure of conversation and it seems as if modifications of the latter sort are greater and more consistently observed and probably more important for providing comprehensible input.

Native speakers appear to modify interaction for two main reasons:

* to avoid "conversational trouble";
* to repair the discourse when trouble occurs.

Modifications designed to achieve the first purpose are called "conversational strategies" (Long, 1983b:132). These modifications reflect prior, long-range planning by the native speaker. They tend to govern the way he conducts conversations and they also concern the way the topics for conversations are treated.

Modifications motivated by the need to fix up the conversation when trouble arises seem to be spontaneous solutions to immediate short-term problems. Long (1983b:132) calls these "tactics for discourse repair". A subset of the modifications of each type, strategy and tactics is used both to avoid and repair trouble. Some examples of devices used as strategies and/or tactics are shown in Table 1 taken from Long (1983b:132).

TABLE 1: DEVICES USED BY NATIVE SPEAKERS TO MODIFY THE INTERACTIONAL STRUCTURE OF NS-NNS CONVERSATION

Strategies (S) (for avoiding trouble)		Tactics (T) (for repairing trouble)	
S1	Relinquish topic-control	T1	Accept unintentional topic-switch
S2	Select salient topics	T2	Request clarification
S3	Treat topics briefly	T3	Confirm own comprehension
S4	Make new topics salient	T4	Tolerate ambiguity
S5	Check NNS's comprehension		

Strategies and Tactics (ST) (for avoiding and repairing trouble)			
ST1	Use slow pace	ST4	Decompose topic comment constructions
ST2	Stress key words	ST5	Repeat own utterances
ST3	Pause before key words	ST6	Repeat others utterances

(Long, 1983b:132).

The devices used are some of the interactional resources open to native speakers in conversation with non-native speakers. Their use goes some way to making input comprehensible to the second language learner, as evidenced by the fact that without them communication breakdowns occur; however, with their use conversation is made possible and it can also be sustained. These fifteen devices are by no means the only options available to native speakers.

It is important to bear in mind that it is not only the native speaker who adapts his speech. The learner also uses various strategies to maximise his potential for communicating in the second language when he has limited resources. Various typologies of communicative strategies have been produced (e.g. Faerch & Kasper, 1980:57-103). Most of the typologies make a distinction between **reduction** strategies, where the learner reduces either or both of the formal and functional properties of the intended message, and **achievement** strategies, where the learner develops an alternative plan for accomplishing his original goal. Examples of the former include topic-switching and message-abandonment. Examples of the latter include word-coinage and mime.

Several conversational adjustments have been noted in foreigner talk discourse concerning the way topics are introduced by native speakers. For example, there is a well-documented preference for questions over statements (Scarcella & Higa, 1981:415) with questions being especially favoured for topic-initiating moves (Long, 1981:142-145). According to Long (1983a:181) the preference for questions in topic-initiating moves has several motivations:

* questions in general are more likely to draw the non-native speaker into the conversation;
* yes/no questions make the non-native speakers linguistic and, therefore, his conversational role easier, because they contain a complete proposition, which the non-native speaker need only confirm or deny;
* questions are useful as comprehension checks, which help the native speakers assess whether they are succeeding in communicating with non-native speakers, and also as clarification requests and confirmation checks, which tell them whether they are understanding what the non-native speakers are trying to communicate to them.

It is widely assumed (although yet to be shown empirically) that at least some of the speech modifications referred to above are what serve to make input comprehensible.

It is apparent that most of these adjustments resemble those made by mothers, as mentioned in sections 2.4.1.1 and 2.4.1.2. Before discussing the influence that foreigner talk has on SLA, the role that negotiation of meaning can play in the successful contribution to SLA, will be considered.

2.5.3 Negotiation of Meaning

Schwartz (1980:139) states that: "Negotiation refers to the process whereby second language learners confer with each other in order to achieve understanding". Through this process they can build on each other's strengths to meet their individual needs. Scarcella and Higa (1981:410) describe negotiation of meaning in terms of "the 'work' involved in helping one another communicate, for example, by jointly expressing messages, filling in lapses in the conversation, indicating gaps in understanding and repairing communication breakdowns".

Scarcella and Higa (1981:409) suggest that, while on the one hand, younger learners might receive more simplified input from adult native speakers, on the other hand, older learners have better conversational skills than younger learners. Scarcella and Higa (1981:409) also hypothesize that the older learner's greater ability to negotiate in conversations might provide tools for obtaining input which is far better at promoting second language acquisition than the simplified input received by younger learners. It has also been hypothesized that negotiation makes input comprehensible and, therefore, might promote SLA.

Scarcella and Higa (1981:430) state that the simplified input which the child language learner receives is not as 'optimal' as the input which the older learner receives through the process of negotiation. Native speakers are not always able to guess accurately and ascertain the non-native speaker's English proficiency level in order to make the necessary adjustments to their speech. Thus, non-native speakers who do not negotiate may receive input which is too simple (and perhaps already acquired) or too difficult (and therefore incomprehensible) (Krashen, 1981:103). Through the process of negotiation, the non-native speakers or L2 learners can receive challenging input, in advance of their linguistic competence and make this input comprehensible.

One of the most important features of negotiation work is that it is not always evenly distributed among participants. The more competent speaker generally assumes a greater responsibility for sustaining the conversation and maintaining understanding. The learner

also needs to contribute to the negotiation of meaning, as it is a joint enterprise. It, therefore, seems as if negotiation of meaning is very important in the SLA process. The result of the negotiation of meaning is that particular types of input and interaction result. In chapter 5 the various interaction patterns that have been identified in an English Second Language Classroom will be mentioned.

2.5.4 The Influence of Native Speaker - Learner Input and Interaction on SLA

The key question is whether second language acquisition is significantly affected by the input and interaction and, if so, how. This section will consider this question.

2.5.4.1 Input

Krashen (1982:21) argues that for SLA to take place the learner needs input that contains exemplars of the language forms which according to the natural order are due to be acquired next. Input must consist of x + 1. Krashen (1982:21) writes:

> ... a necessary (but not sufficient) condition to move from stage 'i' to stage 'i + 1' is that the acquirer understand input that contains 'i + 1', where 'understand' means that the acquirer is focussed on the meaning and not the form of the message.

Thus acquisition takes place when the learner understands language containing 'i + 1'.

In section 2.4.1.1 it was shown that the child is the recipient of language which is simplified and highly reduced in structure. According to Krashen (1982:23) the input children receive is "roughly tuned", thereby ensuring the provision of x + 1. If motherese does help it may do so by supplying crucial input, or language the child understands.

With regard to the route of SLA, Ellis (1986:155-159) states that input may facilitate acquisition by:

* providing the learner with ready-made chunks of language to memorize and later analyse;
* helping the learner build vertical constructions (vertical structures are constructed by borrowing chunks of speech from the preceding discourse);
* presenting the learner with a high frequency of grammatical forms;
* providing comprehensible input;
* providing a relaxed atmosphere which will ensure that input becomes intake.

It has been argued by researchers (e.g. Hatch **et al.**, 1979:108) that conversations with different interlocutors (children and adults) provide the learner with a variety of input which may benefit language acquisition. It has been shown that the discourse in which child learners and adult learners take part, differ. Therefore, the frequency of syntactic forms in the input may vary. However, the developmental route stays the same. Input frequency may, therefore, not be the most important factor in determining the route of SLA. It seems more likely that interaction plays an important role in the rate of SLA.

2.5.4.2 Interaction

According to Wells, Montgomery and Maclure (1979:337) children's language acquisition is influenced by the kind of linguistic interaction they experience with native speakers. Available research (Wells, Montgomery & Maclure, 1979; Ellis & Wells, 1980) suggests that it is the interactional rather than the formal adjustments of native speaker language that help to accelerate acquisition. Berko-Gleason (1977:203) suggests that it is the importance of maintaining the flow of conversation which motivates the adult's speech modifications. Thus adults do not so much monitor their syntax as endeavour to ensure that effective communication takes place.

Rather than emphasising the input provided by native speakers the focus is now on the need for reciprocity of interaction, which ensures that potentially facilitative features such as directives, polar questions, acknowledging and various other discourse features needed to sustain conversation is provided. One very important study is the one by Scarcella and Higa (1981:410-430), which was mentioned in section 2.5.3. This study supports the claim that it is the discourse modifications rather than the formal adjustments in foreigner talk that aid acquisition.

2.6 Conclusion

An attempt was made in this chapter to indicate the role that input and interaction play in first language acquisition as well as in second language acquisition, when the input and interaction is directed at children or L2 learners learning the target language in a "naturalistic" setting.

The review of the role of input and interaction in naturalistic language acquisition seems to suggest that when learners are addressed by either their mothers or native speakers (i.e. competent speakers of a language), the latter adjust both the formal and discourse levels of the language they use. Learners also employ certain strategies to help sustain the conversation.

Input and interaction affect SLA in various degrees. However, it seems as if the emphasis is moving from input to interaction. It appears as if language acquisition in naturalistic settings is embedded in a context of social interaction. It does not involve the formal articulation of a set of rules. It results from the opportunity for sustained verbal exchange with a model with whom the learner identifies closely who provides a tractable input of the target language and feedback about the appropriateness of the learner's utterances. The learners have a great amount of freedom in terms of the negotiation of meaning, which apparently facilitates SLA. It seems as if both participants are equal partners in a cooperative enterprise.

CHAPTER 3
THE ROLE OF INPUT AND INTERACTION IN CLASSROOM SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

3.1 Introduction

In their attempts to gain a better understanding of the process by which individuals acquire knowledge or skills, educators are showing increased interest in the nature of informal and formal learning and in the relationship between the two. In chapter 2 the role of input and interaction in naturalistic settings was considered. In this chapter the role of input and interaction in a second language classroom setting is considered. It is necessary to distinguish these two setting types, because the kinds of communication that occur in each are in many respects very different.

Interest in the language of the classroom has been stimulated by the recognition that the successful outcome of either subject lessons or language lessons may depend on the type of language used by the teacher and the type of interactions occurring in the classroom. In the case of the language classroom the rejection of language teaching method as the main determinant of successful learning has stimulated the interest in the analysis of teacher language and interaction. Scherer and Wertheimer (1964:80-100) have compared various methods, but were unable to demonstrate that one was more successful than another. According to Ellis (1986:143) one possible explanation could be that even though the various methods emphasized different methodological principles, similar patterns of classroom communication were established, resulting in similar language learning outcomes. As a result, it was hypothesized that classroom interaction was the major variable affecting SLA.

Classroom process research, as Gaies (1983:205) calls the study of communication in the classroom, has taken different forms. In this chapter Teacher Talk, the language used by the teacher when addressing L2 learners, will be examined. Classroom Discourse, the discourse jointly constructed by the teacher and L2 learners, will also be investigated. The purpose is to establish a picture of what the input and interaction in a second language classroom actually look like. The influence that this input and interaction might have on SLA will also be briefly considered, before concluding with some general comments on the type of input/interaction found in classrooms in comparison to that found in natural settings.

3.2 Teacher Talk

The study of teacher talk parallels that of foreigner talk. The language that teachers address to L2 learners is also treated as a register, with its own specific formal and interactional

properties. An important question addressed in this section on teacher talk is whether the input and interaction to which classroom second language learners are exposed through the oral classroom language of their teachers involve linguistic and communicative adjustments analogous to those which are characteristic of much of the adult input and interaction to children in first and second language acquisition occurring in naturalistic settings.

3.2.1 Characteristics and Adjustments made in Teacher Talk

Early studies of teachers' classroom language focused on the linguistic characteristics of teacher input (Hatch, Shapira & Gough, 1978:40-46; Henzl, 1979:161-164). Many of these studies were intended to determine how teachers' classroom language differs from "normal" speech, i.e., speech between native speakers. Henzl (1979:164) states that teachers talked slower and also louder when they were speaking to a group of students. Their speech was also characterized by regular pauses and the pauses tended to be longer between phrases and sentences, or whenever they waited for the students to signal their comprehension. Henzl (1979:161-164) also notes several lexical, phonological and grammatical modifications in a teacher's language.

Teacher Talk is also characterized by functional adjustments. Gaies (1977:214-223) found evidence in his teachers' speech of the same interactional devices characteristic of adult input to children. He mentions strategies of repetition, prompting, prodding and modelling. Chaudron (1982:170-180) mentions several simplification strategies used by teachers with English Second Language (ESL) learners, for example, vocabulary elaboration, questioning, topic development and explanations.

An interesting issue in teacher talk is how the teacher determines what level of adjustment to make. Henzl's (1979:160-164) analysis revealed that second language teachers manipulated linguistic variables according to their judgement of what their students would be able to comprehend. According to Ellis (1986:146) teachers ought to establish the general level of proficiency of their class and then determine the nature and the extent of the modifications needed. Teachers may, therefore, take the average level of the class. As a result, it seems unlikely that teacher talk will be as finely tuned to the level of the learner as foreigner talk. Further features of foreigner talk will also be mentioned in section 3.3.1.

3.3 Classroom Discourse in an English Second Language Classroom

Classroom discourse considers the discourse jointly constructed by both teacher and pupils. Verbal interaction inside the classroom differs markedly from "natural" conversation in that its main purpose is to instruct and inform and this difference is reflected in the structure of

the discourse. According to Ellis (1986:146) the predominant type of discourse found in the classroom conforms to the three-phase discourse pattern - a teacher initiation, a pupil response and teacher feedback (the IRF-pattern) - which is prevalent in teacher-centred classrooms. The prevalence of the IRF exchange pattern in classrooms has been well-documented by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975:63-111) and Sinclair and Brazil (1982:48-54). According to Holmes (1978:139) the IRF structure is the reason why 70% of classroom talk belongs to the teacher. Ellis (1980:35) points out that the single-word responses which characterize the pupils' responses in teacher-class interaction are not so much the result of the learner's limited competence as of the constraints of teacher-dominated discourse.

The analysis of classroom discourse can help to shed light on how meaning is negotiated in a classroom context. However, doubts remain whether sufficient negotiation is possible in classrooms, particularly when IRF exchanges predominate. In the next section several important issues relating to classroom discourse, such as: Who does the talking in the classroom? How much is spoken by the different participants? What effect does this have on the classroom verbal performance of others?, will be considered.

3.3.1 Who Talks in the Classroom and How Much?

Schools are places where people talk to one another. In a classroom there is only one adult present who seems to be talking more than all the children together. The teacher is the centre of everybody's attention. Because of social conventions, the teacher probably has more freedom in her/his choice of what to say than practically any other person and more power to constrain what else is said.

According to Sinclair and Brazil (1982:7) the teacher dominates the talk in quantity, range and degree of control. Much of this no doubt arises from her/his social position and his legal responsibility. In a study conducted by Bellack et al. (1966:42-50) teacher-pupil activity in fifteen classes using fifteen different teachers was studied. The results of their study show that the fifteen teachers did more talking than did the 345 pupils. In Table 2 the percentage of lines and moves spoken by teachers and pupils in each of the fifteen classes and for all classes combined is given. In terms of lines spoken, the median percentage of lines for the fifteen teachers is 72.6. The distribution is fairly peaked: 7 of the 15 teachers spoke between 70% and 75% of the total lines of discourse for all sessions. Three of the teachers spoke more than 80% of the lines. Thus the teacher-pupil ratio of speech is about 3 to 1 in most of the classrooms studied.

TABLE 2: PERCENTAGE OF LINES AND MOVES FOR TEACHERS AND PUPILS IN EACH OF THE FIFTEEN CLASSES AND FOR ALL CLASSES COMBINED

Class		Teacher	Pupil
1	Moves	60.6	39.4
	Lines	76.3	23.7
2	Moves	59.0	41.0
	Lines	61.5	38.5
3	Moves	65.8	34.2
	Lines	70.2	29.8
4	Moves	61.4	38.6
	Lines	60.3	39.7
5	Moves	58.3	41.7
	Lines	61.3	38.7
6	Moves	64.5	35.5
	Lines	82.2	17.8
7	Moves	63.7	36.3
	Lines	72.0	28.0
8	Moves	61.7	38.3
	Lines	73.5	26.5
9	Moves	72.1	27.9
	Lines	92.8	7.2
10	Moves	62.3	37.7
	Lines	81.2	18.8
11	Moves	66.9	33.1
	Lines	73.7	26.3
12	Moves	58.3	41.7
	Lines	73.4	26.6
13	Moves	60.1	39.9
	Lines	70.9	29.1
14	Moves	66.4	33.5
	Lines	72.6	20.3
15	Moves	57.8	41.3
	Lines	60.8	36.2
X	Moves	61.7	38.2
	Lines	72.1	27.2

(Bellack et al., 1966:42).

Bellack et al. (1966:46) distinguish four pedagogical moves, namely soliciting, responding, structuring and reacting. The pedagogical roles of the classroom are clearly delineated for teachers and pupils. Table 3 shows the percentage of moves spoken by teachers and pupils during each of the pedagogical moves. The teacher dominates the structuring, soliciting and reacting moves, speaking 86%, 86% and 81% of these moves respectively. In contrast, the teacher is responsible for only 12% of the responding moves. Control by the teacher of three of the pedagogical moves leaves the pupil with a very limited role to play in classroom discussions. The pupil's primary job is to respond, as shown by the fact that the largest percentage of his moves, 88%, is devoted to responding.

TABLE 3: PERCENTAGE OF MOVES SPOKEN BY TEACHERS AND PUPILS DURING EACH OF THE PEDAGOGICAL MOVES

Pedagogical Move		f	Total	Percentage of moves by Teachers	Percentage of moves by Pupils	Percentage of moves by Audiovisual Devices
Soliciting	SOL	5.135	100.	86.0	14.0	-
Responding	RES	4.385	100.	12.0	88.0	-
Structuring	STR	854	100.	86.0	12.0	2.0
Reacting	REA	4.649	100.	81.0	19.0	-

(Bellack et al., 1966:46).

From the above statistics it becomes clear that there is little interaction unless the pupils are given a quasi-teacher role for a few minutes. If it is desired to enhance the opportunities for the pupils, a fundamental restructuring of the discourse will be required.

3.3.2 Questioning Strategies

What is there about the question-answer (recitation) pattern of instruction that makes it so singularly successful in the evolutionary struggle with other, more highly recommended methods? Hoetker and Ahlbrand (1969:163) phrase the problem as follows:

> If the recitation (i.e. the question-answer pattern) is a poor pedagogical method, as most teacher educators have long believed, why have they not been able to deter teachers from using it?

According to Westbury (1972:100) the classroom should be accepted as an environment that contains demands and constraints that are inherent in its nature, given existing goals, structures and resources. Westbury (1972:100) states that: "The recitation is a teaching

strategy that permits teachers to deal, in at least a minimally satisfactory way, with the tensions that this interaction between demands and constraints creates".

A distinction is often made between "open" questions (to which the answer is not known) and "closed" questions, for which the teacher already has an answer in mind. Long and Sato (1983:268-284) examined the forms and functions of ESL teachers' classroom questions and then compared their findings with previously established patterns of questioning behaviour in NS-NNS conversation outside classrooms. In the six ESL classrooms investigated, display questions or "closed" questions constituted more than half of all questions and outnumbered referential questions by almost four-to-one. In contrast, referential questions were the predominant question type in native speaker to non-native speaker interaction outside the classroom. Display questions were hardly ever used.

Mehan (1979:291) observes: "The use of known information questions has consequences for the knowledge that children display in the classroom". Mehan (1979:294) adds that the use of known information questions, which reflect the one-way flow of information from teachers to pupils found in most classrooms, is responsible for the fact "that conversations in classrooms have unique features, and that the demands of classroom discourse must be kept separate from the demands of everyday discourse". According to Gaies (1983:209) the fundamental feature of display questions is that they do not generally invite learners to respond at length and, even less, to initiate new topics and thus sustain interaction. Display questions, therefore, generate discourse which is fundamentally different from everyday discourse and this might be an important consideration for language teachers. It is possible that an increased use of referential questions by teachers, which creates a flow of information from pupils to teachers, may generate discourse which more closely resembles the normal conversation learners experience outside the classroom.

In the following section the language of classroom management is considered. The purpose is to establish whether the discourse, when the L2 is used for general classroom organization and classroom management, will resemble that of normal conversation experienced by learners outside the classroom.

3.3.3 The Language of Classroom Management

Many teachers view the time spent on maintaining discipline, conducting classroom business and setting up learning activities, which according to Holmes (1978:139) accounts for one-third of teacher talk, as an undesirable necessity. Ellis (1980:38) argues that in a language lesson such talk provides a rich source of information about the target language in what can be considered "naturalistic" contexts. Ellis found that a large number of the ESL

pupil's spontaneous utterances were related to the large amount of classroom management activities that he could participate in. The classroom management activities were also conducted in a relaxed atmosphere, which according to Krashen (1982:78) is essential for second language acquisition.

The majority of the teacher's utterances concerned with class management were directives. Ervin-Tripp (1976:29-30) calls this "need statements" and "imperatives", for example:

(i) Now what I want you to do for homework is ...
(ii) Put your creative language books in the cupboard.

According to Ellis (1980:38) the teacher's directives tend to occur in standard "action-frames", that is, in contexts which are frequent and familiar to the learner. They also tend to refer to contiguous objects and events. Ferrier (1978:302) has the following to say about early mother tongue acquisition: "The small baby finds himself with monotonous regularity in routine interactional contexts in which his mother produces a fairly limited and predictable set of utterances". Ferrier believes that these conditions help to explain how L1 acquisition takes place. The daily activities of classroom management might be the only opportunity the L2 learner has to initiate discourse and participate freely in the interaction. This might be the nearest he can get to a "natural" environment in the classroom. Allwright (1984:158-160) sees the cooperative management of classroom interaction by L2 teacher and pupils as the key to maximising learning opportunities.

3.4 The Importance of Interaction in the Classroom

Although it cannot be denied that the teacher dominates classroom proceedings, it does seem as if more interaction between the teacher and the pupils in the classroom will create a more favourable language acquisition environment. In this section the arguments of Allwright (1984:156-160) concerning the importance of interaction in classroom language learning, will be examined.

3.4.1 The Pedagogic Importance of Interaction

According to Allwright (1984:159) interaction is inherent in the very notion of classroom pedagogy, being the process whereby lessons are "accomplished". He argues that in order for lessons to take place at all, classroom interaction has to be managed by both the teacher and the pupils. It is, therefore, through this joint management of interaction in the classroom that language learning itself is jointly managed. Candlin (1984:42) mentions the importance of input plus interaction, whereby intake is variously negotiated by learners in unpredictable orders on the basis of a "syllabus" which is in the control of the learner. The

role of the teacher changes as soon as he/she allows pupils to negotiate and participate in the interactions occurring in the ESL classroom, because the teacher now has to provide opportunities for interaction between learners and text, learners and teachers, learners and peers, through which items, principles and values can be made comprehensible. It is, therefore, important that learners and their teachers plot their own paths to acquisition on the basis of negotiated interaction. The importance of interaction is precisely that it entails this joint management of learning. According to Allwright (1984:159) interaction is "an inescapable and inescapably crucial aspect of classroom life". Therefore, successful pedagogy, in any subject, necessarily involves the successful management of classroom interaction by both teacher and pupils.

3.4.2 The Social Nature of Interaction

The history of research on language teaching suggests that the teaching profession tends to see classroom interaction as something where the teacher functions as "supreme ruler". Although the responsibility for classroom interaction presides with the teacher, nothing will change the fact that interaction is, "by definition and in practice, a 'co-production'" (Allwright, 1984:159). Classroom lessons are, therefore, socially constructed events. The mere presence of a participant constitutes a contribution to the management of the interaction, because it will affect the behaviour of others, however subtly.

According to Allwright (1984:163) the management of learning also has to be a co-production. The teacher has to interact with the learners to implement any plans, which will thus be modified through the interaction process. Potential benefits for the learners are that their own involvement is a way for them to get instruction better adapted to their needs. For the teachers, an awareness of the learners' potential contributions should help them have more respect for their learners. This respect will emerge in the classroom interaction and will in turn enhance the learners' own self-respect and result in improved learning. Allwright (1984:169) states that: "The central fact is that interaction is the process whereby everything that happens in the classroom gets to happen the way it does".

The question is now: To what extent will the input and interaction occurring in the classroom influence SLA?

3.5 The Influence of Classroom Input and Interaction on Second Language Acquisition

As with First Language Acquisition and "naturalistic" Second Language Acquisition the influence of classroom input and interaction on SLA is a highly complex issue. Krashen

(1982:20) stresses the importance of comprehensible input for aiding SLA, whereas Candlin (1984:42) and Allwright (1984:156-160) stress the importance of interaction. It seems as if input plus interaction is needed for successful SLA to occur.

3.5.1 Input

Krashen (1982:63) points out that learners need comprehensible input, because it is a fundamental and necessary (but not sufficient) requirement for acquisition to take place. The input must contain x + 1 to be useful for language acquisition, but it need not contain only x + 1. This has already been mentioned in section 2.5.4.1 in chapter 2. Krashen (1982:58) states that the classroom is of benefit when it is the major source of comprehensible input. Krashen adds that if second language classrooms are filled with input that is optimal for acquisition, it is possible that it can resemble that of the informal environment. The value of the second language classes, then, lies not only in the grammar instruction, but in the simpler "teacher talk", the comprehensible input.

In section 3.2.1 it was shown that teacher talk involves many of the same adjustments found in foreigner talk. It might, therefore, be hypothesised that these adjustments facilitate SLA in the classroom in much the same way as foreigner talk adjustments are hypothesised to facilitate SLA in naturalistic settings. The way input influences naturalistic SLA has already been mentioned in section 2.5.4.1. Several studies (Seliger, 1977; Snow & Hoefnagel-Höhle, 1982) have sought to investigate the effect of input on the rate of SLA. The study of Snow and Höhle (1982:411-430) suggests that quantity of speech does not determine the rate of acquisition; however, Seliger (1977:263-275) did find a significant correlation between the quantity of input and achievement scores. Thus, the evidence regarding the effects of quantity of input is mixed. It seems as if it may be quantity and quality (i.e. specific kinds of interactionally adjusted input) that is important.

3.5.2 Interaction

Recently, attention has shifted from the nature of input to the nature of interaction between native speakers and second language acquirers. While modified input, such as can be observed both in and outside the classroom, is frequently available to second language acquirers, it is the interactional adjustments which native speakers/teachers make consistently in speech with second language acquirers that is now considered to be most crucial to second language acquisition.

This theoretical reorientation has caused the focus of research in teachers' classroom language to shift from the examination of the linguistic features of teachers' speech to the

study of interactional patterns in the second language classroom. A research study which reflects this change in focus is Long and Sato's (1983:268-284) examination of the forms and functions of ESL teachers' classroom questions. This study was mentioned in section 3.3.2. It has, therefore, become increasingly necessary to focus on the interactions that take place in a second language classroom, because the degree in which pupils are allowed to participate as well as negotiate may be important for SLA.

3.6 Conclusion

It is common experience that when a child is within an environment where his native language is not spoken he will become reasonably proficient in the new language within approximately six to eight months. It is equally common experience that after six years of schooling in the second language, whatever the teaching method, most children emerge with a very poor command of the language.

There is substantial literature which suggests that where acquisition takes place in a formal learning context (i.e. tutored) it is frequently less successful than when it takes place informally (i.e. untutored). Macnamara (1973:251) has argued that success in L2 learning in "street" situations-in comparison with learning in the classroom derives from the fact that whereas in the former the learner is highly motivated to communicate in the latter the teacher "seldom has anything to say to his pupils so important that they will eagerly guess his meaning" and likewise the learner has little intrinsic need to communicate. This is a reason why classrooms contain less negotiation of meaning.

d'Anglejan (1978:225) argues that what constitutes 'communication' in a classroom rarely corresponds to any acceptable definition of communication outside the classroom. She argues that in such classrooms the input is of a reduced variety and affords limited opportunity for hypothesis formation and testing. This reduced input can be seen as the consequence of limited opportunities for negotiation of meaning.

The classroom language of the second language teacher is most likely to be formally monitored not to ensure adequate communication, but to provide a carefully graded introduction to the grammatical properties of the language. What needs emphasising, however, is that the language differences which exist between the classroom and the 'natural' contexts of L1 acquisition consist not so much of differences in the kind of language forms used as in the functions which the input serves. The range of discourse that the student can be exposed to in a second language classroom is quite limited, no matter how 'natural' it is made. There is simply no way the classroom can match the variety of the outside world, although the current limitations can certainly be expanded upon.

The tenor of this chapter and a large majority of the research done on the role of input and interaction in a second language classroom setting, is that the "traditional" classroom environment actually inhibits L2 acquisition, because it does not offer any opportunity for "authentic" communication. However, this opinion is supported by little empirical research (e.g. Krashen, 1976:157-168). If Macnamara and the rest are right in their claims that second language learning is impeded in the classroom by the lack of sufficient opportunity to use the language meaningfully, then it ought to be possible to show why this occurs by a detailed analysis of the different types of classroom interaction or discourse patterns which commonly occur. This will be investigated in chapter five.

CHAPTER 4
THE ANALYSIS OF CLASSROOM INTERACTION

4.1 Introduction

A wide variety of studies have been called "discourse analysis". According to Hatch and Long (1980:35) "discourse analysis" is a very vague and broadly defined concept; for example, sociolinguists have looked at an area of discourse analysis important to teachers: discourse where the social structure is one of wide power mismatch for the participants. Linguists have felt that sentences or utterances can only be described when related to the context in which they occur. This includes their linguistic context, that is, other related utterances in a piece of spoken or written text. The types of spoken discourse which have been analysed range from the informal to the formal and include casual conversation, doctor-patient interviews and teacher-pupil interaction. These differ from one another according to such factors as the level of formality, the relationships between the participants, and so on. However, patterns (e.g. IRF) have emerged which show clearly that all talk is structured in some way and that it is possible to describe different types of talk using the same basic units of analysis. For example, one unit of discourse is the exchange, which can consist of three moves, an Initiation (I), a Response (R) and Feedback (F). This pattern occurs typically in the type of discourse where one speaker is eliciting responses and seeking to retain the conversational initiative, as in classroom dialogue.

Hatch and Long (1980:25) regard classroom discourse analysis as an area of discourse analysis. The starting point of this chapter is to examine some of the basic units of analysis used in analysing discourse in the classroom, because a number of these units of analysis and function have been used by researchers in their frameworks for analysing classroom interaction. Although there are a great number of frameworks available which are used to analyse different types of interaction, the frameworks of Bellack et al. (1966), Barnes (1969) (In Barnes et al., 1969), Flanders (1970), Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Ellis (1984) will be investigated, because of their focus on the structure of classroom interaction. Following this a framework will be proposed for use in this study to analyse the classroom discourse in a second language classroom.

4.2 Discourse Units

Discourse analysis is an attempt to discover structure and organization in lingual objects and events that lie beyond the sentence. As Levinson (1983:286) points out, discourse analysis essentially strives to extend the techniques that have been employed in formal linguistic analyses to make them apply supra-sententially. It is, therefore, characterized by an initial, hypothetical definition of different units of discourse, that are subsequently

arranged in a 'consist of' relation. Various units of analysis have been proposed for analysing especially classroom interaction.

Coulthard (1985:123) discusses the organization of classroom discourse in terms of the units of:

* lesson
* transaction
* exchange
* move
* act

According to Gardner (1984:111) 'lessons' are classroom specific and in an early model were described as "an unordered series of transactions". Coulthard and Brazil (1981:101) regard transaction, the highest unit consisting of two or more exchanges, as "the unit concerned with negotiating the transmission of information". Exchanges consist of two or more moves and moves in turn consist of a combination of acts. According to Coulthard and Montgomery (1981:1-50) discourse acts can take a place structurally at the 'head' of a first or a second pair part, or they can be supportive to such heads, for example, expanding, clarifying, or drawing attention to such heads, or they can frame boundaries between higher units of discourse, broadly speaking where there is a topic shift or change. Bellack et al. (1966:2-5) propose four units, 'move', 'cycle', 'subgame' and 'game', to describe the structure of classroom interaction.

4.3 Discourse Function

Weideman (1988:78) states that: "One of the most commonly acknowledged notions in various discussions of discourse analysis is that our lingual actions can only be explained by relating them to the function(s) that they fulfil in communication". Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975:40-44) definition of the various discourse acts appeals to the function that such acts have in relation to others. Burton (1980:157) states that the acts **Elicitation** and **Directive** are recognisable in discourse as acts that respectively function to request a linguistic (i.e. verbal) response or to request a non-linguistic (i.e. non-verbal) response. According to Burton (1980:158) the two responding acts, **Reply** and **React**, in turn, function respectively to provide a verbal response to a preceding **Elicitation** and to give a non-verbal response to a **Directive**. The following example contains instances of the act of Elicitation (el) followed by a Reply (rep):

T: And how is the current going to pass through the copper chloride solution? (el)
P: The ions. (rep)

T: Ions. (e)
T: What about the ions? (el)
P: Movement of charge. (rep)
T: Movement of charge. (e)
(Greyling, 1987:257).

In this example a third act, that of **Evaluate** (e), occurs. Therefore, Elicitation and Evaluate are acts on the part of the teacher, whereas Reply is a pupil act. These acts make up, on the next level of analysis, a move structure in an exchange that has the familiar IRF pattern that Sinclair and Coulthard (1975:63-110) found to be the most commonly occurring one in teacher-centred classroom discourse.

In order to identify the function of certain "utterances" or "contributions", one needs to know the precise context as well as the allocation of roles between the participants. The following examples are taken from Weideman (1988:82):

(i) A: What are those cards called?
B: These are research and development cards.

(ii) A: How do you move?
B: You move either ... right ... there are two ways, two ways of moving. One is with the dice.

(iii) C: OK. You need ... on the system chart all those ... all the numbers one to three are all advantages. Now the research and development cards - you must try to change all of those here. Uh ... you must try ... (continuous explanation).

According to Weideman (1988:82) participant A, in both examples, though apparently the initiator of the exchange, is the pupil. The questions are information-seeking questions on the part of the pupils, who are about to attempt to play a board game and have been allowed by the teacher to ask two questions before beginning. This exchange, therefore, does not conform to the familiar IRF pattern. It is also obvious that someone not familiar with the context may misinterpret C's explanation as being the teacher's.

Certain grammatical forms can also be easily misinterpreted; for example, the grammatical forms 'declarative' and 'interrogative' respectively, can, under certain circumstances, be understood as commands:

(i) I can hear someone talking.
(ii) What are you talking about?

These sentences can be heard typically in classrooms and are spoken by teachers with the force of a command when the action or activity they refer to is proscribed at the time of utterance. Naturally, the hearer can misinterpret the speaker's intent, either deliberately or unwittingly. However, a pupil who responded to these examples as if they were a statement or a question (e.g. 'So can I' or 'The football match last night') would hardly be regarded favourably by the teacher.

In the next section the different frameworks that have been used to analyse classroom discourse will be discussed.

4.4 Frameworks used for the Analysis of Classroom Interaction

Various frameworks have been proposed for analysing different types of interaction. As already mentioned the frameworks of Bellack **et al.** (1966), Barnes (1969) (**In** Barnes **et al.**, 1969), Flanders (1970), Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Ellis (1984) will be investigated, because of their primary focus on classroom interaction.

4.4.1 Bellack, Kliebard, Hyman and Smith (1966)

The purpose of their research was to study the teaching process through an analysis of the linguistic behaviour of teachers and pupils in the classroom. Their major aim was to describe the patterned processes of verbal interaction that characterize classrooms in action. According to Bellack **et al.** (1966:2) "the verbal activities involved in teaching are reciprocal affairs involving both teachers and students". Therefore, focusing on only the activities of one participant will give a distorted view of the classroom interaction process.

Bellack **et al.** (1966:4) propose four major categories into which the verbal actions of teachers and pupils can be classified. They call these verbal actions **pedagogical moves** and classify them in terms of the pedagogical functions they perform in classroom discourse. The definitions of these pedagogical moves are as follows:

STRUCTURING. Structuring moves serve the pedagogical function of setting the context for subsequent behaviour by either launching or halting-excluding interaction between students and teachers. For example, teachers frequently launch a class period with a structuring move in which they focus attention on the topic or problem to be discussed during that session.

SOLICITING. Moves in this category are designed to elicit a verbal response, to encourage persons addressed to attend to something, or to elicit a physical response. All questions are solicitations, as are commands, imperatives and requests.

RESPONDING. These moves bear a reciprocal relationship to soliciting moves and occur only in relation to them. Their pedagogical function is to fulfil the expectation of soliciting moves; thus students' answers to teachers' questions are classified as responding moves.

REACTING. These moves are occasioned by a structuring, soliciting, responding, or prior reacting move, but are not directly elicited by them. Pedagogically, these moves serve to modify (by clarifying, synthesizing, or expanding) and/or to rate (positively or negatively) what has been said previously. Reacting moves differ from responding moves: while a responding move is always directly elicited by a solicitation, preceding moves serve only as the occasion for reactions (Bellack et al., 1966:4).

The following are examples of the analysis applied to pieces of data:

(i) T: lets turn to American investment abroad. (STR)
You suppose we do invest much money outside of the US? (SOL)
P: yes (RES)

(ii) T: What kind of taxes? (SOL)
P: Import (RES)
T: Hm? (SOL)
P: Import (RES)

(iii) T: In what does this country specialize? (SOL)
P: Heavy machinery (RES)
T: Right (REA)

(iv) T: Come on. Mention another economic group that we belong to. (SOL)
P: Monetary Fund (RES)
T: Monetary Fund (REA)
P: Unicef (RES)
T: Unicef (REA)

(Bellack et al., 1966:258-268).

Bellack et al. (1966:238) view classroom discourse as a kind of language game. They state that the teacher is the most active player in the game. He makes the most moves; he speaks most frequently; his speeches usually are the longest. In general, the ratio of his speech to the speech of all other players is approximately 3 to 1 in terms of lines spoken and 3 to 2 in terms of the number of moves made.

4.4.2 Barnes (1969) (In Barnes et al., 1969)

Barnes (1969:13-14) defines his study as:

> a preliminary investigation of the interaction between the linguistic expectations (drawn from home and primary school experience) brought by pupils to their secondary schools, and the linguistic demands set up (implicitly or explicitly) by the teachers in the classrooms.

Barnes analysed extracts of lessons in detail to demonstrate the ways in which teachers interrupt, misunderstand, confuse, dominate and constrict their pupils. Barnes also shows how potential contributions by pupils are rejected by teachers in order to return to their lesson schedule.

Barnes (1969:17) sorted teachers' questions into four categories:

(i) **FACTUAL** (What questions)
  (a) naming
  (b) information
(ii) **REASONING** (How and Why questions)
  (a) closed reasoning - recalled sequences
  (b) closed reasoning - not recalled
  (c) open reasoning
  (d) observation
(iii) **OPEN QUESTIONS** (not calling for reasoning)
(iv) **SOCIAL**
  (a) Control (won't you ... questions)
  (b) appeal (aren't we ... questions)
  (c) other

Barnes (1969:17) defines the questions as follows:

NAMING questions ask pupils to give a name to some phenomenon without requiring them to show insight into its use.

REASONING questions require pupils to 'think aloud' - to construct, or reconstruct from memory, a logically organized sequence.

RECALL questions are concerned with summoning up required knowledge from memory.

CLOSED questions have only one acceptable answer; whereas to **OPEN** questions a number of different answers would be acceptable. Open questions might be factual in some

circumstances: for example, a request for 'any fraction', where the range of choices open to the pupil is unusually wide.

OBSERVATION questions are intended to include those questions (about phenomena immediately present to the children) which require them to interpret what they perceive.

CONTROL questions are directed towards imposing the teacher's wishes upon the class.

APPEAL questions, which ask pupils to agree, or share an attitude, or remember an experience, are less directive than control questions: that is, it is possible for children to reject them without necessarily giving offence.

Barnes (1969:22) found the results of the analysis of questions depressing: "What most impressed us ... was the predominance of factual over reasoning questions ... and the fact that entirely open questions hardly ever occurred". Barnes (1969:27) also found that the amount and quality of pupil participation was significantly less than that of teachers.

4.4.3 Flanders (1970)

Flanders (1970:v) states that: "We still need to know much more about how the interaction between a teacher and his pupils can be abstracted and recorded". He believes that the interaction between a teacher and his pupils can be improved. According to Flanders (1970:33) his system is, "a totally inclusive system" which "permits coding at a constant rate throughout the observation". The system is intended for coding lessons as they happen and not from recordings. The observer determines the appropriate category for the talk every three seconds and in this way builds up a comprehensive profile of the lesson.

The system comprises ten categories: seven for teacher talk, two for pupil talk and one for silence or 'confusion'. In Table 4 Flanders' Interaction Analysis categories are defined.

TABLE 4: FLANDERS' INTERACTION ANALYSIS CATEGORIES

Teacher Talk	Response	1 **Accepts Feeling.** Accepts and clarifies an attitude or the feeling tone of a pupil in a nonthreatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting and recalling feelings are included. 2 **Praises or Encourages.** Praises or encourages pupil action or behavior. Jokes that release tension, but not at the expense of another individual; nodding head, or saying "Um hm?" or "go on" are included. 3 **Accepts or Uses Ideas of Pupils.** Clarifying, building, or developing ideas suggested by a pupil. Teacher extensions of pupil ideas are included but as the teacher brings more of his own ideas into play, shift to category five.
		4 **Asks Questions.** Asking a question about content or procedure, based on teacher ideas, with the intent that a pupil will answer.
	Initiation	5 **Lecturing.** Giving facts or opinions about content or procedures; expressing his own ideas, giving his own explanation, or citing an authority other than a pupil. 6 **Giving Directions.** Directions, commands, or orders to which a pupil is expected to comply. 7 **Criticizing or Justifying Authority.** Statements intended to change pupil behavior from nonacceptable to acceptable pattern; bawling someone out; stating why the teacher is doing what he is doing; extreme self-reference.

Pupil Talk	Response	8 **Pupil Talk - Response.** Talk by pupils in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits pupil statement or structures the situation. Freedom to express own ideas is limited.
	Initiation	9 **Pupil Talk - Initiation.** Talk by pupils which they initiate. Expressing own ideas; initiating a new topic; freedom to develop opinions and a line of thought, like asking thoughtful questions; going beyond the existing structure.
Silence		10 **Silence or Confusion.** Pauses, short periods of silence and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observer.

(Flanders, 1970:34).

Flanders (1970:35) states that:

> The major feature of this category system lies in the analysis of **initiative** and **response** which is a characteristic of interaction between two or more individuals. To initiate, in this context, means to make the first move, to lead, to begin, to introduce an idea or concept for the first time, to express one's own will. To respond means to take action after an initiation, to counter, to amplify or react to ideas which have already been expressed, to conform or even to comply to the will expressed by others. *We expect the teacher, in most situations, to show more initiative than the pupils* (my italics).

4.4.4 Sinclair and Coulthard (1975)

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975:20) decided to use a rank scale for their descriptive model because of its flexibility. Each rank above the lowest has a structure which can be expressed in terms of the units next below. The unit at the highest rank is one which has a structure that can be expressed in terms of lower units, but does not itself form part of the structure of any higher rank. The 'sentence' is, therefore, regarded as the highest unit of grammar. Their system is hierarchical and their method of presentation is closely modelled on Halliday's **(1961) Categories of a Theory of Grammar.** As mentioned in section 4.2 Sinclair and Coulthard make use of five units to describe the interaction in the classroom.

Working downwards, each rank is first named. Then the elements of structure are named and the structure is stated in a general way, using shortened forms of the names of elements. Brackets indicate options. The link between one rank and the next below is through classes. A class realises an element of structure.

Rank II: **TRANSACTION**

Elements of Structure	Structures	Classes of Exchange
Preliminary (P) Medial (M) Terminal (T)	PM(M^2 M^n) (T)	P,T: Boundary M: Teaching

In this diagram the rank is identified as second from the top of the scale, i.e. transaction. According to this diagram there are three elements of structure, called Preliminary, Medial and Terminal. In the next column a composite statement is given of the possible structures of this transaction: PM (M^2...M^n) (T). According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975:25) this formula reads as follows:

(i) there must be a preliminary move in each transaction,
(ii) there must be one medial move, but there may be any number of them,
(iii) there can be a terminal move, but not necessarily.

In the third column the elements of transaction structure are associated with the classes of the rank next below, exchange, because each element is realized by a class of exchange.

Rank I: **LESSON**

Elements of Structure	Structures	Classes
	an unordered series of transactions	

Rank III: **EXCHANGE** (Boundary)

Elements of Structure	Structures	Classes of Move
Frame (Fr) Focus (Fo)	(Fr) (Fo)	Fr: Framing Fo: Focusing

Rank III: **EXCHANGE** (Teaching)

Elements of Structure	Structures	Classes of Move
Initiation (I) Response (R) Feedback (F)	I(R)(F)	I: Opening R: Answering F: Follow-up

Rank IV: **MOVE** (Opening)

Elements of Structure	Structures	Classes of Act
signal (s) pre-head (pre-h) head (h) post-head (post-h) select (sel)	(s)(pre-h)h(post-h) (sel) (sel)(pre-h)h	s: marker pre-h: starter h:system operating at h; choice of elicitation, directive,informative, check post-h: choice from prompt and clue sel: ('cue'bid) nomination

Rank IV: **MOVE** (Answering)

Elements of Structure	Structures	Classes of Act
pre-head head post-head	(pre-h)h(post-h)	pre-h: acknowledge h: choice of reply, react, acknowledge post-h: comment

Rank IV: **MOVE** (Follow-up)

Elements of Structure	Structures	Classes of Act
pre-head head post-head	(pre-h)(h)(post-h)	pre-h: accept h: evaluate post-h: comment

Rank IV: **MOVE** (Framing)

Elements of Structure	Structures	Classes of Act
head (h) qualifier (q)	hq	h: marker q: silent stress

Rank IV: **MOVE** (Focusing)

Elements of Structure	Structures	Classes of Act
signal pre-head head post-head	(s)(pre-h)h(post-h)	s: marker pre-h: starter h: choice from metastatement or conclusion post-h: comment

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975:40-44) list twenty-two acts:

Label	Symbol	Realization and Definition
Marker	m	Realized by a closed class of items: 'well', 'ok', 'now', 'good', 'right', 'alright'. Its function is to mark boundaries in the discourse.

Starter	s	Realized by statement, question or command. Its function is to provide information about or direct attention to or thought towards an area in order to make a correct response to the initiation more likely.
Elicitation	el	Realized by question. Its function is to request a linguistic response.
Check	ch	Realized by a closed class of polar questions concerned with being finished or ready, having problems or difficulties, being able to see or hear. The function of checks is to enable the teacher to ascertain whether there are any problems preventing the successful progress of the lesson.
Directive	d	Realized by imperative. Its function is to request a non-linguistic response.
Informative	i	Realized by statement. Its function is to provide information. The only response is an acknowledgement of attention or understanding.
Prompt	p	Realized by a closed class of items: 'go on', 'come on', 'hurry up', 'quickly', 'have a guess'. Its function is to reinforce a directive or elicitation by suggesting that the teacher is no longer requesting a response but expecting or even demanding one.
Clue	cl	Realized by statement, question, command, or moodless item. It is subordinate to the head of the initiation and functions by providing additional information which helps the pupil to answer the elicitation or comply with the directive.
Cue	cu	Realized by a closed class: 'hands up', 'don't call out', 'is John the only one'. Its sole function is to evoke an appropriate bid.
Bid	b	Realized by a closed class of verbal and non-verbal items: sir, miss, teacher's name, raised hand, heavy breathing, finger clicking. Its function is to signal a desire to contribute to the discourse.
Nomination	n	Realized by a closed class consisting of the names of all the pupils, and one or two idiosyncratic items such as, 'who hasn't said anything yet'. The function is to call on or give permission to a pupil to contribute to the discourse.

Acknowledge	ack	Realized by 'yes', 'ok', 'mm', 'wow' and certain non-verbal gestures and expressions. Its function is simply to show that the initiation has been understood and, if the head was a directive, that the pupil intends to react.
Reply	rep	Realized by statement, question, moodless and non-verbal surrogates such as nods. Its function is to provide a linguistic response which is appropriate to the elicitation.
React	rea	Realized by a non-linguistic action. Its function is to provide the appropriate non-linguistic response defined by the preceding directive.
Comment	com	Realized by statement and tag question. It is subordinate to the head of the move and its function is to exemplify, expand, justify and provide additional information.
Accept	acc	Realized by a closed class of items: 'yes', 'no', 'good', 'fine' and repetition of pupil's reply. Its function is to indicate that the teacher has heard or seen and that the informative, reply or react was appropriate.
Evaluate	e	Realized by statements and tag questions including words and phrases such as 'good', 'interesting', commenting on the quality of the reply, react or initiation, also by 'yes', 'no', 'good', with a high fall intonation and repetition of the pupil's reply with either positive or negative evaluation.
Silent stress	^	Realized by a pause, of the duration of one or more beats, following a marker. It functions to highlight the marker when it is serving as the head of a boundary exchange indicating a transaction boundary.
Metastatement	ms	Realized by a statement which refers to some future time when what is described will occur. Its function is to help the pupils to see the structure of the lesson, to help them understand the purpose of the subsequent exchange and see where they are going.
Conclusion	con	Realized by an anaphoric statement, sometimes marked by slowing of speech rate and usually the lexical items 'so' or 'then'. Its function is again to help the pupils understand the structure of the lesson, but this time by summarizing what the preceding chunk of discourse was about.

Loop	l	Realized by a closed class of items: 'pardon', 'you what', 'eh', 'again', with rising intonation. Its function is to return the discourse to the stage it was at before the pupil spoke, from where it can proceed normally.
Aside	z	Realized by statement, question, command, moodless, usually marked by lowering the tone of the voice and not really addressed to the class. This category covers difficult items. It is really instances of the teacher talking to himself, "Where did I put my chalk?".

The framework used by Sinclair and Coulthard to analyse classroom interaction takes the following form:

Exchange Type	Opening	Act	Answering	Act	Follow-up	Act
Re-initiate	and Miri?	n	yes	rep	good	

4.4.5 Ellis (1984)

Ellis proposes a framework for analysing the various patterns of interaction that can occur in a second language classroom. It is important to bear in mind that Ellis' framework is designed to provide a basis for discussion about second language acquisition and not to code the interactions that can occur in a second language classroom.

Ellis' (1984:100-127) framework is based on distinguishing three kinds of pedagogic goal:

> (i) Core goals - which relate to the explicit pedagogic purpose of the lesson, for example, to teach specific aspects of the L2, or to impart specific subject content.
>
> (ii) Framework goals - which relate to the organization requirements of the lesson, for example, giving out materials.
>
> (iii) Social goals - involving the use of language for more personal purposes, for example, imparting private information, or quarrelling.

The first two types of goals derive from a distinction made by Black and Butzkamm (1978:271):

> Normally, in the foreign language classroom, organisation of classroom activity is used as a *framework* to achieve performance by the pupils in formal language exercises. The exercises are considered the *core* of the language teaching (my italics).

Ellis goes on to distinguish three types of 'Core' goals:

> (i) Goals where the teacher's primary target is the teaching of the target language. Butzkamm and Dodson (1980:291) describe these as "medium-oriented" goals.
>
> (ii) Goals where the teacher's primary target is the teaching of some subject content that is part of the school curriculum. Butzkamm and Dodson (1980:291) refer to these as "message-oriented" goals.
>
> (iii) Goals where the teacher's primary target is to achieve specific pupil behaviours that result in some non-verbal product. These are called "activity-oriented" goals.

He also distinguishes types of address (i.e. who functions as speaker, listener, hearer). According to Ellis (1986:148) classroom discourse can, therefore, be described in terms of the type of goal and address which occur.The term "address" is used to refer to the interactive roles that are used in the classroom. Ellis (1984:102) states that the participants can have one of four identities:

* Teacher (T)
* Pupil (P)
* Class (C) - when all the pupils are addressed as a single entity.
* Group (G) - when any number of pupils less than the whole class is addressed.

4.5 A Critique of the Frameworks

According to Coulthard, Montgomery and Brazil (1981:4-5) the framework proposed by Bellack et al. (1966) has three major advantages. Firstly, the analysis is in terms of linguistic and not temporal units, therefore making it possible to distinguish different functions within one utterance, unlike Flanders' system. Secondly, Bellack has very definite ideas about what constitutes initiating and responding moves. He also sees these as reciprocal and introduces the additional category of reacting to cope with teacher utterances which are related to, but not called for by, pupil utterances. Thirdly, his concept of move is powerful. Utterances usually consist of one or two moves, but never more than three - structuring or soliciting moves followed by a responding or reacting move.

According to Coulthard, Montgomery and Brazil (1981:5) the framework of Bellack et al. (1966) has one disadvantage, namely, that the categories are not sufficiently delicate and that they, therefore, mask important functional and structural differences.

Coulthard (1974:231) states that Barnes' (1969) study is one of the most illuminating studies about classroom interaction. However, the study has been criticized for its partiality. Barnes makes detailed and interesting observations on the kinds of questions teachers ask and the way in which these constrain pupils' thinking and participation. However, he does not analyse all the language in the classroom, simply those aspects he has found to be interesting and relevant. The framework, therefore, presents a rather one-sided view of classroom interaction.

Flanders' (1970) system is a very popular system and with various modifications has been used in a great number of studies. However, his system has also been widely criticized, especially by Coulthard, Montgomery and Brazil (1981:3), "for its decision to use time as a basic unit of coding; for its failure to deal adequately with non-verbal aspects; for its inability to deal with informal classroom situations".

Flanders' concept of the activities of initiating and responding differs from that of Coulthard, Montgomery and Brazil (1981:5) to a very significant degree. According to the latter, any utterance which requires another person to speak must be initiating, but for Flanders any utterance based on something a pupil has said is treated as a response. For example:

> S: the rain on the desert would make many plants grow.
> T: Mary thinks plants would grow because of the rain. **Would you agree or disagree Jerry?**
> (Flanders, 1970:43).

Flanders regards the part in bold type as responding, because it is part of a pupil-initiated topic. Coulthard **et al.** (1981:3), on the other hand, regard it as an initiating move, because it requires the pupil to reply. Flanders' framework has also been criticized for its lack of explicitness, which means that the observer has to 'fill out' the categories as he uses them.

Van Lier (1984:117) contends that the classification or rank scale model proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) embodies an atomistic and static perspective: the model focuses on the lingual structure of teacher and pupil turns. It does not account for the sequencing of lingual action and turns in the classroom. Although Sinclair and Coulthard have identified the IRF sequence, they do not explore the "normative points of orientation" the participants-at-talk exploit to sequence these turns.

It is, however, felt that the criticism might be a little harsh, because the framework was not meant to account for the sequencing of lingual actions and turns in the classroom. The framework is able to cope with most teacher-pupil interaction inside the classroom.

The framework proposed by Ellis (1984) was not designed to code the interactions that can occur in a second language classroom. However, it does encourage discussion about SLA.

Although the frameworks have been criticized in various degrees, two of the frameworks will be used as basis for the proposed framework. The next section will focus on the proposed framework.

4.6 A Proposed Framework

For the purposes of this study the frameworks of Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Ellis (1984) have been combined. The reason for this is that Sinclair and Coulthards' (1975) framework enables the researcher to code the various interactions taking place in the second language classroom, because of its ability to cope with most teacher-pupil interaction inside the classroom and Ellis' (1984) framework enables the researcher to discuss the various identified discourse patterns, when or if the teacher focuses on different interaction goals.

However, Sinclair and Coulthards' (1975) framework will only be incorporated to the extent that use will be made of two of their categories, namely, classes of moves and classes of acts. Seeing that the aim of the research is to determine the various types of interaction or discourse patterns that can occur in the second language classroom (cf chapter 1), these two categories will be sufficient in enabling the researcher to identify the patterns. The definitions used by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975:40-44) for the different categories will be used as they are. Ellis' (1984:102-127) categories will also be used as he described them.

The form of the proposed framework for analysing the second language classroom discourse is:

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move

As a means of summary the main categories of Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) and Ellis' (1984) frameworks that are to be used in the empirical investigation are briefly mentioned again to illustrate the use of the framework.

(i) **Type of Address**

Teacher (T)

Pupil (P)

Class (C)

Group (G)

For example, T-P(C) would indicate that the teacher is addressing an individual pupil with the rest of the class as hearers. For a more detailed explanation of this category consult section 4.4.5.

(ii) **Interaction Goals**

A: CORE GOALS

* Medium-oriented

* Message-oriented

* Activity-oriented

B: FRAMEWORK GOALS

C: SOCIAL GOALS

For a detailed explanation of each category consult section 4.4.5.

(iii) Teacher/Pupil

In the columns marked Teacher and Pupil the utterances of each are given.

(iv) **Classes of Acts**

marker	check	nomination
starter	prompt	acknowledge
elicitation	clue	reply
directive	cue	react
informative	bid	comment
metastatement	accept	evaluate
silent stress	conclusion	loop
aside		

For a detailed explanation of each category consult section 4.4.4.

(v) **Classes of Moves**

* FRAMING (Words such as 'right', 'well', 'good', 'ok', 'now' recur frequently in the speech of all teachers. These words function to indicate boundaries in the lesson, the end of one stage and the beginning of the next. A frame occurs invariably at the beginning of a lesson)
* FOCUSING (Frames, especially those at the beginning of a lesson, are frequently followed by a special kind of statement, the function of which is to tell the class what is going to happen)
* OPENING (The function of an opening move is to cause others to participate in an exchange)
* ANSWERING (Its function is to be an appropriate response in the terms laid down by the opening move)
* FOLLOW-UP (Its function is to let the pupil know how well he/she has performed)

4.7 Conclusion

In this chapter different frameworks that have been used to analyse classroom interaction were described. These frameworks were developed by various researchers, because they wanted certain questions answered, for example: How is the role of the speaker distributed and negotiated? Who speaks the most in the classroom? How are topics introduced and closed? Frameworks are, therefore, developed to help researchers analyse and code the interactions in classrooms. Each framework, therefore, focuses on that specific aspect the researcher wishes to study. For example, Barnes (1969) focuses on the kinds of questions teachers ask and the way in which these constrain pupils' thinking and participation.

By using the frameworks of both Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Ellis (1984), the aim is to identify all possible discourse patterns that can occur in a second language classroom and to determine to what extent the identified discourse patterns might aid SLA. By using the two categories, classes of moves and classes of acts, in Sinclair and Coulthards' (1975) framework the coding of the classroom discourse ought to be done with great accuracy, because of the framework's ability to cope with most teacher-pupil interactions occurring in the second language classroom.

The use of Ellis' (1984) framework is necessary, because the different categories will enable the researcher to determine in which "situations" the pupils might have more opportunities to initiate or participate more effectively in the interaction. This will also enable the researcher to determine when or if second language acquisition is likely to be facilitated. The use of the proposed framework, therefore, allows greater freedom in relating the identified second language classroom discourse patterns to second language acquisition. In chapter 5 the analysed data are presented.

CHAPTER 5
ESL INTERACTION PATTERNS: AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will be devoted to the presentation of the analysed data. The aim with this chapter is to establish the different discourse patterns which occur in a typical ESL classroom when or if the teacher focuses on different interaction goals. The purpose is to determine whether the IRF pattern does in fact dominate under all circumstances, or if other patterns can occur, even in limited numbers, if the teacher focuses on different interaction goals.

5.2 Method of Research

5.2.1 Subjects

One Afrikaans school where English is taught as a second language was selected for observation purposes. This secondary school is situated in the Northern Cape. It is surrounded by a typical Afrikaans farmer community where English is used very seldom, if ever, other than in the classroom. There are about 531 pupils in the school. Each Standard is subdivided into 3 or 4 classes. The subjects for this study included the Standard 6 and 7 classes as well as the three teachers responsible for teaching these classes. All three teachers are females. One of the teachers is a native speaker of English, while the other two are non-native speakers of English. The first teacher, whose first language is English, was responsible for the Standard 6A,6D,7A and 7B classes, the second teacher was responsible for the 6C and 6T classes and the third teacher was responsible for the 7C and 7T classes. All the T classes are technical classes, in other words, they follow a technical course at the school.

5.2.2 Procedure

A pilot study was undertaken beforehand to ensure that the proposed framework would be usable. No problems were experienced with regards to the application of the framework, however, practical problems such as where to put the tape recorder were identified and also solved.

The Standard 6 and 7 classes were observed for a period of 3 weeks. Owing to the fact that the two non-native English speaking teachers focused more on writing lessons during this period fewer of their lessons were observed. Only spoken discourse occurring between the teacher and the pupils was analysed. The periods were approximately 40 minutes in length

and the lessons were analysed by means of tape recordings and a pen-and-paper method. A total number of 14 hours of teaching was analysed. No instructions on the lesson's presentation was given to the teachers.

5.2.2.1 Notational Conventions

(a) An 'utterance' consists of a single tone unit except where two tone units are syntactically joined by means of a subordinator or other linking words.
(b) Pauses are indicated in brackets: (.) indicates a pause of a second or shorter; (.3.) indicates a pause of three seconds, et cetera.
(c) xxx is used to indicate speech that could not be deciphered.
(d) (...) indicates that the speaker did not complete an utterance, i.e. that his speech 'tailed off'.
(e) Words are typed in bold script in order to show (i) over-lapping speech between two speakers; (ii) very heavily stressed words.
(f) A limited amount of contextual information is given, where appropriate, in brackets.

5.2.2.2 Conventions used in Transcription and Analysis

(a) The page is divided into eight columns: TYPE OF ADDRESS; INTERACTION GOALS; TEACHER; ACT; MOVE; PUPIL; ACT; MOVE.
(b) One reads across the page.
(c) The alternating utterances between the teacher and the pupil is given in a zig-zag manner, so that the flow of the interaction can be followed easily.
(d) Non-verbal surrogates of discourse acts are represented by NV.
(e) Diamond brackets are used to show that one element of structure is included within another. Thus 'Finished James?' is ch<n>.

5.3 Analysis

In this section the analysed data are presented. Each lesson is analysed individually and before each analysis begins the Standard and the type of lesson, for example, a language lesson, is mentioned.

Lesson 1

The Standard 6A class is doing a language lesson.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Framework goal	Right	m	Fr			
		Sit down and take out your books.	d	I		rea	R
	Medium-oriented	I wanted to remind you of something.	z				
		Now	m	Fr			
		On Thursday you are writing the test on plurals.	ms	Fo			
		Besides filling in the right answers you might have to rewrite the sentence.	s				
		Did you do this in the primary school?	el	I			
					No miss	rep	R
		What would you underline first in this sentence if you had to change it into the plural form?	el	I			
					Nouns miss	rep	R
		Good	e	F			
		Now	m	Fr			
		The Pronoun might have to change too.	s				
		In this sentence (I saw the monkeys stealing the lady's handbag) I will change to?	el	I			
					We	rep	R
		The next one?	el	I			

					Monkeys	rep	R
		and the next one?	el	I			
					ladies	rep	R
T-P(C)		How am I going to write ladies, Sanet?	el<n>	I			
					l-a-d-i-e-s (she spells it out)	rep	R
		and where am I going to put the apostrophe?	el	I			
					after (.1.) handbags	rep	R
		no	e	F			
		I'm sure you know	p	I			
					ladies'	rep	R
		yes ladies	e	F			
T-C		Now Which words will have to change in this sentence?	el	I	NV	b	
		yes	n		boy	rep	R
		yes boy	e	F			
		and?	p	I	radio	rep	R
		Good (The boy likes playing with his brother's radio.)	e	F			
T-P(C)		Henri, can you say it over in the plural form?	el<n>	I	The boys likes	rep	R
		Stop there Henri	n<d>				
		Now Here we have something else to be aware of. Sometimes the form of the verb also has to change.	m ms s	Fr Fo			
		Try again, Henri	p<n>	I	The boys like playing with his	rep	R
T-P(C)		no Do you remember that I told you that the	e	F			

		pronouns also change?	ch	I	yes miss	rep	R
		So his becomes?	el	I	They	rep	R
		no	e	F			
		Try again	p	I	their	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		and the rest?	el	I	brother's radios	rep	R
		Good	e	F			
		Right	m	Fr			
		You might just get a sentence like that in the test.	ms	Fo			
P-T	Framework	Do you all understand?	ch	I	yes miss Miss Sussman do we have to know the rules?	rep el	R I
		No I'm not going to ask you to write them down.	rep	R			
	Medium-oriented	But you know that if I give you a word ending in ey, it just takes an?	el	I	NV	b	
		yes	n		s	rep	R
		All words ending in ey, ay, oy just take an?	el	I			
		Sas	n	I	an s miss	rep	R
		OK	m	Fr			
		Now So besides changing the nouns and verbs the pronouns can also sometimes change.	m con	Fo			
		To be safe underline all the things that have to change.	com				
		Now	m	Fr			
T-C	Medium-oriented	Today we're going to carry on with the punctuation we started on last term.	ms	Fo			

		I think we only did capital letters and commas. (He said, "I am not feeling well." "My sister," he said,"is working in Durban." "Where do you live?" he asked. Many children still enjoy the stories of "Alice in Wonderland".)	z					
T-P(C)		What do these marks tell me, Hanri? (pointing to inverted commas)	el<n>	I	it's direct speech	rep	R	
		yes	e	F				
		The words spoken by him. Can you see where the full stop is?	com ch	 I	 yes miss	 rep	 R	
		Just now you'll see that it changes.	com	F				
		Normally when a person starts speaking the first word is written in a capital letter.	i	I				
		Now	m	Fr				
		The next sentence is a little different.	ms	Fo				
		The sentence starts with a capital letter, 'My'.	s					
		Why does the next part start with a small letter?	el	I				
		Uhm?	p					
T-P(C)		Deidre	n	I	because the sentence is going on	rep	R	
		Good	e	F				
		The sentence is continuing it is not the start of a new sentence.	com					

		What does this tell us? (points to where)	el	I	that it is a question	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		Now	m	Fr			
		These inverted commas at the end are not anybodys words.	s				
T-C		We usually put them in the middle of the sentence when we are giving the name of a?	el	I	NV	b	
		yes	n		book	rep	R
		a book yes	e	F			
		What else?	el	I	Tv programs	rep	R
					Miss	b	
T-P(C)		yes JJ	n	I	newspapers	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		All right	m	Fr			
		Notice where my full stop is now (after inverted commas).	d	I		rea	R
		Nobody is speaking now it's just the name of a book.	i	I			
		Got it, Henri?	ch<n>	I	yes miss	rep	R
	Framework	Fine	m	Fr			
		Take out your text books.	d	I		rea	R
		Quickly	p				
		Turn to page 68	d	I		rea	R
		Right	m	Fr			
		Let's do this exercise orally.	ms	Fo			
	Medium-oriented	Where will we get punctuation marks in the first sentence, Sas?	el<n>	I	Miss after tomatoes, carrots, beans and (.1.)		

					that's all	rep	R
		Good	e	F			
		All right	m	Fr			
		You can do the rest by yourself.	d	I		rea	R
	Framework	Rudolph, please hand out your language books.	d<n>	I		rea	R
		Standard 6's do your punctuation in a different colour.	d	I		rea	R
P-T					Miss, must we do the whole exercise on page 68?	el	I
		yes	rep	R			
P-T					Miss what is wrong here?	el	I
		Your tense is incorrect.	rep	R			
		You don't say I just done it, but I have just done it.	com	F			
P-T					Miss I don't have my book.	i	I
		Did you hand it in to be marked, Rudolph?	el	I	yes miss	rep	R
		Look in the Standard 6D pile, it might be there.	d	I		rea	R
T-P(C)	Social	(While pupils are doing their exercises) Hanri, what did you do when your father was away on the rugby course?	el<n>	I	Miss I visited my grandpa and grandma.	rep	R
		Oh so you had a nice holiday too.	acc	F			
		Listen class, you must try and read the new newspaper clippings I've put up.	d	I			

		One story is about a python who swallowed about five puppies and when the snake was caught they saw something move in its belly. Apparently one of the puppies was still alive	i	I			
P-T	Social				Miss we caught a ugly long black snake the other day.	i	I
		Was it a black mamba?	el	I	I don't know miss.	rep	R
		Do you kill the snakes that you catch?	el	I	yes miss	rep	R
		Uncle Isaac sends them to the game parks in Durban.	com	F			
P-T					Miss but aren't they dangerous?	el	I
		No, not all of them.	rep	R			
	Framework	(Bell rings) Right	m	Fr			
		Complete the exercise for day four.	d				

Lesson 2

The Standard 6D class is doing a language lesson.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Framework	Come in	d	I		rea	R
		Hurry, Hurry	p	I		rea	R

		Is anybody absent?	el	I	No miss	rep	R
		Where is Charmaine?	el	I	She's gone to Kimberley miss.	rep	R
		What's she doing there?	el	I	She's gone to that school miss.	rep	R
		Oh, the commercial school.	acc	F			
		And where's Susan?	el	I	In Schweizer miss.	rep	R
		Did she go straight to Schweizer?	el	I	Yes miss and miss she's going to have two holidays.	rep com	R F
		Why?	el	I	Because she had our holidays and the Transvaal schools only begins later.	rep	R
		She's going to be far behind with her work.	com	F			
		OK class	m	Fr			
		Fine	m				
	Medium-oriented	Did you remember to go over your plurals for your test on Thursday?	ch	I	yes miss	rep	R
		Fine	e	F			
		Now	m	Fr			
T-C		Besides giving you a list of plurals I might give you a sentence which you have to change into the plural.	i	I	How do we do that miss?	el	I
		I'll show you now. (I am eating a tomato and an apple)	rep	R			
		What would I					

		this sentence if I had to change it to the plural?	el	I			
		Anybody?	cu		NV	b	
T-P(C)		Yes Ferdi	n	I	We	rep	R
		and tomato?	el	I	tomatoes	rep	R
		and an apple?	el	I	apples	rep	R
		good	e	F			
T-C	Framework	Right	m	Fr			
		Underline the words that have to change and write out the sentence.	d	I		rea	R
		Right	m	Fr			
		Today we're going to carry on with our punctuation.	ms	Fo			
T-C	Medium-oriented	What are these? (points to inverted commas)	el	I	Inverted commas	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		Commas that have been turned upside down.	com				
		Why do we use inverted commas?	el	I			
		Come on	p		NV	b	
		Yes Pieter	n		It is the person's own words.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Where would I use the inverted commas here? (Ian Roberts won an Artes award for his play in Arende)	el	I			
					With Arende miss	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		The name of a film, book, magazine, et cetera is always written with inverted commas.	com				
T-C		Why is this (pointing					

		to it in the sentence: "Are you sure," he asked "it is the right answer?") written with a small letter?	el	I				
		Hands	cu		NV	b		
		Yes Ferdi	n		Because the sentence is going on miss	rep	R	
		good	e	F				
		Did you hear his answer, Cronje?	ch<n>	I	yes miss	rep	R	
		Where will I put the commas in this sentence? (Since 6 March 1989 they have lived at 109 Church Street)	el	I				
P-T		Yes Cronje	n		Miss Miss can't you put the comma behind 6 March,	b el	 I	
		Cronje I think your parents and older brother probably had to do it that way but we don't do it anymore.	rep	R				
		Where will we put it then?	el	I	Behind 1989	rep	R	
		yes	e	F				
		Do you all understand?	ch	I	yes miss	rep	R	
T-C	Framework	Right	m	Fr				
		Please do the exercise on page 68.	d	I		rea	R	
		Leave open a page to do your corrections.	d	I		rea	R	
P-T		I think you'd better start on a new page.	rep	R	Miss can I start here?	el	I	

		Pieter, look in the cupboard your books are there and please hand them out.	d<n>	I			rea	R
		This exercise must be completed for the next day (xxx)	d	I				
		Let me see	z					
		for day four	d	I	Miss must we do our punctuation in coloured pencils?		el	I
		yes	rep	R				
		Come on	p					
		get started!	d	I			rea	R
P-T	Framework				Miss may I borrow your scissors please?		el	I
		yes	rep	R				
		They're in my top drawer	com	F				
P-T					Miss I don't have my book.		i	I
		Yes Henri	n					
		Go and look in the cupboard.	d	I			rea	R
		Come on	p					
T-P		Have you finished, Henriette?	ch<n>	I	No miss		rep	R
		That's because you're talking too much.	com	F				
P-T					Miss if I put a comma behind tomatoes, carrots and beans is it right?		el	I
		yes	rep	R				
		(Bell rings)						
T-C		All right	m	Fr				
		Standard 6's finish this						

		exercise for the next day four.	d				

Lesson 3

The Standard 6A class is doing a language lesson.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Framework	Come in	d	I		rea	R
		Quickly	p				
		Standard 6's stop					
		making a noise	d	I		rea	R
		Now	m	Fr			
		I just want to show you					
		a few things about your					
		Ben Babsie translations.	ms				
		Look at this one.	d	I		rea	R
		(Kom nou liefie jy moet					
		gek wees oor my)					
T-P(C)		What did you have					
		Hennie?	el<n>	I	Come on darling		
					you must be		
					crazy over me.	rep	R
		no	e	F			
		You must be crazy about					
		me, not over me.	com				
P-T					What is aanbied		
					miss?	el	I
		Om aan te bied is to					
		offer	rep	R			
		I will write the correct					
		version on the board.	com	F			
P-T					Miss is it		
					all right if I		
					called her honey?	el	I
		yes that's fine	rep	R			
P-T					Miss I had		

					volunteer and		
					not offer.	i	I
		good	e	F			
		Volunteer is an excellent					
		word.	com				
T-C		Did you hear class?	ch	I	No miss	rep	R
		That's because you're					
		making a noise.	com	F			
		Albie used the word					
		volunteer instead of offer					
		which is excellent.	i				
T-C	Medium-	Right	m	Fr			
	oriented	Now we're going to do					
		your favourites.	ms	Fo			
		Your is's and are's.	s				
		The basic rule is that a					
		singular verb takes is,					
		but there are a few					
		exceptions.	i	I			
		For example: The flock					
		of sheep is grazing in the					
		veld.	i				
		John as well as Jack?	el	I	are	rep	R
		no	e	F	is	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		Either John or Jack is					
		or are?	el	I	is	rep	R
		fine	e	F			
		Now	m	Fr			
		Albie gets stuck with					
		this one.	ms				
		I'm sure the rest of you					
		do to.	s				
		Look here.	d	I		rea	R
		(Mary who loves dogs					
		are)					
		You look at dogs then					
		you use the plural,					
		but actually Mary is					

		the subject so you					
		would use is.	i				
T-P(C)	Medium-	Fine	m	Fr			
	oriented	Let's do the rest orally.	d	I			
		Hennie	n		There are a boy		
					and a girl.	rep	R
		There are, good.	e	F			
		Next one, Anton?	el<n>	I	There is a herd		
					of cattle.	rep	R
		Yes, there is.	e	F			
		Next one, Wessel?	el<n>	I	There is very		
					little game on		
					their farm.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Next one, Rudolph?	el<n>	I	There is a		
					number of		
					mistakes in your		
					essay.	rep	R
		Pardon	l		There are	rep	R
		That's better	e	F			
		Next one, Sas?	el<n>	I	There is nobody		
					at home.	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		Next, Willie?	el<n>	I	There (.1.) is		
					neither a train		
					nor a bus to that		
					place.	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		Next one?	el	I	There is some		
					fruit.	rep	R
		Right	e	F			
		but what about					
		vegetables?	el	I	are	rep	R
		good	e	F			
T-C	Framework	OK class	m	Fr			
		Turn to page 66.	d	I		rea	R
	Medium-	Would I say John has or					
	oriented	have to?	el	I	has	rep	R
		I?	p	I	has	rep	R

		I beg your pardon?	l		have	rep	R
		She?	p	I	has	rep	R
		They?	p	I	have	rep	R
		fine	e	F			
	Framework	Now	m	Fr			
		Turn to exercise 47.	d	I		rea	R
T-P(C)	Medium-	Number 1, Heidi?	el<n>	I	John has to read		
	oriented				the Bible.	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		Next one?	el	I	Neither John nor		
					James has.	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		Next one?	el	I	Both of them		
					have.	rep	R
		right	e	F			
T-P(C)		Next one, Minette?	el<n>	I	His trousers		
					have to be		
					lengthened.	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		Next one?	el	I	The house		
					together with		
					the furniture		
					have to.	rep	R
		Heh	l	I	has to	rep	R
		yes, has to	e	F			
		Now	m	Fr			
		Exercise 48	ms				
		To (joy) a holiday,					
		Louise?	el<n>	I	To enjoy	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		To (deep) a well, Albie?	el<n>	I	To deepen	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		To (courage) someone?	el	I	To encourage	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		What about to (haste)					
		on?	el	I			
		Anybody	cu		NV	b	
		yes Albie	n		To hasten	rep	R
		good	e	F			

		Next one, Etienne?	el<n>	I	To widen a road	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		To (glad) the heart, PC?	el<n>	I	To gladden	rep	R
		right	e	F			
T-P(C)		Next one, Sas?	el<n>	I	To enrage	rep	R
		very good	e	F			
	Framework	Fine	m	Fr			
		That's all	s				
		Complete these exercises					
		for day five.	d				
P-T					Do we have to		
					do all of them		
					miss?	el	I
		yes	rep	R			
		So you'd better start now.	com	F			

Lesson 4

The Standard 6D class is doing a language lesson.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Framework	Hurry up Standard 6's.	p<n>	I			
T-P		Stop talking now, Ferdi.	d<n>	I		rea	R
		All right	m	Fr			
		Today we're going to do					
		your favourites.	ms	Fo			
	Medium-	Your is's and are's,	s				
	oriented	because some of you					
		still battle with them.	com				
		Now	m	Fr			
		Just to refreshen your					
		memories.	s				
		John and Jack is or are?	el	I	are	rep	R
		Either John or Jack is or					
		are?	el	I	is	rep	R

		John as well as Jack is					
		or are?	el	I	are	rep	R
		no	e	F	is	rep	R
		Fine	e	F			
	Framework	Now	m	Fr			
		Quickly	p				
		Take out you text books.	d	I		rea	R
T-P(C)		Turn to page 64.	d	I		rea	R
	Medium-	Do number 1, Stanley.	el	I	There are a boy		
	oriented				and a girl in the		
					classroom.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
T-P(C)		Next one, Henri?	el<n>	I	A herd of cattle		
					are grazing in		
					the field.	rep	R
		no	e	F			
		The basic rule is that a					
		singular verb takes is,					
		but there are some					
		exceptions.	i	I			
		For example: The flock					
		of sheep is; flock is a					
		collective noun telling					
		us that it is a group,					
		so we take it as one thing.	com				
		Do you understand?	ch	I	yes miss	rep	R
T-P(C)		What would the answer					
		then be, Henri?	el<n>	I	A herd of cattle		
					is	rep	R
		that's right	e	F			
T-C		Now	m	Fr			
		The sheep is or are?	el	I	are	rep	R
		The lions is or are?	el	I	are	rep	R
		A bag of potatoes is or					
		are?	el	I	is	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Next one, Sonja?	el<n>	I	There is some		
					sheep in the kraal.	rep	R
		no	e	F			

		What have I just said?	el	I	There are	rep	R
		You must pay attention, Sonja.	d<n>				
		Next one, Flippie?	el<n>	I	There is nobody at home.	rep	R
		Next one, Koos?	el<n>	I	There (.2.) are a number of mistakes in your essay.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Next one, Cronje?	el<n>	I	There is some fruit in the bowl.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
T-C	Framework	All right	m	Fr			
		Now	m	Fo			
		Turn to page 66.	d	I		rea	R
		The exercise on have and has to.	s				
T-C	Medium-oriented	Would I say John has or have to?	el	I	has	rep	R
		I?	p	I	has	rep	R
		no	e	F			
		but	p	I	have	rep	R
		She?	p	I	has	rep	R
		They?	p	I	have	rep	R
		Nobody?	p	I	has	rep	R
		Everybody?	p	I	has	rep	R
		good	e	F			
T-P(C)		Number 1, Henry?	el<n>	I	John has to read the Bible.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		Next one?	el	I	Neither John nor James have.	rep	R
		no	e	F	has	rep	R
		yes, has	e	F			
		Next one?	el	I	Both of them have	rep	R
		right	e	F			

		Next one?	el	I	The house together with the furniture have to.	rep	R
		Heh?	I	I	has to	rep	R
		yes, has to	e	F			
		Now	m	Fr			
		We're going to do exercise 48.	ms	Fo			
		To (large) a photo, Karl?	el<n>	I	To enlarge	rep	R
		To (deep) a well, Pieter?	el<n>	I	endeep	rep	R
		You?	p	I	(.1.) deep (.1.) deepen	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		To (fat) the pigs, next?	el<n>	I	To fatten	rep	R
		To (fast) a button, Sonja?	el<n>	I	fasten	rep	R
		To (thick) soup?	el	I	thicken	rep	R
T-C		What does your mother use to thicken soup?	el	I	bisto	rep	R
					mazina	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		To (ripe) bananas?	el	I	NV	b	
		yes Pieter	n		ripen	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Do you have any problems?	ch	I	no miss	rep	R
	Framework	Now	m	Fr			
		Complete these exercises for day five.	d	I			
		Write out the whole sentence.	d	I		rea	R
P-T					Miss you must still mark this exercise of mine.	i	I
		All right I'll do it just now.	rep	R			
					Thank you miss.	acc	F
P-T					Miss we don't have book report forms.	i	I

		I thought I'd given them to you. Pieter just look in the cupboard and give one to each. (Bell rings)	rep d<n>	R I		rea	R

Lesson 5

The Standard 6A class is doing a literature(prescribed) lesson.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Framework	Right	m	Fr			
		Today we're doing prescribed.	ms	Fo			
		Take out your In the Dead of the Night books.	d	I		rea	R
		Right at the end I'll give you a big crossword puzzle to paste in your books.	i	I			
		Where's my book?	z				
P-T					Miss we are at chapter 14.	i	I
		Yes I think we are.	ack	R			
P-T					Miss you've got our prescribed books.	i	I
		Yes I do	ack	R			
		I'll hand them out later.	com	F			
		Oh yes	z				
	Message-oriented	The children had gone to the river to explore.	s				
		Were they alone, Rudolph?	el<n>	I	no	rep	R

		Who was also there?	el	I	Jack Logan	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		How did the children manage to identify him?	el	I			
		Come on try	p	I	NV	b	
		Yes Hanri	n		They saw the register plate.	rep	R
		No not register plate.	e	F			
		What's that shop down in Market Street called?	cl	I	Numberplates and signs	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		He saw the numberplate of the car. What had happened to Jack Logan, why could he not do any poaching that day?	com				
			el	I	He fell into the water.	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		Fine	m	Fr			
		Today we're only going to do one more chapter.	ms	Fo			
		OK	m	Fr			
	Framework	Rudolph, you start reading.	n<d>	I	(starts reading)	rea	R
		Haven't we read this?	el	I	yes miss	rep	R
P-T					Miss I don't remember this.	i	I
		Were you in class?	el	I	yes miss	rep	R
		Remember they went fishing with this friend and his father and while they were fishing they saw Jack Logan.	i	I	Oh yes	ack	R
		OK	m	Fr			
T-P(C)		Now we can go on	s				
		Start on page 43, Wessel.	d<n>	I		rea	R
		Stop there.	d	I		rea	R

	Message-oriented	Do you know what a hermit is? Louise	el n	I	NV A man who lives all by himself.	b rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		He lives alone in a secluded place.	com				
T-C		At the sea you find a hermit crab. It lives in its shell, not named after this man, but because it lives by itself in its shell.	i	I			
		OK	m	Fr			
		Andries carry on	d<n>	I		rea	R
		Right	m	Fr			
T-C	Medium-oriented	You've come across the words distinct and also extinct.	s				
T-P(C)		What does distinct mean, Awie?	el<n>	I	(.2.) in die verte	rep	R
		no, that's in the distance	e	F			
					NV	b	
		Yes Deidre	n	I	Miss extinct is when there isn't many and distinct is when there is many.	rep	R
		no but	e	F			
T-C	Medium-oriented	the first part is right. What animal is on the verge of extinction?	el	I	The black rhino	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		Now	m	Fr			
		What is distinct?	el	I			
		Look at your sentence.	d	I		rea	R
		Try	p				
					sigbaar	rep	R

	Framework	yes or? yes, clear and distinct Right For the rest of the period you can start on your questions. Finish them for the next day five.	e p e m ms d	F I F Fr Fo	duidelik	rep	R

Lesson 6

The Standard 6D class is doing a literature (prescribed) lesson.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Framework	Hurry, Hurry	p				e
		Is anybody absent?	el	I	Susan miss	rep	R
		But hasn't she left?	el	I	yes miss, but Mr de Bruin said we must carry on writing her name until they send her papers from Schweizer.	rep	R
		Oh all right	ack			com	F
		Right	m	Fr			
		Take out your readers.	d	I		rea	R
		Hurry Alta	p<n>	I		rea	R
		Today you have to answer all the questions till chapter 5.	ms	Fo			
P-T					Miss will we get these questions in the exam?	el	I
		no, it is really only practise	rep	R			

		for the higher classes.	com	F			
		Where are we?	el	I	Miss it's chapter 13.	rep	R
					The children were waiting for their parents and they decided to go to the river.	i	I
		Oh yes that's right	ack	R			
P-T					Miss and the children went down to the river and they saw a strange man.	i	I
	Message-oriented	Yes that's right	ack	R			
		What did James look at when the bakkie drove away?	el	I	The registration number	rep	R
		very good Stanley	e	F			
P-T					Miss did they tell their father?	el	I
		yes	rep	R			
		and remember the following day they went down to the river.	com	F			
T-P	Framework	Riana where's your book?	el<n>	I	At home miss	rep	R
		Why?	el	I	I forgot it miss	rep	R
		Don't let it happen again, do you hear?	ch	I	yes miss	rep	R
		I can't be angry with you today, because I left my own book at home.	com				
		All right	m	Fr			
P-T					Miss will you explain the difficult words?	el	I
		yes	rep	R			

	Medium-oriented	What does decision mean?	el	I			
		You make a decision or you come to a decision.	cl				
		Anybody	cu		NV	b	
		yes Ferdi	n		You make up your mind.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		You decide to do something	com				
		What does instinctively mean?	el	I			
		An animal usually acts instinctively.	cl		To its instinct	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		it comes naturally.	com				
		What does tangibly mean?	el	I			
		Anybody	cu				
		It is almost as if you can feel something.	i	I			
		Are you listening, Gerhard?	ch<n>	I	yes miss	rep	R
		What does jutting mean, Gerhard?	el<n>	I			
		A rock jutting out at sea.	cl		I don't know miss	rep	R
		It sticks out	i				
P-T					Miss in Harten-bosch there is a big rock that sticks out.	i	I
T-P		We haven't been there yet actually.	com				
		How do you act if you act impulsively?	el	I	Without thinking	rep	R
		good (starts reading)	e	F			
		Did any of you watch the news last night about the					

		seroplane crash?	el	I	yes miss, it crashed into a big field.	rep com	R
		yes That's what we call fynbos.	e com	F			
		What does furtively mean?	el	I	furry miss	rep	R
		no A bad person or crook will usually look around furtively.	e cl	F I	skelm miss	rep	R
		yes slyly as if something's cooking.	e com	F			
P-T					Miss is it like the bad guys in Macgyver?	el	I
		yes	rep	R			
	Framework	All right Answer all the questions up till chapter 15.	m d	Fr I		rea	R
P-T	Social				Miss did you go to the show?	el	I
		yes I went through it in about ten minutes.	rep	R			
P-T					Miss there isn't even a merry-go-round	i	I
		I know Wayne's going to be as mad as a snake.	ack com	R			
P-T					Miss the army uitstalling is very good. They had a big army vehicle which drive straight over a car and		

					smashed it.	i	I
		Wow I didn't see that	ack com	R			
P-T					What's the time miss?	el	I
		five past ten You still have 5 minutes.	rep com	R F			
T-C	Framework	You must hand in your questions on the next day five.	d	I			
					Miss	b	
		yes Pieter	n		Miss I don't have my book.	i	I
		Look for it Your book is always gone Henri, sit down and put away your toys.	d com n<d>	I		rea	R

Lesson 7

The Standard 6T class is doing a prescribed (literature) lesson.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Framework	Come in and sit down. Take out your prescribed books.	d d	I I		rea rea	R R
	Message-oriented	Right The author is Isac Asimov. From which country do you think he comes?	m s el	Fr I			
		Johan yes from Russia What is a diary?	n e el	F I	From Russia A book where you write the happenings of the day in.	rep rep	R R
		yes	e	F			

		(Teacher starts reading)					
		Is this story in the future?	el	I	yes miss	rep	R
		How do you know that					
		Danie?	el<n>	I	Miss it says		
					the year 2175.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		It is in the next century.	com				
		Do we still write diaries					
		nowadays?	el	I	No miss	rep	R
		yes that's right	e	F			
		Who wrote diaries?	el	I			
		Your grandmothers,					
		therefore, in the Victorian					
		times.	rep	R			
T-C		(reads)					
		Do they still have books					
		like you do?	el	I	No miss	rep	R
		How do they read?	el	I	From the		
					computer screens	rep	R
		yes that's right	e	F			
		That is why the letters					
		are moving.	com				
		What do you think is a					
		telebook?	el	I	Miss it's a disk		
					you put in the		
					computer.	rep	R
		Do you agree with him?	el	I	yes miss	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		its a disk which you put					
		in the computer and then					
		the pages pass over the					
		screen.	com				
		(reads)					
		We don't have houses					
		with attics anymore, but					
		in Europe where there is					
		little space the houses					
		have storeys, not stories					
		you tell, but verdiepings.					

		Usually under the roof					
		they have a small room					
		where they keep things					
		they don't need. This is					
		the attic.	i	I			
T-P(C)		What is a mechanical					
		teacher, Manie?	el<n>	I	A teacher that		
					teaches		
					mechanics.	rep	R
		no	e	F			
		Willem	n	I	Its a robot	rep	R
		yes its a robot	e	F			
		(reads)					
		What is a slot?	el	I	'n slot	rep	R
		no	e	F			
		It is a narrow opening,					
		like the post box where					
		you post your letters.	i	I			
		(reads)					
		Suppose your parents					
		were at school now, do					
		you think they would					
		have understood the story					
		like you understand it?	el	I	No miss	rep	R
		Why not?	el	I	Because we		
					know about		
					computers miss		
					and grow up		
					with it but		
					they didn't.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
T-C		Who knows when the					
		first computers were					
		made and used?	el	I			
		Take a guess	p		1964	rep	R
		no	e	F			
		Anybody else?	cu	I	1946	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		The first printed book					

		was the?	el	I	The Bible	rep	R
		yes the Bible	e	F			
		By whom?	el	I			
		By Guttenberg in 1454.	rep	R			
		How were books reproduced before machines?	el	I	By priests	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		The priests and monks copied them in the monasteries.	com				
T-C	Social	Why do you hate reading?	el	I	Miss we don't hate it we just don't like it.	rep	R
P-T					Miss we like action books like spiderman.	i	I
		Do you like to read Afrikaans or English books?	el	I	Afrikaans miss.	rep	R
		Why do you like Afrikaans books?	el	I	because we're boere miss, we don't understand English.	rep	R
		But you don't have to understand every word you read. You can get the meaning from the sentence.	com	F			
		All right	m	Fr			
		You may leave.	d	I		rea	R

Lesson 8

The Standard 6A class is doing an oral essay lesson.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Message-oriented	Right	m	Fr			
		Today we're going to discuss the planning of an essay orally.	ms	Fo			
		We're going to build an essay.	s				
	Framework	Rudolph hand out a piece of paper to each one.	n<d>	I		rea	R
		Divide your paper into four columns.	d	I		rea	R
		Write the following in a separate column.	d	I		rea	R
		(The road itself; Time of day/night; Weather; Who travels along the road)					
		Right	m	Fr			
		The topic is Along the road.	ms	Fo			
		I want you to write down a few ideas under each column.	d				
		Right	m	Fr			
		You have five minutes.	ms	Fo			
P-T					Miss what is a grond pad?	el	I
		A gravel road.	rep	R			
		OK	m	Fr			
T-P(C)	Message-oriented	Rudolph what did you have?	el<n>	I	A freeway	rep	R
		fine	e	F			
		What did you have, Hennie?	el<n>	I	A busy highway		

					miss.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
P-T					Miss	b	
		Yes Sas	n		Miss what do		
					you call spitstyd		
					in English?	el	I
		Peak hour	rep	R			
		good	e	F			
		Anybody else?	cu	I	A sandy track		
					in the desert.	rep	R
		very good	e	F			
		What did you have					
		Cronje?	el<n>	I	A mountain pass		
					miss.	rep	R
		fine	e	F			
T-C		What words can we use					
		to describe the mountain					
		pass?	el	I	dangerous	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		and?	p	I	winding	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		There are many more					
		words we can use.	com				
		All right	m	Fr			
T-C		What time of day or					
		night do you have?	el	I	noon miss	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Next one?	el	I	sunset	rep	R
		good	e	F			
P-T					What is vroeg in		
					die môre nou		
					weer miss?	el	I
		dawn	rep	R			
		good	e	F			
					NV	b	
		Yes Louise	n	I	midday	rep	R
		fine	e	F			
		Anybody else?	cu	I	Twilight	rep	R
		very nice there	e	F			

		Now	m	Fr			
		What's the weather like,					
		Rudolph?	el<n>	I	Cloudy and		
					windy	rep	R
		Deidre?	n	I	Rain falling and		
					thunder rumbling	rep	R
		Next one?	el	I	Bright sunshine	rep	R
		What types of winds can					
		we have?	el	I			
		Albie?	n	I	Moderate	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Anybody else?	cu	I	Breeze	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		And what do we call a					
		strong wind?	el	I			
		A gale.	rep	R			
		Now	m	Fr			
		Who's travelling along					
		the road, Truana?	el<n>	I	Lindi miss	rep	R
		fine	e	F			
		Who do you have					
		Rudolph?	el<n>	I	The locals of		
					the town	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Anybody else?	cu	I	A hobo miss	rep	R
		good	e	F			
P-T					NV	b	
		Yes Andries	n	I	A sly character	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Do you see that you					
		already have atmosphere?	ch	I	yes miss	rep	R
					yes miss	rep	R
		All right	m	Fr			
		Now	m	Fo			
		All that remains is for					
		you to put your random					
		ideas into good sentences.	i	I			
	Medium-	When you plan an essay					
	oriented	decide on your main					

		paragraphs and then jot down a few ideas under each paragraph. (Bell rings) Oh gosh I forgot this is a short period.	i z	I			
T-C	Framework	Standard 6's, choose between numbers 1,2,3,6 and 7.	d<n>	I			
P-T					Can we choose any one miss?	el	I
		yes	rep	R			
		All right	m	Fr			
		Then that's all for today.	con	Fo			

Lesson 9

The Standard 6D class is doing an oral essay lesson.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Framework	Hurry up and sit down.	p<d>	I		rea	R
		Ferdi, leave the girls alone.	n<d>	I		rea	R
		Quietly	p				
		Sit down and be quiet.	d	I		rea	R
		Right	m	Fr			
	Message-oriented	Today I'm going to show you how to plan an essay.	ms	Fo			
		Now	m	Fr			
	Framework	Ferdi hand out a piece of paper to each one.	d<n>	I	Where's the paper miss?	el	I
		There in the cupboard.	rep	R			
T-C		Now	m	Fr			
		Divide your page into four columns.	d	I		rea	R
P-T					Why miss?	el	I

T-P(C)		You'll see now.	rep	R			
T-C		If you get an essay, for example, Along the road, you'll probably all think oh what's got into Mrs Sussman's head, but it can be fun.	com	F			
		Write the following headings at the top of each column(The road itself; Time of day or night; The weather; Who travels along the road).	d	I		rea	R
		All right	m	Fr			
T-C	Message-oriented	Let's see what we can say about each one.	ms	Fo			
		What kind of road do you have Cronje?	el<n>	I	A sandy road		
					miss	rep	R
		good	e	F			
					Miss	b	
		Yes Flippie	n	I	Miss a busy		
					street.	rep	R
		fine	e	F			
P-T					Miss what is		
					a sloot?	el	I
		A ditch or furrow	rep	R			
		good	e	F			
		What do you have, Stanley?	el<n>	I	Miss a road full		
					of potholes.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Right	m	Fr			
		What time of day or night is it?	el	I			
		Hm?	p		12 o'clock in		
					the day miss	rep	R
		What do we also call that time of day?	el	I	Midday miss	rep	R

		good	e	F			
		or?	p	I	noon	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		Ferdi what did you have?	el<n>	I	dawn miss	rep	R
		Alta what did you have?	el<n>	I	In the dead of		
					of the night miss	rep	R
		very good	e	F			
		Did you all hear that?	ch	I	yes miss	rep	R
		What did you have Henri?	el<n>	I	7 a.m. miss	rep	R
		fine	e	F			
		Anybody else?	cu		NV	b	
		Yes Charmaine	n	I	5 past twelve		
					miss	rep	R
		fine	e	F			
		Now	m	Fr			
		What was the weather					
		like?	el	I			
		Flippie?	n	I	stormy	rep	R
		fine	e	F			
		Anybody else?	cu	I	rainy miss	rep	R
					muddy miss	rep	R
					sunny miss	rep	R
		good rainy, muddy,					
		sunny.	e	F			
		Who had something else?	el	I	NV	b	
T-P(C)		Yes Koos	n		cloudy and wet	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		What do we call a cloudy					
		and wet day?	el	I			
		Hm?	p				
		An overcast day.	rep	R			
		Fine	m	Fr			
		Who travels along the					
		road?	el	I	A boemelaar		
					miss	rep	R
		What's a boemelaar in					
		English?	el	I	A hobo	rep	R
		A hobo yes	e	F			
		Who else?	el	I	Hickers	rep	R

		fine	e	F			
		and?	p	I	Truck drivers	rep	R
		and?	p	I	A lonely		
					traveller	rep	R
		and?	p	I	Lassie	rep	R
		and?	p	I	A tramp with no		
					destination	rep	R
		very good	e	F			
T-C		Who had something else?	el	I	Bicycle riders	rep	R
		What do we call a person					
		who rides a bicycle?	el	I	A cy (.l.) a		
					cyclist	rep	R
		good, a cyclist	e	F			
		All right	m	Fr			
		Do you see how easy it					
		is?	ch	I	Yes miss	rep	R
		Decide on your different					
		paragraphs and then say					
		something about each					
		one. Just jot down main					
		ideas.	i	I			
P-T					Miss must we		
					still plan the		
					whole essay in		
					rough?	el	I
		no	rep	R			
		In the exam you will not					
		have enough time to write					
		it in rough and then					
		properly.	com	F			
P-T	Message-				Miss once we		
	oriented				was travelling		
					along the road		
					and we come by		
					an accident and		
					miss a big hole		
					was in the		
					middle of the		
					road.	i	I

		Did anybody get hurt?	el	I	Luckily not miss	rep	R
P-T					Miss	b	
		Yes Cronje	n		Miss we were driving along a mountain pass once when a big truck past us and only a few kilometres ahead we saw that it had gone down the bank.	i	I
		Sho!	ack	R			
		Was it driving fast?	el	I	Yes miss	rep	R
	Framework	Now	m	Fr			
		Turn to page 121 in the books I've just handed out.	d	I		rea	R
		Choose between numbers 1,4,5,6,8, and 10.	d	I			
		Complete these exercises for the next day 2.	d	I			
P-T					Must we do it in our essay books miss?	el	I
		Yes of course	rep	R			
		Fine	m	Fr			
		Carry on	d	I		rea	R
		Quietly please	p				

Lesson 10

The Standard 6A class is doing a comprehension lesson.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Framework	Right Today we're going to do	m	Fr			
		our comprehension orally.	ms	Fo			
		Take out your books.	d	I		rea	R
		Quickly	p				
T-C	Message-oriented	What is a miracle?	el	I	'n Wonderwerk.	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		Who do you know who performed many miracles in His life time?	el	I	Jesus	rep	R
		Can you name one, Louise?	el<n>	I	He made wine into water.	rep	R
P-T					Miss	b	
		Yes Rudolph	n	I	He healed a blind man.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		What is an inferno?	el	I	Something like the fires of hell.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		A fire that burns very intensely.	com				
		What's a runway Sas?	el<n>	I	Miss a place where the aeroplane lands and takes off.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Now	m	Fr			
		Albie will you read the passage please?	el<n>	I	Yes miss (reads)	rep	R
		Right	m	Fr			
		Has an experienced pilot been flying for a long or a short time?	el	I	A long time.	rep	R
		What's another word for plunge?	el	I			
		Riette?	n	I	Dive	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		What helped the plane to					

		glide and not plunge straight down?	el	I	The wind	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		PC where did James' father have a business appointment?	el<n>	I	Sasolburg	rep	R
		no	e	F			
					NV	b	
		Yes Awie	n	I	Heilbron miss	rep	R
		Yes Heilbron	e	F			
		When did James nearly lose his life, Andries?	el<n>	I	Last year miss	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		When did James' father look at the instruments, Henri?	el<n>	I	When they were passing over Colebrook.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		How did they get out of the stream of fire?	el	I	They climbed onto the wingtips.	rep	R
		What could James see just after take off?	el	I	Sasolburg and fields miss	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		What happened when the plane reached the ground?	el	I			
		Heh?	p				
		JJ	n	I	It burned out.	rep	R
P-T					Miss when a plane takes off, what's that word again?	el	I
		Airborne	rep	R			
					Oh yes	z	
P-T					Miss we attended a airshow once and we saw how		

					the pilot had to eject himself, because smoke was coming from the engine.	i	I
		Did he escape safely?	el	I	Yes miss	rep	R
					But the aeroplane was a wreck.	com	F
P-T					Miss these small aeroplanes can be dangerous.	i	I
		Why?	el	I	Because they have to fly so low and then sometimes they crash into things.	rep	R
	Framework	All right Answer the questions in your language books.	m	Fr			
			d	I		rea	R
P-T					Miss we don't have our books.	i	I
		Just look in the cupboard, Rudolph.	d<n>	I		rea	R
P-T					Miss must we skip a line after each answer?	el	I
		yes	rep	R			
P-T					Miss my book is not in the cupboard. Do you perhaps have it?	i	I
		No I don't think so.	rep	R		el	I
		Just look here on my desk.	d	I		rea	R
P-T					Miss for when must this be finished?	el	I

		For the next day (.2.)					
		day three.	rep	R			

Lesson 11

The Standard 6D class is doing a comprehension lesson.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Framework	Hurry up Standard 6's.	p<n>				
		Sit down, sit down.	d	I		rea	R
		Take out your comprehension books.	d	I		rea	R
		Fine	m	Fr			
	Message-oriented	Today we're going to do our comprehension orally. (reads comprehension)	ms	Fo			
		Now	m	Fr			
		First of all, Riaan what does a pilot do?	el<n>	I	He flys an aeroplane miss.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		And who sits in the cockpit?	el	I	The pilot and his co-pilots.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		What is a runway?	el	I			
					Miss	b	
					Miss	b	
		Charmaine you try	p<n>	I	Miss where an aeroplane comes in to land and go off again.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		It's a kind of a road where the aeroplanes land and take off from.	com				
		What happens in an					

	explosion?	el	I	NV	b	
	Yes Ferdi	n	I	Miss it's like a landmine that blows up.	rep	R
	yes	e	F			
	What else can cause an explosion?	el	I	A bomb miss	rep	R
	yes	e	F			
	And also sometimes something causes a short circuit and then the fuel catches fire causing an explosion.	com				
	What is an inferno?	el	I			
	Henri	n	I	Miss it's like hell.	rep	R
	good	e	F			
	Fires that burn very intensely.	com				
	There was also a book, 'The Towering Inferno' about a huge building that caught fire and it burned to the ground.	i	I			
	What is a miracle, Flippie?	el<n>	I	Miss when something happens and you can't believe it.	rep	R
	good	e	F			
	Who performed many miracles in His life time?	el	I	NV	b	
	Yes Henry	n	I	Jesus	rep	R
	Can you name some?	el	I	He changed water into wine.	rep	R
	yes	e	F			
	And?	p	I	He fed five thousand people with two fishes		

					and five loaves		
					of bread.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
P-T					Miss	b	
		Yes Annelize	n	I	He walked on		
					the water.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		Fine	m	Fr			
		What do you spray crops					
		with?	el	I	Poison miss	rep	R
		Don't you think the					
		poison will kill us?	el	I	No miss, it kills		
					the worms and		
					things that eat		
					the mielies.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		Once the crops are					
		harvested the poison has					
		worn off.	com				
		Last week my garden					
		boy was spraying the					
		garden, but some got to					
		my vegetables. Even					
		though I have nice beans					
		we can't eat them.	i	I			
		All right	m	Fr			
		Sometimes we hear of					
		people, who spray crops,					
		that crash.	s				
		How are those accidents					
		caused?	el	I	They fly too		
					low miss.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		And what do they crash					
		into, Leoni?	el<n>	I	Trees and		
					mountains miss.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		What else?	el	I			
		Think of Parys near					

		Johannesburg.	cl				
		There are a lot of poles					
		joined by?	el	I	Electric wires.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		Why can't they spray					
		crops on a very windy					
		day, Stanley?	el<n>	I	The wind will		
					blow the poison		
					away.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		He wants it on the mielie					
		lands and if it's windy					
		the poison will not reach					
		the mielie lands.	com				
		Where were the flames					
		coming from?	el	I			
		(draws a picture of an					
		aeroplane and place					
		where fire started)					
		Annelize?	n	I	In the cockpit		
					miss.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		What's another word for					
		sprang, Lorita?	el<n>	I	Jumped miss.	rep	R
		yes that's right	e	F			
		What do you think would					
		have happened to them if					
		they hadn't been able to					
		escape, Koos?	el<n>	I	They would		
					have burned		
					to death miss.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		They would have died a					
		horrible death.	com				
P-T					Miss	b	
		Yes Leoni	n	I	Once when I		
					was in standard		
					four we were		
					going to my		

					grandma and we came at a accident and we stopped and we look and there was this boy and his leg was off and it lie there.	i	I
		Shame .	ack	R			
		Where was this?	el	I	Near Lichtenburg miss. They had to saag open the cars.	rep com	R F
	Message-oriented	All right Riaan where did James' father have a business appointment?	m el<n>	Fr I	Heilbron miss	rep	R
		good at Heilbron When did James nearly lose his life, Flippie?	e el<n>	F I	One Saterday morning.	rep	R
		yes Or?	e p	F I	Last year	rep	R
		yes last year When did James' father look at the instruments, Charmaine?	e el<n>	F I	When they were passing over Colebrook.	rep	R
P-T					Miss were the instruments damaged by the explosion?	el	I
		I think they probably were.	rep	R			
		What caused the explosion, Alta?	el<n>	I	I (.2.)	rep	R
		Stanley?	n	I	The pressure in		

					the fuel tank rose.	rep	R
		good Where was James sitting in the aeroplane, Gerhard?	e el<n>	F I	In the rear cockpit miss.	rep	R
		good What could James see just after take off, Pieter?	e el<n>	F I	Two small towns	rep	R
		no	e	F			
					NV	b	
		Yes Ferdi	n	I	Sasolburg miss.	rep	R
		yes Sasolburg And?	e p	F I	Fields	rep	R
		yes Sasolburg and fields. How did James and his father save their lives?	e el	F I			
		Sonja don't write the answers just listen.	d	I		rea	R
		Ferdi?	n	I	Miss they jumped into the water.	rep	R
		good What was the miracle, Annelize?	e el<n>	F I	The plane didn't go straight down, it glided.	rep	R
P-T		good	e	F	Miss why did it glide?	el	I
		It most probably caught an air current.	rep	R			
	Framework	Fine Take out you language books.	m d	Fr I		rea	R
		Quickly	p				
P-T					Miss must we		

					answer all the questions?	el	I
P-T		yes	rep	R	Miss must we first do our corrections?	el	I
		yes of course Complete these questions for day three please.	rep	R			

Lesson 12

The Standard 6C class is doing a language lesson.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Framework	Come in and sit down Take out your language books and turn to exercise 3.3.	d	I		rea	R
			d	I		rea	R
	Medium-oriented	What is an article?	el	I	'n Artikel	rep	R
		no	e	F			
		There are only three articles in English.	cl	I	Miss something like the	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		And what are the other two?	el	I	In	rep	R
		no	e	F			
		Two letters only	cl	I	Miss an	rep	R
		And?	p	I	A	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		A and An are nearly the same depending on the noun that follows.	com				
		Read you first answer, Jacques	el<n>	I	(xxx) on the face of the earth	rep	R

		yes, the face of the earth Karl what is number two's answer?	e el<n>	F I	There was very few people in the church.	rep	R
		no just in church Tinus, next one?	e el<n>	F I	Our neighbour Mr Carter has been in the hospital for the past two weeks.	rep	R
		no, only in hospital Next, Tiekie?	e el<n>	F I	Mother went to hypermarket after the practise.	rep	R
		no, mother went to the hypermarket after practise Next one, Flip?	e el<n>	F I	The most of us enjoy the holiday by the seaside.	rep	R
		Do you agree with him?	el	I	No miss	rep	R
		Why not?	el	I	It's just most of us and not the most of us.	rep	R
		yes that's right Next one?	e el	F I	She read part of the book while she was in bed with (.2.) influenza.	rep	R
		yes Tinus, the next one?	e el<n>	F I	A member of the parliament addressed the people.	rep	R
		Do you agree? no, it's just a member of parliament, not a member of the parliament.	el e	I F	yes miss	rep	R

		Next one?	el	I	He wrote a book while he was in the prison.	rep	R
		Do you agree?	el	I	yes miss	rep	R
		no, its just in prison.	e	F			
T-C	Framework	Right	m	Fr			
		Todays work is on page 35.	ms	Fo			
		Do exercise 3.5 giving one word for the group of words in bold type.	d	I			
		Right	m	Fr			
		Then exercise 3.7.	ms	Fo			
		Write out the whole sentence and underline the answer.	d	I		rea	R
	Message-oriented	What does to come of age mean?	el	I	To be older	rep	R
		no	e	F			
		There's only one birthday when you come of age.	cl	I	21 miss	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		Do these two exercises in your books and then do exercise 3.9.	d	I		rea	R
T-C	Medium-oriented	Soundly tells me more of what in this sentence? (I slept soundly)	el	I	Sleep	rep	R
		And sleep is what kind of a verb?	el	I			
		Sentences always have them.	cl	I			
		A finite verb	rep	R			
		What do we call those words that tell us more about a verb?	el	I			
		An adverb	rep	R			
T-C	Framework	All right	m	Fr			
		Finish your last work					

		and draw a line.	d	I		rea	R
P-T					Miss do we have to write a sub-heading next to exercise 3.3?	el	I
		no	rep	R			
		because they are not all collective nouns.	com	F			
T-C		Write todays date.	d	I		rea	R
		Then you?	el	I	Draw a line	rep	R
		Then you write exercise 3.3 and the page.	d	I		rea	R
		Underline it.	d	I		rea	R
		Then you?	el	I	Draw a line	rep	R
		All right	m	Fr			
		So, that's all for today.	con	Fo			

Lesson 13

The Standard 7A class is doing a language lesson.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Framework	Sit down Standard 7's without a noise.	d	I		rea	R
		Heh you three at the back there, Paul, Mark and Abraham, Shush!	d<n>	I		rea	R
		Take out your language books and turn to page 46.	d	I		rea	R
P-T					Which page miss?	el	I
		Page 46.	rep	R			
		Fine	m	Fr			
	Medium-oriented	Today we're going to do degrees of comparison.	ms	Fo			
		We're going to use them					

		in sentences.	s				
T-P(C)		How would I say sentence one, Linda?	el<n>	I	Peter is thinner than John.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Engela, next one?	el<n>	I	Peter is the thinner of the two brothers.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Next one, Heibrecht?	el<n>	I	Of the three children, Peter is the thinnest.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Next, Abraham?	el<n>	I	Alan was naughtier than Stephan.	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		Next one?	el	I	Alan was the naughtiest of them all.	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		Mark what about the next one?	el<n>	I	The boomslang is more poisonous than the cobra.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		And?	p	I	The boomslang is the more poisonous of the two.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
T-P(C)		Next, Renco?	el<n>	I	Paul is the most observant of the two boys.	rep	R
		no	e	F			
		Try again	p	I	The more	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		Henk what's the next					

		answer?	el<n>	I	Andrew was more insolent than John.	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		Why are we using more or most suddenly?	el	I			
		Come on	p	I	NV	b	
		Yes Mark	n	I	Miss the words are too long.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		Insolent has 3 syllables. Normally if a word has 3 or more syllables you use more and most.	com				
P-T					Miss fragrant only has two syllables.	i	I
		yes that's right	ack	R	So why do we use more and most?	el	I
		Why do you think Mark?	el<n>	I	Miss I think it's also too long.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		We can't say fragranter and fragrantist.	com				
		Right	m	Fr			
		Next, David?	el<n>	I	John is the tallest boy in the class.	rep	R
		right	e	F			
		Of the two Edna is the what speller?	el	I	Better	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Next one?	el	I	In the whole district your father has the less cattle.	rep	R
		no not less	e	F	Least	rep	R
		yes least	e	F			

T-C	Framework	Right	m	Fr			
		I want you to write out b and c and skip a line between each sentence.	d	I		rea	R
P-T					Miss we don't have our books.	i	I
		yes I know	ack	R			
		They're in the cupboard.	com	F			
P-T	Social				Miss why do we have to write English?	el	I
		You might fall in love with a nice English girl overseas and then you'll need it.	rep	R			
P-T					Miss but in the 21st century we will not write letters anymore, the computer will do it.	i	I
		Then you'll have to wait for the 21st century and then come back to school.	rep	R			
		Fine	m	Fr			
		So, that's all for today.	con	Fo			

Lesson 14

The Standard 7B class is doing a language lesson.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Framework	Come in Standard 7's.	d	I		rea	R
		Right	m	Fr			
	Medium-oriented	Today we're going to do degrees of comparison.	ms	Fo			
		Degrees of comparison					

		are things like good, better, best and bad, worse, worst.	s				
		Didn't you learn these by heart in the primary school?	el	I	Yes miss	rep	R
		Well	m	Fr			
		Today we're going to use them in sentences.	ms	Fo			
		When comparing 2 things you use the second degree, like better and when you compare more than 2 you use the third degree, like best.	i	I			
		How would pretty change in this sentence, Marietjie? (Snow White was 'pretty' than she)	el<n>	I	(.1.) prettier	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		What happens when you have words like comfortable?	el	I	We use more and most.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		Usually they have 3 or more syllables, but sometimes you also have 2 syllable words like vicious. These words are too long.	i	I			
T-C	Framework	Take out your language books and turn to page 46.	d	I		rea	R
T-P(C)	Medium-oriented	How would I say number one, Tania?	el<n>	I	Mrs Pullen was more elegant than Mrs Rob.	rep	R

	And?	p	I	Mrs Pullen was the most elegant of them all.	rep	R
	good	e	F			
	Next Tesani?	el<n>	I	Peter is thinner than John.	rep	R
	And?	p	I	Peter is the thinner of the two boys.	rep	R
	good	e	F			
	Next one?	el	I	Adderley Street was more busy than Smith Street.	rep	R
	no	e	F			
	Busy only has two syllables.	cl				
	So?	p	I	busier	rep	R
	yes	e	F			
	Next one?	el	I	Andrew was the most insolent of the four.	rep	R
	Next one, Sybrand?	el<n>	I	You are wiser than me.	rep	R
	good	e	F			
	Pieter, next one?	el<n>	I	Joan was more nervous than me.	rep	R
	yes	e	F			
	Next one?	el	I	This stone is much heavier than that one.	rep	R
	yes	e	F			
	Next one, Ruben?	el<n>	I	He is the friendliest man I know.	rep	R
	good	e	F			
	Riette, the next one?	el<n>	I	Church Street is narrower than Smith Street.	rep	R
	Next one?	el	I	My cold is the		

				baddest I've ever had.	rep	R
		Heh!	l	My cold is the baddest I've (.1.)	rep	R
				O gats worst I've ever had.	z rep	R
		yes	e	F		
		Next one?	el	I	Paul is the observanter (.1.)	rep
				no more observant of the two boys.	z rep	R
		good	e	F		
		Next one?	el	I	Andrew was more insolent than John.	rep	R
		yes	e	F		
		Right	m	Fr		
		So, if the words have 3 syllables you will most probably use more and most.	con	Fo		
		Do you understand?	ch	I	Yes miss	rep	R
T-C	Framework	Now	m	Fr		
		Do all 40 sentences in your language books.	d			
P-T					Do we really have to do all of them miss?	el	I
		yes	rep	R		
P-T					Miss must we finish it for tomorrow?	el	I
		No I'll give you time in class tomorrow to complete it.	rep	R		
P-T					Miss do we have prescribed		

					tomorrow?	el	I
		yes	rep	R			

Lesson 15

The Standard 7C class is doing a comprehension lesson.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Framework	Come in and sit down.	d	I		rea	R
		Take out your language books.	d	I		rea	R
		I just want to check your work.	ms	Fo			
		Heh, stop that talking.	d	I		rea	R
		What exercises did you do?	el	I	Exercise 14.1 and 14.2 miss.	rep	R
T-P		Why didn't you do it in sequence?	el	I	Miss because (...)	rep	R
		Can you explain?	el	I	No miss	rep	R
T-P		Why didn't you draw a line at the end of the exercise?	el	I	I (...)	rep	R
		Where's the page number?	el	I			
		You must read the instructions carefully in the exam, because you can lose up to 10 marks.	i	I			
T-P		Where's your language book?	el	I	At home miss	rep	R
		Why don't you stay at home?	el	I			
		Heh?	p	I			
		Don't you even have your text book here?	el	I	No miss	rep	R
					You said we was not going to do language today.	com	F
		I never said you're not going to do language today, I never ever said that.	com				
		You are weak as it is and you're a person who talk here all the time, I watch you.	i	I			
		Now	m	Fr			
		Do these 2 extra exercises and I want it tomorrow.	d				
		What are you going to do with an empty desk?	el	I	I don't know miss.	rep	R
T-P		Why do you have open slots?	el	I	I don't know the answer miss.	rep	R
		You won't get marks for open slots.	com	F			
T-C		Did I give you the notes on how to answer the comprehension test?	el	I	Yes miss	rep	R
		Now	m	Fr			
		On Thursday you're writing a comprehension test.	ms	Fo			
		You have to get 50%. I don't want any lame excuses, I don't want people not doing their work correctly. I want you all to pass.	i	I			
		Is there anybody who doesn't want to pass the June exam?	el	I			

	Put up your hands.	cu				
	Jaco how about you?	el<n>	I	No miss	rep	R
	Now	m	Fr			
	Turn to page 213.	d	I		rea	R
	Today we're going to mark the comprehension.	ms	Fo			
Medium-oriented	Here you have a lovely passage on animals.	s				
	Can anybody mention a book in English which has an animal as a main character?	el	I	Black Beauty	rep	R
	yes Black Beauty	e	F			
Framework	Right	m	Fr			
	Take out a pencil and correct your work as we mark it.	d	I		rea	R
Medium-oriented	Tinus read your first answer.	el<n>	I	The brave honey badger.	rep	R
	all right	e	F			
	Anybody else?	el	I	A rare event.	rep	R
	good	e	F			
	When you have to supply a suitable title for the passage in the exam it must contain the gist of the passage and your answer need not be in a full sentence.	i	I			
	Your answer, therefore, need not contain what?	el	I	A verb	rep	R
	No, not just a verb	e	F			
	A?	p	I	A finite verb	rep	R
	yes	e	F			
	Now	m	Fr			
	Which words does the author use to express unusual?	el	I	Rare	rep	R

	Do you agree?	el	I	Yes miss	rep	R
	Next one? (very)	el	I	Extremely	rep	R
	Do you agree?	el	I	Yes miss	rep	R
	right	e	F			
	Next one? (stuck through)	el	I	Pierced	rep	R
	yes	e	F			
	Can anybody remember the other word?	el	I			
	I had it on the black-board the other day.	cl		NV	b	
	Yes Tinus	n	I	Penetrate	rep	R
	yes	e	F			
	But it must be penetrated past tense, because pierced is past tense.	com				
	Next one, Louise?	el<n>	I	Exhausted	rep	R
	good	e	F			
	Next one? (very small animal)	el	I	Dwarf	rep	R
	yes	e	F			
	Next one? (frenzied)	el	I	I don't know		
				miss	rep	R
	Did you do your work?	el	I	Yes miss	rep	R
	How come you couldn't find it?	el	I			
	Anyone?	cu	I	Miss	b	
	Yes	n	I	Angry	rep	R
	no	e	F			
	Couldn't you find the word frantic?	el	I	No miss	rep	R
	Write down the word and learn it.	d	I		rea	R
	Next one? (attempts)	el	I	Station	rep	R
	no	e	F			
	Isn't there a word beginning with e?	cl	I	Efforts	rep	R
	good	e	F			
	What is efforts in Afrikaans, Magiel?	el<n>	I	Pogings	rep	R

	Write down pogings next to efforts.	d	I		rea	R
	Next one? (let go)	el	I	release	rep	R
	yes	e	F			
	What tense will let go be?	el	I	Past tense	rep	R
	There are three kinds of past tense, you can't just tell me past tense.	com	F			
	Quickly	p	I	Simple past	rep	R
	yes	e	F			
	In the test I'm going to test your tenses too and if you just write past tense you'll get no marks.	i	I			
	What are the principle parts of the word let?	el	I			
	Louise?	n	I			
	Try	p	I	Let,let,letting.	rep	R
	no, just let, let, let.	e	F			
	Next one? (altogether)	el	I			
	Anybody?	cu				
	Find it later.	d				
	Next one? (killing)	el	I	Dispatch	rep	R
	yes	e	F			
	Now	m	Fr			
	Question 8 is next.	ms	Fo			
	Why was the bull limping?	el	I	The bull was limping, because a dry stick had penetrate his leg.	rep	R
	no, had penetrated, because it is the past perfect tense.	e	F			
	Why was Gerald able to kill the bull easily?	el	I	It lost a great amount of blood.	rep	R
	no, it had lost.	e	F			

		What is the finite verb in this sentence? (The bull stood with its feet wide apart)	el	I	Stood	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		What tense is it?	el	I	Simple past	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Next one?	el	I	Had inflicted	rep	R
		What tense is it?	el	I	Past perfect	rep	R
		very good	e	F			
		Can you explain to us when we use the past perfect?	el	I	When you want to say something in the past tense and it had happened already	rep	R
		No, that's not quite right	e	F			
		Write down this definition.	d	I		rea	R
		When one action took place before another in the past we use the past perfect tense for the first action.	i	I			
		Next one, Magiel?	el<n>	I			
		Come on	p	I	Sank	rep	R
		What tense is it?	el	I	Past tense	rep	R
		No simple past.	e	F			
		You're going to have to do something about your English, you're very weak.	com				
T-C	Framework	Prepare all the words in the passage for your vocabulary test tomorrow.	d				

Lesson 16

The Standard 7T class is doing a language lesson.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Framework	Come in	d	I		rea	R
		Hurry up	p	I			
		Take out your language books.	d	I		rea	R
		Today we're going to mark the comprehension and do parts of speech.	ms	F			
		Take a pencil and correct your work as we mark it.	d	I		rea	R
	Medium-oriented	Gerrie what is the first questions answer?	el<n>	I	Wild life	rep	R
		No that's too vague.	e	F			
		Tinus	n	I	The small but strong honey badger.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		Which words does the author use to express unusual?	el	I	Rare	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Next one? (very)	el	I	A lot	rep	R
		no	e	F			
		It is only one word.	cl				
		Anybody?	cu	I			
		The answer is extremely.	rep	R			
		You'd better read the passage again, because you didn't do it very well the first time.	com	F			
		Next one? (stuck through)	el	I	Pierced	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Next one? (tired)	el	I	Uitgeput	rep	R

		What is that in English?	el	I	I don't know miss.	rep	R
		Write exhausted and uitgeput next to it so that you'll remember it.	d	I		rea	R
		Next one? (small animal)	el	I	Adversary	rep	R
		no,no	e	F			
		Anybody?	cu	I	A dwarf miss	rep	R
		That's right	e	F			
		Next one, Fritz? (frenzy)	el<n>	I	Hissing and spitting	rep	R
		no	e	F			
					NV	b	
		Yes Tinus	n	I	Violently	rep	R
		no	e	F			
		It starts with an F.	cl	I			
		The answer is frantic	rep	R			
		Write it down.	d	I		rea	R
		Next one? (attempts)	el	I	Efforts	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Write pogings next to it.	d	I		rea	R
		All right	m	Fr			
		Question 8 is next.	ms	Fo			
		Why was the bull limping?	el	I	A stick had pierced the leg.	rep	R
		Are those your own words?	el	I	No miss	rep	R
		What will you get in the exam?	el	I	Naught miss	rep	R
		Why was Gerald able to kill the bull easily?	el	I	It had lost much blood and was weak.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Now	m	Fr			
T-C	Medium-oriented	The language exercises.	s				
		What are the finite verbs in the first one,					

Fritz?	el<n>	I	Stood	rep	R
What tense is that?	el	I	Past tense	rep	R
no, not just past tense	e	F			
But?	p	I	Simple past	rep	R
yes	e	F			
Next one, Willem?	el<n>	I	Had inflicted	rep	R
What tense is it?	el	I	Past perfect	rep	R
good	e	F			
Next one?	el	I	Sank	rep	R
What tense?	el	I	Simple past	rep	R
good	e	F			
All right	m	Fr			
I'll mark the rest of the exercise.	i	I			
Now	m	Fr			
For the rest of the period we're going to do parts of speech.	ms	Fo			
Skryf in Rededele.	d	I		rea	R
Now	m	Fr			
The first one is nouns. What are nouns in Afrikaans?	el	I	Selstandige naamwoorde	rep	R
yes, selfstandige naam-woorde	e	F			
What types of nouns do we get?	el	I	Common	rep	R
and?	p	I	Abstract	rep	R
and?	p	I	Proper	rep	R
good	e	F			
What do we call versamel naamwoorde?	el	I			
Collective nouns.	rep	R			
Fritz give me an example of a proper noun.	el<n>	I	table	rep	R
no	e	F			
A proper noun is the name of a person, place					

or thing.	com				
Write down John and Durban.	d	I		rea	R
An example of a common noun is?	el	I	Table, chair	rep	R
yes	e	F			
An example of an abstract noun is?	el	I	Laugh	rep	R
no	e	F			
that's a verb	com				
Write down love, hate, and kindness.	d	I		rea	R
A what of cattle?	el	I	A herd	rep	R
A what of sheep?	el	I	A flock	rep	R
What nouns are these?	el	I	Collective	rep	R
yes	e	F			
Now	m	Fr			
An agent noun is the name given to a person who has a certain function for example, a teacher, a manager or a farmer.	i	I			
Skryf in persoonsnaam.	d	I		rea	R
Now	m	Fr			
Let's do the verbs. I'm only going to mention two.	ms	Fo			
We have strong verbs and weak verbs. Strong verbs are those irregular verbs you have at the back of your books, like eat, ate, eaten or sink, sank and sunk.	i	I			
Who knows what weak verbs are?	el	I	Hulpwerkwoorde juffrou	rep	R
no	e	F			
They form their past					

		tense with ed.	cl	I			
		Come on	p	I			
		Play, played, play and walk, walked walk.	rep	R			
		Now	m	Fr			
		Write down adjectives.	d	I		rea	R
		What is the Afrikaans word?	el	I	Byvoeglike naamwoorde	rep	R
		that's right	e	F			
		Adjectives tell us something about the noun, like a beautiful girl or a talkative boy.	com				
		Write down this definition: An adjective always qualifies a noun.	d	I		rea	R
		Do you understand? (Bell rings)	ch	I	Yes miss	rep	R
T-C	Framework	All right	m	Fr			
		So, we will continue tomorrow.	con	Fo			

Lesson 17

The Standard 7A class is doing a prescribed (literature) lesson.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Framework	Please sit down	d	I		rea	R
		Phillip hurry up.	p<n>	I		rea	R
		Mark put that away.	d	I		rea	R
		Take out your readers.	d	I		rea	R
		Now where were we?	z				
		OK	m	Fr			
T-C	Message-oriented	Who did Dirk find at the lodge?	el	I	His father	rep	R
		yes	e	F			

		And?	p	I	Mr Fervis	rep	R
		What news did Dirk have for his father?	el	I	That his uncle, his father's brother, might still be alive.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
Framework		Turn to page 31.	d	I		rea	R
Message-oriented		Ronell will you start reading.	el<n>	I	Yes miss (starts reading)	rep	R
		Are there any words you're not sure of?	ch	I			
		Hm?	p	I			
		What does deduce mean?	el	I			
		A detective following a clue can usually deduce.	cl	I	Opvolg	rep	R
		no, not quite	e	F			
		Anybody?	cu	I	NV	b	
		Yes Mark	n	I	Aflui	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		You work things out.	com				
		What does surge mean?	el	I			
		Sometimes when water, or at the sea when the tide comes in and the waves come pounding onto the shore and then they surge back.	cl	I	Terug trek	rep	R
		Not quite.	e	F			
		It's like something building up inside you with a certain force.	com				
		Right	m	Fr			
		Mariaan you carry on.	d<n>	I	Yes miss (reads)	ack	R
		Stop there.	d	I		rea	R
		Heibrecht, why could Takulani not tell for					

		sure whether it was a relative or not?	el<n>	I	He had a beard and long hair.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		He looked different.	com				
		Carry on, Sureta.	d<n>	I	(reads)	rea	R
		The brothers were rivals, what does that mean?	el	I	They were competing against each other.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
P-T					Miss can it be enemies?	el	I
		You could perhaps say enemies, but usually countries are enemies of each other.	rep	R			
		Every year you play rugby against Boys High you are rivals, it is like friendly competition, but with a touch of seriousness.	com	F			
		All right	m	Fr			
		Carry on, Engela	d<n>	I	From where miss?	el	I
		The last paragraph on page 42.	rep	R	(starts reading)		
		What is a splinter?	el	I	A small piece of wood	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		What confession did his father make?	el	I	That he felt guilty about his brother's death.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		What does churn mean?	el	I			
		The farmers wife usually churns.	cl	I	Butter	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		What makes his face look haggard?	el	I	Pain	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		Fear also perhaps if you've been through a terrible experience, but it's not a permanent thing	com				
P-T					Miss what does throb mean?	el	I
		Throb is when something beats or pounds like your heart or if you've hurt your knee.	rep	R			
		His father capitulated, what does that mean?	el	I	Changed his mind	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		What part of your body is your palate?	el	I	Jou verhemelte	rep	R
		Yes, the roof of your mouth.	e	F			
P-T					Miss you also have a pallat in your gun.	i	I
		No that's a pellet.	e	F			
T-C	Framework	Fine	m	Fr			
		Prepare the paragraph at the end of page 41 for dictation on day two.	d				

Lesson 18

The Standard 7B class is doing a prescribed (literature) lesson.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Framework	Come in quickly	d<p>	I		rea	R
		Have I given you questions on **The Burning River** yet?	el	I	Yes miss	rep	R
		Fine	m	Fr			
		Today we'll just mark those questions.	ms	Fo			
	Message-oriented	Why did the children chop down a tree?	el	I			
		Leandre?	n	I	To build a raft.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		How do you know that Takulani was super-stitious?	el	I	Miss a hammer-kop flew over.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		They believed that if a hammerkop flew over the village it would bring bad luck.	com				
		What did Dirk mean when he said, "All right lets call it a day?"	el	I	Let's stop	rep	R
		yes let's stop	e	F			
		How did the children suffer when they chopped down the tree, Amanda?	el<n>	I	Their hands had blisters.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		And?	p	I	Their muscles ached.	rep	R
		good	e	F			

		What fact did Dirk mention which Takulani had not know before?	el	I			
		Come on	p	I	NV	b	
		Yes, Ruben	n	I	Miss about man-made satellites.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
P-T					Miss and also that people had been up to the moon.	i	I
		Yes that's right	ack	R			
		Why could Mududetsi not cross the river?	el	I	Because he was physically handicapped.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Why is Dirk determined to cross the river, Wilna?	el<n>	I	He wanted to see if it was not his uncle that was there.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
	Framework	All right	m	Fr			
		When do we have reading again?	el	I	Day two miss.	rep	R
		Complete these exercises for day two then.	d				
		Start now	d	I		rea	R
P-T	Message-oriented				Miss do they still have arranged marriages today like that of Takulani?	el	I
		Yes	rep	R			
		Especially in India and Pakistan.	com	F			
P-T					How do those		

					people like each		
					other?	el	I
		The divorce rates in					
		those countries are					
		lower than in our own					
		country.	rep	R			
P-T					Miss but can		
					they divorce?	el	I
		yes	rep	R			
		But it rarely happens.					
		They seem to be very					
		happy. Mrs Buto of					
		Pakistan's marriage was					
		an arranged one and I					
		think she's doing pretty					
		well.	com	F			
		Quietly	p				
T-C		You may leave.	d	I		rea	R

Lesson 19

The Standard 6D class is writing a test which is followed by social interaction.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Framework	Quickly	p				
		Come in and sit down.	d	I		rea	R
		Write your name on the					
		back of the paper.	d	I		rea	R
		Annelize go back to your					
		desk.	n<d>	I		rea	R
		Separate your desks.	d	I		rea	R
P-T					Miss must we		
					write in pen or		
					pencil?	el	I
		In pen	rep	R			
		Right	m	Fr			
		Start straight away.	d	I		rea	R

P-T					Miss may I		
					borrow your pen		
					please?	el	I
		yes	rep	R			
		It's in my top drawer.	com	F			
		(pupils write a test)					
P-T					What must we		
					do here miss?	el	I
		Just underline the words					
		that have to change.	rep	R			
P-T					Miss do you		
					have my control		
					test book?	el	I
		I don't know.	rep	R			
		Have a look in the					
		cupboard.	d	I		rea	R
T-P	Social	Who of you got drenched					
		in the rain last night?	el	I	Me miss	rep	R
		What happened Leoni?	el<n>	I	Miss I was at		
					the show when it		
					started and the		
					weermagman tell		
					us then to get		
					in the G6, but		
					we still get		
					wet.	rep	R
P-T					Miss we was at		
					the swings when		
					it started to		
					rain.	i	I
		What did you do then?	el	I	We carried on		
					miss.	rep	R
		Weren't you afraid of					
		the lightning?	el	I	No miss	rep	R
P-T					Miss	b	
		Yes Annelize	n	I	Miss I was also		
					on the swing, but		
					when I got off		
					my eyes was big		

					and then we went to the army tent where we saw videos. Then the lights went off while we was in the tent. Sho! I was very scared.	i	I
T-P		What did you like about the show, Henri?	el<n>	I	The chimpanzees miss. They did all kinds of tricks miss.	rep	R
		And you, Flippie?	el<n>	I	Miss I liked it when that tenk trapt that kar lekker flat.	com	F
		Pardon	el		Miss when the tank (.2.) squashed the car.	rep	R
		I didn't see that.	com	F			
P-T					Miss it was on the rugby field.	i	I
T-P		Sonja does your mother have a stall on the show?	el<n>	I	Yes miss	rep	R
		What do you sell?	el	I	Crockery and plants and pottery miss.	rep	R
P-T					Miss	b	
		Yes, Charmaine	n		Miss yesterday I ride on this big swing for the first time and then Leandri kicked me.	i	I
		What did you do then? (Bell rings)	el	I	I scream miss	rep	R

Lesson 20

The Standard 7B class is doing a lesson on advertisements.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	
T-C	Framework	Come in and sit down.	d	I		rea	
		Right	m	Fr			
	Message-oriented	Today we're going to spend your oral period discussing advertisements.	ms	Fo			
T-P(C)		Tanya which is your funniest or favourite or least favourite advertisement on TV?	el<n>	I	Miss the elephants with the washing powder.	rep	R
		Which one's that?	el	I	Miss it's an old one where they wash a big sheet or something in the pool.	rep	R
		Why do you like it?	el	I	Miss, because the elephants are so cute and you don't expect them to be washing.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
T-P(C)		Which one did you like, Helen?	el<n>	I	The coke one.	rep	R
		Why?	el	I	Because it's got a lot of action.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		And also I suppose because it appeals to the younger generation.	com				

T-P(C)		What did you like,						
		Lasinius?	el<n>	I	Miss the IBM			
					one where the			
					elephants walk			
					in the desert.	rep	R	
		Why does it appeal to						
		you?	el	I	Because it's sad			
					miss.	rep	R	
		yes it's sad	e	F				
		What did you like,						
		Liezel?	el<n>	I	The dunlop SP			
					33 miss.	rep	R	
		Which one's that?	el	I	Miss where the			
					staffordshire			
					terrier runs			
					away from the			
					greyhounds.	rep	R	
		Oh yes	acc	F				
		What did you like, Irma?	el<n>	I	The PPC cement			
					miss.	rep	R	
		Why?	el	I	Miss I think it's			
					rather patriotic.	rep	R	
		good	e	F				
		What did you like,						
		Wilna?	el<n>	I	Miss the one of			
					mercedes.	rep	R	
P-T					Miss it's a true			
					story.	i	I	
		Yes I know	acc	F				
		We drove by Chapman's						
		Peak during the holidays						
		and we looked for the						
		exact spot where it						
		happened, but we						
		couldn't find it.	com					
		All right	m	Fr				
		Each advertisement has						
		a different approach.	s					
		One has a lot of action,						

		the other one sad and					
		so on.	ms	Fo			
T-C	Framework	Now	m	Fr			
		I want you to divide					
		into groups of four.	d	I		rea	R
		Quickly	p				
P-T					Miss only four?	el	I
		yes	rep	R			
P-T					Miss what about		
					Henri?	el	I
		He can fit into your group					
		when he comes back.	rep	R			
		Now	m	Fr			
		You are going to make					
		your own advertisements.	ms	Fo			
		They must be original.	s				
		You can make advertise-					
		ments about chocolates,					
		chips, a new lipstick or					
		a washing powder.	i	I			
P-T					Miss can we		
					make one about		
					a new car?	el	I
		Yes that'll be fine.	rep	R			
	Message-	What makes an advertise-					
	oriented	ment successful?	el	I	Miss when it's		
					funny.	rep	R
		yes	e	F			
		And?	p	I	Miss there must		
					be action.	rep	R
		fine	e	F			
		And?	p	I	Miss it must be		
					cute.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Must it be long?	el	I	No miss	rep	R
P-T					Miss the words		
					also rhyme and		
					they catch your		
					attention.	i	I

		Yes that's right	acc	R			
T-C	Framework	All right	m	Fr			
		Do you want poster paper to do your advertisements on?	el	I	Yes miss	rep	R
		I'll give you time now to do your preparation and you can dress up if you want, I don't mind.	i	I			
P-T					Miss when must we do it?	el	I
		On the next day one. (Bell rings)	rep	R			

Lesson 21

The Standard 7A class is doing a lesson on advertisements.

Type of address	Interaction goals	Teacher	Act	Move	Pupil	Act	Move
T-C	Framework	Quietly	p				
		Hurry and sit down.	p<d>	I		rea	R
T-C	Message-oriented	Right	m	Fr			
		Today we're going to discuss advertisements.	ms	Fo			
		Eben, which one do you like?	el<n>	I	Miss the one where the sheep scores a try.	rep	R
		Why do you like it?	el	I	Miss because the sheep looks like a real rugby player.	rep	R
		all right	acc	F			
		Which one do you like, Mark?	el<n>	I	The toilet duck one miss.	rep	R
		Why?	el	I	Because it looks like a fighter pilot.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Which one do you like, Abraham?	el<n>	I	Miss Tolla's ad.	rep	R
		Why?	el	I	Miss because he just sommer shoots a crocodile with a kettie and that other guy nearly looks like Rambo.	rep	R
		Yes he does.	acc	F			
		Which one did you like, Heibrecht?	el<n>	I	Miss the oil one where Ian Roberts wants a can of the best.	rep	R
		fine	acc	F			
		Which one did you like, Engela?	el<n>	I	Miss the one of the elephants in the desert.	rep	R
		Why did you like it?	el	I	Because I think it shows mother love.	rep	R
		good	e	F			
		Esther, which one do you like?	el<n>	I	Miss the cremora one with Jan Spies.	rep	R
		Why?	el	I	Miss he's so funny.	rep	R
		Which one did you like, Linda?	el<n>	I	Miss the Ellis Brown one.	rep	R
		Why?	el	I	Because he's just like James Bond.	rep	R
		good	e	F			

T-C	Framework	Now	m	Fr			
		I want you to divide into groups of four.	d	I		rea	R
		Now	m	Fr			
		I want you to make up your own advertisements.	ms	Fo			
		It can be a chips, car, chocolate or lipstick advertisement, but remember it must be original.	i	I			
P-T					Miss must we use a different name?	el	I
		yes	rep	R			
P-T					Miss can we use poster paper?	el	I
		Yes I'll give you some.	rep	R			
		You can have green, blue or pink.	com	F			
T-P		How are you doing Heibrecht?	el<n>	I	All right miss.	rep	R
P-T					Miss do you think we can call it smacker?	el	I
		Yes that's a good name for a lipstick.	rep	R			
		Quietly	p				
		Have you boys started?	el	I	No miss	rep	R
		That's because you're talking too much.	com	F			
P-T					Miss must we dress up?	el	I
		You can if you want.	rep	R			
P-T					Miss for when must we do this?	el	I
		For the next day one.	rep	R			
		(Bell rings)					

		You may leave.	d				

5.4 Conclusion

In this chapter various discourse patterns were identified in the second language classroom. The analysis seems to show that when the teacher focuses on different interaction goals different interaction patterns occur. For example, when the teacher focuses on social goals the IRF pattern no longer dominates, because pupils now have greater freedom in initiating the discourse. The type of questions the teachers asked when they focused on different interaction goals was significant, because when they focused on social goals they tended to ask referential questions. These referential questions enabled the pupils to come up with original answers and their responses were often longer than when the teachers asked display questions when the focus was on medium-oriented goals. In chapter six the results will be presented in more detail.

CHAPTER 6
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter will be devoted to the presentation and discussion of the results of the analysed data. In the discussion of the data an attempt will be made to establish the potential of the identified discourse patterns to contribute to second language acquisition. As a result, the presence of certain aspects of discourse, such as the adherence to the 'here-and-now' principle, different interaction goals, different types of address and even different types of questions asked may play an important part in determining their successful or unsuccessful contribution to SLA.

6.2 Results of the Study

The results will be presented in terms of the number and type of questions asked, interaction goals and type of address.

6.2.1 Questions

The three teachers asked a total number of 435 questions, 82 of which were referential questions and 353 of which were display questions. **Referential questions** request information not known by the questioner, while **Display questions** ask the respondent to provide, or to display knowledge of, information already known by the questioner. Table 5 shows the number of questions asked by teachers.

TABLE 5: NUMBER OF QUESTIONS ASKED BY TEACHERS

No. of referential questions asked	No. of display questions asked	Total no. of questions asked
82 (18,9%)	353 (81,1%)	435

The majority of the questions asked by the pupils occurred when the teacher focused on framework goals; therefore, most of the pupils' questions related to the starting or finishing of the task at hand. In comparison to the total number of questions asked by the teachers the pupils asked a total of 63 questions. From the data mentioned in Table 5 it is clear that the teachers asked a significantly greater number of questions than the pupils did.

6.2.2 Interaction goals/Type of Address

6.2.2.1 Medium-oriented goals

When the teachers focused on **medium-oriented** interaction goals (cf 4.4.5 and 4.6) the following types of discourse patterns were identified:

I-R-F (teacher initiate-pupil response-teacher feedback)

T: What is an article? (I)
P: 'n Artikel (R)
T: no (F)

T: Which words does the author use to express unusual? (I)
P: rare (R)
T: good (F)

T: What happens when you have words like comfortable? (I)
P: We use more and most (R)
T: yes (F)

I-R-I-R-F (teacher initiate-pupil response-teacher initiate-pupil response-teacher feedback)

T: What are the finite verbs in the first one, Fritz? (I)
F: stood (R)
T: What tense is that? (I)
F: past tense (R)
T: no, not just past tense (F)

T: How am I going to write ladies, Sanet? (I)
S: l-a-d-i-e-s (spells it out) (R)
T: and where am I going to put the apostrophe? (I)
P: after (.1.) handbags (R)
T: no (F)

I-R (teacher initiate-pupil response)

T: Would I say John has or have to? (I)
P: has (R)

T: To (large) a photo, Karl? (I)
P: To enlarge. (R)

Table 6 gives the total number of times these discourse patterns occurred in the twenty-one lessons observed, when the focus was on medium-oriented goals.

TABLE 6: NUMBER OF DISCOURSE PATTERNS: Medium-Oriented Goals

I-R-F	I-R-I-R-F	I-R	TOTAL
131 (66,5%)	30 (15,2%)	36 (18,3%)	197

In these interactions teacher-initiated discourse patterns dominate and pupil-initiated discourse patterns are conspicuous in their absence.

The types of address typically associated with classroom interactions where the 'core' goals are medium-oriented are T-C (teacher to the class as a whole), T-P(C) (i.e. teacher addresses an individual pupil with the rest of the class as hearers) and to a lesser extent T-P (e.g. when the teacher moves around the class helping individual pupils). Medium-oriented interaction goals primarily have teacher-centred patterns of address.

6.2.2.2 Message-oriented goals

When the teachers focused on **message-oriented** interaction goals (cf 4.4.5 and 4.6) the following types of discourse patterns were identified:

I-R-F (teacher initiate-pupil response-teacher feedback)

T: Why did the children chop down a tree? (I)
P: To build a raft (R)
T: yes (F)

T: Why could Mududetsi not cross the river? (I)
P: Because he was physically handicapped (R)
T: good (F)

I-R (pupil initiate-teacher response)

P: Miss did they tell their father? (I)
T: yes (R)

P: Miss do they still have arranged marriages today like that of Takulani? (I)
T: yes, especially in India and Pakistan (R)

I-R-I-R-F (teacher initiate-pupil response-teacher initiate-pupil response-teacher feedback)

T: Which one do you like, Mark? (I)
M: The toilet duck one miss (R)
T: Why? (I)
M: Because it looks like a fighter pilot (R)
T: good (F)

T: Which one do you like Abraham? (I)
A: Miss Toll's ad (R)
T: Why? (I)
A: Miss because he just sommer shoots a crocodile with a kettie and that other guy nearly looks like Rambo (R)
T: yes he does (F)

Table 7 gives the total number of times these discourse patterns occurred in the twenty-one lessons, when the focus was on message-oriented goals.

TABLE 7: NUMBER OF DISCOURSE PATTERNS: Message-Oriented Goals

I-R-F	I-R-I-R-F	I-R (pupil initiate)	TOTAL
102 (70,8%)	25 (17,4%)	17 (11,8%)	144

It is important to notice that teacher-initiated discourse patterns, like the I-R-F pattern, are in the majority, but the pupils at least had a limited opportunity of initiating discourse.

The types of address typically associated with message-oriented interaction goals are T-C, T-P(C) and also P-T (i.e. where the pupil addresses the teacher).

6.2.2.3 Activity-oriented goals

During the entire observation period none of the teachers focused on **activity-oriented** interaction goals (cf 4.4.5 and 4.6).

6.2.2.4 Framework goals

When the teachers focused on **framework goals** (cf 4.4.5 and 4.6) the following types of discourse patterns were identified:

I-R (teacher initiate-pupil response)

T: Hurry and sit down (I)
P: (react) (R)

T: Why didn't you do it in sequence? (I)
P: Miss because (...) (R)

I-R (pupil initiate-teacher response)

P: What must we do here miss? (I)
T: Just underline the words that have to change (R)

P: Miss must we dress up? (I)
T: You can if you want (R)

P: Miss must we use a different name? (I)
T: yes (R)

Table 8 gives the total number of times these discourse patterns occurred in the twenty-one lessons observed, when the focus was on framework goals.

TABLE 8:NUMBER OF DISCOURSE PATTERNS: Framework Goals

I-R (teacher initiate)	I-R (pupil initiate)	TOTAL
112 (70,4%)	47 (29,6%)	159

It is noticeable that the opportunities for pupil-initiated discourse patterns to occur increase when the focus is shifted away from medium-oriented goals. The pupils also had opportunities to negotiate although these were mainly related to the starting and finishing of the task at hand.

The types of address typically associated with framework goals are T-C, T-P and P-T. A very regular feature of organisational language in the classroom is the use of various kinds of directives. In the I-R (teacher initiate-pupil response) discourse pattern the teacher's directive is frequently followed by a non-verbal react by the pupil.

6.2.2.5 Social goals

When the teachers focused on interactions involving **social goals** (cf 4.4.5 and 4.6) the following types of discourse patterns were identified:

I-R-(I-R) (teacher initiate-pupil response-teacher initiate-pupil response)

T: Who of you got drenched in the rain last night? (I)
P: Me miss (R)
T: What happened Leoni? (I)
P: Miss I was at the show when it started and the weermagman tell us then to get in the G6, but we still get wet (R)

T: Sonja does your mother have a stall on the show? (I)
S: Yes miss (R)
T: What do you sell? (I)
S: Crockery and plants and pottery miss (R)

T: Do you kill the snakes that you catch? (I)
P: yes miss (R)

T: Why do you hate reading? (I)
P: Miss we don't hate it we just don't like it (R)

I-R (pupil initiate-teacher response)

P: Miss why do we have to write English? (I)
T: You might fall in love with a nice English girl overseas and then you'll need it (R)

P: Miss did you go to the show? (I)
T: Yes I went through it in about ten minutes (R)

P: Miss aren't they dangerous? (I)
T: No, not all of them (R)

Table 9 gives the total number of times these discourse patterns occurred in the twenty-one lessons observed, when the focus was on social goals.

TABLE 9: NUMBER OF DISCOURSE PATTERNS: Social Goals

I-R-(I-R)	I-R (pupil initiate)	TOTAL
9 (56,2%)	7 (43,8%)	16

It is noticeable that interaction involving social goals occurred very seldom, but when it did it gave the pupils the opportunity to initiate and participate actively. It seems as if the

pupils were given a quasi-teacher role when the focus was on social goals, because they were allowed to initiate and participate in the discourse as often as they wanted to.

The types of address typically associated with social goals are T-C, T-P(C) and P-T.

6.3 Discussion

In this section the results will be discussed in order to establish whether some of the identified discourse patterns, mentioned in section 6.2, and other features (e.g. types of questions) can in fact contribute to SLA.

6.3.1 Questions

An abundance of questions is a hallmark of second language learners' exposure to oral language in this particular school. Only 18,9% of the questions asked by the teachers were referential (open) questions, whereas 81,1% of the questions asked by the teachers were display (closed) questions. These results seem to confirm the findings of Long and Sato, mentioned in section 3.3.2 in chapter 3. The use of referential questions by teachers enables the pupils to make a unique contribution to the interaction. An increased use of referential questions by the teachers can create a flow of information from pupils to teachers and this might generate discourse which more closely resembles the normal conversation learners experience outside the classroom.

Brock (1986:50) hypothesizes that if the number of referential questions asked by teachers should be increased, the following effects on classroom discourse could be expected: a greater number of confirmation checks and clarification requests by the teacher.

The results of Brock's (1986) study show that teachers were able to increase the number of referential questions they used in the classroom. A greater number of confirmation checks and clarification requests are discourse features which are related to fast development. This was mentioned in section 2.4.1.3 in chapter 2. It, therefore, seems as if the type of questions asked by the teachers can influence SLA.

The differences in the language produced by learners in response to the two question types in this study were significant. Learners' responses to referential questions were on average more than twice as long and sometimes even syntactically more complex than their responses to display questions. It seemed as if the pupils' answers were more creative when the teachers asked referential questions. Their answers were more natural and as a result tended to resemble natural conversation occurring outside the classroom.

6.3.2 Interaction goals/Type of Address

In this section the focus will be on the different interaction goals, the discourse patterns that have been identified, the type of address and the influence these features might have on SLA.

6.3.2.1 Medium-oriented goals

The kind of interaction that resulted from medium-oriented goals and teacher-centred patterns of address is very similar. The IRF exchange structure dominated most of the interactions, confirming the findings of Sinclair and Coulthard (1975:63-110) that the I-R-F exchange pattern dominates in ESL classrooms. However, in the present study two additional discourse patterns were identified, namely the I-R and the I-R-I-R-F patterns, which slightly break the rigid I-R-F mould. A total number of 131 I-R-F, 36 I-R and 30 I-R-I-R-F discourse patterns occurred when the focus was on medium-oriented goals. 66,5% of the discourse patterns were I-R-F and it is fairly significant that the remaining 33,5% of the discourse patterns (15,2% I-R-I-R-F and 18,3% I-R) are also teacher-initiated, which means that the teachers allowed no pupil-initiation when the focus was on medium-oriented goals.

The I-R-F, the I-R and the I-R-I-R-F exchange structures do not allow the pupils any opportunity of initiating or actively contributing to the discourse. This confirms Sinclair and Brazil's (1982:58) statement that the verbal activity of pupils is limited to that of responding and normally confined strictly to the terms of the initiation (cf 1.1). When the focus is on medium-oriented goals teachers dominate all the interactions and the pupils rarely, if ever, initiate discourse. In general, medium-oriented interactions require the teacher to lead and the pupils to follow. The main problem with medium-oriented interactions is that they provide little opportunity for any genuine negotiation of meaning. The importance of the process of negotiation of meaning for aiding SLA was mentioned in section 2.5.3. Pupils need to interact and negotiate with their teachers in order to receive 'optimal' as well as challenging input. According to Ellis (1980:42) the pupil will only be able to perform a full range of illocutionary meanings if he has the chance to initiate as well as to respond in communicative exchanges.

Although it would be premature to state that SLA cannot take place from such discourse, what is known about the role of input and interaction in FLA and naturalistic SLA suggests that SLA is not likely to be facilitated if the pupils are not allowed to contribute to the interaction occurring in the ESL classroom. It seems as if input plus interaction is required (cf 2.5.4 and 3.5).

6.3.2.2 Message-oriented goals

When the focus was on message-oriented goals a total number of 102 I-R-F, 25 I-R-I-R-F and 17 I-R (pupil initiate) exchange structures occurred. It is noticeable that when the focus was on message-oriented goals the pupils had some opportunities, 11,8%, of initiating and participating in the discourse. These opportunities were still very limited, but it is important to bear in mind that when the focus was on medium-oriented goals the pupils had absolutely no opportunity of initiating discourse. The 11,8%, therefore, represents a small improvement.

Interactions such as:

P: Miss do they still have arranged marriages today like that of Takulani?
T: Yes especially in India and Pakistan.

P: How do those people like each other?
T: The divorce rates in those countries are lower than in our own country.
(Lesson 18)

enable the pupils to become part of the interaction. They can initiate and at the same time receive information which interest them.

Patterns of address are just as important as the type of interaction goals. Where the teacher occupies the role of Initiator and the pupils the role of Responder, there may be relatively few opportunities for the learners to 'test' the limits of their productive competence. If the learner is merely asked to supply responses to the teacher's pre-determined task, the pupils will not have the opportunity of using their resources in a flexible manner. According to Ellis (1984:129) this flexibility may be crucial for shaping the interlanguage system. However, when the focus on content offers the pupils the chance to negotiate meaning they are interested in on a basis of equality, real opportunities for extending receptive and productive competence can arise.

Although the teachers still tend to dominate the discourse, there are opportunities for pupils to initiate and participate in the discourse. This has certain implications for SLA, because the pupils now have more opportunities for participating and negotiating, thereby increasing the possibility of receiving 'optimal' and comprehensible input. In section 2.4.1.1 in chapter 2 the advantages of 'optimal' and 'roughly tuned' input are mentioned. In order to receive 'optimal' input, interaction between both participants in the discourse has to take place (cf 3.5.2).

6.3.2.3 Activity-oriented goals

In section 6.2.2.3 it was mentioned that the teachers did not make use of activity-oriented goals. There may be various reasons for this, but in this particular school the teachers were strongly oriented towards the "traditional" language teaching methods in which the focus on structure was very prominent. When the teachers were asked why they didn't make use of "communicative" language teaching methods their answers seemed to indicate that they were not very familiar with this concept.

6.3.2.4 Framework goals

A total number of 112 I-R and 47 I-R (pupil initiate) discourse patterns occurred. An amazing amount of negotiation on the materials needed for a task took place. There was greater equality between teacher and pupils in terms of quantity of speech and opportunities for initiating discourse. The pupils had even more opportunity of initiating discourse, 29,6%, than when the focus was on message-oriented goals.

The classroom provides its own rationale for communicating about materials needed to carry out an activity; for conducting everyday classroom procedures such as getting out books; discovering who is absent; for getting on task and for maintaining discipline. As a result a regular feature of the teachers' language was directives. As mentioned in section 3.3.3 in chapter 3 the daily activities of classroom management might be the only opportunity the L2 learner has to initiate discourse and participate freely in the interaction (cf section 3.3.3 for a more detailed explanation).

Ellis (1984:123) mentions a few reasons why interactions containing directives might aid SLA. First, they occur in standard action-frames, i.e. familiar and frequently occurring contexts. Second, they refer to the 'here-and-now', which keeps the decoding task simple. Third, directives in the imperative form are morphosyntactically simple and so may be ideally suited to the learner's limited processing capacity in the early stages of SLA. Fourth, directives require a non-verbal response and so are more likely to result in 'successful' communication than requests for information, which require the learner to draw upon his productive competence.

Ellis (1984:123) states that: "Although it is not clear what aspects of development directives foster it can be speculated that they facilitate development of the propositional component of the learner's grammar by giving salience to how the TL encodes events that are already cognitively available to the learner through visual perception".

6.3.2.5 Social goals

A total number of 9 I-R-(I-R) and 7 I-R (pupil initiate) discourse patterns occurred. It seemed as if the pupils were on more of an equal footing with the teachers when the focus was on social goals; the teachers initiated 56,2% of the interactions, whereas the pupils initiated 43,8% of the interactions. Both the quantity and the quality of the discourse that occurs in social goals may be important for SLA. Consider the following interaction:

T: Who of you got drenched in the rain last night?
P: me miss
T: What happened Leoni?
P: Miss I was at the show when it started and the weermagman tell us then to get in the G6, but we still get wet
(Lesson 19)

Conversations such as these, simple as they are, are far removed from the IRF pattern of exchange observed in interactions with medium-oriented goals. They demonstrate that 'everyday talk' such as that experienced by the child at home in First Language Acquisition can and does occur in the classroom, although not in the same quantity. However, teachers in this school reported that they didn't encourage social interactions, because these took up time that could be spent on the pursuance of specific pedagogic goals.

When the focus shifts to social goals the I-R-F exchange pattern no longer dominates, teachers no longer dominate all the interactions and pupils have ample opportunity of initiating and actively participating in the discourse. The atmosphere in the classroom is also more relaxed and pupils don't seem to be afraid to use the target language. In section 2.5.4 in chapter 2 it was stated that a relaxed atmosphere would ensure that input becomes intake, thereby aiding Second Language Acquisition.

6.4 Evaluation

6.4.1 Questions

In this particular school the teachers asked a significantly greater number of display questions than referential questions. This meant that the pupils' responses were more or less conditioned, because their answers were either right or wrong. The benefits of an increased use of referential questions were mentioned in section 6.3.1. It seems as if the use of referential questions in English Second Language classrooms should be increased if pupils are to be given opportunities of using the target language meaningfully.

6.4.2 Interaction goals

An important question that needs some consideration is: Can the discourse patterns that have been identified in this school be expected to contribute to SLA? When the teachers focused on medium-oriented goals, 66,5% of the discourse patterns conformed to the I-R-F exchange structure, 15,2% to the I-R-I-R-F structure and 18,3% to the I-R structure. This means a total domination of 100% by the teachers. The pupils had no opportunity of initiating discourse. They were merely required to give appropriate answers to the teachers' questions. There was also no negotiation of meaning.

When the teachers focused on message-oriented goals 70,8% of the discourse patterns were I-R-F, 17,4% were I-R-I-R-F and 11,8% were I-R where the pupils initiated the discourse. The teachers still initiated 88,2% of the time, but the pupils were given some opportunities of initiating discourse. A small amount of negotiation was allowed by the teachers and this meant that the pupils could ask questions and receive information which interested them.

In this particular school the emphasis on "traditional" language teaching methods was very strong. The pupils were taught to manipulate the structures of the language easily and without error and this was always linked to tests or the exam. The pupils were required to master the different structures and in the exams they had to prove their mastery of the various structures they had learnt. In this particular school the danger exists that the pupils may become "structurally competent", but "communicatively incompetent" (cf Johnson, 1982:1). The lack of activity-oriented goals might increase the possibility of pupils becoming "communicatively incompetent", because they don't get sufficient opportunities of using the target language meaningfully.

When the teachers focused on framework goals 70,4% of the discourse patterns were I-R and 29,6% were I-R with the pupils initiating the latter. The pupils had far more freedom

to initiate and participate in the discourse. A far greater amount of negotiation of meaning took place between pupils and teacher than was the case when the focus was on message-oriented goals and consequently the pupils became more engaged in the interactions taking place in the classroom.

When the teachers focused on social goals 56,2% of the discourse patterns were I-R and 43,8% were I-R with the pupils initiating the latter. It seems as if the pupils were allowed a quasi-teacher role when the focus was on social goals, because the pupils were allowed to initiate and actively participate in the discourse as often as they wanted to. The pupils eagerly contributed to the discourse even though their grammatical structures were not always very sound. There was a relaxed atmosphere in the classroom and the pupils weren't afraid to use the target language. It is important that teachers take cognizance of the fact that social goals are necessary if the process of SLA is to be assisted.

The interaction patterns occurring in this school seem to confirm the criticism of many researchers (e.g. Stubbs, 1983, Van Lier, 1984) that the teacher functions as "supreme ruler" in the second language classroom. Pupils were given opportunities to initiate and participate in the discourse, but the opportunities were not sufficient in comparison to the domination by the teachers. According to several researchers (cf 3.6) second language learning is impeded by lack of sufficient opportunity to use the language meaningfully.

However, some interaction patterns might help to contribute to SLA, but they need to be exploited to a greater extent. The types considered to be most facilitative have activity, framework and social goals, although social interactions in this particular school did not meet the quantity criterion, because the teachers felt that they took up time that could be spent on the pursuance of pedagogic goals. It, therefore, seems as if the majority of the discourse patterns occurring in this school do not contribute sufficiently to SLA.

In this particular descriptive study various discourse patterns which occurred in a typical Afrikaans ESL classroom in a rural community were identified. It might be possible to draw inferences about other Afrikaans ESL classrooms in rural communities and to generalize these findings to them (cf Seliger & Shohamy, 1989:129-130).

6.5 Recommendations

In the light of what has been said in section 6.4 certain recommendations can be made which might facilitate SLA in oral interactions in the classroom and which might also have implications for teacher training.

In Table 5 in section 6.2.1 it was shown that 81,1% of the total number of questions asked by the teachers were display questions, whereas only 18,9% were referential questions. It is felt that an increase in use of referential questions by teachers might be beneficial to SLA, because of the effect that it might have on classroom discourse. A more detailed explanation is given in sections 3.3.2 and 6.3.1. Brock (1986) has shown that it is possible to train teachers to increase their use of referential questions.

In section 6.2.2 it was mentioned that none of the teachers focused on activity-oriented goals. Activity-oriented interactions can result in a greater variety of address-types and offer the pupil the opportunity to act as the initiator to a much greater extent. Activity-oriented goals can be introduced into language lessons through the use of various communicative activities and language games (e.g. word bingo and scrabble) (cf Cruickshank & Telfer, 1980; Littlewood, 1981; Palmer & Rodgers, 1983). Another approach is to introduce problem-solving activities (cf Prabhu, 1987). According to Prabhu (1987:47) meaning-focused activity in the classroom can be divided into three types: information-gap activity, reasoning-gap activity and opinion-gap activity. Prabhu favours reasoning-gap activities in which the pupils' reasoning capacities are engaged and put to the test. The main feature of such interactions is the focus on the non-linguistic outcomes of the task rather than on the accompanying and facilitating language. When the focus is on activity-oriented goals the pupils learn to shoulder the burden of both initiating and sustaining the discourse and this requires the performance of a variety of speech acts. It would seem likely that SLA will be facilitated when the learner has the opportunity to perform a variety of speech acts (cf 2.4.1.3). The focus on activity-oriented goals also means that the pupils focus on meaning and that the input they receive is interesting and comprehensible with the result that more negotiation of meaning takes place. These features are important for SLA (cf 2.5.3, 2.5.4.1, 2.5.4.2, 3.5.1 and 3.5.2).

Teachers should also try to make time for social goals, because these goals allow the pupils to become involved in the interactions in the classroom. The pupils can initiate and their answers to questions are longer and more creative. It is not necessary to spend whole periods on social goals, but time must be made available for these interactions as they can facilitate SLA.

The teacher must remain sensitive to the essential characteristics of communication as interaction between people. Issues of initiative and participation are of prime importance and the focus on interaction might be an appropriate way for teachers to give their pupils the opportunities to fulfil their potential.

6.6 Conclusion

In this chapter the discussion has been descriptive as well as explanatory and speculative. Strong theoretical grounds and some illustrative evidence have been advanced to suggest that the classroom does afford, in some types of discourse, input and interaction very similar to that occurring in FLA and naturalistic SLA. The IRF exchange pattern does in fact dominate in most instances, but when the teacher focuses on activity, framework, social and message-oriented goals, pupils do have some opportunities of initiating and actively contributing to the discourse. It, therefore, seems as if successful SLA can take place in the classroom. The extent to which this occurs depends on various psycho-sociological factors that influence the learner's attitudes and motivation towards learning the target language. However, even where these factors are favourable, successful acquisition will only take place if the pupils are afforded the interactional opportunities to modify and extend their interlanguage system. Input plus interaction seems to be essential for SLA.

CHAPTER 7
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

7.1 Conclusion

The question of the optimal linguistic environment for the second language learner is of obvious importance to the teacher and second language learner and has also become a matter of concern to the psycholinguist interested in the nature of primary linguistic data, or linguistic input and interaction necessary for language acquisition to occur.

Literature dealing with the input and interaction in two kinds of linguistic environments was reviewed: the role of input and interaction in naturalistic settings and the role of input and interaction in a second language classroom setting. The input and interaction occurring in the classroom environment has been criticized by many researchers (e.g. Macnamara, 1973; Corder, 1981; Sinclair & Brazil, 1982), because it does not offer the second language learner any opportunity for participating in authentic communication or for using the target language meaningfully, like that experienced by second language learners in natural environments, and this inhibits second language acquisition. Weideman (1988:105) states that, "Language in the classroom must always have at least a spark of authenticity and actuality, because it must be aimed at a goal that lies outside the classroom".

The purpose of this study of the different kinds of interaction or discourse patterns which were observed to occur in the second language classroom has been to try to demonstrate that the input/interaction patterns might not be as rigid as most researchers believe, but that different discourse patterns do in fact occur when the teacher focuses on different interaction goals. From the results of the data it seems as if the classroom does afford, in some types of discourse, very similar kinds of input and interaction to that occurring in the "naturalistic" settings, although not in the same quantity. Implicit in these findings, therefore, is that language learning results from learning how to communicate in the second language and that there is a differential in the communicative opportunities afforded by different types of classroom discourse and, as a result, a differential in the language learning opportunities. It is also obvious that the different types of interaction goals, types of address and discourse patterns will necessarily facilitate SLA to a greater or lesser degree, depending on various factors, such as the amount of negotiation of meaning allowed and the availability of opportunities for initiating and actively participating in the classroom discourse.

7.2 Recommendations for Future Research

The second language classroom has long been a centre of research interest and a continuing stream of classroom-related research, conducted by psycholinguists, language educators and applied linguists, can be expected in the 1990's.

Very little research has been done in South Africa on the occurring discourse patterns in our second language classrooms. The focus of this study has been on the second language classroom in a secondary school. It is felt that research should also be done to determine the different discourse patterns that can occur in second language classrooms at pre-primary and primary school level. Future research should also determine the discourse patterns that occur in our universities, in order to establish a comprehensive picture of the occurring interaction patterns in our schools and universities.

This futhermore means that additional research can be done to establish whether the opportunities for initiation, participation, negotiation of meaning and so on, increases or decreases as one moves through the primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education.

On the other side of the coin, however, there has been a marked reluctance to apply the results of SLA research to language teaching. Why there is a delay is not known, because the knowledge that SLA research is capable of providing, incomplete as it is, is knowledge that teachers do not have. It is felt that SLA researchers should now begin to spell out what they think should happen in a second language classroom.

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SUMMARY

Research indicates that interest in the language of the classroom has grown steadily over a number of years. It has been motivated by the recognition that the type of language used by the teacher and the type of interactions occurring in the classroom may have an influence on Second Language Acquisition. The discourse occurring in the classroom has, however, often been criticized as being rigid and distorted and consequently differs greatly from the discourse that occurs outside the classroom.

Literature dealing with the role of input and interaction in naturalistic language acquisition - both First Language Acquisition and Second Language Acquisition is reviewed in order to establish a basis from which to consider the role of input and interaction in classroom SLA. Important features of "motherese" and "foreigner talk" (discourse occurring in a naturalistic environment) as well as "teacher talk" and "classroom discourse" (discourse occurring in a second language classroom environment) are mentioned in order to determine whether the input and interaction in a naturalistic environment are analogous to the input and interaction occurring in a second language classroom environment.

Little is known about the discourse patterns that can occur in a second language classroom in South Africa, therefore, several frameworks that have been used to analyse classroom discourse are discussed and evaluated. A framework is then proposed for use in the analysis of classroom discourse in a second language classroom.

The results of the study seem to indicate that classroom input and interaction can and do in certain instances, when the teacher focuses on framework, social and message-oriented goals, resemble the input and interaction occurring in naturalistic settings, although not in the same quantity. When the teacher, therefore, focuses on the above mentioned interaction goals, the discourse patterns that occur facilitate Second Language Acquisition in various degrees. Input is not the only important factor, but interaction is also necessary for successful SLA to occur.

OPSOMMING

Navorsing toon dat belangstelling in die taalgebruik in die klaskamer toenemend gegroei het oor die afgelope jare. Dit is gemotiveer deur die besef dat die taalgebruik van die onderwyser en die tipes interaksies wat in die klaskamer plaasvind 'n invloed mag hê op tweedetaalverwerwing. Die taalgebruik in die klaskamer word egter dikwels gekritiseer as rigied en vervorm en verskil gevolglik baie van die taalgebruik buite die klaskamer.

Literatuur oor die rol van input (invoer) en interaksie in natuurlike taalverwerwing (beide eerste- en tweedetaalverwerwing) word bespreek ten einde 'n basis vas te stel waarvolgens die rol van input en interaksie in tweedetaalverwerwing in die klaskamer bepaal kan word. Belangrike kenmerke van "motherese" en "vreemdespraak" (taalgebruik in natuurlike omstandighede) sowel as "onderwyser-spraak" en "klaskamerdiskoers" (taalgebruik wat in die tweedetaal klaskamer plaasvind) word genoem ten einde vas te stel of daar enige analogie is tussen die input en interaksie in 'n natuurlike omgewing en die input en interaksie wat in die tweedetaal klaskamer omgewing plaasvind.

Baie min is bekend oor die moontlike taalgebruikspatrone in 'n tweedetaal klaskamer in Suid-Afrika, en daarom word verskillende raamwerke wat gebruik is om klaskamerdiskoers te analiseer, bespreek en geëvalueer. 'n Raamwerk vir die analise van klaskamerdiskoers in 'n tweedetaal klaskamer word dan voorgestel.

Die resultaat van die studie toon aan dat klaskamer input en interaksie wel in sekere omstandighede, wanneer die onderwyser fokus op die raamwerk en sosiale en boodskap-gerigte interaksie doelstellings, ooreenkom met die input en interaksie in natuurlike omstandighede, alhoewel nie tot dieselfde mate nie. Indien die onderwyser dus op die bogenoemde interaktiewe doelstellings fokus, vergemaklik die diskoerspatrone tweedetaalverwerwing op verskillende vlakke. Sowel input as interaksie is belangrik vir suksesvolle tweedetaalverwerwing om plaas te vind.