

**MODELLING THE DISCOURSE-GRAMMAR INTERFACE
OF EFL PRE-SCHOOL TEACHER TALK (NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE):
PROPOSAL OF A SYSTEM NETWORK ENABLING
THE SYSTEMATIC ANALYSIS OF REGULATORY FUNCTIONS**

CONFIGURACIÓN DE LA INTERFAZ DISCURSO-GRAMÁTICA EN EL
LENGUAJE DEL PROFESOR DE PREESCOLAR EN EL AULA ILE:
PRESENTACIÓN DE UNA RED SISTÉMICA COMO HERRAMIENTA PARA
UN ANÁLISIS SISTEMÁTICO DE LAS FUNCIONES REGULADORAS

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A mis padres,

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Silvia Riesco Bernier

PRESENTACIÓN DE LA INVESTIGACIÓN *

El trabajo de investigación que sigue pretende un doble objetivo: cubrir un vacío existente en las investigaciones que analizan las funciones comunicativas del habla del profesor en el aula de preescolar en un contexto de Inglés como Lengua Extranjera (ILE) (en este caso, profesores nativos y no-nativos) y configurar una interfaz discurso-gramática de las funciones reguladoras del lenguaje. Motivado por la relación indisoluble entre la producción lingüística del adulto/profesor y del niño/aprendiz (cf. Snow y Ferguson 1977; Folger y Chapman 1978; Harris, Barrett, Jones y Brookes 1988; Gallaway y Richards 1994), y consciente de la existencia de una amplia gama de estudios centrados en cómo las palabras crean significado (Austin 1962, Searle 1969, Long y Sato 1983, Salaberri 1999), este estudio surge (i) de la necesidad de proporcionar criterios explícitos que contribuyan a una sistematización del estudio del significado que ayude a futuros analistas en investigaciones posteriores y (ii) del interés en describir cómo los hablantes (nativos vs. no-nativos de inglés) materializan lingüísticamente las funciones comunicativas con el fin de que éstas puedan enseñarse a hablantes no-nativos profesores de ILE.

El estudio parte de los análisis realizados en el proyecto “*De la semántica discursiva a la fonología: un análisis funcional a través de los estratos lingüísticos de la función interpersonal en el habla del profesor de preescolar en ILE*” (ref.: CAM-Fondo Social Europeo, ref. 00/0062/2001), enmarcado en el proyecto de investigación UAMLESC corpus, dirigido por el Dr. Jesús Romero Trillo y la Dra. Ana Llinares García, (Departamento de Filología Inglesa, Universidad Autónoma de Madrid).

Los análisis de las sesiones grabadas en diferentes colegios en un contexto de ILE presentados en Riesco (2003) revelan la posibilidad de sistematizar el análisis de significado (funciones) mediante la creación de una herramienta –*Red Sistémica de Funciones Comunicativas*– que permite al investigador considerar las variables estrictamente discursivo-semánticas que configuran las diferentes funciones presentes en la interacción en el aula ILE y analizar así los datos en el estrato discursivo-semántico. A continuación, el investigador puede llevar a cabo un análisis léxico-gramatical de cada una de las funciones para explorar las realizaciones lingüísticas de cada opción comunicativa y así explicar la relación forma-función y observar las diferencias cuantitativas y cualitativas entre hablantes (nativos frente a no-nativos) en el uso de la lengua a la hora de crear significado en el aula. Asimismo, los resultados de este proyecto preliminar (Riesco-Bernier 2003; 2004; Riesco-Bernier y Romero-Trillo en prensa) y de investigaciones dentro del proyecto UAMLESC corpus (cf. Romero-Trillo y Llinares-García 2001; 2004; en prensa) señalan que las funciones que demandan bienes y

* Este apartado ofrece una breve presentación a la investigación en castellano, requisito del Servicio de Publicaciones de la Universidad Autónoma de Madrid.

servicios se convierten en un registro crucial en la interacción en el aula ILE. Éstas son muy frecuentes en los datos, se reconocen por modificar explícitamente las acciones o comportamientos de los oyentes, en este caso de los niños (Halliday 1975; Ervin-Tripp 1976; Koike 1996; Painter 2000), y se materializan en una amplia variedad de estructuras lingüísticas, datos que invitan a investigar en profundidad estas funciones.

Esta doble motivación y los resultados preliminares subrayan el interés de un estudio que sistematice el análisis de las funciones reguladoras. Enmarcada en la teoría de Lingüística Sistémico-Funcional (Halliday 1985/1994; Hasan 1985; 1996; Martin 1992), esta investigación proporciona un marco que describe y configura los recursos interpersonales desde el contexto (discurso y semántica) a la léxico-gramática en el aula de ILE. Se entiende que la sistematización del significado en un registro específico depende de la especificación de las opciones semánticas que se realizan en el estrato discursivo-semántico (cf. Martin 1992) por medio de la creación de una red sistémica (cf. O'Donnell 1995; van Leeuwen 1996; Butt 2002), y un análisis posterior de las realizaciones formales de cada una de esas opciones semánticas en el estrato lexicogramatical (Thompson 1996; Eggins 1999): una tarea que, a mi entender, sigue aún pendiente en lo que respecta la interacción oral en un contexto de ILE.

Por consiguiente, esta tesis doctoral (i) proporciona y valida estadísticamente la “*Red Sistémica de Funciones Reguladoras*” como herramienta de análisis sistemático del habla del profesor en ILE en el estrato discursivo-semántico del lenguaje, (ii) a continuación analiza exhaustivamente las realizaciones formales de cada función en el estrato léxico-gramatical y (iii) compara la producción de los profesores nativos y no-nativos, todo dentro de un contexto cada vez más predominante en el ámbito pedagógico de la Comunidad de Madrid: el aula de preescolar de Inglés como Lengua Extranjera.

En otras palabras este trabajo pretende alcanzar los objetivos concretados en las hipótesis siguientes:

- Objetivo 1: Crear y validar una herramienta de análisis que contempla las diferentes opciones discursivo-semánticas de las funciones reguladoras del habla del profesor en el aula de preescolar ILE: la *Red Sistémica de Funciones Reguladoras* y la taxonomía de funciones reguladoras.
- Objetivo 2: Examinar la relación función-forma de las distintas funciones reguladoras del habla del profesor en el aula de preescolar ILE.
 - Hipótesis 1: Existe una relación de dependencia entre la realización lingüística y la función reguladora.
 - Hipótesis 2: Existen diferencias cualitativas y cuantitativas en la realización lingüística de las funciones reguladoras entre los profesores (hablantes nativos vs. no-nativos de inglés).

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* Este capítulo resume las conclusiones de la investigación en castellano, requisito del Servicio de Publicaciones de la Universidad Autónoma de Madrid.

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“One of the keystones of pragmatics is that all speakers-native speakers, non-native speakers, and even learners- make choices among available linguistic forms to convey social meanings. The choice of an address term, the use of a request strategy or the use of an aggravator rather than a mitigator all have meaning because there are other possible alternatives” (Bardovi-Harlig 2003:28).

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

- 1.1. Motivations for the research
- 1.2. Theoretical framework
- 1.3. Research objectives
- 1.4. Organisation of the thesis

1. INTRODUCTION

Learning foreign languages is a life-long task to be encouraged throughout educational systems, from pre-school through to adult education. Given the importance of plurilingualism, an intensification of language learning and teaching in member countries has been supported by the Council of Europe “in the interests of greater mobility, more effective international communication combined with respect for identity and cultural diversity, better access to information, more intensive personal interaction, improved working relations and a deeper mutual understanding” (cf. *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment* 2001:9).

In particular, learning English has become a crucial component in the curricula at different educational levels in most European countries given its world status (House and Kasper 2000; Crystal 2003). Nowadays, an estimated 300-400 million people speak English as their first language and 1.9 billion people, nearly a third of the world’s population have a basic proficiency in English. Chosen as one of the official languages of the United Nations since its founding, English is the dominant international language in communication, science, business, aviation, entertainment, diplomacy and the internet. And, more relevant to the present study, English has been and is today the most widely taught foreign language. Such international spread of English has been fostered by:

“the worldwide extension of the British Empire, the political and economic rise of the United States to world power status after the Second World War, the unprecedented developments in information and communication technologies and the recent economic developments towards globalisation and internationalisation” (House 2002:246).

In an intercultural society, language learning and teaching thus constitutes the cornerstone of the exchange of different realities and cultures. The national government in Spain and the local administrations in the different autonomous communities are progressively allocating more resources to educational policies, namely to bilingual education in the EFL classroom at the secondary, primary and also pre-school levels (L.O.E. 2/2006; Orden 5766/2006). Consequently, the EFL classroom is slowly becoming a context where English is not a purely academic undertaking but constitutes both the content and medium of communication. In other words, children are not only learning a new language but are expected to learn in and through it (cf. Gibbons 1998;

Marsh 2002; Do Coyle and Marsh 2002; Do Coyle 2006). Indeed, *Content and Language Integrated Learning* (CLIL) involves learning to use language appropriately whilst using language effectively.

Learning to use the English language appropriately in communication implies that our learners must bring to bear both general and linguistic capacities. The *Common European Framework* (2001) analysis of the former includes knowledge of the world, sociocultural knowledge, intercultural knowledge, skills and know-how, existential competence and an ability to learn. Therefore, a shift from previous theoretical frameworks which considered language as a formal system has opened the way to a more communicative perspective for language teaching. In fact, various models of communicative competence within *Second Language Acquisition* theory (cf. Hymes 1972; Canale and Swain 1980) include not only grammatical competence but also pragmatic competence as one of its fundamental constituents (cf. Bachman 1990; Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell 1995; Alcón 2000a; Muñoz 2000; Ortega 2000).

Bearing in mind that pragmatic competence refers to the learners' ability to employ their linguistic resources and sociocultural knowledge in an appropriate way to instantiate a particular meaning within a given context, it seems essential to explore in what ways meaning and form(s) are related in language. Undertaking such task involves the analysis of how meaning is created in interaction, examine the means for speech act realisation and pay attention to the choices the speaker makes, i.e. how/why meaning is instantiated through an either or wording (Crystal 1985; Rose and Kasper 2001; Martínez-Flor 2004). In addition, given that in the EFL teaching environment, students most likely only speak and listen to English in the classroom (Mattioli 2004), that input in the learning context is fundamental to learning (Long 1980; 1981b; 1983b; Ellis 1984; Ellis 1986; Pica and Long 1986; Coyle 2006) and that classroom interaction is typically dominated by teachers (Allwright 1999; Nystrand and Gamoran 2001), it becomes necessary to focus on the participant who provides the foreign language input in the classroom: the EFL pre-school teacher.

1.1. Motivations of the study

The purpose of this investigation is twofold: to cover some gaps in the research on the analysis of communicative functions in EFL pre-school teacher talk (in this case, comparison between native and non-native teachers) and to model the discourse-grammar interface. Motivated by the indissoluble relationship between adult/teacher's and child/learner's linguistic production to make meaning (cf. Snow and Ferguson 1977; Folger and Chapman 1978; Harris, Barrett, Jones and Brookes 1988; Gallaway and Richards 1994), the present thesis originated (i) in the awareness of a wide amount of research on *how words make meaning* (Austin 1962, Searle 1969, Long and Sato 1983, Salaberri 1999) but on the lack of explicit criteria that would contribute to turn the study of meaning more systematic and thus help future analysts in their ulterior investigations, and (ii) in the interest of describing how communicative functions are linguistically realised and achieved across speakers (native vs. non-native speakers of English) so that these can be taught to the non-native teachers of English as a Foreign Language.

This study departs from the analyses of the project "*From Discourse-Semantics to Phonology: A functional cross-stratal analysis of the interpersonal metafunction in EFL pre-school teacher talk*" (ref.: CAM-Fondo Social Europeo, ref. 00/0062/2001), within the *UAMLESC corpus* research project, directed by Dr. Jesús Romero Trillo and Dra. Ana Llinares García, (Department of English, Universidad Autónoma de Madrid). The *UAMLESC* is a longitudinal *corpus* covering the compilation of the oral interaction in the EFL classroom in different schools in Madrid where the degree of immersion, type of teacher – native vs. non-native speakers of English- and socio-economic background vary. The *UAMLESC* team started video-taping 5 year old children (pre-school year) and aims at studying the acquisition and development of different linguistic aspects of English as a Foreign Language (Romero-Trillo and Llinares-García 2001; Llinares-García 2002; Riesco-Bernier 2003; Llinares-García 2004; Riesco-Bernier 2004; Romero-Trillo and Llinares-García 2004; Llinares-García 2006; Riesco-Bernier and Romero-Trillo, in press).

The analyses of data in several schools in an English as a foreign language (EFL) context presented in Riesco-Bernier (2003) showed that it is possible to systematise the analysis of meaning by creating a tool -*Communicative Functions*

System Network - that enables the researcher to strictly consider the discourse-semantic variables that configurate the distinct functions present in the EFL classroom and thus analyse the data at the discourse-semantic stratum. Later, a lexicogrammatical analysis of each function allowed the researcher to explore the function-form relationship and observe the quantitative and qualitative differences in the way native and non-native teachers exploit the mood system to make meaning in the classroom. Additionally, the results of this preliminary project (Riesco-Bernier 2003; Riesco-Bernier 2004; Romero-Trillo and Riesco-Bernier in press) and further findings in the *UAMLESC corpus* research project (cf. Romero-Trillo and Llinares-García 2001, Llinares-García 2004; Llinares-García 2006) signalled that the “demanding goods and services” functions constitutes a crucial register in the EFL classroom interaction: predominant in the data, likely to be sensitive to addressee features since they ask work of the hearer by leading him/her to action, control the child’s behaviour (Halliday 1975; Ervin-Tripp 1976; Koike 1996; Painter 2000) and display a wide variety of linguistic choices, which called for further research.

This double-sided motivation and the preliminary results called for an investigation that aimed at the systematisation of the study of regulatory functions. Designed within the *Systemic Functional Linguistics* paradigm (Halliday 1985; Hasan 1985; Hasan 1996; Martin 1992), this investigation provides a framework to describe and model the interpersonal resources of spoken English from context (discourse-semantics) to lexicogrammar in the EFL classroom. It is here understood that the systematisation of meaning in a particular register lies in the specification of the semantic options made at the discourse-semantic level (cf. Martin 1992) by means of creating a system network (cf. O’Donnell 1995; van Leeuwen 1996; Butt 2002), and an ulterior exploration of the mood options at the lexicogrammatical level (Thompson 1996; Eggins 1994; Downing and Locke 2002): a task that –to my knowledge- has not been achieved in the register of EFL pre-school classroom spoken interaction yet.

1.2.Theoretical framework

This research concentrates on the analysis of communicative functions, (and particularly, on regulatory functions), attends to the function-form relationship and

explores the differences between native and non-native teachers' linguistic production in the EFL classroom.

First, the study of communicative functions is to be understood under *Speech Act Theory* (Austin 1962; Searle 1969), which provides the bases onto which language can be seen as an action-maker (locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts). More specifically, a current trend in linguistics involves attempts to link discourse models/acts to sentence patterns as a way of operationalising the study of meaning (Roulet 1984; Selting 1996; Roulet, Fillettaz and Grobet 2001; Romero-Trillo 2002; Hengeveld 2004a, 2004b; Hannay and Kroon 2005). As the regulatory functions (Halliday 1975; Painter 1989; Painter 2000) constitute the target of this research, special attention is devoted to those studies concentrating on the qualitative analysis of directives in order to explore the degrees of indirectness as variability in the realisation of directive acts (Ervin-Tripp 1976; Holmes 1983; Dalton-Puffer 2005).

Second, given that the focus of the study is pragmatic phenomena such as request realisation in classroom language in an EFL context, research within *Interlanguage Pragmatics* helps in the examination of directives as indices of student-teacher relationship and in finding differences between foreign and native language speakers in the classroom (Blum-Kulka *et. al.* 1989; Falsgraf and Majors 1995; Kasper 2001; Dalton-Puffer 2005).

Third, since this investigation explores spoken classroom interaction, *Classroom Discourse Analysis* (Sinclair and Brazil 1982; Willies 1983; Heap 1988; Sinclair and Coulthard 1992; Coulthard and Brazil 1992; Wells 1993), and particularly, Sinclair and Coulthard's 1992 work constitute a reference point for the present analysis. Their work has provided a "finite descriptive apparatus", "the criteria of categorisation" and "accounted for the description of the whole data" (1992:16), which offers a taxonomy of the different functions in classroom interaction. Furthermore, special attention is paid to those studies focusing on communicative functions in an ESL (Long and Sato 1983; Ernst 1994) or EFL contexts (Salaberri 1999; Llinares-García 2002; 2004; 2006; Romero-Trillo and Llinares-García 2004) and, due to the early age of the subjects (5 year old) and the context of acquisition (EFL), *Motherese* and *Foreign Talk* studies, which present similar characteristics to Teacher talk in EFL/ESL contexts, are also

considered (Mc Donald and Pien 1982; Barnes, Gutfreund, Satterly and Wells 1983; Ninio 1992; Hampson and Nelson 1993; Painter 1996; Kloth, Janssen, Kraaitmat and Brutton 1998).

Finally, such interdisciplinary research is only possible within a theoretical framework allowing for the analysis of meaning through language: *Systemic Functional Linguistics* (henceforth, *SFL*), mainly embodied in the works of Halliday (1994), Halliday and Hasan (1976), Hasan and Martin (1989), Martin (1992), Matthiessen (1995) and Halliday and Matthiessen (1999). Indeed, *SFL* regards language as a resource for making meaning within particular cultural contexts and enables a “functional” and “systemic” analysis of language. The former in that it describes the actual “use” of language (with)in a particular context and assigns meaning to the way language is organised in order to achieve functions: the grammatical description is indeed based on semantic principles since grammar is understood to be at the service of the transmission of meaning. And, the latter in that meaning is understood as the result of the speakers’ selections of different sets of options available in the language, called “systems”, i.e. “meaning as choice” (Halliday 1994:xiv), which can be operationalised through system networks (Martin 1992; Hasan 1996; van Leeuwen 1996; Butt 2002).

1.3. Research objectives and hypotheses

As it was pointed out above, the central objective of the present investigation is the proposal of the systematisation of the study of regulatory functions in teacher talk in an increasingly predominant pedagogical context in Madrid nowadays: the EFL pre-school classroom. More specifically, three main purposes guide the present research.

Firstly, the research aims at shedding some light upon the study of meaning in a systematic way, which implies the operationalisation of the analysis of regulatory functions in a valid instrument of discourse-semantic analysis. Following the review of several studies on communicative functions, this research presents the dynamic configuration and development of a “tool” which enables the systematic analysis and the either-or categorisation of functions, namely the “*Regulatory Functions System Network*” (hereafter, *RFSN*). The system network follows the mechanics of networks (van Leeuwen 1996; Butt 2002) and specifies the array of discourse semantic features

that construct the definition of the distinct regulatory functions. One of the major concerns of this investigation is to validate the tool of analysis and see to what extent it constitutes a reliable tool enabling the analysis of functions in the future. To attain this objective, two external coders were asked to analyse samples from the *corpus* through the *Regulatory Functions System Network* and the study reports on the intercoder reliability tests the researcher carried out.

The *RFSN* represents the choices that the speaker may make in order to convey a particular meaning: first, each set of semantic and discursive choices creates a path in the network leading to a discrete regulatory function conveyed by the teacher at a discourse-semantic level, which is, in turn, instantiated through a linguistic structure at the lower layer of lexicogrammar. As a result, the second aim of this research is the exploration of the “regulatory functions” and their “lexicogrammatical realisation(s)” correspondence by mapping the discourse and lexicogrammatical analyses. First, teacher talk is analysed at discourse level using the *Regulatory Function System Network* tool: each utterance is examined through the distinct discourse-semantic criteria that are explicit in the network and thus categorised as an either-or regulatory function. Later, the surface structure of each function is examined within *SFL* grammar and coded. And then, the research examines the function-form correspondence through a qualitative analysis of the data that explores the lexicogrammatical realisation(s) of the various regulatory functions and it unveils the degree of association of the function-form variables through a statistical analysis of the data.

Thirdly, this research aims at contributing to the pedagogy of pragmatics. If, as mentioned above, pragmatic competence is understood as the ability to use language appropriately to convey a particular meaning, the analysis of the function-form relationship across native and non-native teachers will shed some light upon what and how to teach future EFL teachers to instantiate regulatory functions in the EFL classroom. The study therefore compares and contrasts the exploitation of the Mood system in the native and non-native teachers’ instantiation of regulatory functions.

The aforementioned aims can be specified in the following objectives and hypotheses:

Objective 1: To create and validate a tool of analysis that will account for the different discourse-semantic regulatory choices in EFL pre-school teacher talk: *The Regulatory Functions System Network* and a *Regulatory Functions Taxonomy*.

Objective 2: To examine the function-form relationship of regulatory functions in EFL pre-school teacher talk across teachers. This objective can be further detailed in two hypotheses:

- Hypothesis 1: There will be a dependency relationship between the lexicogrammatical realisation and the regulatory function instantiated.
- Hypothesis 2: Both quantitative and qualitative differences will obtain in the linguistic realisation of regulatory functions across teachers (native vs. non-native speakers).

1.4.Organisation of the thesis

This work is presented in one volume that consists of five parts. Parts I-IV include the development of the investigation: Part I “Introduction”, Part II “Theoretical background”, Part III “The study: Methodology, Analysis and Results”, and Part IV “Discussion and Conclusions”. Part V, in turn, presents several appendixes.

Following this introductory section, Part II devotes two chapters to the theoretical background of the study. Chapter 2 addresses the field of pragmatics and EFL teaching and learning. After a review of the general concept of pragmatics and the most influential theories to the present study, i.e. *Speech Act Theory* and *Politeness Theory*, it pays special attention to interlanguage pragmatics, reports on studies that explore the speech act realisation and concentrates on the case of directives. Chapter 3, in turn, focuses on classroom research and discourse analysis so as to provide a theoretical framework to the analysis of teacher talk. The chapter first surveys the relevance of input in natural and instructional settings, considering different learning contexts and placing special emphasis on the EFL classroom. Then, Chapter 3 appraises various systems to analyse classroom discourse, among which lies a systemic functional approach.

It must be mentioned that this study has been framed and significantly influenced by *Systemic Functional* theory. As a result, *SFL* will not be reviewed in isolation but will be considered as the theoretical basis that enabled the development of the present work. The relevant aspects of *SFL* theory will thus be outlined throughout the following chapters (methodology and analysis). In so doing, this investigation will unfold within its framework (*SFL*) so as to appreciate the features which have been preserved from the original model and which have been modified so as to create a new system of analysis.

Part III presents the study. Chapter 4 describes the methodological and theoretical principles that sway the research design. Following a historical review of relevant corpora studies in second and foreign language acquisition, attention is paid to the compilation, transcription and analysis of the present *corpus*. Besides, particular emphasis is put on the introduction of “networks” as tools of analysis. Chapter 5 constitutes the main body of this work as it bridges the methodology and the analysis together through the presentation of the dynamic process of creation of the *Regulatory Functions System Network*, my tool of analysis at the (i) discourse-semantic and (ii) lexicogrammatical layers of language (*post* Hasan 1985, *post* Martin 1992, *post* Hasan 1996).

The results of the investigation are displayed in Chapters 6 and 7, devoted to achieve objectives 1 and 2 respectively. Bearing in mind that the *Regulatory Functions System Network* is the tool used to analyse the data but also a graphic way to portray the taxonomy of regulatory functions in teacher talk, it is considered part of the findings of this investigation. Hence, Chapter 6 discloses and validates the taxonomy of the regulatory functions in teacher talk through the *RFSN*. First, each regulatory function is presented with its discourse-semantic definition, its lexicogrammatical realisation(s) found in the *corpus* and the similarities and differences across the native and non-native teachers’ production. Second, once the taxonomy has been described, chapter 6 reports on the validation of the *RFSN* as a reliable tool of analysis through the intercoder reliability tests. For presentation purposes, the *RFSN* is also available at the reverse of the back cover as an enclosed laminated system network that the reader may want to use throughout the reading. Chapter 7, in turn, statistically explores the function-form

relationship and examines the major differences in the exploitation of the Mood system across teachers in their instantiation of regulatory meanings.

Part IV includes the discussion of the results and the conclusions. Chapter 8 discusses the results so as to (i) appraise the appropriateness of the *RFSN* as a tool, (ii) comment on the meaning-form correspondence and (iii) explore the native and non-native teachers' talk and thus suggest pedagogical implications of the results. Chapter 9 later summarises the main findings and contributions of this research and outlines the pedagogical implications of the study and future lines of investigation.

Finally, Part V comprises four appendixes. Appendix I provides further theoretical notions mentioned throughout the literature review. Appendix II gathers information related to the *corpus*: it displays the transcription codes and tags used throughout the analysis and presents several analysed sessions. Appendix III displays further statistical analyses on the function-form relationship and provides graphical illustrations (thus, highly related to Chapters 6 and 7). Appendix IV includes information related to the validation of the *RFSN* (cf. Chapter 6): instructions provided to the external coders, standardization session, samples given to the coders and numerical results of the intercoder reliability tests.

PRAGMATICS AND EFL TEACHING AND LEARNING

“Pragmatics and language learning are inherently bound together [...] pragmatics provides language teachers and learners with a research-based understanding of the language forms and functions that are appropriate to the many contexts in which a language is used- an understanding that is crucial to a proficient speaker’s communicative competence” (Bouton 1996:1).

CHAPTER 2: PRAGMATICS AND EFL TEACHING AND LEARNING

2.1. Pragmatics

2.1.1. Historical preamble

2.1.2. Towards a definition

2.1.3. The scope of pragmatics

2.1.4. Speech Act Theory

2.1.4.1. General notions

2.1.4.2. Indirectness in speech acts

2.1.4.3. Concluding remarks on Speech Act Theory

2.1.5. Politeness Theory

2.1.5.1. "Politeness"

2.1.5.2. Theories of politeness

2.1.5.2.1. Politeness, principles and maxims

2.1.5.2.2. Politeness and the management of face

2.1.5.2.3. Politeness as a conversational contract

2.1.5.2.4. Caveats of Politeness Theory and Alternative approaches

2.1.5.3. Politeness and interlanguage

2.2. Interlanguage Pragmatics

2.2.1. Speech acts in the language classroom

2.2.2. The case of directives

2.2.2.1. "Directives", "commands", "requests": three labels for one function?

2.2.2.2. The form-function relationship

2.2.2.3. Directives, indirectness and politeness

2.2.2.4. Revisiting the notion "Indirect Speech Acts"

2.2.3. The teachability of pragmatics

2.2.3.1. Different options in language teaching

2.2.3.2. Pragmatic competence: a distinct skill to teach

2. PRAGMATICS AND EFL TEACHING AND LEARNING

Pragmatics, understood as the study of language in use, has played a crucial role in first and second language research. Today, Interlanguage Pragmatics stands as the area of study that examines how second and foreign language teachers teach and how learners acquire and develop their pragmatic competence so as to be communicatively efficient in and outside the classroom.

This chapter presents some of the theoretical background on which research into pragmatics has been based. In the first section, the reader is introduced to the concept of “pragmatics”, its main features, and two of its main underlying areas of study, i.e. *Speech Act Theory* (Austin 1962; Searle 1969) and *Politeness Theory* (Goffman 1967; Grice 1975; Brown and Levinson 1978; Leech 1983). Both paradigms provide the framework within which the study of meaning and its linguistic instantiation in a particular context can be undertaken.

The second section, in turn, is devoted to provide a general picture of *Interlanguage Pragmatics*. Once a review of the study of speech acts in the language classroom is provided, the reader is first invited to consider the case of requests and suggestions (Banerjee and Carrell 1988; Ellis 1992a; Koike 1994; Rinnert and Kobayashi 1999; Márquez-Reiter 2000; Hassall 2001). Those constitute indeed the key to the study of regulatory functions since they demand the hearer/learner to achieve some action for the speaker’s benefit. Then, given my concern on the linguistic realisation of regulatory functions, this section provides a review of the study of the form-function relationship and the expression of (in)directness, which have been explored in teacher talk in the present dissertation.

Finally, so as to appreciate the extent to which pragmatics is teachable in the EFL classroom, the chapter considers those works (i) which pay attention to the form of functions, reviewing the trends “Focus on forms”, “Focus on meaning” (cf. Allright 1976; Krashen 1985; Prabhu 1987), and “Focus on Form” (FonF) (cf. Long 1988b; 1991; Long and Robinson 1998) and (ii) which consider the role of lexicogrammar in communication in the ESL/EFL classroom (cf. Long and Robinson 1998; Salaberry and López-Ortega 1998; Kasper 2001; Bardovi-Harlig 2003).

2.1. Pragmatics

Since the 1970s, a great and growing interest in pragmatics has been witnessed worldwide. Up until 2006 there have been nine international conferences (Viareggio 1985, Antwerp 1987, Barcelona 1990, Kobe-Japan 1993, Mexico 1996, Reims 1998, Budapest 2000, Toronto 2003, Riva del Garda-Italy 2005), there has been an International Pragmatic Association since 1985 and international journals such as *Pragmatics*, *Journal of Pragmatics*, *Journal of Historical Pragmatics* and *Intercultural Pragmatics* have been published worldwide. That great body of papers, conferences and doctoral dissertations has brought Pragmatics into life.

“The subject of ‘pragmatics’ is very familiar in linguistics today. Fifteen years ago, it was mentioned by linguistics rarely, if at all. In those far-off-seeming days, pragmatics tended to be treated as a *rag-bag* into which recalcitrant data could be conveniently stuffed, and where it could be equally conveniently forgotten. Now, many would argue, as I do, that we cannot really understand the nature of language itself unless we understand pragmatics: how language is used in communication.” (Leech 1983:1).

2.1.1. Historical preamble

“Pragmatics appears to be the first, historically motivated approach towards a societally relevant practice of linguistics” (Mey 1998:717). Naturally, such an approach cannot originate *ex nihilo*: at least five developmental tendencies can be distinguished, which together have made pragmatics into what it is today: (i) the antisyntactic tendency; (ii) the social-critical tendency; (iii) the philosophical tradition; (iv) the ethnomethodological tradition and (v) the language acquisition tradition.

Accordingly, Leech (1983) claims that the recent history of linguistics can be described in terms of successive discoveries or, as I would here argue, in terms of a change in the focus of study and the linguists’ viewpoint. Whereas linguistics meant phonetics and phonemics to Bloomfield’s followers, it soon became related to syntax to Chomsky’s structuralist colleagues in the later 1950s. But while the centrality of syntax was considered abstract, it was felt that *meaning* was too messy to be seriously analysed. Linguistics was considered a physical science where any interpretation of meaning was disregarded.

However, “by accepting ambiguity and synonymy as among the basic data of linguistics” (Leech 1983:2), Chomsky opened the door for semantics inasmuch as this fitted the syntactic framework, i.e. generative grammar. His pupils in the generative

semantics school, in turn, considered semantics as the base for their linguistic theories, which allowed semantics a central place in language. Indeed, in the mid 1960s, the study of meaning into a formal linguistic theory started to be incorporated. A few years later, linguists such as George Lakoff (1971a; 1971b) and John Robert Ross protested against the tight syntactic framework and claimed that the study of syntax could not be separated from the study of language use.

Alternatively, in the United Kingdom, language philosophers such as Wittgenstein, Austin (1962), Searle (1969), and Grice (1975) started publishing landmark works such as *Speech Acts* or *How to Do Things with Words* that were to shape the pragmatic territory. Within the ethnomethodological tradition, the main concern lay on communication rather than on grammar or language. In other words, the study of how interactants convey their messages prevailed over the grammaticality or correctness of their utterances, which brought *Conversational Analysis* to life in and outside the United Kingdom (cf. Sachs, Schegloff and Jefferson 1974).

The seeds of pragmatics as the youngest branch of linguistics had then been planted: “its colonisation was only the last stage of a wave by wave expansion of linguistics from a narrow discipline dealing with the physical data of speech, to a broad discipline taking in form, meaning and context” (Leech 1983:2).

2.1.2. Towards a definition

The term “pragmatics” is attributable to the philosopher Charles Morris (1938). Within semiotics, he distinguished three different branches of study: *syntactics* (syntax), which studies “the formal relation of signs to one another” and is concerned with the way linguistic forms create well-formed sentences, i.e. grammatically acceptable; *semantics* which focuses on “the relations of signs to the objects to which the signs are applicable”, i.e. the relationship between literal words and entities in the world; and *pragmatics* which is the study of “the relation of signs to interpreters” (1938:6). Morris’ trichotomy consists therefore of signs, designata and language users, as illustrated in Figure 1 below.

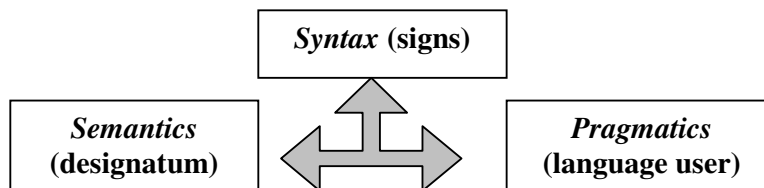


Fig.1. Semiotics, according to Morris (1938).

The definition of a word goes along with the imposition of boundaries (cf. the Latin words “*finis*” and “*fines*” mean “end” and “frontier”, respectively). Defining pragmatics thus implies determining its frontiers with other fields of research within and outside linguistics. Therefore, a thorough definition of “pragmatics” needs to delimit its area of study in relation to “syntax” and “semantics”.

It is widely acknowledged in the literature that “pragmatics” originates, among others, in the anti-syntactic approach (Leech 1983; Mey 1998) where no room was left for meaning and where the linguistic sign was the core (cf. Chomsky 1957). Lyons (1968) acknowledges a conflict between the structural (interested in the system of a language) and the practical approach (interested in the use of language), which responds to a different approach to language, namely, the abstract formal way of describing a language and a description of its actual use.

The semantics-pragmatics distinction can be found in Saussure’s (1931) dichotomy “*langue*” vs. “*parole*”. While the former refers to the abstract general model of the manifestations of language, the latter is based on the individual realisations of that language. According to Leech, “the problem of distinguishing “language” (*langue*) and “language use” (*parole*) has centred on a boundary dispute between semantics and pragmatics” (1983:5). Although both fields focus on the study of meaning, their interpretation of meaning differs. Semantics understands meaning as a dyadic relationship where a *word* ‘x’ *means* ‘y’. Pragmatics, in turn, considers meaning results from a triadic relationship where a *word* ‘x’ uttered by a *speaker* ‘y’ *means* ‘z’. However, rather than presenting pragmatics as opposed to semantics, Leech (1983) feels there are different alternatives whereby interrelationships between both fields can be appreciated, cf. Figure 2 below.

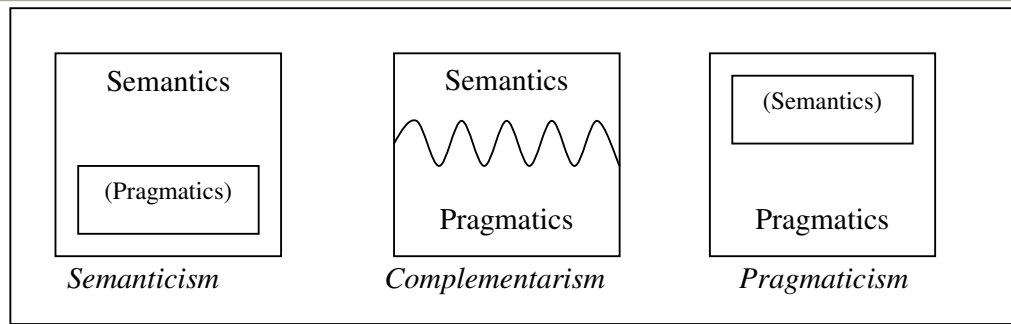


Fig. 2. The three views on Pragmatics-Semantics Relationship (adapted from Leech 1983:6)

Leech (1983) explains that the first position is mainly embodied by generative semantics where pragmatics is assimilated to semantics (cf. Ross's (1970) performative hypothesis), i.e. the illocutionary or pragmatic force of an utterance is encapsulated in its semantic structure. The last position is embodied by philosophers such as Austin and Searle who consider meaning an abstract mental entity and who associate semantics to pragmatics. The theory of meaning is to them a sub-part of the theory of action. The second viewpoint, namely "complementarism", is the one he supports (Leech 1983:7):

"any account of meaning in language must (a) be faithful to the facts as we observe them and, (b) must be as simple and generalizable as possible. If we approach meaning entirely from a pragmatic point of view, or entirely from a semantic point of view, these requirements are not met; however, if we approach meaning from a point of view which combines semantics and pragmatics, the result can be a satisfactory explanation in terms of these two criteria" (Leech 1983:7).

Such clear-cut defining boundaries seem difficult to postulate. As Mey claims, "it seems natural at this point to raise the question of why such clear, sharply demarcated boundaries are needed at all, when pragmatics is apparently in a steady evolutionary flux and boundary markers, once placed, will have to be removed constantly anyway" (Mey 1998:725). Indeed, there appears to be no agreement as to how to define pragmatics due to the versatility of its term. According to Levinson (1983), "pragmatics" has been considered (i) a branch of semiotics (Morris 1938), (ii) the study of abstract concepts that make reference to agents (Carnap 1955), (iii) the study of indexical or deictic terms (Montague 1968) or (iv) a field within the Anglo-American linguistics and philosophy. It therefore seems reasonable to narrow the scope of pragmatics. More specifically, the present literature review will be framed within the latest trend aforementioned.

Levinson (1983:6) provides different potential definitions of "pragmatics". One of them could be the "study of those principles that will account for why a certain set of

sentences are anomalous, or not possible utterances” while another would assume the study of language from a functional perspective in that it attempts to explain aspects of linguistic structure by reference to non-linguistic causes. The former definition is not explicit enough as the anomalies in pragmatics are not explained but presupposed. And the latter, in turn, fails to distinguish pragmatics from other functional disciplines such as sociolinguistics or psycholinguistics.

Other definitions depart from Saussure’s distinction between “*langue*” vs. “*parole*”, or Chomsky’s opposition between “competence” vs. “performance”, and propose that pragmatics should be solely concerned with principles of language usage and not with language structure. Katz and Fodor (1963) postulated a theory of pragmatics (called “setting selection”), which would essentially intend to disambiguate sentences by the contexts in which they were uttered (cf. Kempson (1975; 1977) and Smith and Wilson (1979)). However, Katz (1977) soon acknowledged the impossibility of drawing or delimiting the fuzzy boundaries of language. It seems difficult to distinguish competence (context-independent) and performance (context-dependent). There appears indeed to be an indissoluble relationship between some context-dependent features of language structure and the principles of language usage.

That concern led Levinson (1983) to postulate a definition that portrays pragmatics as “the study of those realisations between language context that are grammaticalised or encoded in the structure of a language” (1983:9). Likewise, Yule (1996) feels that *pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning*, i.e. the interpretation of what people mean in a particular context and how the context influences what is said. More specifically, Leech’s (1983:15) model includes the elements of speech situation: the addressers or addressees, the context of an utterance, the goal(s) of an utterance, the utterance as a form of act or activity (the speech act), and the utterance as a product of a verbal act. In so doing, Leech distinguishes semantics from pragmatics, the latter being the *study of meaning in relation to a speech situation*.

However, the definitions of pragmatics provided in the 1980s that equate pragmatics with “meaning in use” or “meaning in context” appear to be too general as they blur the frontiers of the supposedly distinct fields of “pragmatics” and “semantics”.

The latter is the study of meaning *per se* “so, the notion of pragmatics must be the study of aspects of meaning not covered in semantics [...]. But we need to know how the broad sense of meaning, on which the definition relies, is to be limited” (Levinson 1985:15). Rather, the study of meaning is to be seen as communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by an addressee (listener or reader). Therefore, pragmatics is understood as *the study of speaker meaning* (Leech 1983; Levinson 1985; Yule 1996) and *utterance interpretation* (Sperber and Wilson 1986; Blakemore 1992). In other words, rather than focusing on what the words in an utterance mean by themselves, pragmatics concentrates (i) on what the producers mean by their utterances, which Thomas (1995:2) attributes to the social view of pragmatics, and (ii) on the receiver of the message, ignoring the social constraints on utterance production, which is attributed to the cognitive approach¹. Within the cognitive approach, authors bind pragmatics to what can be defined within the notion of relevance. Within the social approach, there is a special interest in the producer of the message within conversation (cf. Grice’s (1975) model of logic and conversation) and in human language uses “governed by the conditions of society” (cf. Mey 1998:724)², shaped by culture and context (cf. Lakoff’s (1973), Leech’s (1983), Brown and Levinson’s (1978) models of politeness theory).

In turn, Thomas (1995:22) believes these two approaches need to be integrated to explain language use. She suggests that pragmatics is *the study of meaning in interaction* instead. Her approach explores the contributions of the speaker and the hearer, the utterance and the context to the making of meaning:

“Meaning is not something which is inherent in the words alone, nor is it produced by the speaker alone, nor by the hearer alone. Making meaning is a dynamic process, involving the negotiation of meaning between speaker and hearer, the context of utterance (physical, social and linguistic) and the meaning potential of an utterance” (*ibid*).

Therefore, the definitions above portray pragmatics as a discipline distinct from syntax and semantics: the *user of the language*, on the one hand, and the *context*, on the other, become crucial to interpret utterances produced in the interaction. Accordingly,

¹ To understand the previous approaches, Thomas (1995) feels three different levels of meaning must be considered. The first level is that of “abstract meaning”, i.e. what a phrase or word could mean (e.g. dictionary definitions). The second level is “contextual meaning” or “utterance meaning” which is obtained once the sense and reference of the expression is assigned in a particular context (e.g. the study of deixis and reference). Finally, the third level is the speaker’s intention. To him, the last two levels altogether are the components of “speaker meaning”.

² She will call this field “Societal Pragmatics”, which “is intimately connected with the relationship between linguistics as a ‘pure’ science and the practice of linguistics as applied to what people use their language for, to ‘what they do with words’”(1998:730).

Verschueren (1999) considers pragmatics as the study of meaning in context, which results from the dynamic process of communication in negotiation. More recently, LoCastro (2003:12) refers to pragmatics as the field that studies the meaning of utterances “in the context of situation”. Particularly relevant to this investigation, Crystal’s definition serves the purpose of the present research as it depicts the different and necessary ingredients to analyse meaning in context:

“The study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the *choices* they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication” (Crystal 1985:240, my italics).

Additionally, Crystal’s definition, considered and explained by Kasper and Rose (2002), provides the distinguishing features of pragmatics (Martínez-Flor 2004:19):

- meaning is created in interaction with speakers and hearers
- context includes both linguistic (co-text) and non-linguistic aspects
- choices made by the users of language are an important concern
- constraints in using language in social action are significant
- the effects of choices on coparticipants are analysed

To my view, the outlined characteristics summarise the different interests of pragmatics that have been presented throughout this section. But more important, Crystal’s definition includes the role of “choice” in the speaker’s instantiation of meaning, a *leitmotif* throughout the present study.

2.1.3. The scope of pragmatics

Although an attempt has been made so as to provide a unitary definition of “pragmatics”, this discipline includes different theoretical and practical approaches, which, to Mey (1998:726), depend on some aspects of human communication. According to Leech (1983), *General Pragmatics* concentrates on the study of the general conditions of the communicative use of language and comprises *Pragmalinguistics* and *Socio-Pragmatics* (see Figure 3 below).

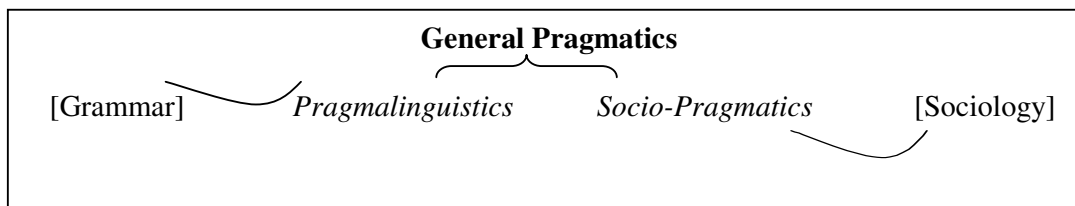


Fig. 3. Pragmatics after Leech (1983:11).

Pragmalinguistics explores the linguistic resources to convey particular communicative acts. This approach is relevant to my study in that it considers the degree of directness and modification devices the speaker has at his/her disposal so as to enhance or soften a communicative act. *Sociopragmatics*, in turn, deals with the relationship between linguistic action and social structure. While this is not the very focus of my study, it somehow frames the scope of the present research as it sets social factors such as distance, power and degree of imposition which affect the type of acts the speaker (the teacher) produces and how s/he will utter them in a particular context (the EFL classroom). In other words, it enables the researcher to study the use of specific speech acts (directives) within a particular social context, namely the language classroom.

In addition to those branches of pragmatics, others have worked within the field of *Contrastive Pragmatics* which embraces *Cross-cultural Pragmatics* and *Interlanguage Pragmatics* (cf. section 2.2. below). The former refers to the study of pragmatics across cultures such as the *Cross Cultural Speech Act Research Project* from Blum-Kulka *et al.* (1989). Studies within this line also include the comparison of specific speech acts across cultures (House and Kasper 1981; Thomas 1983) and the postulation of different speech acts for different cultures and languages (Wierzbicka 1991). The latter, in turn, seeks to describe and explain “the learner’s development and use of pragmatic knowledge” (Kasper 1989:42), by analysing both “the people’s comprehension and production of linguistic action in context” (Kasper and Blum-Kulka 1993:3) and is embodied in the works of Blum-Kulka (1990), Kasper and Dahl (1991), Bouton (1992), Kasper (1992), Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993), Kasper and Schmidt (1996), Koike (1996), Bardovi-Harlig (1999), Kasper (2001), Rose and Kasper (2001) (cf. Martínez-Flor, Usó-Juan and Fernández-Guerra (2003) for an extensive review).

In the light of what has been reported throughout this section, pragmatics can be regarded as a discipline that explores the speaker’s meaning in a particular context by examining the linguistic structures that instantiate such communicative acts. As it has been claimed above, the boundaries of pragmatics are fuzzy as it is an interdisciplinary area related to syntax (the words embodying the message), semantics (the meaning of an expression *per se*) and sociology (meaning in society).

“Linguistic pragmatics studies people’s use of language, a form of behaviour or social action. Thus the dimension which the pragmatic perspective is intended to give insight into is the link between language and human life in general. Hence, pragmatics is also the link between linguistics and the rest of humanities and social sciences” (Verschueren 1999:6).

To my view, it is the object under study, the view on language and the limits the researcher sets, which further specify the different interests and goals in pragmatics. Therefore, studies in pragmatics cover a wide range of phenomena: deixis (cf. Anderson and Keenan 1985; Wales 1986; Lyons 1991), reference (Lyons 1977; Clark and Wilkes-Gibbs 1986; Givon 1989), presupposition and entailment (cf. Smith and Wilson 1979; Burton-Roberts 1989), speech acts (cf. Austin 1962; Searle 1969; Verschueren 1985; Geis 1995, Grundy 2000) and politeness theory (Brown and Levinson 1987; Leech 1983; Márquez-Reiter 2000; Watts 2003). Since the object of this study is the analysis of regulatory functions in the EFL classroom and the comparison of how native vs. non-native teachers embody such messages in English, this chapter will exclusively focus on *Speech Act theory* and *Politeness theory*.

2.1.4. Speech Act Theory

2.1.4.1. General notions

Known as the “father of pragmatics”, the philosopher John Austin (1962) introduced the term “speech act” to refer to language used as a form of action. In reaction to logical positivism and truth conditional semantics, whereby meaning is exclusively checked in relation to truth and falsity, philosophers such as Austin and Wittgenstein focused on language usage and language games.

Austin (1962) first drew the difference between “constative” and “performative” utterances. Whereas “constatives” can be evaluated along a dimension of truth, “performatives” can be evaluated along a dimension of “felicity” (i.e. in terms of effectiveness in achieving the speaker’s intention), specified in the three “felicity conditions” (cf. Levinson 1983:229 for a review). Later, Austin claimed that all utterances contain both constative and performative elements and suggested there is a three-fold distinction: the “locution” which is the act of saying something (the physical uttering), the “illocution” which refers to what is provoked or done *in* saying something and the “perlocution” which is “the achieving of certain effects *by* saying something” (Austin 1962:121).

“The illocutionary act is directly achieved by the conventional force associated with the issuance of a certain kind of utterance in accord with a conventional procedure, and is

consequently determinate (in principle, at least). In contrast, the perlocutionary act is specific to the circumstances of issuance, and is therefore not conventionally achieved just by uttering that particular utterance, and includes all those effects, intended or unintended, often indeterminate, that some particular utterance in a particular situation may cause". (Levinson 1983:236).

Searle (1969) departed from this idea and understood that each speech act consists of a proposition (content) and the (illocutionary) force, which is the action side. Searle systematised the concept of felicity by proposing the different conditions that are to be fulfilled for an act to be felicitous: propositional content condition, preparatory condition, sincerity condition and essential condition.

Whereas Austin (1962:151) proposed a five category classification of performative *verbs* (verdictives, exercitives, commissives, behabitives and expositives), Searle (1969) went further and allocated *speech acts* to five distinct categories: (i) *Assertives*, which are statements expressing a belief, making words fit the world, (ii) *Directives*, which include requests and orders, making the world fit the words instead, (iii) *Commissives*, where promises and offers express an intention whereby the speaker comits him/herself to engage in a future action, (iv) *Expressives*, which are the expression of a psychological state, and (v) *Declarations*, which make the world fit the words and the words fit the world by provoking a change in the world (institutional reality).

Back to the early days of pragmatics, Austin already associated the different speech acts with specific utterings (the performative verbs). Searle (1976:2) felt Austin's classification responded to a mere categorisation of English illocutionary verbs: "a third purpose of this paper is to show how these different basic illocutionary types are realized in the syntax of a natural language such as English" (Searle 1976:2). Understanding that the basic semantic differences may have syntactical consequences (not only at verb choice level), Searle showed how the different basic illocutionary types are realised in the syntax of a natural language such as English. The existence of a wide range of linguistic realisations that enables the speaker to instantiate meaning(s) is related to one of the key notions in pragmatics, namely the "continuous making of linguistic *choices*" (Verschueren 1999:55, my italics). The speakers, consciously or unconsciously, do make choices which can be situated at any level of linguistic form (phonological, morphological, syntactic, lexical or semantic).

Interestingly enough, the exploration of the form-function relationship has recently allowed computational linguists to create computer models that consist of a speech tagger, a syntactic parser, a symbolic post-processor and a model based on surface linguistic structures, which altogether classify speech acts automatically, e.g. “The Auto-Tutor Programme” (cf. Graesser Marineau, Wiemer-Hastings, Harter, Olde, Chipman, Carnavat, Pomeroy, Rajan, Graesser and *TRG* 2000), among others (Nagata and Morimoto 1994; Samuel, Carberry and Vijay-Shanker 1998; Cohen and Shiverly 2003; Cohen and Ishihara 2004). What is more, other programmes actually create language and perform speech acts, e.g. “Elephant 2000” (cf. McCarthy 1998).

A major issue within *Speech Act Theory* (hence, *SAT*) is the phenomenon of indirect speech acts. Bearing in mind that the illocutionary act or speech act is associated by convention with the form of the utterance in question, there is a literal force hypothesis (Gazdar 1981) whereby (i) explicit performatives have the force named by the performative verb in the matrix clause and (ii) the three major sentence-types in English, namely the imperative, interrogative and declarative have the forces traditionally associated with them, i.e. ordering (or requesting), questioning and stating respectively.

However, when a sentence fails to have the force associated with (i) and (ii) above, this means the utterance has a literal force together with an inferred indirect force and will be known as “indirect speech act” (cf. Searle 1975, Davison 1975, Bertolet 1994, Holdcroft 1994, Geis 1998 and cf. Levinson 1994:263 for a review). Such mapping between the linguistic surface structure and its subsequent meaning urges the linguist to consider the discourse-grammar interface in depth.

2.1.4.2. Indirectness in speech acts

Following Geis’s (1998) review of the main theories of indirect speech acts, the present section will briefly sketch three main theories worth special attention: (i) Gordon and Lakoff’s (1971); (ii) Searle’s (1975) and Morgan’s (1978) and (iii) Levinson’s (1994).

The first account of indirect speech acts was provided by Gordon and Lakoff (1971), who claimed that there exists a set of conversational postulates where the input is the literal meaning of an utterance and the output is what might be called a “performative logical form” that specifies the utterance’s illocutionary force. Gordon and Lakoff highlight there is a requisite whereby a mutual recognition by speaker and hearer must take place so that the utterance is not taken literally (although they do not mention at any point how this mutual recognition is achieved). Therefore, an utterance can be used to perform an indirect request if it specifies a felicity condition on requesting. However, since their approach is “wholly semantically based” (Geis 1998:127), Gordon and Lakoff cannot distinguish the indirect speech act potential of utterance-types that are semantically similar to conventionalised request forms, which constitutes the major flaw of their theory.

Searle (1975), in turn, adopts a more syntactic approach. To him, certain forms “have become conventionally established as the standard idiomatic forms for indirect speech acts. While keeping their literal meanings, they will acquire conventional uses as, e.g. polite forms for requests” (1975:76).

“The simplest cases of meaning are those in which the speaker utters a sentence and means exactly and literally what he says. In such cases the speaker intends to produce a certain illocutionary effect in the hearer and he intends to produce a certain illocutionary effect in the hearer and he intends to produce this effect by getting the hearer to recognize his intention to produce it, and he intends to get the hearer to recognize this intention in virtue of the hearer’s knowledge of the rules that govern the utterance of the sentence. But, notoriously, not all cases of meaning are this simple.” (Searle 1975:59).

One of those cases may well be an utterance incidentally meant as a statement but also meant primarily as a request. Searle claims that in those cases, the utterance contains the illocutionary force indicators for one kind of illocutionary act but can be uttered to perform, in addition, another type of illocutionary act. In other cases, the speaker may utter a sentence and mean what he says and also mean another illocution with a different propositional content (e.g. a question intended as a request). In those cases, what is at stake is the speaker’s will to get the hearer recognise his/her intention. Indirect speech acts are therefore “those cases in which one illocutionary act is performed indirectly by way of performing another” (Searle 1975:60).

More specifically, Searle provides a list of “some sentences conventionally used in the performance of indirect directives” (Searle 1975:65) where he includes:

sentences concerning the hearer's ability to perform an action (e.g. "*Can you pass the salt?*"), sentences concerning the speaker's wish or want that the hearer will do an action (e.g. "*I would like you to go now*"), sentences concerning the hearer's desire or willingness to do an action (e.g. "*would you be willing to write a letter?*"), among others. According to Geis (1998:128), there are two features in Searle's theory worth highlighting: the forms are idiomatic or colloquial in nature and the forms in question are polite forms.

In Morgan's (1978) development of Searle's theory, the forms arise when the implicative relationship between utterances and their respective intended illocutionary points gets obscured. To him, there is a transition from what is indirectly conveyed to the literal meaning, which allows the possibility of intermediate points on the natural³-conventional⁴ scale. As an illustration, a three-stage process is involved in the emergence of idioms: (i) when the implicature is attached to the meaning of the utterance, i.e. the meaning of the utterance plays a role in the calculation of its force; (ii) the implicature is associated with a particular sentence or sentence form, and (iii) the historical association of the implicature with the meaning of the utterance is lost and the association between the implicature and the sentence becomes conventional.

"The principal strength of the approach taken by Searle and Morgan over that of Gordon and Lakoff is that they see a connection between the use of an utterance and its form and are therefore in a position to distinguish the different illocutionary force potentials" (Geis 1998:130).

However, neither Gordon and Lakoff nor Searle and Morgan's theories provide an account of how the conventions of illocutionary speech acts depend on context, an area which was somehow covered by Levinson (1994).

Levinson (1994) feels indirect speech acts have syntactic and distributional reflexes associated not only with their surface sentence-type but also with their indirect illocutionary force, e.g. the distribution of the morpheme "please" or the use of if-clauses in requests. Although it seems clear that "a general linguistic theory seems called upon to provide an account of the interaction between illocutionary force, both

³ "By natural I mean that kind of information that one can reasonably infer as (part of) what the speaker intended to convey, but where the inference is not based directly on any kind of linguistic convention but on assumptions about what counts as rational behaviour, knowledge of the world..." (Morgan 1978:266).

⁴ "By conventional, is usually meant the relation between linguistic form and literal meaning, which is arbitrary, a matter of knowledge of language" (Morgan 1978:267).

direct and indirect, and apparently syntactic processes” (Levinson 1994:268), the illocutionary force is wholly pragmatic as it results from mapping the speech force onto sentences in context: “the illocutionary force has no direct and simple correlation with sentence-form or meaning” (Levinson 1994:274). In other words, the immediate discursive context of an utterance –i.e. the turns in conversation- shapes an utterance as a specific act and provides its illocutionary force.

“The basic intuition is very simple: when a sentence is uttered more has taken place than merely the expression of its meaning; in addition, the set of background assumptions has been altered. The contribution that an utterance makes to this change in the context is its speech act force or potential. [...] Most speech acts add some propositions to the context” (Levinson 1994:277).

Further, Thomas (1995) explores how and why indirectness is used and presents it as a universal phenomenon. First, Thomas (1995:119) feels there are four points to bear in mind in the discussion of indirectness: (i) it must be intentional; (ii) it is costly (i.e. longer to produce by the speaker and process by the listener) and risky (the hearer may not understand what the speaker aims at); (iii) speakers obtain some social or communicative advantage through employing indirectness and (iv) the principle of expressibility (i.e. anything that can be meant can be said) must be considered.

Second, once these aspects have been considered, Thomas (1995) explores to what extent the speaker can be indirect by positing the axes governing pragmatic choices in any language: (i) the relative power of the speaker over the hearer; (ii) the social distance (cf. Leech 1983) between the speaker and the hearer; (iii) the degree to which an act is rated an imposition in a specific culture and (iv) the relative rights and obligations between the speaker and the hearer⁵. And third, Thomas (1995) discusses what indirectness really is and how it is to be measured. Following Weizman (1989), Thomas highlights that indirectness does not only refer to the utterance level and the level of illocutionary force but also to the illocutionary goal:

“not just as a lack of transparency, such as with the use of unusual words or ambiguous deictic references, but as lack of transparency specifically and intentionally employed by the speaker to convey a meaning which differed in some way, from the utterance meaning. The key notion here is that of the intended exploitation of a gap between the speaker’s meaning and the utterance meaning...” (Weizman 1989:73).

⁵ The more power or authority somebody has over us, or the greater the request one is making, the greater the degree of indirectness.

As for how to measure indirectness, Wilson and Sperber (1981:165) argue that there is a correlation between the degree of indirectness of an utterance and the amount of work a hearer must do in order to arrive at the propositional meaning. Leech (1983:123) computes indirectness by calculating the length of the path from the illocutionary act to its illocutionary goal. Additionally, to Thomas (1995:136), the activity type in which the participants are engaged, the background knowledge, the context and co-text constrain the possible range of interpretation of utterances. To Geis (1998:8), it is possible to calculate the speaker's illocutionary point by employing common-sense reasoning based on Grice's (1975) *Cooperative Principle*.

According to Blum-Kulka and House (in Kasper 1989:45), there are three levels of directness, depending on the extent to which the illocution is transparent from the locution: direct, conventionally indirect and indirect requests: (i) *direct requests* where the illocutionary force is indicated in the utterance by grammatical, lexical or semantic means, (ii) *conventionally indirect* where the illocution is expressed via fixed linguistic conventions established in the linguistic community and (iii) *indirect requests* where the illocution must be interpreted from the context by the addressee. Kasper (1989:46), in turn, distinguishes nine directness levels or request strategies: mood derivable, explicit performative, hedged performative, obligation statement, want statement, suggestory formula, preparatory, strong hint, mild hint.

The notion of illocutionary force has been proved to be unsatisfactory as "Mood" (lexicogrammatical level) and "force" (discourse level) have not been distinguished properly. For a decade now, linguists have tried to "develop a satisfactory account of the semantics of mood" (Wilson and Sperber 1999:268). Their study is of great relevance to the present thesis as it questions "illocutionary force" as a semantic category and indeed assumes that illocutionary force is a purely pragmatic category. To them, declaratives, imperatives and interrogatives are distinguished at the semantic level not through force but *mood*. As it will be seen in my dissertation, "Mood" is not only considered in its traditional syntactic sense (i.e. verbal inflection) but in a semantic sense that refers to the semantic or logical properties that distinguish declaratives from imperatives. Their study characterises the semantic moods and describes the relation between "Mood" and force: "sentence meaning, and in particular the meaning of mood,

must interact with contextual assumptions and pragmatic principles to yield a satisfactory account of how utterances are understood” (Wilson and Sperber 1999:269). In the case of imperatives, for instance, they are linked to representations of potentiality and desirability.

It could be wondered at this point whether there exists a class of conventionalised indirect speech act forms. Geis (1998) thoroughly tackles the issue and questions Searle’s (1975) and Morgan’s (1978) claim that there exists a set of indirect speech act forms which have developed conventionalised uses as request forms, offer forms, etc...Geis (1998:122) claims “there can be no mapping (conventionalised relationship) between linguistic forms, taken as a whole, and particular communicative actions, whether or not the mapping is mediated by context”. Rejecting the theory of indirect speech acts, Geis (1998) suggests the distinction between direct and indirect communication instead. To him, the speaker’s ability to make a request or a promise has less to do with the forms of such sentences than the contexts in which they are used.

After having acknowledged what indirectness is, how it is displayed and interpreted, a final note should now mention the reasons leading speakers to use it. Thomas (1995:143) includes the desire to make one’s language more interesting, to increase the force of one’s message, competing goals (a clash between the speaker’s propositional goal and his/her interpersonal goal) and politeness/regard for face. Section 2.2.2.3 later focuses on the interaction between the expression of directives, the use of indirectness and politeness.

2.1.4.3. Concluding remarks on Speech Act Theory

It shall be borne in mind that while some criticisms question the truth value of some of the concepts posited by *SAT* (cf. 2.2. below), others are concerned about the nomenclature (Leech 1983; Levinson 1994; Verschueren 1999). In other words, *SAT* uses lexical labels to categorise verbal realities which “make fuzzy category distinctions, whereas the realities to which these categories apply are often scalar or indeterminate” (Leech 1983:225). Indeed, the lack of systematicity is reflected in a theory whose distinct categories are not exclusive since some utterances/acts could be hybrids (Verschueren 1999:24), which calls for a more flexible theory.

Rather than censoring *Speech Act Theory* (e.g. the numerous indirect speech acts, mapping utterances into speech act categories), I believe that the analysis of language in human communication should not be restricted to *SAT*. Linguists should consider *SAT* as a paradigm worth being used *together* with “more complex multi-faceted pragmatic approaches” (Levinson 1994:278) to analyse the functions that utterances perform. When analysing speech acts, Levinson (1994:280) urges the reader to bear in mind the following disciplines: (i) the ethnography of speaking focused on cross-cultural study of language usage (cf. Bauman and Sherzer 1974) and (ii) language acquisition studies (cf. Bruner 1975; Dore 1975; Bates 1976; Snow 1979).

As it will later be seen, the analysis of functions carried out in the present dissertation departs from *Speech Act Theory* but goes beyond. Since my analysis is cross-stratal, the discourse-semantic stratum and the lexico-grammatical stratum will invite the reader to consider context (classroom discourse, interlanguage) and co-text (linguistic realisation, turns in conversation) in the interpretation of functions.

2.1.5. Politeness Theory

Politeness has always been a controversial question as while some argued universals existed, others thought that each language had a particular way of “doing politeness”. However, its presence in language and the functions it achieves, though different in languages, place politeness at a core-position in everyday-life conversations. In the last three decades, *Politeness Theory* has become a subdiscipline within pragmatics.

This section will first attempt to provide a definition of “politeness”. Second, it will clarify some key notions that have been used rather differently across studies and which are crucial in the understanding of politeness as a socio-cultural phenomenon, hence relevant to interlanguage studies. And thirdly, it will briefly outline the different theories and paradigms that have emerged; pointing out the caveats other linguists have found in Brown and Levinson’s theory in the last decade and present other alternatives to approach “politeness”.

2.1.5.1. "Politeness"

It has widely been accepted in the literature that "politeness" is a phenomenon, and thus a term, that has varied throughout history. In fact, the analysts' eyes have adopted different crystals to look through in order to perceive politeness, and have thus observed many different "politenesses". According to Held (1992:23), politeness was in the middle ages a way of paying "homage to *hierarchical* status relationships" (my italics), i.e. conceived as a way of establishing a vertical distance between the interactants and that this could be observed both in verbal and non-verbal behaviours (bowing, taking one's hat off, kneeling, etc...). Then, in the Renaissance, politeness was seen as "structures of civic development" (Held 1992:23), i.e. a proper way of behaving in society. Other studies also recur to this perspective which viewed politeness as a "sign of good breeding and high social status" (Watts 1992:44). Therefore, from being a way to show respect to superiors, it became a sign of identification as a high class member. Later on, Rationalism brought again the traditional rights that were associated with the social ranks (Held 1992:23). In other words, politeness was influenced and shaped by the interactants' age, status and gender.

The last century, however, has brought other values that have re-defined politeness. According to Held, "the increasing social significance of equal rights and the democratisation of society" (1992:23) have made politeness lose some of the respect it once involved, and making it a phenomenon also occurring between equals, that is an event existing as well between self and other. Nowadays, politeness is seen as a "dextrous management of our words and actions whereby men make other people have a better opinion of us and themselves" (Watts 1992:45).

Since the 1970s, much confusion is found within the literature on politeness due to the versatile use of the very term "politeness". According to Thomas (1995:149), people have discussed five separate sets of phenomena under the heading of "politeness": (i) politeness as a real-world goal (i.e. interpreted as a genuine desire to be pleasant to others); (ii) deference (i.e. the opposite of familiarity, the respect we show to other people by virtue of their higher status, age...); (iii) register ("systematic variation [...] in relation to social context" Lyons 1977:584); (iv) politeness as an utterance level phenomenon (i.e. linguistic forms used to perform a speech act) and (v) politeness as an illocutionary phenomenon.

The discussion of politeness, however, cannot have access to the speakers' real motivation for speaking as they do (phenomenon i above). As linguists, we can only have access to what speakers say and how their hearers react. This is normally achieved by focusing on how speakers generally show consideration to others. It should be borne in mind that "politeness" differs from "deference" and "register" in that "deference" is manifested by the compulsory use of particular forms in specific situations (it is built into the grammar of languages: 'T/V system' in French, German, Russian...) while "register" refers to certain situations which require more formal language use (lexis, address, etc...). Deference and register are both sociolinguistic phenomena, not pragmatic since "we have no real choice about whether or not to use formal language in formal situations" (Thomas 1995:154), (phenomena ii and iii above). Furthermore, the study of politeness should be carried out within a co(n)text and avoid the equation of linguistic forms and subsequent politeness of a speech act (phenomena iv and v above). Consequently,

"we cannot assess politeness reliably out of context; it is not the linguistic form alone which renders the speech act polite or impolite, but the linguistic form + the context of utterance + the relationship between the speaker and the hearer" (Thomas 1995:157).

Following this perspective, Brown and Levinson (1987) first defined "politeness" as a strategy that is chosen by the speaker so that specific aims are obtained. Similarly, Watts (1992; 2003) defined it as a form of social behaviour that is to be acquired and that, little by little, becomes "a rational, premeditated fashion to achieve very specific aims" (45). Politeness thus constitutes a means to an end. It therefore appears that politeness stands as one of the options the speaker has so that his/her aims in an interaction come to terms. The means, it is believed, are ways of "enhancement of ego's self-esteem and his/her public status in the eyes of alter with the supplementary aim of enhancing alter's self-esteem" (Watts 1992:45). Therefore, politeness is what allows to present the self in a specific way to the other and to make that other feel as s/he desires.

2.1.5.2. Theories of politeness

Politeness has been considered a pragmatic phenomenon (Leech 1983; Brown and Levinson 1987) in that it refers to a series of strategies the speaker uses to achieve a variety of goals. Following Fraser (1990) and Thomas (1995:157), the different

pragmatic approaches to politeness could be briefly outlined⁶ under four headings: (i) the conversational maxim (Leech 1983), (ii) the face-management (Brown and Levinson 1987), (iii) the conversational approach (Lakoff's (1973; 1989) conversational-maxim and Fraser's (1990) conversational contract) and (iv) other pragmatic views (Arundale 1999, Hernández Flores 1999).

2.1.5.2.1. *Politeness, principles and maxims*

To Leech (1980; 1983) and to the present thesis, politeness phenomena are of great relevance to the interpretation of indirectness and to the expression of directive acts. The “*Politeness Principle*” (henceforth *PP*) is to be studied in interaction with Grice’s *Cooperative Principle* (henceforth *CP*) as it usually accounts for those cases when the speaker does not observe Gricean Maxims. The *PP* has the regulative role to maintain “the social equilibrium and the friendly relations which enable us to assume that our interlocutors are being cooperative in the first place” (Leech 1983:82). Although the *CP* is needed, Leech feels it is not sufficient to explain the “relation between sense and force” (*ibid.*). Consequently, among his *Principles of Pragmatics*, Leech postulates the *PP* as “minimise (all things being equal) the expression of impolite beliefs; maximise (all things being equal) the expression of polite beliefs” (in Leech 1983:81), which is articulated around several maxims (Tact maxim, Generosity, Approbation, etc...).

It should be taken into consideration that various kinds and degrees of politeness are called for in different situations (Leech 1983:104), and that, the different illocutionary functions⁷ ((i) competitive; (ii) convivial; (iii) collaborative and (iv) conflictive) will therefore require various types of politeness which will mostly be materialised in terms of indirectness.

“Politeness is essential asymmetrical: what is polite with respect to hearer or to some third party will be impolite with respect to the speaker and vice-versa. The justification for the maxims of politeness is precisely that they explain such asymmetries and their consequences in terms of indirectness” (Leech 1983:107).

In English speaking societies, the most important kind of politeness is the “Tact Maxim” which states “minimise the expression of beliefs which imply cost to other;

⁶ Rather than offering a detailed account of the different theories, this section will only highlight those aspects which are in direct connection to the present study.

⁷ Note that some will be polite and others impolite linguistic behaviour.

maximise the expression of beliefs which imply benefit to other". This maxim is relevant to this study as it applies to directives and commissives and is related to (i) the size of imposition (ii) the mitigating the effects of a request by offering optionality (iii) and to the cost/benefit scale whereby an action that is costly to the hearer would require greater indirectness.

2.1.5.2.2. *Politeness and the management of face*

Brown and Levinson's (1978; 1987) *Politeness Theory* provides a systematic description of cross-linguistic politeness phenomena which is used to support an explanatory model capable of accounting for any instance of politeness. Brown and Levinson (1978) inherit Goffman's notion of "face": "the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact. Face is an image of self delineated in terms of approved social attributes" (Goffman 1967:5). Furthermore, Brown and Levinson claim that "face" has two aspects: positive and negative. Positive face is reflected on somebody's desire to be liked and appreciated by others; whereas negative face is the desire not to be impeded, to have the freedom in one's actions. It is felt that in some situations, our face (i.e. self-esteem, reputation, self-worth) is put at risk. In other words, some illocutionary acts may threaten or damage another person's face: face threatening acts. When the face is put at risk, the speaker needs to compensate for face-threatening behaviour, which can be achieved by using redressive language.

Indeed, one of the most interesting and influential contributions of this theory is the belief that the speaker can choose to do a "Face Threatening Act" (hereafter, FTA) according to five strategies (bald-on record, positive politeness, negative politeness, off-record and don't do FTA⁹): "Any rational agent will seek to avoid these face-threatening acts, or will employ certain strategies to minimise the threat" (Brown and Levinson 1987:68). The speaker will always have in mind, following Brown and Levinson, three factors: the wish to communicate the content of the FTA, the want to be efficient or urgent and the want to maintain the addressee's face to any degree. If the

⁸ Their work gathers data from Tamil speakers in Southern India, Tzeltal speakers in Mexico, and speakers of American and British English.

⁹ A brief outline of the five strategies is provided in Appendix I.

second factor is greater than the other two, there will be a very small, if any, minimisation¹⁰ of the FTA.

A redressive action is what “attempts to counteract the potential face damage of the FTA by doing it in such a way [...] that indicate clearly that no such threat was intended and [...] that S in general recognises H’s face wants” (Brown and Levinson 1987:70). This action can be performed in two ways: through positive politeness, an “approach based” (*ibid.*) action that states that S wants H’s wants, or through negative politeness, an “avoidance based” (*ibid.*) behaviour by which restraint, formality and self-effacement are settled and thus reduce the threat. The choice of the strategy will depend on the weight or size of the FTA, determined by the parameters of power¹¹, distance¹² and imposition¹³. These factors are valid “only to the extent that the actors think it is mutual knowledge between them that these variables have some particular values” (Brown and Levinson 1987:76). Moreover, these variables interact with a given context: specific interactants at a particular moment and place, and thus vary from one interaction to another.

2.1.5.2.3. *Politeness as a conversational contract*

Apart from the need to consider politeness in interaction, Lakoff (1973) believed pragmatic rules should complement syntactic and semantic rules and be postulated in a rigorous way. She therefore added a set of “rules of politeness” or “rules of conversation” to Grice’s *Cooperative Principle* and posited them as if they were the extension to the rules of grammar: “we should like to have some kind of pragmatic rules, dictating whether an utterance is pragmatically well-formed or not, and the extent to which it deviates if it does” (Lakoff 1973:296). As Watts (2003:59) points out, utterances cannot be evaluated as well-formed but as pragmatically appropriate. Although Lakoff presented the rules of pragmatic competence: (i) “be clear” and (ii)

¹⁰ Note the role of “hedges” (Brown and Levinson 1987: 145) and Fraser’s (1980) “mitigation” as a way to reduce and soften the negative/unwelcome effects a speech act may have on the addressee.

¹¹ Power is an asymmetric social dimension: “the degree to which the hearer can impose his own plans and his self-evaluation (face) at the expense of the speaker’s plans and self-evaluation” (Brown and Levinson 1987:76).

¹² Distance is a symmetric relation between speaker and hearer, which measures the participants’ closeness or distance according to social attributes (Brown and Levinson 1987:76).

¹³ Ranking of Imposition is “a culturally and situationally defined ranking of imposition by the degree to which they are considered to interfere with an agent’s wants of self-determination or of approval” (Brown and Levinson 1987:76).

“be polite” (i.e. don’t impose; give options, and make the addressee feel good), she did not set up a production model of politeness despite her interest in pragmatic rules.

In line with these claims, politeness has been seen as a linguistic phenomenon occurring in everyday conversation and has been equated to a negotiation held by the interactants. According to Fraser (1980), Fraser and Nolen (1981) and Fraser (1990), a *Conversational Contract* (henceforth, *CC*) is established when two individuals are having a conversation. Politeness is thus attributed to interactions that fit the *CC* that is held in a specific situation by particular individuals:

“Upon entering into a given conversation, each party brings an understanding of some initial set of rights and obligations that will determine, at least for the preliminary stages what the participants can expect from the others” (Fraser 1990:232).

It is when both respect what has been verbally, and metaphorically signed, that politeness arises in interactions: “We can say then that an utterance is polite, to the extent to which the speaker, in the hearer’s opinion, has not violated the rights or obligations which are in effect at that moment” (Fraser 1980:344).

2.1.5.2.4. *Caveats of Politeness Theory and Alternative approaches*¹⁴

Thomas (1995) presents *Politeness Theory* (hence, *PT*) through Brown and Levinson’s approach but questions the validity of two of their claims. First, “Brown and Levinson claim that positive and negative politeness are mutually exclusive. In practice, a single utterance can be oriented to both positive and negative face simultaneously” (1995:176). An apology, for instance, is both threatening the S’s positive face and may be threatening the H’s negative face as it compels him/ her to accept it. Secondly, Thomas (1995) asserts that using the term FTA becomes a way of saying that every single utterance can be or is a FTA, since as Dascal (1977) believes “simply by speaking we trespass on another’s person’s space. Saying anything at all (or even saying nothing!) is potentially face threatening” (in Thomas 1995:176). Furthermore, it seems that Brown and Levinson’s model predicts that the greater the FTA, the more indirectness will be displayed. However, Thomas (1995:176) claims many counter-examples are readily available in long-term relationships and within different subgroups.

¹⁴ Cf. Watts (2003) for an extensive and detailed account of most Politeness Theories revisited.

Later on, Arundale (1999) also questions the fact of having a threat in certain utterances. Brown and Levinson (1987) not only assumed that actions could be threats to the addressee's face but that "when such actions occur a 'balance principle' applies in which the face debt created by the threat must be balanced by 'reparation' or redress in the form of attention to face" (Arundale 1999:145, my italics). In this way, *PT* claims that if threat occurs, redress should mend it. What Arundale (1999) suggests is that "describing face maintenance in terms of restoring balance suggests the existence of another mode of maintaining face: one that involves not balancing threat with redress, but rather not creating any imbalance at all" (*ibid.*), which implies maintaining face simply when it has not been threatened.

What Arundale (1999) presents as an alternative model to approach politeness is the *Co-constituting model*, and the *Face constituting theory*. Actually, what that study presents is a model that conceptualises face differently. It claims that "face" is not only threatened but also supported and it assumes that the individuals interact in conversations and that in this sense speaker and hearer mutually "afford and reciprocally influence one another's interpreting of face and of much else besides" (Arundale 1999:146). In this way, this theory develops the encoding/decoding model that makes both participants share a code in order to come to an understanding both in language and politeness. It also provides a different "nature of ideology" as it views the subjects as building meaning together thus focussing on the dyad rather than on the individual. It is in this sense not a theory that refutes what Brown and Levinson defended but that stands as an alternative or as an extension of it.

Finally, and in line with the previous study, Hernández-Flores (1999)'s work regarding Spanish politeness presents an alternative to Brown and Levinson's as this one did not seem to fit Spanish ideology and society. First, according to Hernández-Flores (1999), "it seems relevant to know what the social standard of a community is to describe the face wants of its members" (37) since a theory that involves individuals from many different ideologies cannot try to be universal. The main point this study also raises is that Brown and Levinson's theory affirms that politeness occurs when threat takes place in conversation, that is, politeness viewed as redress of a FTA. But, Hernández-Flores (1999:38) believes that "politeness can also be used for enhancing

and strengthening the interactants' relationships in accordance with the particular ideology of the group".

Face in Spanish culture involves two different variables in colloquial conversations: self-affirmation and *confianza*. "Self-affirmation" allows the speaker to stress his/her positive self-image, opinions or qualities while "*confianza*" refers to a way of interaction that allows the speaker to act in an open and free way (similar to familiarity and closeness). The difference however, with Brown and Levinson's positive and negative politeness is that though self-affirmation can be attached to negative politeness it is not just used to guarantee one's territory or freedom of action but to express the "wish of standing out from the group" (Hernández-Flores 1999:41) whereby the individual asserts him/herself as independent from the group. Similarly, although positive politeness could be related to *confianza*, the latter is not only the want to be appreciated but the desire to establish closeness in both verbal and non-verbal behaviour.

Her study also argues that what implies some threat for Brown and Levinson, does not necessarily apply in Spanish culture. There is no risk of losing faces in the case of advice in Spanish interactions: "at the same time the speaker reaffirms the right to have her/his interlocutor's *confianza* by displaying her/his self affirmation" (1999:42). However, it should be noted that if politeness is, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), what repairs threat and that advice in Spanish does not mean any threat but that there are still politeness strategies arising, "politeness is not always used because of conflictual reasons"(ibid). Politeness in Spanish culture thus appears to be the balance between the self-affirmation and the *confianza* taking place in the interaction, that is, a way to maintain and stress the hearer's face as well as keeping the speaker's at a good level simultaneously, which allows conversation not to be just a field where interactants strike to maintain face threat-free but where face "works in order to enhance the conversation and strengthen the social links between the interactants"(1999:47). Therefore, another claim that must be put in doubt here is the universal character of *Politeness Theory*, a claim that has mainly been maintained by non-Western perspectives (cf. Matsumoto 1988; Ide 1989; Gu 1990; Nwoye 1992).

"It is important therefore to separate culturally variable estimates of power, distance and imposition, which we would expect to occur, from the strategies and linguistic

manifestations of strategies which a universal account of politeness would need to capture” (Grundy 2000:162).

2.1.5.3. Politeness and interlanguage

“Culture has always been a notoriously elusive concept [...] for the more vague a term is, the more purposes it can be used for” (Eelen 1999:169). It has often been used as society, language, community etc...But it has widely been accepted in the literature that culture is inherently linked to politeness as it is what establishes at first a common ground between the interactants. Politeness is redefined and shaped in different ways according to the culture it is engendered in. This is mainly why some “cultural sharedness” (*ibid.*) is needed in order to share some ideology, behaviour, values, or even and merely the language. Culture owns a specific code that two participants should share, or at least know about, in order to understand each other’s politeness behaviours. As culture makes a group of people stand under the same label, politeness also “leads to a ‘group-based’ account in which politeness is a ‘group thing’, shared by all members and thus be able to ‘be communicated’ from one member to another” (Eelen 1999:171).

Politeness thus highly depends on the culture, as there is a need to agree on the interpretation of the different strategies so that chaos is avoided. In fact, “the rules of the politeness-game need to be shared [...], if they were not [...] social chaos would be the result” (*ibid.*). Rinnert and Kobayashi’s (1999) cross-cultural study on requestive hints indeed shows that Japanese and English perceptions of politeness differ as they are affected by the level of formality very differently: while Japanese speakers prefer hint strategies to mark politeness, English speakers feel a message instantiated through hints lacks pragmatic clarity. “If this is true, it suggests that the relative importance attached to pragmatic clarity in relation to the notion of politeness differs cross-culturally and situationally” (Rinnert and Kobayashi 1999:1184).

However, other factors help to shape politeness. Thomas (1995) claims that politeness cannot be measured out of context. Actually, it is the very specific situation, the nature of circumstances and the particular participants’ relationship that render an utterance polite or impolite. Moreover, the norms or strategies of politeness depend on the status, power and role of each of the speakers. Held (1992:27) also supports these factors and highlights the influence of the speakers’ moral, psychological and

emotional state when interactions take place. This inevitably affects the choice of some strategies rather than others.

What should here be pointed out is that, nowadays, politeness depends to a great extent on social ideology. An ideology, following Arundale (1999:120), does neither lie on the individual's consciousness nor guide his/her own action in the talk independently of others. Ideology is what is accepted as the social organisation and structure and constitutes the socially accepted norms of behaviour.

In fact, it is claimed that there is a very important social influence on the definition of politeness. According to Held (1992), it is the change that society undergoes that directly affects the way speakers behave towards the other. One might think that the politeness-respect that existed in the eighteenth century has vanished and that therefore, politeness has faded with it. However, it is still present in society, among the young and old: it has just taken another shape that fits with the mould of present-day society. Nowadays, the structures of democracy, for example in Western cultures, involve the predominance of values such as equalitarian rights and power, which creates a kind of politeness that mirrors this social phenomenon: "the conditions for social intercourse have changed decisively in egalitarian, democratically organised societies. [...] young people today use a whole range of gestures of solidarity" (Held 1992:34).

In this sense, it seems that the social constraints that once existed concerning politeness as rules to avoid too much closeness and show deference towards the other have become today a path leading to a maximisation of strategies related to friendliness, comradeship and intimacy. It is argued that "a new ideology" (*ibid.*) is stemming in our present society. The vertical relationships have turned the axis into a horizontal one where both interactants can stand at the same level. This is obviously not always the case (for example formal situations require a more vertical situation) but still, society influences politeness in everyday life conversations.

In the light of what has been presented throughout this first section, it may be argued that *Pragmatics* is the field allowing the linguist to examine the creation of

meaning by a particular speaker in a specific context. *Speech Act Theory* and *Politeness Theory* together constitute the theoretical framework within which one can explore the linguistic instantiation of meaning. So as to later undertake this task efficiently, the following section will concentrate on the study of directives within a particular context (teacher talk in the language classroom) and will thus narrow down the literature to a branch of pragmatics: *Interlanguage Pragmatics*.

2.2. Interlanguage Pragmatics

Interlanguage pragmatics can be defined as “referring to nonnative speakers’ comprehension and production of speech acts, and how that L2-related knowledge is acquired” (Kasper and Dahl 1991:216).

Pragmatics has played a considerable role in first language acquisition and has become increasingly popular in second and foreign language classroom research in the last decades. Among the major issues tackled within ESL and EFL pragmatics research, one may find the analysis of speech acts in the classroom, the relationship between the linguistic and the pragmatic systems so as to improve communicative competence and the role of instruction in L2 pragmatics. The purpose of this section is to review the works in the aforementioned areas as they are directly related to the present thesis.

2.2.1. Speech acts in the language classroom

Speech Act Theory (hence, *SAT*) has aroused wide interest among linguists concerned with language acquisition and language learning. In order to consider language in relation to behaviour and to allow for an emphasis on the use of language rather than on its form, *SAT* is adopted in the analysis of children-parents interactions (cf. Bruner 1975, Reeder 1978; 1983), ESL (Cohen and Olshtain 1994; Ernst 1994; Cohen 1995¹⁵; 1999) and EFL (Cohen and Olshtain 1993; Sasaki 1998; Llinares-García 2001) classroom interactions.

On the one hand, the emergence of illocutionary skills has widely been tackled within language acquisition by analysing children’s comprehension of illocutionary acts (Ervin-Tripp 1974; 1977; Bates 1976; Carrell 1980) and their ulterior production of

¹⁵ Cohen (1995) discusses theoretical and applied issues regarding research on speech acts. The study presents the sociocultural and sociolinguistic abilities needed to perform a given speech act, provides a selection of research methods to gather speech act data and finally discusses the study of speech act interlanguage.

speech acts in their L1 (cf. Dore 1974; Ervin-Tripp 1974; Shatz 1974; Garvey 1975; Halliday 1975; Dore 1977; Reeder 1978):

“There is a concern for the way in which learners learn and produce speech acts as part of the sociolinguistic component of their communicative competence. It has been established in previous studies that in speech act behaviour, as in other language areas there is a discrepancy between a learner’s receptive and productive abilities” (Cohen 1995:27).

The relation between the illocutionary function of an utterance and its lexicogrammatical structure was felt to be both crucial to language acquisition and non-arbitrary and is today of special relevance to the present dissertation: “it is the interplay between the two that permits the child to enter the language so quickly” (Bruner 1975:3).

On the other hand, within second and foreign language acquisition, some *observational* studies have compared native vs. non-native speakers’ production of speech acts. These studies focus on the opportunities for pragmatic input and conversational practice in different classroom organisation and activities (peer vs. teacher-fronted classrooms, low vs. high immersion) (Kasper 1985; 1992; Chaudron 1988; Ohta 1995; 1997; Kasper and Rose 1999; Ohta 2001, cf. Kasper 2001 for a review). Of great interest to the present research are the numerous studies in the last two decades which have provided detailed descriptions of realisation strategies for different speech acts, such as apologies, requests, complaints, compliments and refusals (cf. Blum-Kulka *et al.* 1989; Rintell and Mitchell 1989; Cohen and Olshtain 1985; Wolfson 1989; Hatch 1992; Cook 2001). One of the most comprehensive empirical studies of speech act behaviour has been the aforementioned *Cross-Cultural Speech Act Research Project* (CCSARP) (Blum-Kulka *et al.* 1989) which compared speech act behaviour of native speakers of different languages with the behaviour of learners of those languages.

These studies have also focused on the extent to which non-native speakers at different proficiency levels approximate native norms for some of these speech acts (Robinson 1991). This interest has led many authors to analyse features such as compensation strategies and the sources for positive and negative transfer of forms and structures from native to second/foreign language (cf. Corder 1967; Gass and Selinker 1983; Dechert and Raupach 1989). Altogether, they contribute to the study of pragmatic development of language learners in their second (Rose 2000; Kasper and Rose 2002;

Romero-Trillo 2002) or third language (Safont-Jordá 2005) and provide a general picture of the level learners may reach without any pragmatic instruction.

The non-native speakers' pragmatic competence is assessed through measures such as production-questionnaires, also called discourse completion tests, (Takahashi and Beebe 1987, Blum Kulka *et al.* 1989, Kasper and Dahl 1991, Cohen and Olshtain 1993) or role-playing situations mainly¹⁶ (Olshtain and Blum-Kulka 1985, Yashamita 1996), which is regarded as simulating more authentic situations (Sasaki 1998:459). Once the non-native speakers' data are produced, linguists compare their speech to native speakers by exploring the linguistic realisations of the illocutionary act.

“Typical issues addressed in data-based studies are whether NNS differ from NS in the 1) range and 2) contextual distribution of 3) strategies and 4) linguistic forms used to convey 5) illocutionary meaning and 6) politeness [...] Interlanguage pragmatics has predominantly been the sociolinguistic, and to a much lesser extent a psycholinguistic [or acquisitional] study of NNS' linguistic action” (Kasper 1992:205).

In so doing, these works become relevant to the current research in that one of the main targets of this study is to compare native and non-native teachers' linguistic production of the distinct regulatory functions.

2.2.2. The case of directives

According to Ervin-Tripp (1976), directives, rather than some other acts, have been the focus for many studies because they are frequent at all ages (substantial proportion of interactional events in young children), they are likely to be relatively sensitive to addressee features since they ask work of the hearer and because they often lead to action (likely to be sensitive to social relationships) and might therefore be relatively easy to identify. More specifically, in classroom interaction, requests and control acts become more salient targets of investigation than other speech acts that may have been studied in other contexts (apologies, compliments, etc...). Consequently, directives have been examined as the way children engage in activities controlled and influenced by the teacher (Ervin-Tripp 1976; 1982). Directives are considered to be typical face-threatening acts that allow “to observe the workings of modification and mitigation strategies, in short ‘politeness’ in the conventional sense and can thus serve as a rich illustration of the interpersonal dimension of classroom language” (Dalton-Puffer 2005:126).

¹⁶ For a comparison of both methods, see Rintell and Mitchell (1989), Eisenten and Bodman (1993), Hudson, Demter and Brown (1995), Cohen (1995) and Sasaki (1998).

A double-sided presentation¹⁷ of directives is therefore being called for: (i) requests understood as a function in language which stands as an indicator of the teacher-learner relationship (cf. Sinclair and Coulthard 1975; Mehan 1979; Wells 1993; Falsgraf and Majors 1995; Goatly 1995), and (ii) requests as a function instantiated by a linguistic surface structure that is to be acquired (Lörsher and Schulze 1988; Ellis 1992a; Kasper 2001; Nikula 2002).

2.2.2.1. “Directives”, “commands”, “requests”: three labels for one function?

A brief look at the literature suffices to realise that the nomenclature used to refer to “an utterance demanding the interlocutor to achieve some action” is prolific. The terms “directives”, “commands” and “requests” tend to be used interchangeably, as if denoting the same linguistic event. This calls for a brief terminological note so as to conclude whether the different names respond to the various linguistic theories/paradigms or whether each label designates a distinct linguistic reality.

Austin’s (1962:151) taxonomy of acts considers “exercitives” as “the giving of a decision in favour or against a certain course of action or advocacy of it” and includes in this category orders, commands, directions and recommendations among others. Alternatively, Searle (1976:11) suggests “directives” as “the attempts (of varying degrees, and hence, more precisely, they are determinates of the determinable which includes attempting) by the speaker to get the hearer to do something”. According to Searle (1976), directives should include commands, begs, orders and requests (which, to him, were forgotten by Austin) among others¹⁸.

Along with the philosophers, grammarians follow the same nomenclature. Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1985:804) acknowledge “directives” as one of the four speech functions in language (the other three being statements, questions and

¹⁷ Rather than offering a list of the different interpretations of the directive act “request” and its lexicogrammatical realisations found in the literature (which will be provided in chapters 5 and 6 below), this section hints at the different reasons leading researchers to investigate this area and summarises the main findings obtained in the literature on classroom discourse.

¹⁸ More specifically, Searle (1976:3) claims: “The illocutionary point of request is the same as that of commands: both are attempts to get hearers to do something. But the illocutionary forces are clearly different. In general, one can say that the notion of illocutionary forces is the resultant of several elements of which illocutionary point is only one”

exclamations). And Crystal (2002:219) also feels “directives are sentences which instruct someone to do something” and further clarifies that they are often called “commands”, but that this term is misleading since commanding is just one of the many uses of directive sentences (*ibid.*). Further, within “directives”, Crystal acknowledges commands, invitations, warnings, instructions and requesting among others. It would therefore appear that the term “directive” stands as the hypernym of “commands” and “requests”, which has been widely used by works on teacher talk and *Child Directed Speech* (Sinclair and Brazil 1982; Ramírez and Merino 1990; Ernst 1994; Dalton-Puffer 2005).

“It will be convenient at this point to introduce the term ‘directive’ to stand for what can be ordered, requested, demanded, etc., on the model of ‘statement’ used to stand for what can be asserted, denied, conjectured, etc. Thus a serious and literal utterance of an imperative on a particular occasion will constitute a particular directive; and which directive it constitutes will depend on the meaning of the imperative uttered” (Holdcroft 1999:387).

However, other studies seem to ignore the term “directive”. Within cross-cultural and interlanguage studies, it is common to meet the term “request” to identify directive acts (Scarcella 1979; Blum-Kulka 1990; Koike 1994; Trosborg 1995; Hill 1997; Rose 2000; Hassall 2001).

Within the *Systemic Functional Linguistics* (hereafter, *SFL*) paradigm, no term “request” or “directive” is used. Instead, “command” arises as the unmarked term and is considered to be one of the four primary speech functions (i.e. offer, command, statement and question) (cf. Halliday 1985). Particularly relevant to this study, a fourth term emerges in *SFL* studies, i.e. “regulatory” functions and register (Christie 2000; Llinares-García 2002; Riesco-Bernier 2003; Llinares-García 2004; 2006). Among the five basic functions suggested for the interpretation of the language of a very young child (phase I), Halliday (1975) postulates that the regulatory function is “the function of language as controlling the behaviour of others” (Halliday 1975:19), which would therefore include requests and commands.

To some, semantic differences and similarities arise among the different functions/acts. More specifically, Wierzbicka (1999:116) claims there is a semantic common denominator to orders, commands and requests (that is why they can all be enacted by means of the same grammatical category: the imperative). Actually, the very construction signals the core meaning, and then, contextual or suprasegmental clues

provide additional information: the difference between an order and a request is thus based on a scale of optionality (how much choice is given to the hearer).

Accordingly, I understand that the three terms “directives”, “requests” and “commands” are thus used in a haphazard way in the literature, the choice lying on the linguistic trend adopted. Framed within *SFL*, the present research refers to “regulatory” functions and will include “commands” as a specific subtype with its discourse-semantic properties (cf. Chapter 5).

2.2.2.2. The form-function relationship

“Directives to hearers can be expressed in a variety of syntactic forms. The social distribution of such forms shows them to occur systematically according to familiarity, rank, territorial location, difficulty of task, whether or not a duty is normally expected, whether or not non-compliance is likely” (Ervin-Tripp 1976:25).

The study of functions has always been related to the analysis of sentence types. Quirk *et al.* (1985:803) associate “statements” to declarative sentences, “questions” to interrogatives, “directives” to imperatives and “exclamations” to exclamatives and this direct association between syntax and discourse is the unmarked norm. Indeed, once the syntactic structures containing the illocutionary verbs appropriate to the five categories of speech acts had been examined, linguistic axioms were posited by the fathers of *SAT* (cf. Searle 1976:17). Directives, for instance, are said to respond to the structure “I verb you + you future volition verb (noun phrase) (adverb)”, or result from the use of deontic speech¹⁹ (cf. Forrester 1999). Research on speech acts examines the linguistic realisations so as to explore the speaker’s linguistic choices and aim at designing universal speech act behaviour.

The study of requests and directives in several languages (Ervin-Tripp 1976; Brown and Levinson 1987; Koike 1994; Rinnert and Kobayashi 1999; Hassal 2001) confirm “the universal richness available in a request’s modes of performance and the high communicative and social stakes involved in choice of a specific request’s form” (Blum-Kulka 1990:256). Those choices are however dependent on linguistic, pragmatic, social and cultural factors. Indeed, the versatility of the linguistic realisation of

¹⁹ Although deontic speech may be employed for many purposes, Forrester feels there is one central use: “to cause people to act or to refrain from acting in certain ways: I call this the directive use of deontic statements” (1999:426).

directives (requests) has been of wide interest to anthropologists and sociolinguists (Gumperz 1971; Hymes 1971; Labov 1972; Ervin-Tripp 1976) who have related the different variations in expression to different social and cultural features (e.g. the speaker, situation, affect, communicative intent, among others).

It may well be argued that three types of studies exist regarding the analysis of the production of directives. First, linguists have thoroughly examined why and under which circumstances requests differ in their linguistic realisation within the same language. Within this group of papers, Ervin-Tripp (1976:29) ranks directives according “to the relative power of speaker and addressee in conventional usage and the obviousness of the directive”: (need statements, imperatives, embedded imperatives, permission directives, question directives and hints). Her article discusses that the formal variants of directives are related to three dimensions: “*explicitness*”- which refers to the directness-indirectness degree-, “*discourse constraints*” and “*neutralization*” – which refers to the use of the same surface expression for more than one underlying meaning. In an ulterior study focusing on children’s comprehension of control acts, Ervin-Tripp (1982) designed a scheme of realisation for speech acts that classified them by verbal forms. Avoiding the term “indirect”, she divides the scheme into *explicit* forms (which mention what is wanted: imperatives, explicit questions and tags, explicit statements, permission questions and permission statements) and *implicit* forms (which do not: ellipsis, cries and gestures, implicit questions, conditions or consequences). The choice of the form is here said to be determined by both social and non social factors: attention or concern of the speaker, projected contextual factors, formal status marking, emotional tone of the speaker, abbreviation and mainly, activity.

Second, the study of the production of requests has constituted a core issue in cross-cultural linguistics since the 1980s. The comparison of the realisations across languages (American vs. Hebrew (Blum-Kulka, Danet and Gheron 1985), Polish vs. English (Wierzbicka 1991), Japanese vs. English (Rinnert and Kobayashi 1999), Spanish vs. English (Koike 1994; Márquez-Reiter 2000)) has helped to understand that some realisations do not have an equivalent in the other language, that speakers may resort to other linguistic patterns, and that the interpretation of the different realisations lies on what is socially acceptable in a given culture. As an illustration, the flat imperative, which in English could be interpreted as offensive, constitutes in Polish one

of the softer options when addressing a directive. This leads English speakers to avoid the imperative in many situations and resort to other formulae so as to maintain the distance between the interactants: “In Anglo-Saxon culture, distance is a positive cultural value, associated with respect for the autonomy of the individual. By contrast, in Polish culture it is associated with hostility and alienation” (Wierzbicka 1991:37).

Third, and more interesting to us, the analysis of the production of directives has become of paramount relevance today in interlanguage pragmatics. This type of studies enables linguists to examine the non-native speaker’s instantiation of directive speech in a second or foreign language and thus leads researchers to compare native speakers of English to Chinese ESL speakers (Banerjee and Carrell 1988), Spanish ESL speakers (Koike 1994; Le Pair 1996), Japanese ESL speakers (Rinnert and Kobayashi 1999; Matsumura 2001). Research on interlanguage pragmatics has shown that even advanced learners’ speech acts often deviate from the target language patterns and may not convey the illocution and politeness value successfully (Borkin and Reinhart 1978; Kasper 1981; Blum-Kulka 1982; Thomas 1983; Takahashi and Beebe 1987; Blum-Kulka *et al.* 1989).

The variation in learners’ linguistic performance is known as “variability” (Blum-Kulka 1989). Corder (1978) believes that linguistic variability along sociological and situational parameters constitutes no deviation from natural languages but rather one of their most prominent features. Interlanguage pragmatics understands that in order to carry out verbal actions, non-native speakers make systematic choices from their repertoire of realisations and linguistic means. The major concern is to examine whether the learners’ variability allows them to be efficient in communication. According to Blum-Kulka (1990), in order for learners to be L2 pragmatically efficient, (i) learners need to be able to have a *general pragmatic knowledge*, which consists of the ability to infer communicative intentions from indirect utterances, the ability to realise speech acts in non-explicit ways and a special sensitivity to contextual constraints. Furthermore, in the understanding that requests are organised within a “*request schema*” containing a pragmalinguistic component, (ii) learners need to be proficient enough so as to master the structures instantiating some functions. And finally, the learner should be aware of the “requesting style” shaped by the target culture.

Dalton-Puffer (2005), in turn, explores the realisation of directive speech acts in naturalistic classroom discourse as part of an overall characterization of content and language integrated classroom (hence, *CLIL*) for foreign language learning. In her analysis, Dalton-Puffer largely follows Trosborg's (1995) scheme to categorise English request strategies, ordered on a scale from most indirect (hints) to direct requests (elliptical phrases, imperatives, performatives...). Her findings confirm that the different strategies and the use of mitigation (e.g. syntactic and lexical downgraders and external modifiers) are shaped by the speakers' judgment of *power*, *distance* and *imposition*. Interestingly enough, the *CLIL* environment is shown to be a rich context where a great linguistic variety is found. Not only does her study examine the degree of directness in the performance of directives, but also postulates that different linguistic patterns emerge among requests whose goal varies: (information requests – 'instructional register' - being more direct vs. action requests – 'regulative register' - being less direct), an issue of great relevance to the present dissertation.

2.2.2.3. Directives, indirectness and politeness

In the last thirty years, the notions of indirectness and politeness have been at stake among linguists and pragmaticians (cf. Brown and Levinson 1987; Lakoff 1973; Leech 1983; Searle 1975; Blum-Kulka 1987; Kasper 1990; Trosborg 1995; Rinnert and Kobayashi 1999; Hassall 2001). Brown and Levinson (1987) established a connection between the two claiming that a higher degree of indirectness instantiates more politeness. Within their strategies to mitigate a *FTA*, the "bald on record", which uses no mitigating politeness strategies, is most direct and least polite.

As Thomas reports (1995:143), politeness or the regard for face constitutes one of the four major reasons that have been put forward for the universal use of indirectness. Indeed, the different approaches of politeness presented above have placed the equation "indirectness/politeness" at the centre of the discussion on the basis of their interpretation of Searle (1975) and Grice (1975). It is common to associate respect and tact with indirectness:

"By virtue of the fact that indirect verbal behaviour is ideally suited for mitigating conflict situations, modifying necessary attacks on the addressee's personal sphere and thereby insuring the mutual protection of face, the concern with indirectness combines the traditional and the pragmatic views of politeness" (Held 1992:139).

The Tact Maxim (Leech 1983) is one kind of politeness which applies to Searle's directives since those ask the hearer to perform some action. This action is evaluated in terms of what the speaker assumes to be its cost or benefit to speaker or hearer, and is to be placed on a cost-benefit scale. Actually, there is a correlation between the cost to hearer and the low degree of politeness and on the other hand, benefit to hearer and the high degree of politeness. To obtain a scale of politeness is to keep a propositional content and increase the degree of indirectness of an illocution: "indirect illocutions tend to be more polite because they increase the degree of optionality and because the more indirect an illocution is, the more diminished and tentative its force tends to be" (Leech 1983:108).

Indirectness represents for pragmatics the move to describe politeness between the conventional framework and the individual spontaneous language usage, i.e. between regulative and individual mechanisms. Leech's (1983) optionality scale and Brown and Levinson's (1987) four types of indirectness operationalise politeness as follows:

"It can be graded between a negative and a positive pole, and, seen in this way, it is a product of the utterance and the situation, which can be derived from a reduction in the level of conflict and the degree of success in communication" (Held 1992:140).

The politeness of indirectness is hence related to basic aspects of interaction such as the mutual assumption of the unspoken, contextual binding, and the dependence on the partner's interaction (Held 1992:141). More specifically, indirectness may be understood to interact with politeness in that it (i) lowers the obligations of both partners; (ii) becomes a technique for maintaining face; (iii) gives rise to continuity in conversation and cooperation.

Brown and Levinson have given indirectness a central role in politeness models and more specifically in negative politeness (Brown and Levinson 1987; Márquez-Reiter 2000). Illocutionary functions can in fact be classified into four different types according to how they relate to the social goal of establishing and maintaining comity: (i) competitive, (ii) convivial, (iii) collaborative, and (iv) conflictive (Leech 1983). Competitive goals are those which tend to be discourteous as the speaker aims at getting something from the hearer (e.g. money, an action...). Directives (asking, demanding, ordering) belong to this group in that the illocutionary goal competes with the social

goal: “where the illocutionary function is competitive, the politeness is of a negative character and its purpose is to reduce the discord implicit in the competition between what *s* wants to achieve and what is ‘good manners’”(Leech 1983:105).

In the light of what has been stated above, Held (1992) mentions the case of requests since they evidence the way indirectness operates by measuring the frequency of relationships between utterance conventions typical for request acts and the parameters of power, distance and imposition. Likewise, Márquez-Reiter (2000) considers requests are a good example of speech acts which imply the addressee’s territory, thus limiting his/her freedom of action and threatening his/her negative face. Since within the Anglo-Saxon tradition, direct requests are *FTA* (Brown and Levinson 1987) and are considered to be impolite (Leech 1983), indirect requests have become a more polite way to address alter as they increase optionality and decrease the force of the illocution: “the more imposing, face-threatening the act, the higher in number (the more indirect) will be the strategy chosen by the speaker” (Brown and Levinson in Márquez-Reiter 2000:41). Consequently, although politeness is not the sole motivation of indirectness, indirectness represents one of the many strategies to avoid *FTA*.

It should be borne in mind, though, that indirectness has been related to politeness as the great amount of data has been compiled in English where indirect requests appear as conventionalised forms for polite requests (but that the same need not follow in other languages)²⁰. What arises from the study of requests, politeness and indirectness is the inextricable relationship between the form and function of requests:

“While it is true to say that every language provides its speakers with a variety of grammatical possibilities in order to mitigate the impact of a ‘face’ threat, it is also the case that the choice of those grammatical possibilities might also indicate intimacy.” (Márquez-Reiter 2000:36).

Blum-Kulka (1987) re-examines the notions of indirectness and politeness applied to requests and argues that, contrary to other theories of politeness, the two notions do not represent parallel dimensions: “indirectness does not necessarily imply politeness” (1987:131). Indeed, the main result seems to be that politeness is also considered to be linked to the pragmatic clarity of the message, something which is definitely conveyed

²⁰ In Spanish for instance, the use of negation in requests is not demanding but is a conventionalized formula (Koike 1994) and direct requests materialised in imperatives are not always seen as a *FTA* but rather as a sign of intimacy and closeness (Márquez-Reiter 2000).

by conventionally indirect utterances but that cannot be conveyed by “off-record” indirect utterances.

In Held’s (1992) words, “the question as to which situational variables determine particular performance data *qua* indirectness conventions has not even been adequately answered for request and command situations” (Held 1992:142), a task the present thesis will undertake in the analysis of EFL teacher talk.

2.2.2.4. Revisiting the notion “Indirect Speech Acts” within interlanguage pragmatics

Speech Act Theory has aroused wide interest among psychologists (e.g. Bruner 1975; Bates 1976), anthropologists, philosophers (Austin 1962; Searle 1969) and linguists. Linguists have considered this theory in relation to syntax, semantics and language learning. However, despite being the most influential classification of speech acts, this has not been free from criticism.

The idea that in speaking people perform different kinds of acts, and that the semantic and/or syntactic structure of the utterance may depend on the kind of act being performed has been presented in the literature as a *new* model of speech in linguistics developed in the 1950s. Wierzbicka (1999) claims, interestingly, that this was a reinvention of a mode of analysis developed many centuries earlier, in the twelfth and thirteenth century by medieval predecessors Peter Abelard and Roger Bacon (cf. Nuchelmans 1973).

The topic of *indirect speech* acts raises a number of important methodological issues for *Speech Act Theory*. *SAT* is a theory of the relation between two very different levels of analysis: mood and modality and illocutionary acts. Holdcroft (1994:350) feels the theory needs a systematic description of how both levels are connected and suggests that three constraints should be borne in mind:

- (i) The account an utterance’s force should not be exhausted by one of its syntax and semantics.
- (ii) The theory must explain the apparently systematic connections there are between utterances and the forces they have.
- (iii) If *SAT* is a distinct theory, the explanations given have to be reasonably specific. If they are not, then the danger of an unsystematic appeal to a heterogeneous set of considerations is evident (Holdcroft 1994:351).

To Holdcroft's mind, Austin (1962) tries to satisfy the second point by explaining the illocutionary force but fouls the other two constraints. Austin presents performatives as an answer to the second issue, i.e. that an utterance contains elements whose role is to signal what force it has. However, while this description applies the formulaic examples of performatives, his account seems to overgeneralise as it is "inapplicable to the utterances involved in ordinary informal communicative situations—that is, the vast majority" (*ibid.*). As for Searle (1969), his analysis of illocutionary acts does not fulfill the constraints mentioned above, either. Searle (1969:66) offers a set of constitutive rules which an act must satisfy to be of a given type: propositional content, preparatory conditions, sincerity conditions and essential conditions. Additionally, Searle argues that in performing an illocutionary act *x*, an utterance must contain the Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (hereafter, *IFID*). While apparently seeming "a very elegant answer" to the second constraint, his theory is not free from criticism: "Searle's theory is difficult to evaluate because it largely fails to identify the linguistic items which function as *IFIDs*, but it is arguably deficient because of the way in which it neglects contextual factors which, though not semantic, nevertheless are partial determinants of force" (Holdcroft 1994:354). A similar remark is met in Geis's (1998) work:

"Though anyone who works in pragmatics must take at least the ritual stance that context plays a critical role in utterance interpretation, it is remarkable the degree to which pragmatic analyses either ignore or, at least, fail fully to exploit context. [...] Searle provided no systematic treatment of context nor said precisely what this role is" (Geis 1998:21).

Indirect acts, in turn, i.e. those utterances whereby a speaker performs one act by means of performing another, have been criticised by many as "confusing and even unintelligible" (Leech 1983:39) or as "a problem" (Holdcroft 1994:356) in that they constitute numerous counter-examples to the rule. Instead, alternative proposals have been formulated. Holdcroft suggests that the "inferential considerations which Searle involves to account for the acts which he classes as indirect, should apply equally to the ones he calls direct" (1994:361) since in both cases identification involves inferences within an assumed context. To him, the role of the context is crucial as it constitutes a requisite without which an utterance cannot have a force at all.

Other linguists' criticisms question *indirect* acts (Wierzbicka 1991; Bertolet 1994) and redefine them (Hornsby 1994). Bertolet (1994:335) does not put in doubt the

very existence of indirect acts but the explanation that the different theories of indirect speech acts have provided in terms of (i) the utterance actually having two illocutionary forces; and (ii) the speaker actually performing two illocutionary acts. Rather ironically, Bertolet questions such a double-illocutionary force by resorting to Grice's *Occam's Razor* (1975:47), namely that senses are not to be multiplied beyond necessity.

“A main vice of the view that sentences standardly used indirectly have meanings additional to their literal ones (the ambiguity thesis) is, according to both Searle and Bach and Harnish, that it multiplies meanings beyond necessity. But precisely what vice is this? We are usually told that it offends against *Occam's Razor*” (Bertolet 1994:337).

Actually, Geis's (1998:21) critique of *SAT* acknowledges three difficulties with the thesis that individual utterances have primary illocutionary force in addition to literal force: (i) it fails to appreciate the critical contribution of context to the illocutionary force of utterances; (ii) it is conceptually flawed in that it involves the reification of actions; (iii) it is difficult to apply speech act theory to multi-turn conversational sequences²¹.

In addition to those criticisms, some works reflect a concern for the cross-cultural differences inherent to indirect acts (cf. Kasper 1989; Wierzbicka 1991; 1999):

“Indirectness is universal in the sense that it occurs to some degree in all (natural) languages, but that does not mean that we always employ indirectness or that we all employ indirectness in the same way. Individuals and cultures vary widely in how, when and why they use an indirect speech act in preference to a direct one” (Thomas 1995:124).

Indirectness across languages and cultures has been explored widely. Within the *Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realisation Project*, Kasper (1989) examined requests in groups of Danish, German and English native and non-native speakers. So as to analyse the requests, it is assumed that the requestive force can be modified on three major dimensions: (i) by choosing a particular directness level, (ii) by modifying the request internally through the addition of mitigating or aggravating modality markers, (iii) by modifying the request externally by means of supportive moves introductory or subsequent to very request. Her results evidence that non-native speakers prefer a more transparent communicative style. This is manifested in a lower use of indirect requests and a higher use of verbosity through supportive moves.

²¹ As Schegloff (1988:61) puts it: “what a rudimentary speech act theoretic analysis misses, and I suspect a sophisticated one will miss as well, is that parties to real conversations are always talking in some sequential context”.

Furthermore, Wierzbicka (1999:115) wonders to what extent listeners as well as linguists can identify the illocutionary force of an utterance: “illocutionary forces are outside the province of linguistics; they are a concern of pragmatics, not of syntax or semantics”. Her work questions previous analyses and suggests an alternative approach to the illocutionary force of speech acts. First, the range of devices that convey well-defined illocutionary forces are largely language specific and thus their force cannot be calculated on the basis of any universal pragmatic maxims as seen above. She feels the terms “directness” and “indirectness” should be abandoned unless the whole distinction is re-defined and examined cross-linguistically.

Wierzbicka (1999) discusses the concept of “indirectness” comparing Hebrew *vs.* American English; Japanese *vs.* English and Greek *vs.* American English. To her, intercultural understanding lies on leaving culture-specific, complex and obscure concepts such as “directness”, “closeness”, “self-assertion” or “solidarity”. In cross-cultural analyses, scales of directness are nothing but misleading and confusing, since the labels “direct/indirectness” are the same across languages but their referents often differ, which results in comparing two different realities, e.g. the Greeks are said to be indirect but “the so-called Greek indirectness applies to phenomena quite different from the use of *wh*-imperatives” (Wierzbicka 1991:97), which thus obscures the comparison of ‘Greek indirectness’ *vs.* ‘American directness’. What is understood as indirectness in Western cultures is perceived rather differently in Javanese for instance: indirectness refers to the cultural norm of dissimulation, pretence and concealment.

Second, the aim of “squeezing every conceivable utterance into a pigeon hole created by a speech act verb” (Wierzbicka 1999:164) should be replaced by an analysis where the illocutionary force of each utterance is broken into individual components: “language provides numerous unmistakable illocutionary clues, which enable the listeners and the linguists to identify illocutionary forces with considerable precision” (*ibid.*). Instead of adopting concepts that are culture-dependent, linguists should rely on lexical universals such as “want”, “think”, “know” instead (Wierzbicka 1991:129) and accept that for intercultural understanding,

“More than mere contact is essential. People must become capable of empathy, of being able to project themselves into the assumptive world, the cultural unconscious, of an alien culture. Yet this is a formidable task unless there are ways to introduce people to the assumptive world of others” (Barnlund 1975:140).

And third, the study of illocutionary forces is to be done from different complementary points of view, not only from a purely linguistic or a sociological one.

Once this section has reviewed speech acts in the classroom, has focused on directives and explored their form-function relationship, I believe it is necessary to consider the role of instruction in L2 pragmatics²².

2.2.3. The teachability of pragmatics

2.2.3.1. Different options in language teaching

Interventional studies have focused on the *instruction* of pragmatic learning. Over the last two decades, studies in second and foreign language acquisition have revealed that instruction makes a difference (Long 1991; Long 1996; Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991; Ortega 2000). While some compared the effectiveness of different approaches (Wildner-Bassett 1984; 1986), others considered explicit vs. implicit teaching (House and Kasper 1981; House 1996; Tateyama, Kasper, Mui, Tay and Thananart 1997) and empirically validated that instruction positively affects acquisition and enhances pragmatic competence when compared to exposure:

“Sustained focused input, both pragmatic and metapragmatic, collaborative practice activities, and metapragmatic reflection appear to provide learners with the input and practice they need for developing most aspects of their pragmatic abilities. Support for this contention comes from interventional studies that provide pragmatic instruction.” (Kasper 2001:57).

Although a wide range of papers has been produced to provide a theoretical framework of pragmatics learning (considering input, output and feedback, cf. Alcón 2000b and 2001), the present literature will only focus on the relevance of “input” since that is the component which has been thoroughly explored in my work.

Bardovi-Harlig (1999) claims that the investigation of the development of the pragmatic system is to be integrated with the analysis of the interlanguage grammatical system, an issue she later tackles in Bardovi-Harlig (2003). Although Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985), Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1990) acknowledged that high levels

²² The reader should be reminded that one of the objectives of the present thesis is to analyse the linguistic realisation of regulatory functions in EFL teacher talk so as to examine how these are efficiently produced in order to teach potential future teachers of English.

of grammatical competence do not guarantee equivalently high levels of pragmatic competence, Bardovi-Harlig still wonders whether interlanguage grammatical competence is a necessary condition to develop pragmatic competence: “asked another way, is pragmatic competence built on a platform of grammatical competence?” (Bardovi-Harlig 1999:686). This question has been empirically validated by Olshtain and Cohen (1989), Wildner-Bassett (1994) and Maeschiba, Yoshinaga, Kasper and Ross (1996), Salsbury (2000), Bardovi-Harlig (2003) who studied how L2 learners avoided some speech acts because they were lacking the linguistic competence in their second language or were able to express some acts after the acquisition of linguistic devices (e.g. modality, the future...).

Evidence that pragmatic development cannot proceed independently of grammatical development is acknowledged in all those papers. In other words, the linguistic competence and grammatical development are understood as “facilitative” of pragmatic competence. Consequently, their work is a keystone to the present study in that they call for the need to make the link between pragmatics and the interlanguage system: “with very few exceptions, mention of grammatical competence is very brief and [merely] appears in the discussion section as a possible interpretation of results” (Bardovi-Harlig 1999:686).

A deep insight into the literature reveals that the effectiveness of meaning-focused communicative language teaching should require systematic instruction to draw second and foreign language learners’ attention to linguistic forms to develop their communicative competence (Lightbown and Spada 1990; Gass 1991; Doughty and Williams 1998; Long and Robinson 1998; Muranoi 2000). Indeed, the form-function relationship acknowledged above constitutes a controversial question in the L2 classroom as it raises the issue of how to include grammar in L2 instruction. Three main options in language teaching have prevailed in the literature (cf. Long and Robinson 1998, for a review): (i) focus on forms; (ii) focus on meaning and (iii) focus on form.

The “*Focus on FormS*” approach considers the L2 should be broken down into words, structures, notions and functions and taught separately so that the learner is gradually exposed to a limited amount of language and learning results from the accumulation of the different components. This approach includes methods such as

Grammar Translation, Audiolingual Method, the Silent Way and Total Physical Response among others, where repetition of models, transformation exercises and error correction are the common classroom practices. However, as the literature shows, “progress is not necessarily unidirectional” (Long and Robinson 1998:17) and the assumption that the mastery of grammatical items is sequential and categorical is anything but realistic. Indeed, the morphosyntactic development involves long periods of form-function mapping, lexical acquisition is not categorical but shows developmental patterns, etc... Rutherford and Sharwood-Smith (1985) and Ellis (1991) feel that such caveats can be palliated through the “*consciousness-raising*” attempt or “input enhancement” (Sharwood-Smith 1993) whereby the learner is made aware of new target language items by explicitly highlighting them in the input.

“A growing sense that something was wrong, recognition that traditional synthetic syllabi and teaching procedures were not working as they were supposed to, and familiarity with the findings of studies of instructed interlanguage development have, over the years, lead a small minority of experienced teachers and syllabus designers, and several SLA theorists, to advocate abandonment of a focus on formS in the L2 classroom in favor of an equally single-minded ‘focus on meaning’” (Long and Robinson 1998:18).

“*Focus on Meaning*”, in turn, understands that mere exposure to comprehensible input is sufficient for successful second or foreign language acquisition, in the understanding that the stages in language learning echo those of first language acquisition, advocating thus for nonintervention (Newmark 1971; Allwright 1976; Krashen and Terrell 1983; Prahbu 1987). Language is not any longer the object of study to dissect and present in chunks but as the means of communication to be exposed to and experience. However, the mere exposure to a spoken/written text is not sufficient for a learner. Although Krashen’s (1985) “input hypothesis” specifies that input has to be slightly higher than the learner’s current level (*i +1* level), input needs to be “comprehensible” to the learner in order for acquisition to happen. To make input comprehensible, the input provider (the teacher) should carry out natural “modifications” resulting from meaning negotiation (Lightbown 1983; Pica 1984; Pienemann 1989) rather than being artificial linguistic “simplification”²³. However, this approach suffers from several problems. If L2 is understood as the first language, older learners’ capacity will be limited (Newport 1990) and will never reach nativelike standards although they can become fluent (Long 1997). As Long and Robinson

²³ As it will be explained in chapter 3, Van Patten (2000) understands there are three different types of input that can be presented to the learner: simplified (Hatch 1983), modified and enhanced input.

(1998:21) claim “although learning much of an L2 through experiencing its use is possible, it is inefficient” (cf. Ellis 1994a).

Last but not least, “*Focus on Form*” (Long 1988a; 1991; Long and Crookes 1992; Doughty and Williams 1998) results from the “Interaction Hypothesis” (Long 1981b; 1996) whereby language development happens through interaction between learners and other speakers, when negotiation for meaning takes place (Yano, Long and Ross 1994). Among the various benefits found in negotiation work, it can be highlighted that it increases input comprehensibility, provides information about the L2 form-function relationships, elicits corrective reformulations and induces *noticing* of items (cf. Pica 1994; Long 1996; Pica, Lincoln Porter, Paninos and Linnell 1996). “Focus on form” consists of an occasional shift of attention to the linguistic structure (language code) triggered by a particular comprehension or production problem: “Focus on form refers to how focal attention resources are allocated” (Long and Robinson 1998:23). Once attention is allocated, *noticing* occurs, that is, registering and storing linguistic material in the memory. Common classroom practices within this approach include problem-solving tasks where the teacher can give implicit negative feedback (Ortega and Long 1997), which facilitates use of recasting, through which teachers can provide focus on form without distracting the learner’s focus on meaning:

“‘Focus on form’ *entails* a focus on formal elements of language, whereas ‘Focus on formS’ is *limited* to such a focus and ‘Focus on meaning’ *excludes* it. Most important, it should be kept in mind that the fundamental assumption of ‘focus on form’ instruction is that meaning and use must already be evident to the learner at the time that attention is drawn to the linguistic apparatus needed to get the meaning across” (Doughty and Williams 1998:4).

Long and Robinson (1998) review a series of experimental studies comparing *implicit* vs. *explicit* instruction. While some authors acknowledge the benefits of implicit learning, explicit “focus on form” instruction leads to significantly greater short-term learning than implicit learning does (Doughty 1991; DeKeyser 1995; Robinson 1996; DeKeyser 1998). Ellis (1993) demonstrated the insufficiency of input enhancement (term coined by Sharwood Smith 1993) and called for a combination of rule knowledge and exposure to examples, which would contribute to successful performance. A common advantage attributed to language instruction is learner *noticing*. Tomlin and Villa (1994) consider noticing is detecting. However, according to

Schmidt (1990), detection may not mean “awareness”, which is the necessary component to ensure registering in short-term and long-term memory (Robinson 1995).

Indeed, explicit form-focused instruction within communicative language teaching is beneficial in that it leads to second or foreign language development as learners improve their linguistic production while being involved in negotiated interaction. A wide amount of studies empirically demonstrate that interactional modifications via recasts, requests for repetition and clarification requests contribute to an increase in the production of targeted syntactic forms (cf. Doughty 1994; Doughty and Varela 1998; Long, Inagaki and Ortega 1998; Mackey and Philp 1998).

More recently, within communicative instructional techniques, it is possible to find “interaction enhancement” (Muronai 2000:624), whereby interaction is enhanced by means of feedback provided by the teacher. Interaction enhancement aims at the development of the learner’s interlanguage system by providing enhanced interactional modifications (repetition requests and recasts) that respond to the well-formedness of target forms during problem solving tasks. Muronai’s study investigates whether interaction enhancement affects EFL learner’s restructuring of their interlanguage article system and confirms that “output enhancement, input enhancement, problem solving tasks and explicit grammar instruction can be beneficial for guiding EFL learners to restructure their interlanguage systems” (2000:663) in that brief and focused explicit grammar instruction facilitates form-function connections.

2.2.3.2. Pragmatic competence: a distinct skill to teach

Pragmatic competence has been acknowledged as one of the components of communicative competence in the sense of Hymes (1972; 1974), Canale (1980) and Canale and Swain (1980) (cf. Bachman 1990; Koike 1996; Muñoz 2000; Ortega 2000; Ohno 2002) and is part of the interlanguage system in that it is subject to ongoing modifications (cf. Selinker 1972). Pragmatic competence has therefore been studied both in relation to the other components (pragmatic and linguistic, cf. Trosborg 1987; Ellis 1992a; 1992b) and independently. Research considering the relationship between the linguistic and pragmatic competence has shown that a high linguistic competence does not entail or suffice to acquire pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence

(cf. Olshtain and Blum-Kulka 1985; Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford 1990, Takahashi 1996). It is indeed empirically ascertained that a considerable gap exists between the learner's linguistic and pragmatic competence. While some studies have interpreted this gap as the need to reconsider the role of grammar in the development of L2 pragmatics (Olshtain and Cohen 1989; House 1996; Bardovi-Harlig 1999; 2003), others point at the urgency of carrying out research on ways in which pragmatic competence develops.

Safont-Jordá (2003) reports two major studies: on the one hand, Bialystock (1993) claims that the lack of pragmatic competence at high proficiency levels may be due to the fact that adult learners possess pragmatic knowledge but still need to acquire the use of that knowledge. On the other hand, Kasper (1997) mentions two crucial ingredients for pragmatic development to take place: immersion in the target language culture²⁴ and instruction in pragmatic aspects of the target language. It is therefore reasonable to support, as Safont-Jordá (2003:212) claims that “control over attention to pragmatic knowledge may be achieved by means of instruction”.

Attention is paid to the input provided by textbooks and instructional materials by those studies which consider that authentic instances of speech acts or pragmatic phenomena must be available to second or foreign language learner (Boxer and Pickering 1995; Bardovi-Harlig 1996). There is a wide concern for the presence of input and its salience: “the classroom is a place where learners can encounter pragmatically appropriate input whose salience is enhanced through the instructional process” (Bardovi-Harlig 2003:40). Research also suggests that raising awareness of pragmatic functions precedes production, which encourages teachers to explicitly highlight form-function associations (Koike 1996; Takahashi 1996).

Research on Interlanguage Pragmatics instructions has focused on the comprehension and ulterior production of pragmatic phenomena such as conversational implicature (Bouton 1994; Kubota 1995), discourse markers (Wildner-Bassett 1994) or some specific speech acts: e.g. apologising (Olshtain and Cohen 1990) or complimenting (Billmyer 1990). A common claim to all of them is the positive effect of instruction on learner's use of the different pragmatic aspects. Again, it should be

²⁴ For the teaching of speech acts as part of teaching culture, see Ishihara (2002) and Ishihara (2003).

supported that explicit instruction (not only of form as it has seen above, but of pragmatics) is better than implicit instruction (cf. Norris and Ortega 2000). Safont-Jordá (2003:213) mentions among the advantages of explicit instruction (i) awareness raising, i.e. description, explanation and discussion of pragmatic items and (ii) production tasks such as role-play and simulation activities.

I agree with Safont-Jordá on the fact that the foreign language learning setting deserves more investigation as “many speech communities around the world learn languages that are not spoken by their members [...] foreign language learners of English lack input opportunities, which is paramount for their language learning development and it may also affect pragmatic development” (2003:213). In this sense, investigation should cover the instruction of some pragmatic aspects of the second or foreign language and ensure sufficient practice (cf. Kasper 1997; Rose 2000). The literature confirms that instruction of pragmatic aspects enhances the learner’s pragmatic competence: mitigating devices in the case of Cohen and Olshtain (1993) and Safont-Jordá (2003), fluency in House (1996), routines in Tateyama *et al.* (1997), and politeness and directness in Takahashi (2001).

To examine the effect of instruction on the use of requests modification devices in the EFL classroom, Safont-Jordá (2003) followed Trosborg’s (1995:204) typology, whereby direct utterances are perceived as less polite while indirect utterances are more polite. Modification can indeed be manifested through negative or positive politeness (Hassall 2001). Following Brown and Levinson’s (1987) model, Hassall (2001:265) considers that a negative element conveys a certain degree of “polite pessimism” about the likelihood of the request being granted whereas a kinship term of address conveys some degree of intimacy, both contributing to convey a directive in a less threatening way.

Along with these studies, Dalton-Puffer (2005:1289), concludes that (i) in Austrian *CLIL* classrooms students receive a considerable amount of indirect and modified requests, containing therefore numerous linguistic models for making ‘polite requests’ in English and (ii) that the degree of indirectness varies according to the goal requested: requests for information are more direct than those requesting goods and

services. Falsgraf and Majors (1995), Kasper (2001) and Nikula (2002), among others, claim that in the classroom, there is a high level of directness which reflects both the different status between student-teacher but also characterises the relationship between teacher and young students as close and informal.

Common to all those studies is the concern that, as Trosborg (1995:428) claims, those modifications contributing to convey a more indirect act are of great difficulty to EFL learners, which calls for instruction of different pragmatic aspects (cf. Hassall 2001; Safont-Jordá 2003). It would be interesting to highlight that most studies have focused on teaching learners but, to my knowledge, very little research has concentrated on instruction aimed at ESL/EFL teachers. I consider that it is essential to analyse the use (and misuse) of those pragmatic features in ESL/EFL teachers' production so as to teach them the appropriate use and the meaning potential of particular linguistic forms for them to become an optimum input to future ESL/EFL speakers.

In summary, interlanguage pragmatics seeks for the description and understanding of the learner's development of pragmatic knowledge. Kasper (1989:42) mentions the most important research tasks in interlanguage pragmatics:

- (i) learn new speech act categories
- (ii) learning new contextual and co-textual distribution of speech acts
- (iii) learning new procedures and means for speech act realisation (involving both the grammatical, lexical and prosodic structures and the frozen routines).
- (iv) learning how these realisation procedures and means are contextually and co-textually distributed.

The aforementioned issues call for studies which analyse speech acts, describe their contextual distribution and explore their linguistic realisation, a challenge the present thesis undertakes. In the understanding that the learning process can be investigated once the input and teaching provided to the learner have been deeply examined, the current dissertation focuses on EFL teachers' regulatory talk, that is, the discourse learners are exposed to.

**(EFL) CLASSROOM RESEARCH AND
DISCOURSE ANALYSIS**

“To develop the knowledge of how to improve educational practices, we of course need a critical understanding of society and a fundamental appreciation of each individual’s personal needs and awarenesses. We also can discover a considerable amount more about how learners acquire the knowledge and skills of advanced language abilities within an instructional setting. Classroom research can enhance our understanding then of how to put into action the most effective, yet most sensitive way of improving learners’ second language ability so that they can exit from their more closed educational environment and contribute as multilingual citizens in our highly complex and demanding world” (Chaudron 2000:32).

CHAPTER 3: (EFL) CLASSROOM RESEARCH AND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

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3. (EFL) CLASSROOM RESEARCH AND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Research on teaching and learning has tried to relate learning to different aspects of teacher and student behaviour in the classroom (participation in classroom, personality, cognitive, individual and social factors...). Ultimately, classroom research has tried to empirically identify those characteristics which lead to efficient learning in the instructional setting. Although many environmental and programmatic factors may well influence learning, research on teachers, learners and their interaction is the one reviewed in this chapter (cf. Chaudron 1988 for a review).

Among the overriding issues in second language research, the literature evidences a growing interest in (i) the value of second language instruction (Chaudron 1988; Long and Robinson 1998; Doughty and Williams 1998; Chaudron 2000); (ii) the nature of instruction (Bialystock 1982; Chaudron 1983b; Davies, Cripser and Howatt 1984, Pienemann 1985) and (iii) the influence of interaction in the second language²⁵ classroom (Long 1980; 1981a; 1983b; Ellis 1984; Pica and Long 1986). Particularly relevant for the present dissertation is the attention devoted to interactive features of classroom behaviour in the literature. Research on *Classroom Discourse Analysis* (cf. Sinclair and Coulthard 1975; Coulthard and Brazil 1992) embraces the examination of teacher-learners' interaction, turn-taking, negotiation of meaning and feedback, and becomes today the cornerstone of the analysis of teacher talk.

What constitutes a common trait to the issues mentioned above is that their interest on L2 teaching and learning draws the research questions and methodology from first language research (hence, L1). Indeed, the field of *Second Language Acquisition* (hereafter, *SLA*) has been influenced by other areas of investigation such as child language acquisition, linguistics and psychology, among others (Gass 1993a:95).

“Second Language Acquisition is the study of how second languages are learned. As such, it impacts on and draws from many areas of study, among them, linguistics, psychology, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, conversational analysis, and education, to name a few.” (Gass 1993b:102).

Such interdisciplinarity can be appreciated throughout this chapter since it approaches classroom discourse analysis and research in relation to first, second and foreign language acquisition. First, this chapter appraises the relevance of input in natural

²⁵ Hereafter, L2.

contexts and depicts *Child Directed Speech* (at lexicogrammatical, phonological and discursive levels). Second, it reviews the role *SLA* theories have assigned to input in instructional settings (the language classroom) by considering different *SLA* hypotheses (frequency hypothesis, input hypothesis, interaction hypothesis) and various learning contexts (communicative classroom, ESL classroom, EFL classroom). And third, attention is paid to research in the EFL classroom through the presentation of different systems of classroom discourse analysis (the I-R-F pattern and other functional systems).

3.1. Input in language acquisition

Second and foreign language acquisition (hereafter, *SLA* and *FLA*, respectively) have always been related to L1 acquisition as learners learn their second or foreign language once they have acquired their mother tongue. Studies in the field of *SLA* have normally followed the steps of L1 acquisition groundwork (e.g. methodology and issues considered). As Ellis claims, “it is not surprising that a key issue has been the extent to which *SLA* and L1 acquisition are similar or different processes” (Ellis 1986:5). Among other topics, first language transfer (its interferences with L2 knowledge (cf. Lado 1964)) and the attempt to establish the differences between the L1 and the second language (hence, L2) so as to predict the learner’s possible errors (cf. *Contrastive Analysis* in Dulay and Burt 1973; 1974a) have been relevant to *SLA* research in the sixties.

More specifically, the role of input (either as exposure in natural setting or in formal instruction) has been a central issue in *SLA* theory as “it is self-evident that *SLA* can take place only when the learner has access to L2 input” (Ellis 1986:12). In the fifties, behaviourist theories of *SLA* highlighted the relevance of input in habit formation through practice and reinforcement. Later on, Chomsky’s mentalist view of language questioned the link between the observed input and the learner’s output and regards input as a trigger to activate the ‘language acquisition device’ (Ellis 1986:12). Interactionists, in turn, felt there is a link between external (input) and internal factors (learner’s innate mechanisms) which together with the collaboration between the learner’s efforts and his interlocutors guarantee language acquisition. More recently, emphasis is being given to (i) examine the effects of native teacher’s talk addressed to

L2 learners, (ii) analyse the role of mere exposure vs. instruction, and (iii) agree on what is an optimal input (graded, selected).

3.1.1. Child-Directed Speech and L1 acquisition

“The study of Child-Directed Speech remains important for a number of reasons: firstly, it provides information about the language which the child is actually hearing; secondly, it allows us to investigate the way in which this input interacts with the child’s own language-learning mechanisms; and finally, such effects as can be demonstrated serve to constrain hypotheses about the way in which children manage to construct a language of their own from the input they receive” (Pine 1994:16).

In the mid seventies, the interest in the relevance of input for children’s language learning resulted in a wide amount of research on “Baby Talk”. A series of conferences between 1971 and 1972 reunited linguists (C. Ferguson, J. Sachs, C. Snow) who studied the speech addressed to children from a descriptive perspective and sowed the seeds of “Baby Talk” as a different *register*. Simultaneously, other authors were examining language acquisition, focusing on the cognitive and linguistic development in the child, unexplained by the universal grammar, and who considered input as crucial (S. Ervin-Tripp, J. Phillips). Their different orientation and perspective (descriptive, on the one end, vs. analytic and explanatory, on the other) were however motivated by a common interest in the relationship between the adult and child’s language (cf. Snow 1994, for a review). Both trends, different but compatible, were combined to gain a deeper insight upon the child’s linguistic development through (i) the description and analysis of the adult’s distinctive speech and (ii) the subsequent comparison of adults’ with children’s productions as a bi-directional tuning process where both speeches mould each other.

Our concern regarding the analysis of EFL teacher talk, leads this section to first concentrate on the exploration of the linguistic characteristics of *Child-Directed Speech* in general as well as hint at its developmental and interactional consequences on the child, and then focus on the analysis of *Teacher talk* in a specific context of interaction: the EFL classroom.

3.1.1.1.A preferred discourse: from acoustic to syntactic characteristics

Terms such as “Baby Talk” (Ferguson 1964; Snow and Ferguson 1977), “Motherese”, “Parentese” (Fernald 1985; 1989) or “Child-Directed Speech” (Gallaway and Richards 1994) have, among others, historically referred to the adult’s modified

speech when speaking to/with infants and young children. The present study will however adopt the latest in that it comprises any discourse (independently of the sex or parental relationship) addressed to children.

Either as a strategy to efficiently communicate with the child or as a response to the child's needs to comprehend speech, *Child-Directed Speech* (hereafter, *CDS*) has empirically been shown to stand as the preferred discourse by infants and children (Fernald and Kuhl 1987; Cooper, Abraham, Berman and Staska 1997). Among its possible developmental functions progressively displayed during the first years of the child's life, *CDS* seems to play a role in (i) the regulation of arousal and attention in infants, (ii) infants' and children's learning to interpret emotional signals from others and (iii) highlighting the linguistic structure in caretakers' speech, making certain language-relevant events more apparent to the infant (Cooper *et al.* 1997:477). The aforementioned functions are achieved by modifying the structure of the message on different levels, i.e. from acoustics to syntax.

Acoustic and Prosodic characteristics

At the phonological level, *Child-Directed Speech* has mainly been characterised by a specific pitch contour (higher pitch and wider pitch range), intensity modulation, temporal patterning (a slower rate of speech) and exaggerated prosodic contours (cf. Ferguson 1964; Cross 1977; Garnica 1977). The prosodic and acoustic aspects of *CDS*²⁶ have been associated to the simplifying, clarifying and expressive/affective functions (Ferguson 1977) which can account for *CDS* being the child's preferred discourse.

On the one hand, the first two functions, namely simplifying and clarifying, are motivated by "the desire to be understood and, possibly, to teach" (Brown 1977:4) and mainly achieved by the segmental changes. Auditory preference studies (Fernald 1985; Cooper *et al.* 1997) found that 4 month-old infants chose to listen to infant-directed speech than to adult-directed speech, a preference that derived from perceptual (acoustic) variables. The analysis of the major acoustic correlates of intonation and stress, namely fundamental frequency (correlate of pitch), amplitude (correlate of loudness) and duration (related to rhythm) (Fry 1954; 1979) have been acknowledged to

²⁶ Cruttenden (1994:136) considers Baby Talk is made of two components: Baby Talk Phonetics and Baby Talk Prosodics, distinguishing the segmental and suprasegmental features of the register.

achieve an informational (Cooper, Eady and Mueller 1985; Nootboom and Kruyt 1987) and interactional (Stern, Spieker, Barnett and McKain 1983; Nootboom 1985; Mochizuki-Sudo 1991) function in communication.

Studies on *CDS* focus on how those acoustic features contribute to create a distinct register and, in so doing, constitute a key to the child's discourse comprehension. First, the salience of final syllables and stress (acoustically longer, louder and with a higher pitch) of adults' speech signal the word boundaries. This helps the child break down phrases into words and identify the phonetic segments within the word (cf. Stoel-Gammon 1984; Albin and Echols 1996). Further, the emphasis on terminal pitch changes provides the infant/child a cue that signals the end of the utterance: "the exaggeration of transitional pitch changes may help the infant distinguish that a new utterance has begun and is a different event" (Stern *et al.* 1983:14), which reinforces and clarifies the discourse boundaries.

Second, the duration of the syllable has been studied in relation to the content vs. function words: Swanson, Leonard and Gandour (1992) empirically showed that the duration in content words was longer than in function words and that this contributes to the telegraphic nature of young English speaking children's speech as well as could constitute a cue in the acquisition of predicate argument structure. And third, fundamental frequency stands as the preferred pattern within motherese speech. Fernald and Kuhl (1987) analysed the major acoustic correlates of intonation by eliminating the lexical content from Motherese speech and isolated fundamental frequency, amplitude and duration. The three experiments (each focusing on a single variable) did reveal that four-month-old infants showed a significant preference for the fundamental frequency patterns of motherese speech, but not for the amplitude or duration patterns. These findings were also supported by Reissland and Snow (1996) who compared maternal pitch height and amplitude as cues indicating play vs. ordinary situations (marking thus different pragmatic situations). Their study concluded that children only perceived the distinction when marked by fundamental frequency changes.

On the other hand, the affective function intends to express "affection with the capturing of the addressee's attention as a secondary role" (Brown 1977:4) and is mostly related to the prosodic changes. Stern, Spieker and MacKain (1982) conclude

that a wider pitch range and higher pitch level are correlated with the positive emotion in the child. Likewise, Stern *et al.* (1983) reveal that the four-month infant is able to discriminate among the various prosodic contours to which different communicative values have been assigned, a finding others have found in sixth month infants (Chang and Trehub 1977). Further, it seems that “an intonation system with adjusted pitch range and pitch height is being used to introduce the child to some of the *meanings* of the adult intonation system” (Cruttenden 1994:145, my italics). Research on intonation in *CDS* (cf. Dore 1974; Halliday 1975; Bates 1974; Bates 1976; Sachs 1977; Fernald 1989) evidences the direct relationship between contours and communicative functions. More specifically, falling tones are the melodic contours associated to referring, labelling and informing while the rising contours gain the child’s attention and engage them in interaction (cf. Sullivan and Horowitz 1983).

The acoustic and prosodic characteristics of *CDS* constitute a stylised way of talking that responds to the child’s needs and preferences. And, what seems to be most surprising is that this preference already starts at the prenatal stage (cf. DeCasper and Spence 1986; DeCasper, Lecanuet, Busnel, Granier-Deferre and Maugeais 1994):

“Intonation (variation in pitch) and rhythm are properties of a language which may differ depending on the precise language being spoken. They are also properties of the language to which babies are exposed very early, primarily in the form of the mother’s voice, which travels through bone and tissue to the uterus, and although still muffled, is louder than any speech sounds coming in from the outside. The variation in the physical signal that gives rise to the perception of varying intonation is generally referred to as prosodic variation and [...] is the only variation in the language that the baby has exposure to before it is born” (Altmann 1997:12).

Syntactic and Grammatical characteristics

At the lexicogrammatical level, *CDS* is simple, clear, well formed and semantically and syntactically simpler than speech addressed to adults. Its simplicity is embodied in the short, well-formed utterances, repetitive structures and few complex and subordinate clauses (Snow 1972; Cross 1977; Newport, Gleitman and Gleitman 1977) that contribute to comprehension by demanding less on the child. Likewise, to enhance segmentation and differentiation of linguistic units, *CDS* displays a frequent set of grammatical morphemes (articles and auxiliary verbs), together with object and noun references and referential repetitions (Gelman and Taylor 1984; Hampson and Nelson 1993). This syntactic simplicity reflects the semantic simplicity of the adult’s speech

(Cross 1977; Snow 1977). While a short mean length of utterance (MLU²⁷) reveals a predominance of single-term utterance, increases in MLU imply that a bigger amount of information is being conveyed.

Maternal/adult speech has been related to the characteristics of the children's current level (Cross 1977) which suggests that a 'fine tuning' mechanism determining maternal speech style may exist. It has empirically been studied that maternal speech changes with the age and/or language level of the child (Bellinger 1980). Therefore, the adult's speech is not an attempt to gradually teach children the grammar and syntax of the language. Instead, it responds to the child's limited communicative abilities to interact and aims at fostering comprehension. This motivation seems to be the underlying basis modelling *CDS* at the prosodic and lexicogrammatical level. Accordingly, the literature provides a wide amount of research that analyses the joint interaction of lexical, grammatical and prosodic cues in children's comprehension of adult's speech (cf. studies below).

Syntactic, lexical choices and variation in prosody may all contribute to the interpretation of messages but the literature seems to point that prosody lags behind the other two. Cutler and Swinney (1987) acknowledged that in sentence comprehension, prosody is overridden by lexis due to the strong relationship between prosody and semantics- a relationship children only know about after their sixth year of life. Moore, Harris and Patriquin (1993) studied the roles of lexical and prosodic features in conveying certainty in adult speakers interacting with children whose ages ranged from four to six. Five-year-old children in their study use prosodic and lexical cues: they interpret falling contours as markers of certainty. However, both types of cues are said to play a different role since children initially look for any available lexical marker of relative certainty and only then, are they sensitive to modulation of that marker by intonation. Finally, motivated by early sentence comprehension, Shady and Gerken (1999) found that grammatical morpheme cues and caregiver cues (length and key word placement) all have beneficial effects on sixty two-year-olds' sentence comprehension and that the existence of one type of cue does not imply the decrease of the role of another. Both the acoustic/prosodic and syntactic/grammatical characteristics of *Child*

²⁷ MLU is a measure of grammatical complexity.

Directed Speech contribute to the creation and definition of a specific register and seem to be adjusted to guarantee comprehension in the adult-child interaction.

3.1.1.2. Debate and consensus upon the effects of Child-Directed Speech

The influence adult speech modifications have on language acquisition and development has mainly been tackled in the literature in the examination of (i) correlations between the variation in the absolute or relative frequency of particular features in the mother's/adult's and its presence in the child's (cf. Newport *et al.* 1977; Furrow, Nelson and Benedict 1979; Barnes *et al.* 1983; Smolack and Winraub 1983) and (ii) the gradual variation of the mother's/adult's frequency of modifications subject to the child's age and language level (cf. Bellinger 1980; Hampson and Nelson 1993).

Despite the general assumption that adults use *CDS* as a register to assist the language learner, inconsistent results are spread through the literature. On the one hand, debate reigns over the implications of *CDS* for the acquisition of grammatical and syntactical features. While some found correlations in these features when comparing MLU and syntactic complexity in the adult's and child's speech, concluding that MLU in the mother affected the child's linguistic growth (Furrow *et al.* 1979), others venture that *CDS* is irrelevant to the process of acquisition of syntax (noun phrases or verb phrases per clause) (Newport *et al.* 1977). The discrepancies, however, seem to be of a methodological nature, i.e. selection and validity of speech samples, measurement of child progress, selection of adult speech variables for investigation, variation in the relationship between mother's speech and the child's initial level, etc... (cf. Barnes *et al.* 1983; Richards 1994). It should be borne in mind that those variables need to be controlled to enable comparison and generalisation of results.

On the other hand, agreement exists upon the following issues: first, the frequency of use of particular lexical items in *CDS* is shown to affect the child's ulterior comprehension, production and appropriate use of those features. Second, there exists a bi-directional relationship between the adult's and the child's speech. Not only is *CDS* the mould shaping the child's linguistic development, i.e. "scaffolding" (Bruner 1975), but results from a "fine-tuning" process (Cross 1977; Ellis and Wells 1980). In other words, in the same way the adult provides the linguistic model to the child, the adult

speech modifications change as a reflection of the infant's behaviour (Penman, Cross, Milgrom-Friedman and Meares 1983; Smolack and Winraub 1983; Harris *et al.* 1988).

And third, it is acknowledged that *CDS* is a unique though not uniform register. In other words, although *CDS* has been defined and described by assembling the (para) linguistic similarities across adults, evidence confirms that different specific mother/adult conversational styles enhancing or inhibiting the child's linguistic development exist. The differing communicative styles can be polarised into two opposing types: "interactive/ conversational" (Snow 1977), "conversational eliciting" (McDonald and Pien 1982), "non-intervening" (Kloth *et al.* 1998) on the one end, vs. "controlling", "directive" (McDonald and Pien 1982), "directing" and "explaining" (Kloth *et al.* 1998) on the other end. Empirical inquiries confirm that the incompatibility of these two major styles results from the presence/absence of linguistic realisations, grouped in two opposing clusters. The frequent use of questions (reports, real questions), infrequent use of directives, repair questions, attention devices, infrequent spontaneous declaratives, brief conversational turns, infrequent monologuing are associated to the adult's intention to enhance conversational interaction. On the contrary, the frequent use of directives, frequent attention devices, frequent monologues, infrequent questions and rapid mother topic change is related to the adult's intention to control and direct the child (cf. Pine 1994 for a review).

The modifications and adjustments of *CDS* described above have been shown to be crucial for the child's acquisition of lexical (Harris *et al.* 1988; Ninio 1992; Hampson and Nelson 1993), interactive (Folger and Chapman 1978; Olsen-Fulero 1982; McDonald and Pien 1982; Kloth *et al.* 1998) and discursive skills (Hausendorf and Quasthoff 1992) and have been considered in a variety of social classes and communicative settings (cf. Hoff-Ginsberg 1991).

SLA researchers have been concerned with the role of the linguistic environment surrounding the learner, its consequences in his/her language acquisition and learning (cf. Cenoz and Perales 2000), and the relevance of the input learners receive in their *SLA*. Therefore, the work carried out in (i) L1 acquisition suggesting that oral language input tuned to the language development level of learners played a crucial role in language acquisition and learning and (ii) in *Foreigner Talk* (cf. Ferguson 1975), is of

interest to *SLA* researchers and has led them to analyse the speech of the adult in a formal setting, namely, the classroom (Hatch 1978; Long 1985a). The following sections will hence consider the aforementioned issues by focusing on the role of input directed to language learners in the classroom.

“The evolution of terms used to refer to the special language varieties associated with language learners reflects the shift in concern of *SLA* researchers from modified speech addressed to and used by foreigners as a linguistic phenomenon—presumably associated with the development of pidgins— to an interest in the role of *learner-directed speech* in *SLA*” (Bingham Wesche 1994:221, my italics).

3.2. Input, interaction and language learning in the classroom

Language teaching can be treated as “interaction” (whereby samples of the L2 are made available to the learner through classroom interaction) or as “formal instruction” (Ellis 1990:93). While the former approach focuses on how the different input and interactional features contribute to acquisition, the latter is concerned with whether some linguistic features can be taught and thus acquired. The present work will concentrate on the teacher-learner interaction (i.e. interpersonal communication), which in turn can contribute to learning in two ways: (i) via the learner’s reception and comprehension of the L2 and (ii) via the learner’s L2 production.

SLA is approached from two different angles in the literature indeed: (i) the reception-based theories which examine *the input*²⁸ the learner is exposed to (Terrell, Gómez and Mariscal 1980; Long 1985a; Krashen 1985) and (ii) the production-based theories i.e. *the Output Hypothesis* (Swain 1985; Pica 1988; Pica, Holliday, Lewis, and Morganthaler 1989; Swain, Allen, Harley and Cummins 1989, Swain 1995; Swain and Lapkin 1995; Swain and Lapkin 1998), *the Discourse hypothesis* (cf. Givón 1979; Tarone 1983) and the *Topicalization hypothesis* (Wells 1985), which highlight the importance of the learner’s output and assign a main role to production²⁹. Since the present dissertation focuses on teacher talk and does not examine children’s production, the following sections will only concentrate on the reception-based theories.

²⁸ “‘Input’ refers to the target language samples to which the learner is exposed. It contains the raw data which the learner has to work on in the process of interlanguage construction. Corder (1967) distinguishes ‘input’ and ‘intake’, the latter consisting of that portion of the input which the learner actually attends to and, therefore, uses for acquisition. Not all input serves as intake as only a subset of the total samples available is salient to the learner at any one stage of development” (Ellis 1990:96).

²⁹ Swain (1985; 2000) supports the claim that comprehension and input are insufficient to promote learning. Instead, noticing language and being given the opportunity to produce language appropriately are essential.

3.2.1. The Frequency Hypothesis

Most research papers emphasizing the role of input in L2 acquisition respond to one of the following hypotheses: The *Frequency Hypothesis*, the *Input Hypothesis* and the *Interaction Hypothesis*. The *Frequency Hypothesis* claims that learners acquire linguistic features according to their frequency in the input they are exposed to, i.e. the more an item is frequent, the more and sooner it will be acquired. This hypothesis has been tested by studies that have measured the correlation between the frequency of different linguistic features in the input and the acquisition of those features (cf. grammatical morphemes in Larsen-Freeman (1976); Long and Sato (1983) and Lightbown (1983) and syntactic structures in Hamayan and Tucker (1980)). However, whereas some of these studies found significant correspondences between input and output, “the correlation between input and acquisition, therefore, is difficult to interpret, because other factors are confounded. It may not be frequency *per se* that counts but structural complexity” (Ellis 1990:99).

3.2.2. The Input Hypothesis

A more explanatory account can be found in the *Input Hypothesis* (hereafter *IH*). According to Krashen (1981; 1982; 1985), acquisition takes place when learners are exposed to input that contains grammatical features a little beyond their current level. As the main hypothesis within his Monitor Model, the *IH* depicts acquisition as the result of comprehensible input and not production. Input is made comprehensible because of the help provided by the speakers (in this case, the teacher) and the context (i.e. extra-linguistic information, the learner’s knowledge and the learner’s previously acquired linguistic competence).

While simplified input contributes to making input comprehensible, input can also be comprehensible without any simplification: “simplification is designed to promote communication rather than to teach and results in ‘rough’³⁰ rather than ‘fine tuning’”(Ellis 1990:101). The *IH* therefore predicts that some grammatical features in the input will be learnt without any previous explicit teaching. Terrell *et al.* (1980) showed that classroom learners of L2 Spanish acquired the interrogatives without any teaching, which may be due to their high frequency in the input provided to the learners.

³⁰ By ‘rough tuning’ Krashen means that the input is not exactly related to the learner’s developmental level. In other words, the input does not contain precisely the next rule the learner is ready for.

On the contrary, Ellis (1982) and Long and Sato (1983) showed that the past tense forms were delayed in the learners' acquisition due to their absence in teachers' language.

3.2.2.1. From Foreigner Talk to Teacher Talk

Foreigner Talk (hereafter, FT) refers to the simplified speech used by a native speaker with a non-native speaker who lacks full understanding of the target language. Ferguson (1977) compared FT to "Baby talk" and suggested that native speakers make use of a variety because "they believe it is the way non-native speakers speak in the same way as baby talk stands for the way adults believe babies speak" (Boulima 1999:23). FT is "simplifying" in that it is characterised by the omission of function words, omission of inflections, avoidance of slang, use of full lexical forms, expansions, repetitions and rearrangements (cf. Ferguson 1975; Ferguson 1977; Hatch 1983; Patil 1994). Ferguson (1975), Meisel (1977) and Hatch (1983) also found out that FT may at times be ungrammatical, as when native speakers delete articles or other inflectional morphology for the sake of simplification.

Although *Foreigner Talk, Classroom Register* (Henzl 1973) and *Language Teacher Talk* (Krashen 1981) have been considered sub-varieties of FT in that the addressee was the second language learner and where the speaker used a language referring to classroom management, explanations and instructions, this variety of terms refers to subsets of the normative FT but not sufficiently distinct to understand them as different registers (cf. Chaudron 1988; Bingham Wesche 1994).

Teacher Talk or "teachers' foreigner talk discourse" (Chaudron 1983a:141) in the L2 classroom has many characteristics in common with FT since "teachers find themselves confronted to the problem of conveying information with a code that is explicit, lucid and accessible to the learner" (Boulima 1999:25). *Teacher Talk* can be linguistically characterised by adjustments aiming at adapting the teacher's language to the learners' abilities in order to help the learner, guarantee comprehension and facilitate interaction (cf. Chaudron 1983a; Chaudron 1988; Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991). Generally speaking, at the suprasegmental and phonological level, *Teacher Talk* displays a slower speech rate, frequent pauses (signalling discourse boundaries,

allowing processing time), exaggerated articulation and intonation with topic words receiving a marked tonic (cf. Dahl 1981; Kelch 1985; Lynch 1988).

At the morphological and syntactical level, utterances are shorter and less complex (fewer words per t-unit, less subordinate adverbs) (cf. Scarcella and Higa 1981; 1982) and tend to overuse the present tense (Sato 1986). More specifically, *Teacher Talk* is mainly motivated by the intention to control and care for children, which is linguistically embodied in the frequent use of questions (White, Spada, Lightbown and Ranta 1991), display questions (Long and Sato 1983), teacher-initiated interactions and a high number of imperatives regulating both the child's actions and behaviour (Ramírez and Merino 1990), mirroring the already portrayed "directive communicative style" identified in *CDS* (cf. section 3.1.1.1. above). At the lexical level, *Teacher Talk* in the L2 classroom presents a more frequent use of simpler vocabulary items, full noun phrases, proper names instead of abstract concepts, slang or idioms and pronouns respectively.

And finally, at the discursive level, *Teacher Talk* is characterised by a frequent use of repetitions, paraphrases and questions. There is a preference for polar questions or *yes-no* questions and display questions where the learner's effort is minimum, hinting at a scaffolding technique. Additionally, the interactional moves specific to L2 classroom are embodied in *Teacher Talk*: "comprehension checks" (to check understanding), "clarification requests" (to explain the information), "self-repetitions", "exact other repetitions", "expansion"... (cf. Hatch 1978; Pica and Long 1986, Pica 1987). Furthermore, teachers can display different conversational/communicative styles within *Teacher Talk* that positively or negatively influence the child's linguistic and interactive development in the L1 (cf. Barnes 1976) and the L2 contexts (cf. Allwright 1980; Ellis 1984; Ernst 1994). The "exploratory" vs. "presentational" styles refer to the opposite intentions of the teacher to either get the right answer, control the content and direction of the lesson, or on the contrary, to enhance children to discover meanings and participate in the negotiation of meaning, etc...(Barnes 1976).

Diversity across teachers does not imply instability within each teacher's speech though. Whereas tasks have been acknowledged to play a significant role in the child's or learner's linguistic development by either enhancing or hampering interaction

(Doughty and Pica 1986; Cathcart-Strong 1986; Ernst 1994), they seem to be irrelevant to the teacher's production. Empirical research corroborates that the teacher's communicative style, as well as the mothers' (McDonald and Pien 1982), is stable. More specifically, Salaberri (1999) investigated the variation of discursive characteristics within and across teachers by analysing their talk in different tasks and surprisingly found that differences were due to individual communicative styles, but that no discrepancies existed across tasks (Salaberri 1999:283).

Motivated by the comprehensibility of his/her speech, the teacher bases the linguistic adjustments according to the principles of redundancy, simplicity, explicitness and regularity in order to help the learners direct their attention to the most relevant information and display information in a more transparent way. Furthermore, at discourse level, while some understand teacher talk is to be framed by the I-R-F interactional pattern, teacher talk becomes "facilitator talk" in a "freer pattern of interaction in which who says what to whom and when is less constrained" (Clifton 2006:142), which implies helping learners become more responsible in their language learning process.

While the same linguistic characteristics relate *CDS* and *Teacher Talk*, the relative frequencies of certain patterns have been shown to differ in the literature (Wells 1981; Wells 1986). Although in *CDS* and *Teacher Talk* the adult is unmarkedly the initiator of conversations, at school, children initiate fewer interactions, get fewer turns, ask fewer questions and are less syntactically complex (due to a less frequent use of these resources with the teacher): "The picture that emerges, once again, is of children in school answering teachers' questions and complying with their requests, and of teachers choosing topics and allocating conversational turns" (Geekie and Raban 1994:158). As a result, it can be argued that *Teacher Talk* is a specific sub-register of *Child-Directed Speech* that is undoubtedly shaped by the immediate context of situation.

The above mentioned studies do portray teacher talk as a type of discourse which modifies the input teachers present to learners. However, teachers and linguists are concerned with showing that a significant relationship exists between the features of modified input and learner's comprehension. Long (1985a:378) suggests that one way

of demonstrating the relationship between comprehensible input and acquisition is to break the task down into three steps: (i) show that linguistic and conversational adjustments promote comprehension of input; (ii) show that comprehensible input promotes acquisition and thus deduce (iii) that linguistic/conversational adjustments promote acquisition. Kelch (1985) demonstrates that a slower rate of speech promotes and increases comprehensibility. However, as Ellis (1990:103) suggests, while input modifications play a role in comprehensibility, interactional modifications and contextual knowledge are shown to be more significant in the literature (cf. Pica, Young and Doughty 1987).

Despite the numerous implications IH has on *SLA* research, it also been subjected to numerous criticisms.

“Krashen’s input hypothesis is not without value for language pedagogy, however. It provides a statement of important principle, namely that for successful classroom acquisition learners require access to message-oriented communication that they can understand- It also provides a rough explanation of why this might be so. The main problem with Krashen’s hypothesis is that it is nothing like as ‘fundamental’ as he claims. There is more to teaching than ‘comprehensible input’” (Ellis 1990:107).

Faerch and Kasper (1986) signal the lack of evidence to support the relationship between comprehension and acquisition. They understand input as intake for comprehension is different from input as intake for acquisition. In their study, they provide an explanation of language-comprehension processes, whereby they state that acquisition of new linguistic material can only take place when the learner attends to actual input. White (1987) in turn believes that simplified input may not be beneficial and can even cause deprivation as it prevents learners from being exposed to real input.

More recently, Boulima (1999:28) claims that the causal link between simplification modifications and comprehensibility enhancement has not been found in the impact of comprehensibility on language acquisition and development. In other words, it seems to some linguists that mere exposure does not suffice to guarantee language acquisition, which calls for considering the importance of other factors such as interaction in L2 development³¹.

³¹ Cf. Carroll (1966) for a detailed critique of the standard analysis of the input question.

3.2.3. The Interaction Hypothesis

The *Interaction Hypothesis* also emphasises the role of comprehensible input but seeks to explain how acquisition takes place through interaction. According to Long (1983a, 1983b, 1985a, 1996), there are three ways of making input comprehensible: simplifications (“input features”), the use of linguistic and extra-linguistic context and modifications of the interactional structure of conversation (“interactional features”). To Long (1983c), acquisition occurs when the speaker provides interactional modifications and strategies (cf. Pica and Doughty 1985 for a review of interactional modifications involved in negotiation of meaning).

In L1 studies, it has been shown that there is a relationship between input features and gains in acquisition by children (cf. Wells 1985). Further, some evidence exists to claim that interactional adjustments facilitate comprehension in L2 learners. Through negotiation, non-native speakers and their interlocutors signal that they do not understand something and learners have opportunities to understand and use the language that was incomprehensible (cf. Gass and Varonis 1989; 1994; Long 1996; Pica 1994). Pica *et al.* (1987) showed how comprehension resulted from interactionally motivated repetitions and Chaudron and Richards (1986) examined the effects of the use of different kinds of discourse markers on the comprehension of lectures at university by ESL learners. Furthermore, interaction may even have delayed developmental effects (cf. Gass 1997; Gass, Mackey and Pica 1998; Ellis and He 1999).

While “doubts remain as to whether modifications to the structure of interactions help with comprehension” (Ellis 1990:111), a wide amount of research has investigated interactional modifications in the classroom. Some authors have compared natural conversations with classroom discourse. Pica and Long (1986) examined and compared ten ESL teachers with the speech of native speakers conversing with non-native speakers. Surprisingly, their study concludes that there is less negotiation of meaning in classroom settings and suggest that there is therefore less comprehensible input. Others explored the effect of task type on the amount of interactional adjustments (cf. Crookes and Gass 1993a; 1993b), studied the teacher’s interactional modifications over time (Ellis 1985a), and analysed the differences in the nature of interaction found in teacher-class and small-group work (Pica and Doughty 1985; Long and Porter 1985; Doughty and Pica 1986; Porter 1986; Fillmore 1985; Duff 1986).

An important distinction between *modified input* (foreigner talk directed to the learner) and *modified interaction* (structure of the conversation itself) should be borne in mind though (Long 1980). Modified interaction is related to conversational trouble in that it occurs to avoid conversational trouble or to repair it when trouble occurs (comprehension checks, topic shifts, clarification requests). To him and many others (Scarcella and Higa 1981; Varonis and Gass 1985), interactive modifications are more important for L2 acquisition than native speakers' modifications.

Of special interest to this thesis are Mackey's (1999) and (2003) studies which aim at empirically testing the interaction hypothesis. They first provide a brief summary of papers focusing on modified input, interaction and negotiation and observe their influence on second language development. Her papers report that empirical studies have concluded negotiation has benefits on production (Pica 1994; Gass and Varonis 1994, Polio and Gass 1998), on lexical acquisition (Ellis, Tanaka and Yamazaki 1994), on the short-term outcomes of pushed output (Swain 1995) and on interactional features such as feedback and recasts (cf. Long *et al.* 1998; Mackey and Philp 1998; Leeman 2003; Philp 2003), scaffolding, depth of processing and input control (cf. Donato 1994; Ellis 1999; Lantolf 2000). Second, Mackey (1999:583) concludes that conversational interaction facilitates L2 development and that the developmental outcomes are related to the nature of the conversational interaction and the level of the learner involvement. Additionally, Mackey (2003:23) suggests that works on input and interaction could benefit from considering learners' perspectives (cf. Mackey, Gass and McDonough 2000).

The Interaction Hypothesis, however, has not been free from criticisms either. Among them, three may be mentioned: (i) conversational interaction may facilitate communicative performance (or even strategic competence) without facilitating acquisition of new linguistic features (Sato 1986; Pica 1994; Gass 1997); (ii) negotiation of meaning may not result in comprehension (Hawkins 1985) and (iii) the conversational adjustments may be used for purposes other than negotiation of meaning (Varonis and Gass 1985). More recently, Foster and Snyder-Ohta (2005) have investigated the value of language classroom negotiation of meaning from cognitive and sociocultural perspectives and conclude that negotiation is only one of the

conversational strategies facilitating second language acquisition but that other processes also play a role.

3.2.4. The classroom context

Within the different communicative settings where the adult-child interaction takes place, the classroom constitutes the continuation of home life for the preschool child (MacLure and French 1981; Wells and Montgomery 1981; Geekie and Raban 1994). Following the motivations of the present investigation, this section approaches second language acquisition and learning in the classroom in four main steps. First, L1 acquisition research is depicted in the literature so as to establish comparisons between L1 and L2 acquisition. Then, a second section is devoted to input and interaction in the L2 classroom. And last but not least, once the communicative classroom is presented as a context enabling learners to acquire and develop their communicative competence, attention is paid to different language learning contexts: the English as a Second Language (ESL), the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) classrooms.

3.2.4.1. Naturalistic vs. classroom discourse: L1/L2 acquisition research

L1 Acquisition Research

L1 acquisition research started in the late sixties and early seventies with Chomskyan linguistics. Whereas structuralists viewed language in terms of the surface patterns that constitute a language and characterise it as different from another language, Chomsky “emphasised the abstract nature of the rules that constitute the individual speaker-hearer’s underlying competence and the universal nature of these rules” (Ellis 1990:33). As briefly seen in Chapter 2 above, a different understanding of language led to two different theories on how language acquisition takes place. On the one hand, behaviourist psychologists claimed that language acquisition resulted from a set of habits in which stimuli were associated with responses through reinforcement. On the other hand, generativists highlighted the abstract nature of linguistic knowledge. To Chomsky, the child is unable to acquire the target language grammar based on linguistic data:

“As a pre-condition for language learning, he [the child] must possess, first a linguistic theory that specifies the form of the grammar of a possible human language, and, second, a strategy for selecting a grammar of the appropriate form that is compatible with the primary linguistic data” (Chomsky 1965:25).

As Ellis points out, many empirical studies of L1 acquisition were thus oriented towards testing Chomsky's claims about language and language learning and check whether the speech produced by children provided evidence of habit-formation or of innate linguistic knowledge. Both longitudinal (Brown 1973; Bloom 1970) and cross-sectional (Villiers and Villiers 1973) studies confirmed that children underwent a series of stages before reaching the adult competence (e.g. mean length of utterance, plurals, copula, past tenses...), which supported Chomsky's argument that language was internally driven.

From L1 to L2 acquisition research

Other mentalist perspectives focused on L2 acquisition and emphasised the innate language-learning ability of the learner, which constituted a radical alternative to audiolingual learning theory. The Cognitive Anti-method was born and was based on six major claims: (i) that second language learner is controlled by the learner not the teacher (cf. Newmark and Reibel 1968), (ii) that human beings possess an innate capacity for learning language (Newmark 1966); (iii) that it is not necessary to attend to linguistic form in order to acquire a second language; (iv) that classroom language learning is not an additive process, (v) that errors are a concomitant of the learning process and inevitable (Jakobovits 1970; Corder 1967) and (vi) that L1 interference is the result of ignorance.

Less radical was the Cognitive Code Method (cf. Carroll 1966; Chastain 1971) whose principal assumption was that perception and awareness of second language rules preceded the use of these rules. In other words, a conscious grammatical knowledge is understood to be essential to the learning process. However, although both theories "are of historical interest because they reveal the initial attempts of applied linguists to attend to the way language is acquired when they formulated pedagogical proposals" (Ellis 1990:40), neither of them made an impact on language teachers.

The L1=L2 Hypothesis

Applied linguists soon decided to use the evidence of L1 acquisition and learning to build a theory of L2 teaching. Aware of the differences between L1 and L2 classroom learning, many argued in favour of the non-equivalence of L2 and L1 learning (Prator 1969; Kennedy 1973). More specifically, those differences lay on the

environmental conditions (time, structured content, avoidance of errors) and the very learner (i.e. age, motivation, linguistic and cultural knowledge). However, as Ellis (1990:41) notes, at first there was no consideration of a central issue, namely whether the process of linguistic learning differed. Only later, did the terms “acquisition” and “learning” start to be defined so as to distinguish different conditions of language learning:

“the term *acquisition* is used here for the process where language is acquired as a result of natural and largely random exposure to language, the term *language learning* where the exposure is structured through language teaching” (Wilkins 1974:26).

As a reaction to this distinction in the differences in learning conditions, two responses emerged: while some authors accepted the impossibility to replicate the circumstances of L1 for learning a second language (cf. Prator 1969), other scholars felt that the classroom was the appropriate environment to replicate the conditions of L1 learning. Within the first trend, arguments such as L1 transfer (cf. Lado 1957) and age (i.e. the *Critical Period Hypothesis*³², cf. Penfield and Roberts 1959; Lenneberg 1967) became the main reasons to question the analogy between L1 and L2. Within the second trend, researchers felt that the overall process of acquisition is the same in L1 and L2 irrespective of age.

In the light of what has been stated above, the *L1=L2 Hypothesis* becomes significant to language learning in that it is related to implicit/explicit language teaching (Dash 2002) and has therefore been examined in the context of children and in school contexts (Brown 1980; Chomsky 1969, Ellis 1984; Krashen 1982). The differentiation between “language acquisition” (i.e. “spontaneous process of rule internalization” (Krashen 1982:10)) and “language learning” (which relates to the development of conscious L2 knowledge through formal study” (Ellis 1994:292)) suggests the difference between implicit/explicit teaching. Dash (2002:5) provides a series of definitions to distinguish between both teaching practices: (i) implicit refers to intuitive, automatic, subconscious acquisition and exposure to language in use; whereas (ii)

³² Penfield and Roberts (1959) suggested that the ability to learn a first language naturally and effortlessly was linked to neurophysiological factors and biological constraints and so the same probably obtained for second language acquisition. Seliger (1978) posited the idea that there might be different critical periods for different aspects of language. Indeed, Long (1988c) claims that the critical period to acquire pronunciation is six years while it is puberty for the acquisition of grammar.

explicit refers to rational, formal, intellectual, metacognitive, systemic study. This leads us to consider *SLA* in relation to L1 learning.

In the last decades, there has been a growing interest in the role of the L1 transfer. Studies show that (i) the order in which different constituents of language (e.g. syntax, morphemes) are learned by children and (ii) the errors that a child makes in learning English are similar in both L1 and L2 (Dulay and Burt 1974a; 1974b). So, “negative interference as expressed in the audiolingual concepts seems to be highly unimportant in affecting the learning processes between the two types of learners of English if one were to give a high level of importance to this study” (Dash 2002:11).

However, L1 transfer is not interpreted as the automatic transfer of L1 structures but as a cognitive mechanism that underlies the L2 acquisition (Baralo 2004). Furthermore, some authors have claimed that the rules governing the interlanguage are not acquired as those of the L1. Eubank, Selinker and Sharwood-Smith (1995) feel that the L2 acquisition theory needs to incorporate a Grammar Universal Theory so as to account for some of the aspects of the interlanguage grammar. And third, it has been shown that the development of the interlanguage can follow different paths of acquisition depending on factors such as: the mother tongue, the interlanguage may lack some structures that do not exist in the L1, etc...In other words,

“La transferencia es una estrategia disponible para compensar la carencia de conocimiento de la lengua objeto. Sin embargo, su uso se ve constreñido por la percepción de la “distancia” entre la L1 y la L2, es decir, la manera cómo el aprendiente percibe las formas marcadas en su propia lengua, entendiendo como marcadas las formas menos frecuentes, menos productivas, menos semánticamente transparentes, más periféricas” (Baralo 2004:7).

On the contrary, to cognitivists, L1 transfer is a cognitive process whereby L2 learners strategically use their L1 and other L2 they may know to comprehend and produce messages in the target language.

In brief, interlanguage studies focus on the learning and acquisition of the L2, on the theories that explain the learner’s mental representations of the L2, on the development of the rules and the items of the target language. Cognitive studies, in turn, examine the real use of learners’ L2 language, namely how they comprehend and produce their L2 in interaction: “En otras palabras, estamos ante la diferencia teórica entre adquisición y habilidad procedimental, esto es, casi medio siglo después, la

diferencia entre competencia y actuación establecida por Chomsky como metodología de la investigación del conocimiento lingüístico” (Baralo 2004:8).

3.2.4.2. Language and input in the L2 classroom

Language interaction in classrooms differs from most face-to-face conversations. In the classroom, a more directive role is assigned to the teacher. As Cook (1996:120) claims, the teacher can be called the “leader” as s/he takes the initiative, which hints at one of the main characteristics of classroom discourse, i.e. the *Initiation-Response-Feedback* pattern that accounts for the way turns are allocated in conversation (cf. Sinclair and Coulthard 1975, section 3.3.1.1. below). In the language classroom, however, these features are accompanied by other interactional traits exclusive to an L2 learning context.

More specifically, the *language classroom* is a more specific context where the amount of teacher talk is even higher than in other classrooms. As an illustration, let us mention that Chaudron (1988) reports that teacher talk represents more than 75% of the time in bilingual classrooms, 79% in immersion classes and 81% in foreign language classrooms. Additionally, the uniqueness of the L2 classroom lies on the use of language. Indeed, “language is involved in two different ways. First of all, the organisation and control of the classroom take place through language; second, language is the actual subject matter that is being taught” (Cook 1996:121). This twofold use of language implies that the teacher and learners are on the one hand interacting through a certain language and that at the same time the L2 strategies are the objective of the teaching: “the teacher has to be able to manage the class through one type of language at the same time as getting the students to acquire another type” (*ibid.*). In other words, the L2 becomes the means or channel of communication as well as the content of the class, and thus the aim (see section 3.2.4.4. below).

Surprising as it may seem, very few studies empirically analysed the L2 in the classroom until the late sixties. Most papers examined naturalistic or mixed L2 acquisition but very few focused on the classroom. Some reasons accounting for that were (i) the desire to explore the differences from L1 and L2 acquisition and (ii) much of the research considered second rather than foreign language setting (Ellis 1990:44). Nonetheless, the applications of the research in the classroom were mainly centred upon

different types of enquiry (e.g. Error analysis³³ (Corder 1967), Performance analysis³⁴ (Brown 1973; Dulay and Burt 1974c), Form-function analysis³⁵ (Huebner 1979; Ellis 1985b)) and “Interlanguage Theory”.

Although *Interlanguage theory* (Selinker 1972) has evolved in the last thirty years, most of its premises remain unchanged: (i) the learner constructs a system of abstract linguistic rules which underlies comprehension and production³⁶; (ii) the learner’s grammar is permeable (i.e. incomplete, unstable); (iii) the learner’s competence is transitional (i.e. it is a continuum where the L2 is the continuation of L1 and where the learner gradually substitutes target language for mother-tongue rules); (iv) interlanguage development reflects the operation of cognitive learning strategies (e.g. L1 transfer, overgeneralisation and simplification), (v) interlanguage use can also reflect the operation of communication strategies (e.g. paraphrase, code-switching) and (vi) interlanguage systems may fossilise. In a nutshell, the L2 learner language is said to be rule-governed and pass a series of developmental stages that echo L1 acquisition, which leads teachers to assume that classroom learning should resemble naturalistic L2 learning. The contribution of such interlanguage studies to language teaching has been mainly materialised in syllabus organisation, error treatment and remedial procedures. Although in the early days the focus might have been the grammatical features of language learning, today studies focus on the acquisition of communicative competence in a foreign/second language (see next section, cf. Baralo 2004).

3.2.4.3. The communicative classroom

“The communicative movement in ELT encompasses all modes of language use. It has, as one of its bases, a concept of what it means to know a language and to be able to put that knowledge to use in communicating with people in a variety of settings and situations” (Hedge 2000:45).

So as to understand the “communicative classroom”, a brief mention of Hymes’s (1972) “communicative competence” is due. Chomsky (1965) distinguished between

³³ It was used to investigate the contrastive analysis hypothesis (i.e. many L2 errors were not traceable to the L1. Empirical support demonstrated that most learner errors were intralingual rather than interlingual (cf. Long and Sato 1984 for a criticism of the theory)).

³⁴ It differed from Error Analysis in that it looked at learner’s L2 development not only at errors. It was shown that learners passed through a regular series of overlapping stages to reach the target language and that minor variations in the sequence may occur as a result of the learner’s L1 background.

³⁵ This approach focuses on “the study of different functions which a specific form performs at different stages of development” (Ellis 1990:49). This enables the researcher to understand the inner logic of the learner’s mental grammar.

³⁶ “Interlanguage” refers to the system other than the L1 or mother tongue and the target language.

competence (the knowledge of a language) and *performance* (the knowledge of a finite set of rules which enables the language user to produce an infinite set of sentences). However, far from understanding language as a formal system, Hymes feels performance involves variables such as memory limitation, distractions, shifts of attention and interest and is therefore an imperfect reflection of the underlying system. Hymes claims that a linguistic theory must be able to deal with a heterogeneous speech community, differential competence and sociocultural features. Therefore, Chomsky's dichotomy competence/performance is further subdivided into "linguistic competence" (producing and understanding grammatically correct sentences) and "communicative competence" (producing and understanding sentences that are appropriate and acceptable to a particular situation). Communicative competence is indeed the knowledge of other types of rules related to the referential and social meaning of language:

"Rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless. Just as rules of syntax can control aspects of phonology, and just as rules of semantics perhaps control aspects of syntax, so rules of speech acts enter as a controlling factor for linguistic form as a whole" (Hymes 1972:278).

To Hymes, speakers need a social and cultural knowledge to understand and use linguistic forms. In Hedge's (2000:45) words, "his view encompassed not only knowledge but also ability to put that knowledge into use in communication" (*ibid.*), a double ability that would later be called "communicative language ability" (cf. Bachman 1990; Hedge 2000). More specifically, in the ESOL classroom, the distinction between both competences reflects the "discrepancy between the real aims of the many foreign language students and the more limited kind of linguistic ability which commonly is their achievement" (Long 1990:303).

Undoubtedly, Hymes's work was of great influence among English language teachers as it coincided with (i) the dissatisfaction with the structural approaches and (ii) the elaboration of a functional/situational syllabus set up by the Council of Europe. The main goal for English Language Teaching (hence, ELT) became to enable learners to interact successfully with other members of other societies, which was materialised in the different components of *communicative competence*: linguistic competence, pragmatic competence, discourse competence, strategic competence and fluency (cf. Canale and Swain 1980; Faerch, Haastrup and Phillipson 1984; Bachman 1990).

The communicative approach to language teaching is based on the development of communicative language ability. Therefore, communicative practice constitutes an essential part of the learning process in the ELT classroom where (i) the language should be a means to an end, (ii) the content should be determined by the learner, (iii) there must be a negotiation of meaning between speakers, (iv) there should be an information gap and (v) the teacher's intervention to correct should be minimal (Hedge 2000:57). Altogether, the above ingredients result in *Communicative Language Teaching* (cf. Widdowson 1978), orientated towards the teaching of appropriateness (communicative competence) along with the linguistic skills (linguistic competence):

“We do not only learn how to compose and comprehend correct sentences as isolated linguistic units of random occurrence; but also how to use sentences appropriately to achieve communicative purposes” (Widdowson 1978)

The direct implications of *Communicative Language Teaching* (hereafter, *CLT*) are involving learners in tasks that require face-to-face interaction, and giving students practice in communicating and negotiating meanings, i.e. “learn to communicate by communicating” (Larsen-Freeman 1986:131).

More recently, the *COLT* scheme (*Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching*) describes the activities that occur in communicative classrooms (Fröhlich, Spada and Allen 1985; Allen, Swain, Harley and Cummins 1990). *COLT* measures the extent to which the activities of a classroom represent communicative teaching through the analysis of classroom events (activities) and communicative features (paying particular attention to how the participants in the classroom interact with each other, how long the utterances are, which language is used, etc...).

While the above features characterise a sociolinguistic model of natural communication, Beale (2002) feels there is more to specify about the classroom setting. To him, three key pedagogic principles developed around *CLT*: the presentation of language forms in context, genuine conversation and a learner-centred teaching. The Presentation-Practice-Production lesson is an example of *CLT* where the language forms are first presented, then practiced in a series of exercises and then used by the learners in the context of communicative activities.

Broadly speaking, teachers are invited to consider different aspects of the methodology of “learner-centred” classrooms (group work, authentic materials, etc...) and their own roles (as *guide* to perform tasks successfully, as *monitor* groupwork, as *language resource* providing words and forms when needed, as *corrector* of errors, etc, cf. Larsen-Freeman 1986) so as to guarantee the development of communicative language ability:

“Communicative language teaching sets out to involve learners in purposeful tasks which are embedded in meaningful contexts and which reflect and rehearse language as it is used authentically in the world outside the classroom. It holds many attractions, not only to those teachers and learners who are preparing for immediate needs in using English but also for a wider population of teachers and learners who are motivated by realistic language practice, by the personalisation of learning, by face-to-face encounters in the classroom, and by using their prior knowledge and heuristic skills to approach a wide range of texts and tasks” (Hedge 2000:71).

The present thesis considers *CLT* relevant to foreign language teaching in that (i) it highlights the importance of discourse, (ii) gives way to teaching linguistic forms in use and context, and (iii) follows a syllabus based on functions from which the necessary forms and structures will be derived. Indeed, Canale and Swain’s (1980) “communicative competence” understands “grammatical competence” as the knowledge that includes knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics and phonology. In so doing, *CLT* abandons the old obsession of teaching formal grammar and maps discourse and grammar instead.

Nonetheless, criticisms have questioned the “relevance and interest” (Swan 1985) and the “restrictions on the range of learning response” (Thompson 1996:13), and have claimed that the functional syllabus “is still a series of language patterns, albeit patterns linked to semantic and pragmatic values” (Willis and Willis 2001:174). A more successful realisation of communicative principles is found in Content-based³⁷ and Task-based³⁸ teaching programs (cf. Stern 1992; Kumaravadivelu 1994; Willis 1994; Willis and Willis 2001; Beale 2002), which are both of great relevance to the design of the present study (cf. data collection in Chapter 4 below).

³⁷ Content-based programs aim at teaching subject matter content in the target language (see section 4.1.5.2. below).

³⁸ Task-based learning advocates the use of a syllabus based on communicatively-oriented tasks rather than linguistic forms (see section 4.1.5.2. below).

3.2.4.4. The ESL, the EFL and the CLIL classrooms

Most classroom research has been conducted in bilingual or second language contexts but, rather interestingly, the findings and results have often been generalised to EFL contexts. The literature evidences there have been many misunderstandings of what the differences between the terms ESL and EFL are. Although they both refer to the assimilation and learning of the English language, we should bear in mind “where the similarities stop and differences emerge” (Benzhi 2004).

The major difference between ESL and EFL is the role played by the English language regarding the geographic location (i.e. country or target). In bilingual or second language contexts, the different languages and cultures operate side by side so as to fulfil different purposes (Gumperz 1972; Fishman 1974) and the SL learners thus use the language outside the classroom. In the FL setting, the dominant language and culture are the learners’ L1. Therefore, the foreign language is a classroom language used in the classroom (Faerch and Kasper 1985; Kasper 1986, Papaefthymiou-Lytra 1990).

“The presence of a native speaker teacher and a multilingual student body dictate more opportunities for communicative use of language, between teachers and learners as well as among learners. Such opportunities are rare in foreign language classrooms. Unless the teacher works hard to create natural verbal encounters, the foreign language will remain a subject to be taught, not a means to communicate with in the FL classroom” (Papaefthymiou-Lytra 1990:3)

Further dichotomies include other variables such as curriculum development or independent language policies (e.g. Kyung-eun Yoon 2004) and the very goal and reason for learning the language. Whereas ESL learners usually learn English to manage within an English speaking country, EFL learners tend to learn English for academic reasons, to increase their social status or marketability for prospective future endeavors (BenzhiWire 2004). To understand the learning conditions in the foreign language classroom, Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1990:6) summarises the following characteristics:

- (i) The foreign language learning situation is characterised by monolingualism and monoculturalism of learners and teachers. They already share a common language to fulfil their intentions and purposes.
- (ii) There is no use of the foreign language in the greater social environment at all.
- (iii) The overwhelming majority of foreign language teachers are non-native speakers who have learned the foreign language in a situation similar to the one they teach.
- (iv) Learner age, motivation, needs, expectations, interests and purposes may vary greatly.

Although the features above portray the situation in Greece, most of the traits are applicable to the Spanish situation. However, there has been a change in the last decade which has significantly influenced the EFL classroom in most European countries. Nowadays more often than not, English becomes the means or channel of communication as well as the content of the class, and thus the aim. This has given birth to *Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)*³⁹. *CLIL* refers to “any activity in which a foreign language is used as a tool in the learning of a non-language subject in which both language and subject have a joint role” (Marsh 2002:58). *CLIL* is a result from a mixture of different approaches such as content-based instruction (Pica 2002), immersion and bilingual education among others. But “whilst *CLIL* shares certain aspects of learning and teaching with these, in essence it operates along a continuum of the foreign language and the non-language content without specifying the importance of one over another” (Coyle 2006:2).

Therefore, it is important to appreciate the difference between EFL classrooms (whose target is the English language) and *CLIL* classrooms (where Maths or History, for instance, are taught in English). As it will be seen in Chapter 4 below, the different schools in the present dissertation belong to the latter group although differ from each other in the degree of immersion (low vs. high immersion context). Indeed, *CLIL* is a concept that embraces all stages of education from primary to adults, from a few hours per week to intensive modules lasting several months. It may involve project work, examination courses, drama, etc...

“*CLIL* is flexible and dynamic, where topics and subjects- foreign languages and non-language subjects-are integrated in some kind of mutually beneficial way so as to provide value-added educational outcomes of the learning experience” (Coyle 2006:3).

In the schools taking part in my work, English is a foreign language but is taught through another subject, which involves the joint ability of language teachers and subject teachers to guarantee effective teaching and learning:

“It is obvious that teaching a subject in a foreign language is not the same as an integration of language and content...language teachers and subject teachers need to work together...to formulate the new didactics needed for a real integration of form and function in language teaching” (Kees de Bot in Marsh 2002:32)⁴⁰.

Interestingly enough, *CLIL* has become a movement with numerous variations, distributed in contexts. On a European level, the diversity of models demanded a

³⁹ Cf. Eurydice Report 2006 (url: <http://www.eurydice.org>) and EuroCLIC (url: <http://www.euroclil.net>).

⁴⁰ Cf. Marsh report url: <http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/languages/index.html>

revision of bilingual education according to the regional and national contexts: differences in social, cultural and linguistic diversity and attitudes to English would definitely shape the programs (e.g. *CLIL* will differ in Scotland, Luxembourg and Spain), (cf. Holmes 2005; Hood 2005).

3.3. Classroom Language Research Methods

“Research is a systematic approach to finding answers to questions” (Hatch and Fahardy 1982:1) and being systematic implies having a very thorough research design. This involves taking into account the setting (natural vs. instructional), the instrumentation (observation and evaluation instruments, data elicitation ways and procedures used: questionnaires, diary studies, introspection...), the measurement (defining acquisition points, index of development; cf. Cazden 1968; Richards 1980; Corder 1981) and the methodology.

“Methodological approaches to the study of L2 classrooms are extremely varied, reflecting both a great diversity of research questions and purposes and a range of theoretical perspectives on the conduct of research. In general, these approaches have followed methods adopted by researchers in native language schooling and other sociological and sociolinguistic studies of communicative interaction” (Chaudron 1988:13).

In *SLA*, methodologies range from qualitative to quantitative positions. The prototypical qualitative methodology is an ethnographic study in which the analysts try to observe the data, which may vary during the course of the analysis. Chaudron (2000:3) specifies there are three types of qualitative research today: collaborative research (cf. Schechter and Ramirez 1992; Ulichny and Schoener 1996), teacher research (Nunan 1992; Edge and Richards 1993) and action research (Crookes 1993). Quantitative studies, on the other hand, formulate a hypothesis, design an experiment, use objective instruments and carry out statistical analyses⁴¹. To some researchers (cf. Rist 1977; Reichardt and Cook 1979), the two types of methodologies imply a clash between two paradigms and thus two different ways of viewing the world. But, however different both approaches may be in theory development and methodology, Chaudron (2000) claims “differing research trends may eventually arrive at similar goals” (2000:6).

⁴¹ According to Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:15) there is a Qualitative-Quantitative Continuum of Research Methodologies: Introspection, Participant Observation, Non-participant observation, Focused description, Pre-experimental, Quasi-Experimental and Experimental.

Another way of differentiating research methods in *SLA* is the distinction between longitudinal (often case studies) and cross-sectional studies. Whereas the former involves the analysis of the development of linguistic performance, the latter means the study of the linguistic performance (often elicited) of a larger number of subjects. Longitudinal studies are usually associated with qualitative traits: naturalistic, process-oriented and ungeneralizable research. Cross-sectional studies, in turn, often display quantitative features (obstrusive, controlled measurement through artificial tasks, outcome-oriented and generalizable). However, some authors support the mutual dependence of qualitative and quantitative research methodologies (cf. Reichardt and Cook 1979). Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) acknowledge “there is nothing inherent in either approach to prohibit its being practised in a way consistent with the alternate paradigm” (1991:11).

3.3.1. Classroom Discourse Analysis

As it has been previously mentioned, because the study of L2 classrooms has been influenced by different disciplines, research developments in each of these areas have contributed to procedures for investigation. Among the different types of data analysis - Contrastive Analysis (cf. Fries 1945; Lado 1957), Error Analysis (Richards 1971; Selinker 1972), Performance Analysis (Dulay and Burt 1973; 1974a; 1974b)- lies *Classroom Discourse Analysis*.

CDA emerges as an answer to the need to examine both the learner’s performance and the input to the learner and stands as one of the four different classroom research methods⁴² Chaudron (1988:ch.2) acknowledges. It is worth mentioning that the other three methods are (i) the psychometric⁴³ tradition (Scherer and Wertheimer 1964; Politzer and Weiss 1969), (ii) the interaction analysis (Bales 1950; Flanders 1960) and (iii) the ethnographic tradition (Cazden, Vera and Hymes 1972; Trueba, Gunthrie and Hu-Pei Au 1981).

⁴² An extensive review of second language acquisition research and methodology can be found in Chaudron (1988), Brown (1988), Brumfit and Mitchell (1990), Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991), Chaudron (2000).

⁴³ Its main interest is to examine the quantitative relationships between various classroom activities or behaviours and language achievement (Chaudron 1988:14).

Discourse analysis, according to Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:71) has allowed (i) the investigation of the relationship between native speakers' input and learner's interlanguage forms; (ii) the analysis of the contribution of conversational interaction to *SLA*; and (iii) the observation of how interlanguage forms evolve and how learners use the forms appropriately for a particular discourse function as well: "the broader scope of language and the recognition of the need to view both form and function has opened up many new *SLA* areas of investigation" (Larsen-Freeman 1986:81).

As the approaches and methodologies in classroom language analysis have been various, so too have been the justifications for such research (Christie 2002a:1). While Bellack, Kliebard, Hyman and Smith (1966), Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) and Barnes and Todd's (1977) interest was to understand the nature of discourse and classroom talk, other studies have recently become educational in nature (cf. Cazden 1988; Edwards and Westgate 1994; Hicks 1995; Lemke 1998). New methods of discourse analysis enable the linguist to understand and examine language as the social construction of experience (Gee 1999; Christie 2002a).

As an illustration, it is worth mentioning a few areas under study within *CDA* that have somehow influenced the present thesis: foreigner talk discourse, coherence and cohesion (cf. Scarcella 1984), communicative strategies (Tarone 1977; Faerch and Kasper 1983), contextual analysis (Celce-Murcia 1980), interaction in the classroom (Spada 1986; van Lier 1988), discourse-functional analysis (Lynch 1983; Tomlin 1984) and speech act analysis (Richards and Schmidt 1979; Olshtain. and Blum-Kulka 1985). More specifically, *CDA* has been approached from different perspectives and thus results from different models of analysis. The following sections hence focus on those predominant models to explore classroom discourse that have contributed to my ulterior analysis (cf. Sinclair and Coulthard 1975; Papaefthymiou-Lytra 1990 and Christie 2000).

3.3.1.1. The I-R-F Model

CDA follows from the evolution in descriptive linguistics of analytical procedures for the description of suprasentential structures (van Dijk 1972; Dressler 1978) as well as from ethnographic and sociolinguistic investigations (Gumperz and

Hymes 1972). However, the most relevant work to the analysis of L1 classroom discourse was achieved by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975).

In the sixties the emergent interest in language interaction inside the classroom was centred upon the consequences of teacher talk in the pupil's achievement and involvement. Instead, the seventies became the scenario of the descriptive and systematic analysis of classroom discourse, endowed to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975)'s seminal work. Contemporary to Halliday, Austin and Searle, Sinclair and Coulthard were also concerned with the relationship between the functions and the forms of language, but understood the "function" of language as the discursive role an utterance plays in the classroom:

"We are interested in the function of an utterance or part of an utterance in the discourse and thus the sort of questions we ask about an utterance are whether it is intended to evoke a response, whether it is a response itself, whether it is intended to mark a boundary in the discourse and so on" (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975:14).

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) inherited the *constituency* principle (Halliday 1961) whereby the different units of language relate to each other by a part-whole relationship to the discourse level of language. Their data-driven analysis of classroom discourse (lying between the formal linguistic and pedagogical analysis) led them to develop a rank-scale taxonomy:

"the basic assumption of a rank scale is that a unit at a given rank, for example, *word*, is made up of one or more units of the rank below, *morpheme*, and combines with other units at the same rank to make one unit at the rank above, *group*" (Halliday 1961).

Consequently, they do not consider a single unit of measure or analysis: one unit results from the addition of lower units and is then embedded into a wider unit itself. Table 1 provides a summary of the different units within their system of analysis.

LESSON					
TRANSACTION					
EXCHANGE					
Boundary Exchanges Nomination, prompt, clue		Teaching Exchanges: directing, eliciting, checking			Informing,
Focusing	Framing	Opening	Answering	Follow up	
ACTS					
Metastatement	Marker	Starter	Acknowledge	Comment	
Conclusion	Silent stress	Elicitation	Reply	Accept	
		Check	React	Evaluate	
		Directive		Aside	
		Informative			
		Prompt			
		Clue			
		Cue			
		Bid			
		Nomination			
		Loop			
		(comment)			

Table 1. Summary of System of Classroom Discourse Analysis (after Sinclair and Coulthard 1975).

As Table 1 above displays, the lowest unit of measure which provides the pedagogical function of the verbal message is the ACT “and corresponds most nearly to the grammatical unit clause” (Sinclair and Coulthard 1992:8) but needs not do so since they do not correspond to a structural unit but to a pedagogic (discursive) unit. Among the more than twenty acts (see Table 1 above), the three major ones are *elicitation* (function as a request of linguistic information), *directive* (a request of non-linguistic response) and *informative* (passing on ideas/information), which in the discourse take place at the beginning of a move (initiating moves). According to Chaudron (1988), “these acts resemble the concept of ‘speech act’ (Searle 1969), a major unit of pragmatic analysis of language in use. Acts thus constitute the elements of each of the five types of move” (Chaudron 1988:41).

MOVES, the unit just above acts, are made up of acts and are again embedded themselves in the structure of EXCHANGES. The exchange is the basic unit of interaction where two participants are interacting. There are two types of exchanges: the BOUNDARY exchanges which are made up of the FRAMING move in charge of structuring one participant’s discourse and the FOCUSING move which talks about the discourse (metadiscourse); and the TEACHING exchanges which are organised around three moves: OPENING, ANSWERING, FOLLOW-UP moves, later known as the *Initiation-Response-Follow-up* sequence. In turn, the exchanges can again contribute to having

different types of TRANSACTIONS in the classroom, a higher unit in discourse analysis: *Informing, Directing and Eliciting*. And on the top of all the units lies the LESSON, the highest unit in the classroom context.

In their analysis, each unit is analysed on two grounds: its structure within a wider unit and its internal structure where the pedagogical function can be explored. In this sense, both the form and the pedagogical function are examined. The definition of a turn therefore involves the analysis of both the act (function) and the role it plays within the exchange (discourse) and then the study of the type of exchange and transaction it results in.

Sinclair and Coulthard's analytical system constitutes a reference point for the analysis of classroom discourse in the literature⁴⁴ since it has provided a "finite descriptive apparatus", "set the criteria of categorisation" and "accounted for the description of the whole data" (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975:16). While the triadic internal structure of the exchange -*Opening-Answering-Follow up* (Initiation-Response-Follow up)- has been mostly accepted and corroborated in other studies (Willies 1983), it has also constituted a debated issue. Presented as *the* unmarked mode of classroom interaction, it has been revised and extended by other studies (Sinclair and Brazil 1982; Heap 1988; Sinclair and Coulthard 1992; Coulthard and Brazil 1992; Wells 1993).

Heap's (1988) study accounts for how discourse structures contribute to the accomplishment of pedagogic tasks. Understanding the task as "something for the group" (Heap 1988:181), achieved through talk and involving teacher and students, his empirical analysis of question-answer-comments in a reading task reveals that the *I-R-F* sequence is task-specific and that it can be expanded according to the task. Coulthard and Brazil (1992), on the other hand, revise Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) triadic exchange structure, when looking at the pupil's exchange structures (pupil inform-teacher responds; and pupil elicits and teacher responds) since no follow-up was present in contrast to those exchanges the teacher initiated. They suggest that the first two moves are compulsory (initiation and response) whereas the follow-up is an optional slot. Furthermore, they abandon the labels *Opening, Answering* and *Follow-up* in order

⁴⁴ It must also be said that their comprehensive analytical scheme has not often been used by second language classroom researchers, who have normally selected only few of the acts or moves.

to adopt the *Eliciting* (for initiation), *Informing* (for response) and *Acknowledging* (for follow-up). Furthermore, other specifications or modifications have given birth to distinct systems of classroom discourse analysis. The following sections provide an account of two alternative models crucial to the analysis undertaken in the present dissertation: the EFL classroom discourse analysis and the Systemic Functional analysis.

3.3.1.2. “Towards an analysis of Foreign Language classroom discourse”⁴⁵

Coulthard (1977) claims that verbal interaction inside the classroom differs from casual conversation since its main purpose is to instruct and inform. Whereas these characteristics portray L1 classroom discourse, the foreign language classroom serves more than one function simultaneously: “L2 discourse functions are broader and more varied than the functions of L1 discourse” (Papaefthymiou-Lytra 1990:25). Indeed, (i) the FL is both the language of instruction and the means whereby instruction takes place and (ii) the FL is expected to be used outside the classroom. Many authors agree on the need to consider classroom discourse not only in pedagogical terms but as a social event (cf. Allwright 1984; Tsui 1987a; van Lier 1988; Richards and Skelton 1989).

The uniqueness of foreign classroom discourse therefore requires certain restrictions in its description and analysis. Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1990) considers the *discourse analysis approach*, on the one hand, in that it accounts for aspects of classroom practices as drilling, question-answers, where the teacher controls the discourse (topic, turn-taking, pace, length of discourse, etc...). On the other hand, the *conversational analysis approach* better accounts for the conversational activity at exchange level (i.e. error correction, discipline, casual talk), which is unpredictable. According to Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1990), both approaches are concerned with giving an account of how coherence and sequential organisation in discourse are produced. Whereas the *discourse analysis approach* integrates linguistic findings about intra-sentential organisation with discourse structure and relies on predetermined categorisation and rule following, the *conversational analysis approach* faces pragmalinguistic unpredictability in the classroom and relies on inductive methods of analysis. Additionally, he acknowledges the importance of the *interaction analysis*

⁴⁵ (Papaefthymiou-Lytra 1990:24)

approach (cf. Moskowitz 1978) and the *ethnographic approach* (cf. van Lier 1988) when the other two approaches cannot explain satisfactorily some processes present in the FL classroom.

Consequently, Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1981/1987) proposes a model of analysis between native speakers/non-native speakers and non-native speakers/non-native speakers, which results from an adaptation of Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975). Broadly speaking, his model comprises three levels. First, the non-linguistic organisation describes the non-linguistic characteristics of FL classroom discourse (course> session> stage> topic). Second, the level of discourse is concerned with the functional properties of classroom discourse, namely the flow of interaction (lesson> transaction> exchange> turn> move> act). And third, the level of grammar categories describes the formal linguistic properties of discourse in the FL classroom (often resulting from a mixture of L1 and L2) (sentence> clause> group> word> morpheme).

Due to the peculiarity of FL discourse, Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1990:30) provides several specifications which differentiate his model from Sinclair and Coulthard's. Within the non-linguistic organisation, a session is divided into six stages: a warm-up stage, the presentation and input stage (subject or topic oriented), the drilling stage (meaningful practice), the practice stage (e.g. problem-solving or role-playing activities), the communicating stage and the farewell stage. As far as the level of discourse is concerned, Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1990) inherits Sinclair and Coulthard's rankshifted system whose minimal unit is the act. However, as the FL is both the subject taught and the means of communication, the acts relate to micro- and macro-level of discourse. The latter is that part of the lesson where teachers instruct or manage the class, give extra-explanations, clarifications about the content of the lesson and the processes involved in the completion of the session, which is often done in the learners' L1. The former, in turn, relates to that part of the lesson where teachers and learners deal with the content of the lesson of the day. In other words, they deal with the foreign language as a subject to be taught and thus to be achieved in the L2.

Furthermore, Papaefthymiou-Lytra's (1990) system of analysis includes other acts specific to the FL context (e.g. reject, monitor, summons, filling-in, or metatalk, among others) and broadens the range of exchanges: (i) the four-turn type (initiation,

response, follow-up, follow-up), (ii) the building-up type (initiation, response, initiation, response, follow-up), (iii) the summing-up type (initiation, response, follow-up, initiation, response, follow-up, initiation response, follow up), (iv) the loop sequence type, (v) the metatalk sequence type and (vi) the looming-in-the-background act type.

Finally, the level of linguistic realisations urges us to consider the language behaviour in the FL classroom and its function. Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1990:73) examines classroom discourse in semantic/linguistic terms and in interactive/sociological terms. In so doing, he analyses certain features of verbal encounters using the tools offered by conversational analysis (cf. Chaudron 1988; van Lier 1988). Broadly speaking, FL classroom communication should serve two important macro-functions (i.e. the pedagogy and the interaction function) and three main micro-functions (i.e. linguistic, managerial and instructional functions).

What is most relevant to the present dissertation is the fact that this model understands the exploration of teacher-learner interaction as a result of a multilevel analysis (grammar and discourse) where the FL specifies the range of exchanges, specific to the EFL classroom. Also cross-stratal in nature, the systemic functional model below approaches classroom discourse in a complementary way to the one reviewed in this section.

3.3.2. Systemic Functional Theory and its relevance for a model of CDA

Systemic Functional Linguistics has been the framework embracing research from the most theoretical to applied disciplines. Within applied linguistics, research covers the *linguistic implications* of SFL by considering how language constitutes texts (Martin 1992), its *developmental implications* by studying how the child's cognitive development can be seen in linguistic terms as the building of a meaning potential realised in texts and how language evolves in children (Halliday 1975; Cloran 1989; Painter 1989; Painter 1996; Painter 2000); *cultural implications*, i.e. how language is related to the speakers' society and culture (Hasan 1985), *social implications*, e.g. why are working-class children in disadvantage position in education (Cloran, Butt and Williams 1996; Hasan 1996) and mostly *pedagogical/educational implications* (Hasan and Martin 1989; Christie and Unsworth 2000): e.g. language in secondary education,

the teaching/learning of foreign languages⁴⁶ (Perret 2000), teaching of literacy (Christie 1989; Rothery 1989; Barrio-Luis 2004; Martín-Úriz and Whittaker 2005) and classroom discourse analysis (Christie 2000; Christie 2002a).

SFL understands language as a form of social activity and as a crucial tool that enables teachers and learners to work together. Thus, *SFL* highly encourages the research of language in the classroom both in the first language (Christie 2000; 2002a) and the second and foreign language (Gibbons 1998; Perrett 2000). Christie (2000:184; 2002a), motivated by how to study the patterns of spoken language that teachers use in order to monitor their own teaching practice, focuses on the language of classroom interaction. Christie's (2002a) analysis is framed within the systemic functional linguistic theory (e.g. Halliday 1985; Martin 1992; Halliday and Matthiessen 1999), draws on genre theory in the *SFL* tradition (Halliday and Hasan 1985; Martin 1992; Christie and Martin 1997) and also uses some aspects of sociological theories (Bernstein's (1990; 2000) pedagogic discourse).

To fully appreciate research on classroom discourse analysis within *SFL*, I shall now turn to a brief account of the functional systemic theory⁴⁷. The sections below will outline those aspects of the theory which are relevant to the model of classroom discourse analysis that will later be borne in mind in the research design and analysis of the data.

3.3.2.1. Meaning and function in context: the metafunctions of language

The semantic and functional orientation of *SFL* accounts for the intention of explaining how language is structured to be used in accordance with the contextual situation. In the analysis of how language is structured for use, *SFL* focuses on the different ways the three main functions performed by language (ideational, interpersonal and textual) are represented in the language system through the called

⁴⁶ In *Second Language Development*⁴⁶ researchers focus on how learners use language, how they learn to use it and how their language use changes over time (Perrett 2000: 89).

⁴⁷ As mentioned in the introduction, the present study has been framed within *SFL* theory and has thus been significantly shaped by several of its features. Consequently, the relevant aspects of *SFL* theory will be discussed throughout the following chapters (methodology and analysis). In so doing, this dissertation will be unfold within its framework (*SFL*) so as to appreciate those features which have been preserved and which have been modified from the original model so as to create a new system of analysis.

“metafunctions” (Halliday 1985) and on how those are articulated in relation to the context of occurrence, e.g. the classroom.

Understanding meaning as the expression of the language functions, meaning is to be looked at in the light of the three different functions that language, according to *SFL*, simultaneously performs and achieves in the text. More specifically, it is said that language organises itself around two fundamental types of meaning: i.e. the *ideational* or reflexive related to the speaker’s or writer’s experience of the world, used to describe events or states; and the *interpersonal* or active related to the interaction with other people, concerned with the expression of social roles (Halliday 1994:xiii). Articulated between the two lies the third component “which breathes relevance into the other two” (*ibid.*), the *textual* function, that accounts for the actual use of language in order to organise the message both internally (within clauses and sentences/utterances, making links in itself) and externally (within the text as a whole and the situation where it is created).

Each function/meaning performed by language is realised in a set of lexicogrammatical choices- central stratum of language (Halliday 1994:15) - organised around the three metafunctions. The speaker is therefore able to create meaning by the selections in lexicogrammar in the different systems available for the expression of the three metafunctions. In other words, each function is realised through a specific system at the clause-level (Halliday 1967b; 1973; 1985) since the clause is the unit of linguistic description in *Systemic Functional Grammar*. The underlying mode of interpretation of *SFL* is *functional*. Bearing in mind that the structure is explained in reference to meaning and that “there is a general principle in language whereby it is the larger units that function more directly in the realisation of higher-level patterns” (Halliday 1994:19), the *clause* enables the study of the semantic features represented in grammar both in the written and spoken modes.

The three functions of the language are therefore realised in grammar through the systems of linguistic choices of the three metafunctions: ideational, interpersonal and textual. First, just a word to clarify that the *ideational* metafunction comprises the *experiential* and the *logical* components of language. The *experiential* function aims at

the expression of content. The selections relate to the semantic categories embodied in the linguistic structures that express the phenomena of the real world: the Processes, Participants and Circumstances of the particular meaning that is communicated. And the grammatical system by which this is achieved is TRANSITIVITY (cf. Halliday 1967b). The choices of types of processes refer to the expression of experience as “consisting on ‘goings on’- happening, doing, sensing, meaning, and being and becoming” (Halliday 1994:106) which are sorted out in the grammar of the clause. In English, the sets of process types are *material* (doing, outer experience), *behavioural* (consciousness), *mental* (inner experience), *verbal* (saying and meaning) *relational* (classifying and identifying) and *existential* (existing, being, happening) (Halliday 1994:107). The Participants, in turn, are the people and things involved in the process and that, grammatically, are directly related to the verb. It then follows that they are selected in the system in relation to the process displayed, i.e. while material processes would select *actor* and *goal* as participants, the mental processes would be achieved by the *senser* and will involve a *phenomenon* (cf. Halliday 1994:143). Finally, Circumstances “encode the background against which the process takes place” (Thompson 1996:105). *SFL* provides nine different circumstances: extent, location, manner, cause, contingency, accompaniment, role, matter and angle.

The *logical* component, standing for some authors (Thompson 1996) as the “fourth metafunction” defines complex units, e.g. the CLAUSE COMPLEX (Halliday 1994:179). To consider the “clause complex” as the unit implies that two types of relationship are created. On the one hand, the combination of the clauses in one clause complex creates meaning in relation to the logical dependency between these two clauses: parataxis (should they be on equal status) or hypotaxis (should one of them depend on the other). On the other hand, the logical component analyses the relation of the clause and its parts, thus the logical-semantic relations established between clauses: expansion (whereby the meaning of a clause is expanded by means of elaboration, extension or enhancement) or projection (quotes, reports, thoughts).

Secondly, the *interpersonal* function- use of language to express the speaker’s roles in the interaction- is identified with the expression of the interpersonal

metafunction in lexicogrammar. The MOOD system⁴⁸ allows the speaker to express his/her role by displaying the range of the basic speech functions (i) give information, (ii) give goods and services, (iii) demand information and (iv) demand goods and services, which are embodied in the different mood types: indicative (declarative and interrogative) and imperative. Additionally, the interpersonal meanings are expressed in the Mood structure (Mood –subject and finite- and Residue) and the modality expressed. Furthermore, in spoken discourse, the TONE system within intonation displays an interpersonal function (Halliday 1967a; Halliday 1970; Halliday 1994:302).

Finally, the *textual* function- related to the creation of an appropriate context for the expression of ideational and interpersonal meanings- is associated to the lexicogrammatical choices in the textual metafunction, where the speakers organise the message, structure the information of a text and relate the different parts of discourse to construct a whole. The expression of textual meanings in the clause is achieved by the system of THEME (in written language) and INFORMATION STRUCTURE (in spoken language) at a structural level, and COHESION (Halliday and Hasan 1976) at a non-structural level. The THEME system (cf. Halliday 1967b) is responsible for organising the different components of the clause as a message and to structure the information (*theme*, first element in the clause and point of departure of the message, and *rheme*, what is added to the theme). The INFORMATION STRUCTURE, in turn, contributes to the textual organisation of language since it also organises information in speech by means of intonation: the “given” information is normally placed at the beginning, and represents the point that is already known by the listener whereas the “new” information (unmarkedly, the tonic element) is what is newly introduced by the speaker and comes later, to be processed more easily. The difference between the two textual functions is “that while ‘given’ means ‘what you were talking about’, [...], ‘theme’ means ‘what I am talking about’” (Halliday 1967b:212).

Of special interest to the present study is the semiotic nature of language. This is what accounts for the expression of the three types of meanings (ideational, interpersonal and textual) in the structure of the clause being achieved simultaneously. In other words, the multifunctionality of language is also reflected in the linguistic

⁴⁸ Because the interpersonal metafunction is analysed in the project at the level of lexicogrammar, a detailed account of the MOOD system is provided in chapter 4 below.

structure. “As performers and receivers, we simultaneously both communicate through language and interact through language; and as a necessary condition for both of these, we create and recognize discourse” (Halliday 1973:165). Consequently, the created discourse – resulting from the functions and their realisation in structure- responds to the demands that are made on language in the actual situation and context in which language is used. More specifically, the section below focuses on how discourse (in this case, teacher talk) is to be understood within a particular context (the EFL classroom).

3.3.2.2. Text, context and genre

“Meaning is always constructed within a context and context limits the range of meanings that can be selected” (Christie and Unsworth 2000:3).

Understanding language as a direct manifestation and instantiation of the context in which the discourse is produced (written or spoken), *SFL* relates the speaker’s language with their actions and lives. In other words, both the semantic and thus the linguistic choices are constrained to their context (Halliday 1973). Indeed, the interrelationship between language and context is manifest in the two major objectives of *SFL*: (i) *understanding* a text, and (ii) to *evaluate* the text, i.e. assess if the text is efficiently communicated, if it achieves its intended purpose, since this “requires the interpretation not only of the text itself but also of its context (context of situation, context of culture) and of the systematic relationship between context and text” (Halliday 1994:xv).

On the one hand, the use of language is modelled by the context of situation. The context of situation is the immediate context in which the speaker uses language (talking with a sister vs. talking to the doctor) called “*register*” (Halliday 1985; Martin 1992; Matthiessen 1995). On the other hand, the use of language is shaped by the context of culture, i.e. the linguistic choices result from the cultural conventions, which indeed set up the appropriateness of language within a particular context, studied under “*genre*” (Hasan 1985; Ventola 1987). “Register” and “Genre” are the two planes of interpretation of context (Martin 1992:495), “with register functioning as the expression form of genre, at the same time as register functioning as the expression form of register” (*ibid.*) (cf. Figure 4 below).

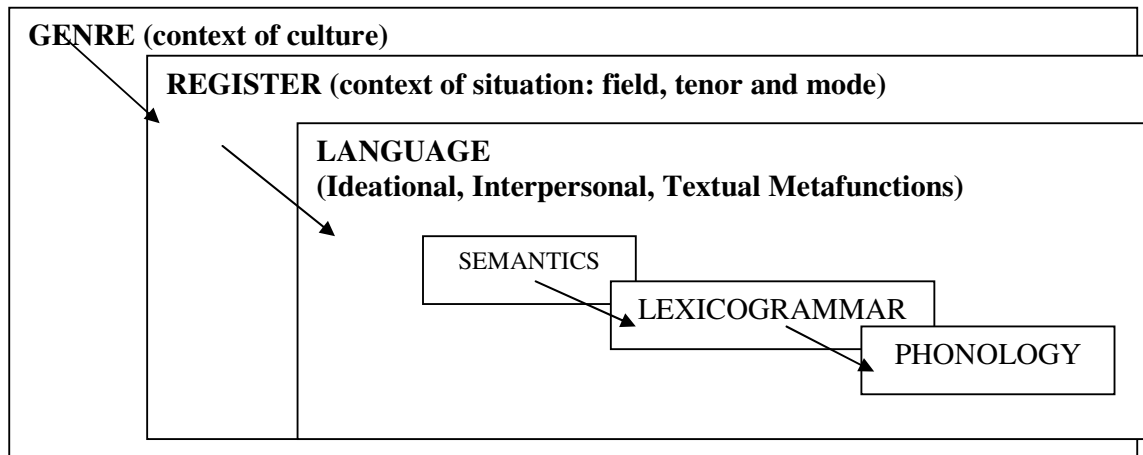


Fig.4. "Language and its semiotic environment" (after Martin 1992).

Starting from the broader context, *SFL* theory believes that humans engage in social activities centred in the use of language. These activities are purpose-oriented. The politician and the professor's speeches may share the language but their structure and organisation, among others, should differ. Indeed, those discourses do not have the same intention or purpose since while one aims at persuading citizens, the other intends to pass new information onto his/her students and be understood. Texts are thus constructed according to some culturally accepted bases that determine how to shape and structure the message: "text structure is referred to as *schematic structure* in Martin's model, with genre defined as a staged, goal-oriented social process realised through register" (Martin 1992:505, my italics). Indeed, *genre* is materialised in the immediate contextual situation. The register refers to "all those extra-linguistic factors which have some bearing on the text itself" (Halliday and Hasan 1976:21), namely the *field*, *tenor* and *mode* (Halliday 1985) also called the *social action*, the *role structure* and the *symbolic organisation* (Martin 1992:500). These three variables define and together configure the register (cf. Butt 2002).

Field refers to the content of the message, i.e. the topic, "the nature of the social action: what it is the interactants are about" (Halliday 1994:390), and influences language in that it defines the degree of generality or specificity the message should display. *Tenor* refers to "the statuses and role relationships: who is taking part in the interaction" (*ibid.*), it thus shapes language by considering the nature of the participants and their relation to each other (distance and power relationships):

"what kinds of relationships obtain among the participants, including permanent and temporary relationships of one kind or another, both the types of speech role that they are taking on in the dialogue and the whole cluster of socially

significant relationships in which they are involved” (Halliday and Hasan 1985:12).

And, *Mode* refers to the role and part the text is playing, contrasting thus written vs. spoken, spontaneous vs. prepared:

“what it is that the participants are expecting the language to do for them in that situation, the symbolic organisation of the text, the status it has, and its function in the context, including the channel [...] and also the rhetorical mode, what is being achieved by the text in terms of such categories as persuasive, expository, didactic and the like” (Halliday and Hasan 1985:12).

Interestingly, as mentioned above, the three register variables establish the analysis of language with respect to its context of situation thus interrelating between language and the situation itself. It then follows that the relation “language-situation” inevitably creates a link between the linguistic systems instantiating the ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings of language (TRANSITIVITY, MOOD, THEME) and the situational variables defining the register (*Field*, *Tenor* and *Mode*), the former becoming the instantiation of the later (Figure 4 above). In this sense, each register variable is realised in language in a set of lexicogrammatical choices. *Field* can be related to the ideational metafunction of language instantiated by TRANSITIVITY, *Tenor* can be related to the interpersonal metafunction of language realised through the MOOD system and *Mode* can be associated to the textual metafunction of language instantiated through THEME.

Once the relationship between the functions of language (meaning) and the different linguistic systems that instantiate them (structure) has been outlined, a look at “genre” and pedagogy will contribute to appreciate the analysis of teacher talk within a wider context, namely, the classroom.

3.3.2.3. Genre, pedagogy and classroom discourse analysis

Within *SFL*, classroom work is understood as a structured activity. One of the fundamental themes recurrent in classroom discourse analysis is language behaviour seen as structured experience. Prior to Sinclair and Coulthard’s (1975) system of analysis, Flanders (1970) and Bellack *et al.* (1966) already conceived classroom talk in terms of structure and understood lessons in ordered and hierarchical terms (game, sub-game, cycle, move). As mentioned above, Sinclair and Coulthard’s (1975) model of classroom discourse borrowed from Halliday’s theory of scale and the principle of

constituency, which gave rise to a system of analysis involving a series of ranks and levels arranged in hierarchical order. However, the *I-R-F* pattern has led much educational research to criticise teaching practices that limited students to the use of that pattern.

In the last decade, research maintains it is necessary to consider the total patterns of talk in which the *I-R-F*⁴⁹ occurs (Wells 1993, 1999; van Lier 1996; 2000; Mercer 2000) and has even sought more open patterns of talk in which students have the opportunity to initiate and take the talk and thus modify the *IRF* pattern of talk (cf. Heap 1988; Wood 1992; Edwards and Westgate 1994; Nassaji and Wells 2001).

“Rather than merely reject such a discourse pattern as the IRE as needlessly constraining of students, we should look at the total sequences of classroom talk (often over quite long periods of time) in order to make judgements about the relative values of these or any other patterns of discourse. What is the role of the IRE pattern in the overall structuring and negotiation of meanings in curriculum activity? Ironically, a great deal of classroom discourse analysis has had a lot to say about the structuring of talk in terms of the IRE and related moves, but it has often neglected to look at the nature of the meanings in construction, the relative roles and responsibilities of teachers and students at the time of constructing those meanings, and the placement of such patterns in the overall larger cycle of classroom work” (Christie 2002a:5).

That is why Christie (2000; 2002a) feels larger units of curriculum activity as genres or macro-genres should be adopted and that “a focus on the larger pedagogical unity that is the genre or the macrogenre will enable us to see how the patterns of classroom discourse emerge, develop, change and are modified over time, allowing negotiation and construction of meanings in many ways” (Christie 2002a:5). Along with these claims, Wells (1999) and Green and Dixon (1993) also understand it is crucial to consider the teaching-learning activity over long sequences of time.

Genre theory has been developed in the systemic functional tradition since the 1980s (cf. Reid 1987; Martin 1992; Hasan 1995; Freedman and Medway 1994; Lee 1996). Several works (Christie and Martin 1997; Christie 2000; Christie 2002a) adopt the term “genre” because a discussion of the genres found in schooling contributes to the wider body of work on genres and their description in the SF tradition. In turn, the notion of a “curriculum genre” is useful because it provides a principled basis to make selections, identify sequences of activity, analyse and interpret classroom texts (cf.

⁴⁹ The “IRF” model has also been called “I-R-E” (cf. Mehan’s (1979) *Initiation, Response, Evaluation*) in most American research on classroom discourse (e.g. Cazden 1988) and has also been known as “Triadic dialogue” (Lemke 1990).

Nassaji and Wells 2001; Christie 2002a). In other words, the classroom genre helps the researcher avoid making arbitrary selections of passages of text:

“while we can agree, then, that a passage of classroom text is always a selection, we can also argue that a concern for the overall generic structure of some classroom activity involves a commitment to trying to interpret a reasonably complete cycle of teaching-learning activity, tracing and following those shifts and changes in the discourse through which the teaching-learning activity is effected” (Christie 2002a:23)

Furthermore, the use of “*Genre theory*” also accounts for the nature of the two registers that operate within the curriculum genre: *instructional* and *regulative*:

“We shall define pedagogic discourse as the rule which embeds a discourse of competence (skills of various kinds) into a discourse of social order in such a way that the latter always dominates the former. We shall call the discourse transmitting specialised competences and their relation to each other *instructional* discourse and the discourse creating specialised order, relation and identity *regulative* discourse” (Bernstein 1990:183, his italics).

Borrowing Bernstein’s terms, Christie argues that the “pedagogic discourse” in the curriculum genres of schooling functions is realised in a first order or regulative register⁵⁰ (to do with the goals of the pedagogic relationship, directions, pacing, sequencing of classroom activities) and in a second-order or instructional register (the content to be taught). In her work, *Classroom Discourse Analysis*, Christie (2002a) examines how the pedagogic discourse operates in different curriculum genres (morning news genre (Christie 2002b) and early writing planning genre (Christie 2002c)) and explains how the regulative and instructional registers converge or become foregrounded at specific points of the macrogenre, depending on the age of the subjects (primary vs. secondary school).

To Christie (2000; 2002a), a curriculum point is taught/learned throughout one or a series of lessons. Such a sequence of lessons is called “a cycle” and constitutes a curriculum macrogenre, where the two registers are indispensable. The term macrogenre was coined by Martin (1994; 1995; Martin and Rothery 1981) when exploring written genres of schooling and refers to “the larger unity created by a text that incorporates several ‘elemental’ genres” (Christie 2002d:97). Curriculum macrogenres have common features with curriculum genres. They have a beginning, middle and end pattern which unfolds through various shifts in the language. A curriculum macrogenre has an *initiating genre* whose goal is to establish the aims for the teaching and learning, defining strategies for work. This consists of series of phases or stages which define the

⁵⁰ Note that Bernstein’s instructional and regulative “discourses” will be referred to as “registers” within SF theory.

tasks, the framework for working and the criteria for evaluation. The *middle genres* vary from one macrogenre to another, depending upon the overall goals, the instructional field and the age. There may be one or more middle genres and these will involve several lessons. The *final genre* will aim at the closure and completion of the task(s)⁵¹.

Along these lines, other researchers within *SFL* re-evaluate, describe and analyse the I-R-F sequence framing their study within the Hallidayian theory of discourse (Hasan and Martin 1989; Lemke 1985; 1990; Wells 1993; 1999; Nassaji and Wells 2001). Lemke (1985) used the concept “register” to differentiate classroom situations and the activities that take place within them. The activity type is to him the basic unit of semiotic analysis, involves linguistic interaction and can be studied on two dimensions: (i) the structure of the activity in terms of the functions performed by the successive moves in the exchange and (ii) the subject content. His study somehow echoes Christie’s (1991) proposal of two different registers explained above.

Wells’s (1993) analysis of classroom discourse is based on (i) Leontiev’s (1981) “activity theory” whereby an activity is carried out through the performance of one or more actions and those, in turn, consist of one or more operations and (ii) Halliday’s emphasis on language use as a form of social activity and the recognition of the exchange as the basic unit of communication (Halliday 1984): “the exchange accounts for the internal organisation of discourse in terms, primarily, of the reciprocal relationship of predicting and predicted between adjacent moves” (Wells 1993:7) and (iii) Halliday’s concept of register that implies an external relationship between the discourse and the context in which it occurs.

“we can characterize discourse as the collaborative behaviour of two or more participants as they use the meaning potential of a shared language to mediate the establishment and achievement of their goals in social action. In order to be successful in this endeavor, they must negotiate a common interpretation of the situation in terms of field, tenor and mode and, in the successive moves through which they complete the exchange of goods and services or information, they must make appropriate choices from their linguistic resources in terms of the ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions” (Wells 1993:8).

In turn, within *Genre theory*, Nassaji and Wells (2001:34) consider the *IRF* (“triadic dialogue”) is a generic structure that constitutes a genre where the different roles that the teacher and students may give rise to different “sub-genres” of triadic dialogue.

⁵¹ See White (1997), Iedema (1994, 1997) and Martin (1996) for a more detailed account of the structure of macrogenres (linear, serial or orbital).

Accordingly, the model to analyse classroom discourse *SFL* proposes is based on a use of the systemic functional grammar and genre theory (curriculum genres and macrogenres). The classroom is understood to be a socially constructed and negotiated activity that “may be analysed in terms of genres-staged, purposive, goal-driven activities in which teachers and students structure and organize teaching-learning processes of various kinds” (Christie 2002e:161). Her analysis of classroom discourse in long passages of curriculum activity provides linguistic evidence for the operation of the two registers. Furthermore, her work helps us to understand there is a pedagogical relationship constructed (*ibid.*): (i) it draws attention to the instructional and regulative registers; (ii) it draws attention to the privileged and privileging status of such discourses and the power they confer, (iii) it suggests the authority embodied by the teacher in initiating, facilitating and structuring the pedagogic relationship, and (iv) it specifies the position of the students in the pedagogic relationship while they acquire different ways of behaving, responding and construing experience.

3.4.Literature Review: Summary

The present dissertation results from my concern for positing a model of analysis of a type of acts (regulatory functions), describing their contextual distribution and exploring their linguistic realisation by teachers in the EFL classroom. Consequently, the two main areas that underlie the present study are (i) *Pragmatics* (which provides us with the theoretical framework to understand the study of meaning and its linguistic realisation in a particular context) and (ii) *Classroom Discourse Analysis* (which enables the researcher to approach teacher talk and offers the tools, systems and models to analyse discourse).

Chapter 2 has first depicted the notion of “pragmatics”, given its main features and presented the two areas of study most relevant to the present dissertation: *Speech Act Theory* and *Politeness Theory*. Then, it has focused on a branch of pragmatics, i.e. *Interlanguage pragmatics*, so as to appreciate the study of speech acts in the language classroom. More specifically, focusing on requests and suggestions, Chapter 2 has examined how regulatory functions are instantiated in language and has reviewed those works that have explored the function-form relationship. And last, Chapter 2 has considered the extent to which pragmatics is teachable in the EFL classroom through the different teaching trends (*Focus on forms*; *Focus on meaning* and *Focus on form*).

Chapter 3, in turn, has approached *Classroom Discourse Analysis and Research* in relation to second and foreign language acquisition. Once the role of input has been reviewed in natural contexts, several instructional settings have been considered regarding different *SLA* theories and distinct learning contexts (ESL, EFL and CLIL classrooms). Finally, *CDA* has been pictured within classroom research by paying attention to different models of analysis (i.e. the *I-R-F* pattern, the *EFL* discourse analysis model and the *SFL* approach).

Therefore, Chapters 2 and 3 together provide the researcher with the framework within which (i) the study of meaning and its linguistic instantiation can be achieved, (ii) speech acts can be understood in a particular register, i.e. teacher talk, and (iii) a model of EFL classroom discourse analysis can be postulated; a challenging task the present research has undertaken and which unfolds in the following chapters.

DATA AND RESEARCH METHOD

“At present, two of our most striking unresolved methodological problems are (a) how to identify appropriate units of analysis for classifying and categorising behaviours observed in the language classroom (linguistic and otherwise) and (b) how best to access the intentions, plans and strategies of classroom participants which underlie observed behaviour. Classroom research, if it is to remain productive, must retain a questioning attitude not only towards the objects of study, but also towards its own procedures and assumptions” (Brumfit and Mitchell 1990:15).

CHAPTER 4: DATA AND RESEARCH METHOD

4.1. *Corpus* linguistics

- 4.1.1. An overview of corpora studies
- 4.1.2. *Corpus*-based research
- 4.1.3. *Corpus* Linguistics and second language acquisition and research
- 4.1.4. Design of the *UAMLESC corpus*
 - 4.1.4.1. Subjects and teaching-learning contexts
- 4.1.5. Design of the sub-*corpus*
 - 4.1.5.1. Size of the sub-*corpus*
 - 4.1.5.2. Selection of the data

4.2. The study of meaning: a cross-stratal analysis

- 4.2.1. The nature of the study
- 4.2.2. The units of analysis
 - 4.2.2.1. Analysing meaning
 - 4.2.2.2. The “communicative function” and the “clause”

4.3. Materials and tools in the *corpus* codification and analysis

- 4.3.1. *Corpus* codification
- 4.3.2. System networks as a tool of analysis
 - 4.3.2.1. Definition and creation of system networks
- 4.3.3. Software backing the quantitative analyses

4.4. Summary

4. DATA AND RESEARCH METHOD

This chapter provides the methodological and theoretical principles underlying the design of the present investigation. To begin with, the first section presents an account of the relevant corpora studies in second and foreign language research. Following the historical review, attention is paid to the compilation, transcription and analysis of the *corpus*.

Bearing in mind that the study of the instantiation of regulatory functions in teacher talk is cross-stratal in nature, each layer of analysis requires a distinct unit of analysis. Hence, the second section below introduces “the communicative function” and “the clause” as the two discrete units pivotal to this investigation and presents them both in isolation and in interaction. Finally, the third section focuses on the tools (both manual and electronical) that the researcher has used at the different stages of the current research.

4.1. Corpus linguistics

Sixty years ago, a new branch in Linguistics came to change not only the means by which language would be handled but the way researchers would think about language: *Corpus Linguistics* had been brought to life. The creation of some corpora and the appearance of computers as efficient agents that organised and stored huge amounts of data were the main factors that contributed to that unforeseen revolution in Linguistics. Nowadays, some researchers claim that “most text-based research makes use of a computerised *corpus* in one way or another” (Aijmer and Altenberg 1991:2).

The main purpose of this section is to introduce the reader to the concept of “*corpus* linguistics” and consider it as a science whose tools can nowadays allow the researcher to analyse language as discourse. The discussion is divided into three main sections. First, *Corpus Linguistics* is briefly presented in its historical background. Second, the advantages of *corpus* studies in classroom research are outlined. And third, while presenting my own *corpus*, I propose a definition and the main characteristics, the tools and methodology that a linguist should consider in the elaboration of a *corpus*.

4.1.1. An overview of corpora studies

The first seeds of *corpus* studies were sown sixty years ago when positivism and behaviourism came to be new ways of looking at science: anything that was not seen or proved was not considered to exist. Therefore, linguists thought language should be isolated in order to approach it. In the fifties, computers brought with them a new form of storing, classifying and organising data and thus enabled researchers to observe language differently.

In 1959, Randolph Quirk started the *Survey of English Usage* (SEU), the first *corpus* of spoken and written English. Two years later, Francis and Henry Kücera made the *Brown University Corpus* (one million words) which was followed by the *Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen Corpus*, which studies the varieties of English. Among the most important spoken corpora lie the *London-Lund Corpus* (directed by J. Svartvik, it compiles spoken interactions at university and presents a prosodic description of the data), the *British National Corpus*, with a 4 million word *corpus* of spoken interactions, and the *Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English* (CANCODE) that incorporates data from a wide variety of social contexts, speakers from different ages, regions, etc... It should be mentioned at this point that corpora increasingly become the source grammarians consider in order to design grammars that portray a more authentic use of language, e.g. Quirk, Svartvik, Leech and Greenbaum's *Collins Cobuild Grammar* (University of Birmingham) and the *Longman Grammar*.

4.1.2. *Corpus* -based research

According to Granger (1996:21), *Corpus Linguistics* (hence, *CL*) aims at studying the language that actually takes place and not that which supposedly does. Actually, *CL* emerges as a new direction to carry out research: instead of analysing texts according to grammars, linguists first observe patterns within the real use of a language and elaborate grammars accordingly.

Granger (1998) outlines the difference between “*corpus-based studies*” and “*corpus-driven studies*”. While the former are those which, based on a *corpus*, use the data to check, validate or refute some previous hypotheses, the latter emerge from a *corpus* as they describe the results that have been found in the data.

Corpus-based research is nowadays positively influencing and shaping the way linguistic studies proceed. Among its many advantages often cited in the literature, it is worthwhile mentioning its main effects on linguistic theory and its pedagogical implications. On the one hand, *CL* allows “more realistic foundations for the study of language” (Aijmer and Altenberg 1991:2) as it mainly deals with natural texts and it provides highly reliable quantitative findings. Likewise, it provides quantitative and probabilistic features of language, an innovative aspect that identifies language as a new scientific and, to some extent, exact area of study (Aijmer and Altenberg 1991), and allows for quick manipulation of data by text retrieval software. Furthermore, *CL* enables the comparison of different texts: genres, styles, varieties of English, etc... (Granger 1998; Biber 1992; Aijmer and Altenberg 1991). In other words, *CL* provides a tool to work upon data and shapes a new conception of language, which becomes an item to observe first in isolation but then within the text. This is what Leech calls the “psychology of language” (1991:17).

On the other hand, *CL* has several pedagogical implications. First, it allows a new line in materials design (EFL Dictionaries, EFL textbooks) since the analysis of authentic and native language helps reveal the main needs and/or interests EFL learners have (Granger 1998; Granger 1996; Kirk 1996). Besides, *CL* widens the range of studies: comparison of native/non-native speakers of English; contrastive analysis studies; contrastive interlanguage analysis (EFL learners with different L1), which can unveil common or different features in English language learning experience (Granger 1996; Granger 1998).

Eventually, *CL* provides researchers and teachers with a new line of teaching in the classroom. The advanced EFL student can become the very researcher of language using tools such as “concordancers” or “wordlists” (see section 4.3. below). The student can work on authentic texts, that may even be theirs, and explore the ways in which a linguistic feature or structure behaves in the texts or discover why errors arose, etc... (Kirk 1996). Innovation may here mean motivation for the students since they become a participant or active learner. Teachers, in turn, stand as the guides the student needs: “providers of resources and facilitator of searches” (Kirk 1996:234; Granger and Tribble 1998:209).

4.1.3. *Corpus linguistics and second language acquisition and research*

Beyond the written/spoken data dichotomy, other variables come into play in the definition of other types of corpora. The focus on language constitutes indeed a crucial factor distinguishing different corpora. Within spoken corpora, the *CHILDES corpus* (MacWhinney and Snow 1990) focuses on language use and development with the inclusion of international data from children interacting with children and adults. In turn, the *Lovain International Database of Spoken English Interlanguage (LINDSEI)*, Granger 1998) concentrates on what learners actually do when they try to learn an L2 in order to describe their L2 acquisition.

Along with L1 acquisition research, L2 acquisition is now encouraging *corpus*-based studies: “A better approach might be to find out what learners actually do, as opposed to what they think they do, when they try to learn an L2” (Ellis 1997:4). One way of doing this is to collect and analyse samples of learner language. Indeed, *corpus*-based studies allow the researcher to observe the learners’ linguistic production and enable its comparison to that of other foreign learners² as well as to that of native speakers². Not only does this lead researchers to draw conclusions as to frequent patterns or mistakes, but also to realize which are the real needs of a specific group of learners (cf. *Lovain International Database of Spoken English Interlanguage, LINDSEI*, Granger 1998).

Learner corpora are thus the electronic compilation of second or foreign language data in natural or pseudo-natural contexts, exclusively designed to study how language is acquired and developed, and then to elaborate materials for L2 or FL learning. Llinares-García (2002:164) claims that learner corpora help to describe interlanguage, make progress in second language theory and develop materials to teach foreign languages since linguists and teachers become aware of the learners’ real difficulties. However, her study reveals that little research is based on *spoken learner* corpora today, let alone designs of corpora using new technologies. Following her innovative work (*ibid.*), and contributing to the compilation Llinares-García and Romero-Trillo started in 1998, namely the *UAMLESC corpus*, the present investigation aims at shedding some light upon spoken foreign language research by working on a systematically compiled, computerised and tagged spoken *corpus*.

4.1.4. Design of the *UAMLESC corpus*

The *Collins Cobuild Dictionary* states that a *corpus* is “a large number of articles, books, magazines, etc that have been deliberately collected for some purpose”. It has been widely accepted in the literature that a *corpus* is a huge collection of natural texts (Aijmer and Altenberg 1991; Biber 1988; Granger 1998) that allows both quantitative and qualitative studies on authentic language.

Corpora are however very distinct from each other. They differ in nature, genre and size depending on the purposes they are designed for. Examples and instructions on how to design a *corpus* and a methodology outline are very frequent in the literature (Nelson 1996a; Nelson 1996b; Biber 1988; Granger 1998). These works mainly outline the factors one needs to consider before collecting samples: the language of the texts, the genre, the content, the learners’ levels and mother tongue (if the authors of the texts are learners) and the setting.

The *corpus* of the present dissertation is part of a wider *corpus*, i.e. the *UAMLESC* (*UAM-Learner English Spoken Corpus*). The *UAMLESC* is a longitudinal *corpus* covering the compilation of the oral interaction in the EFL classroom in different schools in Madrid where the degree of immersion, type of teacher – native vs. non-native speakers of English- and socio-economic background vary. The *UAMLESC* team started recording 5-year-old children (pre-school year) in 1998 and since then is recording the same children and aims at following them until they get to secondary school in order to study the acquisition and development of different linguistic aspects of English as a Foreign Language (Romero-Trillo and Llinares-García 2001; Llinares-García 2002, Ramírez-Verdugo 2003; Riesco-Bernier 2003; Llinares-García 2004; Romero-Trillo and Llinares-García 2004; Riesco-Bernier 2004; Llinares-García 2006; Riesco-Bernier and Romero-Trillo in press).

First, attention will be paid to the variables that were taken into account in the creation of the *UAMLESC corpus*, since ours is a sub-*corpus* of this macro-compilation of spoken data. Llinares-García (2002:173) mentions the following:

- Language: the mode is spoken English and the genre is classroom discourse.
- Learner:

- Age: bearing in mind that this is a longitudinal study, the learners were five-year-old boys and girls in 1998.
- Mother tongue: Spanish (with a few exceptions).
- Geographical area: Madrid.
- Language: English is a foreign language to the learners in most cases (except in a few instances) and what differs is the degree of immersion.
- Schools: private and state schools.
- Teacher: native speakers of English and native speakers of Spanish.

Since generalisation of results depends on how the sample is representative of the population (Elifson, Runyon and Haber 1998:6), the *UAMLESC corpus* surveyed most of the contexts where English is taught as a foreign language in Madrid – English schools, bilingual schools, private schools, state schools, with both native and non-native teachers – in order to get a reliable picture of oral interaction in EFL schools in Madrid.

Most of the data compiled embodied natural language in the second language classroom. Teachers were not asked to carry out specific activities or change their methodology. Because the interest of the researchers lay in authentic interaction in the EFL classroom, the data recorded portray free discourse in the classroom.

As indicated above, the compilation of the *corpus* was initiated by the directors of the *UAMLESC corpus* in 1998 in eight schools of Madrid, and has since then been carried out by two other researchers in the group⁵². Aiming at the compilation of a longitudinal *corpus*, the team video-taped (SONY Handycam Video Hi8 XR) three sessions each term in each of the schools to provide enough material to analyse the children's language acquisition and development over seven years (from pre-school to end of primary school). The video-taped sessions were generally whole-class sessions where children's and teachers' talk could be well differentiated. When children were working in small groups, however, the researchers had to take a decision as to what to

⁵² The author of the present study started working on the project in December 2001.

record. Since teacher talk was determining for the purposes of this study, the team would record the group the teacher was working/interacting with.

Although the video-recording technique is a time-consuming task, it constitutes an easy way to collect data that permits the researcher to consider paralinguistic information during the interaction and to annotate the intonation if relevant when identifying some functions. Additionally, video-recording the data is a more objective and reliable method of data compilation (Richards 1994). However, there are some limitations to this method acknowledged in the literature: the presence of the camera (Richards 1994) and the researcher (Miller 1981) may affect and inhibit the children's behaviour in natural interaction. According to Llinares-García (2002:175), the camera and the researcher were only noticed at first but immediately became part of their learning context in the *UAMLESC corpus*:

“los mismos profesores, en todos los casos, afirmaron que los niños se comportaban igual que en el resto de las clases. Parecía, en nuestra opinión, que se habían olvidado de la cámara después de unos minutos, en la grabación de cada sesión” (*ibid.*)⁵³

4.1.4.1. Subjects and teaching-learning contexts

On the one hand, the subjects of the *UAMLESC corpus* are children who are learning English as a foreign language. On the other hand, both native and non-native speaker teachers were included in the study as it is felt that this variable can be relevant in the teachers' and the children's ulterior linguistic production in English.

As mentioned above, a set of different schools was selected in order to get a sample representative of the varying contexts where English is taught as a foreign language in Madrid:

- English school or total immersion in English: this is an English school where all the classes are taught in English except for one hour of Spanish daily. Its total immersion in English makes this school similar to an ESL context, as English is not only taught in the classroom but is indeed a means of communication between the different members of the community. Two different teachers, both English native speakers, were recorded in this group:

⁵³ My translation: “The teachers claimed that children behaved as they used to in other classes. It seemed to us that during the recording of each session, children had forgotten about the camera after a few minutes”.

- RC1: 18 children (6 girls and 12 boys): 9 Spanish, 1 Spanish-Hindi; 2 Anglo-Spanish; 6 native speakers of English.
 - RC2: 17 children (8 girls and 9 boys): 10 Spanish, 2 Anglo-Spanish, 3 native speakers of English and 2 native speakers of other languages (French and Italian).
-
- Bilingual school: Classes are taught in English half of the day and in Spanish the other half. The teacher is an English native speaker who also speaks Spanish. There is only one group recorded in this school where 16 children are Spanish and 2 are bilingual (Spanish and English).
 - Spanish schools with immersion in English (native and non-native teachers):
 - Private school with native teachers: English is taught to children since they are one-year-old. Children come from upper class families and are taught one hour of English daily. The group consists of 22 Spanish children (11 girls and 11 boys).
 - Private school receiving funds from the state: This is a religious school where English is taught to children since they are three years old. Children come from middle to upper-class families and the teachers are native speakers of English. The group that was recorded consisted of 29 Spanish children (16 girls and 13 boys).
 - Private school with non-native teachers: This is a private school located in a lower-class area. However, the children that attend this school come from the “richest” families in the area. Children start learning English at the age of three. When children are five years old, English classes are taught daily and last 30 minutes. In this school, two groups were recorded. In both groups the teachers were non-native speakers of English:
 - NC-1: 18 children (4 girls and 14 boys).
 - NC-2: 17 children (6 girls and 11 boys).

- State school: This is one of the 10 state schools within the *Comunidad Autónoma de Madrid* that takes part in a project co-directed by the Spanish Ministry of Education and the British Council. This school is located in a lower-class area. Children have been learning English since they were three and the teachers are native speakers of English, as this was a requisite of the project. The group that was recorded had a total of 20 children (8 girls and 12 boys) and had a one or two hour class of English daily.

4.1.5. Design of the sub-corpus

For the present research, a sub-*corpus* was selected from the first year of the compilation (5-year-old children). There were a couple of reasons for choosing this age group. First of all, since L2 teaching and learning has often been understood in relation to L1 acquisition (cf. Chapter 3 above), it was felt that at this level, the classroom might be a context very similar to the natural environment that the child finds at home to acquire and develop language (cf. Painter 1996; 2000). Although learners are in a formal context (the EFL classroom), they are exposed to an L2 input which is modified (*Teacher Talk* and *Foreigner Talk*) but that very much resembles the input they receive in their L1 (*Baby Talk* or *Motherese*, cf. Chapter 3 above). Since at this age the relationship between a child and a teacher probably has more similarities to a relationship between a child and a caregiver than at a later age, the analysis of teacher talk at that stage implies dealing with a register that is not strictly bound to the classroom. For the purposes of this study, this age group thus offers the researcher a wider variety of regulatory functions than at a later age where children/learners will be exposed to a restricted range of regulatory functions in the classroom (mostly, behaviour oriented).

Secondly, because this project is longitudinal, the statistical phenomenon of mortality has affected the number of schools taking part in the research and the number of students has varied (changes to other groups within the same school or to another school). Therefore, it was thought that the first year offered a wider range of schools, which would provide more reliable picture of oral interactions in the EFL classroom in Madrid.

As it has been acknowledged in the literature, spoken learner corpora are very difficult and time-consuming to compile and analyse (cf. Granger 1998): that is why “we cannot expect learner corpora to be the same size as native corpora” (Llinares-García 2002:173)⁵⁴. Furthermore, and as Sinclair (1991) points out, the size of a *corpus* depends on what is being analysed. Indeed, discourse studies would need larger corpora than phonological studies⁵⁵.

It would be worth reminding that the second objective stated in Chapter 1, which covers both (i) the relationship between the functions and their linguistic realisation(s) and (ii) the comparison between native and non-native teachers, shaped the selection of the data. Thus, the sub-*corpus* consists of 17 sessions at pre-school level (5-year-old children), is 51,709 words long, and is distributed as follows:

- **Non-native teachers:**
 - Private school
 - Exposure to English: 30 minutes daily.
 - 1 teacher with 5-year-old children.
 - 3 sessions were selected for the present study.
 - 8,518 words.
 - Private school
 - Exposure to English: 30 minutes daily.
 - .As mentioned above in the presentation of the *UAMLESC corpus*, there were 2 teachers recorded at the same level (5-year-old children). Therefore, it was thought that both of them would be studied in order to see whether teachers within the same context behaved similarly. The following data were chosen:
 - T1: 3 sessions (9,628 words).
 - T2: 3 sessions (8,000 words).

⁵⁴ My translation from “no se puede esperar que los corpora de aprendices tengan el mismo tamaño que los corpora de nativos” (Llinares-García 2002:173).

⁵⁵ As it will be seen later, this is a cross-stratal research study, which means that units of analysis range from clauses within the lexicogrammatical layer to moves in discourse, which should account for the size of the present sub-*corpus*.

- **Native teachers:**
 - Private school that receives funds from the state
 - Exposure to English: 1h daily.
 - 1 teacher with 5-year-old children.
 - 3 sessions were selected for the present study.
 - 8,287 words.
 - Private school
 - Exposure to English: 1h daily.
 - 1 teacher with 5-year-old children.
 - Only 1 session selected for the present study.
 - 2,163 words.
 - English school
 - Exposure to English: total immersion.
 - 2 teachers with 5-year-old children.
 - 3 sessions were selected for the present study.
 - 5,669+3,443= 9,112 words.
 - English school
 - Exposure to English: total immersion.
 - 1 teacher with 5-year-old children.
 - 1 session was selected for the present study.
 - 6,001 words.

For presentation purposes, Table 2 summarises the data that have been analysed and Appendix II (cf. 2.1. and 2.2.) provides a sample of two sessions within the native and non-native corpora, respectively:

SCHOOL	TEACHER	SESSIONS	WORDS
Private (NSC)	Non-native	3	8,518
Private (NC)	Non-native	3	9,628
	Non-native	3	8,000
TOTAL NON-NATIVE		9	26,146
Private with state funds (MS)	Native	3	8,287
Private (SEK)	Native	1	2,163
English school (RC)	Native	2	5,669
	Native	1	3,443
English school (KC)	Native	1	6,001
TOTAL NATIVE		8	25,563

Table 2: Sub-corpus size

4.1.5.1. Size of the sub-corpus

It would be worth remembering that, according to Brown (1988), studies across corpora can be carried out as long as these are similar corpora. The main criteria that I adopted in this investigation to obtain two similar corpora were (i) the size of corpora (native *corpus*: 25,563 words, non-native *corpus*: 26,146 words) and (ii) the content of the data compiled (cf. section 4.1.5.2. below). These became pivotal to the data selection stage and sometimes led me to disregard other criteria such as the exact number of teachers or exact number of schools.

As a matter of fact, the number of teachers and schools selected differs. As it can be observed in Table 2 above, within the non-native *corpus*, there were three non-native teachers, belonging to two different schools. Each teacher was analysed in three different sessions so as to obtain a wider amount of data, to minimise chance and to avoid variables such as the Hawthorne effect (cf. Brown 1988:32).

Within the native *corpus*, nevertheless, both a wider range of schools and teachers is met (five teachers in four schools). In the light of what has been said above, the content represents the common denominator to the different sessions in that this accounts for the type of functions the researcher will encounter in the data. Bearing in mind that this investigation is based on authentic data (i.e. neither controlled by the teacher nor the researcher), I selected those sessions which met the aforementioned criteria, so as to obtain a similar *corpus* in content (to find a homogeneous number of regulatory functions in both corpora to ensure the comparison of data) and reach a 25,000 word *corpus* overall. What is more, this study analyses and compares the linguistic realisation of the regulatory functions across groups (native vs. non-native teachers' talk) but will rarely, if ever, refer to single teachers. This foregrounds the relevance of criteria such as content and size in the selection of the data over that of having an exact number of teachers and sessions.

4.1.5.2. Selection of the data

As mentioned above, a major issue in the selection and delimitation of the sessions to be analysed in both corpora was the content or type of data compiled. It should be borne in mind that the main motivation of the present dissertation is to obtain a picture of how teacher talk constitutes a distinct register within the EFL classroom. To

do so, the researcher examines (i) which regulatory functions are instantiated in the classroom and (ii) how those are linguistically realised, i.e. function-form relationship, (cf. Blum-Kulka 1990; Nikula 2002). Therefore, and as posited below, the data were selected according to (i) the context, (ii) the functions displayed and (iii) the type of task carried out.

1) *Second Language Acquisition Theoretical Premises*

So as to depict how teachers instantiate regulatory functions in the EFL pre-school classroom context (functions that affect children's verbal and non-verbal behaviour)⁵⁶, the data were selected considering the features that are alleged to facilitate rapid development in second language acquisition theory (cf. Ellis 1984; Ellis 1994:162), namely:

- A high quantity of input directed at the learner: that is sessions where more teacher talk was found.
- The learner's perceived need to communicate in L2, which can be seen in the performance of a range of speech acts by both native speaker/teacher and the learner (i.e. it is necessary to expose young learners to the L2 and give them the opportunity to use the L2 to perform different language functions).
- Exposure to a high quantity of directives.
- Exposure to a high quantity of 'extending utterances (e.g. requests for clarification, confirmation, paraphrases, expansions...).

2) *Regulatory functions*⁵⁷

Despite being aware of the different sub-registers and thus the wide range of functions acknowledged within teacher talk in the literature (Christie 2000; Llinares-García 2004; Riesco-Bernier 2003), this research concentrates on the way *regulatory* functions are instantiated in teacher talk in the EFL classroom. As mentioned in Chapter 1, regulatory functions are characteristic of teacher talk, and predominant in pre-school years, since they affect and control the learners' behaviour. I feel that the exploration of the linguistic instantiation of the regulatory functions and the comparison across groups

⁵⁶ It should be borne in mind that the present study exclusively analyses teacher talk but does not examine the children's responses. Nonetheless, the child's verbal and non-verbal behaviour was taken into account in that it contributes to the identification of functions in teacher talk.

⁵⁷ Note that "regulatory" (Halliday 1975) differs from the "regulative" register (Christie 1995; Christie 2000), the latter serving to point directions and purposes and define the goals of the teaching-learning activity (cf. chapter 3 above).

(native vs. non-native teachers) will enable me to observe how pragmatically efficient they are in the classroom.

Among the five basic functions suggested for the interpretation of the language of a very young child (phase I), Halliday (1975) postulates that the *regulatory function* is “the function of language as controlling the behaviour of others” (Halliday 1975:19). These utterances are directed towards a particular individual and aim at influencing the addressee’s behaviour. Therefore, under this category lie all those meanings such as requests, demands, suggestions, etc...

Far from being restricted to children’s language, the regulatory function is also presented as one of the components of the pragmatic function in adult language. Halliday (1975:108) understands that adult language results from the interaction between the mathetic and the pragmatic functions of language. The mathetic function focuses on observing and understanding experience: “experience must be construed by the child with the help of the conversational partner; and language in the mathetic function is the tool for doing this” (Painter 2000:42). The pragmatic function, in turn, is “the use of language to make an effect on the world – to intrude, to change the situation in some way, which usually involves interacting with others” (*ibid.*). Therefore, while the former is a means of learning *about* reality, the latter is the use of the symbolic system as a means of acting *on* reality.

However, the dychotomy mathetic/pragmatic is not only acknowledged in functional systemic studies. Indeed, “assertives” vs. “directives” (Searle 1969; 1976; Austin 1962) considering adult talk, or “descriptives” vs. “requestives” (Dore 1974; 1979; Akhtar, Dunham and Dunham 1991) when classifying children’s speech acts, are other labels assigned to the utterances describing/asserting vs. those calling on the child to perform a specific behaviour.

To understand the interactional roles in the classroom, this study focuses on the regulatory function within the pragmatic function (see Figure 5 below). In other words, using the terminology of pragmatic theory, on directives (Searle 1976) (cf. Figure 6 below).

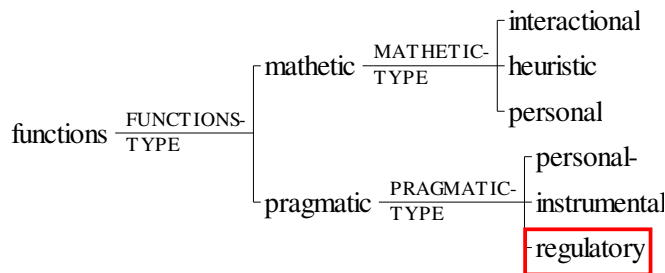


Fig. 5. Halliday (1975) Functions of language

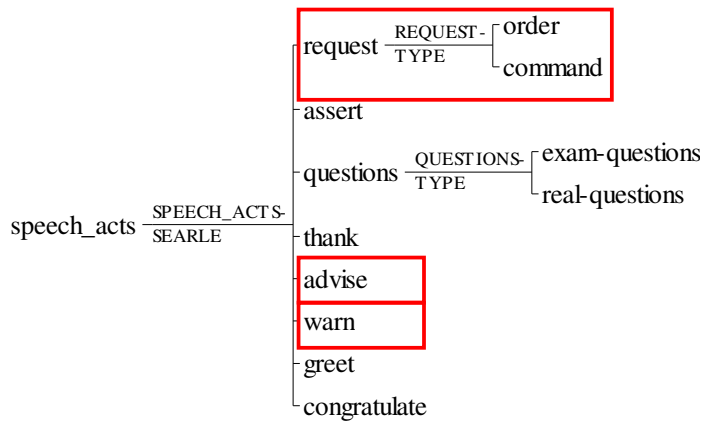


Fig. 6. Searle (1976) Speech Acts

It should also be mentioned that regulatory functions became the focus of this study since, as Ervin-Tripp (1976:26) claims, they are frequent at all ages, they are likely to be relatively sensitive to addressee features since they ask work of the hearer and they often lead to action and are thus easily identified. Therefore, the sessions that are analysed in this research were carefully selected according to the type of functions displayed, i.e. the presence of regulatory functions.

3) *Tasks and activities within sessions*

Last but not least, other criteria were adopted in order to delimit the sections to be analysed within the different videotaped sessions. Indeed, task-based teaching/learning theory (cf. Long 1985b; Wright 1987; Candlin 1987; Long 1988b; Nunan 1989; Crookes and Gass 1993a; 1993b; Pica, Kanagy and Falodun 1993; Duff 1993; Murphy 1993; Nunan 1993; Long and Crookes 1993), provide the researcher with a useful unit of analysis, i.e. the task: a unit that would become a common denominator to the sections chosen.

“Task” is a *concept* used in second language curriculum design since the 1980s. It was first considered to be the ground where different forms of language could emerge (Tarone 1979) and responsible for a different type of language being produced (Long 1981; Duff 1986; Crookes and Gass 1993b:2). Moreover, “task” embodies a meaningful and viable unit of analysis (Hatch 1983; Ellis 1985b; Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991) that allows the researcher to identify learners’ needs, define the content, organise language acquisition opportunities and measure the students’ achievement. The researcher should be cautious indeed to approach the *issue of task* more rigorously in studies: “researchers need to *control for task within* studies in order to isolate that portion of variability in interlanguage data which is related to acquisition processes...” (Long and Sato 1984:279). Accordingly, the present investigation reviewed two major task types:

- Instructional tasks: “questions which ask, demand or even invite learners (or teachers) to perform operations on input data. The data itself may be provided by teaching material or teachers or learners” (Wright 1987:48). They include mechanical exercises associated with the structuralist approach and with marked classroom language usage (Murphy 1993:141).
- Communicative tasks⁵⁸: those that focus on communication and attribute a central role to the provision of large amounts of comprehensible, adjusted and modified input (cf. Long 1985b:94; Krashen 1982; Hatch 1978). They include tasks which enable or support communication and that

“provide a vehicle for the presentation of appropriate target language samples to learners- input which they will inevitably reshape via application of general cognitive processing capacities- and for the delivery of comprehension and production opportunities of negotiable difficulty. New form-function relationships in the target language are perceived by the learner as a result” (Long and Crookes 1993:39).

In fact, the attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form (Nunan 1989), and the key components are the input (linguistic/non-linguistic), activities or procedures, goals, roles of teachers and learners and the setting. More specifically, Pica *et al.* (1993:13-15) define five types of communicative

⁵⁸ Also called “pedagogic tasks” (Long and Crookes 1993).

activities⁵⁹ that altogether provide opportunities for learners to understand L2 input, be given feedback on their production and modify their output: jigsaw, information gap, problem solving, decision making and opinion exchange.

However, in order for “task” to become an operationalisable constructus (Duff 1993:85), several linguists have depicted its defining traits and characteristics. This section first summarises in tabular form a close review of the different criteria that constitute the key components of tasks in the literature (see Table 3 below) and then provides the criteria that the present research has adopted to select the data in the *corpus*.

⁵⁹ Their classification is achieved according to four criteria: (1) interactant relationship; (2) interaction requirement; (3) goal orientation; (4) outcome options.

(i) Criteria that are considered to be key components of tasks in the literature:

CRITERIA	AUTHORS	FURTHER DETAILS
The response	- Richards, Platt and Weber 1985:289	
Input	- Candlin 1987 - Nunan 1989 "input data" - Breen 1987 "appropriate content" - Wright 1987	What form does it take? Is it authentic? Is it appropriate to the goal of task?
Roles	- Candlin 1987 - Nunan 1989 - Shavelson and Stern 1981 "social community" (group) and "students" (abilities, needs)	Teachers and learners
Monitoring by Teacher	- Candlin 1987	Task in progress
Setting	- Candlin 1987 - Nunan 1989	Classroom and out of class arrangement
Actions/ Activities	- Candlin 1987 - Nunan 1989 "activities" - Shavelson and Stern 1981 "Activities" - Pica <i>et al.</i> 1993:12: "Activity: participants take an active role in carrying out a task, whether working alone or with other participants"	Sub-tasks Are they appropriate to goals? Are they appropriate to input?
Specified working procedure	- Breen 1987	
Materials	- Shavelson and Stern 1981 - Duff 1993:65	
Outcomes/ Goals/ Objective/ Purpose	- Candlin 1987 - Nunan 1989 "goals" - Breen 1987 "particular objective" and "Range of outcomes" - Crookes 1986:1 "specified objective undertaken as part of an educational course or at work" - Shavelson and Stern 1981 - Swales 1990:75: "goal-directed" - Pica <i>et al.</i> 1993: 11: to arrive at an outcome - Duff 1993:63: "goal-oriented linguistic behaviour is elicited from the subject in various ways"	- Richards, Platt and Webber 1985:289 "a purpose for a classroom activity which goes beyond the practice of language for its own sake"
Structured language learning	- Breen 1987 - Murphy 1993	How much progress has been made (Murphy 1993:140)
Feedback	- Candlin 1987 - Long 1985b: "Evaluation"	Evaluation of efficiency and effectiveness.
Meaning	- Nunan 1989	
Appropriate content	- Breen 1987 - Shavelson and Stern 1981 - Duff 1993	Personal; non-personal; cultural
Successful completion	- Richards <i>et al.</i> 1985:289 - Nunan 1989	Murphy 1993:140: "possibility of evaluating how well the tasks were executed"
Direction of interaction	- Duff 1993	Discussions, picture description and folk story telling activities
Source of prompt or elicitation of speech	- Duff 1993	
Opportunities for extended discourse	- Duff 1993	
Degree of control over topic/task	- Duff 1993	
Nature of gap between interactants	- Duff 1993	

Table 3: Components of tasks in the literature

(ii) *Criteria that are considered to be key components of tasks in the present research:*

Bearing in mind the aforementioned factors that come into play in the definition of a task, the present study has considered the following criteria in the selection of the data:

1. Input: as mentioned above, this study results from the interest in how teachers convey regulatory functions (which affects the child's (non)linguistic behaviour). For this reason, both the amount of teacher talk directed at children and the type of interaction facilitated were extremely relevant to this study. In other words, it was felt that the teacher quantitatively and qualitatively "controlled" the teacher-child interaction or the child's behaviour in tasks where input of lexical items was provided. In fact, the teacher definitely controlled the teaching-learning ground during the revision of known items or introduction of new words in the foreign language since the output expected (lexis or specific grammatical structures) was already known to the teacher and researcher (e.g. colours, numbers, animals, clothes, body parts, etc...).
2. Roles: focusing on the teacher and on regulatory functions, the roles adopted by the teacher in the tasks selected ranged from *controller* – when directing the interaction-; *monitor or guide* – when helping children achieve some task; to *participant* in some verbal interactions.
3. Monitoring of teacher: the teacher was the source of directions and information that children needed to carry out a task, regardless of its outcome -both verbal (e.g. speak about a specific topic) and non-verbal (e.g. cut up some pictures); thus standing as monitor and organiser. In the selected passages, the monitoring of the teacher had to be explicit via the use of directives, for instance.
4. Setting: bearing in mind that the teacher and the regulatory functions are the focus of the present paper, "lockstep" constitutes the class grouping whereby a teacher-controlled class takes place. All the learners are working together

with the teacher, locked into the same rhythm, pace and activity. In fact, this means that all the children are concentrating and the teacher can make sure that everyone can hear what is being said and that the learners are usually exposed to a good model from the teacher (Harmer 1991:243). Among the advantages of lockstep grouping, the quality and clarity displayed in those sessions should be mentioned as the teachers' and children's discourse can be clearly differentiated, which is essential to the transcription and analysis of the data.

5. Actions and Activities: Regulatory functions in teacher talk were mainly found in different types of activities present in the selected data.
 - *Demand verbal activity*: controlled interaction where the teacher asks children about certain objects. In other words, the teacher asks children to use the foreign language in a very much controlled way (see example in Appendix II, 2.3)
 - *Demand action activity*: the teacher directs the way the activity unfolds, e.g. fill in worksheets, colour cards, draw and cut cards, use calculator, among others (see example in Appendix II, 2.4)
 - *Demand role-play activity (behaviour)*: the teacher asks the child to change roles, become the teacher in the EFL classroom, change current behaviour, etc... (see example in Appendix II, 2.5)

6. Specified working procedure: The beginning of the selected data was delimited by explicit instructions or directions set by the teacher. The boundaries are often indicated by discourse markers (e.g. 'right', 'well', 'good', 'ok', 'now') acting as frames. Indeed, "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" (Sinclair and Coulthard 1992:3).

7. Outcomes/Goals: As mentioned above, the main outcome or goal selected in the data to be analysed was the recognition of lexical items (children had to carry out an activity by understanding some lexical input), or the production of lexical output (to use new vocabulary in controlled structures or activities).

To put it differently, the main goal was working with newly seen lexical items in a foreign language, whether receptively or actively.

8. Appropriate content: the introduction/assimilation of lexical items is felt to be paramount in five-year-old children's language learning and was thus the axis around which the tasks selected unfolded. More specifically, this content was met in a wide range of activities and was representative of the data in the *UAMLESC corpus* as it provided the most common pattern of interaction regardless of the school and/or teacher.
9. Feedback: Among the different acts that Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) acknowledge, "evaluate" is the act that is realised by statements, tag questions, or phrases ('yes', 'good', 'interesting', 'fine') that comment on the quality of the answer or achievement of a task. The passages selected for analysis in the present research offered two types of feedback: (i) throughout the development of the task and (ii) at the end of the task, which indicates the boundary and transition between one task and another (see point 10 below).
10. Successful completion: Likewise, the end of the selected data openly manifested that the task was finished. In other words, the teacher claimed that the task had been successfully completed before moving onto the following. Markers, anaphoric statements, slower speech rate or lexical items such as "so" or "then" function to summarize what has been going on and thus delimit the end of the selected data (Sinclair and Coulthard 1992:19).

Therefore, the selected data that are examined in the present *corpus* are identified by having the following common characteristics: lexical input, teacher as manager/controller as well as organiser and monitor (providing feedback when necessary), activities that demand children to carry out a task whether verbal or material, whose main goal is learning and working with newly introduced lexical items or revising them (appropriate content for EFL young learners), and that are achieved in lockstep group. The analysed data are clearly delimited at the beginning by directives set by the teacher and at the end by signalling a successful completion of the task.

To sum up, the present section has initially presented the *sub-corpus*, both within *corpus*-linguistics and within the *UAMLESC corpus*, and has then displayed the criteria leading to a thorough selection of the data to be analysed. The following section poses the challenge of how to handle data across strata (i.e. the study of how meaning at discourse level is instantiated at the lexicogrammatical level) by proposing the articulation of various units of analysis.

4.2. The study of meaning: a cross-stratal analysis

4.2.1. The nature of the study

Given that meaning is the expression of the three language functions (ideational, interpersonal and textual) simultaneously achieved in a text, the utterance is therefore analysed under the *SFL* approach at three different levels at clause rank (Halliday 1985). In other words, the experiential, interpersonal and textual functions of language are coded in the TRANSITIVITY, MOOD, and THEME systems respectively. Such meaning-form mapping is here understood as the *operationalisation* and materialisation of the study of meaning.

The need to *operationalise* the study of meaning is evidenced in the literature where researchers recurred to explore meaning through the analysis of other layers of language, i.e. lexis and grammar mainly: the study of directives (Austin 1962, Holmes 1983) or questions (Long and Sato 1983; Salaberri 1999). However, two considerations must be made at this point: (i) studies have tended to focus on only one communicative function or speech act, and (ii) there is a risk of creating a one-to-one correspondence between meaning and form, which might be flouted when meeting indirect acts. The latest consideration is what leads other researchers to call for (though unfortunately, not achieve) an *integration* of several levels in their analyses: while Coulthard (1985:96), Searle (1979) and Salaberri (1999:295) emphasize the importance of intonation as a determinant factor affecting meaning in classroom interaction, other scholars claim that discourse constitutes a different layer that can be studied independently from the grammatical realisation (Ervin-Tripp 1982) by delimiting the contextual variables coming into play in the definition of discourse-functions (Martin 1992; Butt 2002; Riesco-Bernier 2003).

SFL, consequently, seems to be the paradigm providing the tools that enable the researcher to study meaning due to (i) their understanding of the relationship language structure-meaning and (ii) the methodology suggested – a modular analysis (Halliday 1994), i.e. cross-stratal. Regarding the first aspect, language is interpreted as a system of meanings where the linguistic forms are the vehicle through which meaning can be realised. In other words, language is a means to mean but not the end in itself. This implies that the direction in the analysis of meaning is not form-dependent, which would pre-determine a one-to-one form-meaning correspondence, already shown inexistent in the literature (cf. Chapter 2 above). Instead, *SFL* believes language is a system where the linguistic structures (at the lexicogrammatical stratum) act as the resources instantiating meaning. Consequently, an interaction between meaning and form is supported but is not deterministic (note that an exact meaning can be conveyed by different linguistic realisations, and the same linguistic form can mean two different things, depending on the context):

“There is no neat fit between sociological and linguistic categories [...]. One cannot, it seems, have it both ways with language. Either theory and method are formally neat but semantically messy (as in the dictionary: one form, many meanings) or they are semantically neat but formally messy (as in the thesaurus: one concept, many possible realisations)” (van Leeuwen 1996:33).

Regarding the cross-stratal analysis, language is here understood as a whole where the description of one feature of language, in this case “meaning”, is related to the rest of the features (Hasan 1985). Drawing on the concept of constituency, the researcher understands that language is a whole where the smallest unit is inserted into a wider unit, which in turn is part of a wider unit. Meaning is instantiated through different types of acts at the discourse-semantic layer, which are embodied in structure, namely the clause (at the level of lexicogrammar) and the tone unit (at the level of phonology) (cf. Figure 7 below). This calls for an analysis across levels where meaning is coded into a structure at several strata of language. This work focuses on the discourse-semantic and lexicogrammatical strata as the amount of data and qualitative analyses to be carried out do not enable the researcher to make further considerations at this point.

“Strata are presented as concentric circles, which helps to capture the sense in which discourse semantics addresses patterns of lexicogrammatical patterns and lexicogrammar in turn addresses patterns of phonological ones. Within strata, description is further organised through layering (simultaneous metafunctions) and constituency (ranks)” (Martin 1992:21).

4.2.2. The units of analysis

A brief note is due at this point in order to warn the reader that although the different units to be presented in the following sections are both discursive and grammatical units, there is indeed an underlying pedagogic unit, i.e. the *task*. Indeed, the task becomes the scenario or background where interaction takes place for a period of time, echoing what the *lesson* meant to Sinclair and Coulthard (1992:4): “an unordered series of transactions”, which have helped me delimit in a coherent way the sessions to be analysed.

4.2.2.1. Analysing meaning

The study of meaning is an interdisciplinary area that has been considered by linguist philosophers (Austin 1962; Searle 1969); ethnographers, conversational analysts (Sacks *et al.* 1974) and linguists (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975; Brazil, Coulthard and Johns 1980) interested in language teaching and the acquisition of discourse (Dore 1974; 1977; Halliday 1975; Bates 1976). Consequently, the diversity in the motivations results in a wide variety of units of analysis, each one embodying the area of language of interest. Indeed, discourse segmentation might well be one of the most controversial issues in classroom discourse analysis. The units of discourse analysis vary across studies from formal ends (utterances, turns, t-units, communication units, fragments) to pedagogical and functional ends (repairs, repetitions, clarification requests, moves...), which makes comparison and generalisation of results difficult, if ever possible.

The present investigation explores the potential of the communicative value of teacher talk and refers to the different meanings conveyed as the different “*communicative functions*”, a unit that has been inherited and shaped by works that constitute the origins of the study of meaning. As stated in Chapters 2 and 3 above, this study has been influenced by *Speech Act Theory* (Austin 1962; Searle 1969); *Classroom Discourse Analysis* studies (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975), where special attention has been paid to both ESL (Long and Sato 1983; Ernst 1994) and EFL investigations (Salaberri 1999; Llinares-García 2002). And thirdly, due to the early age of the subjects (5-year-old) and the context of acquisition (EFL), *Motherese* and *Foreigner Talk* studies (Mc Donald and Pien 1982; Barnes *et al.* 1983; Ninio 1992; Hampson and Nelson 1993;

Kloth *et al.* 1998) were also considered as they present similar characteristics to teacher talk in EFL/ESL contexts.

As explained in Chapter 2 above, within *Speech Act Theory*, Austin (1962) focuses on how words can constitute an act, i.e. “performatives”, and considers that a speaker can achieve three acts at the same time: a locutionary act, an illocutionary act and a perlocutionary act. Searle (1969), in turn, considers speech acts as “the production or issuance of a sentence taken under certain conditions [...] and are the basic or minimal units of linguistic communication” (Searle 1969:17). However, although “the speech act” sets it up as a pragmatic unit, many authors in the literature acknowledge its subjectivity and thus discredit it as a potential unit of analysis: “I am suggesting that taking for granted the knowledge of other’s intentions and/or desire is hardly sufficient” (Hasan 1985:17). Along with this claim, Richards and Schmidt (1996:126) suggest that “one of the limitations of traditional speech act theory for conversational analysis is that speech acts are usually defined by terms of speaker intentions and beliefs, whereas the nature of conversation depends crucially on interaction between speaker and hearer” (*ibid.*).

Further, as described in Chapter 3 above, within *Classroom Discourse* studies, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) present the different units into which classroom discourse can be operationalised. The present investigation borrows their “act”⁶⁰, which is the minimal unit of meaning materialized in an utterance – which occurs at a particular “move” (initiation-response or feedback) within the “exchange”, the minimal *interactional* unit.

“Our concept function differs from all those outlined above. We are interested in the function of an utterance or part of an utterance in the discourse and thus the sort of question we ask about an utterance are whether it is intended to evoke a response, whether it is a response itself, whether it is intended to mark a boundary in discourse, and so on” (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975:14).

It thus follows that the terms “communicative act”, “speech act” and “act” have been used by most studies focusing on the communicative value of language (Dore 1974; Ninio 1992; Ninio, Snow, Pan and Rollins 1994). Since this dissertation is framed

⁶⁰ Furthermore, some of the names of the communicative functions have been borrowed (e.g. *prompts*) or have been divided into two or more communicative functions (e.g. *calls* in Sinclair and Coulthard’s become two different calls in the present investigation, see Chapter 6 below).

within *SFL*, the function of language embodied in a particular linguistic realisation (cf. “speech function” in Halliday 1994) is operationalised in this study in the “*communicative function*” unit at the discourse semantic level ⁶¹ (cf. Hampson and Nelson 1993; Ernst 1994; Kloth *et al.* 1998; Llinares-García 2002).

4.2.2.2. The “*communicative function*” and the “*clause*”

Departing from the intuition that “meaning” can be studied at the discourse semantic level and that this is realised in a linguistic structure at the lower levels of language (Figure 7 below): the lexicogrammatical (system of Mood in language) and the phonological (system of Tone in language), the cross-strata study requires in this case two different units of analysis that can be rankshifted. In other words, the “communicative function” will become the unit of discourse-semantics throughout the study, which will be analysed in “clauses” at the lexicogrammatical level.

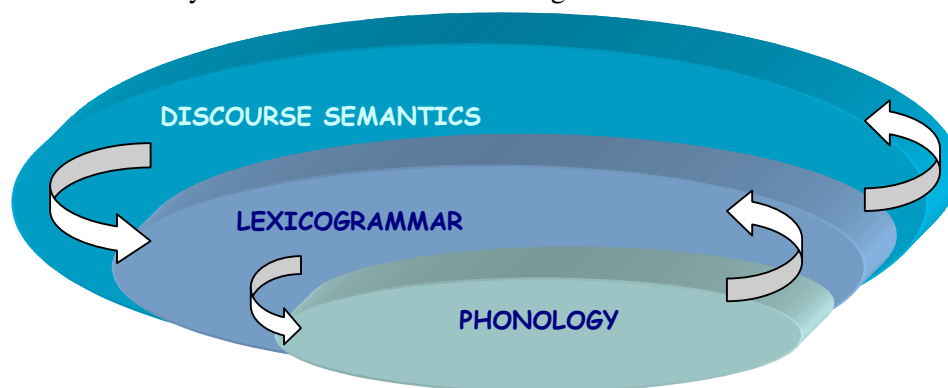


Fig.7. The three strata of language.

It should be borne in mind that the unmarked realisation of one communicative function (highest rank) is usually its realisation in one single clause, in turn being prosodically realised by one tone group. However, research in the literature reveals that, more often than not, units do not map onto each other (e.g. two clauses instantiating one single function) (cf. Altenberg 1998, Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad and Finegan 1999, Hannay and Kroon 2005). Accordingly, my investigation regards the “communicative function”² as the central axis, the reference point, around which comparisons across layers – discourse and lexicogrammar – can apply (cf. section 5.2.3).

⁶¹ Note that the term “communicative function” refers to the unit of analysis in this study, whereas “Regulatory function” is the type of communicative function explored and developed throughout the investigation.

4.3. Materials and tools in the *corpus* codification and analysis

4.3.1. *Corpus* codification

As indicated above, *Corpus Linguistics* is “the study of language on the basis of text corpora” (Aijmer and Altenberg 1991:1), that is, the science that analyses language in isolation and in context by means of specific computer tools. Those allow a manipulation of data, and thus, wide scale studies that would otherwise be impossible to achieve.

It is widely warned in the literature that the results of any research are as good as the *corpus* is and that computerisation highly depends on using the appropriate electronic tools (Leech 1991; Granger 1996; Granger 1998). “SLA researchers can also enrich the original *corpus* data with linguistic annotation of their choice” (Granger 1998:15). Actually, when the researcher faces and conceives the computer as the new “investigator” of the text, s/he must realise that the different tools may not only display the data in very different ways but can also affect the view s/he has on language, the hypotheses s/he may postulate and thus the potential discoveries/findings.

It should now be mentioned that there are two types of corpora: raw vs. annotated corpora. A raw *corpus* is the text as such, as it was once collected though keyboarded. Tagged corpora (that is, annotated) are the result of a previous analysis of the *corpus* by a researcher who has added additional linguistic information to some or all the linguistic features present in the texts (Granger 1998; Meunier 1998; Sinclair 1991). This implies coding the text so that text retrieval is afterwards efficient and quick, thanks to tools such as “concordancers”. There is the “part of speech tagging” (hereafter, P.O.S.) which is fully automatic and attaches a word category tag (Granger 1998; Meunier 1998). Furthermore, using the syntactic tagging or parsing the syntactic functions in a text (e.g. TOSCA) allows syntactic studies. Although semantic and discoursal tagging is now starting to flourish, software is still lagging behind as far as discourse is concerned. Among the most important retrieval programs, researchers can have access to:

- Software tools: these applications allow immediate and exact counting of words. They provide frequency analysis (word lists, distribution graphs, comparison of lists) and context analysis. The latter is mainly done through concordancers, which

re-sort the data in different ways: ordered in ascending or descending frequencies or in alphabetical order, e.g. *Wordsmith*.

- Concords: not only do they display and list the words asked to be searched but provide the main collocates with which these words occur and again, are displayed in order of frequency.
- Wordlists: word counting and word/sentence statistics (lexical density, mean type/token ratio...).

In the present study, the seventeen sessions were first video-taped (*SONY Handycam Video Hi8 XR*) and orthographically transcribed, which enabled the researcher to carry out the discourse semantic and lexicogrammatical analyses. The selected data were transcribed according to the conventions adopted by the directors of the *UAMLESC corpus*, namely, a simplification of Du Bois, Schuetze-Coburn, Paolino and Cumming's (1992) system (see Appendix II, 2.0). Following Eggins (2000), the transcription attended to prosodic aspects (when relevant to the identification of a specific function), interactional aspects (pauses and overlaps), spontaneous phenomena (false starts) and paralinguistic information relevant for this study.

Contrary to other corpora studies (López-Ornat, Fernández, Gallo and Mariscal 1994; Llinares-García 2002), I transcribed each utterance (communicative regulatory function) in separate lines for practical reasons. Since the data presents a cross-stratal analysis, i.e. acknowledging the function at the discourse semantic layer and the lexicogrammatical realisation at the grammatical layer, it was decided that each regulatory function (numbered) would be presented together with its functional tag (in angle brackets) and grammatical tags (in dollar symbols). The extract below has been retrieved from the analysed *corpus* and illustrates the codification:

(session: NkcE)

1. TCH: Point again<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
.. Right..
2. Irene<AS>\$MC-V\$
3. .. What's that one? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$
CH: (Irene) She ((pronouncing a /s/))
4. TCH: He<AS>\$MC-ANG\$
.. Right <x there x>..

5. Can you put it into a sentence for me? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlp-ab-S2-Rp-Rc-Radj-Radj\$

CH: (Irene) Right ..He is beautiful.

As it can be observed the utterance “point again” is a regulatory function (thus numbered), an action command (discourse-semantic category tagged as <DC-a>) and is embodied in an imperative clause whose distinct constituents are mentioned within the dollar symbols⁶².

It remains to be said that a few issues were problematic when annotating the data. First, dealing with a young learner *corpus*, the analysis considered code-switching from L1 (Spanish) to L2 (English) and vice-versa. Being a functional research project, this study first focused on functions (utterances) and only later on the linguistic realisation. This led me to contemplate utterances produced in English, and also those in Spanish (tagged with the code <L1...L1>). Nonetheless, and following Llinares-García (2002), those utterances where both languages co-exist have been coded according to the language used in the realisation of the predominant function.

Second, dealing with teacher talk, some utterances repeated the exact words of the previous utterance within the same speaking turn, which was interpreted as an emphatic reinforcement of the previous function. It was decided that an extra code (<r>) would be annotated to acknowledge this phenomenon for further ulterior qualitative analyses, see example below:

(NNncS3)
TCH: Sssshhh!
María María María
sit down please
Sit properly<DC-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
sit properly<DC-b><r>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

Although the discourse-semantic and lexicogrammatical annotations were achieved manually, the *Systemic Coder Software v.4.63* (O’Donnell 1995; www.wagsoft.com) was of much help in the design of the tool of analysis. It should here be revealed that the *Regulatory Functions System Network* elaborated and disclosed in this dissertation stands as (i) a tool that enables linguists to analyse the discourse layer of teacher talk (section 4.3.2 and Chapter 5 below) but is also (ii) one of

⁶² The codes and further samples are provided in Appendix 2.0.

the findings of my investigation as it displays the different regulatory functions that result from a combination of numerous discourse-semantic variables (displayed and thoroughly analysed in Chapter 6 below).

4.3.2. System networks as a tool of analysis

So as to present the tool that has been designed throughout this investigation in order to analyse classroom discourse, i.e. the *Regulatory Functions System Network* (cf. Chapter 5 below), I believe it is necessary to introduce the reader to the concept of “system networks” in general. System networks are here regarded as a tool allowing for the systematisation of the study of meaning and the ulterior analysis of texts. More specifically, the following sections explain the principles and methodological bases underlying the creation of system networks, which have decidedly framed the elaboration of the *Regulatory Functions System Network* (*post* Hasan 1985, *post* Martin 1992).

4.3.2.1. Definition and creation of system network

Inheritors of Firthian Linguistics, and as its very name indicates, *Systemic Functional Linguistics* gives priority to the *system*. Language is conceived as “*networks* of interlocking options” (Halliday 1994:xiv, my italics). A system network of meaning, for instance, presents an inventory of ways in which meaning can be realised and analysed, and where there is an array of choices that will determine which meaning is being *instantiated* through language. In other words, not only does the network provide the meaning potential but also prompts the researcher to examine which choices have been made in order to convey one or another meaning:

“The network is a tool for establishing what is distinctive, and what is shared, between instances of meaningful behaviour. We are highlighting actual choices and so, unlike rules and “deviations”, every case study is in ‘the positive’; every observed behaviour changes the probabilities for every feature node (when chosen, or not chosen)” (Moore and Butt 2002:4).

Designed from the most general characteristics or features concerning an aspect of language (in this case, the regulatory function), systems are developed into more specific options, or subsystems. “Choice” comes into play in that the first option at the level of the most general feature will lead the speaker into a specific contrastive set of features, where only one option is to be selected. In turn, that decision will lead the speaker into a further choice, and so on until there is no further option in the path. Each

of these systems or subsystems is concerned with one type of contrast or opposition and they are ordered along a scale of delicacy from left to right, whose extension depends on the researcher's will: "and we go on as far as we need to, or as far as we can in the time available or as far as we know how" (Halliday 1994:xiv).

Following the mechanics of networks (van Leeuwen 1996; Butt 2002), systems are drawn conventionally. Each system is made of a cluster of systems or sub-systems which can be identified vertically and that are called "domains of contrast" or "variables". When interpreting a network, the researcher must (as the speaker unconsciously does in discourse) choose within each sub-system, conventionally in angle brackets, one single option, which is in turn indicated by square brackets. Figure 8a below exemplifies what has been previously explained by drawing up the basic system of speech function (Halliday 1985):

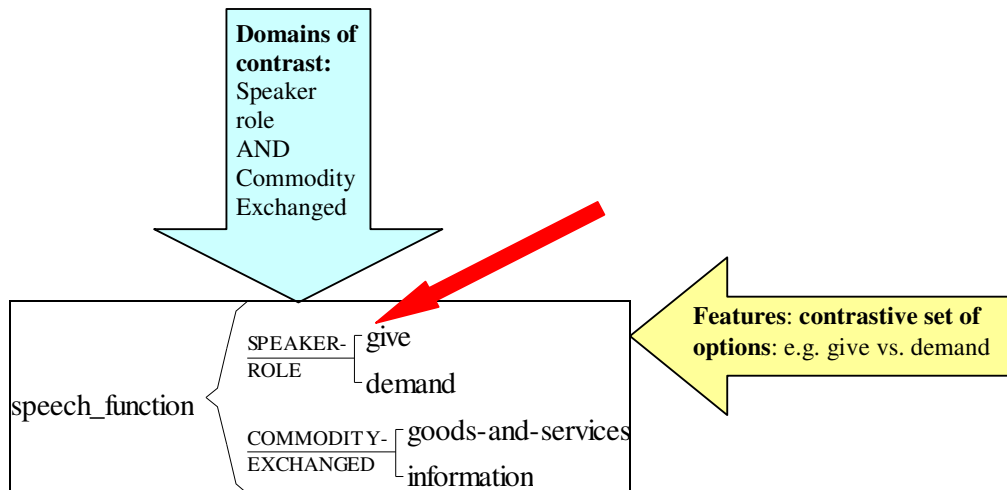


Fig. 8a: Systemic network of speech functions (Halliday 1985)

Figure 8a above is the system of speech functions (Halliday 1985), where there are two domains of contrast: "the speaker role" and "the commodity exchanged". Since these domains of contrast or sub-systems appear within an angled bracket, they indicate that the speaker must make an option in each of them. Consequently, the speaker must first decide upon his/her role *and* about the commodity being exchanged. Furthermore, each domain of contrast adds further levels of delicacy in contrasts of meaning (signalled by the narrow arrow in Figure 8a), which are represented in the horizontal axis of the network and that will be referred to as "features" throughout this study. As the convention is for them to appear in square brackets, the speaker must make only one

choice within the contrastive set of options. Following with the example, the speaker can either “give” or “demand” as far as the role is concerned, and the commodity exchanged can either be “information” or “goods and services”.

Therefore, meaning is the result of the choices that are made at all the levels of domains of contrast manifest within the network. The four primary speech functions result from the interaction of the two main variables and, as is better illustrated in Figure 9a below, they each represent a particular complex of semantic features.

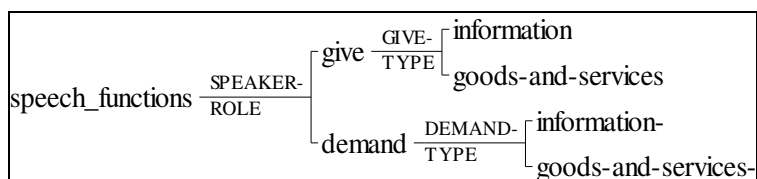


Fig.9a: Primary speech functions

The speaker first chooses or adopts a **role** (give vs. demand), a choice that inevitably leads the speaker into a further option: the **commodity exchanged** (information vs. goods and services). In this way, if s/he gives information the speech function is *informing*; if the commodity is goods and services, s/he is *offering*; whereas if the speaker demands information, s/he is *questioning* and if s/he is demanding goods and services, the resulting speech function is *commanding*.

For this reason, networks stand as the graphical representation of the different options that the speaker (un)consciously makes in communication at the discourse-semantic stratum of language (instantiated through language). Likewise, networks become a tool of analysis whereby the analyst depicts the different array of choices at the discourse-semantic stratum of language, available to the speaker. This helps the researcher operationalise the study of meaning by analysing the linguistic instantiation of those semantic options at the lexicogrammatical stratum of language. It is this second approach that motivated the creation of my *Regulatory Functions System Network*, a tool that enables the analysis of “regulatory functions” in the EFL classroom. As mentioned above, the *Systemic Coder* (Mick O’Donnell, www.wagsoft.com) was used in order to achieve the technical elaboration of the system network (cf. Figure 10 below).

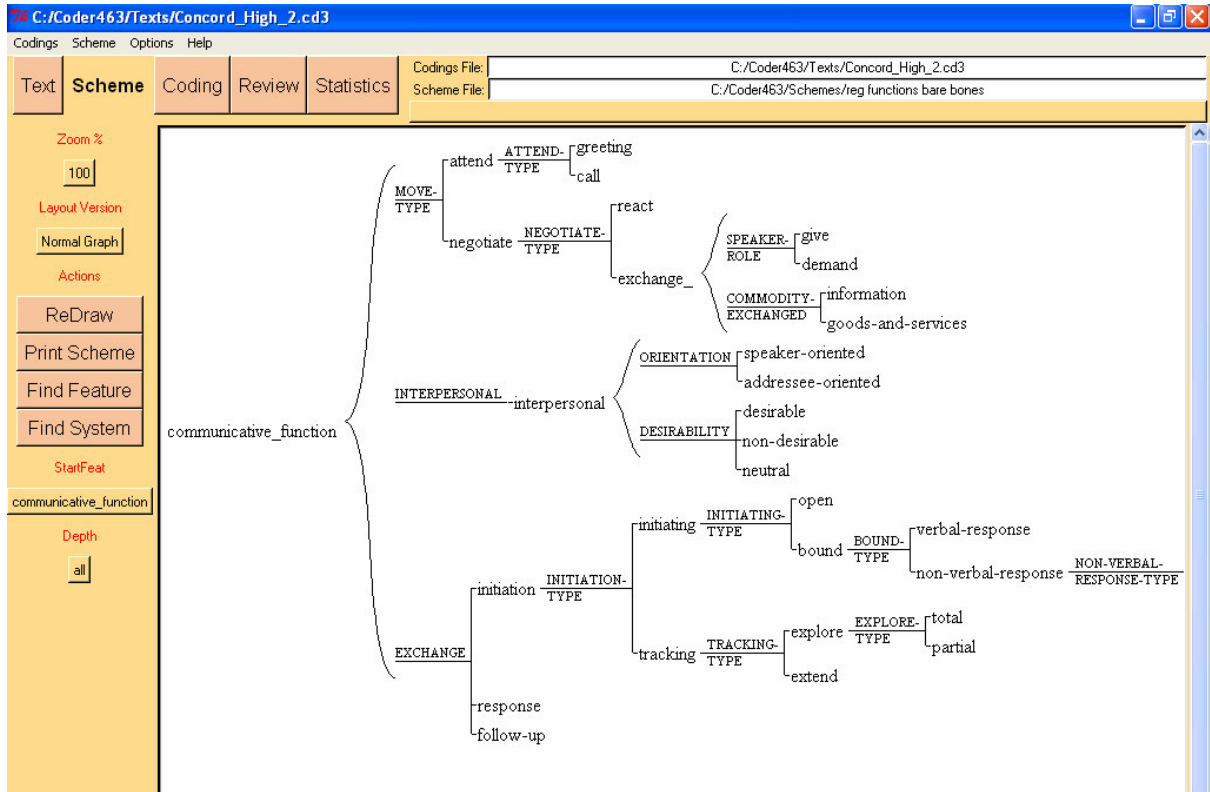


Fig. 10 Illustration of the creation of the *RFSN* by means of the *Systemic Coder Software*.

4.3.3. Software backing the quantitative analyses

When the discourse-semantic and lexicogrammatical analyses were achieved, each regulatory function was tagged with its lexicogrammatical analysis and the quantification of the data could then ensue by using the *Wordsmith Tools Software v.3.0* (Scott 1998; www.liv.ac.uk/ms2928/Wordsmit.htm), which was finally followed by the statistical analyses carried out by means of the *SPSS Software v.10.0* (cf. Ferrán-Aranaz 2001).

4.4. Summary

This chapter has explained the nature of the study by first introducing the type of data collected and the methodology followed and then acknowledging the theoretical and methodological bases shaping the design of this research, namely a cross-stratal study of language. Further, this chapter has argued that a system network of meaning “permits systemic functional theorists to offer a detailed, fully relational account of the contrasts operating in any given semiotic environment” (Butt 2002:1) and represents language as a resource for making meaning. System networks arise as an invaluable tool

in the analysis of texts allowing the systematisation of “how meaning is achieved” in a particular context (the EFL classroom in this case). The next chapter unveils the gradual creation of my system network which facilitates the analysis meaning not only at the discourse level but also at the lexicogrammatical one.

Towards the configuration of a system network

“When we ask ‘how is language structured to enable interaction?’ we find the answer lies principally in the systems of Mood and Modality. It is in describing the functional grammatical constituents of mood and their different configurations, that we are describing how language is structured to enable us to talk to each other” (Egins 1999:193).

CHAPTER 5: THE TOOL OF ANALYSIS: TOWARDS THE CONFIGURATION OF A SYSTEM NETWORK

5.1. Dynamic configuration of the *Regulatory Functions System Network*: The stratum of discourse: the discourse-semantic system

5.1.1. Ontogenesis of the created system network

5.1.2. Presentation of the Bare bones of *Regulatory Functions System Network*

5.1.3. Summary of the discourse-semantic analysis

5.2. The stratum of lexicogrammar: the Mood system

5.2.1. The lexicogrammatical analysis: the unit of analysis

5.2.1.1. A communicative function covering more than one independent clause

5.2.1.2. A function resulting from a multi-clausal distribution

5.2.1.3. Multi-word sequences

5.2.2. The constituents of Mood

5.2.3. Problems underlying the lexicogrammatical analysis

5.2.4. Summary of the lexicogrammatical analysis

5.3. "Meaning" by mapping strata: conclusions on the analysis

5. THE TOOL OF ANALYSIS: TOWARDS THE CONFIGURATION OF A SYSTEM NETWORK

The theoretical and methodological bases provided in Chapter 4 represent the bones of this investigation, i.e. the tools the researcher will use to examine teacher talk in the EFL classroom. The current chapter constitutes the main body of this work since its core is the presentation of the creation process of the *Regulatory Functions System Network*, my tool of analysis (*post* Hasan 1985, *post* Martin 1992, *post* Hasan 1996). For this reason, the dynamic configuration of the *RFSN* is displayed at the two levels of analysis: the (i) discourse-semantic and (ii) lexicogrammatical layers of language.

As stated in Chapter 1, one of the major objectives of this investigation is to propose, in the form of a system network, a way of analysing “meaning”, specifically the “regulatory functions”, and explore their lexicogrammatical realisation. Hence, the created *Regulatory Functions System Network* brings together and articulates two subsystems: discourse-semantics and mood. Each of them presents the different choices that the speaker may make in order to convey meaning: first, each set of semantic and discursive choices creates a path in the network leading to a different meaning (regulatory function) conveyed by the speaker at a discourse-semantic level, which is, in turn, instantiated through a linguistic structure at the lower layer of lexicogrammar. Accordingly, this chapter focuses first on the presentation of the array of discourse-semantic features in the elaborated *RFSN* (adopted from previous works and further developed and modified to enable an “either-or” categorisation of regulatory functions in EFL data). And second, it depicts the lexicogrammatical features borrowed from Systemic Functional Grammar that have enabled the researcher to explore the lexicogrammatical instantiation of regulatory functions in this *corpus* and discusses the intricate issues underlying the cross-stratal analysis of the data.

Bearing in mind that this is a *corpus*-based study, the configuration of the network of regulatory functions (as a tool) goes hand in hand with the qualitative analysis of the data. Additionally, though shaped by these data, this tool allows comparison and generalisation of results across studies, as well as constitutes a point of departure for future researchers working with classroom discourse since networks allow for modification and/or expansion:

“It provides a mechanism for systematically relating speech function to mood, and at the same time establishes a set of speech function classes that is clearly limited and at the same time is indefinitely extendable (through the scale of delicacy)” (Martin 1992:38).

5.1. Dynamic configuration of the *Regulatory Functions System Network*: The stratum of discourse: the discourse-semantic system

A common denominator to studies focusing on “meaning” is the proposal and explanation of a taxonomy compiling the different types of communicative acts/functions that occur in their analysed data. However, not only do the labels differ across studies but also the criteria followed to define each act which, unfortunately, are not always explicit. Undoubtedly, this hinders comparison and generalisations of results across studies. Against an arbitrary, subjective or unsystematic analysis of meaning where “labels such as command, offer, request, etc have been treated themselves as semantically invariant” (Hasan 1985:7), the creation of a network draws up the different criteria and variables that define each particular function. Consequently, although subsequent analyses could label their acts differently, the *RFSN* is created to enable comparisons across studies. Indeed, in this dissertation each “regulatory function” results from the interaction of several variables that specify the distinct contexts of occurrence and represents a particular complex of semantic features, each feature being one out of a contrasting set.

“A network represents paradigms of options, and their consequences. It encompasses the meaning potential, the relevant ‘phase space’. From such elaborated semiotic maps, for any given instance of meaningful behaviour in the context, we can indicate the pattern of selections which that behaviour invokes” (Moore and Butt 2002:4).

Hence, this section displays the set of criteria that have been adopted in order to elaborate the system network that leads the researcher to a posterior “either-or” categorisation of regulatory functions.

5.1.1. Ontogenesis of the created system network

System networks are dynamically created. In other words, they result from the expansion or modification of previous existing networks that already shed some light upon an analysed issue. My network finds its roots in Halliday, Hasan and Martin’s works, which accounts for presenting my network as being *post* Halliday 1985, *post* Hasan 1985 and *post* Martin 1992. An exhaustive account of the progressive elaboration

of the *Regulatory Functions System Network* follows below, starting from the crucial variables that were borrowed from previous investigations focusing on “speech functions”⁶³ in interaction and negotiation.

“Speaking is something that might more appropriately be called an interact: it is an exchange” (Halliday 1994:68). The act of speaking thus becomes an interactive process where both participants (speaker and listener/ writer and reader) are involved and where their roles depend on each other’s, which results in a wide range of different types of “interactions” contingent on the specific context. As seen in Chapter 4 above, Halliday acknowledges that the two main variables that come into play in the definition of the different interactional contexts and thus in the definition of the primary speech functions are the *speech role* and the *commodity exchanged* in the interaction (see Figure 8b, already presented in Figure 8a above for other purposes).

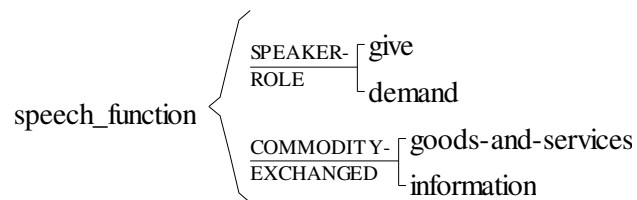


Fig. 8b: Systemic network of speech functions (Halliday 1985)

The four primary speech functions result from the interaction of the two main variables and they each represent a particular complex of semantic features instantiated through the Mood options at the lexicogrammatical layer (declarative vs. interrogative vs. imperative) and context (information vs. some goods and services). As Figure 9b reminds the reader, if the speaker gives information, the speech function is *informing*, if the commodity is goods and services, s/he is *offering*, whereas if the speaker demands information, s/he is *questioning* and if s/he is demanding goods and services, the resulting speech function is *commanding*.

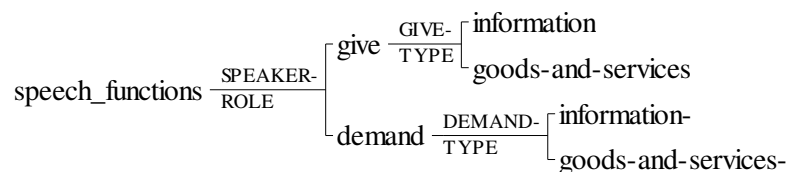


Fig.9b: Primary speech functions (Halliday 1985)

⁶³ The term “speech function” refers to the original term in the literature (Halliday 1985).

Nonetheless, “this is just the bare bones of the system” (Halliday 1994:363). Two other features come into play in the definition of a vast range of speech functions: the *orientation* of the message (speaker-oriented vs. addressee-oriented vs. neutral), and the degree of *desirability* (desirable vs. non-desirable) (Halliday 1994:363). The orientation variable specifies the direction the message follows and towards whom it is addressed, by making the focus of the message explicit (speaker vs. addressee), which is operationalised in the subject and complement choices at the lexicogrammatical stratum. The desirability variable, in turn, accounts for the degree of usefulness, necessity and worth of the message conveyed for the participants and is instantiated through polarity and modality.

The four features (i.e. *role*, *commodity exchanged*, *desirability* and *orientation*) become crucial factors in Halliday’s definition of the specific contexts that promote a particular speech function. Figure 11 below illustrates the on-going creation of a systemic network combining the four variables coming into play in the definition of speech functions.

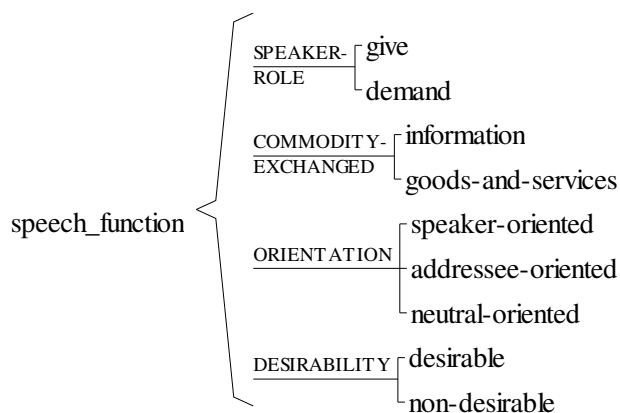


Fig. 11. Illustration of the on-going configuration of speech functions according to Halliday (1985).

As shown in Figure 11, each domain of contrast implies a level of delicacy leading the speaker to choose among the options in the inventory at this semantic stratum of language: if the speaker gives information that is addressee-oriented and that is desirable for the hearer, s/he might well be praising the hearer, whereas if this is non-desirable, s/he might well be blaming or accusing the hearer.

The interest of a systemic network as a tool such as the one in Figure 11 lies in the degree of predictability that the analysis can reach considering the given variables

(i.e. *role, commodity, orientation and desirability*). In other words, when the analyst faces an utterance and decides upon the first variable (here, *the role*) and, consequently, on the ulterior choices (in Figure 11, the degree of delicacy appears in the vertical axis), the set of meanings is progressively more and more reduced until s/he reaches the last choice to make. It thus follows that this path drives the researcher to an explicit and distinct communicative function, which differs, in at least one feature, from the rest of the functions that the system accounts for.

The present analysis of teacher talk in the EFL classroom considered the already existent Hallidayian system of speech functions (Figure 11). However, that tool could not account for the various regulatory functions expressed in my data. The combination of the aforementioned four variables (*speaker role, commodity, desirability and orientation*) as such was insufficient when trying to depict the specific contexts of each of the meanings encountered in the *corpus*. In other words, while many regulatory functions semantically differed, they presented no distinction in any of the levels of the system network in Figure 11, i.e. there were no contrastive sets of choice of meaning. Hence, this called for the development of the existent network so that it would better suit and capture the register of EFL classroom discourse. As it has been mentioned above, the creation of the *RFSN* and the analysis of the data are inextricably linked.

Consequently, departing from Halliday's variables, my system network was expanded in order to account for the different semantic options met in the data. First, it was felt that the domain of contrast "*orientation*" (originally being "speaker", "addressee" and "neutral" according to Halliday (1985)) was restricted to one single variable, namely, the "addressee", as regulatory functions are oriented towards *alter* (cf. Figure 12 below). Second, regarding the degree of "*desirability*", it was developed further in my network. Whereas Halliday (1985) considers the message as either being desirable or non-desirable, I believe that desirability (instantiated through polarity and modality) is sometimes not explicit in the data, and thus not inferrable. Accordingly, in order to avoid subjectivity as much as possible when interpreting those utterances, a further feature -"neutral"- was inserted within the desirability variable in the *RFSN* (cf. Figure 12 below).

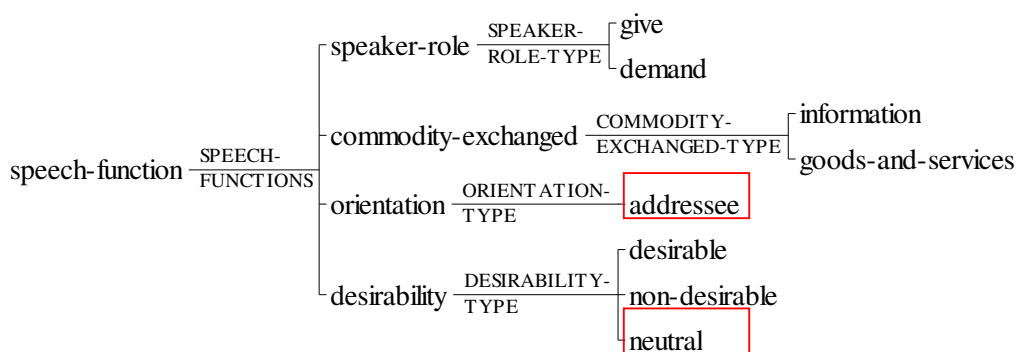


Fig. 12. *Regulatory Functions System Network*: preliminary stage of elaboration

A word would suffice to clarify that since “desirability” involves point of view, the analyst must choose a perspective in order to be consistent throughout the analysis. Since this investigation is centred upon classroom discourse and focuses on teacher talk but is part of a larger project where the response and/or reaction of children is of interest (*UAMLESC Corpus*), the analyst here stuck to the original message (linguistic instantiation) and adopted the child/learner’s point of view. Therefore, something “desirable” would mean beneficial for or wished by the learner (a message unmarkedly presented through positive polarity) as opposed to the “non-desirable” feature (unmarkedly conveying negative polarity) and the “neutral” feature (when an utterance did not overtly manifest itself as a “desirable” or “non-desirable” message to the child, as in the example below).

(Example taken from the *corpus*, session NkcE):

TCH: Ehh.. *Stand up*
 everybody!
Turn around!
 ... *Look at the wall*
 ... *Hands in front of you, stretched out!*
 .. *Clap three times!*
 CH: ((The all do, some speak)) One, two, three

To this point, the variables enumerated above belong to the *semantic* stratum of language, which constitutes only *one* layer of language, instantiated through lower strata (lexicogrammar and phonology). It should be borne in mind at this point that language is a complex semiotic system composed of multiple strata or levels. The inner central stratum is the “lexicogrammar”, which includes the grammar and vocabulary of a language. This level represents the wording that is realised and embodied in different

modes of expression such as sounds or letters. Furthermore, “the wording realizes patterns of another level higher than itself -but still within the system of language: the stratum of semantics” (Halliday 1994:15). The semantic stratum is thus the layer where grammar is interpreted functionally, i.e. where grammar is understood as “a resource for construing meaning” (*ibid.*).

Accordingly, the analysis of meaning inevitably requires the exploration of language within a higher stratum: that which involves *context*. As advanced in Chapter 3, *Systemic Functional Linguistics* understands “context” as (i) the context of situation (register) and (ii) the context of culture (genre). Since register is the expression form of genre, and language, in turn, is the expression form of register (Martin 1992:495), the study of the context of situation is made feasible by examining language through the articulation of *field*, *tenor* and *mode*. The detailed analysis of the three variables guarantees the depiction of a specific situation, and system networks help in the systematisation of their study:

“context needs to be described so that the unique relations pertaining to that context emerge, at the same time as the uniqueness is established, the corollary must also be made available [...] These two tasks are achieved by a profile of behavioural choices across a network (a map of meaning potential)” (Butt 2002:5)

Pursuing the objective of systematising the study of “regulatory functions” and observing that utterances have an explicit context of occurrence that inevitably leads the researcher to their “either/or” categorisation, the present study undertook the task of defining the immediate context of the teachers’ utterances. In order to reach that objective, the study first considered the exploration of the context of situation (register). Unfortunately, the examination of the register did not help to identify distinctive features that would discriminate utterances since the register remained invariant: classroom discourse (specifically, teacher talk) where the field was “teaching”, the tenor was “teacher and pupils” and the mode was “spoken”.

Nonetheless, a stratum between semantics and register gathered the key to explore meaning in its immediate context: the stratum of *discourse-semantics* (cf. Martin 1992:1). Whereas semantics refers to clause-size meanings and focuses on the clause, discourse-semantics focuses on text-size meanings and thus bridges text and register. In other words, discourse-semantics implies the exploration of the wording

(lexicogrammar) and its meaning (semantics) within a particular context (discourse-semantics). More specifically, the discourse-semantic stratum of language consists of four systems: negotiation, identification, conjunction and ideation (Martin 1992:26). Given that the present research aims at describing the discourse-semantics of the regulatory functions instantiated by the teacher, this study focuses on the system of “negotiation”, which is the system of the discourse-semantics of interpersonal meaning and is concerned with discourse as dialogue:

“The discourse semantics of interpersonal meaning (...) shows how a sequence of speech acts which we might gloss informally as question, nomination, answer and validation are syntagmatically related to each other and systemically related to other types of exchange” (Martin 1992:27)

Therefore, discourse-semantics is here regarded as the stratum in language that focuses on the move within the exchange and that enables the researcher to depict the regulatory functions within the discursive exchange.

As explained in Chapter 4, a cross-stratal study of meaning involves the exploration of the interrelationship of units across layers. Since the move is generally a clause that selects for mood, the discourse-semantic stratum is to be explored in relation to the lexicogrammatical one, which is in turn realised phonologically. It should here be mentioned that the researcher carried out some preliminary analyses of the data, previous to the configuration of the network. These revealed the existence of a tendency of co-occurrence between the uttering of some words in an immediate discursive context and their association to a certain “regulatory function”. For that reason, the analyst considered Martin’s discourse-semantic stratum and contributed to its development by expanding the discourse-semantic variables within the *RFSN* in progress.

It is worth reminding the reader at this point that all the variables and features developed through the scale of delicacy in a network need to have a structural realisation, which relates the system (linguistic surface structure) to processes (meanings). Up to this point, it has been mentioned that the *speaker role* is realised through the mood choice (declarative vs. interrogative) realised in turn in phonological terms (descending tones vs. ascending tones), the *commodity exchanged* is observable in the situation, the *orientation* is made explicit through the choice of subject and complement in the mood structure (first vs. second or third person) and the degree of

desirability is operationalised through polarity and modality in the mood system (positive vs. negative polarity; inclination vs. obligation, respectively). It thus follows that the discourse variables to be developed in this work also need to respond to a realisation that formalises their instantiation within the system.

As cited above, the system network that is elaborated in this dissertation finds its roots in Halliday (1985), Hasan (1985; 1996) and Martin (1992), who tackled the analysis of language at the discourse-semantic stratum. Halliday (1985) and Hasan (1985; 1996) determined speech functions by recurring to evidence from the co-text (indexical markers or mood options) but Martin (1992) further developed the system network of speech functions in discourse, instantiated by a structure at the lexicogrammatical level. Figure 13 portrays the systems of mood in English (Martin 1992) which, as will be seen later, give rise to the basic types of moves:

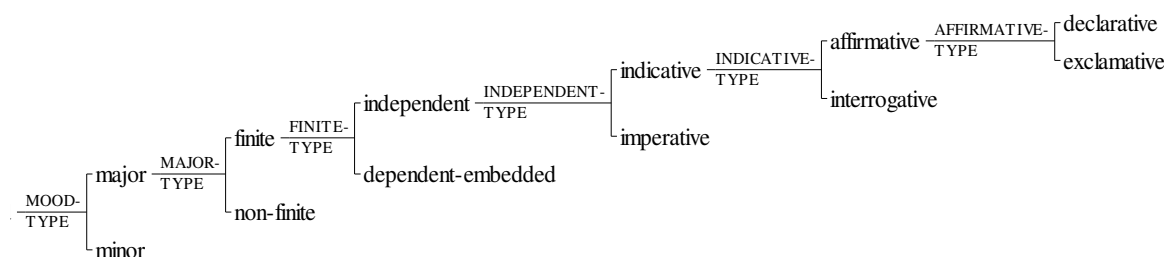


Fig.13. Mood in English (Martin 1992:44)

According to *SFL*, the unit of analysis for the move is the clause that independently selects for mood. More specifically, there are five different types of clauses depending on the “negotiability” of their content: (i) those whose content can be argued or negotiated about (independent clauses negotiate the content of the message through modalization and modulation), (ii) those whose content has already been negotiated (the dependent and embedded clauses), (iii) those that are in between (the hypotactically dependent clauses), (iv) those whose meaning is non-negotiable (non-finite clauses), and (v) those that, because lacking subject and finite in the mood block, cannot negotiate their meaning (minor clauses). As displayed in Figure 14, Martin considers (1992:42) that minor clauses initiate different types of adjacency pairs (within the “attending” type of move, e.g. greetings or calls; and “reacting” towards a situation through exclamations within the “negotiating” moves). Major clauses, in turn, initiate

the “exchange” moves. Mapping therefore the lexicogrammatical choices onto the discourse semantic level, the speech function network that Martin suggests is evidenced in Figure 14 below:

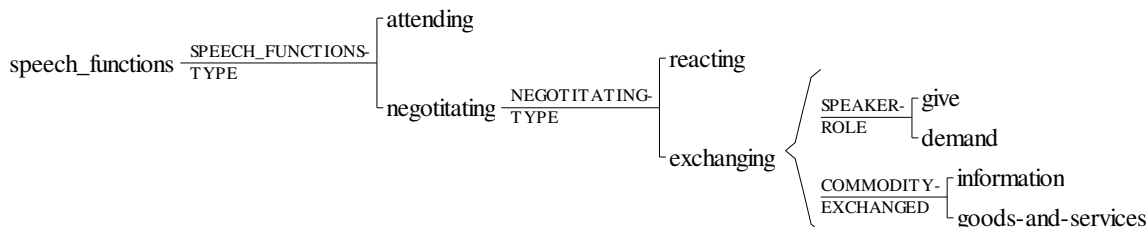


Fig.14. Partial speech function network (Martin 1992:44)

As Figure 14 evidences, Martin (1992) understands speech functions on a dialogic plane, i.e. in discourse. Hence, following Halliday (1985)’s four basic speech functions resulting from the variables *speaker role* and *commodity exchanged* and their expected responses in interaction, Martin instantiates in his diagram the dialogic option “initiate vs. respond” making the discourse option explicit, which can be observed in Figure 15 below:

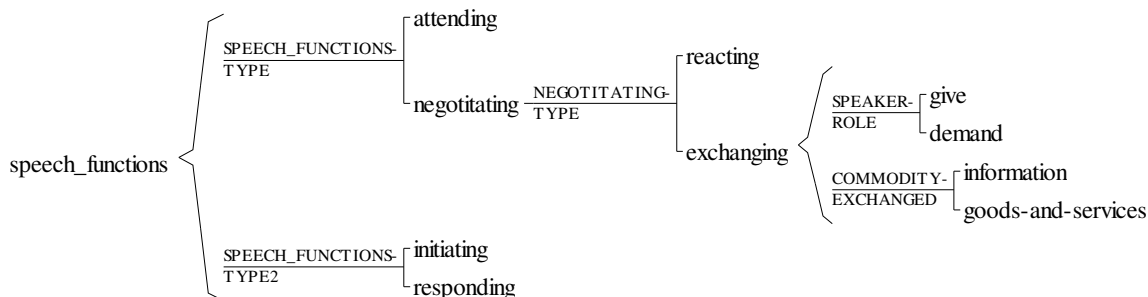


Fig.15. Speech function network giving rise to seven adjacency pairs (Martin 1992:44)

Martin (1992) thus advances that a speech function results from the *move type choice* (attending vs. negotiating) and its role in the interact (initiate vs. responding).

However, and for the objectives of my investigation, it was observed that Martin’s system network (Figure 15) does not account for the sequences of moves (1992:46) which characterise classroom discourse. As explained in Chapter 3, classroom discourse unmarkedly consists of three moves, i.e. the well known *I-R-F* pattern (teachers’ initiation, child’s response and teacher’s follow-up or feedback) and, as it can be appreciated in Figure 15, Martin (1992:44) just considers the initiating and responding counterparts. This led the researcher to consider Sinclair and Coulthard’s

(1992) work, which proposed a rank scaled analysis of classroom discourse (lesson-transaction-exchange-move and act) and where the move can be considered in its immediate discursive context: the *exchange* in classroom discourse. Among their different ranks, the exchange is the minimal interactional unit (as opposed to the interact) and is made of three moves (initiation-response-follow up) in classroom discourse, which accounts for integrating this move in my network at the exchange level and hence modify Martin’s network (Figure 16 below):

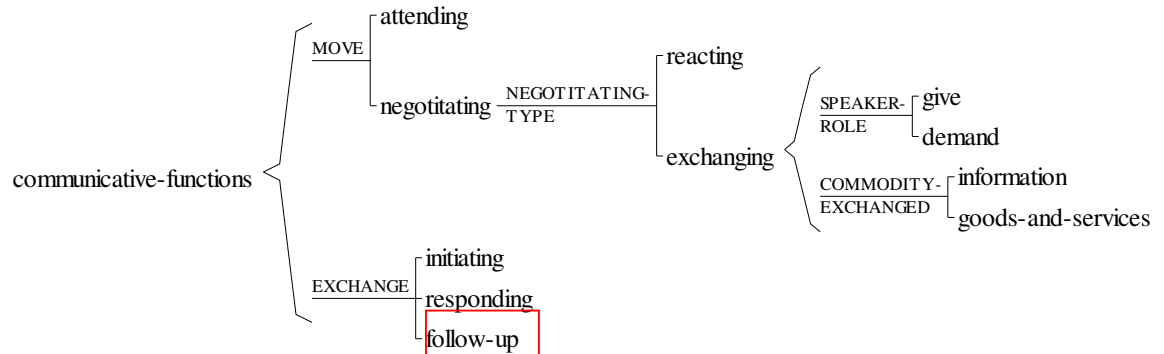


Fig.16. Bare bones of the *Regulatory Functions System Network* (post Martin, post Sinclair and Coulthard)

Prior to the presentation of the bare bones of the *Regulatory Functions System Network* of this investigation, a further step should be considered. Martin (1992) acknowledges two types of moves: those that are adjacent pairs (initiation-response) and those that are non-adjacent, namely the “challenging moves” and “tracking moves”. While “challenging moves” are those refusing attention thus having the potential to abort the exchange (Martin 1992:71), “the tracking moves” are interruptions produced in order to negotiate interpersonal meaning (“to ensure that the experiential meaning under consideration is shared” (Martin 1992:67)) either by monitoring the exchange through backchannels or by confirming what has been uttered (see Figure 17).

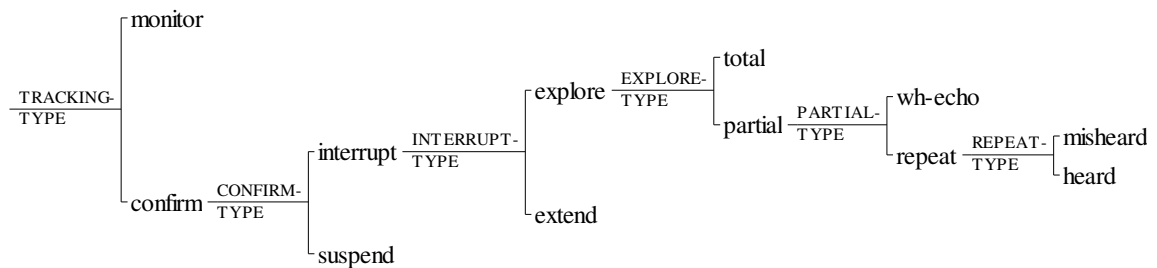


Fig.17. Tracking moves (Martin 1992:70)

Following preliminary analyses of the data, this investigation borrows Martin's network but adapts it to the classroom context. This study posits that there are two types of initiating moves in the exchange in the EFL classroom: *purely initiating moves* (where the teacher starts an exchange from scratch) and *tracking moves*, which aim at clarifications, replay or repetitions and that, discursively depend on the move that it is tracking (typically the immediately preceding one). It thus follows that the skeleton of the *Regulatory Functions System Network* is made up of two domains of contrast: "interpersonal" and "move" (cf. Figure 18). While the former involves the aforementioned purely semantic traits (*desirability* and *orientation*), the latter results from the combination of two levels that have been modified to suit the analysis of EFL classroom discourse: (i) the *move level* that considers the type of move (attend vs. negotiate) adapted from Martin's work, and (ii) the *exchange level* which considers the role of the move within the classroom discourse pattern (initiation-response-feedback), borrowed from Sinclair and Coulthard (1992)⁶⁴, but adjusted in that it distinguishes two different types of initiating moves in the EFL classroom discourse (purely initiate vs. tracking moves, the latter inherited from Martin (1992)) (cf. Figure 18 below).

5.1.2. Presentation of the Bare bones of the *Regulatory Functions System Network*

The present section displays the bare bones of the *Regulatory Functions System Network*, which, as mentioned above, has inherited and modified the existing domains of contrast and features in previous works and has also expanded those variables (see squared features in Figure 18 below) that were felt necessary for the tool to fit the analysis of meaning in a specific register: teacher talk in EFL classroom discourse. When presenting a system network, one can either display the domains of contrast coming into play on a vertical axis (cf. Figure 8b) or develop the system network from the most general to specific (on an horizontal axis, from left to right), through the scale of delicacy, by portraying the different paths leading to particular functions (cf. Figure 9b above).

⁶⁴ A brief terminological note is worth making at this point: whereas *move* is for *SFL* a clause independently selecting for mood, the *move* is for the Birmingham School (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975) a unit that can in turn be rank-shifted into acts (the minimal unit of meaning). The present research considers "the move" as the unit of analysis at the discourse semantic stratum of language following *SFL* and regards the "exchange" as a valid rank where classroom discourse analysis is feasible following Sinclair and Coulthard (1992).

Figure 18 portrays the skeleton around which the *Regulatory Functions System Network* is articulated, presenting (on the vertical axis of the network) the different domains of contrast, variables and features needed in order to discriminate the regulatory functions discourse-semantically. Then, an explanation of how to read the system network follows.

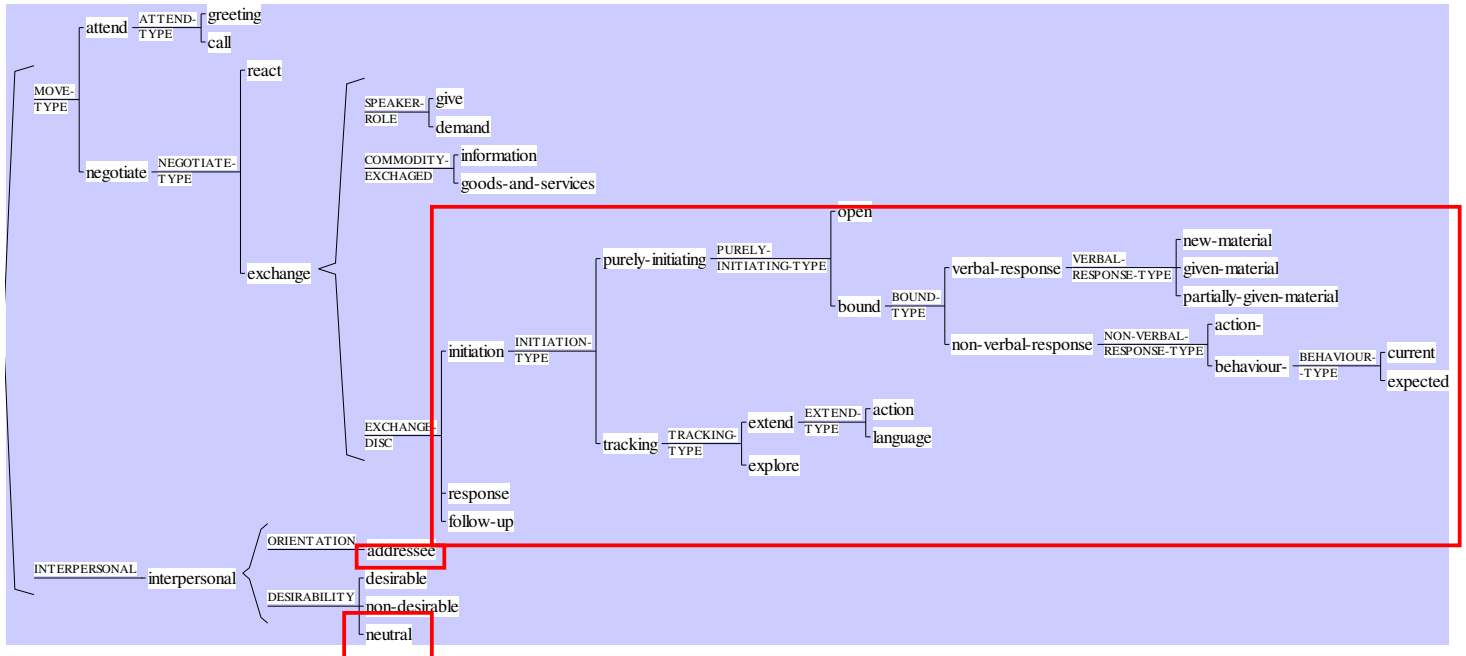


Fig.18. Bare bones of the *Regulatory Functions System Network*: domains of contrast and features.

As evidenced in Figure 18, regulatory functions are defined by making a choice within two main “domains of contrast”: (i) *move* and (ii) *interpersonal features*. The *move domain* was not modified but faithfully borrowed from those variables Halliday (1985) acknowledged (*speaker role* and *commodity*) and that were later expanded by Martin (1992). At this stage, my task has been the combination of both works into one single network as I felt that Halliday’s criteria were to be found within Martin’s categorisation within move types (attend vs. negotiate...). In other words, and as illustrated in Figure 18 above, the first step the speaker makes in interaction is to select “the move type”, i.e. the attend move vs. the negotiate move, an exclusive choice (note the square brackets), which is realised by a structure at the lexicogrammatical (minor vs. major clauses in the mood system) and phonological levels (prosodic choices).

In turn, once the speaker chooses among attending or exchanging, further levels of delicacy lead the speaker to select one option within those variables: if the speaker

“attends”, s/he can either call or greet but if s/he “negotiates”, s/he can either “react” (exclamations in mood system) or “exchange” which is defined by the speaker role (seen in a mood and phonological choice: declarative vs. interrogative; descending vs. ascending tones) and the commodity exchanged (information vs. goods and services).

As Figure 18 shows, within *Negotiate Moves*, one can find the *Reacting moves* where the speaker does not properly interact with the interlocutor (usually instantiated by one independent move, not in adjacency pairs, e.g. exclamations) and the *Exchange moves*. The latter are those constituting the main body of an interaction since the speaker thereby makes his/her role explicit and exchanges the basic commodities, according to Halliday (1985). Notice that in order to instantiate an exchange move, the speaker must make a choice within the speaker role (give vs. demand) and the commodity exchanged variables (i.e. goods and services vs. information), (note the angle bracket in the graph). Therefore, the *Exchange moves* account for the primary basic speech functions: give information, give goods and services, demand information and demand goods and services (Halliday 1994:68).

Bearing in mind that the analysis of meaning considers language within the stratum of discourse-semantics, the exchange domain constitutes the domain of contrast that the present thesis has deeply explored and developed in order to suit the analysis of EFL classroom discourse. Accordingly, and as it can be appreciated in Figure 18, the speaker actually moves onto the *exchange domain* of contrast where s/he instantiates his/her move as an initiating, responding or following-up move. The teacher initiates when s/he opens the exchange. In the EFL classroom, it was found that teacher initiations could either *purely initiate* or belong to what Martin (1992:70) presented as tracking moves.

On the one hand, within *pure initiations*, I expanded the system network by taking into consideration that initiations in teacher talk either expect some kind of response (*bound* option) or do not (*open* option). Within the bound options, and as Figure 18 illustrates, two major types of responses prevail: *non-verbal* (i.e. action or behaviour change, e.g. to sit, to cut) vs. *verbal* (i.e. linguistic production demanded). The interest of such sub-classification is inextricably linked to the underlying

motivation of my research, i.e. to understand how teacher talk through regulatory functions controls and affects the child's verbal and non-verbal behaviour.

One of the major innovations of the present research results from my understanding of "language in the L2", which I feel can be regarded as a type of "goods and services" in the EFL classroom context. It thus follows that an utterance bounded to a verbal response can be interpreted as a "request of verbal production" rather than a "demand for information". Indeed, as the analysis of EFL classroom discourse reveals, most of the activities focus on "linguistic" tasks: e.g. making children repeat a new item in the foreign language, eliciting peer conversation in the foreign language, among others. Therefore, the nature of the response, verbal (aiming at language) vs. non-verbal (aiming at action), invites the researcher to further considerations so as to obtain an either/or categorisation of the different types of regulatory functions in the EFL classroom.

Consequently, and as Figure 18 illustrates, one further level of delicacy was developed in order to discriminate distinct types of verbal responses. I strongly believe that *informational status* constitutes a useful discursive criterion in the definition of functions related to linguistic production. In other words, what is relevant to the creation of the *RFSN* is my selection and adaptation of the "informational status" criterion as a feature that helps to discriminate regulatory functions in the EFL classroom. According to Halliday (1967b), Prince (1981), and Geluykens (1991) among others, informational status should be understood as the givenness-newness opposition, on the grounds of recoverability at the discourse level. Assuming that the information unit is a structure realising two functions - "given information" and "new information"- "information, in this technical grammatical sense, is the tension between what is already known or predictable and what is new or unpredictable" (Halliday 1994: 296).

Under *SFL*, *recoverability* accounts for the status of information conveyed within the message that goes from speaker (teacher) to hearer (learner). The part of the information that has been mentioned before, is present in the situation or is presented as known for rhetorical purposes is recoverable, and thus "given". The expressions that are inherently "given" are those that are not interpretable except by reference: extra linguistic markers, deictics (demonstratives, pronominals) or substitution (Halliday

1967b:206). On the other hand, what is non-recoverable may be something that is unexpected or that is normally textually and situationally non-derivable information, i.e. the “new” information. Furthermore, Geluykens (1991) believes information is either “recoverable” or “irrecoverable” in relation to the discourse record (i.e. the context) constituted by the immediate situation and the discourse: “from the analyst’s point of view, only close scrutiny of his context can give us a clue to the givenness status of an element” (Geluykens 1991:143).

Accordingly, my proposal for a *Regulatory Functions System Network* enables the analysis of the various discrete verbal responses resulting from the type of discourse provided, something which, to my knowledge, has not been achieved before in EFL discourse analysis studies. In so doing, this investigation posits that the type of discourse in the EFL classroom may be (i) “new” when the teacher obtains a child’s L2 production which has not been previously provided by the teacher (example 1 below⁶⁵), (ii) “partially given” when the child uses some cue or discourse uttered by the teacher in the immediately preceding discourse (example 2 below), and (iii) “given” when the child echoes with the identical words what has been produced by the teacher (example 3 below) (cf. Figure 18 above).

Example 1: [session NrK]

TCH: *What’s this*

Alejandra?

Alejandra: a fish

TCH: a fish.

And where do they live?

Alejandra: in the sea

Example 2: [session NNcT2]

What are they?

CH: (Alberto) Fingers.

TCH: Not fingers.. These are the fingers and these ((ref. To the gloves)) you put them on, like this ((showing))

CH: (Alberto) <L1 No es mío L1>

TCH: I know it’s not yours.. but she can’t remember.

CH: <L1 No me acuerdo L1>

TCH: <L1 ¡Ayy! No me acuerdo L1>..

What are they?

Miiii-

CH: ((the girl)) Mittens

TCH: Mittens, mittens.. Very good..

⁶⁵All the examples provided have been retrieved from the *corpus*.

Example 3: [session NskJ]

CH: <L1 Piña L1>

TCH: Okay?

CH: Okay!

TCH: It's a pineapple.

CH: It's a pineapple.

TCH: **Repeat! Pineapple**

CH: pineapple

((The children do not repeat it very properly))

... Very good, María ..

On the other hand, taking into consideration the two functions which *tracking moves* may have according to Martin (1992:69, Figure 17 above), namely “explore” and “extend” the move that is tracking, the *RFSN* further developed the “tracking: extend” initiation feature⁶⁶. Since the present investigation acknowledges two types of responses (verbal vs. non-verbal), it is here understood that there are two types of extensions: those that would encourage the child to produce further verbal production (example 4 below) and those that would encourage further actions (example 5 below).

Example 4: [session: NNncN1]

TCH: and now,

what's this?

CHI: yellow

TCH: **come on**

aloud

what's this?

blue door?

CHI: nooo

CHI: purple

TCH: [blue pencil]

CHI: [purple]

CHI: no, purple

TCH: purple... what?

CHI: purple window

TCH: purple window, very good, Andrea. Purple window, thank you

Example 5: [session NNncS3]**Come on**

go to the blackboard<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Fp-Rp-Radj\$.

Miguel Angel<AS>\$MC-V\$

As Figure 18 displays, other moves exist within the exchange domain in teacher talk: respond and follow-up. While the *response* is the answer to the child's initiation, the *follow-up* is the last move proper to classroom discourse where most children's acts (verbal or non-verbal) receive an evaluation or a comment (cf. Chapter 3 above).

⁶⁶ Note that Martin's option “tracking: explore” is disregarded in the present study as that exclusively applies to the “information” commodity and this investigation focuses on the “goods and services” commodity instead.

Nonetheless, although I have mentioned the different move types here and explained them through a system network in a preliminary study (cf. Riesco-Bernier 2003), the present thesis focuses on initiating moves. This is not to say that regulatory functions are exclusively found in initiating moves since regulatory functions may occasionally happen in responsive (e.g. allowances) or in follow-up moves (e.g. feedback engaging further initiations of the child). However, the examination of the responses and feedback would require a thorough and detailed analysis of children's talk, which would deviate our attention from the teacher's, the main target in this work.

Finally, as far as the *interpersonal domain* is concerned, the present work has borrowed the *degree of desirability* and *orientation* from Halliday (1994) since it is felt that both contribute to the definition of regulatory functions in classroom discourse⁶⁷. However, and contrary to the way Halliday considers them, these criteria do not appear under the exchange type exclusively but are contemplated at any move type, becoming therefore a second domain of contrast itself (see Figure 18 above). As it can be observed, they are grouped under the domain of contrast "interpersonal" as I feel they both contribute to the explicitness of the relationship that the message can create between the participants (mainly realised by the structure of polarity and modality at the lexicogrammatical stratum of language). As Figure 18 portrays with the angle brackets, once the speaker has chosen the *move type*, s/he enters the *interpersonal* domain and makes an option both at the *orientation* and *desirability* of the message, which have been modified and explained above (see squared features in Figure 18).

5.1.3. Summary of the discourse-semantic analysis

The bare bones of the *Regulatory Functions System Network* presented in Figure 18 above hence reveal the articulation of the discourse-semantic variables coming into play in the definition of regulatory functions in teacher talk. As has been thoroughly explained in the sections above, "regulatory functions" are defined through variables (domains of contrast) belonging to the stratum of semantics (*interpersonal*) and discourse (*move type and exchange*). The semantic options are instantiated through the realisations at the lexicogrammatical level (mood system), and the discourse options, in turn, attend to what follows or precedes the move under analysis. What the *RFSN* offers

⁶⁷ Note that other studies do not include them in their criteria to define speech functions (cf. Martin 1992).

is a systematic analysis of meaning that urges the researcher to consider both discursive and semantic criteria to identify and depict the distinct regulatory functions⁶⁸.

While the sections above have focused on the presentation of the analysis at the discourse-semantic level of language (through the display of the variables configuring the tool of analysis, i.e. the *RFSN*), the sections below pay attention to the level of analysis that enables the instantiation of the discourse-semantic choices through structure: the stratum of lexicogrammar. This twofold presentation will provide a more comprehensive account of each regulatory function when they will be presented as a taxonomy resulting from the *Regulatory Functions System Network* developed through the scale of delicacy (Figure 23 in Chapter 6).

5.2. The stratum of lexicogrammar: the Mood system

Contrary to what many researchers have tried to support, *SFL* argues that there is a *tendency* of correlation, though not a clear-cut one-to-one correspondence, between meaning and structure (Halliday 1994:95; Eggins 1999:152; Hannay and Kroon 2005). Far from being a handicap to the researcher, this constitutes a key to understand how meaning is created. “Meaning” is the result of options made at the discourse-semantic stratum which are encoded at the lexicogrammatical and phonological levels. Indeed, in the same way choice has been seen to apply at the discourse-semantic layer (section 5.1. above), choice again applies at other strata since the systems of Mood and Intonation provide a wide array of options upon which the speaker decides⁶⁹.

As mentioned in Chapter 3, in the metafunctional organisation of meaning, Halliday (1994) postulates that a clause can be analysed on three different grounds depending on the meaning the analyst focuses on (experiential, interpersonal and textual). More specifically, the interpersonal meaning deals with roles and relationships

⁶⁸ Furthermore, should the researcher restrict the analysis to the discursive variables (preceding and following moves) to identify the distinct utterances, the categorisation will be deterministic (e.g. a move would be identified as “x” because the preceding one is “y” but would be lacking features that define it). As a result, a combination between the semantic and discursive criteria is paramount.

⁶⁹ It should be borne in mind that the present thesis focuses exclusively on the stratum of lexicogrammar. However, when the stratum of lexicogrammar provides insufficient information to identify mood structures or segment information into units, the researcher paid attention to the phonological stratum: both to tone and tonicity systems. Riesco-Bernier (2003) concluded that a cross-stratal analysis sometimes required the consideration of the phonological level to obtain crucial information the other layers lacked.

in interaction and is instantiated through the system of Mood (schematised in Figure 20 below). It should be here borne in mind that the stratum of lexicogrammar (Mood) is to discourse-semantics what language is to register, i.e. the system providing the potential (lexicogrammatical) realisations of meaning.

“In studying the grammar of the clause as exchange we are actually studying how interpersonal meanings get made. The systems of mood and modality are the keys to understanding the interpersonal relationships between interactants. By looking at the *grammatical choices* speakers make, the role they play in discourse, we have a way of uncovering and studying the social creation and maintenance of hierarchic, gender and idiosyncratic social roles” (Egins 1999:218, my italics).

Accordingly, a cross-stratal analysis implies that the exploration of “meaning” at the highest stratum (discourse-semantics) is only understood as long as each discourse-semantic option is operationalised and instantiated through structure at a lower stratum (lexicogrammar). The following sections therefore focus on the relevant Mood choices that the speaker selects in order to convey an either-or regulatory function, already defined at the discourse-semantic stratum in section 5.1. above.

First, a section presents the unit of analysis at the lexicogrammatical stratum and clarifies a controversial issue within a cross-stratal study, namely the non-coextension of discourse-semantic and lexicogrammatical units. Then, a second section describes the lexicogrammatical criteria that the analysis of these data has followed in the light of *SFL* (Halliday 1985; Martin 1992; Thompson 1996; Egins 1999; Downing and Locke 2002)⁷⁰. And third, attention is paid to the problems underlying the lexicogrammatical analysis of EFL classroom discourse.

5.2.1. The lexicogrammatical analysis: The unit of analysis

As mentioned in the previous chapter, moving across strata in order to analyse regulatory functions implies a shift in the unit of analysis. On the one hand, the stratum of discourse-semantics is concerned with moves. As stated in Chapter 4, the moves in this study are the communicative functions instantiated by the teacher, in particular the regulatory functions. On the other, at the lexicogrammatical stratum, “the most appropriate unit would appear to be a clause selecting independently for mood” (Martin 1992:40). Clauses can be *propositions* if they exchange information, “when language is

⁷⁰ For practical reasons, attention is paid to those elements from *SFL* theory that obtain in the present corpus.

used to exchange information, the clause takes on the form of a proposition. It becomes something that can be argued about, something that can be affirmed or denied, and also doubted, contradicted, insisted on...” (Halliday 1994:70), or *proposals* if they exchange goods and services. Besides, the categorisation of clauses is also made according to their mood selection. The first level of delicacy discriminates among two types of clauses: those which select for a mood structure (*major clauses*, see Figure 19 below) vs. those which do not display it (*minor clauses*).

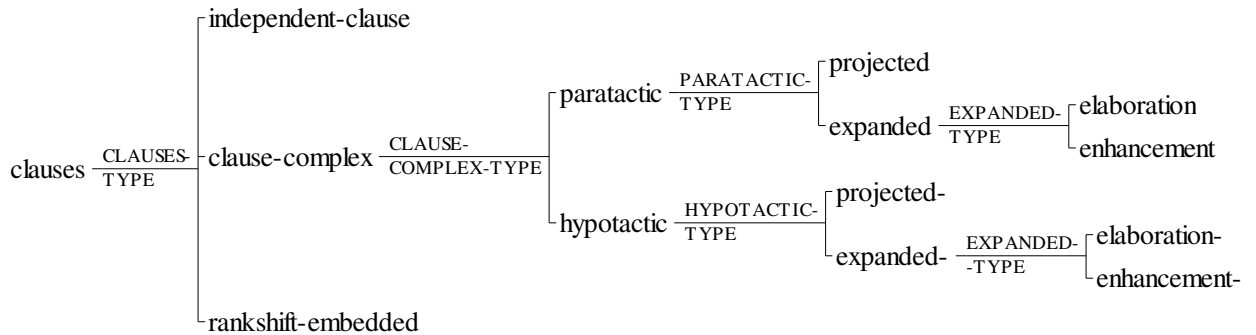


Fig.19. Clause types (after Halliday 1994)

In the search for what instantiates roles and relationships in interaction, the analysis of the regulatory functions at the lexicogrammatical stratum aims at the examination of those utterances that straightforwardly contribute to interpersonal meaning. This implies that those specific elements *in the corpus* whose function is the organisation of a text for instance (e.g. markers and transition boundaries), were disregarded in the analysis as they did not select for Mood (Halliday 1994:1; Eggins 1999:169). More specifically, the lexicogrammatical analysis of this study examines the minor and major clauses which are independent. This does not include the embedded and hypotactically dependent clauses (Martin 1992:40), i.e. definite relative clauses, nominalised wh-clauses, acts, facts, hypotactic projections and hypotactic expansions. Bearing in mind that a “communicative function” and “a clause” tend to be coextensive units, the present work explores (i) independent clauses (example 6 below) and (ii) paratactic dependent clauses which “independently select for mood” (*ibid.*) (example 7 below) (cf. Figure 19).

Example 6: [session NNcT2]
TCH: Write your name

Example 7: [session NmI1]

TCH: Ask her her name

TCH: say: *what's your name?* <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc_parat.proj.cl_INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CH: [What's your name?]

On the contrary, hypotactic clauses, paratactic dependent clauses and embedded clauses, which elaborate on the meaning of another by further specifying or describing it (example 8 below), do not introduce a new element into the message but rather provide a further characterisation of one that is already there, and thus are not analysed in this dissertation (cf. Halliday 1994:225; Martin, Matthiessen and Painter 1997:208; Butt, Fahey, Spinks and Yallop 2000).

Example 8: [session NrK]

So let's go to the arts table

and we'll have a look

... So you've got to decide [[*where you're going to put the brown ones*]]<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-p-MFhp-obl-Rp-Rc_emb.cl\$

Make a step back *where you're going to put the green ones* <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj_emb.cl\$

Nonetheless, when dependent or embedded clauses are found in the data, the analyst acknowledges them in her analysis (signalled by double square brackets and the code <emb.cl>, see example 9 below) but does not usually examine their complete inner structure, unless they contain vital information affecting the meaning potential of the utterance as a regulatory function. As an illustration, example 10 below displays an embedded clause (in square brackets) which contains the linguistic command addressed to the child and is thus analysed in this study.

Example 9 [session NNncN2]:

TCH: Now, can you sing [[we wish you a Merry Christmas]]? \$C-INT-yn-MFlp-obl-S2-Rp-Rc_emb.cl\$

Example 10 [session NskJ]:

TCH: Very good, Gabriel.

You don't know .. [[*what are these*]]? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET-D-S2-n-Fp-Rp-Rc_emb.cl_INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$ ((Children are speaking))

Look!

Listen!

Grapessssss ((Pointing to the board))

In the light of what has been stated above, coextension of units (in this case, functions and clauses) does not always apply. Actually, “cases where the three types of units [tone unit, information unit and clause] are coextensive may be prototypical but it is by no means the case that the discourse steps which speakers take are translated

automatically into semantico-syntactic units, which in turn are realized as prosodic or orthographic units” (Hannay and Kroon 2005:88). Rather, there is substantial evidence that the relations between the different levels are more complex, which calls for a cross-stratal analysis of the data. The present work hence regards the communicative function as the basic unit of analysis, as an independent and separate form of organisation deserving a separate analysis.

As explained above, the examination of the data was carried out by exclusively focusing on the discourse-semantic stratum first (disregarding the linguistic realisation). Following the tagging at that level, the lexicogrammatical analysis ensued by tagging the mood choices within clauses (lexicogrammatical unit). Once both codings are put together, the analyses evidence that, more often than not, the lexicogrammatical unit is not co-extensive with the “communicative function unit” (discourse semantic unit). The instances in the next section demonstrate that the “communicative function unit” is a constituent in its own right, which may cover a clause and a half, and vice versa, one clause may be mapped into two or more information/communicative function units (cf. Selting 1996; Simon 2001; Verhagen 2001).

5.2.1.1.A communicative function covering more than one independent clause

Among the cases where units of analysis did not coincide, it was frequent to find in the *corpus* two paratactic clauses, coordinated or juxtaposed, which had previously been tagged as instantiating one single function. Although the prosodic analysis will not be examined in this thesis, it was crucial to attend to the intonation contours and consider the prosodic realisation in order to discern whether both clauses instantiated one single function, or if, on the contrary, each clause independently instantiated the same function (i.e. the second clause simply repeated it). As those instances were realised within a single intonation contour, it was decided that both clauses would be analysed and that both together would create a single function in discourse (i.e. two lexicogrammatical units for one discourse-semantic unit).

Examples 11-13 below illustrate how an action command is progressively being built through the instantiation of two paratactic clauses, independently selecting for mood and together referring to one single function.

Example 11: [session NrK]:

TCH: Go\$C-IM-p-Rp\$ **and** get it from your bag\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$.

Example 12: [session NrC2]:

Can you put a little bit more glue in there\$C-INT-yn-p-MFlp-obl-S2-Rp-Rc-Radj\$ **and** mix it, please? \$C-INT-yn-MFlpE-obl-S2E-Rp-Rc-MA\$

Example 13: [session NrC2]:

can you go\$C-INT-yn-p-MFlp-ab-S2-Rp\$ <x x> **and** ask them if we can borrow two big paintbrushes? \$C-INT-yn-p-MFlpE-ab-S2E-Rp-Rc-Rc_hypot.proj.cl\$

5.2.1.2.A *function resulting from a multi-clausal distribution: the case of suggestions*

Another very controversial and specific case was that where two or more independent clauses are paratactically related (either coordinated by the conjunctions “and”/“or” or juxtaposed) and together instantiate a single function: suggestions. The conjunctions “and” and “or” paratactically relate two clauses, the second one extending the meaning of the first one by either amplifying the information or offering an alternative (cf. Halliday 1994:220). Quirk *et al.* (1985:932) acknowledge that one of the uses of “or” is exclusive “where it excludes the possibility that both conjoins are to be fulfilled”. Besides, another use is inclusive suggestions “where it is implied that both conjoins may be true. This inclusive meaning is clearly signalled where a third clause is added to make it explicit, as in ‘or you can do both’”(ibid.).

Consequently, my analysis has provided the lexicogrammatical realisation of the different clauses contributing to the meaning of a suggestion but only one function has been acknowledged, only one suggestion in the three examples (14-16) displayed below:

Example 14: [session NrC2]

You can either paint it all one colour\$C-D-S2-p-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$, **and then** we leave it to dry\$C-D-SE-p-MFlpE-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$ **and then** you paint some little pictures on it\$C-D-S2-p-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$.

Example 15: [session NNcT1]

Or we can put them a jumper with trousers \$C-D-S2-p-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc\$..

or jumper with shoes \$C-D-SFE-RpE-Rc\$.. **Or** shorts with shoes \$C-D-SFE-RpE-Rc\$..

Example 16 [session NmI2]

put it anywhere you like <x...x> in the classroom.

CH: <L1 En las ventanas no L1>

TCH: Anywhere.

CH: On the window.

CH: On the blackboard

TCH: Or on the blackboard\$C-IM-p-RpE-RcE-Radj\$, or on the floor<DS>\$C-IM-p-RpE-RcE-Radj\$..

As for the juxtaposed clauses, I shall accept that suggestions or commands could also result from the interaction of several juxtaposed independent clauses. Actually, according to Halliday,

“The conjunctives are not structural markers of the paratactic relationship; they are cohesive rather than structural. Very often the two clauses are simply juxtaposed. This often makes it difficult to decide, in spoken language whether they form a clause complex or not; but if the intonation pattern is repeated, and the semantic relationship of elaboration is clearly present, this can be taken as a criterion for treating them as forming a nexus” (Halliday 1994:226).

Consequently, when independent clauses contributed to instantiate one single meaning, those were analysed as distinct clauses and one single function was acknowledged (an action command in example 17 below).

Example 17: [session NrC1]

Half past five, half past six, half past seven, half past eight, half past nine, half past ten, half past eleven, half past twelve. Donna, excellent!

Go\$C-IM-p-Rp\$ put it in the finished work tray<DC-a>\$C'-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

5.2.1.3. Multi-word sequences

Another interesting though problematic case in the lexicogrammatical analysis was the analysis of sequences of repeated words, which together seemed to behave as single items. Although the label “multi-word sequences” often refers to formulaicity (cf. Altenberg 1998; Biber *et al.* 1999), some authors adopt it to refer to strings of identical words having one single interpersonal function, e.g. agreement (e.g. “yes, yes, yes, yes”), disagreement, appreciation, etc (cf. Halliday 1994; Butler 2003a:182; 2003b).

In the present *corpus*, those instances were often attention getters (calls, calls of attention) realised by two or more vocatives or imperative clauses uttered at once, having an independent lexicogrammatical and prosodic realisations (minor clause embedded in a single intonation contour each), but altogether instantiating a single call. As in the cases mentioned above, the researcher decided to provide the lexicogrammatical realisation of the different chunks (major or minor clauses) but acknowledged one single function, see examples 18-20 below:

Example 18: [session NNncN3]

TCH: Laura\$MC-V\$ Laura<AS>\$MC-V\$

, how old are you?

LAU: My name is [Laura]

Example 19: [session NNncS3]

TCH: Let's see \$C-IM-S1a-p-Rp\$..let's see<AS>\$C-IM-S1a-p-Rp\$

Example 20: [session Nm11]

So let's start

Íñigo \$MC-V\$ Íñigo<AS>\$MC-V\$

sit down

This section has reviewed the non-co-existence of units (communicative functions instantiated in moves vs. clauses), which accounts for the decision of regarding the communicative function as the central unit of analysis and has illustrated how clause(s) is/are articulated around functions. To have a comprehensive account of how meaning is instantiated at the lexicogrammatical layer, the sections below provide a detailed picture of the lexicogrammatical analysis of the data.

5.2.2. The constituents of Mood

For presentation purposes, this section introduces the functional constituents of mood -Mood Block⁷¹ and Residue- and their structure (within *SFL*) and considers the major clauses first and minor clauses later (schematised in Figure 20 below). To go one step further, this section provides authentic examples from the analysed *corpus* and also engages with those problematic areas that emerged throughout the analysis of the different constituents of the clauses.

⁷¹A differentiation must be made between “Mood Block” (constituent of the clause) and “mood” (the system which describes the overall structure of the clause).

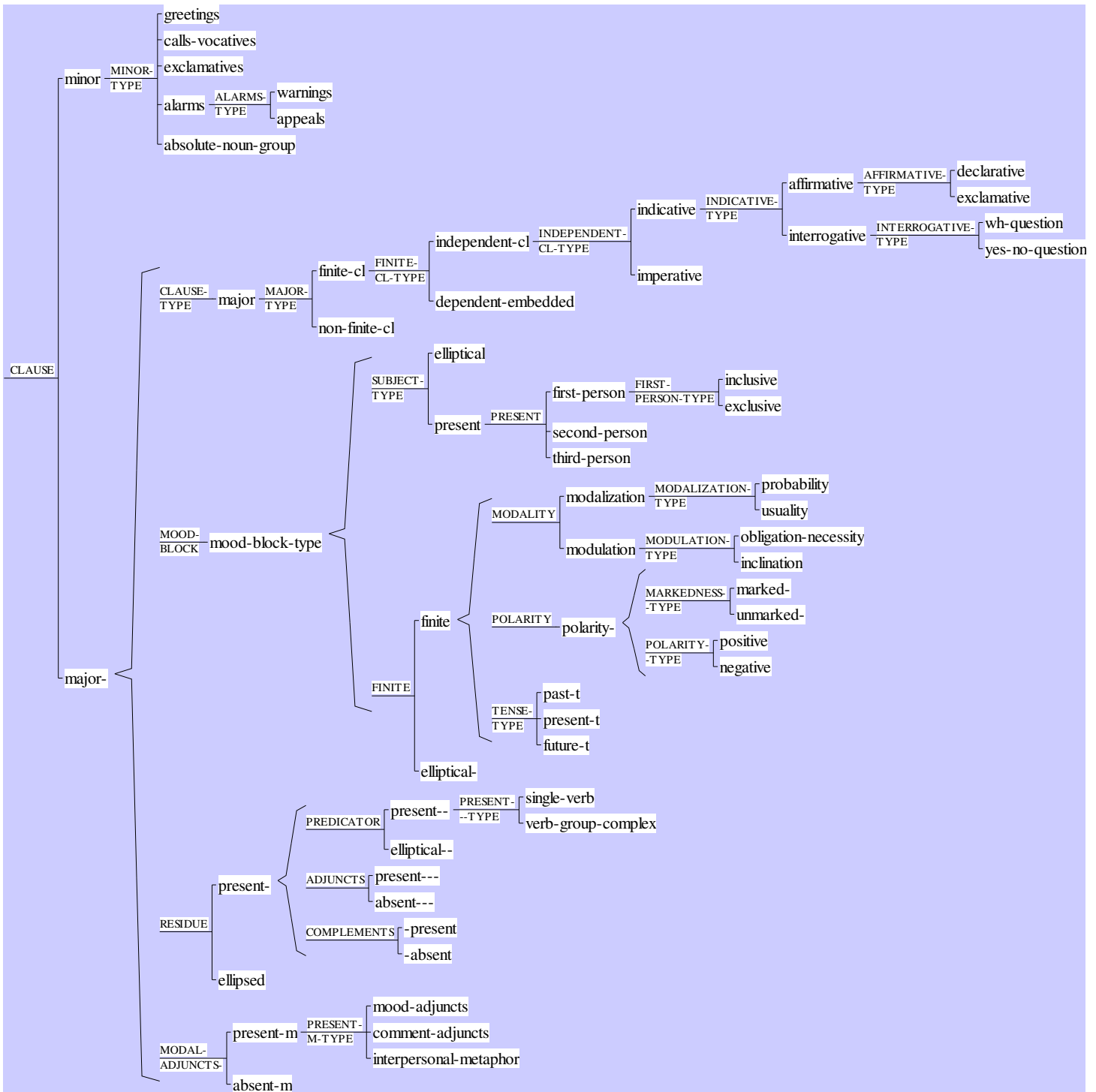


Fig. 20. Mood system in English (after Halliday 1985)

- The **Mood Block**: is the component of the clause that is tossed back and forth in a series of rhetorical exchanges and carries the argument forward (Halliday 1994:71; Eggins 1999:155; Thompson 2004) and that accounts for the organisation of its two functional constituents: Subject and Finite.

- The *subject* (Halliday 1994:76) is the thing by reference to which the proposition can be affirmed or denied and in “whom is vested the success or failure of the proposition” [...] or “the one that is actually responsible for realizing the offer or the command” (*ibid.*) that is normally a nominal group and that is identified by means of a tag test. As the system network evidences in Figure 20 above, the subject type was analysed as either being absent (elided) or present, and if present, the researcher specified whether it was a first (inclusive –*we*- or exclusive –*I*-), second or third person since that was of relevance when analysing the *orientation* of the message (semantic criteria adopted as a variable in the *Regulatory Functions System Network*, Figure 18 above).

- The *finite* operator is part of the verbal group and is what anchors the proposition so that we can argue about it, by relating the proposition to its context in the speech event (Halliday 1994:75). This is achieved by indicating the *tense*, *polarity* and *modality* of the message, three domains of contrast appearing in the network in Figure 20 above within the finite option. Tense signals the anchoring of the message related to the time of speaking; modality indicates the speaker’s judgement of what s/he is uttering and polarity is the choice between positive and negative. Indeed, as Figure 20 displays, the speaker decides as to how the message will be encoded as regards tense (past vs. present vs. future), modality (presence or absence of a modal finite operator, modal adjuncts or interpersonal metaphors, cf. Halliday 1994:76) and as regards polarity (positive vs. negative and whether unmarked –*e.g. Let’s go!*- vs. marked –*Do let’s go!*).

Note that the system network presented in Figure 20 above accounts for those choices through angle brackets indicating a choice within each domain of contrast. Within polarity, for instance, the speaker must make a choice in both the markedness type and the polarity type. In turn, within the domains of polarity type, an exclusive either-or choice must be made, which is graphically illustrated by the square brackets. Let me note that, for the purposes of study, namely the instantiation of discourse-semantic options through a structural realisation, the analysis of the finite provides indeed the degree of *desirability* through the realisation of polarity and modality, since it indicates in a more objective way whether the message will be received as either desirable (positive polarity) or non-desirable (negative polarity) by the child.

Indeed, polarity and modality are articulated together since any finite is inherently positive or negative in polarity, “as if they were absolute” (Thompson 1996:57), whereas modality offers intermediate stages: “a simple starting definition of modality is that it is the space between ‘yes’ and ‘no’” (*ibid.*). In order to understand how modality behaves, the aforementioned distinction in speech roles should be borne in mind as it leads to two types of modality: modalization vs. modulation. If the commodity exchanged is information, *modalization* relates to how valid the information is in terms of *probability* (how likely it is to be true) or *usuality* (how frequently it is true) of the propositions. If, on the contrary, the commodity exchanged is goods and services, as what is being analysed in study, *modulation* relates to how confident the speaker can be in the eventual success of the exchange expressed in proposals. In other words, this concerns the degree of obligation on the hearer to carry out a command or the degree of willingness or inclination of the speaker to fulfil the offer (Halliday 1994; Thompson 1996).

Furthermore, I should here note that modality, which can be expressed in a wide number of ways (cf. Halliday 1994:88-92; Eggins 1999:178-192), was instantiated in the *corpus* by means of (i) a modal finite operator finite (Ex. 21 [session NNncS1]: “*Can you sit properly?*”), (ii) a mood adjunct (Ex. 22 [NkcE]: “*Could you point to the word again, please?*”) by both together or (iii) by means of an interpersonal metaphor (Ex. 23 [NmI2]: “*Jacobo, would you like to speak English and stop speaking Spanish?*”). The choice of the linguistic realisation influences both the degree of directness and the modal commitment (Thompson 1996:59). As mentioned above, modality involves a wide range of degrees and scales and both modalisation and modulation present higher or lower degrees of certainty, pressure, obligation, etc...Halliday (1994:338) formalises this by establishing three basic values: high, median and low (figures 21 and 22 below summarise modality). The present analysis has therefore mentioned which element instantiates modality, specifies the type of modality and provides its value (e.g. low modal finite operator indicating ability in example 24 below; high modal finite operator instantiating negative obligation (prohibition) in example 25 below).

Example 24: [session NkcE]
 TCH: Look!
 TCH:.. *Can you see that one there then?* <AS> \$C-INT-yn-p-MFlp-ab-S2-Rp-Rc-Radj-Radj\$
 CH: ((Some)) Yes.

Example 25: [session NNncS3]
 TCH: Now we'll see this ((rearranging the right queue))
 TCH: *can't show this*<DP-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-SE-n-MFhp-obl-Rp-Rc\$
 ((to the one on the left)) ((organising the two queues))
 TCH: *Can't show this*<DP-a><r>\$C-INT.MET.D-SE-n-MFhp-obl-Rp-Rc\$

Intermediacy		Realisation	Modals/Adjuncts
Modalization (propositions)	Probability	finite modal operators modal adjuncts	<i>may, might, can, could, will, would, should, must, probably, possibly, certainly, perhaps, maybe</i>
	Usuality	finite modal operators modal adjuncts	<i>May, might, can, could, will, would, should, must Usually, sometimes, always, never, ever, seldom, rarely</i>
Modulation (proposals)	Obligation	finite modal operators passive verb predicator	<i>May, might, can, could, should must Definitely, absolutely, possibly, at all costs, by all means</i>
	Inclination Ability	finite modal operators adjective predicator	<i>May, might, can, could, will, would, must, shall, can, could Willingly, readily, gladly, certainly, easily</i>

Fig. 21: Modality types and linguistic choices (After Martin *et al.* 1997:64)

	Probability	Usuality	Obligation	Inclination
High	Certain	Always	Required	Determined
Median	Probable	Usually	Supposed	Keen
Low	Possible	Sometimes	Allowed	Willing

Fig. 22. Values of modality (After Halliday 1994:358)

The presentation of the constituents of the Mood Block should be interrupted at this point, before covering the Residue, to consider a problematic issue that arose during the analysis of the data. Interestingly, although polarity has been said to be inherent to finites, i.e. overtly manifest, the finite was very often not produced (elided or just inexistent) in commands and thus polarity was not always linguistically disclosed in the present *corpus*: “in interpersonal terms, an imperative is presented as not open to negotiation, and thus most of the functions of the finite are irrelevant” (Thompson 1996:48). In example 26 from the *corpus*, the teacher is asking the child to place a piece

of paper somewhere. However, the teacher is merely expressing the adjunct omitting the finite and even the predicator which may be obvious in that context.

Example 26: on the line *\$C-IM-p-RpE-RcE-Radj\$*. ((The child is putting the piece of paper there))

My analysis could therefore (i) either not mention polarity as this is not linguistically expressed, (ii) or infer it by the context and thus acknowledge if it is positive or negative. Since the finite in unmarked imperatives does appear with a restricted purpose, that of signalling negative polarity (cf. Halliday 1994:87; Thompson 1996:49), I assume that unmarked polarity corresponds to positive polarity. Indeed, it is possible to “probe the polarity value of a clause by adding a Mood tag (if the clause is declarative or imperative, if it is interrogative, just check the related declarative instead)” (Martin *et al.* 1997:76). Consequently, those cases where the finite is not explicitly produced, but where it is evident it is positive by both the context and the mood tag, are acknowledged as positive in the analysis (see example 26 above, code “p”, c.f. codes in Appendix II, 2.0).

- The **Residue**: though less relevant for the arguability of the clause than the Mood Block (Eggins 1999:161), its inner structure (made of different functional elements: predicator, complement and adjuncts) is also annotated and analysed in this work. Nonetheless, this analysis does not reach a great degree of complexity due to the indirect relationship found between the residue realisations and their contribution to the instantiation of discourse-semantic choices. As Figure 20 displays, the residue may either be present or elided. If present, the three components appearing in the network (i.e. predicator, adjuncts and complements) display a double option “present” or “elided/absent”. The predicator, which is the compulsory element, may be “present” or “elided”, whereas the other optional items (complement and adjunct) may be “present” or “absent”.

- The **Predicator**: is the lexical part of the verbal group. It is unmarkedly present in all major clauses and is identified in the clause as the immediate element following the finite. In Ex. 27 [NskJ]: “*What are you doing!*”, “doing” is the predicator, while “are” is the finite indicating tense, polarity, etc. When there appears a single verbal constituent in the simple present or simple past tense, the finite and predicator are fused together: (Ex. 28 [NrC2]: “*that is enough glue*”). The main functions of the predicator

are (i) to specify what process is taking place, i.e. which actual event, action or process is being argued about, (ii) to indicate “secondary” tense (past, present or future) in relation to the first primary tense: in Example 29 [NkcE] “*What you’ve been doing?*”, the primary tense is in the finite “have” while the secondary tense is specified by the predicator “been doing”, (iii) to specify aspects and phases which slightly modify the meaning of the verb without changing its experiential meaning: i.e. “*doing*”; and (iv) to indicate the voice of the clause (active vs. passive).

An additional note will here remind that in the case of *phrasal verbs*, the predicator consists of a lexical verb and an adverb (*to run on*), a preposition (*to sign up*) or both (*to look out for*). In order to analyse a verb followed by such particles as a predicator altogether or as predicator followed by a circumstantial adjunct three tests exist: movability of the prepositional group, substitution and postponement of adverbial component to the end of the clause (cf. Eggins 1999:163). Finally, as the system network in Figure 20 shows, the predicator may be realised by the teacher by a single verb or a verb group complex (cf. Halliday 1994:278-291) as in Example 30 [NNncS2]: “*Fernando, you want to sit down?*”.

- The **Complement**: is a potential subject of the clause. There can be one or two complements per clause (Ex. 31 [NNcT1]: “*Show me the ears*” or Ex. 32 [NNncN3]: “*Now tell me [*what colour is the bicycle*]?”), which can be identified through the passive test. And, while normally being realised by a nominal group, a sub-class of complements is realised by an adjectival element (Attributive complement): Ex. 33 [NrK] “*I can’t hear Pedro because everybody is too noisy*”.*

- The **Adjuncts**: are realised by an adverbial group or a prepositional phrase that contribute some additional (though not essential) information to the clause. Adjuncts may be of three classes depending on the type of contribution to the clause: **Circumstantial adjuncts** add experiential meaning (Ex. 34 [NmI2]: “*Ask the question properly*; Ex. 35 [NkcE] *TCH: what was that one? CH: <xxx> TCH: Again. CH: We went...*”); modal **adjuncts** add interpersonal meaning (Ex. 36 [NrK] “*Hurry up, please*”) (see below) and **textual adjuncts** add textual meaning, i.e. organise the message (conjunctive and continuity adjuncts: *so, because*). Motivated by understanding how

language contributes to instantiate regulatory functions in teachers' talk, the present analysis focuses on *modal adjuncts* as they add interpersonal meaning, dismisses textual adjuncts as their contribution is exclusively textual and decides to consider and acknowledge circumstantial adjuncts. Although I am aware that the primary function of circumstantials is indeed experiential, they are felt to be crucial in the elaboration and specification of a regulatory function (Ex. 37 [NNncN3]: “*So listen again*”). Interestingly, circumstantials in the *corpus* are more often than not the only constituent linguistically materialised in the utterance. In other words, as other elements are elided, the circumstantials embody the regulatory function on their own (Ex. 38 [NmI2]: “*In English, Jacobo*”; Ex. 39 [NNcT2]: “*On the line*”), thus playing a relevant role in the examination of the data.

- The *Modal Adjuncts*⁷² comprise: mood adjuncts, interpersonal metaphors and comment adjuncts.

- *Mood adjuncts* are “associated with the meanings constructed in the mood system: those of polarity, modality, temporality and mood” (Halliday 1994:82). While they usually appear next to the finite verbal operator, they can occur in thematic position. There exists a great deal of minor variation among different subsets (*polarity or modality* –yes, no, probably, usually, certainly, definitely...; *temporality*: yet, still, already, generally and adjuncts of mood signalling *obviousness, intensity, degree...of course, surely, just, quite*).

The present analysis purely acknowledges the realisation of a mood adjunct without further investigating the sub-type, with the exception of mood adjuncts of polarity. Indeed, when “yes” or “no” occur on their own, they are regarded as polarity adjuncts (see examples 40-41 below), as if they were “standing in for an *elided clause* [...] and are classified as part of the mood constituent of the clause” (Eggins 1999: 168, my italics). Furthermore, they often obtain in front of commands and prohibitions in the data, often carrying tonic prominence and being phonologically salient, which is also

⁷² After presenting the Mood block, Halliday (1994: 81) introduces the other elements of the mood structure, where he includes the residue and the modal adjuncts. Indeed, straightforwardly related to the interpersonal meaning, those deserve a section on their own.

interpreted as a signal of occurring elliptically as a clause (here, a regulatory function) on their own (cf. Halliday 1994:92).

Example 40: [session NNcT2]:
TCH: “Yes... *you can colour it*”

Example 41: [session NNncS2]:
TCH: { { No, no ... rise your hands Miguel Angel”}.

- ***Interpersonal Metaphors***: in order to understand how speech functions are instantiated through grammar, one needs to consider that there is a relationship of congruence or incongruence (metaphorical realisation) between mood choice and speech functions. As it has been reviewed in Chapter 2, it is widely agreed that typical correlations exist between the semantic categories (offers, commands, questions and statements) and their linguistic grammatical realisation. So, a command will generally be expressed through the imperative, which is the unmarked realisation, i.e. congruent. But on the contrary, the researcher sometimes comes across “the expression of a meaning through a lexico-grammatical form which originally evolved to express a different kind of meaning” (see examples 42-43 below where an interrogative clause instantiates a command). When such mismatches occur, the listener, in this case, children and the researcher, are faced with interpersonal grammatical metaphors⁷³.

Example 42: [session NmI2]
TCH: “would you like to sit down on the floor?”

Example 43: [session NNncN2]:
TCH: “Now, can you sing [[we wish you a Merry Christmas]]?”

Additionally, this grammatical phenomenon can be considered a sub-class of mood adjuncts. A speaker resorts to metaphors when s/he uses language in a non-congruent way: instead of using the typical form/structure to construe experience, the speaker decides to do so otherwise. In *SFL*, two types of grammatical metaphors are acknowledged (i) ideational metaphors and (ii) interpersonal metaphors. Only the latter are at stake in this investigation since they relate to the expression of mood and modality, i.e. the expression of the speaker’s opinion of an observation. The speaker

⁷³ Within *Politeness Theory* (Leech 1983; Brown and Levinson 1987), interpersonal metaphors would often be “non-conventionally indirect acts” or “hints” (e.g. “I forgot my pen” standing for “Give me a pen”), (cf. Ervin-Tripp 1976; Rose 1996).

projects the validity of his/her observation into a hypotactic clause by means of mental verbs, e.g. “think”, “believe” (see examples 44 and 45 from the *corpus* below).

Example 44: [session NNncN1]:
“do you remember [[*what’s this*]]?”

Example 45: [session NkcE]:
“Who *thinks* they know [[*what that word is*]]?”

Indeed, as the instances above illustrate, children are not asked about the actions of remembering or thinking (used in a metaphorical way) but about the projected clauses.

More specifically, the researcher pondered on the potential interpersonal metaphors may have in the instantiation of regulatory functions. The tag-test (Halliday 1994) or mood-tag (Martin *et al.* 1997) stands as a way to identify whether an expression is an interpersonal metaphor. If the tag takes up the mood of the main clause, it is not an interpersonal metaphor, but rather is a congruent use of the form. If, on the contrary, the tag takes up the mood of the projected clause, the first part is clearly an interpersonal metaphor. Along with that, it was also observed that the instances in the *corpus* displayed the tonic in the projected clause⁷⁴, which again accounts for a cross-stratal analysis of meaning.

Bearing in mind that “information produced in the foreign language” in an EFL classroom context has been considered as “goods and services” in the present work (cf. section 5.1.2. above), it should be clear that there is a major interpersonal metaphor underlying the present analysis. In other words, many interrogative sentences in the data are analysed not as seeking information (questions) but as seeking the material production of some linguistic item in a foreign language (requests of linguistic production, a sub-type of commands, cf. Chapter 6 below) (see example 46 below).

Example 46: [session NkcE]
What is that? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-S3\$
CH: I knew it.. <x A house x>.
TCH: Point again
.. Right..
Irene

⁷⁴ If the communicative function had two tone units, one of the tonics would always fall onto the projected clause. If it was embodied in a single tone unit, the tonic would always fall onto the projected clause.

Within cognitive linguistics, metaphorical language is only a surface manifestation of conceptual metaphor (Lakoff and Johnson 1980). This one involves understanding one domain of experience (demand information) in terms of a very different domain of experience (request of linguistic production). As Lakoff (1993:206) puts it, it is a mapping from a source domain (in case, the goods and services) to a target domain (in this case, information). In other words, any time a question (demand information) is not a question in the *corpus* but a command (require linguistic production in L2), language and mood structure are indeed used in a metaphorical way, namely as interpersonal grammatical metaphors (see example 47 below)⁷⁵.

Example 47: [session Nm11]

Which animal is it? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

Fernando: A polar bear.

Though sometimes problematic to identify, interpersonal grammatical metaphors together with modality, are one of the most frequent and challenging linguistic phenomena in the data. They evidence how teachers can encode a demand for goods and services in a variety of ways in order to soften the demand, calling for a more thorough and detailed analysis of such instances within Interlanguage Pragmatics⁷⁶ (cf. Kasper and Blum-Kulka 1993).

Once the components of Mood (as system) found in the analysis of the data have been reviewed⁷⁷, the differences among the two main clause types can be outlined:

- **Major clauses**: are the clauses that select for mood and display its structure. Following the system network in Figure 20 above, one observes that the proposition can either be argued about and negotiated (a **finite clause**), or the meaning is non negotiable (**non-finite**). Within finite clauses, clauses can either be **independent** or subsumed to some other clause (**dependent** or **embedded**). As seen above, when embedded or dependent clauses were identified, the researcher acknowledged them but did not develop their inner structure unless crucial to meaning. Therefore, the analysis concentrates on the independent clauses.

⁷⁵ However, despite being interpersonal metaphors, these instances have not been acknowledged as such since they would flout the results.

⁷⁶ The analysis of “incongruence” is provided throughout Chapters 6-8.

⁷⁷ Note that “Comment Adjuncts” in this section have not been outlined as they were absent in the data (cf. Halliday 1994 and Eggins 1999).

- *Indicative clauses* occur when there is a presence of the mood element. The indicative is the unmarked mood structure for exchanging information. It is the order of the two constituents (subject and finite) that determines whether the clause is declarative (Subject ^ Finite)⁷⁸ unmarkedly used when giving information, or interrogative (Finite ^ Subject in the case of yes-no interrogatives; or Subject ^ Finite if the subject is the wh-element in wh-interrogatives), unmarkedly used when demanding information. In wh-interrogatives, the wh-element is mapped onto another element of clause structure, i.e. fused onto the subject, complement or circumstantial adjunct, which accounts for it being a constituent of either the Mood block (subject) (Ex. 48 [NrC2]: “Who can remember how we make orange?”) or the residue (complement or residue) as in Example 49 [NrC2]: “What are we going to paint with, Nacho?” (cf. Halliday 1994:86; Eggins 1999:176).

However, as examples 50-51 below picture, some instances in the *corpus* did not display all their mood constituents, which blurred the distinctions between the interrogative and declarative mood choices. Where a level of analysis is insufficient, it is the interaction between two strata (in this case the lexicogrammatical and the phonological) that enables the differentiation among structures. Indeed, in such cases, attention was therefore paid to the prosodic realisation (in those examples, rising intonation indicating it is an interrogative utterance with some elided constituents).

Example 50: [session NrC1]

TCH: what is this saying?

Stelvio: Push.

TCH: Pushed

TCH And this? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-whE-RcE-FE-S3\$<T2>

CH: Look.

TCH: Good

- *Imperative*: is the mood structure that the teacher tends to resort to when demanding goods and services. The unmarked positive structure is made of the verb form (only the predicator) where there is no mood block (no finite): (Ex. 51 [NmI2]: “*Sit down on the floor*”) if the subject is “you”; or as in Ex. 52 [NskJ]: “*Let’s see*” (if the subject is “you and me”). However, the imperative can display a marked subject (Ex.

⁷⁸ The symbol ^ stands in *SFL* as “sequence”.

53: let's do it)⁷⁹, or a marked finite which makes polarity marked (*do finish!* or *do not tell me!*) (cf. Halliday 1994:92; Eggins 1999:184)⁸⁰.

▪ **Minor clauses**, on the contrary, do not display a mood structure⁸¹ and typically realise minor speech functions (Halliday 1994:95; Martin 1992:42; Eggins 1999:177). According to Halliday (*ibid.*), there are two types of no mood structure in the grammar of English: (i) minor clauses and (ii) ellipsis. Although some authors argue that minor clauses “are not open to any of the major systems of theme, mood or transitivity” (Martin *et al.* 1997:71), I understand that lexicogrammar encodes meaning and that minor clauses have a semantic role in dialogue (cf. Butt *et al.* 2000:255). For this reason, this investigation considers minor clauses in the analysis and specifies one of the following⁸²:

- **Calls/Vocatives**: though functioning as calls, the formal structure is “vocatives” and those are usually used in order to make way for negotiation. They call for the interlocutor’s attention. Although vocatives may be treated under *SFL* as interpersonal themes when analysing the textual metafunction of language (Halliday 1994:53) or as interpersonal adjuncts (Eggins 1999:170), they are analysed in this study as minor clauses at the interpersonal metafunction of language (Halliday 1994:95). Indeed, in spite of being additional to the clause structure, falling outside the mood block or residue structure, vocatives must be labelled in the interpersonal analysis (cf. Butt *et al.* 2000:93).

As Quirk *et al.* (1985:773) mention, **vocatives** are the “optional element, usually a noun phrase, denoting the one or more persons to whom the sentence is addressed to” but may have two main functions: (i) calls, thus drawing the attention of the person or persons addressed, singling them out from others in hearing, (ii) or an address, expressing the speaker’s relationship or attitude to the person or persons addressed. The

⁷⁹ *Let's* is marked person in imperative structure when being salient in tonicity (that is why it is underlined, signalling tonic syllable). This argues for considering the lower stratum of language (phonology) when it directly contributes to the examination of meaning.

⁸⁰ Note that in Figure 20 above, a third type of clause exists, namely “the exclamative” clause. However, it has not been explained in this section as there are no instances of regulatory functions instantiated by exclamatives in the data (cf. Halliday 1994 and Eggins 1999 for an account).

⁸¹ Their lack of a mood constituent does not result from ellipsis.

⁸² *SFL* includes exclamations as minor clauses. However, those are not explored in this work as those did not instantiate regulatory functions in the present data (Halliday 1994:95).

latter were not considered in this study since their main function was to accompany the utterance and frame it at the tail lacking the illocutionary force of affecting the addressee's behaviour: e.g. "Very good *Anna*". On the contrary, the former were analysed in the present *corpus* (see examples 54-55 below)

Example 54: [session NmI1]:

TCH: "Okay. First. I'm going to talk about an animal.. Let me see. Eeeeeeeeh.. *Victoria*.. Okay. Ask her her name, say: what's your name?"

Example 55: [session NkcE]:

TCH: "*Everybody!* Turn around!"

Following Quirk *et al.* (1985:774), this study considered names (e.g. *David*, *Sahil*), standard appellatives (e.g. *teacher*), epithets (e.g. *dear*), personal pronouns (including "somebody") and nominal clauses (e.g. "*whoever you are*, what's your name"), among others, as vocatives.

- Alarms: those are addressed to another participant in the interaction. They belong to the boundary being established between minor and major clauses since they derive from the structure of the clause. Although they lack a mood structure, they display a residue (the predicator). Alarms include warnings (*Be careful!*, *Watch out!*) and appeals (*Help!*).

- Absolute noun-groups (hence, ANG): are distinct structural functions. Though similar in nature to alarms, reminiscent of an imperative surface, absolute noun-groups are noun-groups that are impossible to analyse as either being subject or complement (Halliday 1994:96). In the present study, they are considered to belong to the minor clauses type because they do not display any mood structure (see example 56 from the *corpus*):

Example 56: [session NrC1]:

TCH: Come on

Pablo

Oh

grapes ((*points a picture*))

Plants or animals?

CH: Trees.

TCH: That's right

they grow on trees

In example 56 above, does “*Grapes*” mean that there are grapes? (in which case it would be a subject in the clause) or does it mean that children have to look at them? (in which case it would be a complement in the clause). The category ANG was very controversial in the analysis due to the high use of elided elements in the teacher’s utterances, which blurred the differences between a minor clause (ANG) where there is no mood structure and a major clause where some constituents are not displayed (they once existed but are now elided). For practical reasons, this issue is covered in detail along with ellipsis below.

- Although *ellipsis* is not a type of clause, it is the other no-mood structure resulting from the absence of a constituent and therefore deserves brief mention. Ellipsis is a set of resources by which full repetition of a clause or clause element can be avoided, and by which it can be signalled to readers that they should retrieve the wording from a previous clause, the context or previous knowledge (cf. Halliday 1994: 93; Thompson 1996:148). Ellipsis proper implies an element is missed out but can be retrieved. Generally, ellipsis operates between adjacent clauses. This is at least partly because the message with ellipsis is formally incomplete and thus demands the hearer/reader to recall the actual words needed to fill out the clause (examples 57-59 from the *corpus*).

Example 57: [session NNncN2]:
TCH: *and this?* <2 tch points at her nose 2>
CHI: *nose*

Example 58: [session NrK]:
TCH: *Let’s count. One at the top, one at the bottom and one goes all the way round. How many?*
CH: *Three*

Example 59: [session NskJ]
TCH: *..I draw bananas*
CH: <x___ o en lápiz L1 x>
TCH: *In black, okay? Come on!*

The examples above illustrate how the different elements of the clause can be retrieved from the co(n)text: “what is this?” in example 57; “how many are there?” in example 58 and “draw it in black” in example 59.

Throughout the analysis, several types of ellipsis have been considered. First, there are instances of “contextually-determined ellipsis” where the subject and even the

finite are elided: Ex. 60 [NkcE]: *TCH: Can't hear you!* \$C-D-SE-n-MFhp-ab-Rp-Rc\$.
 Second, there are instances of “yes/no” answers where answers presuppose the wording from the preceding question or statement: Ex. 61 [NmI2]: *Yes*\$C-D-SFE-RpE-MA-pol-p\$ *you may go to the bathroom*. Both types of ellipsis have been acknowledged in the analysis by mentioning the components that are elided + E (standing for elided), notice the codes (RpE, SE) in examples 60-61 above.

Third, given the fact that the present dissertation explores EFL classroom discourse, a very peculiar type of ellipsis obtained in that particular context. The teacher produced a declarative sentence and asked the child to provide the missed out element (see example 62 below).

Example 62 [session NNcT1]:

TCH: Two are grey, and two are\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$...

CHI: Blue.

Additionally, some instances in the *corpus* evidenced that there were elements from the mood structure that had been elided but could be recovered from preceding discourse, which has been acknowledged in the analysis. As an illustration, in example 63 below the teacher produces “we’ve got to colour” first and “we cut” in the second bit of the utterance. However, the reader (and the child) interprets the same modal finite (*have got to*) applies to the process “we cut”. Therefore, the analysis acknowledges there is a modal finite elided in the second part of the utterance (example 63, see codes).

Example 63 [session NNcT1]

We've got to colour them ... and cut them out\$C-D-p-S2-MFhp-oblE-S1a-Rp-Rc-Radj\$..

One may wonder at this point in what ways and to what extent the analyst can appreciate and thus acknowledge a declarative statement has elided elements missed out or if it is merely an utterance with no further constituents. Table 4 below provides the criteria that led the researcher to acknowledge ellipsis.

Declarative clauses
- transitive verbs without object - no subject
Within nominal groups
- articles with no nouns - adjectives with no nouns
Within adverbial groups
Discourse layer: If the answer to a question supplies the gap created by the elided element
Phonological layer: Rising intonation seeking completion or answer (rising –tone 2- or mild rising –tone 3)

Table 4. Criteria signalling ellipsis in the *corpus*.

A more distinctive type of ellipsis within EFL classroom discourse is what the researcher called/coined “partial ellipsis” whereby the teacher provides part of the missed out element (usually the very beginning of the word) but still leaves the constituent incomplete (often indicated by a rising intonation contour), hence calling for completion (coded as EE in the data, see examples 64-65 below).

Example 64: [session NNncN2]

CH: Christmas

TCH: *Christmas?* \$C-D-SFE-RpE-RcEE\$

CH: tree [Christmas]

CH: [Christmas tree]

TCH: Christmas tree, very good this is a Christmas tree, and

Example 65: [session NNncN1]

TCH: not cloudy,

TCH: what’s this?

TCH:.. *When it rains, it’s a ..* <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-hypot.exp.cl-S3-p-Fp-Rp-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcEE\$

CHI: rainy, rainy day

TCH: rainy, rainy day, ok, rainy day.

Ellipsis is relevant to the present investigation in that it usually signals a responding move vs. an initiating move, thus trespassing the realm of lexicogrammar and instantiating a discourse-semantic choice at an upper stratum of language (Figure 18 above, see the options at the domain of contrast “exchange”): “Ellipsis tends to be more fully exploited in speech than in writing: it reflects the negotiation and cooperation that are an explicit feature of face-to-face interaction” (Thompson 1996:152).

As pointed out above, one of the major intricate issues in this analysis was the distinction between the elliptical clauses (major clause with elided elements) and the absolute noun groups (a minor clause whose noun group may be a subject or

complement). Further, that complexity was heightened by the fact that the data are spoken, belong to classroom discourse and in half of the sessions, the speakers are non-native speakers of English.

In the light of what has been claimed above (cf. Halliday 1996; Eggins 1994:185), it was decided that whenever the co-text or paralinguistic context (from phonology to gestures) could provide the mood of the clause (imperative, declarative or interrogative), those instances would be tagged as major clauses with elided constituents as those could be recovered by considering the context (see examples 66-67 below⁸³).

Example 66 [session NrC2]

TCH: What's this? ((pointing at the page))

CH: <x Ring x>

TCH: Ring<C-D-SFE-Rc> {code standing for: "This is a ring"}

Example 67 [session NNncN3]

CH: What colour is it? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CHI: <x...x> black yellow.

TCH: Black and yellow.

TCH: And the car? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-whE-RcE-FE-RpE-S3 {code standing for: what colour is the car?}

CHI: Orange.

TCH: Orange. So the car is orange, the taxi is yellow and black

On the contrary, where the noun group stood on its own, the label "Absolute Noun Group" applied. Note that in example 68 below, "and this one" could well mean "look at this one" or "and does this one have eyes" or "and take this one" and that it is therefore not possible to account for what is elided.

Example 68 [session NNcT2]:

TCH: "And this one\$MC-ANG\$

Does it have eyes?"

Furthermore, one of the most appealing instances in the data refers to some noun groups which apparently seem to be the remnants of an elliptical clause, since their information gaps could be supplied by the subsequent discourse, but have been regarded and analysed as ANGs conveying emphasis instead (see examples 69-71 below).

Example 69 [session NrK]

TCH: Have you found it?

Cube\$ANG\$,

where's the cube?

⁸³ Note that for illustration purposes, I have provided the elided constituents between angle brackets.

Example 70 [session NskJ]
This one \$ANG\$ ((*Showing the paper*)) ..
What's this?

Example 71 [session NNncN1]
TCH: what's the name of that animal?
The blue one \$ANG\$
What's this? ((shows a picture to Paula))

It should be borne in mind that this decision in the analysis results from appreciating the interaction of the discourse-semantic and lexicogrammatical layers. Indeed, among the grammatical processes acknowledged by traditional grammars as conveying emphasis (i.e. inversion, fronting pseudo-clefts, clefts, passive voice, extrapositions), some nominal groups convey emphasis and reinforcement as “amplificatory tags” by means of anticipated identification or “left dislocation”.

Left dislocation is a process “whereby a noun phrase is positioned initially and a reinforcing pronoun stands ‘proxy’ for it in the relevant position in the sentence” (Quirk *et al.* 1985:1310) normally contributing to topic promotion (Prince 1981; 1997). It thus follows that there are two linguistic constituents: the sentence as such and the left-dislocated element (in example 71 above, “*the blue one*” as left dislocated element, and the “*what's this*” as sentence). Therefore, two interpretations of the data are possible according to the literature: (i) either the left-dislocated element depends on the following part of the discourse for its interpretation, thus being an elliptical clause, (ii) or both parts are independent of each other, the left-dislocated noun phrase (hence, NP) being an “absolute noun group”.

The present work adopted the latter criterium, supporting other researchers' claim that left-dislocation sentences contain no gaps but are complete predications with or without the left-detached NP (cf. Lambrecht 1996; Gregory and Michaelis 2001). In other words, the detached NP (in example 71 above, “*the blue one*”), does not participate in the predicate-argument structure of the clause. It therefore stands to reason that I consider those detached NPs as ANGs in Hallidayian terms. As for their function, those are elements considered to draw the listener's attention in the *corpus* (see examples 72-73 below), a finding that is also observed by other linguists in the literature; as Gregory and Michaelis (2001:1666) put it, “dislocated NPs share formal properties with vocative NPs”, both calling for attention.

Example 72 [session NrC1]:

Let's see...

Milk<MC-ANG>

Does milk come from plants or animals?

Example 73 [session NskJ]:

TCH: Look!

Look at me everybody!!

Picture number two<MC-ANG>

5.2.3. Problems underlying the lexicogrammatical analysis

In an attempt to provide a comprehensive account of the lexicogrammatical analysis, the present section will put forward and discuss the intricate cases the researcher has encountered throughout the analysis, categorisation and codification of the data.

As a foreword, the reader should be reminded that each clause was tagged for its lexicogrammatical structure⁸⁴. The tag did not present however the whole pathway but inserted the final option selected in each domain of contrast. For instance, the researcher did not annotate <major clause-finite-independent-indicative-affirmative-declarative> but considered the last choice: <declarative> (see Figure 20 above). On the contrary, the tag included all the final choices within each of the domains of contrast. An example from the *corpus* illustrates the analysis: in ex. 74 [NNncS2]: “*you take the yellow one*” \$C-D-S2-p-Fp-Rp-Rc\$, the tag acknowledges the utterance is a major clause <C>, where I have a declarative structure<D>, where the subject is second person<S2>, the polarity is positive <-p-> and the tense is present <Fp->and within the residue I have the predicator <Rp-> and a complement <Rc>.

One of the major challenges the present investigation has faced is the nature of the analysed data: spoken discourse in an EFL classroom. Among the differences between spoken and written discourses acknowledged in the literature, Biber (1988) and Crystal (2003) consider that speech is time-bound, dynamic, transient, and spontaneous and can also be vague as participants are typically face-to-face and they can therefore rely on such extralinguistic cues as facial expression and gesture to aid meaning. This is relevant to the analysis in that spoken discourse is *grounded to the co(n)text*, a strenuous issue as I intended to analyse the lexicogrammatical realisation of regulatory functions,

⁸⁴ The coding tags are provided in Appendix II.

and more often than not such realisations were not explicitly displayed by the teachers. Admittedly, and as stated above, this analysis has examined elliptical clauses and has provided a lexicogrammatical analysis of the utterance by providing the absent constituents that can be recovered from the preceding discourse (see tag in angle brackets below, which provides the inferable utterance without ellipsis).

Example 75 [session NrC2]

TCH: What's this? ((pointing at the page))

CH: <x Ring x>

TCH: Ring<C-D-SFE-Rc> {code standing for:“This is a ring”}

Along the same lines, and inextricably linked to *spontaneity of language*, the present analysis also recovered some instances where the unmarked *word order* was altered (i.e. afterthoughts, inversions, fronting...) as in ex. 76 [NrK]: TCH: Why is it called Hopper, do you think?. It was felt that for codification purposes, the analysis would acknowledge the realisation of the different constituents but would display them in normal word order, as in the example below (see tag in angle brackets below, which provides such inferable unmarked word order):

Example 76 [session NrK]

TCH: Hopper. Why is it called Hopper, do you think? \$C-INT-wh-Radj-p-Fp-S2-Rp-Rc_hypot.proj.cl_p-Fp-S3-Rp-Rc\$ {the tagging corresponds to the unmarked word order why do you think it is called Hopper?}

Somewhere in between lie those instances where ellipsis and a marked word order merge together: ex. 77: [NNncS2]: Take a what?. As illustrated in example 77 below, the tag-code acknowledges which elements have not been realised on the grounds of the recoverable information (i.e. the subject, the finite) and re-orders the elements on the grounds of the unmarked way of interrogative utterances (see example and tags below providing the analysis and the “recoverable discourse” in angle brackets).

Example 77 [session NNncS2]:

TCH: Take a what? \$C-INT-wh-Rc-SFE-RpE\$ {codes standing for what do you take?}.

Furthermore, because in wh-interrogatives it is necessary to recognise the presence of a wh-element which is conflated (mapped) onto another element of clause structure (subject, complement...), (cf. Egins 1994:175), those instances in the *corpus* which were exclusively realised by such wh-element were grammatically categorised as such constituents (“adjunct” in example 78 below and “complement” in example 79

below). However, it was frequently observed that “*What?*” stood on its own, lacking the other constituents that it usually needs so as to instantiate an unmarked interrogative utterance. Although the *wh*-word is accepted as carrying the most important information (thus the only one instantiated in spoken discourse), it was examined as a major clause where the remaining constituents were elided, which was therefore acknowledged in the analysis (see examples and tags below providing the analysis and the recoverable or inferable discourse in angle brackets).

Example 78 [session NkcE]

What are words made of? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Radj-p-Fp- S3-Rp\$. ...

What? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Radj-p-SFE-RpE\$ {code standing for what are words made of}

CH: Letters

Example 79 [session NskJ]

CH: Number six!

TCH: *What?* <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-SFE-RpE\$ {code standing for what did you say}

Further puzzling instances in the *corpus* refer to those utterances whereby the teacher requests the child to imitate some chunks of language: Ex. 80 [NmI1]: “*Say: ‘is it yellow?’*”. Within *SFL*, verbals form a clause complex, projecting a second clause by either quoting or reporting. The analysis must describe the transitivity structure of both the projecting clause (verbal process clause) and the projected clause. In so doing, my analysis of such utterances acknowledged the main clause is an imperative clause (*C-IM*) where the complement (*Rc*) is a paratactic projected clause (which is an interrogative in example 80).

Example 80 [session NmI1]

TCH: *Say: is it...yellow?* <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc parat.proj.cl INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$

However, the teacher often exclusively materialised linguistically the projected clause (in example 81 below: “*is it green?*”) without materialising the main verb, e.g. “say” or “repeat”. Bearing in mind that discourse is to be understood within its co(n)text, when such instances appeared and the analyst could recover the main verb from the preceding or forthcoming discourse, it was decided to acknowledge that main verb as elided in the lexicogrammatical analysis (see examples 81-82 below, second lines in both cases).

Example 81 [session NmI1]

Say: *is it..yellow?* <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc parat.proj.cl INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$

Is it green? <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc parat.proj.cl INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$

Example 82 [session NmI1]

Ask: *is it strong?* <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc parat.proj.cl INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$..

.. Is it strong? <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc _parat.proj.cl_INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$
Iñigo<AS>\$MC-V\$

While in the instances above the verbal process (e.g. *say, repeat*) was recoverable from the preceding cotext (examples 80-82), some utterances in the data appeared without any introductory verb. In other words, the teacher merely instantiated the verbiage that was to be imitated by the child (see example 83 below).

Example 83 [session NmI2]

TCH: Is it tall? Alicia

Is it tall? >\$C-IM-RpE-Rc _proj.cl_INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$

Alicia: Is it tall?

When such data were encountered, two possible interpretations were at stake: (i) I could either understand the utterance (“*is it tall?*” in ex. 83) as an independent interrogative clause (at the lexicogrammatical stratum) which had the illocutionary effect of demanding repetition (at the discourse-semantic stratum); or (ii) on the contrary, take the wording “*is it tall?*” as the verbiage of a missing/elided verbal process. Bearing in mind that “the main function of the projecting clause is simply to show that the other one is projected” and “[...] that there is nothing the wording of a paratactic projected clause to show that it is projected” (Halliday 1994:251), I decided to analyse such cases as projected clauses without introductory verb, since they can indeed “occur alone, as direct observations” (*ibid.*).

As a matter of fact, Eggins (1994) claims that the quoted clause can either be a proposition (information) or a proposal (goods and services), “in which case the Mood element [i.e. the projecting verb] will often be ellipsed in the direct quotation” (Eggins 1994:253). Example 84 below better exhibits how the teacher first provides the verbiage to be imitated and later decides to provide the whole utterance (verbiage and projecting verbal process) so as to get a correct response.

Example 84 [session NmI2]

CH: Cocodrile!

TCH: *Is it a crocodile <x.....x>? <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-RpE-Rc _proj.cl_INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$*

CH: Cocodrile!

TCH: <L1 No, pero pregúntalo bien L1

Ask the question properly . Is it a crocodile?

This leads me to interpret “*is it a crocodile*” as the verbiage and direct object of an elided verb “repeat” or “ask”. The very immediate context in those exchanges provides

evidence that the child interprets those utterances as a request for imitation, which may well constitute a shared code between the interactants (teacher-learners) in the EFL classroom.

To finish, I would like to indicate that whenever the L1 (Spanish) was used by teachers in the *corpus*; this has been tagged as L1, and functionally acknowledged through a code. However, as far as its grammatical realisation is concerned, no analysis has been provided as the aim of the present thesis is to observe the function-linguistic realisation correspondence in English, hence the code “no analysis”.

5.2.4. Summary of the lexicogrammatical analysis

This section has tried to provide, first in the form of a network and through a short explanation, the lexicogrammatical choices within the mood system that are relevant for the instantiation of discourse-semantic choices at the upper stratum of language. Indeed, the form of the clause (full vs. elliptical) instantiates *initiations vs. responses*, polarity and modality indicate the *desirability* of the message and the mood structure of the clause specify which are the speech role and commodity exchanged as well as the orientation of the message. Indeed, the subject and complement indicate the *orientation*, the order of subject ^ finite reveals whether the *speaker role* is giving or demanding and modality accounts for the distinction in the *commodity* being exchanged (modalization vs. modulation).

This is not to argue, as it has already been pointed out, that a specific choice at the level of lexicogrammar unequivocally leads to a specific function at the discourse-semantic stratum of language since this would run against the indirect use of language. Against a deterministic reading of a grammatical structure conveying a particular meaning, what this study suggests is that in the same way choices occur at the discourse-semantic stratum, meanings can be conveyed through different linguistic realisations. This study claims that the “regulatory functions” discourse-semantically defined above, do have a linguistic structure that results from a *selection* at the mood system (analysed under *SFL*, full vs. elliptical form, positive vs. negative polarity, order of subject ^ finite, etc), which relates the strata of lexicogrammar and discourse-semantics.

5.3. “Meaning” by mapping strata: conclusions on the analysis

The analysis of the present investigation has aimed at defining the crucial discourse-semantic variables that come into play in the definition of the different regulatory functions in teacher talk in the EFL classroom and that are instantiated through the system of mood.

As mentioned in the first section of this chapter, the literature and a first pilot analysis of the data in the *corpus* provided the variables defining the different regulatory functions, which resulted in the creation of the *Regulatory Functions System Network*, a tool of analysis. Once the tool was elaborated, the data were re-analysed at the discourse semantic stratum according to the choices presented in the network in order to categorise each move within a “regulatory function” category. Then, ensued an exhaustive lexicogrammatical analysis of the data in order to observe whether the choices that took place at the discourse semantic level, (e.g. make a command), also applied at the linguistic strata (i.e. choices at the mood level). In Harnish’s (1994:413) words: “analysing mood as forms with a function requires a function-independent characterisation of form and this requirement suggests strongly that it be characterized structurally”.

However, although language is made up of strata, defined above, it is a whole where boundaries are sometimes fuzzy and blurred and where each layer interrelates with the others. It thus happened that the analysis, though following the order of the presentation (discourse-semantic and lexicogrammatical), sometimes perceived the direct interaction between different structural layers of language (e.g. lexicogrammar and phonology). This led the researcher to consider the interaction of the two layers in order to account for the structural realisation and instantiation of meaning. Although the analysis does not provide a prosodic account of the data, it considered the phonological realisation of many utterances when the lexicogrammatical layer did not provide enough information to the researcher. Among other examples, intonation mostly helped in the differentiation between mood choices (declarative vs. interrogative) and tonicity between marked or unmarked polarity, or person choices (imperative vs. declarative...), or the instantiation of an interpersonal metaphor. Indeed, it is only to the extent to which different layers interact and are studied as necessary ingredients construing experience

and meaning that “regulatory functions” can be thoroughly defined, described and analysed.

As mentioned before, the *RFSN* is both a tool designed to analyse EFL classroom discourse (presented above) but also provides a summary of all the functions obtained in the analysis, giving thus birth to a taxonomy of regulatory functions in EFL. Chapter 6 hence displays (i) the *Regulatory Functions System Network* developed on a horizontal axis, which exhibits the different functions found in the analysed data, (ii) explores their distinct lexicogrammatical realisations in the *corpus* through illustrations from the data hinting at similarities and differences across teachers and (iii) statistically validates the *RFSN* as an instrument of classroom discourse analysis.

THE REGULATORY FUNCTIONS SYSTEM NETWORK:

Description and validation of the proposed taxonomy

“A language is a system for making meanings: a semantic system, with other systems for encoding the meanings it produces [...]. The relation between the meaning and the wording is not, however, an arbitrary one; the form of the grammar relates naturally to the meanings that are being encoded. A functional grammar is designed to bring this out: it is a study of wording, but one that interprets the wording by reference to what it means” (Halliday 1985:xvii).

CHAPTER 6: THE *REGULATORY FUNCTIONS SYSTEM NETWORK*: DESCRIPTION AND VALIDATION OF THE PROPOSED TAXONOMY

6.1. The *Regulatory Functions System Network*

6.2. Taxonomy of Regulatory Functions: definition and analysis

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6.2.1.2. Calls of attention: scolding

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6.2.2.2.1. Action commands

6.2.2.2.2. Linguistic commands

(i) Linguistic production command

(ii) Imitation command

(iii) Completion command

(iv) Repetition command

6.2.2.3. Prompts

6.2.2.3.1. Action prompts

6.2.2.3.2. Linguistic prompts

6.2.2.4. Prohibitions

6.2.2.4.1. Action prohibitions

6.2.2.4.2. Linguistic prohibitions

6.2.2.4.3. Behaviour prohibitions

6.2.2.4.4. Behaviour commands

6.2.2.5. Warnings

6.2.3. Concluding remarks on the *RFSN* and the resulted taxonomy

6.3. The System Network Consistency: reliability and validity

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6.3.1.1. Intercoder reliability: percent agreement

6.3.1.2. Intercoder reliability: Cohen's *Kappa*

6.3.2. Validity

6.3.2.1. Coders-Researcher reliability: percent agreement

6.3.2.2. Coders-Researcher reliability: Cohen's *kappa*

6.3.3. The *Regulatory Functions System Network* refined

6.3.3.1. Non-controversial categories

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6.3.4. Concluding remarks on the *RFSN* validation

6.4. Summary of the description and validation of the *RFSN* and taxonomy

6. THE REGULATORY FUNCTIONS SYSTEM NETWORK: DEFINITION AND VALIDATION OF THE PROPOSED TAXONOMY

The previous chapter has provided the necessary tools- inherited from the theory (lexicogrammatical system network) and elaborated throughout this investigation (discourse-semantic system network)- that enable the qualitative analysis of EFL classroom discourse across strata (from discourse-semantics to lexicogrammar). Given that the *Regulatory Functions System Network* simultaneously constitutes the designed tool of analysis and results in a taxonomy of regulatory functions in EFL pre-school teacher talk, the purpose of the present chapter is (i) to develop the levels of delicacy of the *Regulatory Functions System Network* so as to disclose the regulatory functions categorisation and (ii) to validate the tool of analysis and thus the resulted taxonomy.

Accordingly, the display of the regulatory functions taxonomy unfolds as follows. Section 6.1. discloses the *Regulatory Functions System Network*, a graphic way of organising the taxonomy of functions (Butt 2002; Martin 1992) within the regulatory register in teacher talk. Section 6.2. then describes each “regulatory function” as a distinct choice at the discourse semantic stratum, it provides illustrations from the *corpus* and explores the various linguistic realisations. Further, as the functional and structural descriptions of each regulatory function are provided, this chapter gradually highlights the similarities and differences in the lexicogrammatical realisation across native and non-native teachers.

Following the aforementioned description of the taxonomy, section 6.3. reports on the testing and refinement of the instrument in order to determine how and to what degree the *Regulatory Functions System Network* could be fine-tuned in order to promote greater validity of the construct of regulatory functions. In order to assess the reliability and validity of the *Regulatory Functions System Network*, this section presents the intercoder test which was carried out with two external coders who analysed a sample of the *corpus*. Then, it statistically treats the results so as to get the *kappa coefficient*, i.e. the proportion of agreement between two judges corrected for chance (Cohen 1960) and finally evaluates whether the instrument that has been created is reliable and leads to consistent and repeatable analyses of regulatory functions in EFL classroom discourse.

The findings obtained from these analyses aim at the fulfillment of the first objective formulated in the introduction of the investigation, namely “*To create and validate a tool of analysis that will account for the different discourse-semantic regulatory choices in EFL pre-school teacher talk: The Regulatory Functions System Network and a Regulatory Functions Taxonomy*”. Furthermore, this chapter reveals which categories in the taxonomy were readjusted after the statistical tests and thus accounts for how the regulatory functions taxonomy proposed was so configured.

Furthermore, the description of the discrete regulatory functions helps to approach the second objective of this work that will be fully achieved in Chapter 7, i.e. “*To examine the function-form relationship of regulatory functions in EFL pre-school teacher talk across teachers*”⁸⁵.

6.1. The *Regulatory Functions System Network*

This section presents the whole *Regulatory Functions System Network* expanded and developed through the scale of delicacy. Figure 23 below must be read from left (the most general characteristic where the first choice is made) to right. In other words, the domains of contrast are arranged along a horizontal axis. The analyst (as the speaker in communication) makes a choice at the first level of delicacy, i.e. the move type in this case, then follows the path choosing one option within each variable (signalled through square brackets) and does so until no further choice exists. For presentation purposes, I have purely developed in the *RFSN* the paths leading to the regulatory functions that obtained in this *corpus* and I have acknowledged their names at the end of the distinct pathways.

⁸⁵ Hypotheses 1 and 2 within the second objective will be statistically tested by the analyses carried out in Chapter 7.

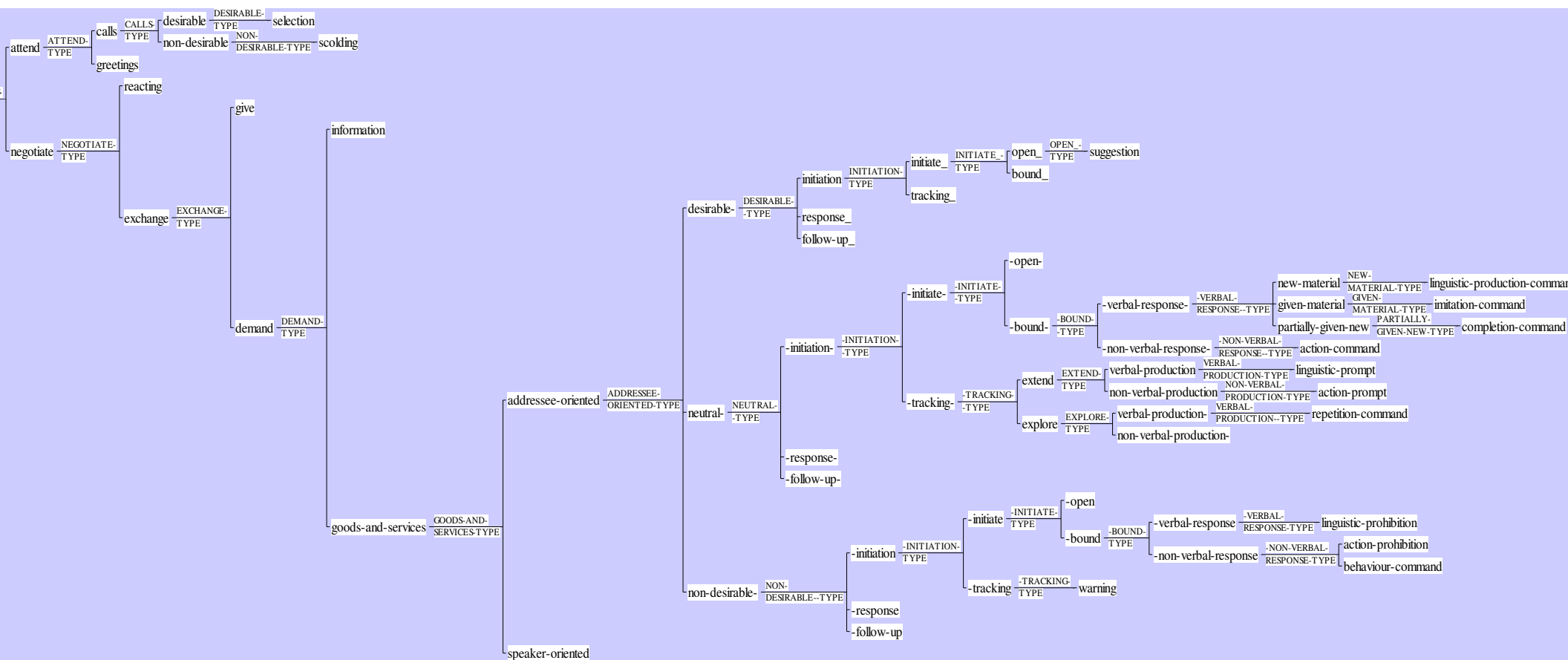


Fig.23. *Regulatory Functions System Network*: developed scale of delicacy⁸⁶.

⁸⁶ As Figures 23 (*RFSN*) and 118 (*RFSN* refined) will constantly be referred to, the readers have at their disposal the enclosed laminated *System Network* (cf.reverse of back cover).

6.2. Taxonomy of Regulatory Functions: definition and analysis of functions⁸⁷

Widely known in the literature as “directives” (Searle 1969; 1976; Austin 1962) or “requestives” (Dore 1974; 1979; Akhtar *et al.* 1991), regulatory functions belong to the *pragmatic function* of language, “the use of language to make an effect on the world- to intrude, to change the situation in some way, which usually involves interacting with others” (Painter 2000:42), and have been presented in Chapter 4 above as “the function of language as controlling the behaviour of others” (Halliday 1975:19).

The sections below display the taxonomy of regulatory functions by gradually exploring the major blocks of the *Regulatory Functions System Network*. First, the corresponding section of the network is graphically portrayed. Second, each regulatory function is presented with its code and its detailed path within the network and an explanation and illustrations from the *corpus* follow⁸⁸. Third, the various lexicogrammatical structures are explored as the teachers’ linguistic instantiations of regulatory functions are compared (native vs. non-native).

6.2.1. Attend Moves

As it has been previously reported, and as Figure 23 above displays, two different types of moves exist in interaction: (i) Attend moves and (ii) Negotiate moves. *Attend moves* materialise the “paying attention” to another participant and are subdivided into two types: calls and greetings (cf. Martin 1992).

Bearing in mind that regulatory functions result from the variables “demanding” and “goods and services”, and that motherese studies acknowledge that attentional regulation may be the most general formulation of directiveness (Della Corte, Benedict and Klein 1983; Akhtar *et al.* 1991), *calls* stand as a move aiming at controlling the behaviour of the addressee, especially in the classroom context (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975, Sinclair and Brazil 1982, Ervin-Tripp 1982, Merritt 1992).

⁸⁷ Despite the importance of paralinguistic language in the regulatory register (Ervin-Tripp 1982), this study has only considered those instances linguistically produced, since the mapping between function and linguistic realisation is the primary focus.

⁸⁸ Each function will be illustrated with one example from the native group and one from the non-native group. More samples from the analysed *corpus* are provided in Appendix II, 2.1 and 2.2.

Figure 24 below presents the system network elaborated in this dissertation to account for the different regulatory functions within “attend moves” (namely, “*selection call*” and “*scolding call*”, explained in the following sections) and illustrates how each function results from an exclusive discourse-semantic set of options.

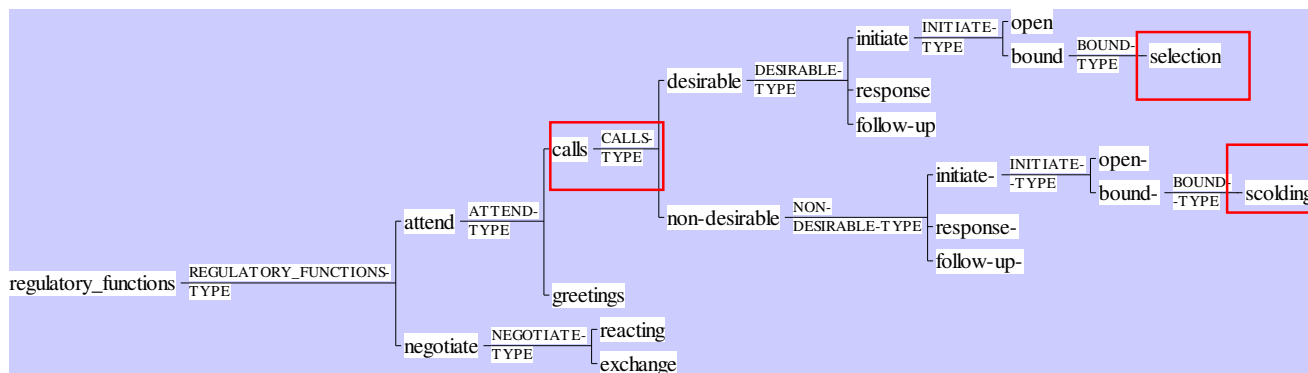


Fig. 24. Regulatory Functions System Network: Attend Moves

6.2.1.1. Calls of attention: selection (AS⁸⁹)

a) Discourse-semantic description

Acknowledged in the literature as “requestives” (Dore 1974; Dore 1979; Reeder 1983), “calls” or “attention-getters” (Romero-Trillo 1997) result from (i) the *semantic* choices of attending (i.e. paying attention, considering), calling (thus, addressee oriented) and desirable, since the child likes to be singled out from his/her classmates in order to actively participate in the interaction and (ii) the *discursive* choice of initiating. The resulting path in the RFSN is thus *Attend*> *Call*> *Desirable*> *Initiate*> *Bound*.

The teacher “nominates” or “selects” the child in an initiating move, which in turn is a bound type of initiation since the *selection* expects the child’s verbal or non-verbal response. Therefore, *selections* tend to be framed by questions directed to the nominated child and their response, or by an utterance demanding the child to do something (physical response). In teacher talk, as in motherese, there seems to be a cause-consequence relationship between nominating and reacting: “once attention is jointly directed, the mother will systematically act upon or comment upon what has caught their joint attention. The routine ‘attend to→act upon’ is a highly practical one” (Bruner 1975:9).

⁸⁹ Although each function is presented with its tag, the codes that have been used in the analysis and that appear in the graphs are displayed in Appendix II, 2.0.

This category includes any call that requires the child's attention in either initiating or responsive moves in the teacher's language, contrary to the differentiation Martin (1992) acknowledges between *classroom summons* and *ordinary calls*. Indeed, Llinares-García (2002:232) considers *call attention* any expression (vocative or discourse marker such as "listen!") whose main aim is to get the child's attention.

b) Function-form Relationship and comparison across speakers

Figure 25 below exhibits vocatives as the most common lexicogrammatical pattern in the instantiation of "calls of attention: *selections*" (more than 70% of the 901 cases⁹⁰ in both groups of teachers). As Quirk *et al.* (1985:773) point out, *vocatives* are the "optional element, usually a noun phrase, denoting the one or more persons to whom the sentence is addressed to". They may have two main functions: (i) a call, thus drawing the attention of the person or persons addressed, singling them out from others in hearing, (ii) or an address, expressing the speaker's relationship or attitude to the person or persons addressed to. The latter has not been considered in this study since their main function is to accompany the utterance and frame it at the tail and thus, they lacked the illocutionary force of affecting the addressee's behaviour: e.g. "Very good, *Anna*". The former have been considered and can be appreciated in examples 85 and 86 below:

Example 85: [session NmI1]

TCH: Okay.

First.

I'm going to talk about an animal..

Let me see.

Eeeeeeeeh.. *Victoria*<AS>..

Okay.

Ask her her name,

Example 86: [session NNncS1]

TCH; *Everybody*<AS>.. Close your eyes

⁹⁰ The Figures displayed in this chapter acknowledge the number of instances (n=...) in their titles. Additionally, Appendix III,3.1. discloses Contingency Table 1 (p. 546), which displays the frequencies of the data so as to inform of the *corpus* size in relation to the fifteen regulatory functions in both groups of teachers (native vs. non-native).

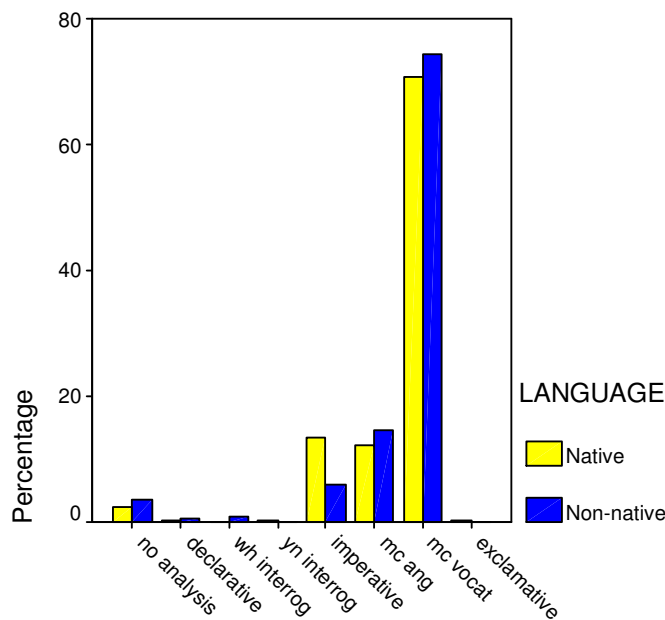


Fig. 25. Lexicogrammatical realisation of *Calls of attention: selections* ($n=554$ in NSs corpus, $n=347$ in NNSs corpus): Clause types.

Additionally, among the different linguistic realisations acknowledged in the literature to instantiate *selections*, are imperative clauses (Halliday 1994:95), e.g. “listen!” “look at me!”, “let’s see”, also considered by other researchers under this category (Llinares-García 2002). Figure 25 above indeed displays imperatives as the second most common instantiation within native speakers, and as the third one within non-native teachers. Below are some of the examples (87-90) retrieved from the *corpus*.

Example 87: [session NNnsT1]

Look here<AS>.

One two three four five six noses...

Sit down

Example 88: [session NsJ1]

TCH: This is.. a new fruit ((Some children are fighting))

Eh! Cayetano! ((Telling off))

Look at me<AS>.

.. *Watch this!* <AS>.

Example 89: [session NrcC2]

TCH: Does it?

Oh! Okay.

So listen<AS>.

it’s up to you. If you want to paint it all one colour, then we’ll leave it to dry and in the afternoon when it’s dry you can paint little pictures on it.

Example 90 [session NNncN3]

TCH: No,

wait<AS>.

So we say ‘Yellow lorry, <x red x> lorry, car, bus and bicycle’.. Or not?

Finally, traditional grammars claim that attention can also be drawn by emphasis, which in turn is mainly conveyed by grammatical processes such as inversion, fronting, pseudo-clefts, clefts, passive voice, extrapositions, among others (Quirk *et al.* 1985). However, I also considered some nominal groups which convey a specific emphasis or reinforcement as “amplificatory tags” or by means of anticipated identification, also called “left-dislocation” (Quirk *et al.* 1985:1310, cf. section 5.2.2. above). These noun groups have been coded as “absolute noun groups” (abbreviated as *MC-ANG*) (Halliday 1994:96, cf. section 5.2.2. above), mainly function as warnings or appeals and embody 10% of the *selections* in the present *corpus* in both native and non-native teachers’ talk.

Example 91 [session NrcC1]

Let’s see,

Milk<AS>

Does milk come from plants or animals?

Example 92 [session NsJ1]

TCH: Look! <AS>

Look at me everybody!! <AS>

Picture number two<AS>

Although the lexicogrammatical choices made by all the teachers to instantiate *selections* are the same (i.e. vocatives, imperatives and absolute noun groups), some quantitative differences emerge among speakers. While vocatives are the most prototypical lexicogrammatical realisation in both groups of teachers (over 70%), native teachers prefer imperatives (16%) to absolute noun groups (14%). In turn, non-native teachers revert that order. In other words, whereas native teachers prefer the elaboration of a whole major clause, non-native teachers resort to an absolute noun group.

On the one hand, this reveals that non-native teachers do indeed share a code with their learners whereby a single noun group suffices to lead them to an either or reaction. On the other hand, this could also imply that attention may be more direct and thus better caught by means of a single noun group in non-native teachers’ classes since only the object to pay attention to is highlighted. To put it bluntly, non-native teachers’ messages tend to be embodied in a brief unit of information mentioning the focus of attention, this being either the addressee -vocatives- or the object to look at –absolute-

noun group-, which is not always the case in native teachers' talk. Their messages are often instantiated in major clauses (imperatives) that focus the attention on the action rather than on the object.

6.2.1.2. *Scolding (ASC)*

a) *Discourse-semantic description*

As Figure 24 displays, *scoldings* result from the discourse-semantic variables *Attend*> *Call*> *Addressee oriented*> *Non-Desirable*> *Initiate*> *Bound*. Indeed, the Calling Moves may also be non-desirable to the child. Those are instances where the teacher calls out the name of the child for a negative purpose, i.e. a reprimand, a prohibition or “telling off” (Llinares-García 2002:232). Consequently, these are bound to a response since the effect of calling the child is mainly to stop him/her from doing something (verbal or non-verbal). As mentioned above, calls are tracking moves and thus generally precede or follow moves aiming at their behaviour (examples 93-94).

Example 93: [session NNncS2]

David <ASC>,
sit down,
sssss!

Example 94: [session Nm11]

Sh.
No,
Fernando<ASC>,
sit down.
No. Nobody can go to the bathroom till after class, okay?

It should be borne in mind that the discrimination between the two different functions instantiated by the same surface grammatical realisation (i.e. “calls of *selection*” and “calls of *scolding*” are mainly embodied by vocatives) relies on the prosodic realisation (rising vs. falling tones respectively) and the discourse-semantic variable of “desirability”. It has also been argued in the literature that calls are somehow “dependent” functions as they are part of a wider function, namely a command or a request (cf. Politzer 1980). However, despite knowing that *selections* and *scoldings* are discursively related to other specific functions, the cross-stratal analysis (discursive, lexicogrammatical and phonological) supports the idea that *selections* constitute a different function on their own. It is here felt that they deserve a discrete category as they are instantiated by a different tone unit, a minor clause and are thus a single move,

tracking another one such as a command (cf. Martin 1992) but are certainly not embraced within it.

b) *Function-form Relationship and comparison across speakers*

Since “*scoldings*” only differ from “*selections*” in the desirability degree (the former is non-desirable and the latter is desirable), their lexicogrammatical realisation often coincides. As Figure 26 below illustrates, vocatives are once again the favourite lexicogrammatical instantiation in both groups of speakers (more than 80% in both cases). However, some quantitative differences arise from the data: while native teachers embody their scoldings in vocatives in 85% of the cases, they also use other structures such as imperatives and exclamatives to instantiate this function (examples 95-96 below).

Example 95: [session NsJ]

Eh eh!<ASC>\$MC-EX\$

Sit down!

Everybody

sit down! <

Eh eh eh! <*x__x*><ASC>\$MC-EX\$

Example 96: [session NkE]

Stop!

Juan!

((they go on)) ..

Ehh

Look<ASC>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$..

You are not looking.. I bet you didn't see.. I bet you didn't see, did you?

CH: I see it.

On the contrary, non-native teachers resort to vocatives in 99% of the cases, scarcely ever producing an exclamative clause, echoing the results obtained for *selections* (namely, the briefer and more direct the information unit, the better). These findings highlight the importance of criteria such as desirability and contextual cues so as to discriminate and differentiate scoldings from calls of attention (mostly identically produced).

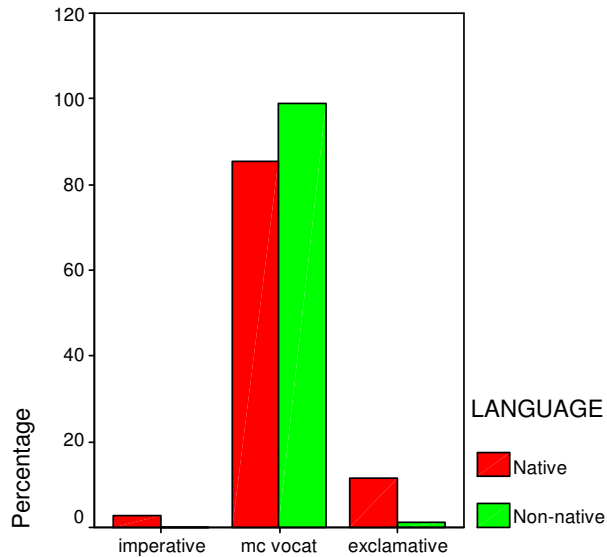


Fig. 26. Lexicogrammatical realisation of *Scoldings* ($n=111$ in *NSs corpus*, $n=88$ in *NNSs corpus*)

6.2.2. Negotiate Moves

Within the *Negotiate Moves*, one can find *Reacting moves*⁹¹, where the speaker expresses a response usually instantiated by one independent move, not in adjacency pairs (e.g. exclamations) and *Exchange moves* (cf. Figure 27 below). The latter are those constituting the main body of an interaction since the speaker thereby makes his/her role explicit and exchanges the basic commodities (i.e. goods and services vs. information). *Exchange moves* are those that account for the primary basic speech functions: give information, give goods and services, demand information and demand goods and services (Halliday 1994:68). The present section focuses on the regulatory functions under the “demand goods and services” macro-function.

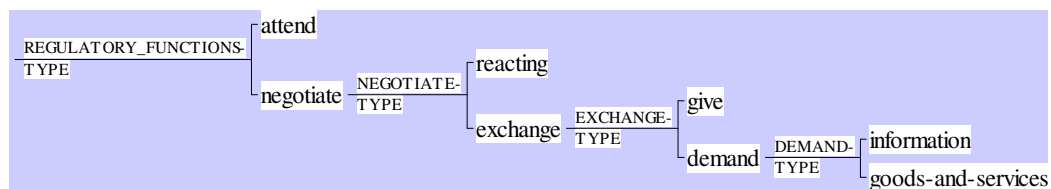


Fig. 27. Regulatory Functions: Negotiate Moves

⁹¹ “Reacting moves” are not analysed in this investigation for two main reasons: (i) they do not exchange commodities (goods and services) and (ii) because they are responsive moves in nature. Note that this study focuses on initiating regulatory moves (which accounts for considering “Attend moves” but disregarding “reacting moves”).

When the teacher does not require some information as response but goods and services, s/he is directing children to achieve some particular activity/task and/or acting upon the children's behaviour. As explained above, whereas the traditional definition of directives refers to those acts whose response is non-verbal (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975), this work contemplates that the instances whereby teachers require the children to repeat or utter particular linguistic items in English are in fact demanding a type of "goods and services", specific to EFL classroom discourse. The present study therefore understands that some teachers' utterances leading to the learners' verbal responses can be considered to be a regulatory function under the primary *demands of goods and services* speech function. The network below (Figure 28) provides the different regulatory functions within the exchange moves that obtained in the *corpus* and that are defined by the paths that the teachers selected at the discourse-semantic stratum of language.

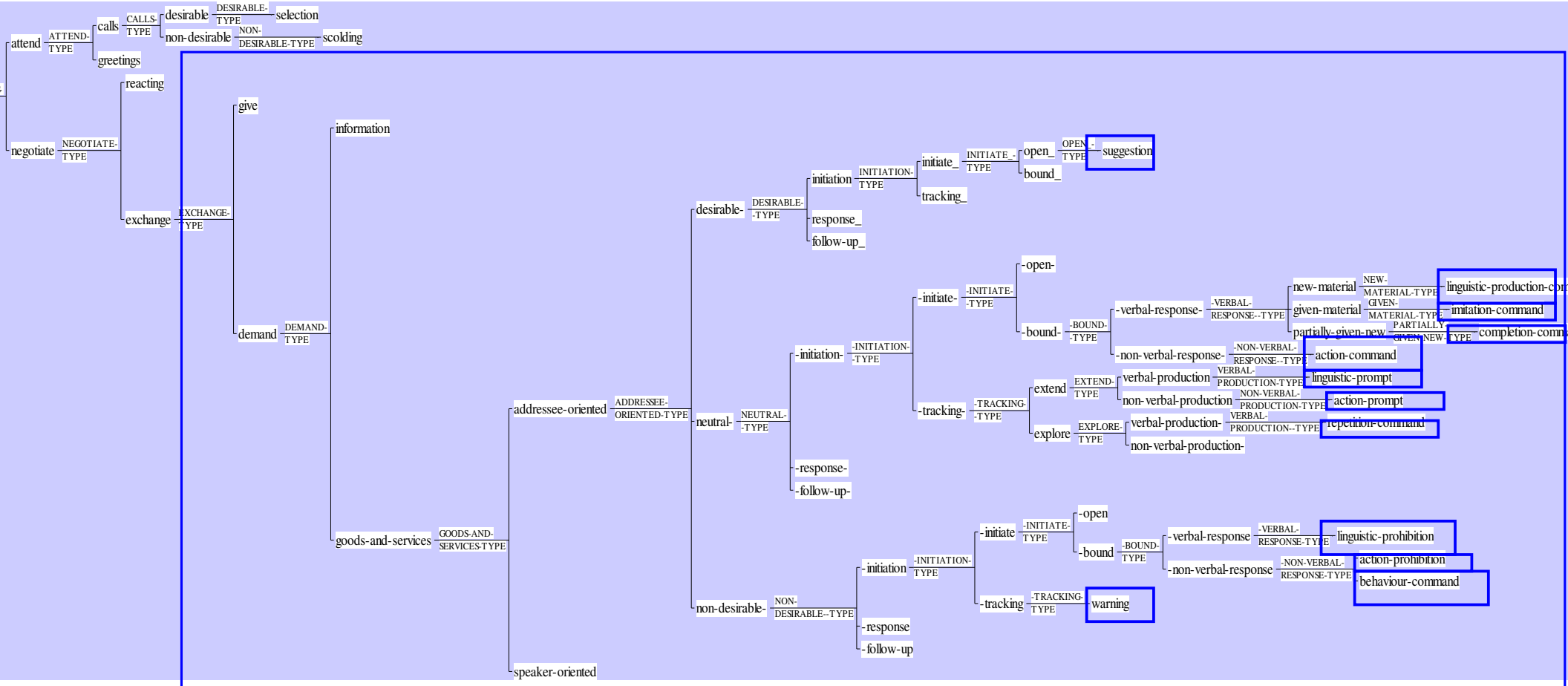


Fig. 28. Regulatory Functions: Negotiate Moves: Exchange: Demand: Goods and Services.

6.2.2.1. *Suggestion (DS)*

a) *Discourse-semantic description*

Among the various ways in which goods and services can be demanded, the speaker (teacher) can orient the message towards the addressee by focusing on the addressee's interests in doing a particular task or activity. As a type of directive (Searle 1979:13), *suggestions* are speech acts "made presumably in the best interest of the listener, usually to help the listener toward some goal that the latter desires or is assumed to desire" (Koike 1996:260). Therefore, suggestions result from the following features: *Negotiate*> *Exchange*> *Demand*> *Goods and Services*>*Addressee oriented*> *Desirable*> *Initiation*> *Purely initiate*> *Open*. In *suggestions*, the "desirability" gives the child the freedom to accomplish the proposed activity and the "openness" of the move does not require an immediate (non)verbal response. Both discursive variables become crucial to discriminate between suggestions (example 97 below) and indirect commands (see next section).

Example 97: [session NrC2]:

TCH: *You can either paint it all one colour, and then we leave it to dry and then you paint some little pictures on it*<DS>,
or, if you want, you can paint it all different colours<DS>

b) *Function-form Relationship and comparison across speakers*

Given that the exchange moves display a wide range of lexicogrammatical surface structures, two summary tables provide a ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations (clause-types) of the regulatory functions in both groups of teachers. As displayed in tables 5 and 6⁹², major clauses represent 100% in native teachers' suggestions and 98% in non-native teachers' (Figure 29). As a result, further lexicogrammatical aspects were analysed across speakers and are graphically displayed in Figures 30-33: use of ellipsis, subject choice, modality and clause complex patterns in the major clauses.

⁹² Those tables are based on Contingency Table 2 obtained from statistical analyses provided in Appendix III (p.546).

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Suggestion (DS)</i> <i>Native teachers</i>	Declarative	35	76.1
	Imperative	7	15.2
	Yes-no interrogative	3	6.5
	Wh-interrogative	1	2.2
Total		46	100%

Table 5: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of suggestions. Native teachers.

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Suggestion (DS)</i> <i>Non-native teachers</i>	Declarative	36	92.3
	Yes-no interrogative	1	2.6
	Absolute noun-group (Mc-ang)	1	2.6
	No analysis (Spanish)	1	2.6
Total		39	100%

Table 6: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of suggestions. Non-Native teachers.

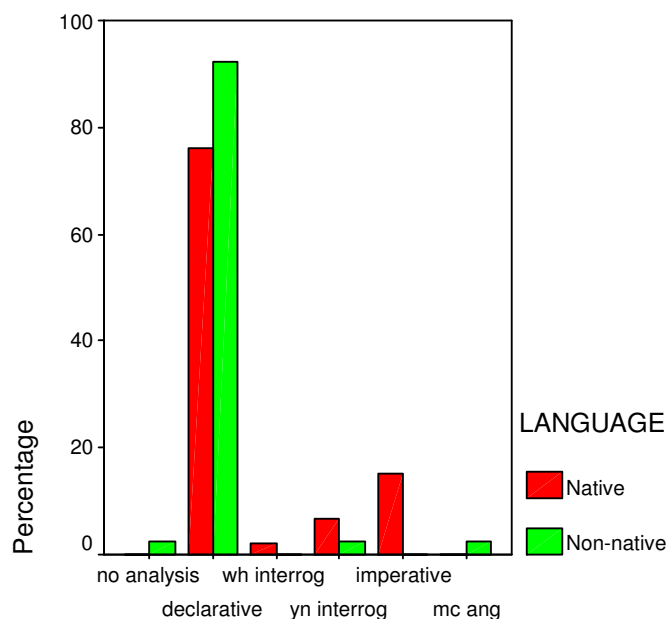


Fig. 29. Lexicogrammatical realisation of Suggestions (n=46 in NSs, n=39 in NNSs)

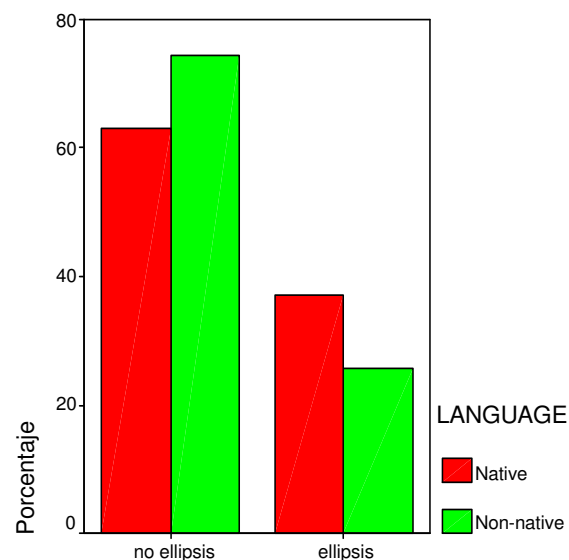


Fig. 30. Ellipsis in suggestions

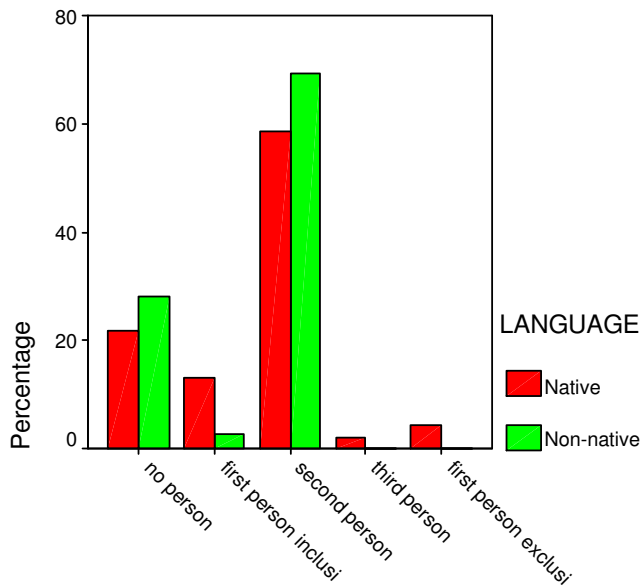


Fig. 31. Suggestions: Person choice

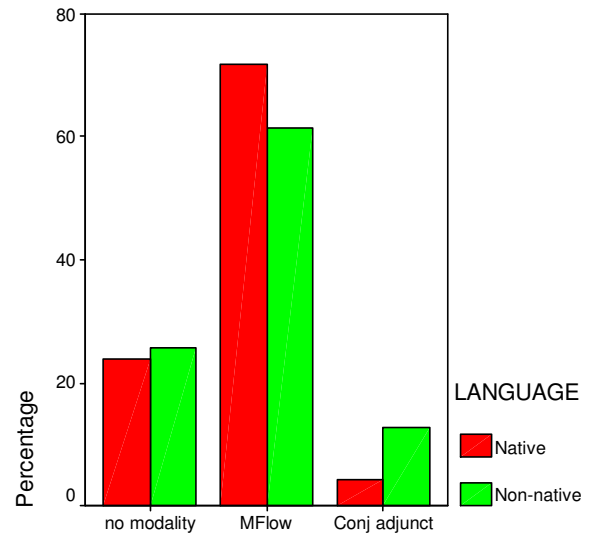


Fig. 32. Suggestions: Modality type

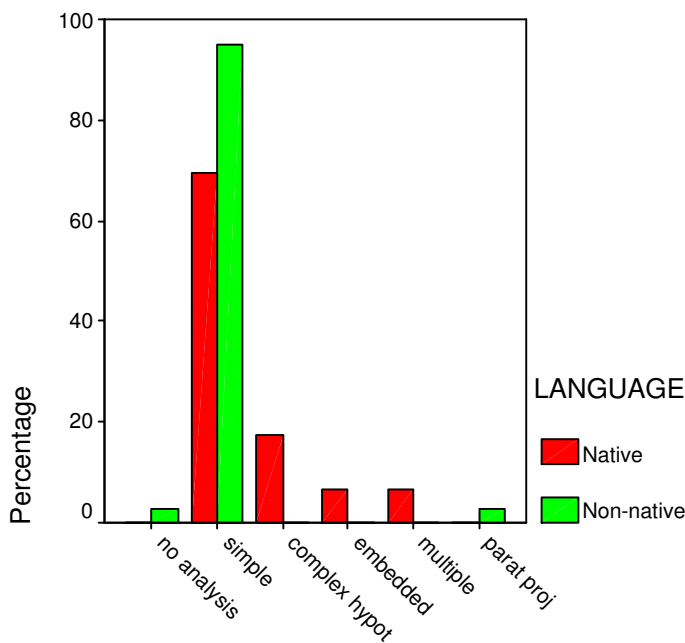


Fig. 33. Suggestions: Clause complex patterns

Figure 29 above displays the different clausal patterns that may instantiate *suggestions* in native and non-native teachers' discourse. As it has also been the case in *selections* and *scoldings* there is a lexicogrammatical choice that predominates over the rest and which is common to both groups of speakers: the declarative clause. This finding accounts for those revealed in other figures above: indeed, (i) the second person subject is

the most common subject choice (Figure 31 above), (ii) the simple clause pattern is the most frequent in data (Figure 33 above) in both groups of speakers and (iii) there is an important use of modality (more than 75% of the suggestions in both groups) to instantiate suggestions through the use of low modal finite operators, i.e. “can” or “could” (Figure 32 above and examples 98-99 below)⁹³.

Example 98: [session NrC1]

TCH: You’ve finished that page

Okay

you can colour the picture at the top<DS>\$C-D-S2-MFlp-obl-p-Rp-c-adj\$<T1><H290>

And then go on to the next page<DS>\$C-D-SE-MFlpE-obl-Rp-adj\$<T1><H250>

Example 99: [session NNcT1]

TCH: It’s very ugly. Yours is very ugly too. It’s green.. Yours ((someone else’s)) is worse.

You can put some pimples<DS>\$C-D-S2-p-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc\$

like this<DS>\$C-D-SE-RE-Radj\$ ((draws some pimples. Laughs))....

A deeper analysis, however, leads us to appreciate qualitative and quantitative differences across teachers.

Despite the tendency of embodying suggestions in declarative clauses, Figure 29 evidences a wider range of structures displayed in native teachers more frequently: more than 23% of their suggestions are materialised in imperative (which accounts for a non-subject display in Figure 31 above) or interrogative clauses. On the contrary, non-native teachers barely use other structures: in 7% of the cases they either use Spanish (tagged as “non-analysis”), absolute noun groups (brief information units with the focus of the message) or interrogatives. Hence, it appears that native teachers embody their suggestions in more elaborate structures since they always resort to major clauses and occasionally display clause complexity.

More specifically, Figure 30 shows that the message is generally complete in both groups of teachers (62% in native teachers and 76% in non-native teachers) and reveals that ellipsis is more frequent among native teachers. This may be due to the fact that their message is materialised in more complex structures (i.e. major clauses, cf. Figure 29, and in more than 30% of the cases they are embodied in hypotactic, embedded or multiple clauses,

⁹³ Note that suggestions are a kind of directive whereby the speaker wants to minimise to the greatest extent the possibility that the listener will be offended (Koike 1996:262).

cf. Figure 33). In turn, non-native speakers resort to ellipsis less often, which might result from their use of simple clauses in 98% of the cases (note their avoidance of complex patterns in Figure 33). Along with this, it would be worth mentioning that some *suggestions* from the non-native *corpus* result from the addition of several simple clauses paratactically related through the conjunction “or” instead of further elaborating the message (cf. Figure 33 above and example 100 below).

Example 100: [session: *NNcT2*]

TCH: <L1 Le podemos poner el L1>jumper with shorts<DS>

CH: <L1 Pero le tenemos que poner <x__x> L1>

TCH: Yes.. Or we can put them a jumper with trousers<DS>\$C-D-S2-p-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Rc\$..

or jumper with shoes<DS>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

.. Or shorts with shoes<DS>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-Rc\$..

6.2.2.2. *Commands*

a) *Discourse-semantic description*

Also identified as *directives* in the literature, i.e. “attempts by the speaker to get the hearer do something” (Searle 1975:355), “commands” are also known as *exercitives* (Austin 1962:151) since they exercise some influence and power upon the addressee. Undoubtedly, “commands have the preparatory rule that the speaker must be in a position of authority over the hearer” (Searle 1969:66), which may account for the fact that directives are one of the most common types of exchanges in teacher talk (as in mother talk, cf. Ramírez and Merino 1990; Ernst 1994). Consequently, *commands* appear in taxonomy and network as the result of the interaction of the following variables: *negotiate*, *exchange*>*demand*> *goods and services*> *addressee orientation* > *neutral* > *initiation*> *initiate*>*bound* (Figure 28 above).

Among the aforementioned features, it is interesting to highlight the “neutral” desirability that characterises commands. Iedema (2000:89) argues for the potential of commands of either being positive, “prescriptive commands” which suggest changes to correct practices, prescribing what is seen as the appropriate course of action, or negative – “proscriptive commands”- which proscribe actual or suspected behaviour and prohibits potential future behaviour. Moving onto the present *corpus*, I understand commands in the classroom are double-sided: on the one hand, they may be considered non-desirable since

they imply the expression of authority and power of the speaker over the addressee, which allows for no real freedom in the decision of the feasibility or achievement of the demanded task. In other words, the child (addressee) cannot refuse or decline the order, since this would be regarded as a disobedient behaviour (and thus, potentially punishable).

On the other hand, while *prohibitions* are clearly non-desirable (see below), commands are expressed in positive polarity, a linguistic realisation that contributes to consider this function as either neutral or even desirable (for the child's sake). Indeed, the child is said *what* to do, thus guided to achieve a particular task correctly or to fulfil the objectives of the lesson, and is, in the end, the ultimate responsible for achieving it. Furthermore, it seems that "Commands" are accepted as an unmarked way of demanding goods and services in classroom discourse: "the teacher is in a position of authority and can exercise it overtly" (Sinclair and Brazil 1982:78). In fact, children carried out the orders in the *corpus* without manifesting either their enthusiasm or unhappiness about it, which accounts for the semantic choice "neutral desirability".

Discursively, "*commands*" are displayed in the system network within the teachers' initiations and are bound to a response. As it has been argued above, although the unmarked command asks for a non-verbal response, most of the activities focus on "linguistic" tasks in the EFL classroom: e.g. making children repeat a new item in the foreign language, eliciting peer conversation in the foreign language, etc. Therefore, further levels of delicacy have been developed in the *Regulatory Functions System Network*. Consequently, and contrary to studies which yield different types of directives according to the analysis of forms (e.g. Ervin-Tripp 1976), the subdivision of commands in this work results from the nature of the response sought in the classroom: those aiming at action (*action commands*) vs. those aiming at language (*linguistic commands*) (Figure 34). The interest of such sub-classification is inextricably linked to my interest in understanding how teacher talk through regulatory functions controls and affects the child's verbal and non-verbal behaviour.

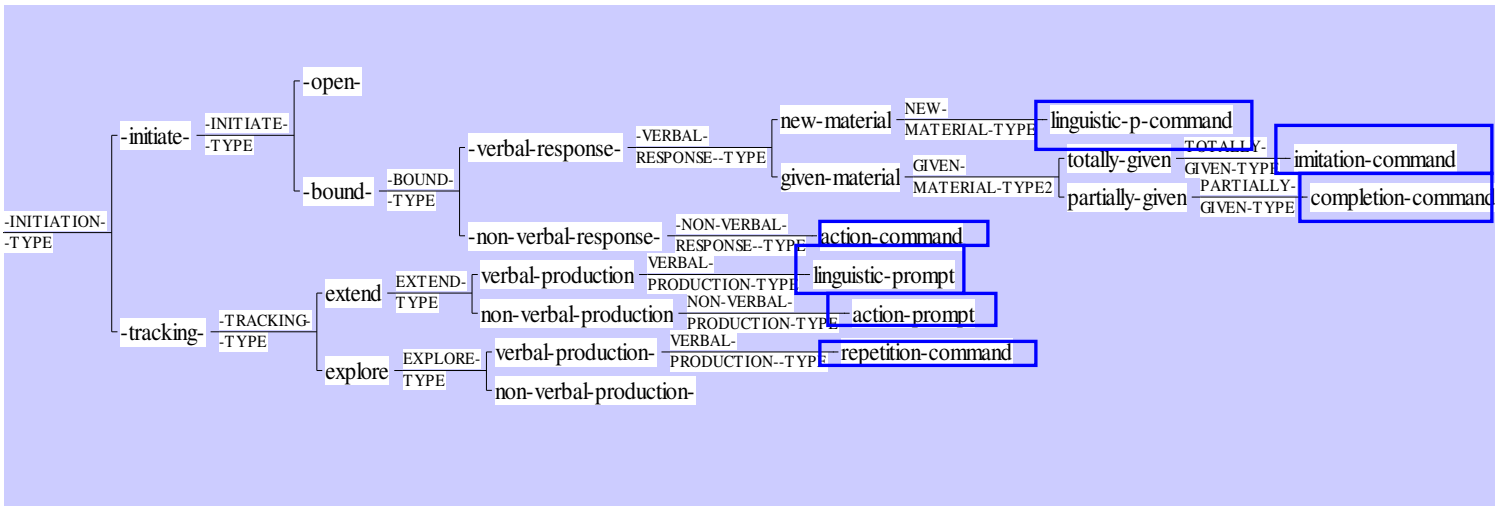


Fig.34. Sub-classification of commands

As stated above, the wide variety of linguistic realisations may sometimes lead the researcher to mistake an *indirect command* (Andersen 1990:16) for a *suggestion* if only the lexicogrammatical level of analysis is taken into consideration (e.g. instances where the imperative indicates joint action). This again calls for a cross-stratal analysis of the data: in such cases, the discursive level provides among its tools the variable of *desirability* and the *openness* in order to discriminate between the two different functions (i.e. neutral for commands as in example 101, desirable for suggestion in example 102 below).

Example 101: [Session NNcT2]

Come on

Please, let's put the raincoat on the line<DC-a>\$C-IM-MA-S1a-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

Example 102: [Session NNcT2]

and we're going to try these clothes on

CH: <L1 ¿Me lo dejas? L1>

TCH: <L1 Le podemos poner el L1>jumper with shorts

CH: <L1 Pero le tenemos que poner <x__x> L1>

TCH: *Yes.. Or we can put them a jumper with trousers*<DS>\$C-D-S2-p-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Rc\$..

or jumper with shoes

Or shorts with shoes

We can put many things on<DS>\$C-D-S1a-p-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$..

6.2.2.2.1. *Action commands (Dc-a)*

a) *Discourse-semantic description*

The category “*action command*” in taxonomy matches the original definition of directives, i.e. utterances whose “function is to request a *non-linguistic* response” (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975:41, my italics). This category has been considered in the literature as one of the most frequently displayed by the teacher in the classroom context (Florin *et al.* 1985; Monfort *et al.* 1996; Llinares-García 2002) and includes all the expressions asking the child to do something which is non-verbal, e.g. “cut the pictures”, “stand up”...Therefore, this category results from the following discourse-semantic choices in the *RFSN*: *negotiate, exchange>demand> goods and services> addressee orientation > neutral > initiate>bound to a non-verbal response*.

A brief note will suffice to clarify that the distinction between “giving instructions” and “*action commands*” has been possible following the criteria specified in the *RFSN*. The objective of *giving instructions*⁹⁴ is to give information that is needed to carry out an activity (desirable) and that is therefore “arguable” (in functional terms, it can be denied, modified, discussed about, cf. Halliday 1994). Additionally, instructions are desirable in that they provide information that the students need. On the contrary, *commands* require an immediate response (usually, non-verbal), which is non arguable since goods and services cannot be discussed about.

b) *Function-form Relationship and comparison across speakers*

“*Action commands*” are concerned with the control of the actions of participants (the children in this context) and do so through a versatile surface structure. Indeed, as Ervin-Tripp (1976; 1982) and Andersen (1990) pointed out, commands can be realised by a variety of syntactic forms: “need statement”, “simple imperatives”, “modified imperatives”, “you imperatives”, “requests” and “hints”, among others. Besides, Blum-Kulka *et al.* (1989), Trosborg (1995) and Dalton-Puffer (2005:1284) also acknowledge different strategies to convey directives (hints, ability, wishes, desires, obligation, performatives,

⁹⁴ This function is not explored in the present investigation. Note that the commodity exchanged is not goods and services but information (cf. Riesco-Bernier (2003:109) for a wide account of “Giving instructions” in the *UAMLESC corpus*).

imperatives, elliptical phrases...) ranked within an indirect-direct cline. Tables 7-8 and Figure 35 below reveal that such versatility is also met in the present data and Figures 36-41 further explore the aforementioned lexicogrammatical features belonging to major clauses (e.g. ellipsis, polarity...).

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Action commands (DC-a)</i> <i>Native teachers</i>	Imperative	264	67.9
	Declarative	86	22.1
	Yes-no interrogative	22	5.7
	No analysis (Spanish)	11	2.8
	Absolute Noun group	3	0.8
	Minor Clause Vocative	2	0.5
	Wh-interrogative	1	0.3
Total		389	100%

Table 7: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of action commands. Native teachers.

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Action commands (DC-a)</i> <i>Non-native teachers</i>	Imperative	255	72.2
	Declarative	62	17.8
	Yes-no interrogative	16	4.5
	No analysis (Spanish)	11	3.1
	Wh- interrogative	7	2
	Absolute Noun group	1	0.3
Total		353	100%

Table 8: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of action commands. Non-native teachers.

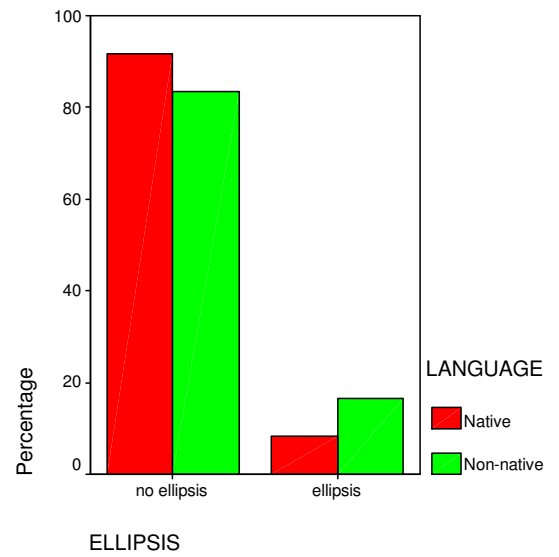
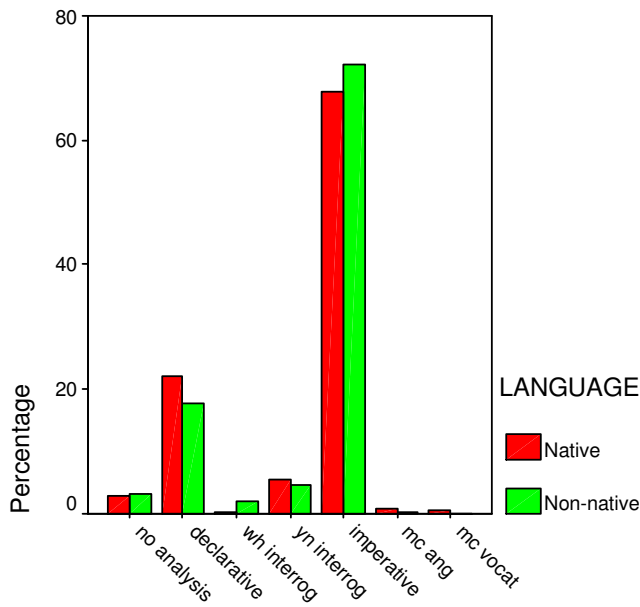


Fig. 35. Action commands (n=389 in NSs, n=353 in NNSs): Clause type Fig. 36. Action commands: Ellipsis

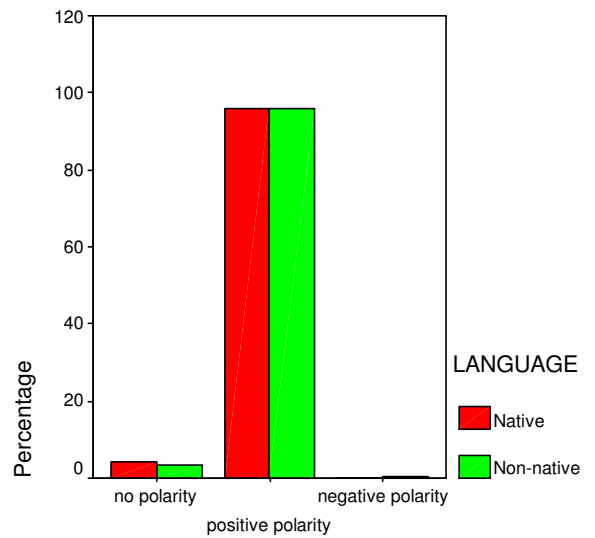
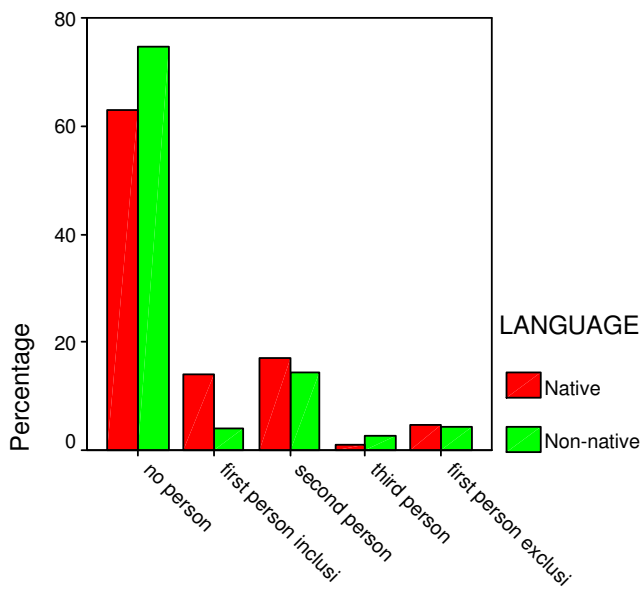


Fig. 37. Action commands: Subject choice

Fig. 38. Action commands: Polarity

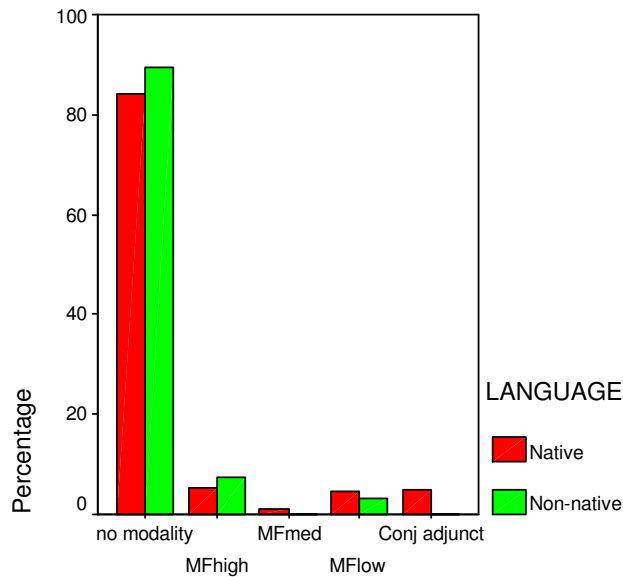


Fig. 39. Action commands: Modality

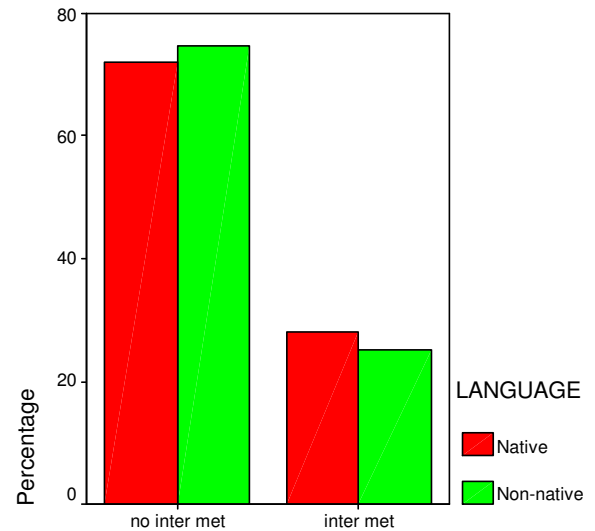


Fig. 40. Action commands: Interpersonal metaphor

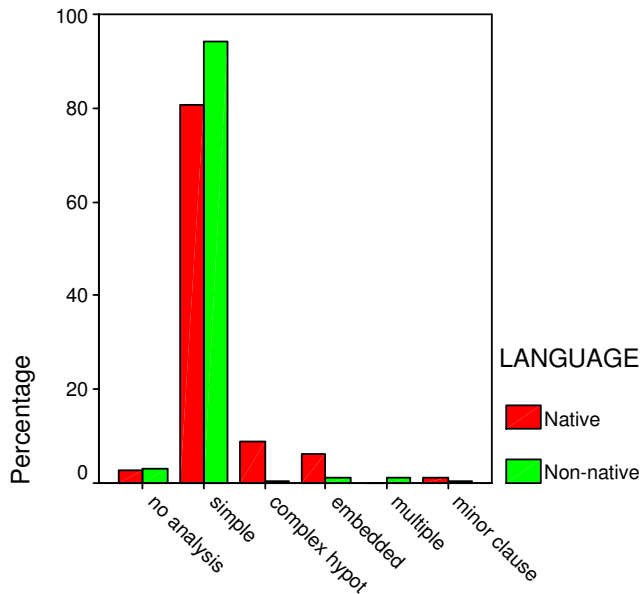


Fig. 41. Action commands: Clause complex patterns

The figures above exhibit a wide variety of clausal patterns to instantiate “*action commands*”. The imperative clause is the commonest choice among speakers (more than 60% in both groups of teachers) and are unmarkedly positive in polarity (more than 90% in both groups, Figure 38). The data reveal that “*action commands*” are second-person oriented although in 60% of the cases they lack their subject and are mainly realised by the predicator, complement and an occasional optional adjunct (Figure 37).

Nonetheless, and as it has been mentioned above, there is a wide variety of indirect structures used to request an action in the *corpus*. As Figure 35 illustrates, the clausal patterns mostly chosen to instantiate *action commands* are declarative and interrogative clauses. However, according to the “modal directive rule” (Ervin-Tripp 1976:33), in order to convey the requestive dimension, those utterances have to fulfil the following conditions: they are often characterised by a modal finite operator of high or medium obligation (“can”, “have to”, “need”, Figure 39 above), a second person subject (Figure 37 above) and the predicate describes an action which is physically possible at the time of speaking (examples 102-103).

Example 102: [session *NNncN3*]

TCH: *Now, can you sing [[we wish you a Merry Christmas]]? <DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-MFlp-inc-S2-Rp-Rc_emb.cl\$*

CHI: me me me me me

Example 103: [session *NkcE*]

.. *Could you point to the word again, please? <DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlf-incl-S2-Rp-Rc-Radj-MA\$.. Yeah..*

The use of such incongruent structures to request actions is actually echoed in the display of interpersonal metaphors⁹⁵ in 20% of the cases (Figure 40 above). More specifically, “*action commands*” are linguistically instantiated through structures other than imperatives: declaratives or even vocatives with an illocutionary effect (Figure 35) or the use of a projected clause in a hypotactic clause complex (Figure 41).

Example 104: [session *NrCI*]

TCH: Let’s see

TCH: Okay. I’ll help you.

TCH: *You need to find some food now [[that comes from plants]]<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-p-MFhp-obl-Rp-Radj-Rc_emb.cl\$*

CH: This comes from animals?

TCH: Yeah. That’s right, animals. Those come from animals. But he needs to find some food now that comes from...plants. Okay.

Example 105: [session *NrC2*]⁹⁶

TCH: Nacho

I think you can paint now<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S1a-Fp-Rp-Rc_hypot.proj.cl_S2-p-MFlp-obl-Rp-Radj\$,

⁹⁵ Utterances whose speech function does not match its prototypical linguistic realisation.

⁹⁶ As illustrated in example 105, the proposition is not in fact “I think” but the projected one “you can paint now”.

However, despite the general picture that can be drawn in the characterisation of “*Action commands*”, several qualitative and quantitative differences arise among teachers. On the one hand, it must be pointed out that native teachers produce a far more complex and indirect discourse, which can be seen in (i) a more frequent display of varied clausal types (imperatives, wh- and yes/no questions, absolute noun groups, vocatives⁹⁷), (ii) a more frequent use of modulated utterances through interpersonal metaphors or modal operators (Figure 39 above) (iii) a consequent more frequent variety of subjects chosen (Figure 37 above), (iv) and the display of embedded and hypotactic clauses (Figure 41 above). Furthermore, the use of declaratives or interrogatives, and even the native teachers’ use of first person subjects to express a directive reveal that there is a shift of focus to the beneficiary or recipient’s activity rather than the donor-addressee’s⁹⁸ which is a more obscure but undoubtedly softer strategy to request an action. In the examples below, either the teacher is included in the action requested through the use of “we” (ex.106) or seems to be asking for permission by means of “I” (ex. 107).

Example 106: [session NkcE]

TCH: Sit down <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$.... Right..

We’re going to start with these words over here now<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S1a-p-Ff-Rp-Rc-Radj\$ <x around these x>..

Example 107: [session NrcK]

Alex<AS>\$MC-V\$

can I have a look at your work please? ... <DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlp-obl-S1b-Rp-Rc-Rc-MA\$

On the other hand, non-native teachers keep their discourse brief and straightforward, which can be appreciated in (i) the use of simple clauses in 98% of the cases (note that the other 2% is embodied in embedded or multiple clauses but not in hypotactic structures, Figure 41 above), (ii) a more frequent use of ellipsis⁹⁹ (18% vs. 8%

⁹⁷ Although non-native teachers also display the same range of lexicogrammatical surface structure, their display of different forms is less frequent.

⁹⁸ Categorized as “permission directives” (Ervin-Tripp 1976:37), these utterances demand an activity despite the fact that their overt form looks like a permission request.

⁹⁹ This led the researcher to analyse whether the necessary mood constituent in the imperative structure could somehow be recoverable from the co(n)text (gesture or discourse) and the clause was therefore imperative with elliptical constituents, or was, on the contrary, a minor clause: “In situations where the necessary action is obvious, it is common to produce elliptical forms specifying only the new information- the direct or indirect object” (Ervin-Tripp 1976:30).

for native teachers), (iii) and a tendency to maximise the use of the prototypical lexicogrammatical realisation, i.e. the imperative.

6.2.2.2.2. *Linguistic commands*

Although most directives refer to non-verbal activities, “one can be directed to say something, and in these cases the whole of the response may be in words” (Sinclair and Brazil 1982:75). Indeed, “linguistic commands” are those utterances whereby the teacher demands some goods and services but where the goods and services are verbal, and are thus the result of the following discourse-semantic variables: *negotiate, exchange>demand> goods and services> addressee orientation > neutral > initiate>_bound to a verbal response*.

Within the EFL classroom, linguistic commands are those instances where the child is asked to produce material in a foreign language. The following examples illustrate how the command is oriented to a linguistic act and thus shapes or influences the ulterior child’s production:

Example 108: [session NmI1]
Now first we’ve got to ask a question<DC-l-m>.
“p”.
Okay.
Let’s begin<DPR-l>.
Table one.

Example 109: [session NmI1]
TCH: Cat no.
The cat doesn’t live in the zoo. <x...x>
Okay.
Let’s begin with <x.....x> Table four..
Ask what colour<DC-l-im>, María..
María..
Ask Fernando the color<DC-l-im>..
Is it.. brown, for example?..
Ask him.. Is it brown? <DC-l-im>

Although the focus of this study is on “demanding goods and services functions”, I am aware of the ambiguity lying on the interrogative surface structure. As illustrated by example 110 below, the interrogative seems to embody the function *asking for information*

(a mathetic function) but is here interpreted as a *linguistic command* (a pragmatic function) instead.

Example 110: [session NNncS3]:

TCH: Now, this one.

What is this boy doing? <DC-l-m> ((Showing a picture))

CH: Swimming pool

I understand *asking for information* as an addressee-oriented message whose focus is a genuine search for information. The *linguistic command*, in turn, is an addressee-oriented message whose focus is the linguistic production of some material in the foreign language in the EFL context. In other words, the linguistic command seeks a verbal response in English, in this case. Evidence in the *corpus* does support the claim that those “interrogative utterances” are not questions (demand information) but requests (demand goods and services) as some are explicitly introduced by a verbal process, i.e. verbal processes projecting another clause (example 111 below).

Example 111: [session NNncN1]:

TCH: OK.

And now tell me what's this <DC-l-m>? ((SHOWS A PICTURE))

and you are going to tell me ‘This-

It thus follows that other utterances may well be requests where the introductory verb, e.g. “tell” or “say”, instantiating the command is omitted (as in example 110 above).

Semantically, questions are utterances seeking information on a specific point (Quirk *et al.* 1985:804) and have widely been analysed in the literature according to their surface form. However, numerous studies on teachers’ questions support the idea that questions have a wide potential in the classroom (Hoetker and Ahlbrand 1969; Mehan 1979; Winne 1979; Long 1981a; Wilkinson and Calculator 1982; Long and Sato 1983; Gabrielatos 2001), their functions being countless: comprehension checks, clarification requests, confirmation checks, asking for repetition, among others. Kearsley (1976)’s taxonomy of questions divides them into *echoic*, *epistemic*, *expressive* and of *social control*. Within the epistemic category lie the “referential” and “evaluative” questions. The former are those which are “intended to provide contextual information about situations, events, actions, purposes, relationships, or properties” (Kearsley 1976 in Long and Sato

1983:274), whereas the latter are those “asked to establish the addressee’s knowledge of the answer” (*ibid.*), also known as “display” or “test questions” (Searle 1976).

Although it is here acknowledged that both “referential” and “display” questions can be interpreted as functions resulting from the variables “demand” and “information”, the present research offers a different point of view. I believe that the so-called “display questions” can be considered “linguistic commands” as the main objective of these utterances is not to obtain a piece of information but rather check the “addressee’s knowledge”. More specifically, in the EFL classroom, what is tested is the foreign language, and hence what is demanded is some verbal production in English. Indeed, although not focusing on an EFL context, other studies have already pointed out that all questions can be interpreted as requests with the purpose of eliciting information (cf. Katz 1972; Katz 1977; Gordon and Lakoff 1975; Labov and Fanshel 1977; Willis 1981) on the grounds that “a directive is an instruction to perform something and ‘questions’ are instructions to make a verbal performance” (Tsui 1992:100).

This study is thus cautious when discriminating which utterances belong to the macro-function “demanding information”, namely referential questions, and which belong to the macro-function “demanding goods and services”, widely known as “display questions” in the literature and labelled “linguistic command” in the present work. Therefore, the *linguistic command* emerges in study as a discourse category used to describe any utterance requiring the child to produce some material in English, their foreign language. I shall now provide a classification of these commands according to the different responses prospected.

Subcategories of linguistic commands

Understanding that “linguistic commands” are to this study what “elicitations” are to other studies, namely the search of a verbal response, a brief summary of the different types of elicitations acknowledged in the literature will be first provided so as to understand which utterances can be considered “linguistic commands” and which are genuine search of information, thus, not treated in the present study.

Various perspectives have been adopted by studies considering teachers' classroom questions. On the one hand, there are formal analyses. According to Tsui (1987b; 1992), elicitations can be (i) *informing*, when they invite the addressee to supply a piece of information, including those where the speaker does know the answer; (ii) *confirming* when they invite to confirm the speaker's assumption; (iii) *agreeing* when the addressee is invited to agree with the speaker's assumption that the expressed proposition is self-evidently true; (iv) *committing* when just a verbal response from the addressee is searched and where commitment is elicited; (v) *repeating* where one prospects a repetition of the utterance preceding the elicitation, and (vi) *clarifying*, when one prospects a clarification of a preceding utterance. Other scholars differentiate "closed" from "open-ended" questions (Barnes 1969), or "specific" from "general information questions" (Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern and Todesco 1978; Bialystok, Fröhlich and Howard 1978).

On the other hand, functional studies have been conducted in ESL classrooms and therefore consider a set of variables similar to this research. Based on Long and Sato (1983), Pica and Long (1986) used the following categories in their taxonomy. Within echoic questions, they consider (i) *comprehension checks*; (ii) *clarification requests* and (iii) *confirmation requests*. And, within epistemic questions, they consider (iv) *referential questions*, (v) *display questions*; (vi) *expressive questions* and (vii) *rhetorical questions*.

Of great interest is Boulima's (1999) taxonomy, which also acknowledges the difference between *referential* and *display elicitations*, but further explores the "display elicitations". According to Boulima, the *display elicitations* can be divided into (i) *display questions* which are not genuine questions seeking information but in Barnes's (1969) terms "pseudo-questions" (Boulima 1999:98); and (ii) *models*, "an elicitation or a type of prompt by the teacher which aims at eliciting an exact imitation of a previous utterance" (*ibid.*), (cf. Van Lier 1988; Chaudron 1988).

In my view, a common denominator covertly underlies the aforementioned formal and functional classifications. They distinguish the different categories according to a co(n)textual criterion, i.e. the analysis of the preceding and forthcoming discourse in form

and function. In other words, the message is a chunk of information within a text (formal textual approach) and achieves some pedagogical function in the classroom (function-oriented). Moving onto the present work, I understand that the *informational status* constitutes a co(n)textual key to discriminate distinct types of *linguistic commands*.

This research acknowledges four types of linguistic commands: “linguistic production command”, “imitation command”, “completion command” and “repetition command”. The first three share the following discourse-semantic variables *negotiate, exchange>demand> goods and services> addressee orientation > neutral > initiate> bound to a verbal response*. However, they differ once the verbal response level of delicacy in the system network is reached. This work considers that the type of verbal response can be further specified, which leads me to design a distinct path and choice for each regulatory function (see Figure 42a below).

Within the discourse-semantic variables proposed in the *RFSN*, the informational status of the message produced (givenness-newness opposition) understood on the grounds of recoverability at the discourse level (cf. Halliday 1967b; Prince 1981; Geluykens 1991) constitutes a criterion to distinguish the types of responses the teacher may expect from the child. Therefore, if the verbal response expected is (i) *new material*, it will be a “linguistic production command”, (ii) *given material* provided by the teacher, it will be an “imitation command”, (iii) *partially given material*, that will be a “completion command” (see sections below for further details). As shown in Figure 42a, there is a fourth type of linguistic command, i.e. “repetition command”, but it will be described later as its discursive features differ from the rest.

6. The Regulatory Functions System Network:
Definition and validation of the proposed taxonomy

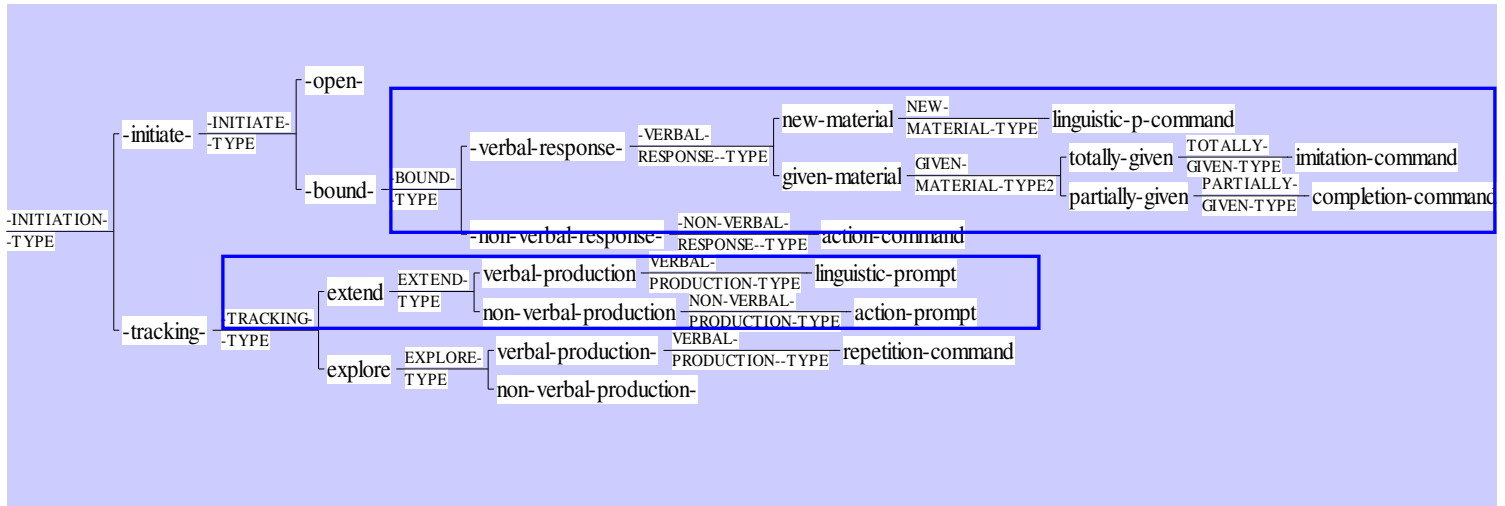


Fig. 42a. Regulatory Functions System Network: Linguistic commands

(i) **Linguistic production command (Dc-l-m)**

a) *Discourse-semantic description*

As mentioned above, the “linguistic production command” derives from the following discourse-semantic variables: *negotiate, exchange>demand> goods and services> addressee orientation > neutral > initiate>bound to a verbal response>new material*. This category echoes “display questions”, “exam questions”, “test questions”, “pseudo-questions”, that is, utterances whereby the teacher asks questions to see whether the learners also know the answer. Furthermore, in the EFL context, those are requests for the child to say something in English: “*How do you say...?*”; “*What is this?*”.

Example 112: [session NNncS1]

TCH: sharpener? Pencil sharpener?
Ok, what’s this? <DC-l-m> ((shows a picture))
CHI: bin!
TCH: bin, very good,
and do you remember what’s this? <DC-l-m>

Example 113: [session NkcE]

TCH: He ..
Right <x there x>..
Can you put it into a sentence for me? <DC-l-m>
CH: (Irene) Right ..He is beautiful.
TCH: Right..

Example 114: [session NmI1]

TCH: Sh
A question<DC-l-m>.
Laura<AS>.

First question<DC-l-m>.

Laura: Is is...white?

TCH: Is it white?

Victoria: Yes.

TCH: Yes, it is..

Keeping in mind that function prevails over form throughout this analysis, it was frequent to find utterances instantiating a request for *linguistic production* which apparently echoed *selections*. The examples from the *corpus* below illustrate that the primary function of these names is not to attract the child's attention but to request a verbal action (the vocative displaying here an illocutionary force of command) and have thus been considered a *linguistic production command*.

Example 115: [session NNncN2]

Now tell me [[what colour is the bicycle]]

Paula

CHI: Blue!

TCH: *Paula*<DC-l-m>\$MC-V\$

CHI: The bicycle is blue.

Example 116: [session NNncS1]

TCH: No. ((GESTURES)) One red mmm-

FER: Mouth.

TCH: O K

Everybody<DC-l-m>\$MC-V\$ ((GESTURES))

CHI: [One]

b) Function-form Relationship and comparison across speakers

Elicitations are those acts which require a linguistic response (cf. Sinclair and Coulthard 1992). They include *display*, *test* or *exam* questions: questions whose answer is already known by the speaker who wants to test the hearer's knowledge (cf. Long and Sato 1983; Pica and Long 1986; Athanasiadou 1991)¹⁰⁰. Although those have traditionally been regarded as trading information, other scholars argue that questions can also be characterised as a kind of directive on the ground that a directive is an instruction to perform something and that questions are instructions to make a verbal performance (Tsui 1987b; Tsui 1992:100). Likewise, Burton (1980) and Willis (1981) also feel a question in which a student is instructed to say something is characterised as "direct: verbal". It thus follows that "in educational contexts 'curricular content' is a good which has central status

¹⁰⁰ In Barnes (1969)'s terms, those are "pseudo-questions".

within the institution, probably different from other symbolic or physical goods” (Dalton-Puffer 2005:1282). Therefore, in my analysis, English is considered to be the good exchanged and thus any linguistic realisation eliciting children’s production in English (known to the teacher) has been considered “linguistic production command”. Their lexicogrammatical realisations are first summarised in tables 9 and 10 and graphically portrayed in Figures 43-49 below.

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Linguistic production commands (DC-l-m) Native teachers</i>	Wh-interrogative	339	61.9
	Yes-no interrogative	117	21.4
	Imperative	54	9.9
	Declarative	23	4.2
	Minor Clause Vocative	13	2.4
	Absolute noun group	1	0.2
	No analysis (Spanish)	1	0.2
Total		548	100%

Table 9: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of linguistic production commands. Native teachers.

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Linguistic production commands (DC-l-m) Non-native teachers</i>	Wh-interrogative	350	66.7
	Yes-no interrogative	97	18.5
	Imperative	46	8.8
	Declarative	15	2.9
	No analysis (Spanish)	11	2.1
	Minor Clause Vocative	6	1.1
Total		525	100%

Table 10: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of linguistic production commands. Non-native teachers.

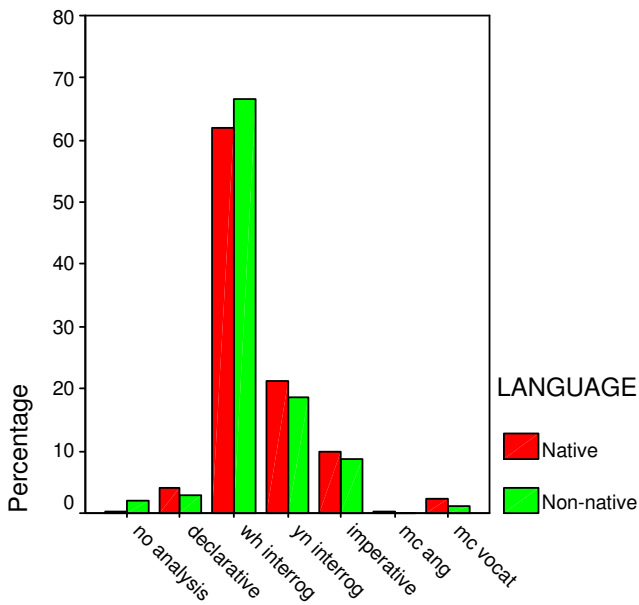


Fig. 43. Linguistic production commands (n= 548 in NSs, n=525 in NNSs): Clause type

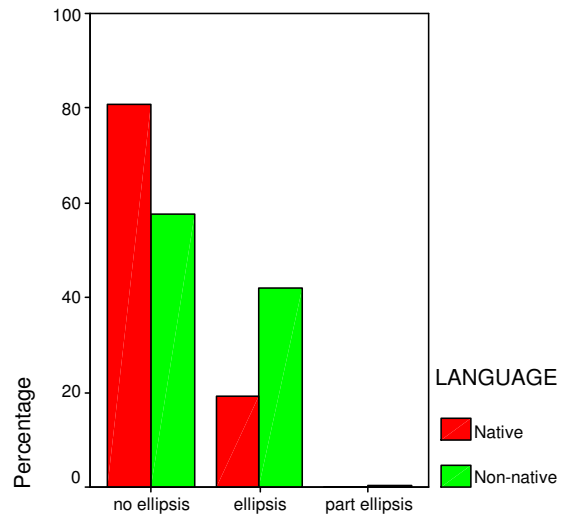


Fig. 44. Ling. production commands: Ellipsis

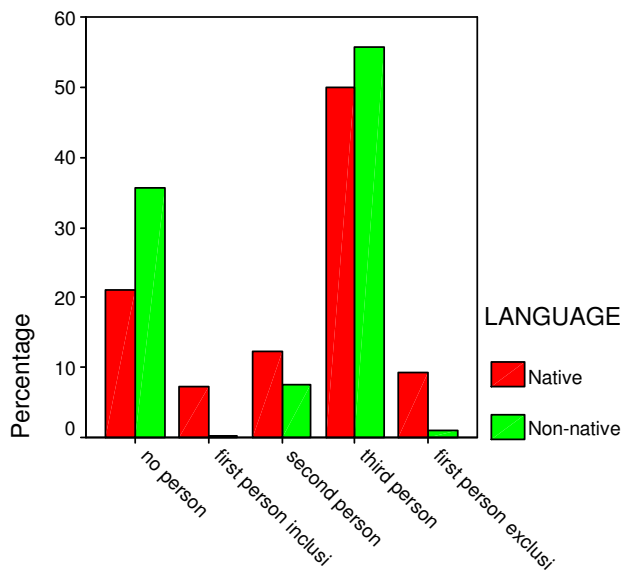


Fig. 45. Linguistic production commands: Subject choice

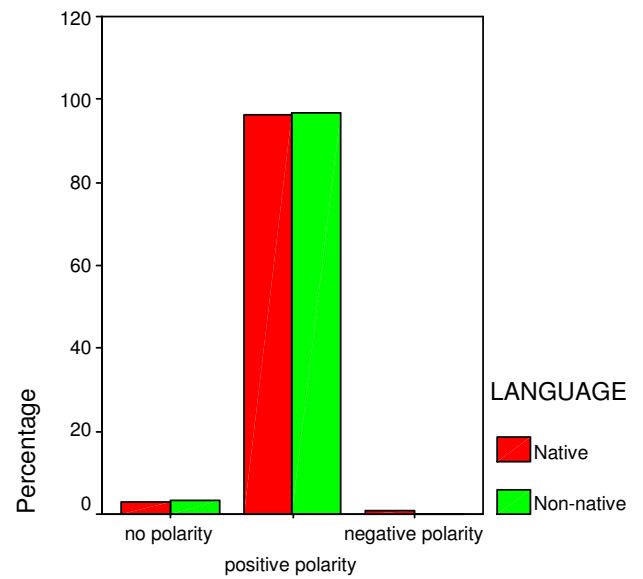


Fig. 46. Linguistic production commands: polarity

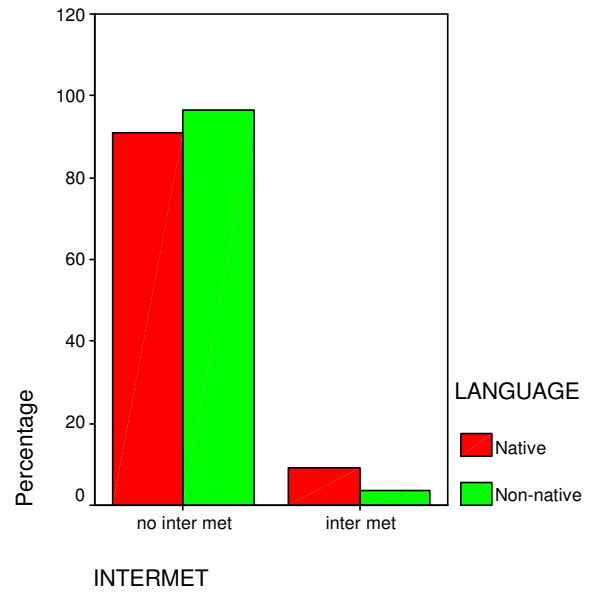
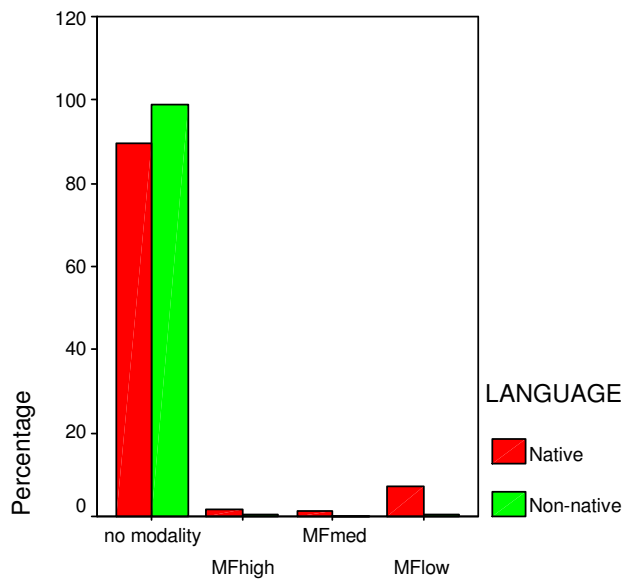


Fig. 47. Linguistic production commands: Modality

Fig. 48. Linguistic production commands: Interpersonal metaphor

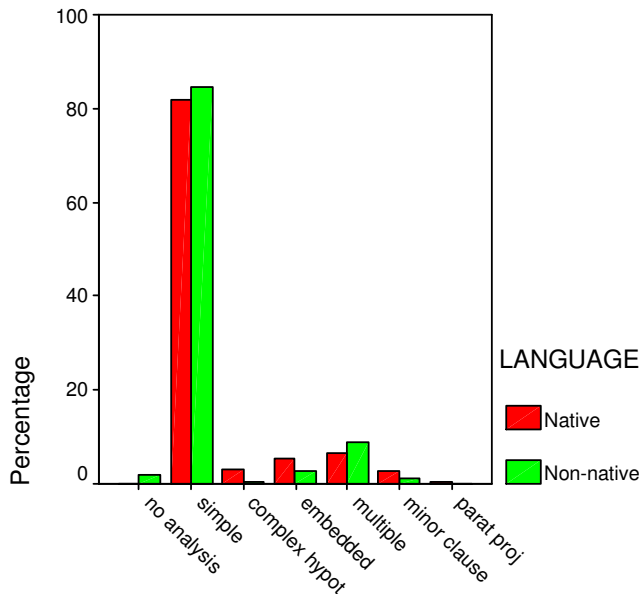


Fig. 49. Linguistic production commands: Clause complex

Quirk *et. al.*'s (1985:806) formal classification of questions lies on the type of reply that they expect: (i) those that expect affirmation or negation: *yes-no questions*, (ii) those that typically expect a reply from an open range of replies: *wh-questions*, and (iii) those that expect as the reply one of two or more options presented in the question: *alternative questions*. In my *corpus*, "linguistic production commands" are mainly embodied in *wh-questions* and in *yes-no questions* (61.9% and 21.4% in native teachers' talk and 66.7% and

18.5% in non-native teachers' respectively, table 9 and Figure 43). In both groups of teachers, there is a clear tendency to produce simple, positive, non-modulated clauses whose subject is often a third singular person (Figure 45). More specifically, 80% of the instances are simple clauses, 98% display positive polarity, 80% are non-modulated and 55% display a 3rd person subject (see Figures 49, 46, 47 and 45). The examples below illustrate how those questions do not seek genuine information but direct children's linguistic production.

Example 117 [session NNncN2]

And what's this? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

((tch shows a card))

CHI: star

TCH: star, very good, this is a star,

what colour is the star? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CHI: yellow

Example 118 [session NmI1]

TCH: A jumper. A jumper. It is a jumper,

Jacobo

What do I do with it? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-S1b-Rp-Rc\$

Do I put it on my head like this? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-yn-p-Fp-S1b-Rp-Rc-Adj-Adj\$

CH (all): No!

TCH: You tell me

More often than not, *linguistic production commands* are instantiated by imperatives (example 119), often accompanied by ellipsis of the predicator (examples 120-122), and occasionally with an embedded or hypotactic projected clause (examples 123-124) (cf. Figures 43, 44 and 49 respectively).

Example 119 [session NmI1]

Victoria

.. Okay.

Ask her her name <DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Rc\$

Example 120 [session NkcE]

Another word <DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc\$

Juan Carlos

Example 121 [session NkcE]

For in Spanish? <DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Adj\$

Nacho

Carla

CH: (Carla) <L1 Para L1>

Example 122 [session NNncS2]

CH: < L1 Es una chica, es una chica ...L1 > }

CH: { girl }

TCH: { In English<DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$
in English<DC-l-m><r>.... \$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$

Example 123 [session NNncN3]

Now tell me [[what colour is the bicycle]]? <DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Rc_emb.cl_INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

Paula

Example 124 [session Nkce]

Who thinks they can make a sentence using.. those .. three .. words?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET-INT-wh-S3-p-Fp-Rp-Rc_hypot.proj.cl_S3-p-MFlp-ab-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

((Some children have already put their hands up))

However, a closer look at the figures reveals that native and non-native teachers differ in their linguistic instantiation of *linguistic production commands*. First of all, it is worth noting that unlike non-native teachers, native speakers display a lower frequency of the prototypical clause-type and subject choice, which implies a more frequent display of other structures (Figures 43 and 49, table 9). Second, native teachers display a higher use of interpersonal metaphors and occasionally modulate their utterances to mitigate the command (Figure 48). Furthermore, as Figure 47 displays, modality is exclusive to native teachers in this case. Third, native teachers further elaborate their discourse through complex clause patterns (Figure 49). On the contrary, non-native teachers keep their *linguistic production commands* as straightforward as possible, which is evidenced in the display of simple clauses, sometimes uttered in Spanish, and the lack of modality (Figures 43 and 47, respectively). Moreover, the brevity of their messages is confirmed by the use of ellipsis, which doubles the frequency obtained in native teachers' discourse (40% vs. 20%, Figure 44).

(ii) Imitation command (Dc-l-im)

a) Discourse-semantic description

The “imitation command” derives from the following discourse-semantic variables: *negotiate>exchange>demand> goods and services> addressee orientation>neutral> initiate>bound to a verbal response>given material*. Prator (1969:100) supports that “one of the principal responsibilities of the L2 teacher is to see that his pupils use correct language as often as possible”. Providing a model for the children to imitate becomes one

of the strategies that the teacher may use to control the production of errors. In my analysis, this category comprises the instances whereby the teacher provides the exact words that the child is asked to repeat (hence, “given material”). The teacher provides either the words introduced through an explicit command, e.g. “say: ‘red’” in example 125 below; or without any preceding instruction, e.g. “shoes” in example 126 below.

Example 125 [session NkcE]

TCH: Say the word “red” together<DC-l-im>..

All of you together.. Now

CH: ((León, Celia and Juan)) Red

TCH: How many times did they speak?

.. Say it again

CH: ((León, Celia and Juan)) Red

CH: (Paula) <x three x>

TCH: Three times?! ((Some children laugh))

TCH: León

say “red” <DC-l-im>

CH: (León) Red

Example 126 [session NNncS2]

TCH: What do you wear on your feet?

((Silence for few seconds))

Shhh.... Shhh....

Shoes<DC-l-im>

CH: (Macarena) Shoes..

TCH: very good....

Although studies on children’s imitations of adult’s talk have distinguished “exact repetitions” from “modifications (expansions and reductions)” (cf. Nelson 1973; Seitz and Stewart 1975; Folger and Chapman 1978), this study has only considered those where the child’s utterance is an exact imitation of the model, keeping the pragmatic function of the teacher’s¹⁰¹. Discursively, this move will be followed by the child’s echoing the very same expression uttered by the teacher.

b) Function-form Relationship and comparison across speakers

In EFL classrooms, imitation commands are frequent and may be indispensable for language learning since they aid in the acquisition of vocabulary and pronunciation (cf. Ervin-Tripp 1964). Therefore, attention must be paid to the strategies used by the teacher

¹⁰¹ Had focus been the child’s linguistic production, it would have been interesting to analyse other types of imitations to appreciate the development of the learner’s linguistic competence.

to provide the model to imitate (Van Lier 1988; Chaudron 1988; Boulima 1999). Tables 11 and 12 display the lexicogrammatical realisations of native and non-native teachers' imitation commands and Figures 50-56 further depict some of the most relevant lexicogrammatical features of the teachers' messages.

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Imitation commands (DC-l-im) Native teachers</i>	Imperative	70	90.9
	Yes-no interrogative	2	2.6
	Declarative	2	9.9
	Minor Clause Vocative	2	4.2
	Wh-interrogative	1	2.1
Total		77	100%

Table 11: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Imitation commands. Native teachers.

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Imitation commands (DC-l-im) Non-native teachers</i>	Imperative	68	81
	Declarative	14	16.7
	Yes-no interrogative	2	2.4
Total		84	100%

Table 12: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Imitation commands. Non-native teachers.

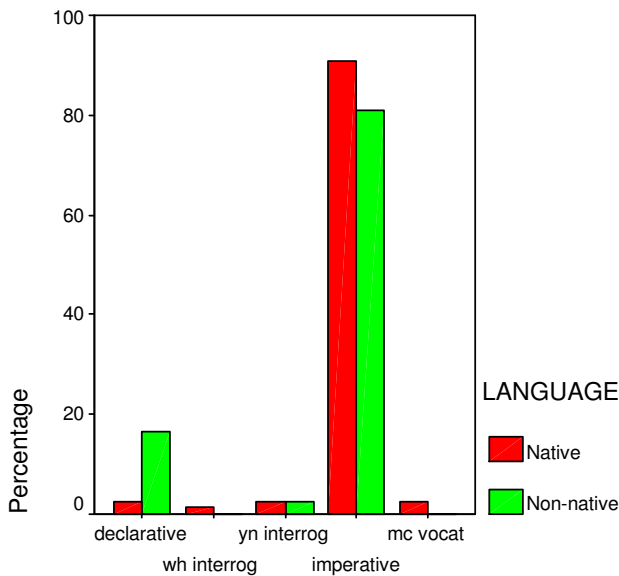


Fig. 50. Imitation commands (n= 77 in NSs, n=84 in NNSs): Clause type

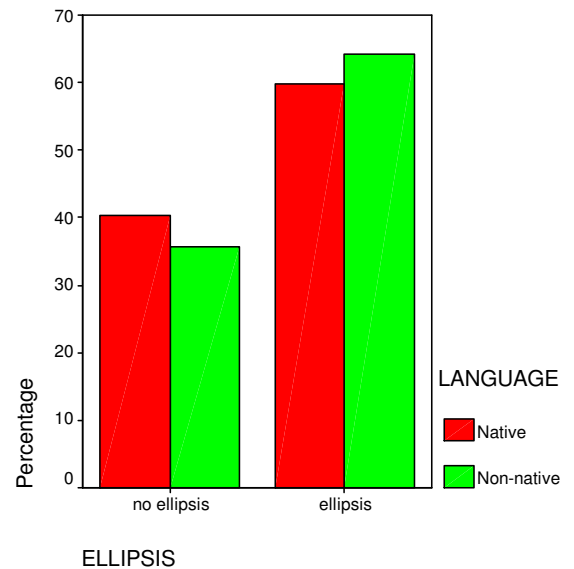


Fig. 51. Imitation commands: Ellipsis

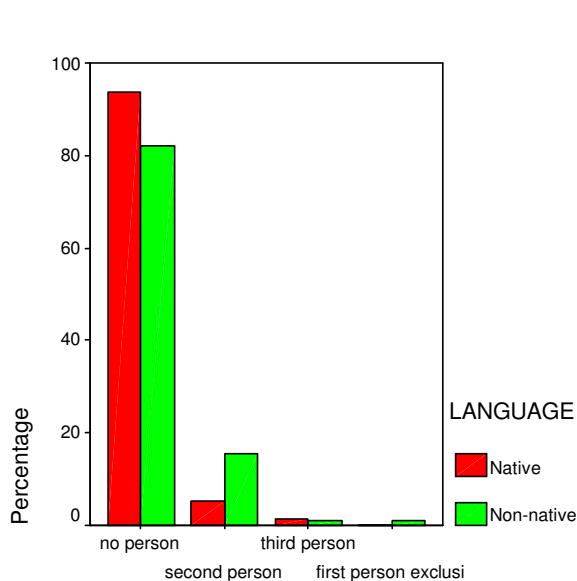


Fig. 52. Imitation commands: Person

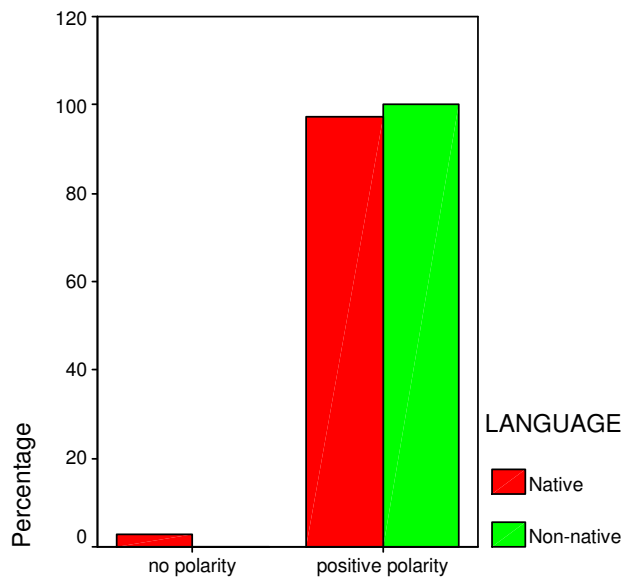


Fig. 53. Imitation commands: Polarity

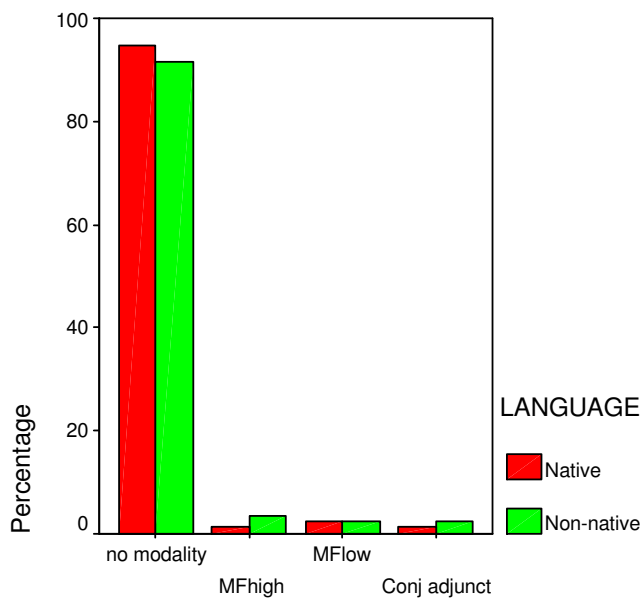


Fig. 54. Imitation commands: Modality type

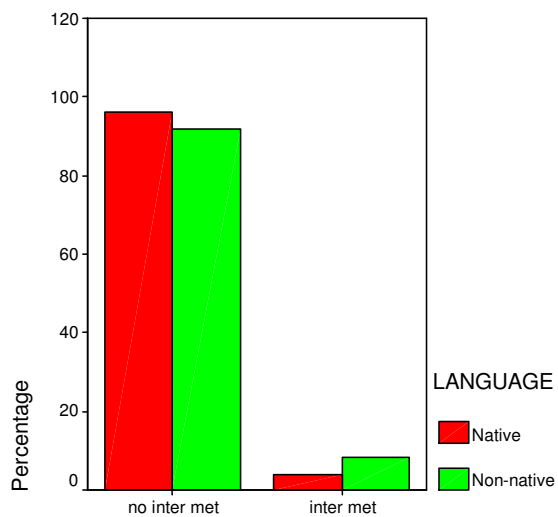


Fig. 55. Imitation commands: Interpersonal metaphor

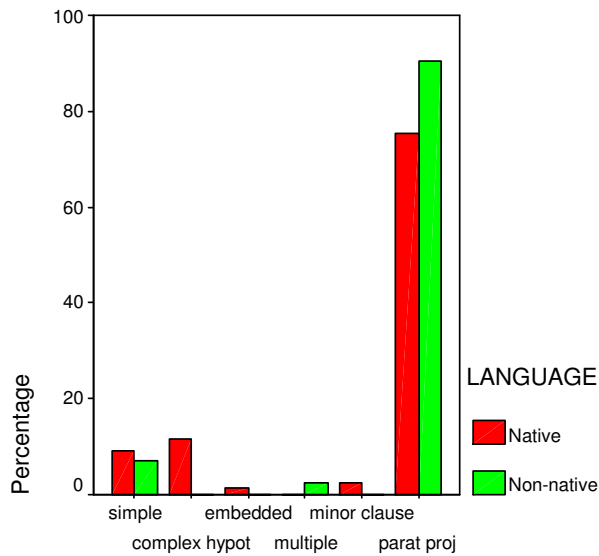


Fig. 56. Imitation commands: Clause complex

Interestingly enough, and contrary to *linguistic production commands*, *imitation commands* are not embodied in interrogative clauses but are mostly realised by positive, imperative clauses instead (Figures 53 and 50, example 127). The imperative structures require the projection of the clause or phrase to be repeated (Figure 56, examples 127 and 130) and often involve the omission of the main predicator, e.g. “say” or “repeat”. Indeed, both groups of teachers display ellipsis in 60% of the instances (Figure 51, examples 128 and 129).

Example 127 [session NmI1]

Table one

One question

The colour

Say: *is it..yellow?* <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc_parat.proj.cl_INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$

Example 128 [session NNcT2]

TCH: Very good.. It’s a hat..

And this?

Blouse<DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc_parat.proj.cl_MC-ANG\$

CH: (Laura) Blouse

TCH: It’s a blouse... Hello!

Example 129 [session NmI1]

. Ask if it is dangerous<DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc_hypot.proj.cl_INT-yn-p-Fp-S3-Rp-Rc\$

.. Is it dangerous? <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc_parat.proj.cl_INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$

Carlos: Is it dangerous?

Example 130 [session NNncS1]

You have to say 'It's a rainy day, windy day, sunny day' <DC-l-im>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-MFhp-obl-Rp-Rc_ parat.proj.cl._D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-Rc\$

Again, some differences across speakers arise from the data. On the one hand, native teachers instantiate *imitation commands* through a wide variety of structures though displayed in very low frequencies (cf. table 11 and Figure 50): vocatives with the illocutionary force of imitating something previously mentioned, which accounts for the display of no polarity (Figure 53), interrogative clauses and declarative clauses which in turn account for the use of interpersonal metaphor and modality (Figures 54-55), (see examples 131, 132 and 133, respectively).

Example 131 [session NkcE]

TCH: León

say "red" <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$

CH: (León) Red

TCH: *Celia<DC-l-im>\$MC-V\$*

CH: (Celia) Red

Example 132 [session NkcE]

I count three..

can you say the word .. blue? <DC-l-im>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MF|p-ab-S2-Rp-Rc\$

One, two, three..

CH: ((Tree children)) [Blue!]

Example 133 [session NkcE]

After three you say the word "blue" <DC-l-im>\$C-INT.MET-D-Radj-S2-p-Rp-Rc\$..

Jacobo. One, two, three..

CH: ((The three children altogether)) Blue!

On the other hand, non-native teachers display two major clause types: imperatives in 81% of the cases and declaratives in almost 17% of the cases (cf. table 12). Their use of declarative clauses is straightly linked to the display of second person subjects and interpersonal metaphors, which are surprisingly more frequent than in native teachers' discourse (Figures 52, 55, example 134). However, despite their use of interpersonal metaphors, non-native teachers convey their *imitation commands* through simple formulae, i.e. omission of redundant elements in 60% of the cases and display of paratactic clauses rather than embedded or hypotactic projected clauses (Figures 51 and 56 respectively, example 135).

Example 134 [session NNncS2]

You say Do you have the ... <DC-l-im>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-p-Fp-Rp-Rc_parat.proj.cl_INT-yn-p-Fp-S2-Rp-RcE\$

DAV: < L1 Le tengo que decir al otro niño lo que tengo? L1 > ((Fernando an another boy start a conversation)) ((The teacher ask for silence))

DAV: do you have the xxxx?

Example 135 [session NNncN2]

Say: “Merry Christmas”, “how are you?” “How are you?”

And then “this is a snowman!” <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc_parat.proj.cl_D\$

(iii) Completion command (Dc-l-cm)

a) Discourse-semantic description

The regulatory function “*completion command*” derives from the following discourse-semantic variables in the *RFSN: negotiate>exchange>demand> goods and services> addressee orientation > neutral > initiate>bound to a verbal response>partially given/new material*. In the language classroom, completions embodies a function crucial to the learners’ L2 development since it enhances the mastery of structures and sentence patterns (Prator 1969:100) or even the generation of other initiation functions in low-immersion contexts (Llinares-García 2002). This study has regarded as “*completion commands*” those utterances where the teacher provides some linguistic material and urges the child to fulfill or finish the missing constituent(s).

Bearing in mind that an information unit is a structure made up of two functions, the new and the given (Halliday 1994:296, cf. Chapter 5 above), a message is hence understood to be “complete” when both elements are linguistically realised. In “*completion commands*”, I consider that the teacher’s utterance is “incomplete” in that one element is missing in the information unit, namely the “new” information component. Since givenness may be described in the sense of predictability/recoverability, “the hearer can predict a particular linguistic item will or would occur in a particular position within a sentence” (*ibid*). This accounts for the label “partially given/new” that I have provided to characterise “*completion commands*” within the proposed *Regulatory Functions System Network* (see Figure 42a). Furthermore, this work understands that the child’s answer consists of *partially given* material in that his/her words will fit into an already provided linguistic

pattern and will be predictable (on the grounds of predictability), but also of *new* material in that it will add up some linguistic material that is missing in the information unit previously formulated by the teacher.

Example 136 [session NmI1]

TCH: Victoria knows the animal

<L1 A ver, Victoria L1>

I spy<DC-l-cm> ((*rising tone*))

CH: I spy with my little eye something beginning with.. “p”.

TCH: Yes, it is vvvery<DC-l-cm> ((*rising*))

CH: Very very dangerous.

TCH: Very dangerous.

While some instances in the *corpus* are easily identified as *completion commands*, others may sometimes echo the *linguistic production commands*. As an illustration, note that in example 137 below, the first time the teacher says “these are...” one may think of this utterance as a *linguistic production command* such as “what are these?”. In my view, a *completion command* demands the child to produce new material within an incomplete information unit produced by the teacher, thus departing from and using some given material. On the contrary, the answer to a *linguistic production command* such as “what are these?” would be entirely new material.

Example 137 [session [NmI1]

TCH: Not trousers, trousers are long.. These are trousers ((referring to her own)) ..

But these are... <DC-l-cm>

((Showing that the “shorts” are up to the middle of the thigh)) up to here....

You should know the name

.. these are yours..

CH: <x I don’t know the name x>

TCH: *These are shhhh..* <DC-l-cm>

CH: [Shorts]

b) Function-form Relationship and comparison across speakers

Since a “*completion command*” demands the child to fulfill an incomplete information unit initiated by the teacher, its surface structure is of paramount relevance in that it needs to indicate the existence of a missing element very clearly. The various clausal patterns displayed are summarised in tables 13 and 14 below and the lexicogrammatical features inherent to the major clauses are graphically portrayed in the following figures.

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Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Completion commands (DC-l-cm)</i> <i>Native teachers</i>	Declarative	97	85.1
	Absolute noun group	11	9.6
	Yes-no interrogative	6	5.3
Total		114	100%

Table 13: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Completion commands. Native teachers.

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Completion commands (DC-l-cm)</i> <i>Non-native teachers</i>	Declarative	111	57.5
	Imperative	36	18.7
	Absolute noun group	16	8.3
	Yes-no interrogative	12	6.2
	No Analysis (Spanish)	10	5.2
	Wh-interrogative	7	3.6
	Textual adjunct	1	0.5
Total		193	100%

Table 14: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Completion commands. Non-native teachers.

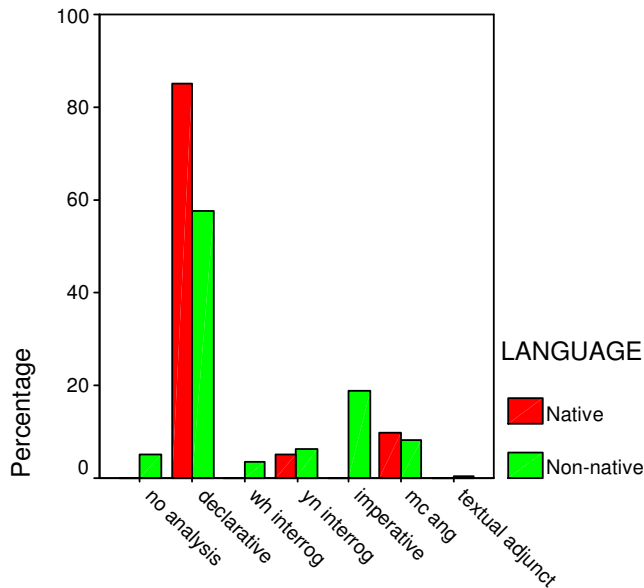


Fig. 57. Completion commands (n=114 in NSs; n=193 in NNSs): Clause type

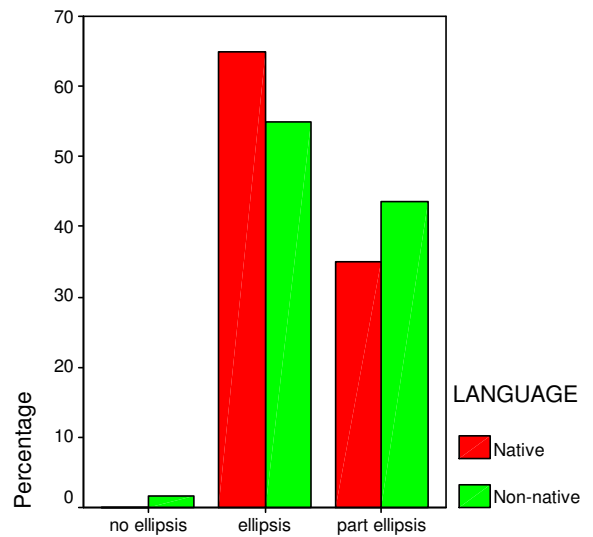


Fig. 58. Completion commands: Ellipsis

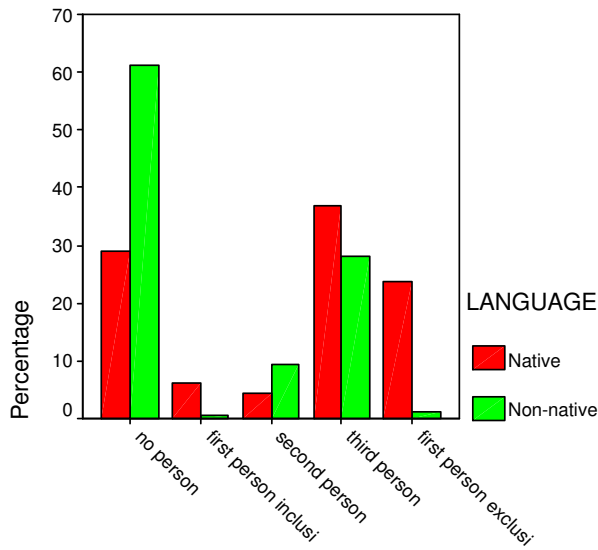


Fig. 59. Completion commands: Person

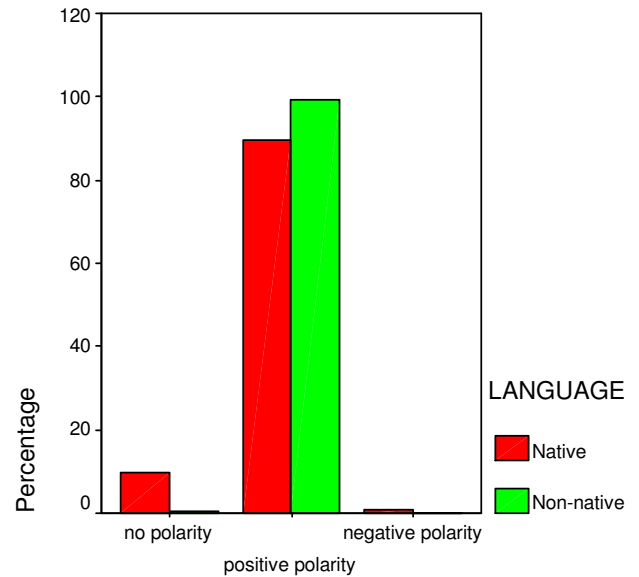


Fig. 60. Completion commands: Polarity

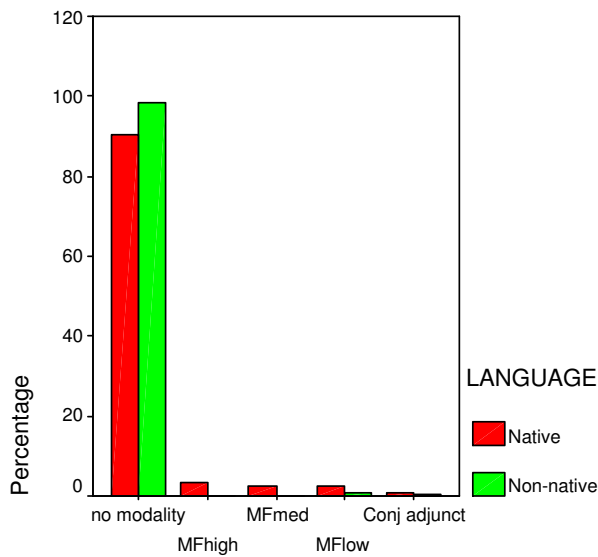


Fig. 61. Completion commands: Modality type

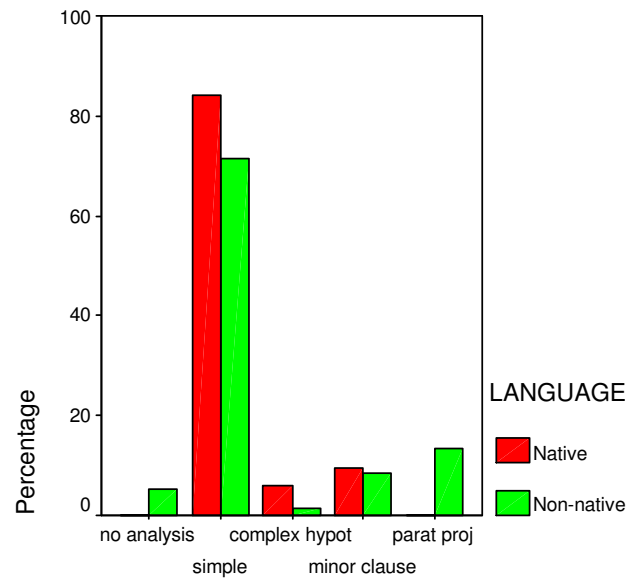


Fig. 62. Completion commands: Clause complexity

The tables and Figures above unveil that there is a prototypical surface structure to instantiate “*completion commands*” in the EFL classroom, regardless of the group of speakers: this is a simple, declarative, positive and non-modulated clause with some elliptical elements (examples 138 and 139).

Example 138 [session NkcE]

Words are made of? <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$

CH: ((Many)) Letters

TCH: Numbers are made of? <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$

CH: ((some)) Numbers

Example 139 [session NNcT3]

And this is a? <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$ (shows a picture)

CH: (Macarena) a jumper

TCH: It's a jumper, very good..

It is worth highlighting that “*completion commands*” are characterised by ellipsis in 100% of the cases in both groups of teachers and that a new type of ellipsis is met in data (Figure 58). Although ellipsis is an unmarkedly present-absent feature, its use has been further explored in the present work and explained in section 5.2.2. in Chapter 5 above. More specifically, I have labelled “ellipsis” those instances where a whole constituent is omitted (examples 138 and 139 above) and “partial ellipsis” those where only a part of the constituent is missing or where even part of a word is provided to guide the foreign learner (examples 140 and 141 below).

Example 140 [session NNcN2]

CHI: [house]

GUI: Christmas

TCH: A Christmaaasss ((rising intonation)) <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-RcEE\$

GUI: tree [Christmas]

LAU: [Christmas tree]

TCH: Christmas tree, very good this is a Christmas tree

Example 141 [session NNcT3]

TCH: It's a ssss-<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcEE\$...

CH: (Laura) Skirt.

TCH: It's a skirt.. Very good.

Both quantitative and qualitative differences emerge across speakers. Non-native teachers' discourse provides us with a wider range of clause types displayed: while 57.5% of “*completion commands*” are embodied in declaratives, the rest is instantiated through imperatives, interrogatives or absolute noun groups with the illocutionary effect of requesting completion (table 14 and Figure 57, example 142). It is important to mention that imperatives are exclusive to non-native teachers, who resort to more direct strategies to request completions in 18.7% of their instances. Their use of imperative clauses accounts for their use of paratactic projected clauses (Figure 62, example 143).

Example 142 [session NNncN1]

TCH: *purple... what?* <DC-l-cm>\$C-INT-wh-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

CHI: purple window

Example 143 [session NNncS1]

OK Tell me... He is.. <DC-l-cm>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc_parat.proj.cl_D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$

CH: Angry.

Additionally, the data reveal that “partial ellipsis” is more frequent in non-native teachers’ than in native teachers’ discourse (45% vs. 35%, Figure 58). I would argue that “partial ellipsis” is a strategy that provides learners with further information than just the gap to be fulfilled, and hence contributes to make the teachers’ discourse more explicit. This finding is highlighted by the lack of modality in non-native teachers’ talk, and the recurrence of paratactic clauses when departing from the “simple clause” prototype (Figures 61-62). Furthermore, it is worth noting that utterances in Spanish are exclusive to non-native teachers, another strategy that leads children to the correct answer in the foreign language. On the contrary, native teachers, further elaborate their “*completion commands*” by resorting to total ellipsis and hypotactic clauses (Figures 58, 62).

(iv) *Repetition command (Dc-l-re)*

a) Discourse-semantic description

While the fourth linguistic command, “*repetition command*”, shares the *negotiate>exchange>demand>goods and services>addressee orientation>neutral* variables with the other three linguistic commands, it does not occur in a purely initiating move but within a tracking move and therefore results from a different combination of discursive variables *>neutral>tracking>explore* (cf. Figure 42a).

Taking into account that “information” constitutes a piece of “goods and services” in the EFL classroom, “*repetition commands*” embrace those instances where the child is asked to repeat some information s/he has already uttered because the teacher has not heard, or so that other children could hear the same word/expression again. Discursively, the teacher’s utterance does not properly initiate an exchange but tracks onto a previous utterance in order to explore what the child has already produced, which accounts for the

variables “*tracking move>explore*”. In my view, the ultimate aim of the teacher’s utterance is not to obtain some information but urge the child to repeat some words, and is thus regarded as a type of linguistic command. Similarly, Llinares-García (2002:224) also includes in her taxonomy *demanding repetitions*, *demanding imitations* and *demanding completions* as regulatory functions with pedagogic purposes as they contribute to reinforce the children’s input in the former or output in the latter.

Example 143 [session NNncS1]

CHI: Big one.

CHI: Orange.

TCH: *What colour is it? <DC-l-re>*

CHI: Orange.

CHI: Orange

TCH: Orange

Example 144 [session NmI1]

CH: Is a dangerous?

TCH: <L1 A ver, Miriam L1>

Ask again<DC-l-re>.

Very clearly. Is it dangerous?

CH: Is it dangerous?

b) Function-form Relationship and comparison across speakers

Tsui (1992:109) claims that there are subcategories of elicitation which are metadiscoursal, i.e. they refer to the discourse itself. The “*elicit: repeat*” is the elicitation that prospects a repetition of the utterance preceding the elicitation and is normally realised by wh-interrogatives, “say that again” or words such as “sorry?”, “pardon?”. The various linguistic realisations that instantiate “*repetition commands*” in the *corpus* are summarised in tables 15 and 16 and displayed in Figures 63-69 below.

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Repetition commands (DC-l-re) Native teachers</i>	Wh-interrogative	8	26.7
	Imperative	7	23.3
	Minor clause	7	23.3
	Yes-no interrogative	5	16.7
	Declarative	3	10
<i>Total</i>		30	100%

Table 15: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Repetition commands. Native teachers.

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Repetition commands (DC-l-re) Non-native teachers</i>	Wh-interrogative	28	62.2
	Imperative	7	23.3
	Yes-no interrogative	4	8.9
	Declarative	4	8.9
	Absolute noun group	4	8.9
	Imperative	2	4.4
	Minor clause	2	4.4
	No analysis (Spanish)	1	2.2
Total		45	100%

Table 16: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Repetition commands. Non-native teachers.

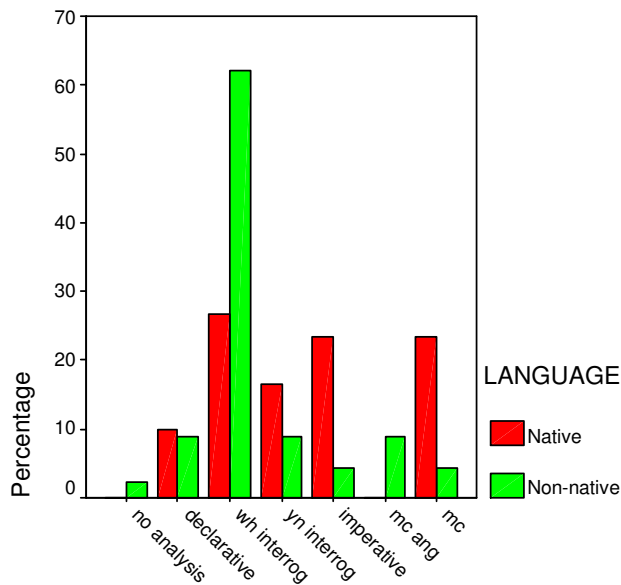


Fig. 63. Repetition commands (n=30 in NSs and n=45 in NNSs): Clause type

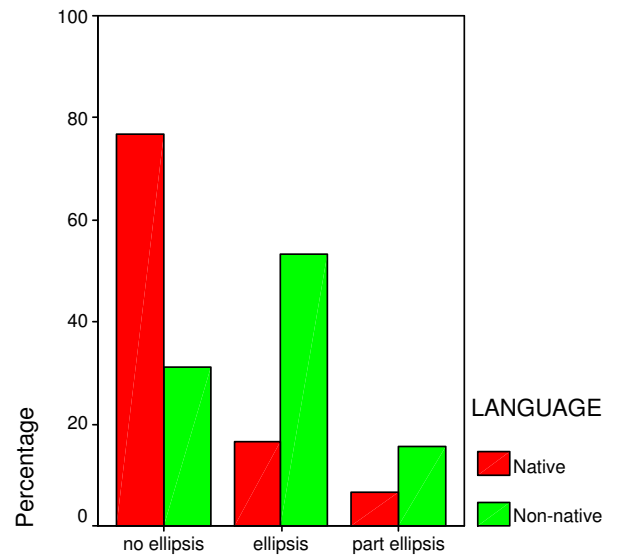


Fig. 64. Repetition commands: Ellipsis

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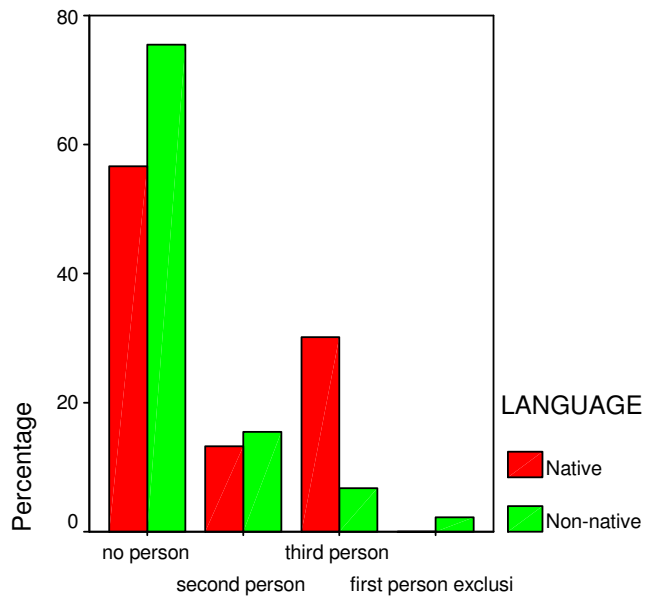


Fig. 65. Repetition commands: Person

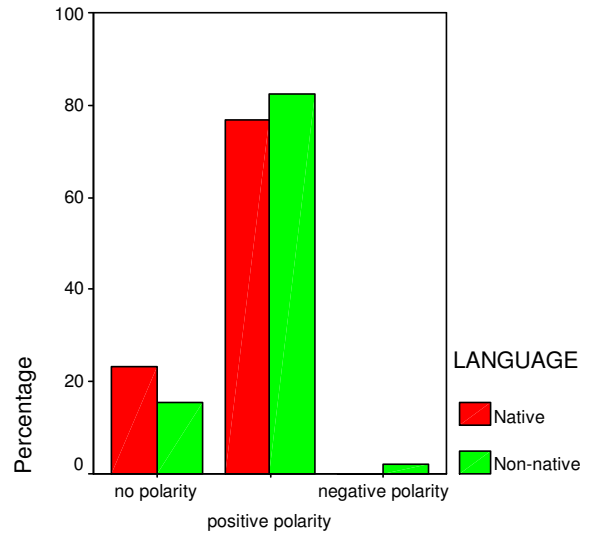


Fig. 66. Repetition commands: polarity

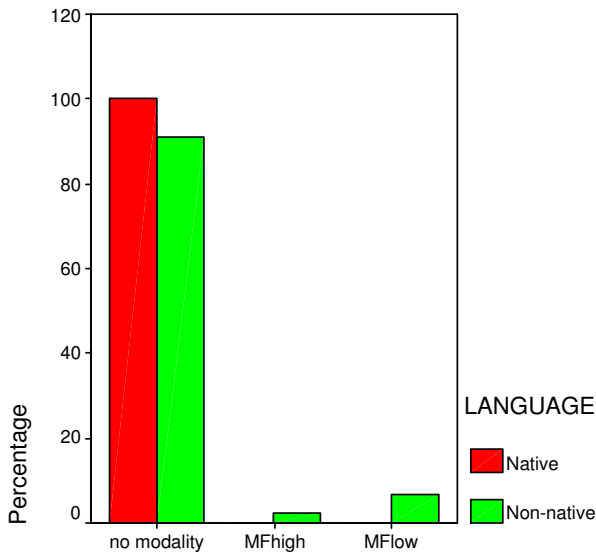


Fig. 67. Repetition commands: Modality

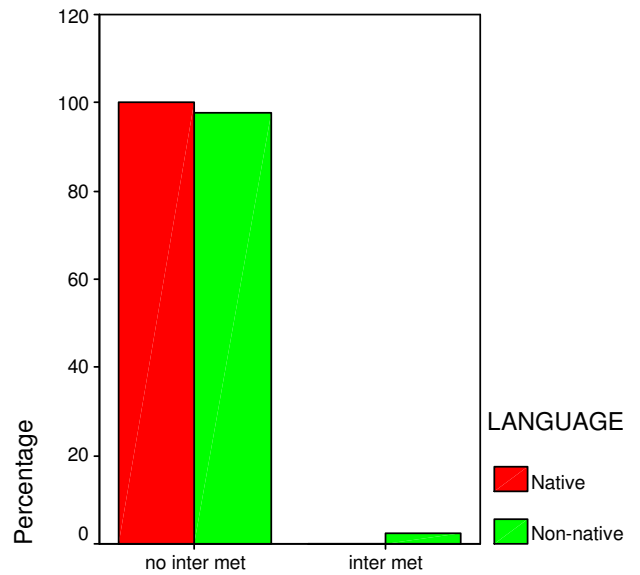


Fig. 68. Repetition commands: Interpersonal metaphor

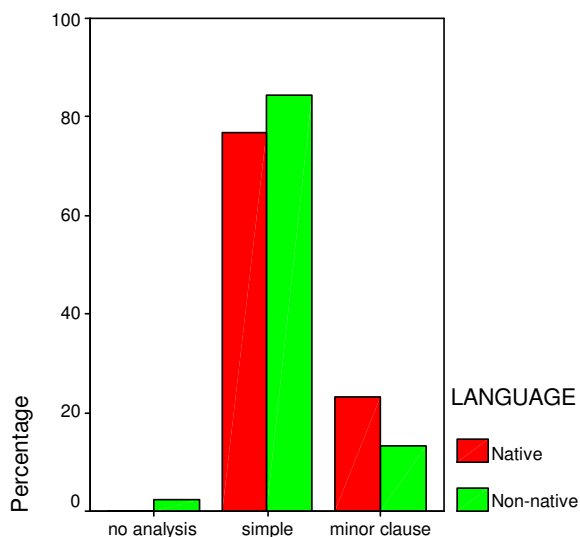


Fig. 69. Repetition commands: Clause complex patterns

In both groups of teachers, “*repetition commands*” are generally instantiated through simple, positive, wh-interrogative clauses, whose subject is either a third singular person or omitted, and are rarely modulated as in the examples below.

Example 145 [session NNncS1]

VICTOR: Big one.

CHI: Orange.

TCH: *What colour is it?* <DC-l-re><p>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CHI: Orange.

Example 146 [session NmI3]

Claudia: Turn around again.

TCH: *What did Claudia say?* <DC-l-re><p>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fps-S3-Rp\$

CH: Turn it around again.

TCH: Turn it around again

“*Repetition commands*” may well be the regulatory function where more differences across speakers arise. On the one hand, native teachers employ the various clausal patterns in a quasi homogeneous way: they produce an even amount of wh- and yes-no questions, imperatives, declaratives and minor clauses, exemplified below (table 15 and Figure 63). Consequently, the subject choice is varied: no person in imperatives or minor clauses, second singular person in questions and third singular person in declaratives (Figure 65). However, so as to render their message explicit, native teachers resort to simple or minor clauses and only display ellipsis in 20% of the data through the omission

of the predicator in imperative clauses (cf. Figures 69 and 64, respectively and examples below).

Example 147 [session Nm11]

Table one

CH: Cocodrile!

TCH: Luis..

Say it again<DC-l-re><p>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Adj\$

CH: Cocodrile!

Example 148 [session NkcE]

what could you do if you had a stomach ache?

CH: (Virginia) <x__x>

TCH: *Sorry?* <DC-l-re><i>\$MC\$

CH: (Virginia) Do eat fruit.

TCH: *Do what?* <DC-l-re><i>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-SE-FE-Rp\$

CH: (Virginia) Do eat fruit.

Example 149 [session NkcE]

TCH: So I.. ((rising intonation))

CH: Was away.

TCH: *Sorry?* <DC-l-re><i>\$MC\$

CH: Was away

Example 150 [session NkcE]

what was that one?

CH: (Ignacio García) <x__x> ((cannot be heard))

TCH: *Again*<DC-l-re><i>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Adj\$

CH: (Ignacio García) We

On the other hand, while the range of lexicogrammatical surface structures displayed in non-native teachers' discourse is wider than native teachers' (table 16 above), non-native teachers seem to resort to the prototypical realisation most of the times. In fact, the wh-interrogative instantiates "*repetition commands*" in 62.2% of the data and the display of other lexicogrammatical structures remains occasional (Figure 63, example 151). It can be argued that the wider the variety of patterns displayed, the bigger the children's effort to understand the instantiation of a regulatory function. This might be the reason for non-native teachers to keep their discourse unchanging through the display of repetitive clause-types, which helps young learners to recognise a message. Besides, non-native teachers often display brief and direct messages through the omission of given elements in a clause such as the subject and predicator. In fact, in more than 70% of their

repetition commands, they only produce the main focus of attention (Figure 64, example 152).

Example 151 [session NNncS2]

DAV: Take plasticine... <L1 azul L1> ((also with his hand on his lips)) { Plasticine ball blue }

TCH: *What do you say?*<DC-l-re><p>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-S2-Rp\$

CH ... take a ... {{ Plasticine ... blue .. ball ... }}

Example 152 [session NNncS3]

TCH: Sit properly

RAQ: Have you got the school bag?

TCH: *What?* <DC-l-re><p>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-SFE-RpE\$

RAQ: The school bag

TCH: *Can you repeat please?* <DC-l-re><p>\$C-INT-yn-p-MFlp-inc-MA\$

RAQ: Have you got the school bag?

6.2.2.3.Prompts

According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975:40), prompts are utterances that reinforce a directive or elicitation by suggesting that the teacher is no longer requesting a response but expecting and even demanding one. Prompts are within the *Regulatory Functions System Network* those functions that result from the same semantic choices as commands: *demand goods and services*, orient the message towards the *addressee* (straightforwardly asked to say/do something) and *neutral in desirability* since it may either encourage the child or, on the contrary, put some pressure on him/her (Figure 42b).

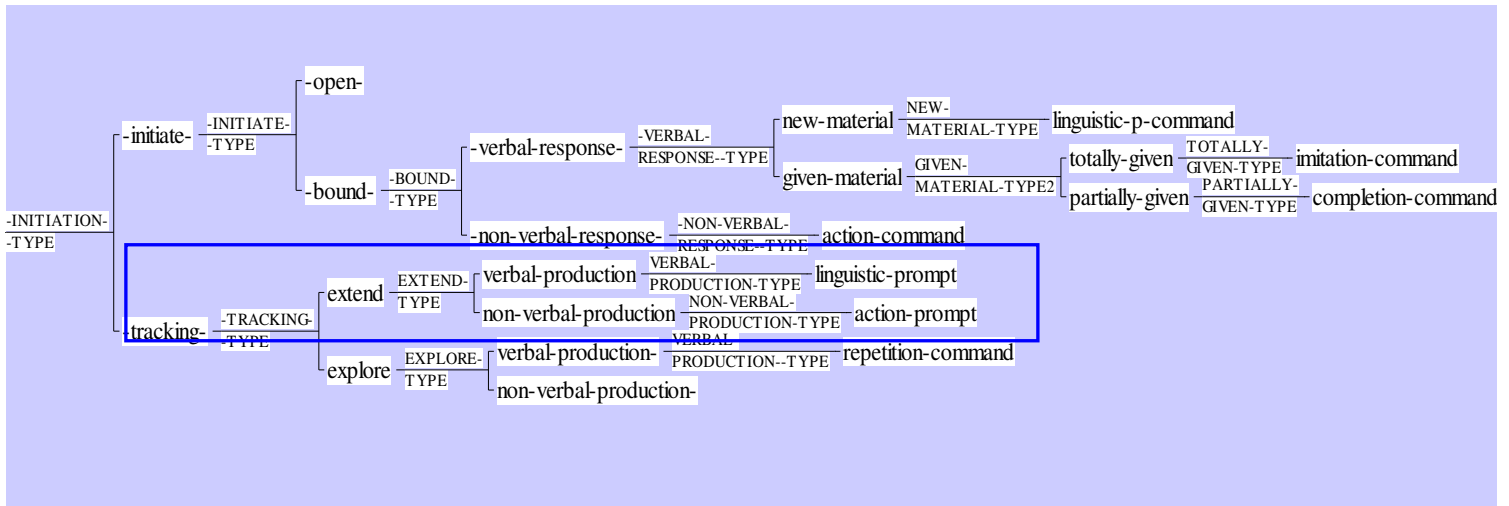


Fig. 42b. *Regulatory Functions System Network: Tracking moves.*

However, prompts discursively differ from commands (Figure 42b above). What Sinclair and Coulthard (1975:19) defined as “reinforcement” of directives or elicitations emerges in the *Regulatory Functions System Network* as the tracking move of an initiation command. Prompts extend the meaning of a command and its illocutionary force, may either precede or follow it and are often accompanied by the function “*call of attention: selection*”. It can then be argued that *prompts* are to *commands* what *explicatives* are to *instructions/informatives*, the former being non-interpretable without the existence of the later:

“the general point is that the kind of tracking possible depends on the structure of the move that is being tracking (typically the immediately preceding one). Tracking options in other words depend on the point reached in the sequential unfolding of the moves in the exchange; they are not sensitive to exchange classes *per se*” (Martin 1992: 68).

Bearing in mind that prompts are here regarded as extensions of commands and that commands are of two main types –those expecting a verbal response (linguistic commands) and those expecting a non-verbal response (action commands)- it thus follows that prompts can further be subdivided into two types: “*action prompts*” (when the goods exchanged are actions) and “*linguistic prompts*” (when the goods exchanged are language).

6.2.2.3.1. *Action prompts (DPR-a)*

a) *Discourse-semantic description*

They are utterances which either precede or follow commands of action in order to reinforce their illocutionary meaning and result from the following variables: *Negotiate*> *Exchange*> *Demand*> *Goods and Services*>*Addressee oriented*> *Neutral Desirability*> *Initiation*> *Tracking*> *Extend*>*Action* (see examples below).

Example 153 [session NskJ]

CH: ((many)) <L1 Naranja L1>

TCH: mmm.. An orange!

Come on! <DPR-a>

Draw an orange!

CH: <L1 Primer! Primer! L1>

CH: <L1 yoo, yooo L1>

Example 154 [session NNncS1]:

CH: # Daniel,

sit down there, please.

There...Come on<DPR-a>.

b) Function-form Relationship and comparison across speakers

According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975:40), prompts are conveyed through utterances such as “come on”, “quickly” or “go on”. Tables 17 and 18 summarise the range of lexicogrammatical surface structures instantiating “action prompts” in native and non-native teachers’ discourse respectively. Besides, Figures 70-75 further depict several lexicogrammatical features inherent to the linguistic realisation of prompts in the EFL classrooms of this *corpus*.

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Action prompts (DPR-a) Native teachers</i>	Imperative	22	76.9
	Exclamative	2	6.9
	Yes-no interrogative	2	6.9
	Declarative	2	6.9
	No analysis (Spanish)	1	3.4
Total		29	100%

Table 17: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Action prompts. Native teachers.

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Action prompts (DPR-a) Non-native teachers</i>	Imperative	32	71.1
	No analysis (Spanish)	12	26.7
	Yes-no interrogative	1	2.2
Total		45	100%

Table 18: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Action prompts. Non-native teachers.

6. The Regulatory Functions System Network:
Definition and validation of the proposed taxonomy

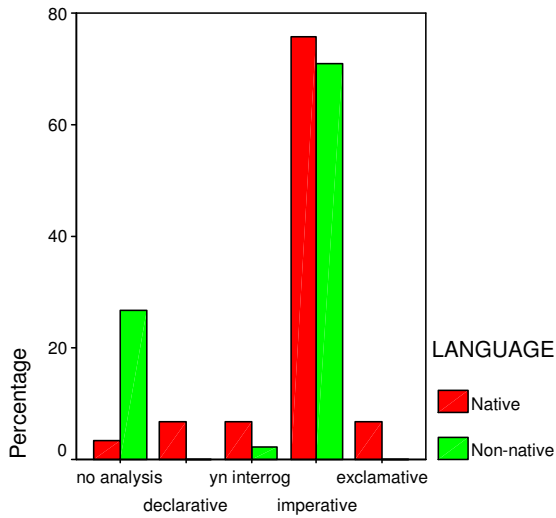


Fig. 70. Action prompt: Clause type
(n=29 in NSs; n=45 in NNSs)

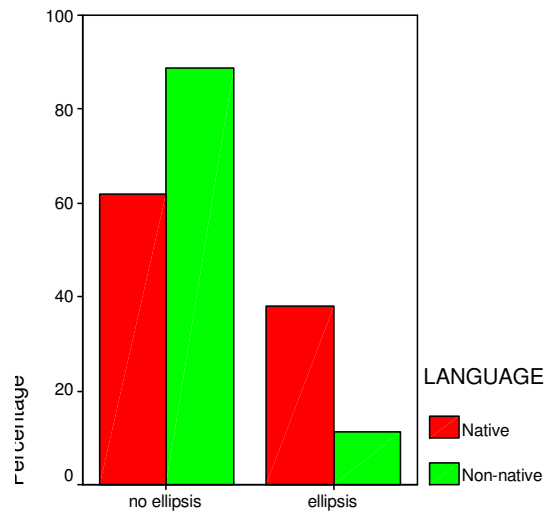


Fig. 71. Action prompt: ellipsis

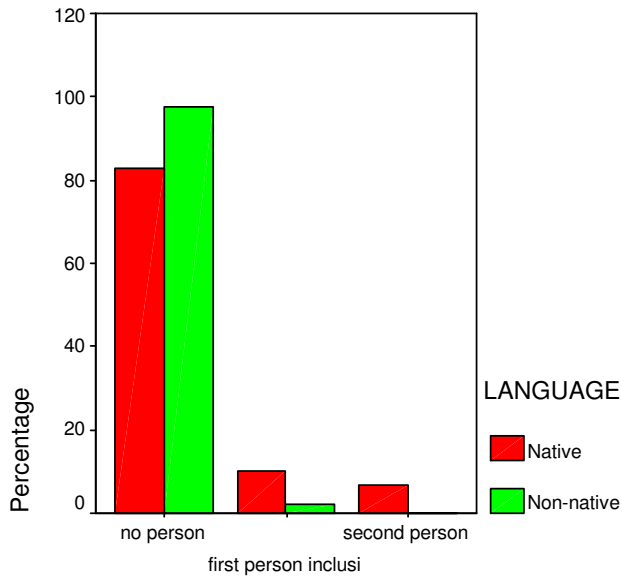


Fig. 72. Action prompt: person

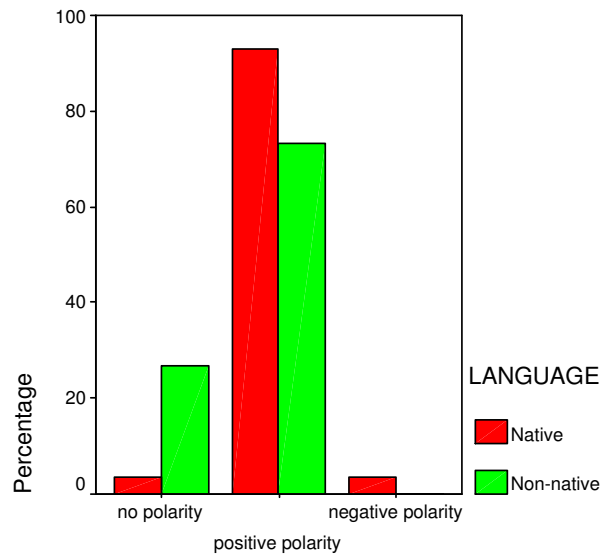


Fig. 73. Action prompt: polarity

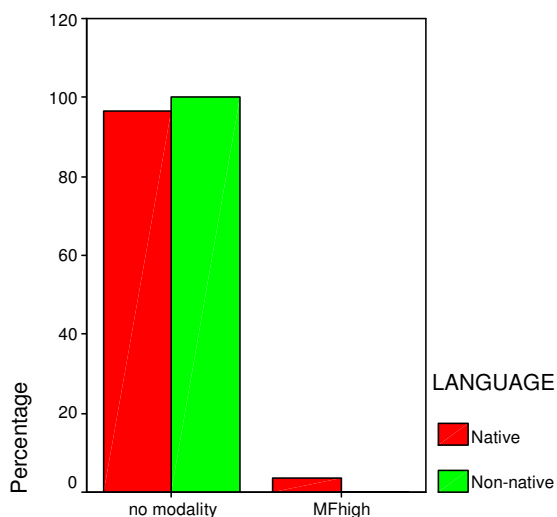


Fig. 74. Action prompt: modality type

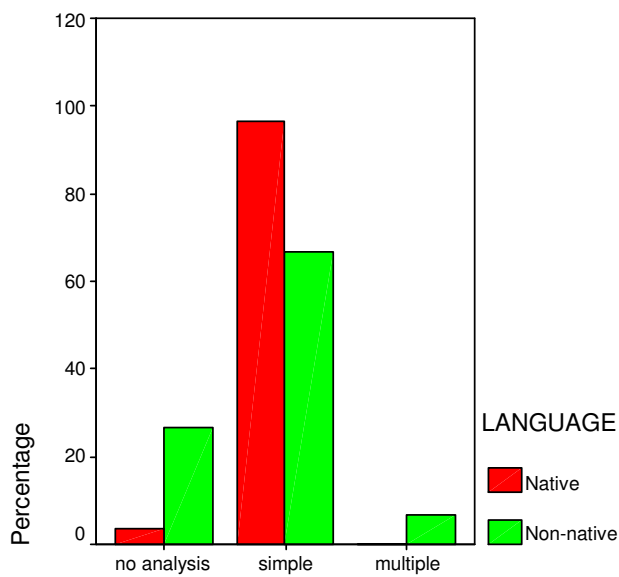


Fig. 75. Action prompt: clause complex

Common to both groups of speakers, the linguistic instantiation of “*Action prompts*” is generally a simple, non-modulated and positive imperative clause whose subject is omitted; an unmarked realisation in more than 70% of the cases (tables 17 and 18) that is illustrated by examples 155 and 156 below.

Example 155 [session NrK]

TCH: Sit .. down

Right.

Come on then<DPR-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Adj\$

people

Please hurry up<DPR-a>\$C-IM-MA-p-Rp-Adj\$ ((to children coming into the class)).

Example 156 [session NskJ]

An orange!

Come on! <DPR-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Adj\$

Draw an orange!

Despite the recurrent use of closed class items such as “*come on*” or “*hurry up*” in both groups of teachers, quantitative and qualitative differences obtain across speakers. As displayed in table 17, native teachers deploy a vast array of clause types such as declaratives, interrogatives, exclamatives or even Spanish utterances (coded as “no

analysis”¹⁰²), which implies a wide range of subject choice (Figures 70 and 72). Unlike other regulatory functions in the native teachers’ *corpus*, “*action prompts*” display ellipsis in 40% of their cases (i.e. omission of predicators in imperatives) so as to achieve directness (Figure 71, example 158).

Example 157 [session NrC2]

Christopher,
Finlay
put your aprons on ..
One, two<DPR-a>\$NMS\$
Stelvio

Example 158 [session NskJ]

and.. María,
give me the papers..
All of them..
CH: <x__x>
TCH: Yes, all of them....
Quickly! <DPR-a>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$
Come on! <DPR-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
Quickly! <DPR-a><r>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$

In turn, non-native teachers embody their *action prompts* in imperative structures in 71.1% of the cases, in no mood structures in 26.7% of the cases (coded as “no analysis” in Figure 70) or in interrogative structures in 2.2% of the cases (table 18 and Figure 70, examples 159-160). Furthermore, “no mood structures” (26.7%) reveals a recurrent use of Spanish, the children’s L1, to guarantee immediate understanding (example 161). Besides, and as example 162 illustrates, non-native teachers convey the urgency of the message through multiple elliptical imperative clauses (e.g. “quick”) that signal that the answer is no longer waited but demanded (Figure 75).

Example 159 [session NNncN3]

TCH: Sh
Listen again
Ready? Steady? Go<DPR-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$ ((*she plays the tape*))
TAPE: Yellow lorry, red lorry.

Example 160 [session NNncN2]

...everybody
so one two three! <DPR-a>\$NMS\$

¹⁰² It should be borne in mind that utterances produced in Spanish have been coded as “no analysis” (Figure 70, in this case) since their mood structure has not been analysed, which will be referred to as “no mood structure”.

Oh! I can't hear anything!!
you sing [[we wish you a Merry Christmas]]

Example 161 [session NNcT3]

<L1 Venga L1><DPR-a>

Lola

Write your name- your name- .. your name

Example 162 [session NNcN2]

And you Alejandro

Quick\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$ *quick*\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$ *quick*\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$ *quick*\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$ *quick*\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$ *quick*\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$, *quick*<DPR-a>\$C'-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$

Despite the distinct lexicogrammatical realisations native and non-native teachers display, a common motivation underlies their choices to instantiate “*action prompts*”: the sake of compactness and brevity of an urgent message.

6.2.2.3.2. *Linguistic prompts (DPR-l)*

a) *Discourse-semantic description*

Linguistic prompts are utterances that encourage linguistic responses in the EFL classroom and that either precede or follow linguistic commands in order to reinforce their illocutionary meaning. Therefore, they result from the following variables in the *Regulatory Functions System Network*: *Negotiate*> *Exchange*> *Demand*> *Goods and Services*>*Addressee oriented*> *Neutral Desirability*> *Initiation*> *Tracking*> *Extend*>*Linguistic production* (Figure 42b above).

Example 163 [session NkcE]

TCH: Say the word “red” together. All of you together..

Now<DPR-l>

CH: ((León, Celia and Juan)) Red

[...]

TCH: Red all together.

One.. two.. three.. <DPR-l>

CH: ((León, Celia and Juan)) Red

[...]

CH: (Fernando) I play with -

TCH: He wasn't listening.. Look

CH: (Fernando) Yes

TCH: Oh! Thank you, yes, right.

Carry on.. <DPR-l>

CH: (Fernando) I play with Miguel

TCH: I play with Miguel ((Slowly)) .. you play with Miguel every day?

b) Function-form Relationship and comparison across speakers

In the variables describing the regulatory functions in the *RFSN*, “*action prompts*” and “*linguistic prompts*” just differ in the expected response (i.e. non-verbal vs. verbal, respectively). Tables 19 and 20 and Figures 76-81 below unveil whether “*linguistic prompts*” echo the lexicogrammatical realisation of “*action prompts*” in the *EFL corpus*.

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Linguistic prompts (DPR-l)</i> <i>Native teachers</i>	Wh-interrogative	7	25.9
	Imperative	6	22.9
	Minor clause (e.g. one, two...)	5	18.5
	Declarative	4	14.8
	Textual adjunct	4	14.8
	Yes-no interrogative	1	3.7
Total		27	100%

Table 19: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Linguistic prompts. Native teachers.

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Linguistic prompts (DPR-l)</i> <i>Non-native teachers</i>	Imperative	40	63.5
	Wh-interrogative	10	15.9
	Textual adjunct	9	14.3
	Yes-no interrogative	3	4.8
	Exclamative	1	1.6
Total		63	100%

Table 20: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Linguistic prompts. Non-native teachers.

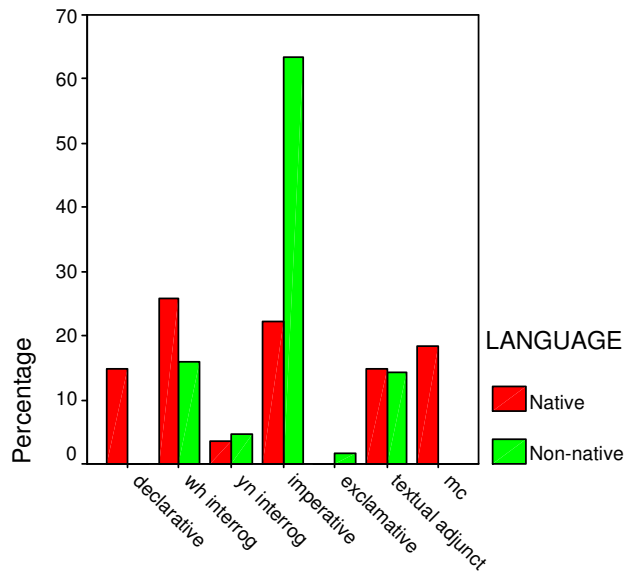


Fig. 76. Linguistic prompt: clause type
 (n=27 in NSs; n= 63 in NNSs)

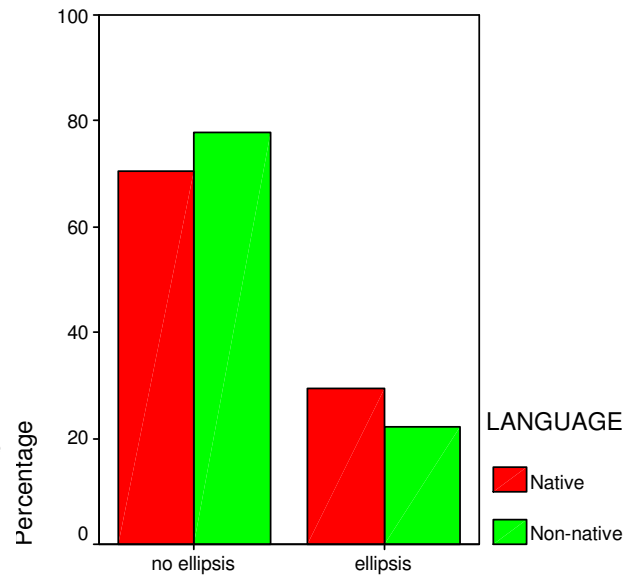


Fig. 77. Linguistic prompt: ellipsis

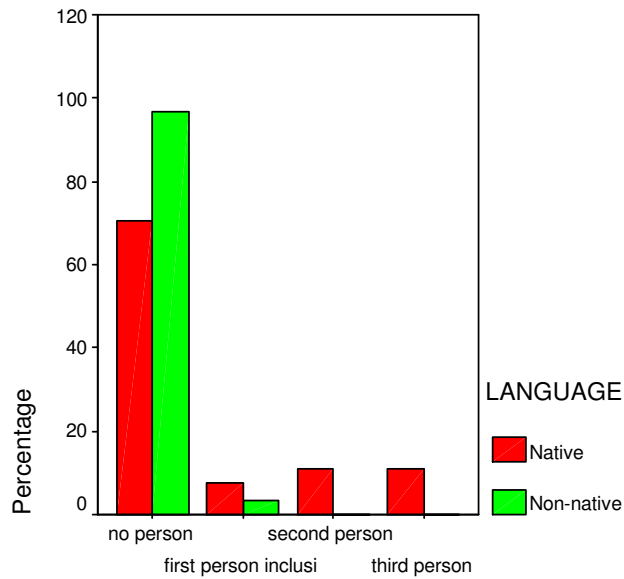


Fig. 78. Linguistic prompt: person

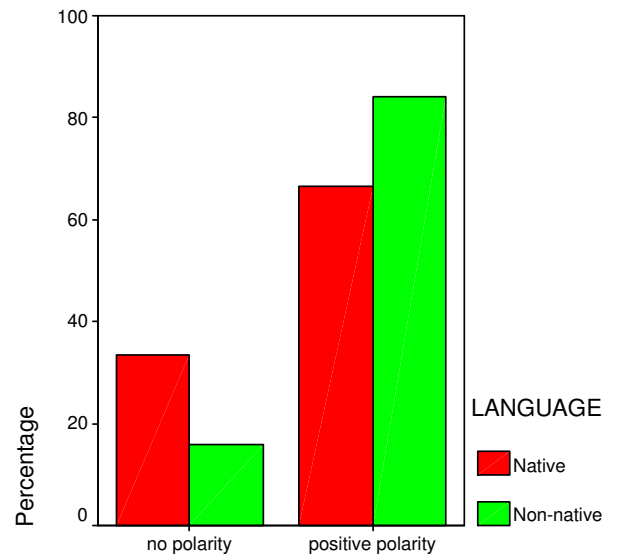


Fig. 79. Linguistic prompt: polarity

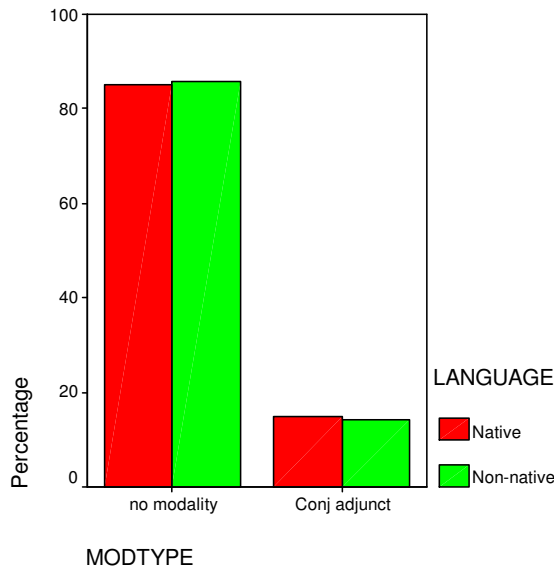


Fig. 80. Linguistic prompt: modality

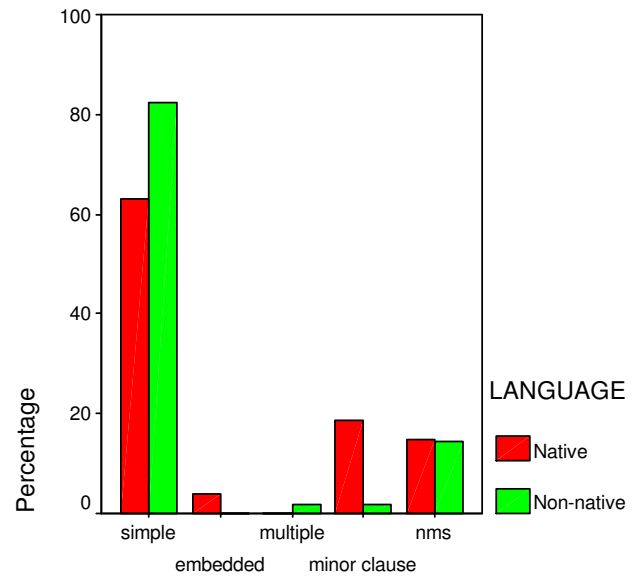


Fig. 81. Linguistic prompt: clause complex

The data reveal that “*linguistic prompts*” in both groups of teachers are lexicogrammatically realised through simple, non-modulated and positive clauses with an unmarked non-display of explicit subjects (coded as “no person”), (Figures 76-81). It should be borne in mind that the category “no person” includes those utterances where the subject is ellipsed as in an interrogative (e.g. “what else?”) or where no subject is displayed due to the clausal pattern as in imperatives (e.g. “come on!”) and those minor clauses with no mood structure (e.g. “one, two...”). Additionally, though not predominant, the use of textual adjuncts in order to trigger the child’s linguistic production is common to both groups of teachers in almost 15% of the cases, a lexicogrammatical realisation specific to this regulatory function (tables 19 and 20, example 164). Along with this, their display of moodless structures such as textual adjuncts and minor clauses accounts for no-polarity expressed in 30% of the data approximately (Figure 79).

Example 164 [session NNncS3]
TCH: Did ...Did I say essschoolbag?
CH: sssschoolbag
TCH: School bag. And... <DPR-l>\$CA\$
CH: {Foot}
CH: {Foot}
TCH: And.. <DPR-l>\$CA\$
CH: ((all together)) Pencil
CH: Pencil

However, Figures 76-81 disclose significant differences across speakers. Native teachers' discourse offers a wide range of distinct surface structures to instantiate "*linguistic prompts*" (tables 19 vs. 20). While wh-interrogatives prevail, imperatives, declaratives, minor clauses and textual adjuncts coexist (note the homogeneous distribution of percentages in table 19 and Figure 76 and examples below). This may account for the display of (i) distinct clause complex patterns -embedded clauses, minor clauses and no mood structure phrases- and (ii) distinct subjects: first, second and third singular persons together with "no person" in imperatives, minor clauses and no mood structures (Figures 81 and 78 respectively).

Example 165 [session NrK]

But what animals can you see?

Alejandra: a lion

TCH: *What else? <DPR-l>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-SFE-RpE\$*

Lupi: an elephant, a tiger, a zebra

Example 166 [session NkcE]

Say the word "red" together

All of you together

Now<DPR-l>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$

Example 167 [session NmI3]

TCH: What's this here? ..

You all know [[what this is]]<DPR-l>\$C-INT.MET-D-S2-p-Fp-Rp-Rc_emb.cl\$

It may be argued that the non function-form correspondence, the scarce use of ellipsis, and the occasional display of embedded clause patterns, all contribute to elaborate a message that seeks the child's linguistic production (Figure 81).

As far as non-native teachers are concerned, their "*linguistic prompts*" are mainly realised by imperative clauses in more than 63.5% of the cases, which together with interrogatives and textual adjuncts result in a non-display of explicit subjects in 95% of the cases (Figures 76, 78). Simplicity and directness are achieved in non-native teachers' discourse through fewer surface structures and the avoidance of clause complexity: their *linguistic prompts* are embodied by simple clauses in 80% of the cases, which coexist with no mood structure phrases such as adjuncts (table 20 and Figure 81, examples 168-170). Echoing the findings obtained in "*action prompts*", ellipsis is reduced to 20% of the

instances, which hints at the desire of making prompts as explicit as possible¹⁰³ (Figure 77).

Example 168 [session NNncS3]

Come on<DPR-l>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

So you tell David is (rising intonation) ((she makes gestures as if she were cold))

DAV: Cold

Example 169 [session NNncS1]

..David

it's a sunny day

CHI: It's a sunny day.

TCH: Yes,

what else?<DPR-l>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-SFE-RpE\$

FER: <x Windy day x>

Example 170 [session NNncS1]

TCH: Come on<DPR-l>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

tell me<DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$

RAQUEL: Happy.

CHI: Happy

TCH: Yes.

And? <DPR-l>\$CA\$

FER: Scared.

CHI: Surprised.

6.2.2.4. *Prohibitions*

Prohibitions emerge as the counterpart of *commands* since their unique differentiating feature lies in their degree of desirability, embodied in polarity. Prohibitions thus result from the following variables in the *Regulatory Functions System Network*: *negotiate, exchange>demand> goods and services> addressee orientation > non-desirable > initiate> bound to a response* (Figure 82 below).

¹⁰³ Indeed, this may be reinforced by the instances where multiple clauses occur (Figure 81).

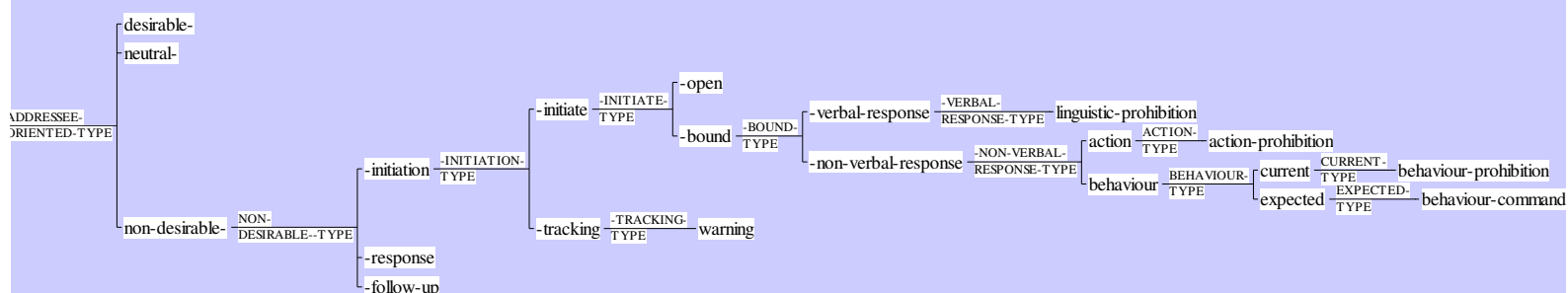


Fig. 82. *Regulatory Functions System Network: Prohibitions*

“Demanding goods and services” also comprises those regulatory functions whose message is non-desirable to the addressee since they prevent the child from carrying out an action s/he was already doing or up to do at the moment of speaking. Figure 82 above depicts that prohibitions result from the semantic choices of demanding goods and services (in this case, *not* to do something), addressing the child as the potential *doer* of the forbidden activity (cf. Ervin-Tripp 1982), therefore non-desirable to the child, and discursively occurring at the initiation move which is bound to an immediate response.

As with commands, prohibitions can be further developed as a category according to the type of response expected. Throughout the present work, I have maintained that the “goods and services” exchanged in the EFL classroom may be understood as (i) an “action” as in *action commands/prohibitions*; and as (ii) “linguistic production in L2” as in *linguistic commands/prohibitions*. Besides, “behaviour” appears to me a third type of “goods and services” exchanged in the classroom as in *behaviour commands/prohibitions* (cf. sections below). As a matter of fact, the regulatory functions instantiated by the teacher may influence the child’s ulterior actions, his/her linguistic production, and/or behaviour in the classroom.

6.2.2.4.1. Action prohibitions (DP-a)

a) Discourse-semantic description

“Action prohibitions” refer to those instances whereby the child is forbidden to carry out a non-verbal action and result from the following variables in the proposed RFSN: *negotiate*> *exchange*> *demand*> *goods and services*> *addressee orientation*> *non-desirable* > *initiation*> *initiate*>*bound to a non-verbal response: action* (examples below).

Example 171 [session NskJ]

TCH: Eh,.. no no no, Christian..

You don't colour them green<DP-a> .

You don't colour them<DP-a>

Example 172 [session NNncS2]

Now we'll see this ((rearranging the right queue))

can't show this<DP-a> ((to the one on the left)) ((organising the two queues))

Can't show this<DP-a>.

b) Function-form Relationship and comparison across speakers

This section reveals whether “action prohibitions” formally diverge from their counterpart, namely “action commands”. The major clausal patterns are summarised and ranked in tables 21 and 22 and further lexicogrammatical features are explored and illustrated in Figures 83-89 below.

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Action prohibitions (DP-a)</i> <i>Native teachers</i>	Imperative	28	65.1
	Declarative	11	25.6
	No Analysis (Spanish)	2	4.7
	Wh-interrogative	1	2.3
	Absolute Noun Group	1	2.3
Total		43	100%

Table 21: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Action prohibitions. Native teachers.

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Action prohibitions (DP-a)</i>	Imperative	41	89.1
	Declarative	4	8.7
<i>Non-native teachers</i>	Exclamative	1	2.2
Total		46	100%

Table 22: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Action prohibitions. Non-native teachers.

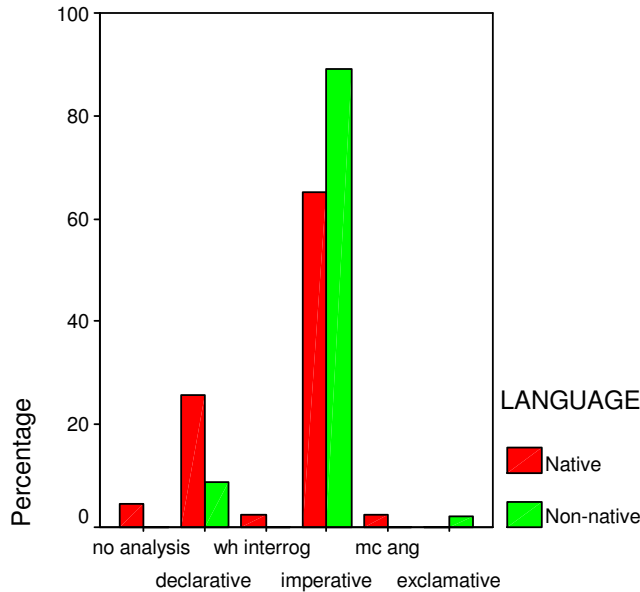


Fig. 83. Action prohibition: Clause type ($n=43$ in NSs; $n=46$ in NNSs)

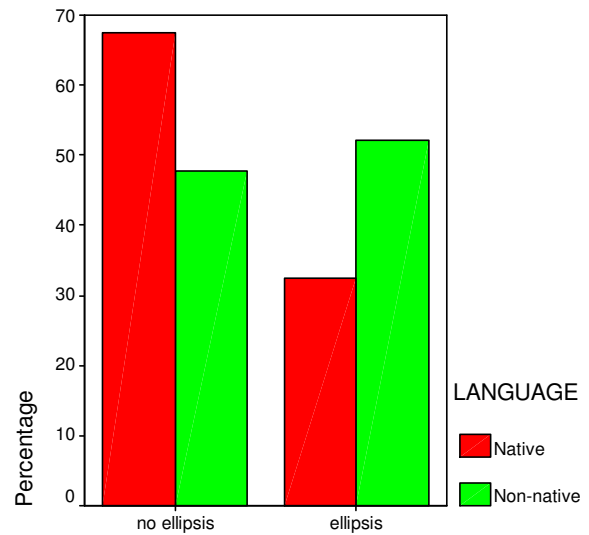


Fig. 84. Action prohibition: Ellipsis

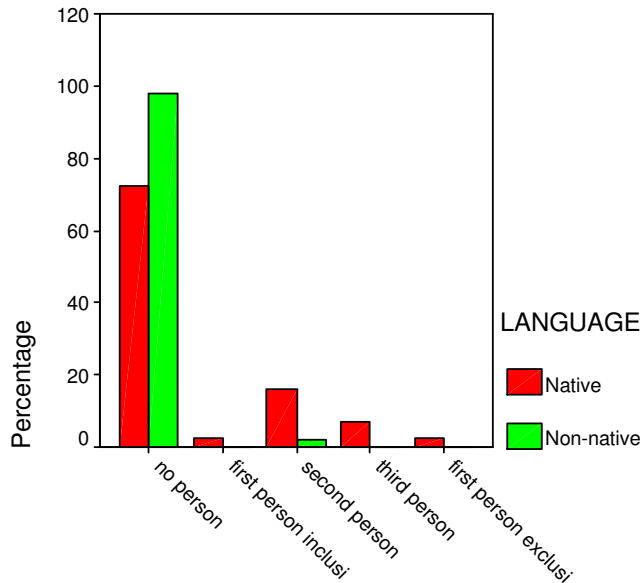


Fig. 85. Action prohibition: Person

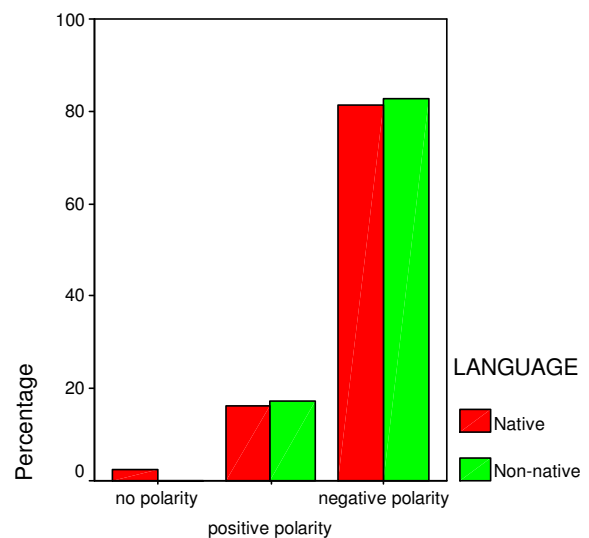


Fig. 86. Action prohibition: Polarity

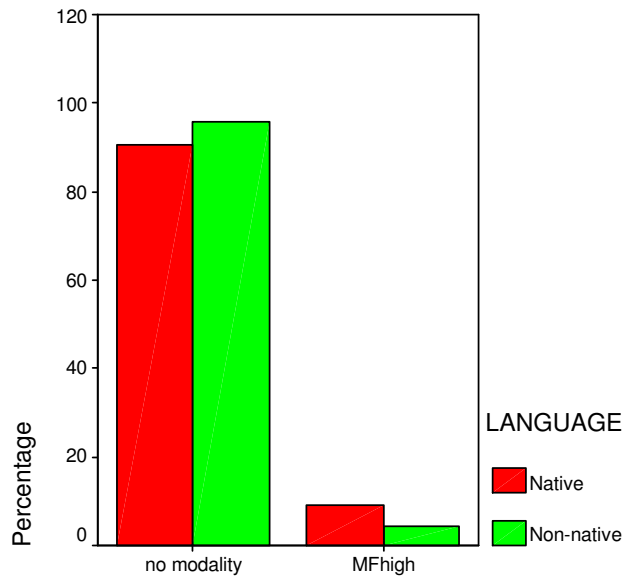


Fig. 87. Action prohibition: Modality type

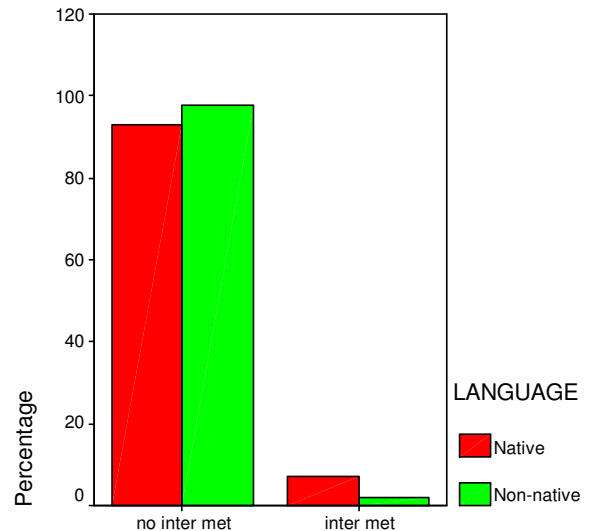


Fig. 88. Action prohibition: Interpersonal metaphor

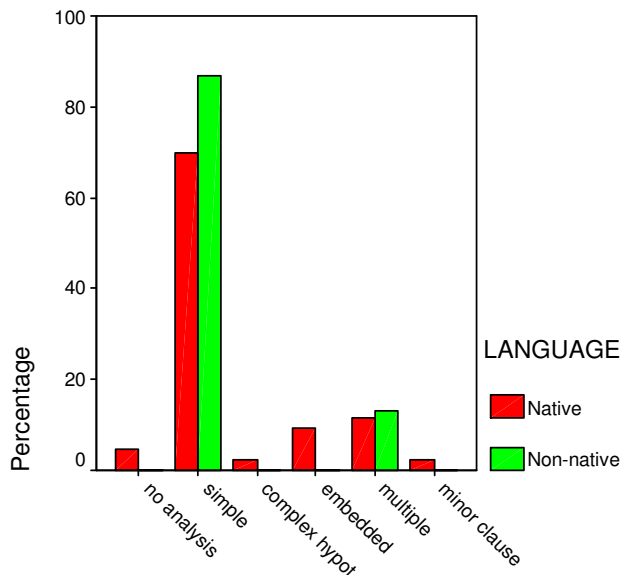


Fig. 89. Action prohibition: Clause complex

The prototypical lexicogrammatical realisation of “*action prohibitions*” depicted in the figures above is a simple, negative, imperative clause, which often lacks its subject and is rarely modulated, a choice common to both groups of teachers (examples below).

Example 173 [session NNcT1]

But use different colours

don't- don't- don't- don't colour them in red<DP-a>\$C-IM-n-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

Everything is red!

Use some other colours

Example 174 [session NkcE]

.. Could you point to the word again, please? .. Yeah..
But don't put it on top of it<DP-a>\$C-IM-Fn-Rp-Rc-Adj\$
... Right, now..

As it has been the case with other regulatory functions, there are both quantitative and qualitative differences between the native and non-native teachers' production of "action prohibitions". As displayed in table 21, native teachers exhibit a wide range of structures: imperatives, declaratives, interrogatives and minor clauses (Figures 83, 89). This implies a varied display of subject choice, the use of high modal finite operators (coded as MFhigh in Figure 87) to convey a high degree of obligation and the use of interpersonal metaphor with positive polarity, which may require a greater effort to interpret the illocutionary effect of the utterance (Figures 85, 87 and 88 respectively, examples below).

Example 175 [session NmI2]

You <x can't x> go to the bathroom<DP-a>\$C-D-S2-MFhn-obl-Rp-Radj\$
.. Carlos

Example 176 [session NrC1]

Ah ah
why are you all coming to me? <DP-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-p-Fp-S2-Rp-Radj\$
Have you finished your work?

Example 177 [session NrC2]

Amelia
that's enough glue<DP-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-Rc\$
that's enough glue now<DP-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-Rc-Adj\$.

Furthermore, native teachers elaborate their utterances so as to be less direct and thus less face-threatening, which is evidenced in their complex clause patterns such as hypotactic and embedded clauses, and their scarce use of ellipsis in 30% of their "action prohibitions" (Figures 89 and 84 respectively, example 178).

Example 178 [session NrC2]

Stop [[what you're doing]] please<DP-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc_emb.cl_MA\$

On the contrary, non-native teachers repeatedly resort to the imperative clause type in almost 90% of their instances and scarcely display declaratives or exclamatives to convey "action prohibitions" (table 22 and Figure 83). This accounts for the little choice displayed in the subject feature, which is not produced in more than 95% of the cases

(Figure 85). Besides, clause complexity is avoided as *action prohibitions* are embodied in simple clauses in 90% of the instances and are occasionally instantiated through multiple clauses that concatenate negations (Figure 89, example 180).

Example 179 [session NNcT2]

TCH: Have you finished colouring?.. No..
then don't cut<DP-a>\$C-IM-n-Fp-Rp-RcE\$

Example 180 [session NNncS2]

And I need books books, books
Eh .. Pedro Manuel!
((to a child who tries to get the book)).
No\$C-IM-RpE-MA-pol-n\$, *no*\$C-IM-RpE-MA-pol-n\$, *no*<DP-a>\$C'-IM-RpE-MA-pol-n\$
David
Those books

It would be worth mentioning that directness is guaranteed through a limited use of modality (Figure 87), simple clauses and a wide use of ellipsis in more than 50% of their “action commands” (Figure 84). Although prohibitions are “non-desirable” in nature, they are occasionally displayed through positive polarity, which is slightly more frequent in non-native teachers’ discourse. However, this is not a covert use of an interpersonal metaphor but results from the combination of affirmative clauses containing a negative word (example 182).

Example 181 [session NNncS3]

((Miguel Angel stands up and stays in the middle of the classroom)).
No<DP-a>\$C-IM-RpE-MA-pol-n\$
there

Example 182 [session NNncS3]

Very good.
Stop<DP-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$
stop<DP-a><r>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$
Another one, for example

6.2.2.4.2. *Linguistic prohibitions (DP-l)*

a) *Discourse-semantic description*

Linguistic prohibitions refer to those instances whereby the child is forbidden to carry out a verbal action (examples below) and result from the following variables in the proposed *RFSN*: *negotiate, exchange> demand> goods and services> addressee*

orientation> *non-desirable* > *initiation*> *initiate*> *bound to a verbal response*. *Linguistic prohibitions* seem to be specific to the language classroom.

Example 183 [session NNcT3]

TCH: Where is it?

CHI Laura: <L1 En casa L1>

TCH: Ah... Bring it tomorrow

, <L1 ¿vale? L1>, okay?...

Sh

Alberto!

No Spanish speaking<DP-I>

, eh?...

Sh sh...

Example 184 [session NkcE]

.. You've got to whisper [[what it is]]... In my ear..

You can't tell them.<DP-I>

CH: No.. <x__x>

TCH: All right..

Example 185 [session NmI2]

Sh

Jacobo

You're speaking far too much Spanish<DP-I>

You were only allowed to speak English in this class<DP-I>

b) Function-form Relationship and comparison across speakers

As mentioned above, the present taxonomy acknowledges three types of prohibitions, whose discourse-semantic difference portrayed in the *RFSN* lies in the goods exchanged. This section closely examines how teachers instantiate prohibitions when the goods exchanged is language (tables 23 and 24 and Figures 90-96).

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Linguistic prohibitions (DP-I)</i> <i>Native teachers</i>	Declarative	5	55.6
	Wh-interrogative	2	22.2
	Yes-no interrogative	1	11.1
	Imperative	1	11.1
Total		9	100%

Table 23: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Linguistic prohibitions. Native teachers.

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Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Linguistic prohibitions (DP-1)</i> <i>Non-native teachers</i>	Imperative	9	81.8
	Declarative	1	9.1
	Wh-interrogative	1	9.1
Total		11	100%

Table 24: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Linguistic prohibitions. Non-native teachers.

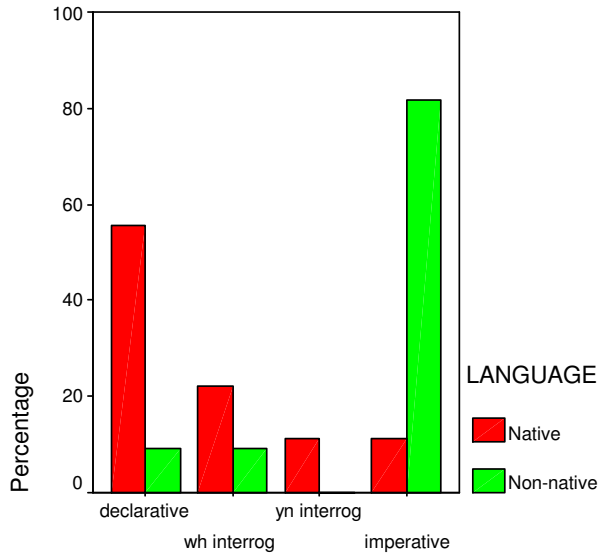


Fig. 90. Linguistic prohibition: Clause type
(n=9 in NSs; n=11 in NNSs)

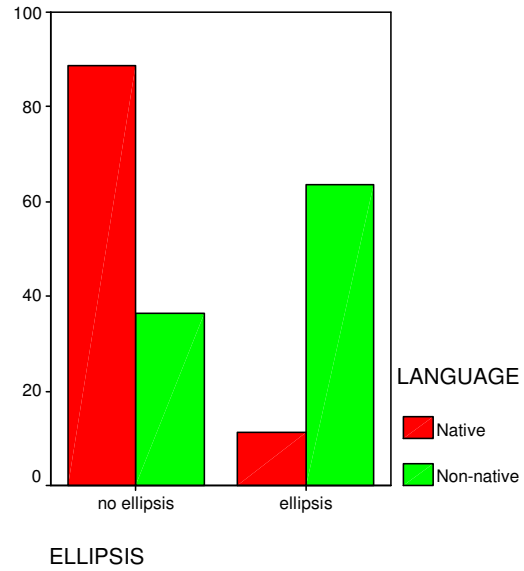


Fig. 91. Linguistic prohibition: Ellipsis

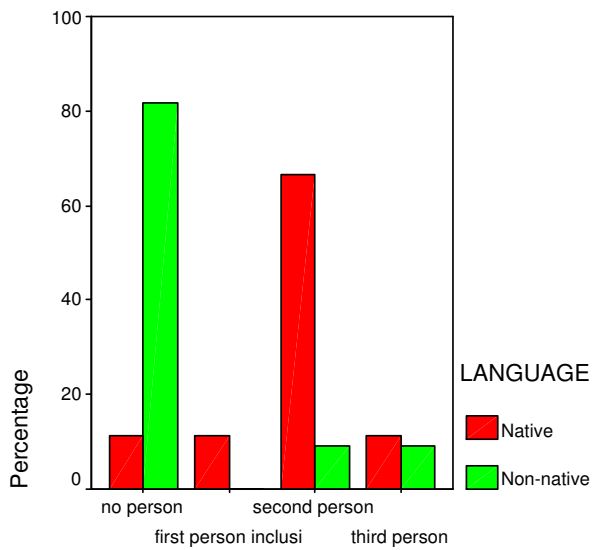


Fig. 92. Linguistic prohibition: Subject choice

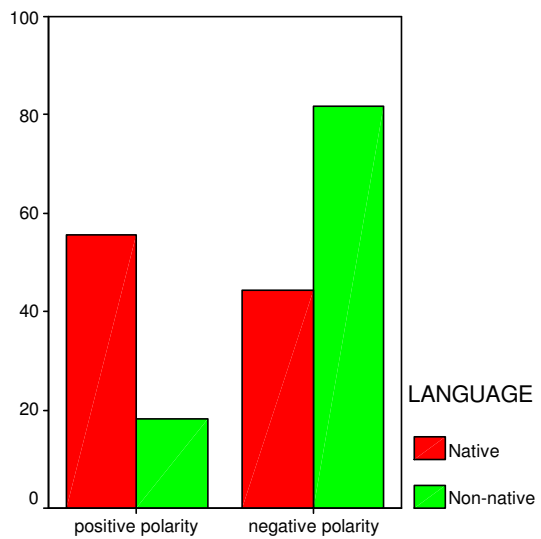


Fig. 93. Linguistic prohibition: Polarity

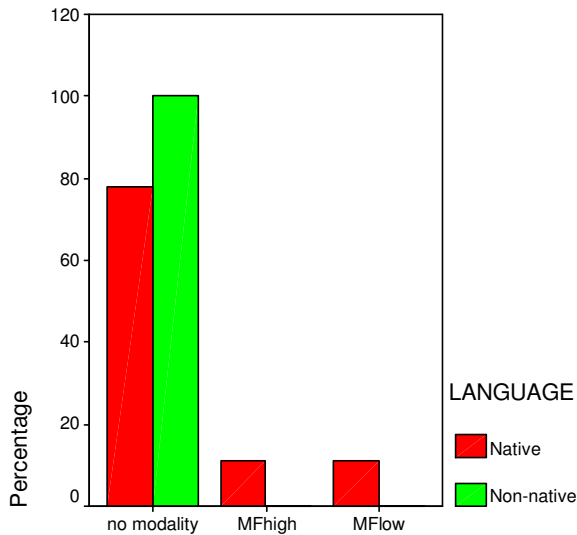


Fig. 94. Linguistic prohibition: Modality type

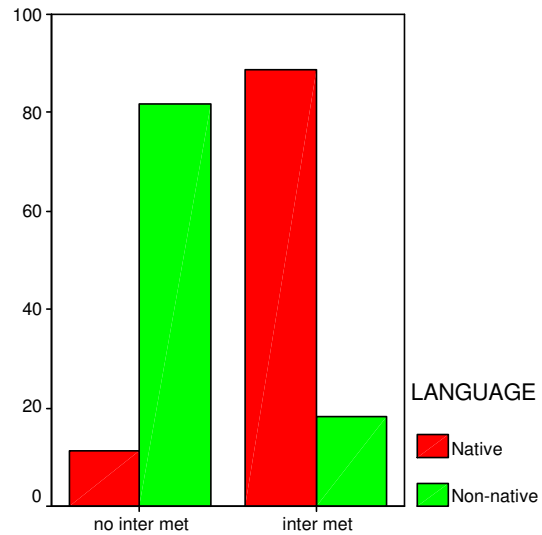


Fig. 95. Linguistic prohibition: Interpersonal metaphor

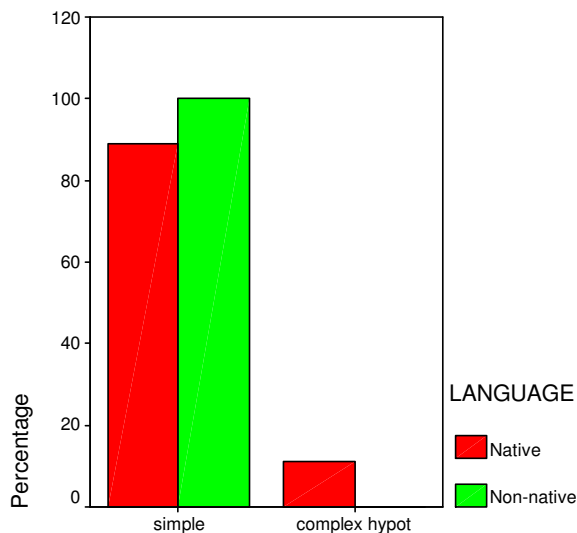


Fig. 96. Linguistic prohibition: Clause complexity

Unlike the lexicogrammatical production of other regulatory functions, only one feature is common to the native and non-native teachers' instantiation of "*linguistic prohibitions*": the use of simple clauses (Figures 90). A closer look at the data reveals that distinct lexicogrammatical realisations prevail depending on the group of speakers. Native teachers' "*linguistic prohibitions*" are mainly realised by declarative clauses in 55.6% of the cases, and by interrogatives and imperatives in the remaining instances (table 23 and Figure 90). These findings account for the predominance of second-person subjects in

declaratives and the display of other subjects depending on the surface structure (see Figure 92).

Example 186 [session NmI2]

TCH: Sh

Who said elephant?! <DP-l>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-S3-p-Fps-Rp-Rc\$

Juan

you're not supposed to say that<DP-l>\$C-D-INT.MET_S2-p-Fp-MA-pol-n-Rc-Rpvgc-Rc\$

Example 187 [session NmI2]

TCH: Alejandro

CH: Giraffe!

TCH: Don't <x answer a question x><DP-l>\$C-IM-Fn-Rp-Rc\$

The data also disclose that indirectness is achieved by native speakers through the use of modal finite operators in 20% of their *linguistic prohibitions* (Figure 94) and interpersonal metaphors in more than 80% of their *linguistic prohibitions* (Figure 95). It is worth noting that “interpersonal metaphor” includes the use of surface structures-clause types other than the prototypical (in this case, other than the imperative, see table 23 and Figure 90). This finding is highlighted by their preference for positive over negative polarity (Figure 93), which demands further efforts to appreciate the instantiation of a prohibition (example 188). To enhance such an interpretation, native speakers avoid ellipsis, only deployed in 10% of the instances, and resort to elaborate the message through hypotactic clauses (Figures 91 and 96, respectively).

Example 188 [session NkcE]

CH: It is will

CH: Is his tongue

TCH: Well, Why are you using will? <DP-l>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-Radj-p-Fp-S2-Rp-Rc\$

Example 189 [session NkcE]

You can't tell them..<DP-l>\$C-S2-n-MFhp-obl-Rp-Rc\$

Non-native teachers, in turn, convey “*linguistic prohibitions*” by means of simple and negative imperative clauses in 81.8% of the cases (table 24 and Figures 96, 93 and 90). It thus follows that subjects are mainly absent (Figure 92). Furthermore, to instantiate direct *linguistic prohibitions*, non-native teachers omit the subject and predicators in 60% of their “*linguistic prohibitions*”, avoid interpersonal metaphors and modality and convey the prohibition through negative polarity as shown in the examples below.

Example 190 [session NNcT3]

TCH: Cro- cro- crocodile....

No Spanish<DP-l>\$C-IM-MA-pol-n-RpE-Adj\$....

Example 191 [session NNcN1]

No<DP-l>\$C-IM-RpE-MA-pol-n\$

don't tell me<DP-l>\$C-IM-Fn-Rp-Rc\$

tell Guillermo

6.2.2.4.3. *Behaviour prohibitions*¹⁰⁴ (DP-b)

a) *Discourse-semantic description*

Behaviour prohibitions refer to those instances whereby the child is asked to turn the current undersirable behaviour into a desirable one. In my view, *behaviour prohibitions* highlight what the child is doing wrong and focus the message on the child's current misbehaviour. As Figure 82 displays, this function results from the following variables in the posited *RFSN*: *negotiate*> *exchange*> *demand*> *goods and services*> *addressee orientation*> *non-desirable* > *initiation*> *initiate*> *bound to a non-verbal response*> *current behaviour*.

Example 192 [session NmI3]

Fernando!

.. *Please don't talk* <*x in class x*><DP-b>\$C-IM-Fn-Rp-Radj\$

b) *Function-form Relationship and comparison across speakers*

When teachers or parents attempt to regulate children's misbehaviour they do so by instantiating "*behaviour prohibitions*". Stating rules, explaining consequences or spanking are some of the means explored in the literature (cf. Applegate, Burke, Delia and Kline (1985); Wilson, Cameron and Whipple (1997) and Shomoossi (2004)). Here follow the lexicogrammatical realisations in native and non-native teachers' discourse in the EFL classroom.

¹⁰⁴ Although "behaviour prohibitions" was a category created after the reliability and validity tests carried out with the external coders (reported in section 6.3. below), they are functionally and formally described at this stage as they are included as a distinct category in the regulatory functions taxonomy.

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Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Behaviour prohibitions (DP-b)</i> <i>Native teachers</i>	Imperative	16	40
	Declarative	11	27.5
	Wh-interrogative	7	17.5
	No analysis (Spanish)	6	15
Total		40	100%

Table 25: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Behaviour prohibitions. Native teachers.

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Behaviour prohibitions (DP-b)</i> <i>Non-native teachers</i>	Imperative	23	67.6
	Declarative	3	8.8
	Wh-interrogative	3	8.8
	Yes-no interrogative	3	8.8
	No analysis (Spanish)	2	5.9
Total		34	100%

Table 26: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Behaviour prohibitions. Non-native teachers.

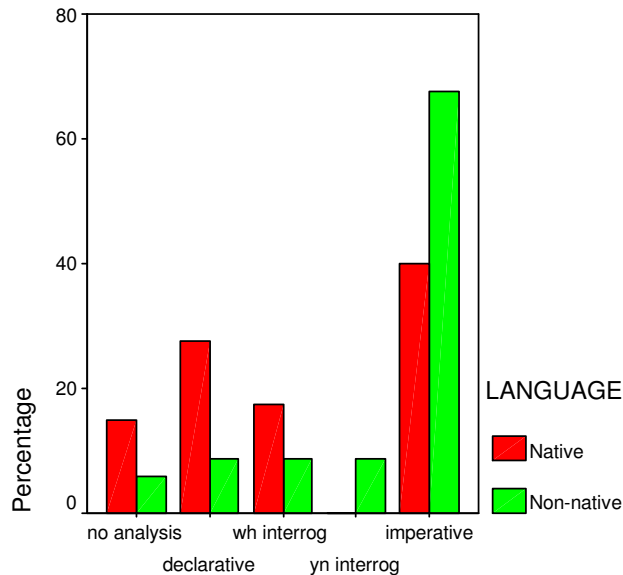


Fig. 97. Behaviour prohibition: Clause type
($n=40$ in NSs; $n= 34$ in NNSs)

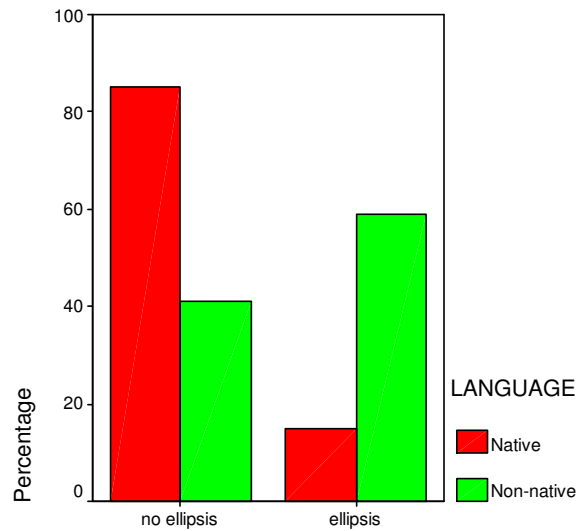


Fig. 98. Behaviour prohibition: Ellipsis

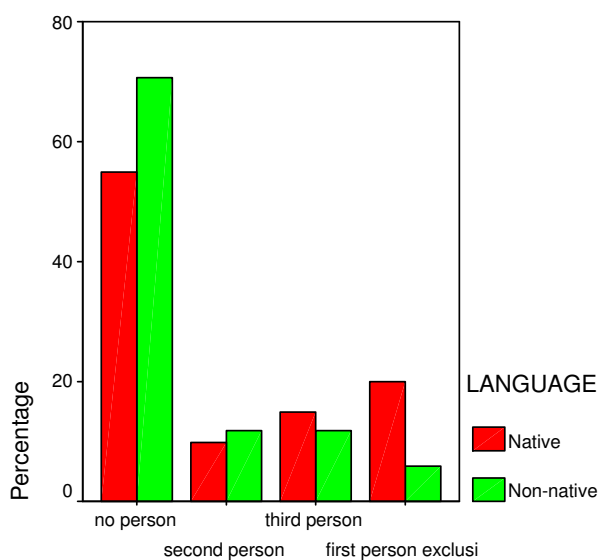


Fig. 99. Behaviour prohibition: Person

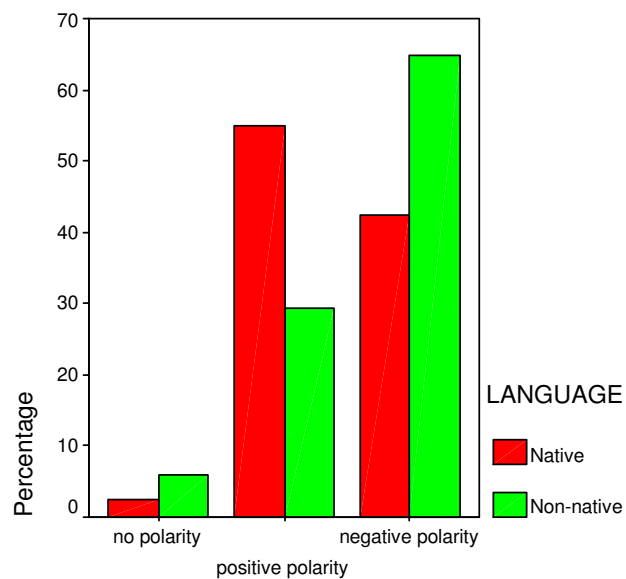


Fig. 100. Behaviour prohibition: Polarity

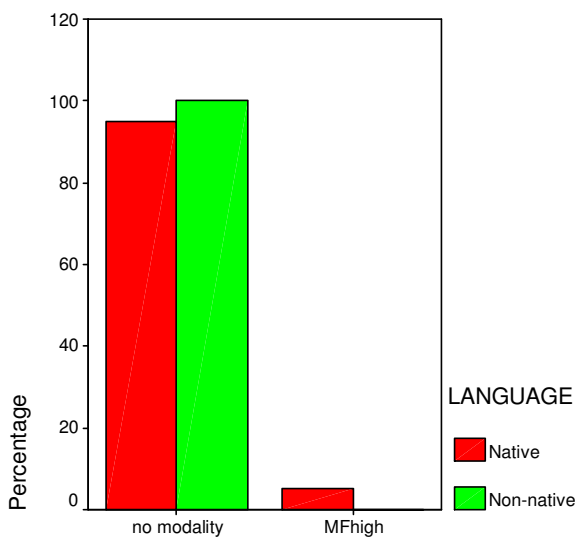


Fig. 101. Behaviour prohibition: Modality type

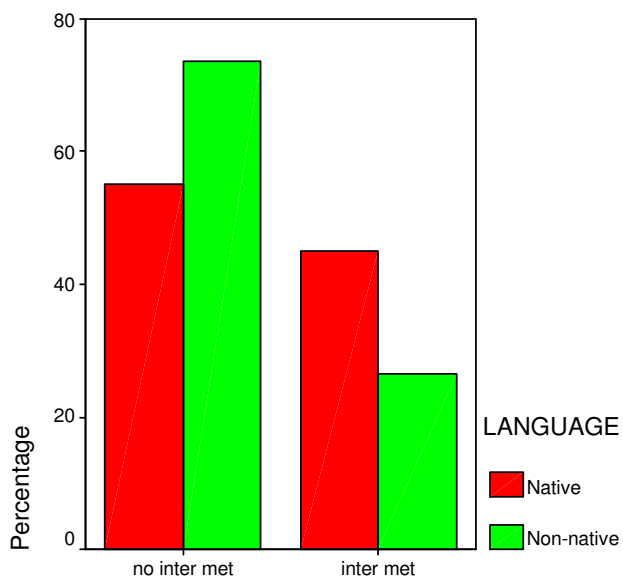


Fig. 102. Behaviour prohibition: Interpersonal metaphor

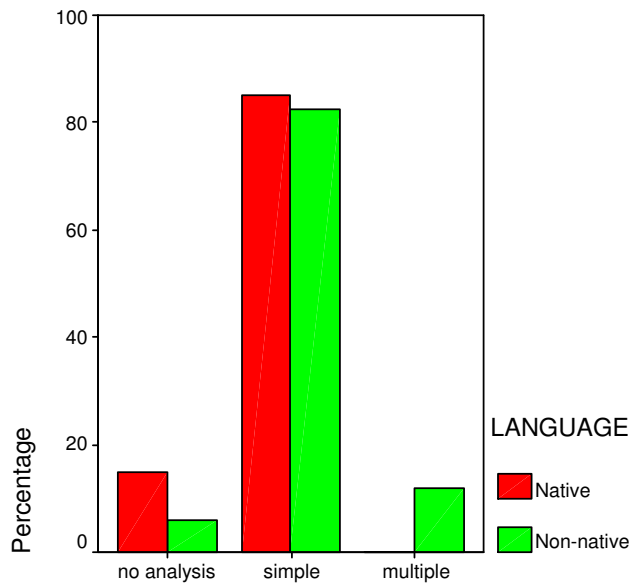


Fig. 103. Behaviour prohibition: Clause complex

“Behaviour prohibitions” are unmarkedly instantiated by both groups of teachers through simple, non-modulated, imperative clauses where there is no subject (Figures 97-103 and examples below).

Example 193 [session NrK]
stop talking<DP-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$
 Alex

It is worth highlighting that interpersonal metaphors are much more frequent than in other regulatory functions in both groups: instantiated through interrogatives or declaratives, they constitute an indirect way of requesting a change in behaviour (see examples 194-195 below).

Example 194 [session NNcT1]
 Julio!
I’m hearing you from here!<DP-b>\$C-INT.MET.D-S1b-p-Fp-Rp-Rc-Radj\$..

Example 195[session NNcT2]
 TCH: *Who’s talking?*<DP-b>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-S3-p-Fp-Rp\$
 CH: <x <L1 Un montón así L1> x>
 CH: Uhh!

Despite some common traits, it is relevant to examine the dissimilarities across speakers as their lexicogrammatical realisations of “behaviour commands” widely differs.

On the one hand, native teachers display distinct clause types: 40% are imperatives, 27.5% are declaratives and 17.5% are interrogatives (table 25). Surprisingly, 15% of this regulatory function is realised by no-mood structure phrases (e.g. “no screaming” in example 196) or Spanish utterances, which may indicate the need to state a prohibition in Spanish in order to be efficiently obeyed (Figure 97¹⁰⁵, see example below). The wide range of clause types produced indeed is echoed in the display of subjects (Figures 97 and 99 above).

Example 196 [session NmI2]

TCH: Yeah,

don't scream<DP-b>\$C-IM-Fn-Rp\$

. <LI Sin chillar LI><DP-b>

No screaming<DP-b>\$NMS\$

Besides, it is relevant to highlight the indirectness of *behaviour prohibitions* achieved by native teachers. First, their recurrent use of clause surface structures other than the imperative results in interpersonal metaphors in 40% of their instances (Figure 102 and examples below). Second, positive polarity is preferred, which requires the child's ability to interpret their utterance as a prohibition despite its surface structure (Figure 100). And third, the use of modal finite operators used with negations may conceal the illocutionary effect of the message, a strategy exclusive to native speakers (Figure 101 and example 199). Nonetheless, native teachers tend to avoid ellipsis so as to provide complete utterances and guarantee comprehension (Figure 98).

Example 197 [session NkcE]

CH: Sometimes.

((They begin talking at the same time))

TCH: *Who am I asking?* <DP-b>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-S1b-Rp\$

Who am I asking? <DP-b><r>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-S1b-Rp\$

CH: (Fernando) With Carla

Example 198 [session NrK]

There's too much noise!<DP-b>\$C-INT.MET.D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-Rc\$

Example 199 [session NrC2]

.. *I can't hear Finlay*<DP-b>\$C-INT.MET.D-S1b-n-MFhp-ab-Rp-Rc\$.

Finlay

¹⁰⁵ Spanish utterances are coded as “no analysis” in the clause-type figure.

On the other hand, non-native teachers prefer the prototypical lexicogrammatical realisation: more 67.6% of their “*behaviour prohibitions*” are instantiated by imperative clauses (table 26 and Figure 97). This might well explain the little variety in subject choice, absent in more than 70% of their instances. Furthermore, their direct discourse is achieved through a frequent one-to-one function-form correspondence, the tendency to produce negative utterances and the avoidance of modality and interpersonal metaphors, far higher in native teachers’ discourse (Figures 100, 101, 102 respectively). Additionally, the display of multiple clauses that repeat the same message, on the one hand, and ellipsis on the other, together contribute to directness (Figures 103 and 98 and example below).

Example 200 [session NNncS2]

David

No\$C-IM-RpE-MA-pol-n\$, no<DP-b>\$C’-IM-RpE-MA-pol-n\$. ((two children fighting))

CH: < L1 Señor, you quiero este sitio L1> ((Standing on foot))

TCH: { Sit down there<DC-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$ } ((the teacher makes gestures))

6.2.2.4.4. *Behaviour commands (DC-b)*

a) *Discourse-semantic description*

While I first considered classifying “*behaviour commands*” into a sub-category of commands, the discourse-semantic variable “non-desirability” in the proposed *Regulatory Functions System Network*, led me to include them within the wide category prohibitions. Indeed, despite their positive polarity, utterances such as “silence!” or “sit down”, are considered to be non-desirable since they demand the child to behave as they are expected to do (example 201 below). It hence follows that the unique discourse-semantic feature that discriminates “*behaviour prohibitions*” and “*behaviour commands*” in the *RFSN* is the response it is bound to, i.e. “expected behaviour”. It seems that the focus of the utterance is to remind the child of what the expected behaviour is and thus urge him/her to adopt such “new” behaviour. Consequently, as Figure 82 posits, this function results from the following variables in the created *RFSN*: *negotiate*> *exchange*> *demand*> *goods and services*> *addressee orientation*> *non-desirable* > *initiation*> *initiate*> *bound to a non-verbal response*> *expected behaviour*.

Example 201 [session NNncS2]

CH: ((Many of them)) {< L1 Más grande L1 > }

CH: {{ < L1 No, así , así , así L1> }} ((all shouting))

TCH: { { No
you have to rise your hand<DC-b>
 CH: { < xxxxx> }
 TCH: Ssss<DC-b>
 ((some children rise their hands))
 CH: { < xxxxxx> }
 TCH: { Sssss! <DC-b>
 ((silence))

As mentioned above, the interest of the sub-classification of prohibitions inextricably results from my interest to observe how teacher’s talk controls the child’s verbal and non-verbal behaviour. Therefore, the nature of the response, verbal vs. non-verbal (action vs. behaviour), evidences the existence of different types of prohibitions, those controlling actions, those controlling language production and those controlling behaviour.

b) Function-form relationship and comparison across speakers

Teacher talk in L2 classrooms has been characterised by a high number of imperatives related to classroom management and disciplinary matters (Ramírez and Merino 1990). The data in the *corpus* however display a wider range of lexicogrammatical realisations of “*behaviour commands*”. Tables 27 and 28 summarise the clausal patterns in both groups of teachers and Figures 104-108 further examine more specific lexicogrammatical features.

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Behaviour commands (DC-b)</i> <i>Native teachers</i>	Imperative	64	47.4
	No analysis (Spanish)	49	36.3
	Yes-no interrogative	14	10.4
	Declarative	4	3
	Exclamative	3	2.2
	Absolute noun group	1	0.7
Total		135	100%

Table 27: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Behaviour commands. Native teachers.

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Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Behaviour commands (DC-b)</i> <i>Non-native teachers</i>	No analysis (Spanish)	100	46.3
	Imperative	95	44
	Wh- interrogative	8	3.7
	Declarative	5	2.3
	Yes-no interrogative	4	1.9
	Exclamative	4	1.9
Total		216	100%

Table 28: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Behaviour commands. Non-native teachers.

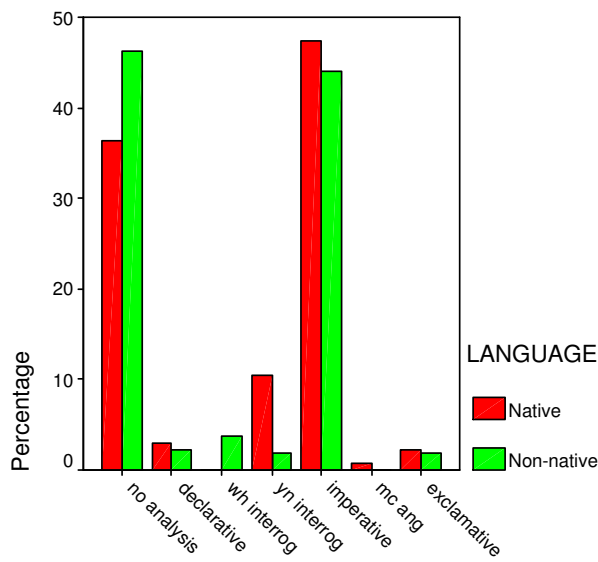


Fig. 104. Behaviour commands: Clause type

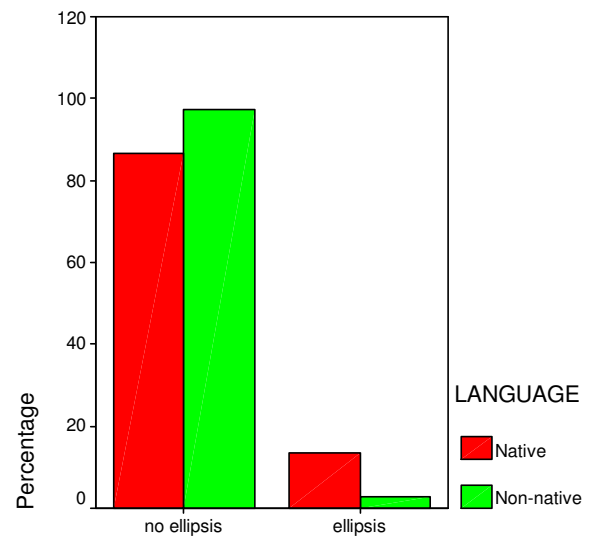


Fig. 105. Behaviour commands: Ellipsis

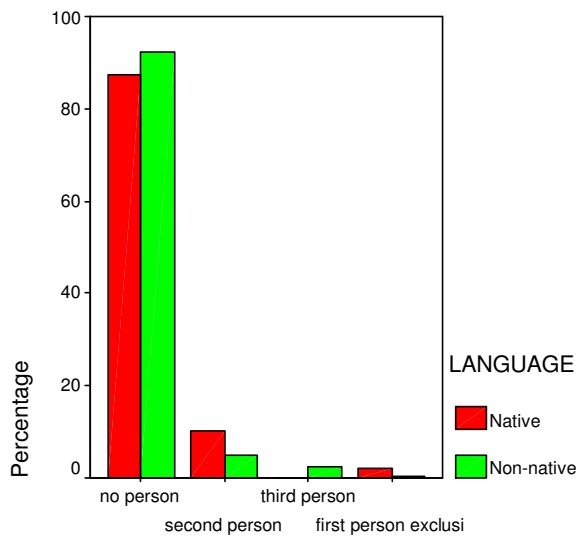


Fig. 106. Behaviour commands: Subject choice

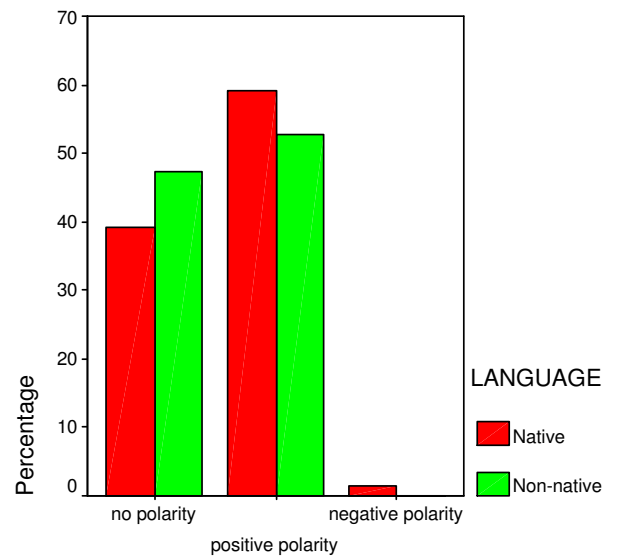


Fig. 107. Behaviour commands: Polarity

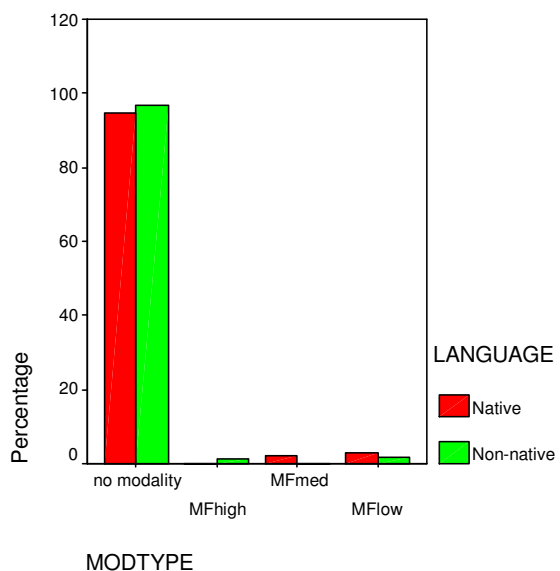


Fig. 108. Behaviour commands: Modality type

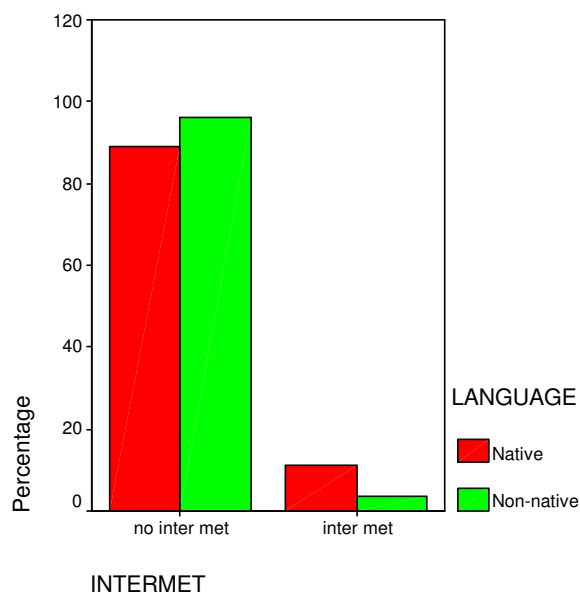


Fig. 109. Behaviour commands: Interpersonal metaphor

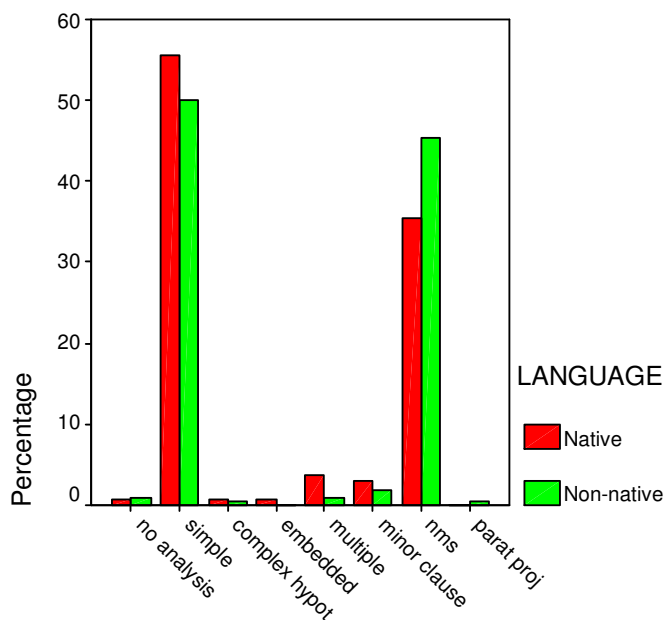


Fig. 110. Behaviour commands: Clause complex patterns

It is noteworthy to signal that two predominant surface structures coexist and together represent 80% of “*Behaviour commands*” in native and non-native teachers’ talk: positive, simple, imperative clauses on the one hand, and no mood structures lacking polarity, modality and person on the other hand (e.g. “*Sh!*”, coded as “no analysis” in

Figure 104) (tables 27 and 28). Both predominant lexicogrammatical choices are usually explicit and direct, which is conveyed by the avoidance of ellipsis in 83% of the instances and non modulated utterances in more than 80% of the cases (Figures 105, 108, 109, respectively). Additionally, among the similarities across speakers, it should be mentioned that exclamative and declarative clauses are other structures that teachers use to ask for silence in the classroom (cf. tables 27 and 28 and example 202). When used, the declaratives are accompanied by modal finite operators in both groups, a second person subject, which results in occasional interpersonal metaphors (Figures 104, 108, 106 and 109, respectively).

Example 202 [session NNncS2]

CH: { Big !}

CH: { Small !}

CH: < xxxx > ((All talking at the same time Spanish and English))

TCH: { All right ... like this ((drawing the arms)) }

CH: {{ No, yes , no, yes }}

TCH: { *Silence!* <DC-b> \$MC-EX\$

silence! <DC-b> \$MC-EX\$

However, some differences arise across speakers. Native teachers display yes/no questions or declaratives accompanied by first and second singular person pronouns, which accounts for a part of the interpersonal metaphors they display to convey “*Behaviour commands*” (Figures 104, 106, 109, examples below).

Example 203 [session NrC1]

I want [[you all sitting nicely]]<DC-b>\$C-INT.MET.D-S1b-p-Fp-Rpvgc-Rc-Rc_emb.cl\$

Example 204 [session NkcE]

TCH: Do we start a sentence with “me”?

CH: ((Some)) No

((The teacher shruggs))

TCH: Maybe you think we do. Manuel thinks we do...

((Juan Carlos is walking round the teacher))

Are you having fun? ((teacher is angry))<DC-b>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-Fp-S2-Rp\$..

The use of structures other than the imperative requires the interpretation of an indirect act, which seems to be unmarkedly accepted as a code in the classroom register. Nonetheless, to enhance comprehension, native teachers resort to ellipsis in 15% of their

behaviour commands so as to make the message brief and straightforward: only what is new and relevant information is explicit (Figure 105 and examples 205-206).

Example 205 [session NskJ]

And silent! <DC-b>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc\$

Arms folded <DC-b>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc\$ ((*She does it herself*)) ..

Example 206 [session NmI2]

everybody

Quietly! <DC-b>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$

As regards non-native teachers, they prefer no-mood structures¹⁰⁶ to imperative clauses (46% vs. 44%, table 28), which accounts for a frequent lack of polarity and person (Figures 107 and 106, respectively). This finding portrays non-native teachers as users of more direct structures with scarce use of modality and interpersonal metaphors (Figure 108-109). Additionally, it is worth mentioning that, though scarce, when modality obtains, their choice of modal finite operators differs from native teachers'. While native teachers mitigate their commands through medium (e.g. *would*) or low modal finite operators (e.g. *can*, *could*), non-native teachers select high modal finite operators, which are regarded as more direct and face-threatening (e.g. *must*, *have to*) (see example 207).

Example 207 [session NNncS2]

TCH: { Silence!

silence!

please ((She erases them while asking for silence and draws two more)) }

CH: {{ No, yes }} }

TCH: {{ And now ... }} ((showing her hands))

You have to keep silence <DC-b>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-p-MFhp-obl-Rp-Rc\$

OK? ((to Raquel, who is trying to say something))

Finally, non-native teachers instantiate “*behaviour commands*” through yes-no questions and also wh-questions, a characteristic that is specific to this group of speakers (Figure 104). While yes-no questions resulted in the ulterior production of an imperative clause so as to let the child know that the question was indeed a covert request, wh-questions appeared to be more straightforward (see examples 208-209).

Example 208 [session NNcT3]

What’s the problem now? <DC-b>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-S3-p-Fp-Rp-Rc-Radj\$..

¹⁰⁶ Coded as “no analysis” in table 28 and Figure 104.

Example 209 [session NNncS1]

TCH: Can you sit properly?<DC-b>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-MFlp-inc-S2-p-Fp-Rp-Adj\$

Can you sit properly?<DC-b><r>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-MFlp-inc-S2-p-Fp-Rp-Adj\$

Sit properly<DC-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Adj\$.

Like this, Fernando

6.2.2.5. Warnings (DW)

a) *Discourse-semantic description*

Warnings are utterances the teacher addresses to the child in order to prevent something negative from happening. While being bound to some immediate response, as prohibitions, they are discursively tracking on commands or prohibitions, since they reinforce or present the reason why some action is required. It thus follows that the discourse-semantic features describing “warnings” in the *RFSN* are: *Negotiate>Exchange>Demand>Goods and Services> Addressee-oriented> Non-Desirable> Initiation>Tracking* (Figure 82).

Example 210 [session Nkce]

((The teacher gives it to him)) ((He gets on the chair))

TCH: Careful!<DW><C-IM-p-RpE-Rc\$

Don't get on the chair<DP-a>

b) *Function-form relationship and comparison across speakers*

Quirk *et al.* (1985:850) acknowledge noun phrases, adverbials and imperatives as the most common instantiations of “warnings”. Likewise, Halliday (1992:96) claims that “warnings” are realised by minor clauses which are mostly imperative or absolute noun groups. Tables 29 and 30 and Figures 111-116 below portray how native and non-native teachers instantiate “warnings” in the EFL classroom.

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Warnings (DW)</i> <i>Native teachers</i>	Imperative	5	45.5
	Declarative	4	36.4
	Yes-no interrogative	1	9.1
	Minor clause	1	9.1
Total		11	100%

Table 29: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Warnings. Native teachers.

Function	Ranking of Lexicogrammatical Realisations	N	%
<i>Warnings (DW)</i> <i>Native teachers</i>	Imperative	4	57.1
	Declarative	2	28.6
	No analysis (Spanish)	1	14.3
Total		7	100%

Table 30: Ranking of the lexicogrammatical realisations of Warnings. Non-native teachers.

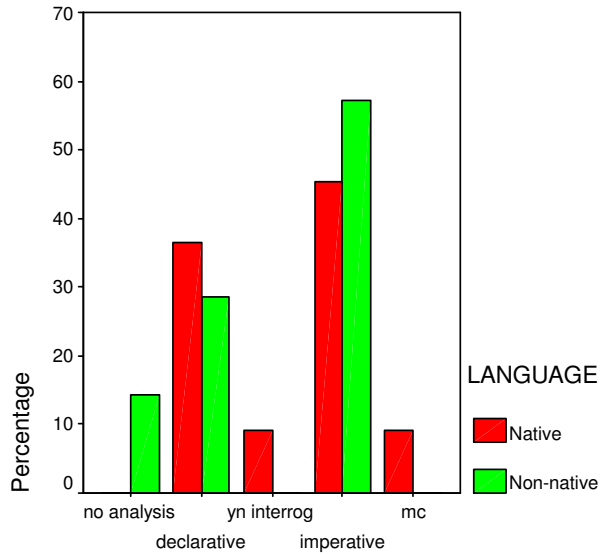


Fig. 111. Warnings: clause types

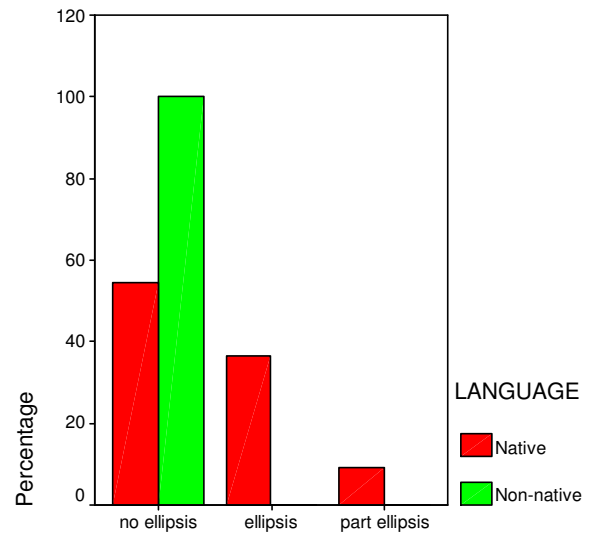


Fig. 112. Warnings: ellipsis

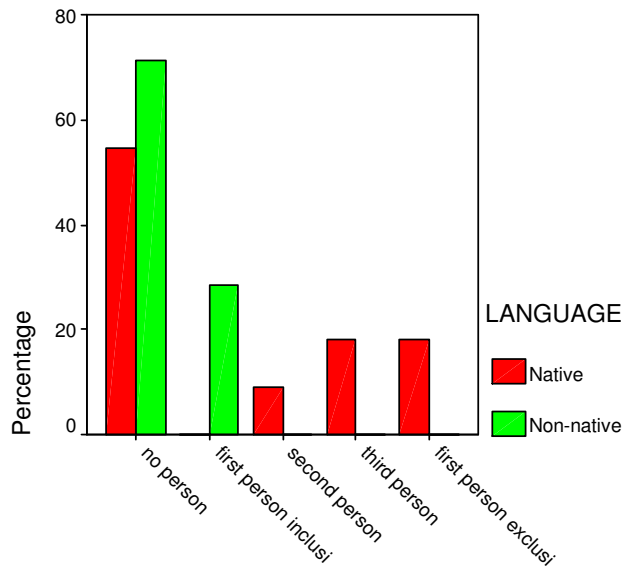


Fig. 113. Warnings: person

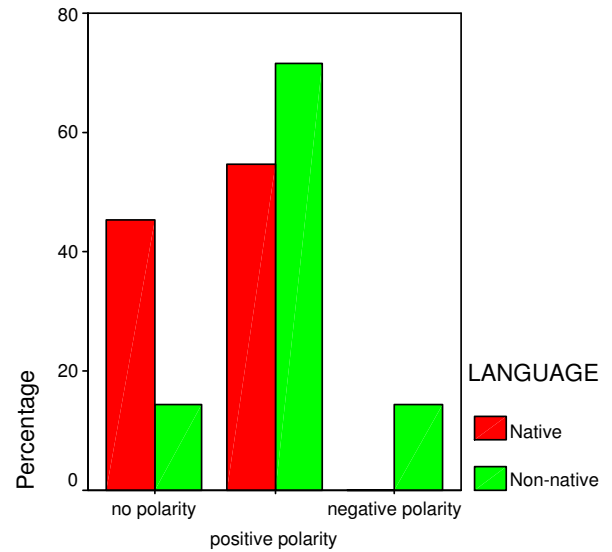


Fig. 114. Warnings: polarity

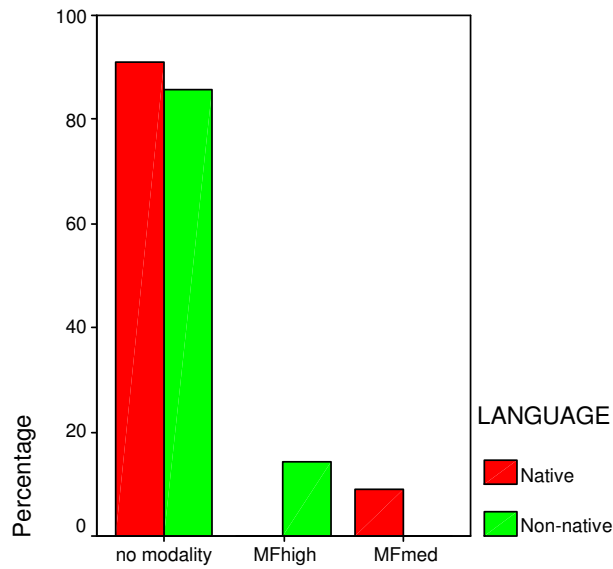


Fig. 115. Warning: modality type

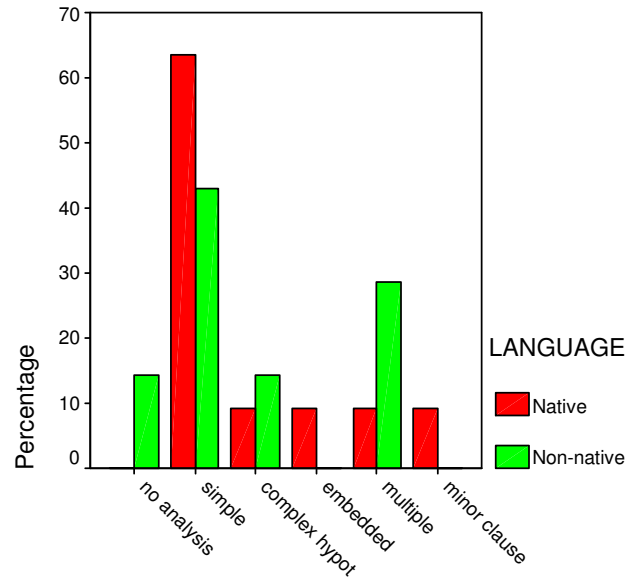


Fig. 116. Warning: clause complex

The prototypical instantiation of “warnings” in the classroom, regardless of the group of speakers, is a simple, non modulated, positive, imperative clause whose subject is not present (Figures 116, 115, 114, 111 and 113 respectively):

Example 211 [session NNcT2]

Well, that’s finished ..

Be careful<DW>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$..

Cut these bits in r- in red

CH: <L1 No lo corto? L1>

((The teacher nods. The children nods))

TCH: <L1 <x Sssi x> L1> .. <L1 Pero con ello L1>> .. Like this ((She looks for a pair of scissors))

Additionally, teachers in both groups use declarative clauses to instantiate “warnings” (Figure 111, examples 212-213). This accounts for a coexistence of the display of “no person” subject together with first or third singular person subjects (Figure 113). Indeed, the use of declarative clauses triggers the elaboration of the message through complex hypotactic or embedded clauses, common to both groups (Figure 116, example 214).

Example 212 [session NrC1]

Sophie

that glue is about to fall<DW>\$C-D-S3-p-Ff-Rp\$

Sophie

that glue is about to fall<DW><r>\$C-D-S3-p-Ff-Rp\$

Put it further on the table

Example 213 [session NNncS1]

TCH: # Fernando

come,

come

... *No, I'm serious*<DW>\$C-D-S1b-p-Fp-Rp-Rc\$

Sit down there

Example 214 [session NkcE]

Inés!

.. Sit down

...*I'm not going to choose anyone* [[who is not sitting properly]]<DW>\$C-D-S1b-p-Fp-Rp-Rc_emb.cl\$

.. Juan

However, a closer look at the figures reveals that native and non-native teachers' instantiation of “warnings” differs. On the one hand, native teachers display declarative, interrogative and minor clauses together with the prototypical imperative (36.4%, 9.1%, 9.1% and 45.5%, respectively, see table 29 and Figure 111). This wide range of clause-type structures triggers the display of different person subjects (Figure 113). Interestingly enough, *warnings* are often uttered in first exclusive person (“I”) or third singular person by native teachers, two surface structures that shift the focus of attention from the addressee towards either the beneficiary of the action or the object referred to (examples 214-215).

Example 215 [session NrC1]

Put your books away

I'm going to count to three<DW>\$C-D-S1b-p-Ff-Rp-Radj\$

I want [[you all sitting nicely]]

Furthermore, a very remarkable aspect of “warnings” in native teachers' discourse is that, some are very elaborate while others are very direct, two distinct characteristics at both ends of a continuum. Elaboration is achieved through medium modal finite operators and complex clause patterns such as embedded and projected clauses (Figures 115-116, example 216). It is here maintained that this trait is exclusive to native teachers in that the display of medium modal finite operators (far less direct than the non-native's use of high modal finite operators, e.g. “must”) and embedded clauses are only encountered in the native teachers' *corpus*. Directness, in turn, results from the use of ellipsis in 40% of the instances or the display of minor clauses (Figures 112, 116, examples 217, 218).

Example 216 [session NrC1]

when you put the brown on your pot, be careful<DW>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj_hypot.exp.cl\$,

Example 217 [session NkcE]

((The teacher gives it to him)) ((He gets on the chair))
Careful!<DW><C-IM-p-RpE-Rc\$
Don't get on the chair

Example 218 [session NrC1]

Put your books away
I'm going to count to three<DW><C-D-S1b-p-Ff-Rp-Radj\$
I want [[you all sitting nicely]]
One... two... and...<DW><MCEE\$

Non-native teachers, in turn, prefer the imperative clause-type in 57.1% of the cases, thus displaying fewer surface structures than native teachers (table 30). Other realisations are declarative clauses which account for having first inclusive subject (“we”) (Figure 113, example 219). It would be interesting to signal that 14.3% of their “warnings” are produced in Spanish (coded as “no analysis” in table 30), which may reveal the urgency of the message.

Example 219 [session NNncS2]

Oh. We need silence to do this other way we ... sit down<DW><C-D-S1a-p-MFhp-obl-Rp-Rc_parat.exp.cl_IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
((Raquel takes a chair but the teacher does not allow her to sit down))
María

Unlike other regulatory functions, it seems that the relevance of “warnings” in communication (as well as in prohibitions) leads non-native teachers to elaborate their message through (i) hypotactic and multiple clauses, (ii) high modal finite operators conveying urgency and (iii) avoidance of ellipsis (Figures 116, 115 and 112 respectively and example 220).

Example 220 [session NNncN2]

Jesús
sit down!<C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$ or go out of the class<DW><C'-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
JES: <L1 pero yo L1>
TCH: #sit down<C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$ or go out of the class<DW><C'-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

6.2.3. Concluding remarks on the *Regulatory Functions System Network* and the resulted Taxonomy

Throughout sections 6.1. and 6.2., the *Regulatory Functions System Network* has been the tool used to define and specify the particular semantic and discursive choices that constitute the distinct contexts of occurrence of each regulatory function. Indeed, the

display of the *Regulatory Functions System Network* has allowed the researcher to describe the resulted Regulatory Functions Taxonomy. Figure 117 below graphically summarises the distinct regulatory functions that have been found in the analysed *corpus*.

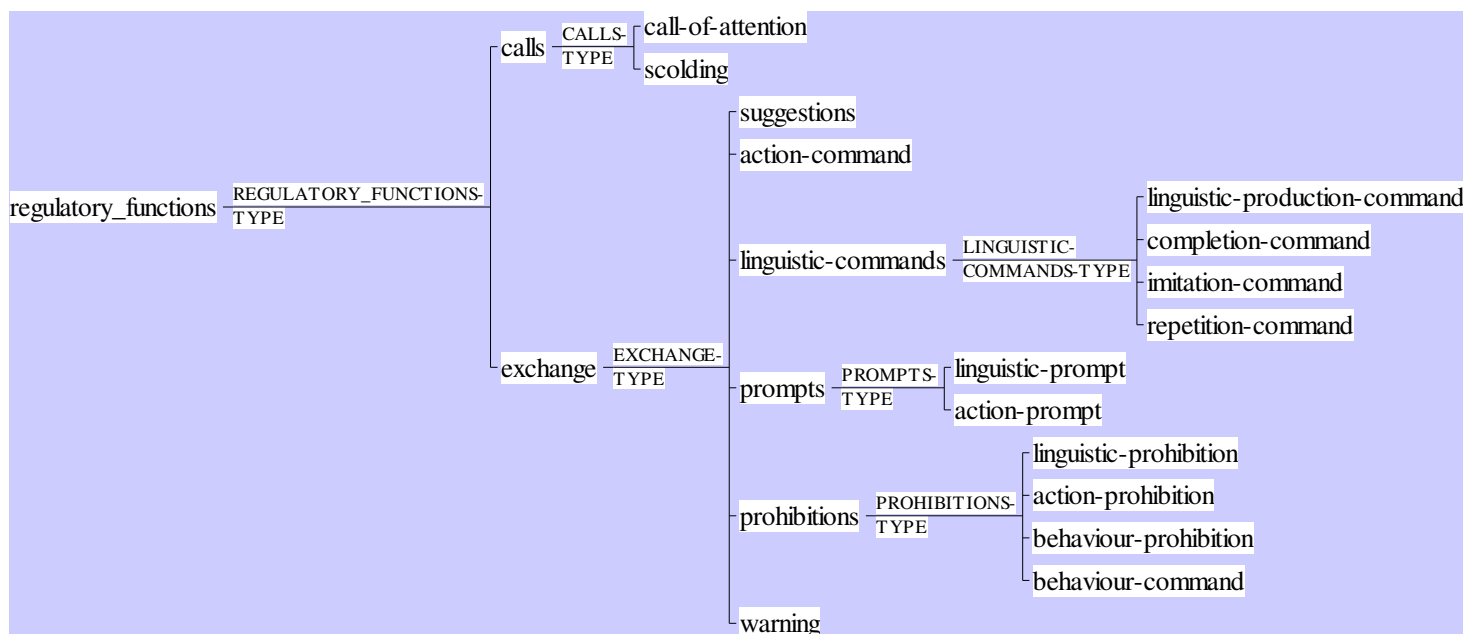


Fig. 117. Taxonomy of regulatory functions in UAMLESC *corpus*

In my view, one of the most relevant findings of the present investigation presented in sections 6.1. and 6.2. above lies in the major category “linguistic commands” within the regulatory functions taxonomy. I believe it is worth highlighting the relevance of the linguistic commands group (i.e. “linguistic production command”, “imitation command”, “completion command” and “repetition command”) in that it revisits the traditional “regulatory functions” label. More specifically, this work proposes to consider the “English language” as the goods and services exchanged in the EFL classroom. It thus follows that this study provides an alternative analysis of regulatory functions in the EFL context since the teacher may also demand the child to “*do things with words*” in English, their foreign language. In order to fulfil objective 1 of this investigation, i.e. “*To create and validate a tool of analysis that will account for the different discourse-semantic regulatory choices in EFL pre-school teacher talk: The Regulatory Functions System Network and a Regulatory Functions Taxonomy*”, a further step remains to be achieved: the statistical validation of the instrument of analysis, a task section 6.3. below undertakes.

6.3. **The System Network Consistency: reliability and validity**

The goal of educational research is basically to produce descriptions and interpretations of classroom events that will be identified by others as real and meaningful for teachers, learners and the learning process. Consequently, researchers should consider the *reliability* of their instrument, i.e. the consistency to which others agree on the categories and descriptions and the frequencies attributed to them, that is, the degree to which they are free of error of measurement (cf. Brown 1988:98; Chaudron 1988:23). Additionally, linguists are interested in the generalisability of their claims, i.e. the extent to which their conclusions can be meaningful, significant and applicable to future studies in the classroom (namely, *validity*).

6.3.1. **Reliability**

Among the distinct types of reliability tests, Krippendorff (1980:131) acknowledges “stability” (the degree to which a process is invariant over time), “reproducibility” (the degree to which a process can be recreated under varying circumstances, using different coders) and “accuracy” (the degree to which a process functionally conforms to a known standard, i.e. where the coders’ judgements are compared to a standard). Potter and Levine-Donnerstein (1999) agree with Krippendorff (*ibid.*) that *accuracy* and sometimes *reproducibility* are the strongest procedures, two measures which inextricably call for intercoder reliability.

“Intercoder reliability” is the widely used term for the extent to which independent coders evaluate a characteristic of a message and reach the same conclusion (Lombard, Snyder-Duch and Campanella-Bracken 2002) or the extent to which the different judges tend to assign exactly the same rating to each object (Tinsley and Weiss 2000). The degree to which an instrument, in our case the *RFSN*, is reliable is therefore estimated with a reliability coefficient. Among the different ways of estimating reliability¹⁰⁷, *intercoder reliability* commonly arises in language studies (Frick and Semmel 1978; Llinares-García 2002; Murphy 2004) and enables the robust validation of the *Regulatory Functions System Network*.

¹⁰⁷ Cf. test-retest, equivalent forms, internal consistency, etc...

“It is widely acknowledged that intercoder reliability is a critical component of content analysis and when it is not established, the data and interpretations of the data can never be considered valid” (Lombard *et al.* 2002:589).

Intercoder reliability is assessed by having two or more coders categorise units (in this case, regulatory functions), and then using these categorisations to calculate a numerical index of the extent of agreement between or among the coders (cf. Lombard *et al.* 2002:590). While there are variations in how this process should be conducted, several operational considerations provide this study with a guide to design such test (cf. Holsti 1969; Krippendorff 1980; Popping 1988; Potter and Levine-Donnerstein 1999). Accordingly, I first consider the issue of how an overlap of coders was designed when setting up the reliability test. Second, I examine the degree of reliability and later on adjust those percentages of agreement for chance so as to get a reliability coefficient.

In order to test the degree of consistency in decision making across coders, there must be some overlap in the coding, that is, at least two coders must make judgements on the same material (cf. Chaudron 1988; Llinares-García 2002). Indeed, “within this dually coded portion of the sample, the judgements of the two coders can be directly compared” (Potter and Levine-Donnerstein 1999:273). As regards the size for an overlap, it should be borne in mind that the sample needs to be representative of the whole data. Zhang and Kraus (1995) and Lowry and Shidler (1995) used a 20% overlap when dealing with stories or symbols in news while Potter and Ware (1987) and Ader (1995), among others, used a 10% overlap in their analysis of big *corpora* (88 hours of news or 2000 newspapers stories, respectively). It was observed in several studies that the smaller the unit of analysis, the smaller the sample was in different studies. Taking into account that the present research analysed 4,259 regulatory functions in a 51,000 word *corpus*, it was decided that both coders would be given a sample that represents 10% of the total *corpus*.

Admittedly, the sample must be randomly selected in order for the selected cases in the reliability test to represent the entire *corpus*. However, the selection of the three different sessions (made up of distinct fragments) of the *corpus* was made on the basis of the following criteria in order to guarantee uniformity of coding challenge: (i) since there

are 15 distinct regulatory functions, each session contained 10 different functions at least; (ii) each function appeared 5 times at least; and (iii) each function appeared in different lexicogrammatical realisations as those meant different degrees of difficulty in the coding:

“if the material to be coded contains segments that represent different degrees of coding difficulty, then each of those varying segments should be represented in the overlap in order to provide a fair test of reliability” (Potter and Levine-Donnerstein 1999:276).

A coder-training session is often used so as to establish reliability levels for the codings of the sample. Consequently, the researcher held an introductory session with the two external coders¹⁰⁸ where she introduced them to (i) the notion of regulatory functions; (ii) the dynamics of the *Regulatory Functions System Network* and (iii) the resulting taxonomy of the distinct regulatory functions (cf. Appendix IV, 4.1). A short extract was analysed together so as to establish the criteria to analyse the data and categorise the distinct regulatory functions (cf. Appendix IV, 4.2). Only then were the external coders given the samples to codify (cf. Appendix IV, 4.3). They were asked to analyse the function of the instances signalled with a horizontal line and told to use the *RFSN* as a tool that indicates the path leading to a particular function (ignoring the lexico-grammatical realisation as far as possible).

The external coders worked on their own independently. Later, two meetings were necessary in order to carry out the intercoder reliability test: both coders brought their codings and had to go throughout their analyses to check whether they agreed on the tag that they had assigned to each function individually. Instructions asked them to discuss those instances where no agreement existed so as to reach a common category. It should be added that despite being present in the same room during those sessions (so as to take note of the whole agreement process), the researcher neither guided the coders nor took part in the discussion.

¹⁰⁸ It should be borne in mind that the postulated system of analysis is aimed at other researchers or linguists who will work with content data in the future. As a result, the coders who took part in the validation of the tool are researchers with a PhD on English Language and Linguistics, learned enough, thus, to achieve that task.

6.3.1.1. Intercoder reliability: percent agreement

To determine the level of reliability of the *RFSN* instrument, the analysis considered first the degree of agreement between the external coders. For presentation purposes, Contingency Table 31 below is an adaptation of the one provided by the *SPSS* software programme (displayed in Appendix IV, table 26 p.620). It shows the cross-tabulation or joint distribution of both analyses (coder 1 analysis vs. coder 2 analysis) and should be read as follows: each row corresponds to one regulatory function. The columns reveal the number of instances coder 1 and coder 2 identified in the *corpus*, the number of correspondences and the percentages of agreement. The first percentage indicates the agreement obtained if the researcher considers the instances identified by coder 1. The second percentage, in turn, refers to the agreement the coders reach when the researcher examines coder 2's instances. Later, this section provides the agreement and reliability coefficients.

FUNCTION	Total nº in coder 1's analysis	Total nº in coder 2's analysis	Nº of coincidences	Percentage of coincidence	
				Coder 1	Coder 2
Selection	72	71	64	88.9%	90.1%
Scolding	22	17	17	77.3%	100%
Action command	62	63	52	83.9%	82.5%
Suggestion	14	13	12	85.7%	92.3%
Ling.prod.command	81	86	76	93.8%	88.4%
Imitation command	9	13	9	100%	69.2%
Compleat.command	34	31	28	82.4%	90.3%
Repetit. Command	17	20	15	88.2%	75%
Linguistic prompt	11	9	9	81.8%	100%
Behaviour command	55	44	39	70.9%	88.6%
Action prompt	11	9	7	63.6%	77.8%
Action prohibition	8	20	8	100%	40%
Linguistic prohibition	3	3	3	100%	100%
Warning	3	3	3	100%	100%

Table 31. "Contingency table: coder 1 vs. coder 2" adapted.

For practical reasons, the section below mentions those regulatory functions where a high percentage of agreement obtained between the two external coders and offers a

general interpretation of the data¹⁰⁹. A more detailed explanation is provided to those categories where discrepancies emerged between the coders' analyses.

As Table 31 above displays, 100% overlap was found in the categories “linguistic prohibitions” (code: Dp-l) and “warnings” (Dw), both very rare in the *corpus* and in the samples provided to the coders (11 and 7 instances, respectively), which might have helped the coders to identify them. As regards the categories “call of attention: selection” (As) and “scolding” (Asc), they have also been easily identified by both coders since the percentages of agreement range between 90% and 100%. It is worth noting that, according to the coders, the rare instances where discrepancies occurred resulted from a lack of contextual information (paralinguistic and prosodic), which is crucial in the analysis of a call (“selection” vs. “scolding”). Besides, one of the coders added that it might have been beneficial to provide them with a brief summary describing the activity children were engaged in the different sessions.

Similarly, the regulatory functions “linguistic prompts” (Dprl), “suggestions” (Ds) and “linguistic production command” (Dclm) reached percentages of agreement of 81.8%, 85.7% and 93.8% respectively¹¹⁰. In my view, this finding is paramount in that it reveals that the criteria set by the *Regulatory Functions System Network* have been adopted and followed by the external coders in almost all the instances. More specifically, it reveals that the coders have not been misled by the versatile surface structure of those categories and have stuck to the discourse-semantic criteria specified in the *RFSN*. Besides, and particularly relevant to this investigation, the agreement concerning the “linguistic production command” between the coders highlights the understanding and identification of the foreign language as a type of goods and services exchanged, one of the major claims of the present dissertation.

Along with that category where the foreign language is exchanged, the regulatory functions “imitation command” (Dclim), “linguistic completions command” (Dclcm),

¹⁰⁹ Due to space constraints, both coders' analyses are graphically illustrated in Appendix IV, pp.621-624.

¹¹⁰ To be consistent in the presentation, when only one percentage is provided to compare categories, this will unmarkedly be coder 1's.

“repetition commands” (Dclre) were equally consolidated: the percentages of agreement reached high values, i.e. 100%, 82.4% and 88.2%, respectively. It is worth mentioning some appealing results that arose in the analysis of those categories. Despite a 100% of agreement in the category “linguistic imitation command”, it should be acknowledged that coder 2 identified more instances as “imitation commands” which were interpreted to be “action commands” by coder 1 (e.g. “read: this is beautiful”, where coder 1 interpreted reading as an action and not a “linguistic imitation command”).

As far as the “repetition commands” are concerned, it might be highlighted that coder 2 identified 5 instances as “repetition commands”, tagged as “linguistic production command” or “linguistic prompt” by coder 1 instead. Though occasional, this overlapping among the three categories leads the researcher to consider the reasons that may have misled one of the coders. According to the *Regulatory Functions System Network*, the “linguistic production command”, “linguistic prompt” and “linguistic repetition command” mainly differ in the type of move within the exchange: <purely initiate move> vs. <tracking exploring move> vs. <tracking extending move> respectively. Hence, it appears that coder 2 did not consider this discursive criterion in the tool of analysis.

Finally, regarding the “linguistic completions command”, the few discrepancies were due to mistaking “linguistic completion command” for “linguistic production command”. During the joint session between the two coders, an interesting debate emerged as to how to categorise instances such as “these are...?” as in example 221 below. While coder 2 felt those were similar to “what are these?” (thus, a “linguistic production command”), coder 1 believed it was an incomplete piece of information provided by the teacher which sought for completion. It should be mentioned that the *Regulatory Functions System Network* helped coder 2 identify the differences between the two distinct regulatory functions and eventually came to an agreement.

Example 221: [Session NNcT2]

TCH: Not trousers, trousers are long.. These are trousers ((referring to her own)) ..

But these are<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$... ((Showing that the “shorts” are up to the middle of the thigh)) up to here....

You should know the name<DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc\$

.. these are yours..

CH: <x I don't know the name x>

TCH: *These are shhhh-<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcEE\$. . .*

Sho-...

CH: [*Shorts*]

TCH: [*Shorts*] *Paula, very good. ((Referring to another girl, not the one she was addressing to))*

As far as non-linguistic commands are concerned, the regulatory functions “action commands” (DC-a) and “behaviour command” (Dcb) display high percentages of agreement in Table 31 above (83.9%-82.5% and 70.9%-88.6% respectively). However, during their joint session, the external coders claimed that some instances such as “sit down” could either be interpreted as “action commands” when it is uttered as part of an activity (e.g. contrary to “stand up”) or could be interpreted as a rule inherent to classroom behaviour and thus be labelled “behaviour command”. It was suggested that further specifications should hence be given so as to differentiate both categories (cf. section 6.3.3. below).

Along with the two aforementioned categories, the regulatory function “action prohibitions” reached 100% overlap if one considers the instances that coder 1 identified. However, only 40% overlap obtained if one examines those tagged by coder 2. In other words, coder 2 acknowledged 12 instances as “action prohibitions” that had been interpreted as “behaviour commands” by coder 1. These data unveil an important discrepancy between the coders since instances such as “don't speak” were interpreted as “action prohibitions” by coder 2 but were understood to be “behaviour commands” by coder 1. These results will call for further considerations in section 6.3.3. below.

Finally, it should be stated that although the percentage of agreement concerning “Action prompts” (Dpra) reached 77.8% for coder 2, a few discrepancies arose when coder 2 identified as “prompts” an instance coder 1 analysed as “action commands”¹¹¹, which accounts for the lower percentage of agreement if the researcher considers coder 1's data (63.6%). It should be borne in mind that “action prompts” are tracking moves on “action

¹¹¹ It should be borne in mind that “*action prompts*” are tracking moves on “*action commands*” and that at some point one of the coders may have felt misled if an “*action command*” was twice repeated (i.e. an “*action command*” or a “*prompt*” reinforcing the previous command).

commands”, which implies that they are unmarkedly uttered together. However, the teacher occasionally utters the same “action command” twice, for emphasis purposes. This might well be the reason leading one of the coders to identify one of those commands as “action prompt”.

Whereas the results explained above provide a detailed picture of the distribution of the analyses of the regulatory functions given by the two external coders, it is necessary to statistically treat and examine the data so as to establish an intercoder reliability agreement.

6.3.1.2. Intercoder reliability: Cohen’s Kappa

According to Potter and Levine-Donnerstein (1999), a common procedure for computing a reliability coefficient is to find the percentage among coders and then correct for chance agreement by employing one of the three popular used methods (Scott’s pi, Krippendorff’s alpha or Cohen’s Kappa). The present research has selected the Cohen’s Kappa index¹¹² as the reliability coefficient since it is the one commonly used in language studies (cf. Dewey 1983; cf. Palmer and Simmons 1995).

As most indices, the reliability coefficient takes values of .00 when no agreement exists to 1.00 where perfect agreement is reached. The objective of the present test is twofold: first, it measures the degree of agreement between the external coders and, second, it provides the degree of agreement between the analysis provided by the coders (joined version once they have discussed any discrepancies) and the researcher’s.

The intercoder reliability coefficient was thus calculated taking the data that have been displayed in the Contingency Table 31 above. As Table 32 below reveals, the intercoder reliability coefficient obtained in the present study is .829.

¹¹² This measure emerges back away in the sixties, within psychiatric diagnosis, when Cohen (1960) concentrates on nominal scaling, i.e. the assignment of units to qualitative categories. While other indices are easier and more intuitive to calculate (e.g. percent agreement, Holsti’s method), they fail to account for agreement that would simply occur by chance. As a way to correct the percentages of agreement for the probability of agreeing by chance alone, Cohen calculated the *kappa coefficient* as “the proportion of agreement between two judges corrected for chance” (Cohen 1960: 37). Despite its drawbacks, Dewey (1983) claims that *kappa* should still be the measure of choice and is nowadays used in research that involves language (cf. Palmer and Simmons 1995) and behaviour (Bakeman 2000).

Symmetrical measures

		Valor	Error típ. asint. ^a	T aproximada ^b	Sig. aproximada
Nominal por nominal	Phi	3,091			,000
	V de Cramer	,857			,000
	Coefficiente de contingencia	,951			,000
Medida de acuerdo	Kappa	.829	,020	44,968	,000
N de casos válidos		402			

Table 32: Intercoder Reliability coefficient

Understanding that the present index, as other coefficients, range from 0 to 1 (1 standing for perfect agreement), the obtained coefficient .829 reveals a significantly strong agreement between the coders. To determine what constitutes an acceptable level of reliability, Neuendorf (2002:145) reviewed several studies (Ellis 1994, Banerjee, Capozzoli, McSweeney and Sinha 1999) and claimed that “coefficients of .90 or greater would be acceptable to all, .80 or more would be acceptable in most situations, and below that, there exists great disagreement” (*ibid.*). Furthermore, Lombard *et al.* (2002:593) underline that .70 is often used in exploratory research. This would therefore imply that the agreement obtained between the two external coders in the present investigation is acceptable to almost all the situations.

6.3.2. Validity

As it has been mentioned above, for an instrument to be considered as real and meaningful to the learning process and to educational research, it needs to be (i) reliable and (ii) valid. Once the researcher has observed the consistency to which external analysts agree on the categories of the taxonomy and has probed that there is .829 of agreement between the coders (=82.9%), the *Regulatory Functions System Network* can be argued to be reliable (section 6.3.1. above). However, as Potter and Levine-Donnerstein (1999) claim, “with manifest content, the issue of reliability is seen as a necessary but not sufficient condition for validity, that is, reliability is a necessary precondition for validity” (1999:272). Consequently, this section examines whether the system network is a valid tool of analysis. In other words, it analyses to what extent the findings obtained are generalizable to future studies.

Assessing validity is best regarded as a two-step process. The first step is to develop a coding scheme that guides coders in the analysis of content, in our case of regulatory functions. If the scheme is faithful to the theory in its orienting coders to the main concepts, it is regarded as a valid coding scheme. The second step is to assess the decisions made by coders against some standard. If the codes match the standard for correct decision making, then the coding is regarded as producing valid data (cf. Potter and Levine-Donnerstein 1999).

The designer of the content analysis develops a coding scheme that consists of rules that tell coders how to place their observations into the correct categories. Developing a coding scheme means for the researcher to reduce the complexity of all the attributes present in a phenomenon down into a limited and manageable set of attributes that are key to the purpose of the investigation (in our case, the researcher provided the coders with the *RFSN* tool and the resulting taxonomy of functions, cf. Appendix IV, 4.1).

The researcher must tell coders how to make inferences of patterns from the appearance of specific elements (training session, cf. Appendix IV, 4.2). According to Poole and Folger (1981), a coding scheme is essentially a translation device that allows investigators to place utterances into theoretical categories (1981:477). The coding scheme is an effort to make the coding process uniform across all coders so that the coding can be regarded as systematic and thus scientific.

Determining validity implies the existence of a standard that serves as a basis to compare codings. The standard is understood as “the correct” or “accurate” set of codes (cf. Folger, Hewes and Poole 1984; Wimmer and Dominick 1991). Thus, codings that match the criterion are accurate. To the extent that codings deviate from the standard, they vary in inaccuracy.

To the question “Who sets the standard?”, it is argued that experts (i.e. researchers) must set the standard: “Experts are best able to fully understand the correct application of the coding rules, because they created those rules. Those rules were designed in such a way

as to narrow the degree of interpretation down so it converges on a correct code for each content situation” (Potter and Levine-Donnerstein 1999:269).

Consequently, in order to assess validity, the coding decisions made by the external coders were compared against the standard, namely the researcher’s analysis. For presentation purposes, Contingency Table 33 below is first displayed so as to appreciate the distribution of the different categories across the analyses (where “agreement” refers to the final version that the coders provided and where “function” refers to the standard, namely the researcher’s analysis). Later, the Kappa coefficient unveils the agreement degree between the coders’ and the researcher’s version, i.e. the validity of the system of analysis posited in this research.

6.3.2.1. Coders-Researcher reliability: percent agreement

Working with two qualitative variables (the researcher’s analysis vs. the coders’ version reaching an agreement after the joint session), Contingency Table 33 below corresponds to the cross-tabulation of both variables. For presentation purposes, that table is an adaptation of the one provided by the SPSS software programme (displayed in Appendix IV, table 27 p.625). It shows the cross-tabulation or joint distribution of both analyses (researcher’s vs. the coders’ final version) and should be read as follows: each row corresponds to one regulatory function. The columns reveal the number of instances the researcher and the coders identified in the *corpus*, the number of correspondences and the percentages of agreement. The first percentage indicates the agreement obtained when taking the researcher’s analysis as a reference point. The second percentage, in turn, refers to the agreement reached when considering the coders’ instances as a basis. Later, this section provides the agreement and reliability coefficients.

FUNCTION	Total n° in researcher's standard	Total n° in coders' final version	N° of coincidences	Percentage of coincidence	
				Researcher	Coders
Selection	77	75	70	90.9%	93.3%
Scolding	17	18	15	88.2%	83.3%
Action command	68	64	61	89.7%	95.3%
Suggestion	11	13	11	100%	84.6%
Ling.prod.command	82	82	79	96.3%	96.3%
Imitation command	10	9	9	90%	100%
Compleat.command	34	34	34	100%	100%
Repetit. Command	20	19	19	95%	100%
Linguistic prompt	9	10	9	100%	90%
Behaviour command	33	54	32	97%	59.3%
Action prompt	9	8	8	88.9%	100%
Action prohibition	18	10	7	38.9%	70%
Linguistic prohibition	9	3	3	33.3%	100%
Warning	5	3	3	60%	100%

Table 33. "Contingency table: Researcher vs. coders' analyses" adapted.

Bearing in mind that the discrepancies between the researcher and the coders undoubtedly influenced the re-definition of the *Regulatory Functions System Network* (section 6.3.3. below), it will be more interesting to consider the quantitative results (kappa-coefficient) first and explore the qualitative differences later.

6.3.2.2. Coders-Researcher reliability: Cohen's kappa

The coders-researcher reliability coefficient was calculated taking the data that have been displayed in Contingency Table 33 above. Not only does this coefficient reveal an agreement degree but also the degree to which the coders echoed the standard. As Table 34 below reveals, the kappa coefficient obtained is .880.

Understanding that the present index, as other coefficients, range from 0 to 1 (1 standing for perfect agreement), the obtained coefficient .880 reveals a significantly strong agreement between the coders and the standard ($p=.000$). Going back to the acceptable level of reliability mentioned above, it can here be stated that the analysis of the coders in relation to the standard is almost acceptable to all since Neuendorf (2002:145) claims that “coefficients of .90 or greater would be acceptable to all”.

Symmetrical values

		Valor	Error tip. asint. ^a	T aproximada ^b	Sig. aproximada
Nominal por nominal	Phi	3,144			,000
	V de Cramer	,872			,000
	Coefficiente de contingencia	,953			,000
Intervalo por intervalo	R de Pearson	,931	,016	51,009	,000 ^c
Ordinal por ordinal	Correlación de Spearman	,936	,017	53,132	,000 ^c
Medida de acuerdo	Kappa	,880	,017	47,557	,000
N de casos válidos		402			

Table 34: Intercoder Reliability coefficient

In summary, it is hereby claimed that the coding system emerging from the *RFSN* is valid in that the coding scheme has laid out variables, definitions and rules for recognising these variables in the content being coded. Additionally, the coding decisions made by the coders have been compared against the standard established by the researcher and their degree of agreement is almost acceptable to all¹¹³. However, a qualitative analysis of the results urges the researcher to consider the differences between the coders’ and the researcher’s analyses and hence proceed to an ultimate refinement of the instrument.

6.3.3. The *Regulatory Functions System Network* refined

In the present research, both the results obtained in the intercoder reliability test and the joint sessions with the external coders contributed to improve and slightly modify some categories in the coding scheme to promote greater validity of the construct of regulatory functions. In the light of the data displayed in Contingency Table 33 above and the joint sessions with the external coders, the first part of this section briefly reports on the results referring to those regulatory categories where high percentage of agreement between the

¹¹³ Further analyses in the Appendixes IV, 4.6 and 4.7 illustrate the percentages of agreement and Cohen’s *Kappa* coefficient between each of the coders and the standard, pp.632-633.

coders and the researcher obtained and provides a general interpretation of the findings¹¹⁴. Then, the second part examines the regulatory functions with significant discrepancies between the coders and the researcher so as to account for the refinement of the instrument elaborated throughout this work, namely the *Regulatory Functions System Network*.

6.3.3.1. *Non-controversial categories*

The regulatory functions “calls of attention: selection” and “scolding” reached high percentages of agreement, as these range between 90.9% and 88.2% respectively (cf. Table 33 above). This finding echoes the one obtained between the coders’ independent analyses: the few discrepancies between the researcher and the coders lay in the interpretation of some instances where a “scolding” was perceived as a “call of attention: selection”, resulting from a lack of contextual information.

As far as “action prompts” and “suggestions” are concerned, it is interesting to note that 100% overlap obtained in both categories between the researcher’s and coders’ analyses. However, it is striking to note that the coders identified two more instances as “suggestions” where the standard identified an “action command” or a “call of attention: selection” with illocutionary force. This finding reveals that very occasionally the external coders were misled by the surface structure of the utterance. Example 222 below illustrates how a “let’s- imperative” clause was interpreted as a “suggestion” while it is categorised as an “action command” through the *RFSN*:

Example 222: [Session NkcE]

.. Put your hands up if you hear “red” three times one after the other.. or if you whether you hear one word.. altogether..

CH: ((León, Celia and Juan)) Red

TCH: Could you hear one word?

CH: ((all)) Yes

TCH: <x__x> Sit down just a minute

.. *Let- Let’s try again*<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-S1a-Rp-Adj\$

Particularly relevant to the present investigation and, in my view, one of the most valuable results of this study, are the high percentages of agreement obtained in the linguistic commands, namely the “linguistic production command”, “imitation command”,

¹¹⁴ Due to space constraints, the analyses of both coders’ version and the researcher’s standard are graphically illustrated in Appendix IV, 4.5.

“linguistic completion commands” and the “repetition commands”, together with the “linguistic prompt”. The aforementioned regulatory functions reached percentages of agreement ranging from 90% to 100% (see Table 33 above). These are remarkably high features bearing in mind that the coders were asked to treat “language” (i.e. linguistic material in the foreign language) as goods and services in the foreign classroom. Although this was a concept utterly new to both coders, the results of the aforementioned regulatory functions confirm that “language as goods” was perfectly understood, adopted as a criterium of analysis and correctly identified by the coders in their analyses.

Furthermore, it is interesting to note that the system network helped the external coders to discuss discrepancies over some categories and ultimately reach an agreement in their final version, which echoes the standard set by the researcher. As an illustration, it is worth mentioning that the discrepancies between the coders concerning the categories “linguistic production commands” and “completion commands” (cf. Table 31) have disappeared after their joint session (cf. Table 33). In fact, the coders seem to have adjusted their analysis to the criteria set by the *Regulatory Functions System Network* since their common version echoes the standard.

6.3.3.2. Revisited regulatory functions

As mentioned above, one of the aims of the intercoder reliability test is to refine an instrument. While the Cohen’s Kappa coefficient highlights an overall agreement degree both between the coders ($=.829$, Table 32) and between the coders and the researcher’s standard ($=.880$, Table 34), a qualitative look at some controversial categories leads to a refinement of the taxonomy, which accounts for the readjustment of Figure 23 into Figure 118).

The data displayed in Contingency Table 33¹¹⁵ confirm that “action commands” is a category with a very high percentage of agreement. The coders identified 89.7% of the utterances tagged by the standard as “action commands”. Nonetheless, this regulatory function is presented within this block of controversial categories since the coders

¹¹⁵ The intercoder reliability tests are graphically illustrated in Appendixes 4.4. and 4.5 (pp. 620-631).

occasionally identified some of the instances as “behaviour commands” instead. Had this finding been isolated, no further considerations would have followed. However, the qualitative analysis of the category “action prohibitions” revealed that the scarce 38.9% of agreement between the coders and the researcher resulted from the coders’ interpretation of some “action prohibitions” as “behaviour commands” too.

Likewise, a close look at the regulatory function “linguistic prohibition” unveils a similar finding. Although the few instances identified as such by the coders were so tagged by the researcher (100% overlap), the external coders did not identify all the instances in the sample, which accounts for a scarce 33.3% overlap between the coders and the standard. Again, as the data reveal, the coders interpreted some of these as “action prohibitions” or “behaviour commands”. And finally, the analysis of the 60% agreement between the coders and the researcher reached in the regulatory function “*warnings*” also discloses that the remaining cases were interpreted by the coders as “*action prohibitions*” and “*behaviour commands*” (see values in bold in Table 33).

Bearing in mind the coders’ individual analyses (Table 31) and then their final version compared to the standard (Table 33), the data reveal two main findings. First, the poor agreement with the standard in the aforementioned categories derives from the joint session between the coders. Despite their initial discrepancies over “action prohibitions” and “behaviour commands”, coder 1 eventually persuaded coder 2 of her analysis (Appendix IV, 4.4). Second, what Table 33 discloses is that the poor agreement percentage in “Action prohibitions”, “behaviour commands” and “linguistic prohibitions” results from an overlap between the three different categories. De facto, the comments made by the coders throughout their sessions elucidated the possible confusions between the different categories.

Consequently, the following re-arrangement was carried out in the coding scheme of the *Regulatory Functions System Network*. It appears that the main problem emerged from the fact that some “behaviour commands” were prohibitive in the orientation (e.g. “don’t talk”) and could thus be potentially categorised as “behaviour commands”, “action

prohibitions” or as “linguistic prohibitions”. Besides, the joint session between the coders led them feel there could be a crucial feature helping in the distinction among the three different categories i.e. whether the utterance is focusing on an activity in progress in the classroom or on the behaviour.

Therefore, it was thought by the coders and the researcher altogether that a different category should be created, namely “Behaviour Prohibitions”. Indeed, in the same way “Action commands” had their counterpart in “Action prohibitions”, “Linguistic commands” had their counterpart in “Linguistic prohibitions”, “Behaviour commands” would now have their counterpart in “Behaviour prohibitions”. This slight change significantly helped in clarifying concepts and thus, those instances where discrepancies emerged between the coders and the researcher were revised together and easily categorised into either “behaviour commands”, “behaviour prohibitions”, “action prohibitions” or “linguistic prohibitions”. As a result, the aforementioned categories have been polished and their characteristic features are further specified below so as to propose a valid coding scheme, graphically illustrated in Figure 118 below (see circled variables).

- ***Linguistic prohibitions***: refer to those instances whereby the child is forbidden to carry out a verbal action and result from the following variables in the *Regulatory Functions System Network*: *negotiate*, *exchange*> *demand*> *goods and services*> *addressee orientation*> *non-desirable* > *initiation*> *initiate*> *bound to a verbal response*. (e.g. *you're speaking Spanish!*).
- ***Action prohibitions***: refer to those instances whereby the child is forbidden to carry out a non-verbal action and result from the following variables: *negotiate*, *exchange*> *demand*> *goods and services*> *addressee orientation*> *non-desirable* > *initiation*> *initiate*> *bound to a non-verbal response: action*. (e.g. *You don't colour them green*)
- ***Behaviour commands***: refer to those instances whereby the child is asked to turn the current undersirable behaviour into a desirable one, the focus hence being on the expected welcome behaviour. This function results from the following variables:

negotiate, exchange> demand> goods and services> addressee orientation> non-desirable > initiation> initiate> bound to a non-verbal response: expected behaviour. (e.g. keep quiet!)

- **Behaviour prohibitions:** refer to those instances whereby the child is forbidden to behave in a particular way and result from the following variables: *negotiate, exchange> demand> goods and services> addressee orientation> non-desirable > initiation> initiate>_bound to a non-verbal response: current behaviour.*

“Behaviour prohibitions” prevent the child from engaging into a specific behaviour in the class (mainly singing, chatting or standing up). While somehow similar to “behaviour commands”, the difference lies on the focus of the teacher’s utterance. This feature comes into play within classroom context as the teacher may either focus on what is or what should take place: if the teacher highlights the current behaviour that is to be stopped, the analyst is dealing with a prohibition (e.g. *don’t sit<DP-b>*), whereas if what is being underlined is the desirable behaviour to adopt (e.g. *go to your seat <DC-b>*), the analyst is facing a command.

Example 223: [NNcT2]

Julito! Go to your seat<DC-b>

Go to your seat<DC-b><r>Julito

Go to your seat<DC-b><r>

Example 224: [NNcT2]

Don’t sit like that<DP-b>

Laura

Example 225: [NNncS2]

CH: { Big} ((All together))

CH. { Small}

TCH: {{ No, no<DP-b>

rise your hands<DC-b> ((rising her own hand)) Miguel Angel!

6. The Regulatory Functions System Network:
Definition and validation of the proposed taxonomy

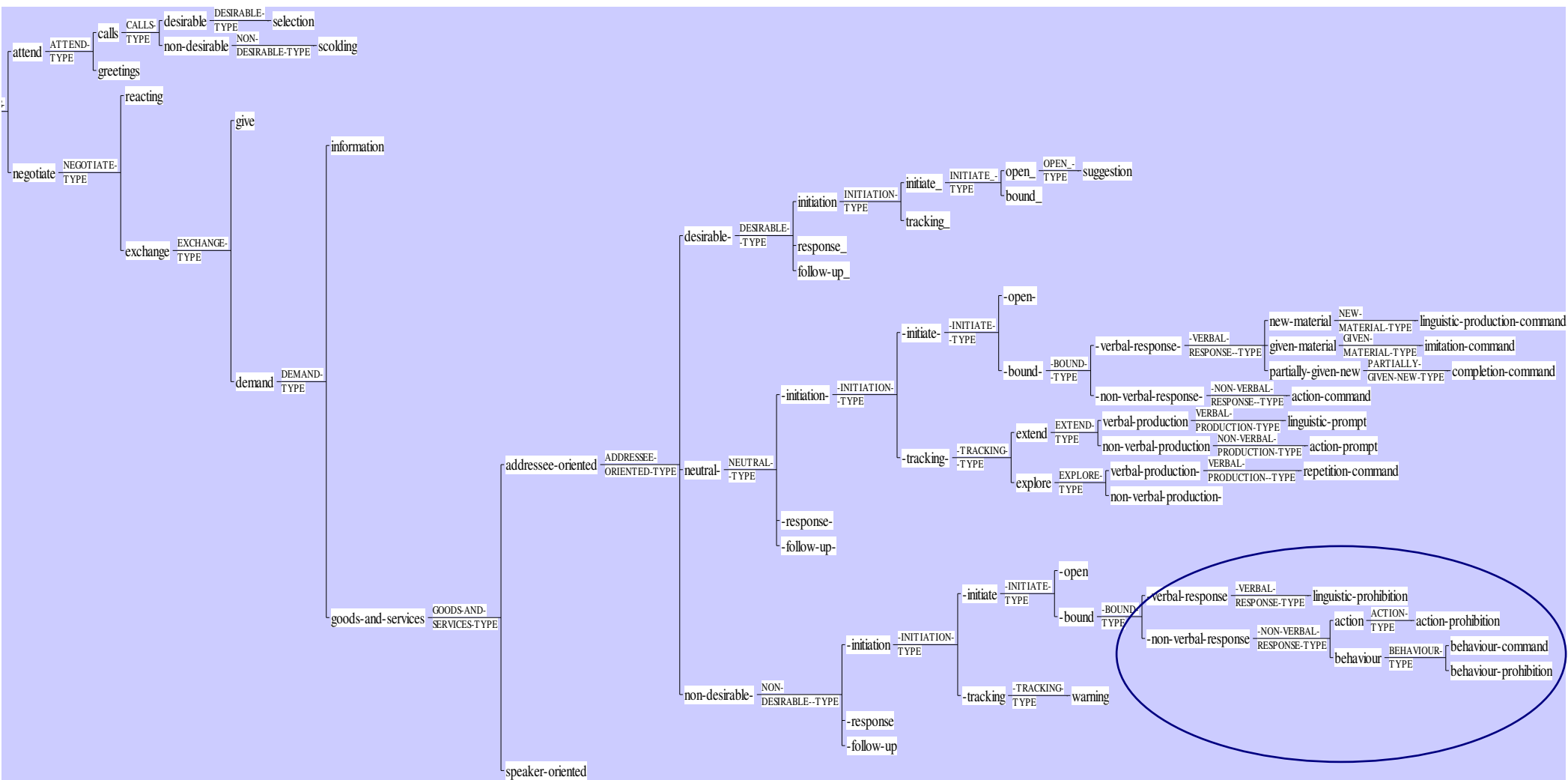


Fig. 118: Regulatory Functions Network System Refined.

6.3.4. Concluding remarks on the *RFSN* validation

The statistical tests carried out in section 6.3. have confirmed that the posited *Regulatory Functions System Network* is a valid and reliable instrument of analysis of regulatory functions in the EFL classroom. I would personally argue that section 6.3. discloses a major finding, evidenced in the network and in the resulting taxonomy: in the EFL primary classroom context, three possible goods and services are constantly exchanged: (i) actions and (ii) behaviour (both being non-verbal responses) and (iii) the English language (verbal response). Accordingly, this led me to consider demanding those goods and services through commands (i.e. “*Action commands*”, “*Behaviour commands*” and “*Linguistic commands*”) or preventing them from happening through prohibitions (i.e. “*Action prohibitions*”, “*Behaviour prohibitions*” and “*Linguistic prohibitions*”), which is evidenced in the *Regulatory Functions System Network* redesigned.

6.4. Summary of the Description and Validation of the *RFSN* and taxonomy

The results of this chapter lead the researcher to claim that the first objective stated in the introduction of this work has been fully achieved, i.e. “*To create and validate a tool of analysis that will account for the different discourse-semantic regulatory choices in EFL pre-school teacher talk: The Regulatory Functions System Network and a Regulatory Functions Taxonomy*”. Sections 6.1. and 6.2. have focused on the display and description of the regulatory functions taxonomy that resulted from the analysis through the *RFSN*, which offers the researcher and future potential analysts a thorough description of the *variables* that define each distinct category. It seems to me that this is relevant since it does not merely offer the resulting categories but depicts their constitutive features so that other future researchers can use them in ulterior analyses.

Section 6.3., in turn, has statistically tested the instrument of analysis posited in this work. First, it has determined its reliability by considering the coders agreement over the distinct regulatory functions categories. Second, it has assessed its validity by comparing the coders’ final joint analysis against the standard. Both statistical analyses have confirmed that the discourse-semantic criteria set by the *RFSN* provides any researcher with a useful, reliable and valid tool to categorise utterances into the distinct

regulatory functions in the primary EFL classroom since the percentage of agreement was acceptable to almost all situations. And third, it has unveiled the motivations underlying the configuration of the *Regulatory Functions System Network*. The qualitative interpretation of the statistical tests has shed some light upon some controversial categories of the regulatory functions taxonomy. In fact, the discrepancies between the coders and the researcher have been explored so as to account for a refinement of the instrument.

Furthermore, Chapter 6 has examined the function-form relationship within each distinct regulatory function. More specifically, a ranking of the lexicogrammatical surface structures corresponding to each regulatory function has been provided and more particular lexicogrammatical features (e.g. polarity, modality, subject, etc...) have been analysed, which has led the researcher to comment on the similarities and differences across speakers. However, bearing in mind that this investigation aims at a comprehensive analysis of a whole taxonomy, the exploration of the function-form correspondence in regulatory functions in EFL teacher talk needs to be completed with a more detailed and all-inclusive study of the function-form relationship across functions and across speakers. As a result, Chapter 7 is devoted to fulfil the second objective of this dissertation, i.e. *to examine the function-form relationship of regulatory functions in EFL pre-school teacher talk across teachers* and hence statistically test hypotheses 1 and 2 formulated in the introduction (i.e. dependency in the function-form relationship and differences in native vs. non-native teachers).

QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

The function-form mapping and comparison across teachers

“There is no neat fit between sociological and linguistic categories [...]. One cannot, it seems, have it both ways with language. Either theory and method are formally neat but semantically messy (as in the dictionary: one form, many meanings) or they are semantically neat but formally messy (as in the thesaurus: one concept, many possible realisations)” (van Leeuwen 1996:33).

CHAPTER 7: QUANTITATIVE RESULTS: THE FUNCTION-FORM MAPPING AND COMPARISON ACROSS TEACHERS

7.1. Function-form correspondence in regulatory functions

7.1.1. Bi-uniqueness explored in the realisation of regulatory functions

7.1.1.1. Lexicogrammatical realisations of regulatory functions

7.1.1.2. *Regulatory Functions System Network*: a proposal of the discourse-grammar interface

7.1.2. Dependency explored in the realisation of regulatory functions

7.1.2.1. “Regulatory functions” and “lexicogrammatical surface structure”: dependent variables?

7.1.2.2. Dependency and association of the regulatory functions and the discrete lexicogrammatical features

7.2. The teachers’ exploitation of the Mood system

7.2.1. Variety of choice explored

7.2.2. Indirectness in the instantiation of regulatory functions

7.2.2.1. The use of Polarity

7.2.2.2. The use of Modality

7.2.3. Directness in the instantiation of regulatory functions

7.2.3.1. The use of Ellipsis

7.2.3.2. Clause-complexity

7.3. Summary of results

7.3.1. The function-form relationship

7.3.2. Native vs. Non-native teachers’ instantiation of regulatory functions

7.4. Synopsis of Part III: general results

7. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS: THE FUNCTION-FORM MAPPING AND COMPARISON ACROSS TEACHERS

The aim of Chapter 7 is to provide a more comprehensive and all-inclusive picture of the function-form relationship in teacher talk in the EFL pre-school classroom. To achieve this objective, this chapter briefly reports on qualitative and statistical analyses that have been carried out considering all the functional categories of the taxonomy together. More specifically, Chapter 7 first explores two phenomena common to both groups of teachers: “bi-uniqueness” and “dependency” between the “regulatory functions” and their “lexicogrammatical realisation” through the statistical analysis of the strength, the degree of association and direction of the two variables. Then, this chapter further explores the teachers’ exploitation of the Mood system and pays special attention to their indirect/direct style displayed in their instantiation regulatory functions in the EFL classroom¹¹⁶.

It thus follows that the findings obtained from these analyses will complement those displayed in Chapter 6, will satisfy the second objective of this investigation, i.e. “*To examine the function-form relationship of regulatory functions in EFL pre-school teacher talk across teachers*” and will test its subsequent hypotheses formulated in Chapter 1 above:

- Hypothesis 1: There will be a dependency relationship between the lexicogrammatical realisation and the regulatory function instantiated.
- Hypothesis 2: Both quantitative and qualitative differences will obtain in the linguistic realisation of regulatory functions across teachers (native vs. non-native speakers).

¹¹⁶ Due to space constraints, this chapter exclusively reports on the results of those analyses. The interpretation and explanation of the results is provided in Chapter 8 and further information on the statistical analyses is included in Appendix III.

7.1. Function-form correspondence

7.1.1. Bi-uniqueness explored in the realisation of regulatory functions

In the description and analysis of the discrete regulatory functions provided in Chapter 6, it has gradually been shown that there is not a one-to-one correspondence between the “regulatory functions” and their lexicogrammatical realisation. This section first provides a comprehensive summary of the function-form mapping across the regulatory functions in both groups of teachers (native vs. non-native). As a result, a system network thoroughly portrays the prototypical realisations of the distinct regulatory functions so as to become a tool that enables the analysis of regulatory functions both at the discourse-semantic and lexicogrammatical strata of language (Figures 119-121 below).

7.1.1.1. *Lexicogrammatical realisations of regulatory functions*

Table 35 below aims at providing an all-inclusive picture of the function-form relationship across functions and across speakers. This tabulation merges the distinct function-form tables displayed throughout Chapter 6 in the description of each regulatory function.

NATIVE TEACHERS				NON-NATIVE TEACHERS			
Function	Lexicogrammar	N	%	Function	Lexicogrammar	N	%
Call of attention: selection	Vocative	392	70.8	Call of attention: selection	Vocative	258	74.4
	Imperative	75	13.5		Absolute noun group	51	14.7
	Absolute noun group	68	12.3		Imperative	21	6.1
	No analysis (Spanish)	14	2.5		No analysis (Spanish)	12	3.5
	Yes-no interrogative	2	0.4		Wh- interrogative	3	0.9
	Exclamative	2	0.4		Declarative	2	0.6
TOTAL		554	100	TOTAL		347	100
Scolding	Vocative	95	85.6	Scolding	Vocative	87	98.9
	Exclamative	13	11.7		Exclamative	1	1.1
	Imperative	3	2.7		X		
TOTAL		111	100	TOTAL		88	100
Suggestion	Declarative	35	76.1	Suggestion	Declarative	36	92.3
	Imperative	7	15.2		Yes-no interrogative	1	2.6
	Yes-no interrogative	3	6.5		Absolute noun-group	1	2.6
	Wh-interrogative	1	2.2		No analysis (Spanish)	1	2.6
TOTAL		46	100	TOTAL		39	1
Action commands	Imperative	264	67.9	Action commands	Imperative	255	72.2
	Declarative	86	22.1		Declarative	62	17.8
	Yes-no interrogative	22	5.7		Yes-no interrogative	16	4.5
	No analysis (Spanish)	11	2.8		No analysis (Spanish)	11	3.1
	Absolute Noun group	3	0.8		Wh- interrogative	7	2

7. Quantitative Results:
The function-form mapping and comparison across teachers

	Minor Clause Vocative	2	0.5		Absolute Noun group	1	0.3
	Wh-interrogative	1	0.3		X		
TOTAL		389	100	TOTAL		353	100%
Linguistic production commands	Wh-interrogative	339	61.9	Linguistic production commands	Wh-interrogative	350	66.7
	Yes-no interrogative	117	21.4		Yes-no interrogative	97	18.5
	Imperative	54	9.9		Imperative	46	8.8
	Declarative	23	4.2		Declarative	15	2.9
	Minor Clause Vocative	13	2.4		No analysis (Spanish)	11	2.1
	Absolute noun group	1	0.2		Minor Clause Vocative	6	1.1
	No analysis (Spanish)	1	0.2		X		
TOTAL		548	100%	TOTAL		525	100%
Imitation commands	Imperative	70	90.9	Imitation commands	Imperative	68	81
	Yes-no interrogative	2	2.6		Declarative	14	16.7
	Declarative	2	9.9		Yes-no interrogative	2	2.4
	Minor Clause Vocative	2	4.2		X		
	Wh-interrogative	1	2.1		X		
TOTAL		77	100%	TOTAL		84	100%
Completion commands	Declarative	97	85.1	Completion commands	Declarative	111	57.5
	Absolute noun group	11	9.6		Imperative	36	18.7
	Yes-no interrogative	6	5.3		Absolute noun group	16	8.3
	X				Yes-no interrogative	12	6.2
	X				No Analysis (Spanish)	10	5.2
	X				Wh-interrogative	7	3.6
	X				Textual adjunct	1	0.5
TOTAL		114	100%	TOTAL		193	100%
Repetition commands	Wh-interrogative	8	26.7	Repetition commands	Wh-interrogative	28	62.2
	Imperative	7	23.3		Imperative	7	23.3
	Minor clause	7	23.3		Yes-no interrogative	4	8.9
	Yes-no interrogative	5	16.7		Declarative	4	8.9
	Declarative	3	10		Absolute noun group	4	8.9
	X				Imperative	2	4.4
	X				Minor clause	2	4.4
X			No analysis (Spanish)	1	2.2		
TOTAL		30	100%	TOTAL		45	100%
Action prompts	Imperative	22	76.9	Action prompts	Imperative	32	71.1
	Exclamative	2	6.9		No analysis (Spanish)	12	26.7
	Yes-no interrogative	2	6.9		Yes-no interrogative	1	2.2
	Declarative	2	6.9		X		
	No analysis (Spanish)	1	3.4		X		
TOTAL		29	100%	TOTAL		45	100%
Linguistic prompts	Wh-interrogative	7	25.9	Linguistic prompts	Imperative	40	63.5
	Imperative	6	22.9		Wh-interrogative	10	15.9
	Minor clause	5	18.5		Textual adjunct	9	14.3

	(e.g. one, two...)				Yes-no interrogative	3	4.8
	Declarative	4	14.8		Exclamative	1	1.6
	Textual adjunct	4	14.8		X		
	Yes-no interrogative	1	3.7		X		
TOTAL		27	100%	TOTAL		63	100%
Action prohibitions	Imperative	28	65.1	Action prohibitions	Imperative	41	89.1
	Declarative	11	25.6		Declarative	4	8.7
	No Analysis (Spanish)	2	4.7		Exclamative	1	2.2
	Wh-interrogative	1	2.3		X		
	Absolute Noun Group	1	2.3		X		
TOTAL		43	100%	TOTAL		46	100%
Linguistic prohibitions	Declarative	5	55.6	Linguistic prohibitions	Imperative	9	81.8
	Wh-interrogative	2	22.2		Declarative	1	9.1
	Yes-no interrogative	1	11.1		Wh-interrogative	1	9.1
	Imperative	1	11.1		X		
TOTAL		9	100%	TOTAL		11	100%
Behaviour prohibitions	Imperative	16	40	Behaviour prohibitions	Imperative	23	67.6
	Declarative	11	27.5		Declarative	3	8.8
	Wh-interrogative	7	17.5		Wh-interrogative	3	8.8
	No analysis (Spanish)	6	15		Yes-no interrogative	3	8.8
	X				No analysis (Spanish)	2	5.9
TOTAL		40	100%	TOTAL		34	100%
Behaviour commands	Imperative	64	47.4	Behaviour commands	No analysis (Spanish)	100	46.3
	No analysis (Spanish)	49	36.3		Imperative	95	44
	Yes-no interrogative	14	10.4		Wh- interrogative	8	3.7
	Declarative	4	3		Declarative	5	2.3
	Exclamative	3	2.2		Yes-no interrogative	4	1.9
	Absolute noun group	1	0.7		Exclamative	4	1.9
TOTAL		135	100%	TOTAL		216	100%
Warnings	Imperative	5	45.5	Warnings	Imperative	4	57.1
	Declarative	4	36.4		Declarative	2	28.6
	Yes-no interrogative	1	9.1		No analysis (Spanish)	1	14.3
	Minor clause	1	9.1		X		
TOTAL		11	100%	TOTAL		7	100%

Table 35. Function-form correspondence in regulatory functions in the EFL classroom.

In the light of the results summarised in Table 35, it can be argued that there is no bi-uniqueness in the lexicogrammatical instantiation of the regulatory functions in the data that has been analysed in this investigation. More specifically, two main findings stem from the examination of the data displayed. On the one hand, the lack of bi-uniqueness reveals a versatile use of the Mood system in both groups of teachers.

Although the range of structures displayed varies across speakers, there are indeed at least two or three different lexicogrammatical surface structures that coexist in the instantiation of a particular regulatory function. In fact, it should be noted that each regulatory function displays a variety of forms that ranges from two (e.g. “*scoldings*”) to seven different lexicogrammatical realisations (e.g. “*linguistic production commands*” or “*completion commands*”). This finding confirms that (i) a function “x” can be expressed in a variety of lexicogrammatical forms (e.g. “*warnings*” can be realised by imperatives or declaratives), and that (ii) the same surface structure has the potential of instantiating different regulatory functions (e.g. imperatives can instantiate “*action commands*”, “*behaviour commands*” or “*action prompts*”).

On the other hand, the results unveil that despite the wide range of surface structures that may instantiate each regulatory function, a prototypical realisation always prevails over other choices, which is confirmed by the unequal distribution of the percentages (ranked in decreasing order in Table 35). In fact, a close look at the table indicates that in 66% of the cases (10 functions out of 15) in the native teachers’ *corpus* and in 93% of the cases (14 out of 15 categories) in the non-native teachers’, the first lexicogrammatical realisation displays a frequency higher than 50%, thus constituting a recurrent choice at the lexicogrammatical stratum. As a result, the section below provides an exhaustive system network that embraces the discourse semantic features describing the discrete regulatory functions and their prototypical lexicogrammatical realisations.

7.1.1.2. Regulatory Functions System Network: a proposal of the discourse-grammar interface

The following system network has been designed so as to further appreciate the prototypical realisations that instantiate the fifteen regulatory functions in teacher talk in the present EFL *corpus* (Figures 119-121). When different lexicogrammatical choices existed across speakers, this has been acknowledged in the network through the specification of native and non-native teachers’ lexicogrammatical realisations.

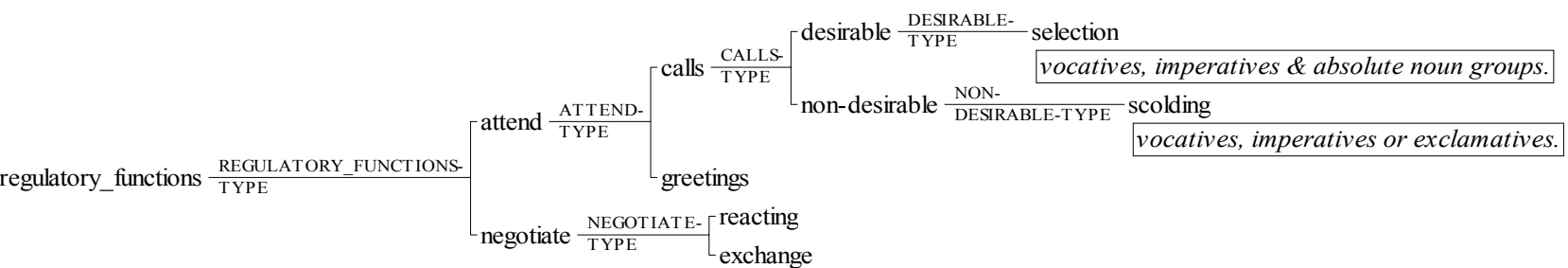


Fig.119. *Regulatory Functions System Network: “Attend moves”*

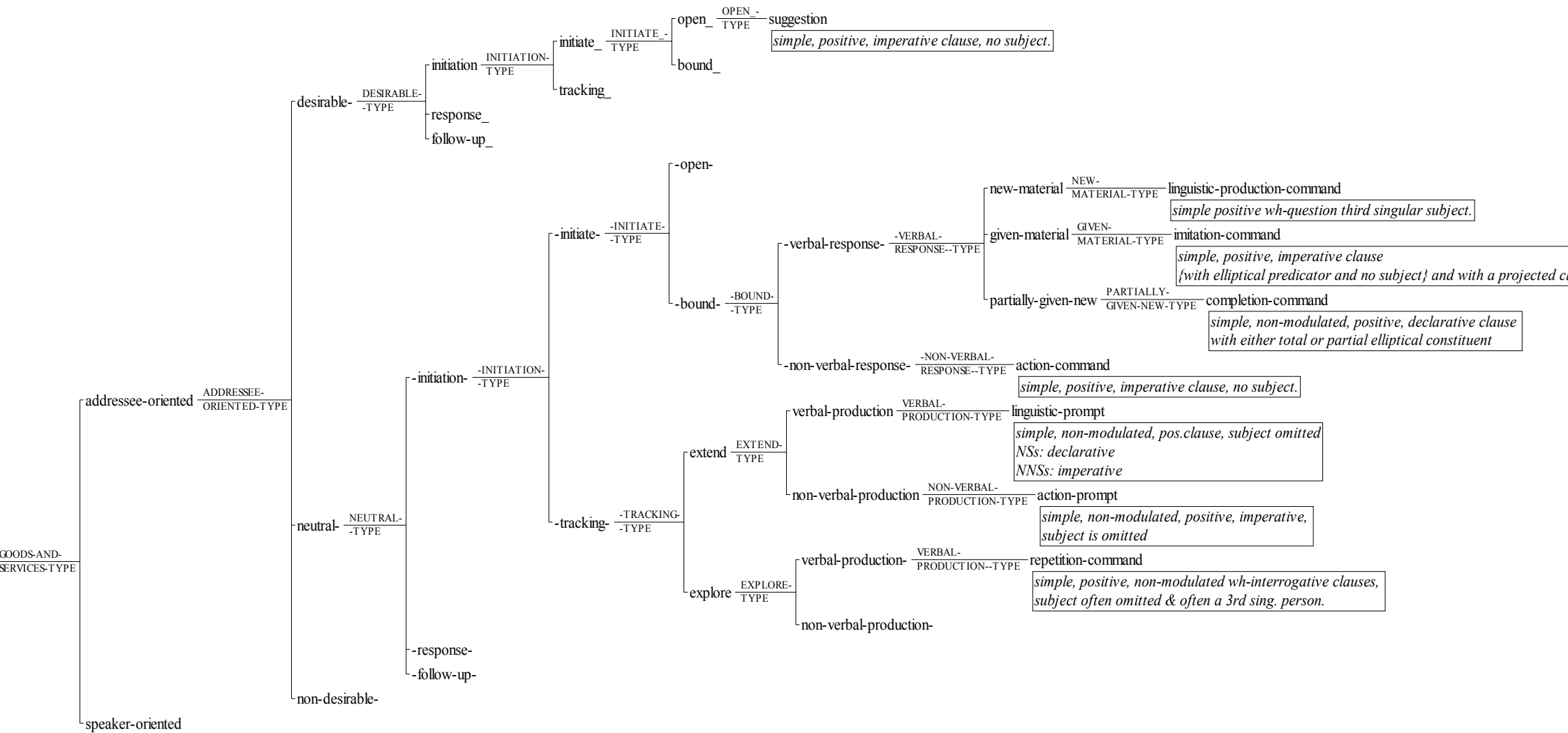


Fig. 120. Regulatory Functions System Network: Negotiate moves: Exchange Goods and Services: Desirable and Neutral.

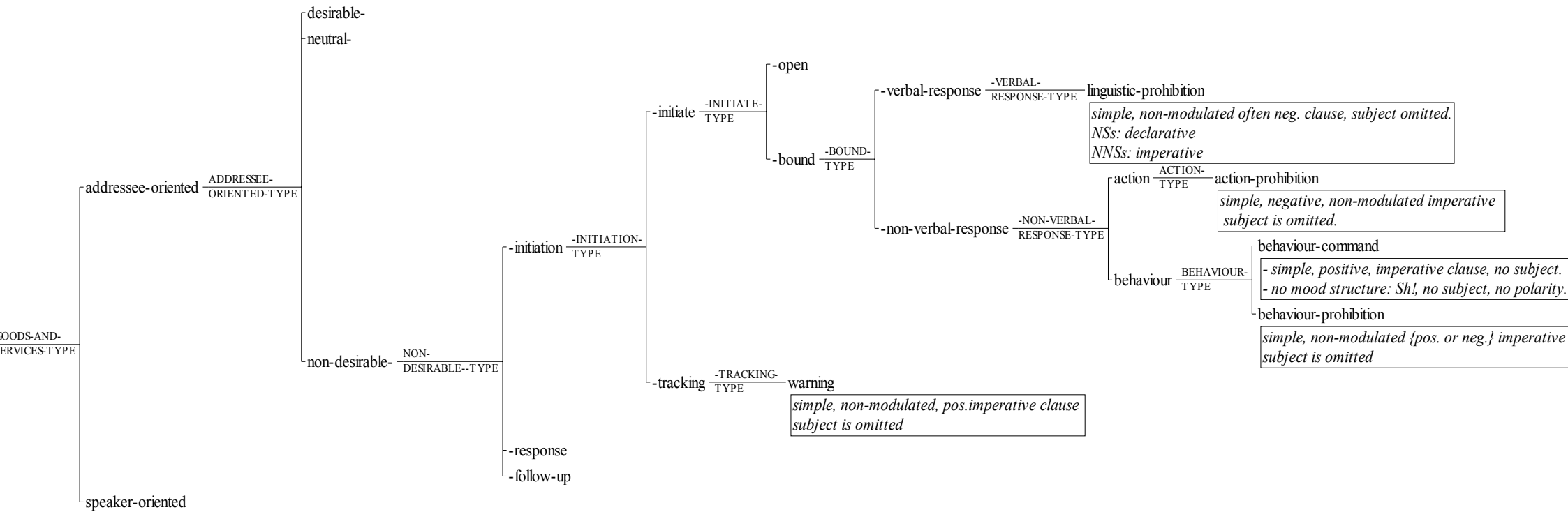


Fig. 121. Regulatory Functions System Network: Negotiate moves: Exchange Goods and Services: Non-desirable

As shown in the system networks above, each regulatory function does have a prototypical realisation which, most relevant to this study, is generally the same across teachers. In other words, in 80% of the categories (12 out of 15 regulatory functions), the most frequent surface structure corresponding to each function coincides in native and non-native teachers' discourse. However, this is not to say that in the remaining 20% of the categories, very distinct choices are displayed. In fact, in "*linguistic prompts*", "*linguistic prohibitions*" and "*behaviour commands*", the non coincidence of the prototype reveals that the prototype in one group simply embodies the second choice of the other group, which signals that the difference is purely numerical (slightly higher or lower in frequencies) rather than formal (different lexicogrammatical choices) (see Table 35 above).

The findings above therefore confirm that despite bi-uniqueness does not obtain in the lexicogrammatical instantiation of functions, prototypical realisations exist. However, it is important to highlight that the prototype often coincides across functions. As an illustration, the <simple, positive, non-modulated imperative clause with subject omitted> unmarkedly instantiates: an "*action command*", a "*behaviour command*", an "*action prompt*", a "*warning*", etc... It seems to me that this finding implies that the lexicogrammatical analysis of utterances is insufficient to categorise utterances into an either-or category. Discourse-semantic criteria are to me a necessary component in the identification of the distinct regulatory functions in the EFL classroom. Furthermore, it may thus be questioned to what extent the surface structure helps or hinders the identification and recognition of regulatory functions. Consequently, section 7.1.2. below statistically explores the "dependency" between the function-form variables.

7.1.2. Dependency in the realisation of regulatory functions

7.1.2.1. "*Regulatory functions*" and "*lexicogrammatical surface structure*": *dependent variables?*

Bearing in mind that this investigation is a cross-stratal study of meaning (from discourse-semantics to lexico-grammar), this section statistically examines the cross-stratal interaction of "functions" and "lexicogrammatical realisations" so as to test hypothesis 1, namely "*There will be a dependency relationship between the lexicogrammatical realisation and the regulatory function instantiated*".

As explained in Chapter 4, the analysis of the linguistic realisation of the different regulatory functions has considered the following aspects at the lexicogrammatical level: clause type (declarative vs. interrogative...), the subject, polarity, modality, ellipsis and clause complexity (dependent, embedded or main clause). Since this section intends to establish the relationship between the two strata, “regulatory function” embodies one variable at the discourse-semantic level, and “clause type” represents the variable at the lexicogrammatical level, since it embraces the distinct lexicogrammatical features together. In other words, “subject”, “ellipsis”, “clause complexity”, “polarity”, “modality” could be collapsed into “clause type” at the lexicogrammatical layer. In so doing, the two strata of language are represented by the two selected variables: *regulatory function* and *clause type*.

The statistical analyses that are reported below are based on a “Contingency Table”, a suitable table that enables to work with two qualitative variables (in this case, “the regulatory function” and the “clause type”) and that presents the simultaneous distribution for the variables “clause-type” per “function” per “speaker” (native vs. non-native teachers). The original Contingency Table obtained through the *SPSS* software corresponds to the cross-tabulation of the three variables and is displayed in Appendix III (p.548). However, for presentation purposes, this investigation has adapted the contingency table and transformed it into Table 35 above.

The exploration of the dependency between the two variables can first be appreciated through a brief look at Table 35 or at the Contingency Table 2 in Appendix III (p.548). Both tables convey the impression that there is an unequal distribution of the frequencies, since they tend to concentrate on some lexicogrammatical realisations. Note that each row (regulatory functions) has one cell where the percentage of frequency with the column, (i.e. linguistic realisation) is much higher than in the rest. Should the two variables (function and clause type) be independent, the distribution would be equitative in their distribution. However, this impressionistic reading must be statistically confirmed.

In order to consider whether the two variables are statistically related and, if so, in what manner, several measures exist. The *Pearson Chi-Square coefficient* (Table 36

below) contrasts the null hypothesis that the two variables are independent. Since the p value obtained in this table is $p=.000$ both for native and non-native teachers, the null hypothesis is rejected at α level of significance ($=,050$). In other words, the function and the lexicogrammatical realisation are not independent. It should be warned that since the *Pearson Chi-Square coefficient* is calculated by looking at the differences between the observed and expected frequencies, a minimum of 5 expected frequencies is necessary in 80% of the cells. When this requisite is not met, analysts consider other coefficients (Elifson *et al.* 1998: 389). In this study, the researcher both attended to the *Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square* and the *Pearson Chi-Square coefficient* (see squared values in Table 36 below).

Chi-Square Test

LANGUAGE		Valor	gl	Sig. asintótica (bilateral)
native	Chi-cuadrado de Pearson	4925,307 ^a	126	,000
	Razón de verosimilitud	3730,342	126	,000
	Asociación lineal por lineal	496,237	1	,000
	N de casos válidos	2163		
non-native	Chi-cuadrado de Pearson	4634,832 ^b	126	,000
	Razón de verosimilitud	3659,991	126	,000
	Asociación lineal por lineal	253,343	1	,000
	N de casos válidos	2096		

Table 36. Chi-Square test for the Contingency Table “Regulatory function”/ “Clause type” in Native and Non-native teachers.

A further step involves the analysis of the degree of such dependency through the nominal measures of association. This study focuses on *Cramer’s V*¹¹⁷ which ranges from 0 when no dependency among variables exists, to 1 when they are perfectly related.

¹¹⁷ While *Phi coefficient* is used with two dychotomic variables and the *Contingency coefficient* was developed for square tables with more than two rows and columns, *Cramer’s V* can be used with square and non-square tables of any size.

Nominal measures of association based on Chi-square

LANGUAGE			Valor	Sig. aproximada
native	Nominal por nominal	Phi	1,509	,000
		V de Cramer	,503	,000
		Coeficiente de contingencia	,834	,000
	N de casos válidos		2163	
non-native	Nominal por nominal	Phi	1,487	,000
		V de Cramer	,496	,000
		Coeficiente de contingencia	,830	,000
	N de casos válidos		2096	

Table 37. Nominal measures of association based on Chi-square.

Table 37 above indicates that the *p* value (significance) is .000 for both groups stating that the relationship between the regulatory functions and the lexicogrammatical realisation is statistically significant in both groups of teachers. More specifically, the values associated to *Cramer's V* inform of the strength of the relationship (=0.503 for native speakers and $V=0.496$ for non-native teachers), which reveals a lower degree of relationship than expected between the two analysed variables (clause type and function) in both groups, and where, surprisingly a slightly higher degree of association exists in native teachers' discourse.

Finally, the study considered a measure of association for nominal-level variables, i.e. the *Uncertainty Coefficient*¹¹⁸, which accounts for the direction of the dependency of two variables (cf. Table 38 below)¹¹⁹. This measure can be interpreted as the proportion in which the uncertainty in predicting the values of the dependent variable (in this case, the regulatory function) is reduced when considering the

¹¹⁸ "Coeficiente de Incertidumbre", my translation.

¹¹⁹ Specific to nominal-level data, *Lambda* (λ) can be used for any distribution of the variables (a normal distribution is not required) and for any size table. It is a statistic that evaluates the degree to which a variable is helpful in predicting a phenomenon as measured by a second variable. In other words, *Lambda* in our study expresses to what extent clause-type helps in predicting the function (if function is considered the dependent variable), or vice versa, to what extent the function can predict the clause type that will be encountered in the data (if clause-type is considered the dependent variable). *Lambda* is the measure based on the logic of *Proportional reduction in error*, known as *PRE* (Elifson *et al.* 1998:165). *PRE* is a ratio of the prediction errors without information about the independent variable to the prediction errors having information about the independent variable. The value of *Lambda* is determined by the proportional reduction in error when predicting the dependent variable. If *Lambda* equals 0, knowledge of the independent variable is of no value when predicting the dependent variable. When *Lambda* equals 1, knowledge of the independent variable allows the researcher to predict the dependent variable perfectly. Despite *Lambda's* strengths, this coefficient has two limitations: (i) it has no sign and thus provides no indication of the direction of the relationship (this is due to the nominal-level data), and (ii) it is based on the modal values instead of working with the whole distribution.

information from the independent variable (in this case, the lexicogrammatical form). Both coefficients (*Lambda* and *Uncertainty*) range from 0 to 1, which indicates a complete reduction of error in predicting the dependent variable.

As it can be observed in Table 38 below, for the *Uncertainty coefficient* values, there are two values observed, corresponding to the *Proportional reduction in error* (hence, *PRE*) depending on “function” vs. “clause-type” being the dependent variable (“F dependiente” vs. “C dependiente”). Table 38 below states that the information of the clause type will reduce the error in predicting the function in .419 (= 41.9% for native teachers, see circled values) and .396 (= 39.6% for non-native teachers, see circled values), two *PRE* that are not numerically high (from 0 to 1) and are slightly more important in the case of non-native teachers.

Nominal measures of association				Valor	Error tip. asint. ^a	T aproximada ^b	Sig. aproximada
native	Nominal por nominal	Lambda	Simétrica	,515	,012	36,973	,000
			FUNCTION dependiente	,495	,014	30,280	,000
			CLAUSETY dependiente	,535	,015	28,875	,000
	Tau de Goodman y Kruskal	FUNCTION dependiente	,368	,010		,000 ^c	
		CLAUSETY dependiente	,399	,012		,000 ^c	
		Coeficiente de incertidumbre	Simétrica	,446	,009	46,248	,000 ^d
	Coeficiente de incertidumbre	FUNCTION dependiente	,419	,009	46,248	,000 ^d	
		CLAUSETY dependiente	,476	,010	46,248	,000 ^d	
		non-native	Nominal por nominal	Lambda	Simétrica	,495	,013
FUNCTION dependiente	,453				,014	28,454	,000
CLAUSETY dependiente	,541				,016	25,852	,000
Tau de Goodman y Kruskal	FUNCTION dependiente		,330	,010		,000 ^c	
	CLAUSETY dependiente		,425	,012		,000 ^c	
	Coeficiente de incertidumbre		Simétrica	,437	,010	44,323	,000 ^d
Coeficiente de incertidumbre	FUNCTION dependiente		,396	,009	44,323	,000 ^d	
	CLAUSETY dependiente		,487	,011	44,323	,000 ^d	

Table 38. Nominal measures of association CLAUSE TYPE/ FUNCTION

On the contrary, should the “clause type” be considered the dependent variable, one will notice that the coefficient increases in both groups of teachers. In other words, once the researcher knows the function, the degree of error in predicting the “clause-type” of the utterance can be reduced in 47.6% in native teachers’ talk and in 48.7% in non-native teachers’ (see squared values in the table).

Once the three tables have been analysed, the following results can be concluded:

- There is a statistically significant dependency between the “regulatory function” and the “clause type” in both the native and the non-native groups of teachers (cf. Chi-Square analysis).
- The strength of association of the two variables is statistically significant for the two groups (cf. *Cramer’s V* coefficients, *p*. value =.000 in the two groups).
- There is a difference in the strength of association between the two variables in the two groups: the value attached to *Cramer’s V* is higher in the Native teachers than in the Non-native group.
- There exists a significant reduction in the error of predicting the dependent variable (“function”) when knowing the information of the clause-type (cf. *p* values associated to the *Uncertainty coefficient* and *Lambda coefficient*).
- The degree of prediction of the “regulatory function” when considering the information of the independent variable “clause type” is not high, but is slightly higher in the native group of teachers (cf. values associated to the *Uncertainty coefficient*). Bearing in mind the findings presented in Table 35 above, i.e. native teachers display a wider variety of clause-types for the distinct regulatory functions, it thus follows that once the clause type is known to the researcher, the function can be predicted.
- The degree of prediction of the “clause type” when considering the information of the independent variable “regulatory function” is higher and is stronger in the non-native group of teachers. This confirms the findings presented in Table 35 above, i.e. non-native teachers tend to resort to the same lexicogrammatical choices and a narrower range of lexicogrammatical structures. As a result, the clause type can easily be predicted.

Although hypothesis 1 can practically be validated since there is a statistically significant relationship of dependency between the variables “regulatory functions” and “lexicogrammatical realisation”, the degree of association (*Uncertainty coefficient*) barely reaches 50%, which implies that knowing the clause type reduces the Proportional Reduction of Error in 50% in the prediction of the regulatory function. Additionally, the results displayed in section 7.1.1. and Table 35 above clearly evidence that despite the non one-to-one correspondence between the lexicogrammatical

realisation and the regulatory function, a prototype exists for each function which generally associates one function to one surface structure. Consequently, a detailed analysis explores to what degree the distinct linguistic features within a clause-type contribute to the prediction of the various regulatory functions.

7.1.2.2. Dependency and association between the regulatory functions and the discrete lexicogrammatical features

The interpretation of the relationships among different qualitative variables is possible through the statistical technique “*Hierarchical LogLinear Model*” (hereafter, *HLM*). The HLM displays the significant interactions among different variables (in this case, the regulatory function, clause type and features such as: polarity, modality, clause complexity, person...) through a lineal model for the logarithms of the frequencies of the multivariate contingency tables. Bearing in mind the complexity and intricacy of these operations, this chapter only reports on the conclusions drawn from that analysis but explains the whole statistical process in Appendix III (pp.549-553).

The HLM suggests that there are statistically significant interactions between “Function” and the rest of the formal lexicogrammatical features (cf. summary Table 39 below). Indeed, there is a statistically significant interaction between the “Function” and the “Clause type” (already studied and explored above); between “Function” and “Ellipsis”; between “Function” and “Modality”; between “Function” and “Polarity”; between “Function” and “Person” and between “Function” and “Clause complex”, which is reflected in the *p* values (*p*=.000 in all the cases).

Test of partial associations	Degrees of freedom	Partial Chi-square	Probability
Function-clause-type	126	1475.327	.000
Function-ellipsis	28	686.987	.000
Function-person	56	326	.000
Function-polarity	28	552.390	.000
Function-modality	14	426.365	.000
Function-clause complexity	112	1150.862	.000

Table 39. Hierarchical LogLinear Model for all teachers (native and non-native)

Consequently, this analysis leads me to conclude that the only effect that must be considered null is the one corresponding to the interaction of all the variables together, while the interaction between pairs of variables is statistically significant. However, in order to know the degree of relationship among the different variables, and the extent to which one variable predicts another (in my study, the regulatory function), further operations are carried out. Table 40 below provides a comprehensive summary of the analysis of the interaction between the function and the discrete lexicogrammatical features.

Realisations analysed	Speaker	Dependency: Chi-square test	Degree of association: Cramer's V	Direction of relationship (Uncertainty coefficient that reveals the proportional reduction of error, <i>PRE</i>)	Comments
Function-polarity	Native	p=.000	0.767 (p=.000)	Function dependent=.205 (20.5%) Polarity dependent=.562 (56.2%)	Function-polarity dependency: statistically significant. Degree of association: statistically significant and very strong in both groups of teachers. PRE: though statistically significant, the uncertainty coeff. are very low. The researcher can hardly predict the function from polarity. On the contrary, polarity can certainly be predicted with a reduction of 56 and 62% of error.
	Non-native	p=.000	0.834 (p=.000)	F.dependent=.216 (21.6%) P.dependent=.652 (65.2%)	
Function-Modality	Native	p=.000	0.466 (p=.000)	F.dependent=.053 (5.3%) Mod.dependent=.239 (23.9%)	Function-polarity dependency: statistically significant Degree of association: statistically significant. Although it is considerable in both groups of teachers, it remains low. PRE: the researcher can not predict the function from the modality. Though statistically significant, the uncertainty coefficients are extremely low.
	Non-native	p=.000	0.535 (p=.000)	F.dependent=.056 (5.6%) Mod.dependent=.311 (31.1%)	
Function-Ellipsis	Native	p=.000	0.537 (p=.000)	F.dependent=.099 (9.9%) Ell.dependent=.383 (38.3%)	Function-polarity dependency: statistically significant. Degree of association: statistically significant and reasonable PRE: the researcher can barely predict the function from the ellipsis. Though statistically significant, the uncertainty coefficients are very low.
	Non-native	p=.000	0.576 (p=.000)	F.dependent=.135 (13.5%) Ell.dependent=.391(39.1%)	
Function-Subject	Native	p=.000	0.409 (p=.000)	F.dependent=.169 (16.9%) Sub.dependent=.305 (30.5%)	Function-polarity dependency: statistically significant. Degree of association: statistically significant but is low in both groups of teachers. PRE: if the researcher knows the subject displayed, the function can not be predicted. Though statistically significant, the uncertainty coefficients are too low.
	Non-native	p=.000	0.374 (p=.000)	F.dependent=.118 (11.8%) Sub.dependent=.298 (29.8%)	
Function-Clause complexity	Native	p=.000	0.503 (p=.000)	F.dependent=.272 (27.2%) Cl-compl.dependent=.436 (43.6%)	Function-polarity dependency: statistically significant. Degree of association: statistically significant and reasonable PRE: though statistically significant, the uncertainty coeff. are low. The researcher can hardly predict the function from the clause-complex pattern. On the contrary, the clause-complex pattern can be predicted with a reduction of 43 and 53% of error.
	Non-native	p=.000	0.526 (p=.000)	F.dependent=.296 (29.6%) Cl-compl.dependent=.531 (53.1%)	

Table 40. Dependency and Association of the Regulatory functions and the lexicogrammatical features (polarity, modality, subject, ellipsis and clause-type)

Table 40 has merged a series of statistical analyses carried out with the data of the *corpus*. The original charts that specify the nominal measures of associations, the matrix contingency tables and graphical illustrations of the distribution of the different lexicogrammatical realisations are provided in Appendix III (pp. 554-583). Table 41 below encapsulates those results into a more visual chart that depicts the dependency between the regulatory functions and their lexicogrammatical features.

	<i>Clause-type</i>	<i>Polarity</i>	<i>Modality</i>	<i>Modality type</i>	<i>Interpersonal metaphor</i>	<i>Ellipsis</i>	<i>Person (subject)</i>	<i>Clause complex</i>
<i>Function-dependent</i>	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
<i>Degree of association</i>	Medium	High	Medium	Medium	Medium low	Medium	Medium-low	Medium
<i>PRE prediction of "function"</i>	Medium-low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low
<i>Dependency: higher in NNS</i>	No (higher in NSs)	Yes	Slightly higher in NNSs	Slightly higher in NNSs	No (higher in NSs)	Yes	No (higher in NSs)	Slightly higher in NNSs

Table 41: Summary of results in the Contingency Tables: Function - lexicogrammatical features.

It can thus be maintained that two main findings spring from the aforementioned results. First, the data validate hypothesis 1, namely that “*There will be a dependency relationship between the lexicogrammatical realisation and the regulatory function instantiated*”. The analyses presented above (i.e. function/clause type and function/discrete lexicogrammatical features) both confirm that there is a statistically significant dependency between the discourse-semantic and the lexicogrammatical variables. In other words, the lexicogrammatical surface structure of the distinct regulatory functions is not arbitrary. More specifically, it is interesting to highlight that it is not so much the clause-type or the distinct lexicogrammatical features that reveal a particular regulatory function. Instead, it seems that it is the regulatory function that somehow helps the researcher predict the surface structure displayed (see values obtained in column “direction of relationship” in Table 40 above).

Second, the in-depth study of the dependency and association provided in Table 40 above indicates that, though statistically significant, the degrees of association between the variables are generally low. I would argue that these findings, together with the direction of the association already mentioned, are especially relevant in that the widely accepted function-form relationship in the literature appears to be questioned.

Although dependency exists, the data in the *corpus* cannot offer a strong association that would lead a researcher to predict the function from the form. Furthermore, I firmly believe that these findings confirm the need to provide future analysts of content with lexicogrammatical *and* discourse-semantic variables in order to help them categorise utterances into functions.

Finally, the results in this first part of the chapter have gradually hinted at some differences in the exploitation of the Mood system between native vs. non-native teachers (display of a wider or narrower range of surface structures, higher vs. lower degree of dependency, etc...). This invites the researcher to examine the native and non-native teachers' discourse so as to explore their similarities and differences, a task that is undertaken in the following section.

7.2. The teachers' exploitation of the Mood system

Throughout the analysis of the function-form correspondence, the results have been displayed through cross-tabulations that include the variable "speaker" so as to acknowledge the similarities and differences across teachers: native vs. non-native speakers of English. This section approaches the function-form mapping from another perspective and pays special attention to the speakers in order to test hypothesis 2, namely "*Both quantitative and qualitative differences will obtain in the linguistic realisation of regulatory functions across native and non-native teachers*".

In particular, the first part explores the differences across teachers in the variety of choice, i.e. the range of structures displayed to convey regulatory functions. Then, the second and third parts integrate the differences in the use of particular lexicogrammatical features into two main styles: indirectness and directness in the instantiation of regulatory functions.

7.2.1. Variety of choice explored

As mentioned above, variety of choice here refers to the range of lexicogrammatical surface structures displayed in the instantiation of regulatory functions. I would argue that this is one of the major differences in the exploitation of the Mood system across teachers in this *corpus*.

It should be reminded that the distinct functions are displayed together with its corresponding lexicogrammatical realisations (with their number of instances and percentages of the functions) in both groups of teachers in Table 35 above. The data disclose differences in (i) the lexicogrammatical choices made and their frequencies and (ii) the range of surface structures displayed.

First, although similarities exist in the lexicogrammatical choices since there is a prototypical realisation which usually coincides across groups (e.g. vocatives for “*selections*”, imperatives for “*action commands*” or “*action prompts*”, declaratives for “*suggestions*”, etc...), many quantitative and qualitative differences emerge in both groups of teachers. In fact, Table 35 evidences that in 20% of the categories, distinct prototypical realisations obtain across teachers: in “*linguistic prompts*” (wh-interrogatives in the case of native teachers vs. imperatives in the case of non-native teachers), “*linguistic prohibitions*” (declaratives in the case of native teachers vs. imperatives in the case of non-native teachers) and “*behaviour commands*” (imperatives in the case of native teachers vs. utterances in Spanish in the case of non-native teachers) in the analysed *corpus*. Since this point is directly connected to the teachers’ style to convey regulatory meanings, these differences are further explored in sections 7.2.2 and 7.2.3 below.

Furthermore, as regards the frequencies displayed, it is crucial to appreciate that the display of the lexicogrammatical realisations in Table 35 is a ranking of the forms used by native and non-native teachers. Several findings spring from the rankings: it can be observed that though not identical, very similar rankings exist in the instantiation of “*selections*”, “*scoldings*”, “*linguistic production command*”, “*imitation commands*” or “*action commands*”. Indeed, the first choices are exactly the same and only vary in the last positions, where the frequencies are very low. However, the data also reveal that the differences lie on the distribution and frequencies of the distinct choices. It seems important to signal that whereas the mean of use¹²⁰ of the prototypical realisations is 60.8% in the case of native teachers (note the first percentage of each regulatory function in Table 35), the mean of use of the prototypical realisations is 71.8% in the

¹²⁰ A value that represents the frequency of use of the prototypical lexicogrammatical choice and that is obtained by considering all the percentages of the prototypes of the distinct regulatory functions and calculating the mean.

case of non-native teachers. This is undoubtedly related to the range of surface structures displayed: the more clause-type patterns are used, the lower their frequencies.

It thus follows that special attention must be devoted to the range of surface structures, displayed in Table 35. Each regulatory function is embodied in a variety of lexicogrammatical patterns (left column for native teachers, right column for non-native teachers). A brief look at the table leads the researcher to observe that an uneven range of structures is displayed (i) across categories –while “*selections*” are embodied in a wide variety of 6 different surface structures, “*scoldings*” are materialised by 2 or 3 different clause-types only- and (ii) across groups. Despite a balanced exploitation of the lexicogrammatical system exists in the categories “*selections*”, “*suggestions*” and “*behaviour prohibitions*” (which represent 20% of the taxonomy), it is frequent to observe an unequal exploitation of the Mood system. In particular, in nine out of fifteen categories (60%), native teachers display a wider variety of clause patterns (e.g. in “*action commands*”, “*linguistic production command*”, “*imitation command*”, “*action prompts*”). And, on the contrary, in another three categories, i.e. “*completion commands*”, “*repetition commands*” and “*behaviour prohibitions*”, non-native teachers overrate native speakers in the display of a wider array of lexicogrammatical choices. For presentation purposes, where one of the groups displays fewer surface structures, a cross appears in those cells in Table 35 above so as to indicate less variety of choice.

7.2.2. Indirectness in the instantiation of regulatory functions

The present section provides a synthesis of several qualitative and quantitative differences observed in the analysis of the lexicogrammatical instantiation of regulatory functions across speakers¹²¹. In particular, two main lexicogrammatical features are examined, i.e. polarity and modality, since they both portray an indirect style to convey regulatory meanings in the EFL classroom.

7.2.2.1. The use of Polarity

A qualitative difference in the use of negative polarity is evidenced in the Contingency table “Function-Polarity” and bar graphs displayed in Appendix III (pp.553-558). It is particularly interesting to report that the non-desirable regulatory

¹²¹ The distinct lexicogrammatical features are thoroughly examined in Appendix III.

functions such as “*action prohibitions*”, “*linguistic prohibitions*”, “*behaviour prohibitions*” and “*warnings*” are mainly realised through negative polarity by non-native teachers. On the contrary, native teachers seem to display these functions through other mechanisms that do not require the overt expression of negation (e.g. interpersonal metaphors, see below). Additionally, the data also reveal that negative polarity is also used by native teachers to express some “*suggestions*”. It thus follows that both the presence or absence of negative polarity in native teachers indicates that there is not a straightforward fit between “desirability” and the <polarity> expressed, which is almost exclusive to native teachers and inevitably contributes to make their discourse indirect.

7.2.2.2. The use of Modality

As explained in Chapter 5 above, modality mainly includes the use of modal finite operators, modal adjuncts and the display of interpersonal metaphors. One of the most relevant differences between native and non-native teachers’ discourse is their use of modality. To provide a detailed picture of how modality is displayed across functions and speakers, the Contingency Table “Function-Modality” and its corresponding bar graphs are included in Appendix III (pp.558-569).

The data unveil that there is a common tendency to avoid modality in the majority of the functions across groups (91% and 95% for the native and non-native teachers groups respectively). However, some differences emerge. First, modality occurs in native teachers’ talk twice as much as in non-native teachers’ (9% vs. 5%, respectively). Second, modality is manifested in a wider variety of structures in native teachers’ talk: use of different modal finite operators (high, medium or low) and adjuncts to instantiate “*action commands*”, “*linguistic production commands*”, “*action prohibitions*” and “*linguistic prohibitions*” (see circled values in Table 11 and further illustrated in the graphs 11-12 in Appendix III, pp.565-566). In fact, it should be highlighted that non-native teachers display high and low modal finite operators with a similar frequency (1.9% vs. 2.3%, respectively) and do never resort to medium finite operators. The categories “*action command*”, “*behaviour command*”, “*linguistic production command*” and “*imitation command*” are instantiated by either high or low

modal finite operators. It is interesting to note that “*suggestions*” are the only category with one single type of modal operators (low).

Native teachers, instead, prefer low modal operators (4.8%) to instantiate “*suggestions*” and “*linguistic prompts*” desirable regulatory functions, then high (2%) modal finite operators to instantiate “*action prohibitions*” and “*behaviour prohibitions*”, clearly non-desirable, and finally display medium operators (0.8%) in the case of “*warnings*” and “*behaviour commands*”. In the rest of the categories, two or three different types of modal finite operator co-occur.

Furthermore, as a very specific type of modality, interpersonal metaphors were also examined and presented separately (see Contingency table 12 and graphs 13-14 in Appendix III, pp.568). The data show that interpersonal metaphors are predominantly missing in the *corpus* in both groups of teachers (90.4% vs. 93.6% in native and non-native teachers respectively). However, there are qualitative as well as quantitative differences in its use across speakers. As explained in Chapter 5, interpersonal metaphors comprise instances where (i) there is incongruence between the mood choice and the speech function instantiated and (ii) a speaker projects the validity of his/her observation into a hypotactic clause by means of mental verbs such as “*think*”, “*believe*” (which do not ask about the actions of remembering or thinking, used in a metaphorical way, but about the projected clauses).

Both patterns were used by native teachers either to ask for goods and services (i.e. actions, behaviour and linguistic production): “*action commands*”, “*behaviour commands*”, “*linguistic production commands*” and to prevent those goods and services from happening, i.e. “*action prohibitions*”, “*behaviour prohibitions*” and “*linguistic prohibitions*” in 9.6% of their instances. On the contrary, those patterns were hardly ever used by non-native teachers and exclusively instantiated “*action commands*”, “*imitation commands*”, “*behaviour prohibitions*” and “*linguistic prohibitions*” in 6.4% of their instances.

Bearing in mind the aforementioned results, it can be claimed that native teachers’ instantiate regulatory functions in a more indirect way than non-native teachers do. Given that regulatory functions demand the learner some goods and

services, polarity, modality and interpersonal metaphors together help to divert the focus of attention of the message and to soften and embellish the request, a skill that is predominant in (and almost exclusive to) native teachers in this *corpus*.

7.2.3. Directness in the instantiation of regulatory functions

This section also provides a synthesis of qualitative and quantitative differences observed in the lexicogrammatical instantiation of regulatory functions across teachers in the EFL classroom¹²². More specifically, it focuses on the display of ellipsis and clause complexity since they contribute to convey regulatory meanings in a more direct style.

7.2.3.1. The use of Ellipsis

As shown in the contingency table “Function-ellipsis” and bar graphs in Appendix III (pp.570-573), some qualitative differences in the display of ellipsis emerge across groups. Native teachers tend to produce complete utterances in most of the cases. Ellipsis is only displayed in two categories in more than 50% of the cases (“*imitation command*” and “*completion command*”) and occasionally used in the instantiation of “*action prompts*”, “*warnings*” and “*suggestions*” (see circled and squared values in Table 13 in Appendix III, pp.570).

On the contrary, native teachers often produce utterances where one constituent is ellipsed in linguistic commands (“*imitation commands*”, “*completion commands*”, “*repetition commands*”) and prohibitions (i.e. “*action prohibitions*”, “*behaviour prohibitions*”, “*linguistic prohibitions*”) in more than 50% and 60% of the cases (see circled values in table 13 in Appendix III, pp. 570). Additionally, “*suggestions*” and “*linguistic prompts*” are also occasionally instantiated through ellipsis (see squared values for values between 30 and 50%). Further, attention should be paid to the fact that non-native teachers display ellipsis in “*linguistic production commands*” in 41.9% of the cases, which is exclusive to this group.

Last but not least, the data reveal that there are features in the use of ellipsis that are common to both groups of teachers. First, the regulatory functions instantiated

¹²² The distinct lexicogrammatical features are thoroughly examined in Appendix III.

through ellipsis by native teachers were identically produced by non-native teachers (except for the “Warnings”). Second, “partial ellipsis”¹²³ is exclusive to “completion commands” in both native and non-native teachers (35.1% and 43.5%, respectively, see starred values in Table 13 in Appendix III, p. 570).

What arises from those results is that non-native teachers’ display of ellipsis is more versatile than their native counterparts. In fact, ellipsis is a frequent phenomenon and covers the instantiation of a wide range of regulatory functions in non-native teachers’ discourse, which contributes to the brevity and directness of their messages.

7.2.3.2. *Clause-complexity*

As stated above, it is here argued that directness is related to the length and elaboration of the message. This inevitably invites the researcher to consider the different clause complexity patterns used in the different functions and explore the similarities and differences across teachers.

On the one hand, some features are common to native and non-native teachers. Firstly, it is worth paying attention to the “simple clause” pattern since both native and non-native teachers instantiate most regulatory functions by means of a simple clause (see the values in total rows, 55.8% for native teachers, 61.5% for non-native teachers in the Contingency table “Function-Clause complexity” in Appendix III (pp.579-583). Three are the regulatory functions which, in both groups, are realised otherwise: the “*selections*” and “*scoldings*” are instantiated through a minor clause (vocatives) and the “*imitation commands*” which are embodied in paratactic clauses (e.g. “Say: this is blue”). Another interesting figure refers to the realisation of some “*behaviour commands*” embodied in a No-Mood-Structure in 35.6% and in 45.4% of the cases in native and non-native speakers’ utterances respectively. Those commands were instantiated through the paralinguistic noise “Shh!” (without mood structure), which told children to be quiet. Last but not least, emphasis should be given to the “multiple” pattern which refers to those functions instantiated by means of the repetition of the same linguistic structure (cf. Chapter 5). While common to both groups (in “*Action Prohibitions*” and in “*Behaviour prohibitions*” mainly), its use is slightly more frequent

¹²³ As explained in chapter 5, “partial ellipsis” is a phenomenon whereby the teacher produces part of a constituent but leaves it incomplete so as to be fulfilled by the children, e.g. “We swim in the....”).

in non-native teachers' talk (3.1% vs. 4.2% in native and non-native teachers respectively).

On the other hand, Contingency Table 21 also reveals some quantitative and qualitative differences across groups, further illustrated in the graphs 19-20 in Appendix III (p.581). While it has been claimed that the predominant clause pattern is the "simple clause" in both groups, it is relevant to explore the frequencies of more complex structures, i.e. hypotactic projected clauses and embedded clauses. The figures circled in the table highlight that native teachers do use hypotactic clauses in functions such as "*Suggestions*", "*Action commands*", "*Imitation commands*", "*Linguistic prohibitions*" and "*Warnings*" in 10% of the cases, and do embody "*Action prohibitions*" in embedded clauses in 9.4% of the instances. Non-native teachers, in turn, scarcely ever use such structures. In other words, if the total rows in the contingency table are thoroughly examined, the reader may perceive the quantitative and qualitative differences in the use of complex clause patterns in regulatory functions (3.7% and 3.1% for hypotactic and embedded clauses in native teachers' talk vs. 0.4% and 1% for hypotactic and embedded clauses in non-native teachers' talk).

It thus follows that the use of ellipsis together with the display of simple clause patterns contribute to shape a brief, straightforward and simple message (independent units of information with only the main focus of attention explicitly stated). I would argue that this is a defining trait of non-native teachers' regulatory discourse in the EFL classroom.

7.3. Summary of results

7.3.1. The function-form relationship

The results gradually presented throughout Chapter 6 and further examined in section 7.1.1. in this chapter lead the researcher to claim that there is no bi-uniqueness in the function-form relationship: each function is realised by a variety of lexicogrammatical surface structures. Interestingly, the lack of one-to-one correspondence in the function-form relationship triggered a deeper analysis of the lexicogrammatical instantiation of regulatory functions that revealed that prototypical realisations exist in regulatory discourse, which have been summarised in a *Regulatory Functions System Network* that maps functions and forms.

Following those results, the researcher undertook further analyses so as to observe whether the prototypical lexicogrammatical realisations help to predict functions. In other words, this chapter has statistically tested Hypothesis 1, i.e. “*There will be a dependency relationship between the lexicogrammatical realisation and the regulatory function instantiated*”. The findings have validated the hypothesis in that there is a statistically significant dependency between the variables “regulatory function” and “lexicogrammatical surface structure”. However, it has been argued throughout the chapter that (i) the direction of the association is reverted: the lexicogrammatical structure barely predicts the regulatory function but the other way around and (ii) the strength of the association is low. The latter issue is particularly paramount to this study in that it calls for criteria other than formal (thus, discourse-semantic) in order to help analysts in the categorisation of regulatory functions.

7.3.2. Native vs. Non-native teachers’ instantiation of regulatory functions

Despite the common features encountered in the instantiation of regulatory functions, the lexicogrammatical realisations provided by native and non-native teachers differ. The findings obtained may be grouped under two main headings: (i) the native teachers’ tendency to produce an *intricate* message and (ii) the non-native teachers’ proneness to produce a *direct* message. Consequently, hypothesis 2 can be validated, i.e. “*Both quantitative and qualitative differences exist in the linguistic realisation of regulatory functions across speakers*”.

Regarding native teachers' production, intricacy is achieved by means of several structures. First of all, despite the predominance of a prototypical lexicogrammatical realisation, the frequencies obtained disclose a *wide range of surface structures* that enable the instantiation of a specific regulatory function, which implies a *wide range of subjects* produced. Second, although simple clauses are the default pattern used in the classroom, native teachers also resort to more *clause complex structures*: the use of embedded or (hypotactically or paratactically) projected clauses contributes to create a more elaborate and explicit message. And more relevant, *incongruence* may well constitute the cornerstone of their messages' intricacy. In fact, the use of *modality* and especially of *interpersonal metaphor* renders the utterance a message that requires some interpretation of the illocutionary meaning so as to be felicitous in interpersonal communication.

As far as non-native teachers' discourse is concerned, directness is achieved by means of various linguistic features. First, the *recurrence of the prototypical realisation* allows for a much more limited choice of lexicogrammatical structures to instantiate a particular regulatory function. Therefore, the smaller the range of structures, the easier the association function-form becomes. Second, among the clause complex patterns manifest in non-native teachers' discourse, the *simple clause* prevails. Indeed, when other patterns are displayed, those are either *paratactically projected clauses* or *multiple clauses*, far simpler than embedded or projected clauses. It should be borne in mind that the use of multiple clauses (i.e. the repetition of the same information unit) is aimed at the reinforcement of a particular communicative intention. And third, the frequent use of *ellipsis* contributes to a clearer and briefer presentation of the new information chunk through the omission of the given ones.

7.4. Synopsis of Part III: general results

Part III of this research paper has been devoted to the findings obtained throughout the investigation. Chapter 6 has displayed the *Regulatory Functions System Network* as a tool that generates a taxonomy that describes regulatory functions according to discourse-semantic criteria, i.e. to analyse data at the discourse-semantic layer of language. Further, it has then examined the lexicogrammatical realisations of the discrete regulatory functions, attending to qualitative and quantitative differences between native and non-native teachers. Besides, chapter 6 has reported on the statistical test of the validity and reliability of the *Regulatory Functions System Network* to posit it as a valid and reliable tool that enables the analysis of regulatory functions on a discourse-semantic base and that can be used in future analyses of EFL classroom discourse. Later, Chapter 7 has deeply explored the function-form correspondence and has compared the native and non-native teachers' linguistic instantiation of regulatory functions in the EFL pre-school classroom.

Therefore, Part III can be concluded with the following claims, which satisfy the objectives and validate the hypotheses of this study:

- ✓ The *Regulatory Functions System Network* is a tool of analysis that provides a taxonomy of regulatory functions on a discourse-semantic basis: it specifies the defining criteria that enable an either/or categorisation of utterances.
- ✓ The *Regulatory Functions System Network* is valid since its use has led three different coders (two external and the researcher) to almost identical results in the functional analysis of regulatory functions (88.6% of agreement).
- ✓ It can be claimed that the high agreement degree between the coders and between the coders and the researcher does not derive from an analysis which is dependent on the form (lack of bi-uniqueness, low degree of association) but from other criteria provided to the analysts, i.e. the discourse-semantic variables explicit in the *Regulatory Functions System Network*.

- ✓ The analysis of the function-form relationship shows that:
 - There is no bi-uniqueness in the function-form relationship: each function is embodied in different surface structures.

 - However, the distinct regulatory functions do have a prototypical lexico-grammatical realisation, common to all speakers (native and non-native teachers).

 - There is a statistically significant dependency in the function-form mapping although the degree of association between the function and the various lexico-grammatical features is not high enough to help the researcher predict the function.

- ✓ There are qualitative and quantitative differences in the display of certain linguistic features across teachers (e.g. modality, ellipsis, clause-complex patterns) that lead to two major styles in the instantiation of regulatory functions: directness vs. indirectness.

“By examining a learner’s level of linguistic and grammatical development we ask what linguistic devices are available to that learner. Because pragmatic value is derived from the choice of available linguistic devices to signal relationships among speakers, if a learner has only one linguistic form available to him or her, then the use of a particular form signals nothing pragmatically within the learner’s linguistic system itself. It only reveals the learner’s level of interlanguage development. Thus, the study of acquisition within the framework of interlanguage pragmatics is necessary because it is the study of the development of alternatives” (Bardovi-Harlig 2003:28).

CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

8.1. The appropriateness of the *Regulatory Functions System Network*

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8.4. NTs vs. NNTs’ discourse: pedagogical implications of the results

- 8.4.1. Focus on form (FonF): raising awareness and explicit form teaching
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8.5. Summary

8. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

In the light of the results that have been qualitatively and statistically presented above, this chapter discusses and interprets the obtained findings in three different sections in direct relation to the objectives pursued and the hypotheses formulated in the introduction. First, this chapter defends the suitability of the *Regulatory Functions System Network* as a tool of classroom discourse analysis that bridges “meaning” and “form”. Second, the correspondence between the regulatory functions and their linguistic realisations is explored. And finally, the analysis of native and non-native teachers’ discourse first considers their similarities (i.e. EFL teacher discourse as a distinct register regardless of the individual differences) and later examines their differences in the way they exploit the system of lexicogrammar to instantiate meaning.

8.1. The appropriateness of the *Regulatory Functions System Network*

8.1.1. Within the construct of the nature of language

Among the benefits of analysing meaning through a *network approach* (cf. Moore and Butt 2002), this section highlights its relevance for practice-oriented linguistics since (i) it reflects the nature of language itself, (ii) it constitutes a productive generator of meaning since the metaphor of choice applies to all levels of representation and (iii) it can be tested and validated by practitioners.

The nature of language has been understood in this paper within the framework of *Systemic Functional Linguistics* (Halliday 1985; Martin 1992) and *Cognitive Linguistics*¹²⁴ (Langacker 1986; Langacker 1987; Radden 1992; Bernárdez 1999; Lakoff and Johnson 1999). Against the Cartesian Chomskyan assumptions that language is a system of symbols that is developed in mathematical logic, where syntax is the essence of what constitutes language since it is self-sufficient and autonomous, and where language is independent of memory, perception, interpersonal communication and social interaction (Chomsky 1957; Chomsky 1986), the aforementioned linguistic trends suggest a rather different picture of language. Though many differences exist between the two (e.g. *SFL* mainly describes language and *CL* explains it), both understand it as a *complex* and *dynamic* entity governed by “constituency”. This is a principle that accounts for language being made of modules, one inserted into another and where all

¹²⁴ Hereafter, CL.

interact in the process of communication. Adopting the graphical representation of constituency (Martin 1992:496), language is interpreted as a series of concentric circles where the largest circle (in this study, the discourse-semantic layer) comprises the smaller ones (here, the lexicogrammatical layer), the boundaries of which are fuzzy, in constant fluctuation and contact with each other, which again responds to the *naturalness* of language. Further, the inextricable interrelationship of the different strata of language is also graphically suggested by the “network” itself. *CL* uses the metaphor of “connectionism” where the mind is viewed as a network of neurons all engaged in reciprocal interactions via their connections with surrounding neurons and neuronal layers and thus considers the dimensions of human thought, emotion, language and non-verbal behaviour as globally and inextricably correlated:

“In a connectionist approach, such traditional linguistic domains as phonology and semantics operate not as separate modular processes activated serially but concurrently and in parallel, each subject to its own constraints (rules) and to other constraints arising from related dimensions” (Palmer 1996:32).

It thus follows that the analysis of language cannot be achieved at the different levels of description responding to a compartmentalised view of language (Radden 1992:531), but constitutes a “*wholistic*” task where the study of one stratum undoubtedly leads to the consideration of the other counterparts,

“There can be no autonomous syntax since there can be no input-free module or sub network in the brain. Moreover, by studying generalizations over distributions of syntactic elements, it has been found empirically that those generalizations in hundreds of cases in English alone require reference to semantics, pragmatics, and discourse-function” (Lakoff and Johnson 1999:497).

In the present investigation while the *Regulatory Functions System Network* has been presented in Chapters 5 and 6 as the system focusing on the discourse-semantic level, it indeed constitutes a tool to analyse meaning instantiated through structure, understanding that all strata also play a role (and interplay) in communication. As mentioned in Chapters 5 and 6, each domain of contrast or variable coming into play in the definition of the *Regulatory Functions System Network* must be instantiated through structure (Hasan 1985; Martin 1992; Hasan 1996; Butt 2002) and thus has some linguistic realisation, which thus inevitably connects the stratum of discourse-semantics to the lower stratum.

In this sense, the *Regulatory Functions System Network* betokens a tool enabling the researchers and practitioners to describe and analyse meaning since the discourse-semantic criteria are materialised through linguistic realisations, which can be observed and objectively studied. Consequently, each domain of contrast developed through the scale of delicacy is linguistically and discursively operationalised, which allows a systematisation of the analysis of meaning and the comparison of results across studies. Although it is here argued that the *Regulatory Functions System Network* is the tool bridging the discourse-semantics and lexicogrammar strata, and that the different domains of contrast *must* be instantiated through linguistic structures, it should be borne in mind that this does not imply that there exists a determining and unequivocal relationship between the “structure” displayed and the “meaning” conveyed. Instead, what is being maintained in this research is that the system of Mood (lower stratum of language) provides the resources to instantiate the different domains of contrast existing in the *Regulatory Functions System Network* (e.g. “polarity” and “subject” instantiate “desirability” and “orientation”, respectively). Recovering the *symbolic* nature of language, it can be claimed that the grammar of a language is “merely providing the speaker with an inventory of symbolic resources, among them schematic templates representing established patterns in the assembly of complex symbolic structures” (Langacker 1986:17), through which meaning can be conveyed.

Additionally, the symbolism of language runs in parallel with two other properties: its *creative* and *productive* potential, which are again reflected in the “network approach”. Taking into account that language consists of a finite set of rules and symbols that can be combined to produce a non-finite set of meanings, the network arises as a tool that also generates meaning. A close look at the *RFSN* reveals that the researcher has only developed those pathways in the network that are initiating moves within teacher talk. In so doing, the *RFSN* leaves the way open to explore other discursive options within teacher talk (e.g. responsive or follow-up moves). The network represents the meaning potential since it can be gradually developed by researchers in accordance to their aims and necessities. Personally, I would argue that if the network is regarded as a generator of meaning, its source of energy lies in “choice”.

The *Regulatory Functions System Network* has been presented as an array of choices at the discourse-semantic level of language where the first choice (move type,

i.e. “attend” vs. “negotiate”) displays a whole range of communicative options that gradually become more and more restricted when progressive choices are made since the speaker travels throughout the map of meaning through delicacy levels. In other words, each choice leads to further options among which the researcher (as the speaker in communication) must make an exclusive selection, which then reduces the possibilities since the degrees of delicacy imply becoming more and more specific in communication.

Choice does not only apply to the highest layer of language though. In fact, the speaker has at hand the *Mood* system network which has been presented as a summary of the different linguistic resources the speaker might use to shape his/her message (Chapter 5). It is because “choice” can be used in all levels of representation that the same regulatory function can be instantiated by two different linguistic realisations. Likewise, bearing in mind that the different strata interact in the communicative act, it is possible to explain why the same linguistic lexicogrammatical structure may convey two different functions, since it is “choice” at the discursive stratum that might have shaped the utterance as a request rather than a question, for instance, despite its interrogative surface structure. Consequently, I would maintain that the present investigation has demonstrated that each defined regulatory function is the result of a selected pathway (cf. Chapter 6).

Finally, it should be reminded that networks “are a context-sensitive, empirically driven, and relatively direct way of representing these different strands of meaning in a critical context” (Moore and Butt 2002:1) and that they, consequently, respond to the specific necessities of a particular register. Current studies in progress analyse meaning and speech roles/functions at one stratum, (Moore and Butt 2002) or across strata (Van Leeuwen 1996; Martin 2000) in different contexts: classroom discourse (Perrett 2000), police interrogations (Tuckwell 2002) and pizza purchasing (Drs. Slade, Joyce, Nesbitt, Matthiessen, Butt, Lukin, Cleirigh, Canzhong and Biggins), among others¹²⁵.

¹²⁵ The latest is a cross-stratal analysis that is being currently carried out in Australia and that intends to describe and model the interpersonal resources of spoken English from context to phonetics in pizza purchasing. An ARC Linkage Project titled “Modelling the Melody of Human Speech” is part of a long-term research that is also developing a *corpus* of spoken Australian English (the UTS/Macquarie *Corpus*) (cf. www.ling.mq.edu.au/clsl/publications/html)

However, to my knowledge, no attempt has been made to cover EFL teacher talk, a gap that this study has tried to fill through the elaboration of the *Regulatory Functions System Network*. The network was actually created by modelling the existing domains of contrast in previous systems in order to fit classroom discourse. In this sense, Chapter 5 above presented how neutral desirability and the exchange type features were inserted in the semantic and discursive domains of contrast so as to satisfy the requirements of a particular register: the EFL classroom. Additionally, the network was empirically driven: first, a pilot-analysis of the data led the researcher to establish the necessary criteria and variables coming into play in the definition of the different regulatory functions, which then culminated in the elaboration of the network as a tool of analysis, which was eventually used in order to analyse the data (by the researcher and external coders).

Consequently, the *Regulatory Functions System Network* constitutes a tool that enables the researcher (i) to define each regulatory function: by travelling through the levels of delicacy, the speaker and, thus, the analyst(s) follow a pathway which results in the production of a regulatory function and (ii) to analyse the data (as shown in Chapters 6 and 7). Furthermore, as it has been explained above, this network connects the stratum of meaning (discourse-semantics) and the stratum of lexicogrammar, which allows linguists to achieve a thorough and integral study of language since it accounts for the inextricable link between meaning and form: “the network brings together what linguists tend to keep separate: it involves a number of distinct lexicogrammatical and discourse-level systems” (van Leeuwen 1996:67).

8.1.2. Appraisal of the reliability and validity of the *RFSN*

Once it has been argued that the design of the tool has been done by confronting foundational/theoretical issues, the challenges of assessing reliability and validity become more manageable:

“Content analyses need not be limited to theory-based coding schemes and standards set by experts. When researchers are clear about *what kind of content they want to analyze and the role of theory in their studies*, they are in a better position to select the most appropriate strategies for demonstrating validity and reliability” (Potter and Levine-Donnerstein 1999:258, my italics).

The results in Chapter 6 (section 6.3.) have revealed that a significantly strong agreement was reached between the coders’ analyses of the data, and between the

coders' final joint version and the standard. The coefficients obtained for the intercoder reliability tests reached higher values than .800 in both cases. It thus follows that, statistically speaking, the *RFSN* constitutes a reliable and valid tool for the analysis of regulatory functions in teacher talk in the EFL classroom.

The assessment of the reliability and validity of the *RFSN* would be, in my view, incomplete if only the statistical figures were taken into consideration. In fact, I would maintain that several qualitative findings shed some light upon its reliability and validity and are hence worth being discussed. As mentioned above, reliability implies that two coders individually analyse a sample of a *corpus* and obtain identical versions. Bearing in mind that the intercoder reliability test confirms that an agreement obtained in almost all the situations, what is being stated is that the *Regulatory Functions System Network* provides any analyst with the necessary discourse-semantic criteria to identify regulatory functions in EFL teacher talk. The training session held by the researcher and the external coders helped them learn about how to read the *RFSN* so as to categorise their utterances into the discrete regulatory functions. It is worth noting that this finding is paramount in that the coders were asked to disregard the lexicogrammatical form at first, attending to the discourse-semantic features exclusively. Since the coders agreed in more than 82% of the cases, it can be claimed that the *RFSN* provides a systematic way of analysing meaning in that it generates identical analyses of meaning.

Furthermore, it is interesting to highlight that the *RFSN* helped the coders agree over controversial instances. More specifically, as shown in Chapter 6, some utterances were tagged differently by the two coders (e.g. some coder 1's "*linguistic completion commands*" were interpreted as "*linguistic production command*" by coder 2). However, during their joint session, the coders decided to adhere to what they had in common, i.e. the tool of analysis. Hence, they examined each controversial utterance and analysed it by considering the features that are explicit in the system network. In so doing, the coders literally worked with an instrument of analysis that ultimately led them to achieve some consensus. Personally, I strongly feel that this is a major accomplishment since the *RFSN* opens the door to analyse content, invites analysts to become aware of the decisions that are made in their analysis of meaning and helps them reach an agreement by having a common systematic procedure of analysis at hand.

Validity, in turn, tests to what extent the coders' final version of their analyses echoes the standard and thus ensures generalisation of the results. In other words, as explained in Chapter 7 above, since the percentage of agreement reaches .880, the *RFSN* can be claimed to be statistically valid in that it implies that the results found by the researcher would also be found by other analysts working with the *RFSN*. Besides, a qualitative analysis of the data also supports the statistical validity. In my view, it is particularly interesting to note that the concurrence obtained in the coders' and researcher's analyses reveals that the criteria stated by the *Regulatory Functions System Network* have been adopted and followed by the external coders in almost all the instances. Particularly, it reveals that the coders have not been misled by the versatile surface structure of those categories and have stuck to the discourse-semantic criteria specified in the *RFSN*.

Personally, I regard the agreement over the distinct regulatory functions between the coders and the researcher as a cornerstone of this investigation since it highlights the identification of three possible goods and services constantly exchanged in the EFL classroom: (i) actions and (ii) behaviour (both being non-verbal responses) and (iii) the English language (verbal response). In my view, the unanimity obtained over the various linguistic commands between the coders and the researcher is paramount to this study. Whereas actions have always been understood in the literature as a goods and services exchanged, language has primarily been treated as information. It thus follows that the position maintained throughout this work, i.e. language as goods and services, offered an alternative interpretation that was new to the coders. The agreement in the tests reveals that the foreign language has been understood and identified as a type of goods and services exchanged, which confirms one of the most innovative claims of the present dissertation. The aforementioned conclusions are relevant in that they foresee that identical findings of regulatory functions can be obtained in the future by other linguists who will analyse teacher talk with the *Regulatory Functions System Network*.

8.2. The “regulatory function-lexicogrammatical realisation” relationship

The dichotomy “meaning”-“form” is grounded in the very nature of language. Its double-sided condition was first introduced by Saussure (1931) who understood language as both “*langue*” and “*parole*”. While the former refers to the abstract general model of the manifestations of language, the latter is based on the individual realisations

of that language. Likewise, any linguistic sign is also characterised by a dichotomy: the “*signifiant*” (material) and the “*signifié*” (content). It is in this sense felt that “each symbolisation relation is bipolar: it links a conceptual pole with an expression pole” (Lakoff and Johnson 1999:500). Acknowledging such an indissoluble relationship between meaning and form, this section deals with the relationship and (non)correspondence of “regulatory functions” and their “linguistic realisation” found in the results of the present investigation.

8.2.1. “Meaning” and “Form”

Guided by (i) the qualitative analysis of the data (Chapter 6 above), which already hinted at predominant lexicogrammatical patterns in the production of “regulatory functions” and (ii) previous research that directly associated a regulatory function with specific lexicogrammatical structures (cf. McDonald and Pien 1982; Olsen Fulero 1982; Kloth *et al.* 1998), this research undertook a statistical analysis of the dependency of the “regulatory functions” and their “linguistic realisation” (Chapter 7 and Appendix III). The *Hierarchical Log-Linear Model* is generally devised so as to obtain a model that, considering the frequencies of three or more qualitative variables, provides the significant interactions between the factors proposed. In this study, the “regulatory function” and the lexicogrammatical features “clause”, “polarity”, “modality”, etc... were selected as the variables configuring the model of communication in teacher talk. The obtained results for the whole *corpus* (native and non-native data) indicated that whereas there did not exist a significant interaction between all the variables together (order 7 interactions), there were significant interactions between two variables (order 2 interactions), e.g. “function and clause-type”.

The findings confirmed an intuition that was present throughout the qualitative analysis of the data and, additionally, responded to the nature of language. As it has been previously highlighted, this study is a cross-stratal analysis of meaning but by no means a segmentation or dissection of language. The qualitative analysis of the data evidenced the fuzziness of the boundaries of the different strata since the analysis of one layer sometimes contemplated and at times even required to consider another (neighbouring) layer:

“The relation between the three strata internal to language- meaning realised as wording realised as sound is, in principle, the same which exists between context of situation and language as a whole. Context is realised by semantic options, semantic options are realised by lexicogrammatical ones, which in turn are realised by phonological ones” (Hasan 1985:10).

As a result, when one stratum was studied (i.e. lexicogrammar) either the above (i.e. discourse-semantics) or below stratum (i.e. phonological) provided sufficient information and evidence justifying decisions in the analysis. This would then account for the statistically significant interactions acknowledged in Chapter 7, i.e. “function and clause type”. It should be argued at this point that despite no formal prosodic analysis has been provided in this work, the phonological stratum was attended to in the coding of the utterances. A dependency relationship between the clause-type and tone displayed is indeed acknowledged in the literature (cf. Geluykens 1988; Batliner and Oppenrieder 1988; Geluykens 1989). It seems to me that neglecting the phonological layer in the analysis of discourse would indeed be naïf (cf. Auchlin and Ferrari 1994)¹²⁶.

The need to explore discourse-semantics and lexicogrammar but also consider phonology may be explained by “*connectionism*” (Lakoff and Johnson 1999:498): “the grammar of a language consists of the highly structured neural connections linking the conceptual and expressive (phonological) aspects of the brain”. Adopting once again the metaphor of concentric circles to visualise language, discourse-semantics comprises the upper strata of language and is hierarchically related to its inner circles, which would account for the relationship between the innermost and outermost layers of language.

8.2.2. The “Meaning-Form” relationship depicted

The findings discussed above suggest that the relationship existing between the regulatory function and the linguistic realisation is to be gradually examined. Once this thesis explored the linguistic realisation of the distinct regulatory functions (Chapter 6), it evidenced the existence of a dependency relationship between the clause-type and the regulatory functions, an association already acknowledged in the literature¹²⁷. This

¹²⁶ What is more, since in English “there is a tendency for discourse acts to be realized by intonation and punctuation units rather than by syntactic units” (Hannay and Kroon 2005:121), this study attended to prosody in the identification of units of analysis (the communicative act).

¹²⁷ Cf. Long and Sato (1983), Pica and Long (1986) and Tsui (1987b) for *elicitations*; Trosborg (1987) for *apologies*; Katz (1972; 1977), Gordon and Lakoff (1975), Labov and Fanshel (1977), Ervin-Tripp (1982), Blum-Kulka *et al.* (1989) and Trosborg (1995) for *requests*; Banerjee and Carrell (1988) and Koike (1996) for *suggestions*.

section consequently considers *bi-uniqueness* vs. *dependency* as two different types of relationship relating the “regulatory function” and its “lexicogrammatical realisation”, referring first to the qualitative results (Chapter 6) and then to the statistical analyses carried out (Chapter 7).

8.2.2.1. “Meaning” and “Form”: A bi-uniqueness relationship?

While the first studies on meaning searched for a correspondence between meaning and form (cf. Austin 1962, centred upon those acts that were lexicalised by formal structures), current research acknowledges the *tendency* for functions to coincide with a specific linguistic realisation. Indeed, the “giving information” functions are said to be mainly embodied in declarative clauses (Halliday 1985; Marcos 1987; Eggins 1999), the “demanding information” functions to be mostly instantiated by interrogative clauses (Long and Sato 1983; Halliday 1985; Eggins 1999) and the “demanding goods and services” to be generally realised by the imperative surface structure (Halliday 1985; Eggins 1999; Holmes 1996).

Confirming previous research, the results in this study indicated that not a single regulatory function was displayed by a unique lexicogrammatical realisation. Most of them displayed two or more different formal structures, what argues against a one-to-one correspondence between the regulatory function and its linguistic realisation: “interactional negotiation devices often have multiple functions and also *multiple realisations*, choice among which is not arbitrary” (Long 1983b:183, my italics). Further, it has been observed in Chapter 7 how the regulatory function is not associated to a specific lexicogrammatical realisation (since many linguistic surface structures indeed instantiate a function). On the contrary, the direction of the relationship is inverted. In other words, the results evidenced that “polarity”, “subject choice” or “modality” help in predicting the regulatory function. In the light of the results, I would claim that there is a tendency for certain structures to instantiate particular meanings rather than argue that regulatory functions are realised in an either or structure. This lack of neat fit, far from being negative, highlights the potential of language which can display a limited set of structures in an uncountable number of ways so as to shape meaning.

“Bi-uniqueness of meaning and wording is an overblown figment of formal linguistics; much of the flexibility of language and therefore its usefulness to its

speakers, derives from the inherent indeterminacy between meaning and wording” (Hasan 1985:70).

As it will further be explained later, the complete lack of fit is indeed embodied by the grammatical metaphors in the data, since they are the maximum expression of the incongruent use of language (non-literal meaning) where the linguistic structure disguises the intention of the speaker, and which have been occasionally used in the *corpus* (mostly by native teachers).

However, it was also the case that in most functions in the data, one of the patterns at the lexicogrammatical layer prevailed over the rest, namely the “unmarked” structure. The *tendency* for a specific linguistic pattern to instantiate a particular regulatory function can be interpreted in the light of *Prototype Theory*, developed by cognitive psychologists (Rosch 1977; Rosch 1978). The concept of prototype accounts for an explanation to the problem of categorisation and category membership since “natural categories tend to be fuzzy at their boundaries and inconsistent in the status of their constituent members” (Radden 1992:519). Most natural categories are usually defined in terms of prototypes which combine the most representative attributes of a category, the prototype being the best, most salient (most frequent) amongst the members of the category and standing as the cognitive reference point. Further, the prototype is related to the surrounding members (less prototypical) in the extent to which those share traits and features (i.e. resemblance).

Moving to the results of the present study, it can be claimed that there is indeed a prototypical lexicogrammatical realisation for each regulatory function, which corresponds to the most frequent displayed pattern. As an illustration, the data evidenced in Chapter 6 that “*suggestions*” are mainly instantiated by declarative clauses with modal finite operators and second person subject whereas “*action commands*” tend to be realised by simple, positive, imperative clauses. However, both regulatory functions were instantiated by more than one surface structure. When several lexicogrammatical realisations were produced by the speaker in order to instantiate a function, the different frequencies obtained in the structures displayed were not arbitrary but responded to an order established by the degree of likeness to the prototype, i.e. the “resemblance principle”. In other words, the closest to the prototype, the most frequent its use. In the data, the addition or ellipsis of elements constitutes the criterion that

makes two different surface structures resemble or differ: in an “*action command*”, a regulatory function where the imperative is the prototypical pattern, the declarative clause (resulting from the incorporation of the subject) will be a far more frequent structure than the interrogative clause (which requires a subject-finite inversion).

Despite the fact that *bi-uniqueness* between “meaning” and “form” has been discarded, there seems to be a direct association between the two variables, which is evidenced by the existence of a prototypical structural pattern for each regulatory function. The lack of neat fit between “meaning” and “form” evokes the idea of “choice”, where the speaker tends to use the same structure to convey some meaning (a preferred pathway) but is free to use other structures, which is evident in the networks discussed throughout this research.

“Constituency is simply the sequence in which component symbolic structures are progressively assembled into more and more elaborate composite expressions. Though a specific order or assembly commonly becomes conventionalized as the sole or default-case sequence, the choice is not inherently critical in this model because alternate constituencies commonly permit the same composite structure to be derived. Moreover, because grammatical relations are not defined in configurational terms, a unique constituency is not essential” (Langacker 1986:35).

8.2.2.2. “Meaning” and “Form”: A dependency relationship

The results provided in Chapter 6 were confirmed by the findings in the statistical analyses provided in Chapter 7 and Appendix III, which evidenced that (i) there is an existing statistically significant dependency between the “regulatory function” and each of the lexicogrammatical features under study (i.e. “clause-type”, “modality”, “polarity”, “subject type” and “clause complexity”) but that (ii) the strength and direction of the associations varied across features. In other words, while the function and clause type displayed a strong association, the function and clause complexity were found to have a low degree of dependency (though statistically significant). This study understood that the interest of the results lay on the extent to which each lexicogrammatical feature sheds light upon the function displayed. That is to say, what I personally consider relevant is the extent to which the lexicogrammatical features help to predict a regulatory function. In this sense, although all the associations, strength and the value prediction reduction of error (*PRE*) were *statistically* significant, the values attached to the coefficients varied, which inevitably implied that some features contributed to a greater extent to the instantiation of a regulatory function. The

results demonstrated that the strength of association was uneven for each function/form association (in decreasing order: polarity type, ellipsis, clause type, clause complex, modality and person), and that the same pattern was identically repeated in the degree of prediction of the regulatory function.

Among the possible explanations for the unequal contribution of each of the lexicogrammatical aspects in “making meaning”, it could be argued that some of the features are more general than others and could indeed comprise the lower units inside. As the results demonstrated in Chapter 7, the clause type presents one of the strongest associations and predicts to a greater extent the regulatory function, a finding that might be due to the fact that the clause-type includes the subject type and the clause complexity (e.g. the imperative clause unmarkedly has a subject ellipsed and is a main clause with no elaboration). This might support other works which only focused on the clause-type as predictor or indicator of the regulatory function (Long and Sato 1983; Holmes 1996).

However, it is because all the interactions (each lexicogrammatical feature) were statistically significant in this paper and that they all contributed to shape the regulatory act (Hasan 1985; Halliday 1985; Eggins 1999), that this investigation felt that all the features were to be analysed. What the findings suggest for the future is not to rely on the aspect that is more significant in making meaning (here, clause type) but to explore whether some features inside overlap. In other words, in order to reduce the large number of overlapping variables available, the matrix of correlations between the inner relationships within the lexicogrammatical stratum should be submitted to principal factor analysis in statistics, which would allow the researcher to collapse some features together and only examine those lexicogrammatical features that are relevant in the instantiation of a regulatory function.

8.3. The speaker: the ultimate meaning-maker

The “choice” metaphor has been the thread interweaving the first and second parts of the present discussion. The *Regulatory Functions System Network* and the *Mood* system display a whole array of choices where the combination of different domains of contrast leads to the production of a specific regulatory function that can be instantiated through a wide variety of linguistic “options”. This has been evidenced in

the *dependency* but not *bi-uniqueness* relationship between “meaning” and “function”. “Choice” is, however, the result of the speaker’s decision. While to this point, the speaker has been referred to as a general/abstract entity, this section considers him/her as an active participant whose selections contribute to a personal communicative style. Similarities and differences between native and non-native teachers’ linguistic production will be discussed and interpreted in the light of EFL register within *Classroom Discourse Analysis* and *Politeness theory* (Brown and Levinson 1987), respectively. Further, direct pedagogical implications¹²⁸ will be provided when relevant.

8.3.1. The “meaning”-“form” association in the two groups: the exploitation of the Mood system

Whereas the regulatory functions result from an *exclusive* choice at the discourse-semantic stratum, no one-to-one correspondence exists between the “regulatory function” and the “lexicogrammatical realisation” in 100% of the cases, which highlights the potential of linguistic patterns. The speaker indeed can *choose* one lexicogrammatical realisation within the *Mood* system among a whole range of possibilities. In the analysis of those choices lie the main differences in the use and exploitation of the mood system by native vs. non-native teachers.

Hereafter, I shall call “variation in choice” the degree to which the speaker (native vs. non-native teacher) displays different lexicogrammatical structures to convey the same regulatory function. The results of this study reveal that native and non-native teachers display the same number of lexicogrammatical structures in 86.6% of the regulatory functions. However, in the cases where variation in choice differs, i.e. where one group displays more structures than the other group, it is the native group that overrates the non-native group at the lexicogrammatical stratum. Actually, the native teachers display more lexicogrammatical structures in 46.6% of the instantiation of regulatory functions, which is confirmed by the values assigned to the coefficients of the *strength* of associations and the reduction in error when predicting the regulatory function (hence, *PRE*) (cf. Chapter 7 and Appendix III). Native teachers normally displayed a lower degree of association between the regulatory function and the lexicogrammatical features “ellipsis”, “polarity”, “modality” and “clause complexity”,

¹²⁸ While the pedagogical implications of the results will be hinted at throughout this chapter, the implications of this study will be provided in Chapter 9 below.

which derives from the wide range of surface structures used for each function. In fact, when a particular function is instantiated by a wide variety of forms, the “function-form” degree of association is lower than if it is realised by one or two patterns. On the contrary, the communicative value¹²⁹ assigned to the lexicogrammatical features was mostly stronger in the non-native group, which results from their restricted range of lexicogrammatical features displayed¹³⁰.

However, it is worth highlighting that the degrees of association “regulatory function”-“clause type” and its consequent “regulatory function”-“subject choice” are higher in native teachers’ discourse (cf. Chapter 7 and Appendix III). A possible explanation might be found in the analysis of the *direction* of the relationship. Bearing in mind that non-native teachers display a narrower range of surface structures, it thus follows that the same lexicogrammatical realisation will in turn instantiate a multiplicity of distinct regulatory functions. As a result, the degree of association becomes lower in these two features “clause-type” and the subsequent “subject choice” since knowing the lexicogrammatical realisation (e.g. imperative) will hardly help in the identification of the regulatory function instantiated (e.g. *selection*, *action command*, *action prompt*, etc...).

Two possible reasons may account for these results. It can be suggested that a different degree of exposition and immersion (in)to English by the children of the different groups may be responsible for the differences in teachers’ talk. While the classes taught by native teachers had a full-time immersion into English, the classes taught by non-native teachers were only addressed in English two hours daily. Considering the role of immersion (cf. Cenoz and Perales 2000) and of input in the ulterior child’s comprehension and acquisition of linguistic skills (cf. Barnes *et al.* 1983; Harris *et al.* 1988; Ninio 1992; Kloth *et al.* 1998), it could be argued that those

¹²⁹ I shall label “communicative value” the degree of association between the interaction “regulatory function” and the lexicogrammatical realisation.

¹³⁰ Additionally, I may postulate that the use of phonology interferes in the instantiation of meaning. A pilot study (Riesco-Bernier 2003) indeed revealed that the strength of association between the regulatory functions and the *phonological* features and the corresponding *PRE* were higher in the native group (“regulatory function”-“tone”; “regulatory function”-“tonality” and “regulatory function”-“tonicity”). Should language be represented again as a set of concentric circles or a vertical axis, with the outest layer or highest point being the discourse-semantic stratum, it is here indicated that non-native teachers instantiate regulatory functions by displaying a great association with the immediately below stratum (lexicogrammar), while native teachers go deep to the phonological system in order to instantiate meaning.

teachers interacting with children with a less proficient level of English (the non-native teachers) displayed easier and more repetitive lexicogrammatical patterns in order to convey a particular regulatory function.

Alternatively, it could be claimed that the non-native teachers' restricted array of lexicogrammatical realisations in the instantiation of a specific function in comparison to native teachers' may be due to the non-native teachers' linguistic competence. When the linguistic competence is limited, (i) the choice among available linguistic forms to convey social meaning is restricted:

“because pragmatic value is derived from the choice of available linguistic devices to signal relationships among speakers, if a learner has only one linguistic form available to him or her, then the use of a particular form signals nothing pragmatically within the learner's linguistic system itself. It only reveals the learner's level of interlanguage development” (Bardovi-Harlig 2003:28).

and (ii) eventually erroneous language forms can be chosen leading communication to failure (cf. Olshtain and Cohen 1989).

I would argue that in the same way that the potential of language the speaker has at hand is embodied in the lack of bi-uniqueness “meaning”-“form”, its potential is subject to both the speaker's (teacher) and the listener's (child) knowledge and mastery of the language. In other words, a neat fit between form and meaning would imply that there is linguistic poverty in the system of communication (repeated structures for a same regulatory function) but would guarantee an easy, practical and systematic teaching and learning of structures to communicate. On the contrary, the existing variation in choice found in the data, proper to any natural language, implies that both the speaker and the listener must know the different possible manners the speaker may use to communicate.

Consequently, I feel that native teachers display a wider amount of both lexicogrammatical patterns because they are native speakers of English, thus more proficient in English, and because of their audience. Indeed, as explained in section 8.3.1.2. below, the children taught by the native teachers are more trained (i) to recognise and understand a wider variety of patterns indicating the same regulatory function and (ii) to grasp the incongruent use of certain patterns with the meaning intended (indirect acts and use of modality).

8.3.1.1. *Analysis of the choices displayed: similarities across groups*

The qualitative analysis of the data and the results presented in chapters 5, 6 and 7 have evidenced that the degree of exploitation of the various lexicogrammatical structures is bound to the easiness/difficulty inherent to the different possible choices within the Mood system. In other words, a relation can be found between the extent to which teachers exploited the Mood system and the complexity of certain linguistic choices. It should be clarified that “complexity” does not only refer to the challenge that the non-native teachers may experience in the production of certain patterns, but to the difficulty for a young audience to understand certain patterns in English, their foreign language.

If the lexicogrammatical realisations of the two groups of speakers are closely examined, it can be claimed that teachers avoided complexity. At the lexicogrammatical level, “modality”, “interpersonal metaphors” and “clause-complexity” were scarcely displayed by the teachers since those domains demanded a higher proficiency of language from the child. It is widely accepted that syntactical and grammatical simplicity are characteristic of child-directed speech since they guarantee the easier understanding and comprehension of the message (cf. Sachs 1977; Smolak and Weinraub 1983; Snow 1994; Kloth *et al.* 1998) and are straightforwardly related to the linguistic development of the child (Barnes *et al.* 1983).

More specifically, teacher talk in second and foreign language classrooms differs from that addressed to native speakers of English. Whereas the *corpus* consists of native and non-native teachers, their audience is common to both of them: young EFL learners that lead them to modify their discourse. As seen in Chapter 3, teachers reshape their phonology, lexis, syntax and discourse so as to facilitate communication and enhance input comprehension. As Pica (1994:500, my italics) claims, “exposure to L2 input is not sufficient for learners to be able to access and internalize the L2 rules, forms, and features. This input *must be made comprehensible* if it is to assist the acquisition process” (cf. Krashen 1981; 1985; Long 1980, 1983c, 1985a, 1985b).

In the present study, the complexity/simplicity criterium has been examined at the lexico-grammatical layer through different measures of analysis in order to appreciate how teacher talk is adjusted. While the mean length of utterance (henceforth

MLU) has been considered by some linguists as an indicator of simplicity as it unveils how the teacher segments speech into shorter utterances when addressing a non-native speaker¹³¹, others have focused on the measures of subordination. The present research has analysed subordination through the variable “clause complexity”. Simplicity in that case has been equated to the tendency toward fewer subordinate clauses: indeed, simple clauses prevail over embedded or projected clauses in both groups of teachers’ production, which echoes the findings of previous studies (cf. Henzl 1979; Gaies 1977a; 1977b). Besides, simplicity can also be sought by teachers by means of their sentence-type distribution. In other words, whereas a range of lexicogrammatical surface structures may be exhibited in the instantiation of a specific regulatory function, the preference to use one of the patterns also responds to a search for uniformity, which undoubtedly will ease the EFL learners’ comprehension of the message, a common concern to the native and non-native teachers.

I would maintain that many similarities among teachers result from the classroom setting which shapes their discourse in two major ways. First, the classroom context appears to restrict the kind of request generally produced while providing plenty of occasions for the use of regulatory functions:

“the classroom context did not afford opportunities for the kind of elaborated request that is needed when the *speakers’ relationship* are not so fixed. The *sheer routineness* of classroom business may have provided a context for the acquisition of basic request forms but may not have encouraged the acquisition of more elaborate forms” (Ellis 1992a:19).

And second, the classroom constitutes an environment where the interactants achieve great familiarity with each other. This removes the need for the kind of careful face-work that would result in the use of indirect requests and extensive modification, which accounts for the bare exhibition of interpersonal metaphors and modality in the *corpus*. Further, it is felt that because many of the requests in the data relate to routine events, bare imperatives do not appear to sound imposing to the young audience but rather stand as a distinctive feature of EFL classroom discourse. In fact, given that the teacher represents authority in the classroom (the tenor), s/he is entitled to instantiate orders through imperatives, which would be unconceivable in another context (e.g. at the shopkeeper’s). In systemic terms, it could be argued that the researcher faces the concentric circles once again: the socio-cultural layer of language models the discourse-

¹³¹ cf. MLU in t-units in Gaies 1977b; Early 1985; Wesche and Ready 1985; Mannon 1986.

semantics which in turn shapes the lexicogrammatical realisations of regulatory functions.

8.3.1.2. Analysis of the choices displayed: differences across groups

(i) Pragmatic competence and grammatical proficiency

As Chapter 2 has reported, in the last decades, there has been a particular interest in the exploration of the relationship between grammar and pragmatics in ESL and EFL classroom research (Kasper 1989; Ellis 1992a; Ellis 1992b; Bardovi-Harlig 1999; Kasper 2001; Bardovi-Harlig 2003; Safont 2003). The present work departed from the belief that “grammar forms the building blocks of pragmatic expression” (Bardovi-Harlig 2003:27) and that pragmatic competence is built on a platform of grammatical competence, which becomes a necessary condition (Bardovi-Harlig 1999). This section hence discusses the native and non-native teachers’ discourse in relation to their level of English (native speakers vs. EFL proficient speakers) and in relation to their audience (total vs. partial immersion contexts).

The aforementioned higher degree of association between the “regulatory function”-“lexicogrammatical features” within the non-native teachers has revealed a poorer exploitation (variation in choices) of the Mood system than the natives’ (i.e. fewer clause type structures disclosed, fewer variety of subjects, fewer modality devices used...). Scarcella (1979) and Ellis (1994) also revealed that in their production of requests, low-level learners invariably relied on imperatives, whereas higher-level learners restricted the use of these forms. Likewise, Nikula (2002) highlights that whereas imperatives (second person subject omitted) were preferred by Finnish learners of English, their native teachers chose to address the students with the inclusive “we” (first person inclusive subject). The same findings have occasionally been encountered in the *corpus* analysed in this study. Whereas the role of the hearer was emphasised in non-native teachers’ requests, a joint and impersonal perspective was conveyed by native teachers, a finding that also echoes Ellis’s (1992) analysis of requests.

It may be suggested that the non-native speakers appear to make a primary association of a form and its use in a context, and that the form-meaning association will eventually expand beyond the one form-one meaning. It is worth clarifying that this work is not hereby evaluating the non-native teachers’ level of English, let alone

claiming their lower proficiency. What the data in this study reveal is that learners in low-immersion context (with non-native teachers) are exposed to a simpler and briefer input than learners in high-immersion context, which may be due to their need for a more comprehensible message (cf. Nikula and Marsh 1997 for similar findings).

Although the choices of the clause-type domain were very much alike in both groups of teachers, the exploitation of the Mood system differed. On the one hand, and interestingly enough, non-native speakers displayed a wider variation of lexicogrammatical structures (33.3%) than native speakers in some specific regulatory functions (i.e. “*calls of attention:selection*”, “*action commands*”, “*completion commands*”, “*repetition commands*”, “*behaviour commands*”). Those regulatory functions mainly enhance interaction in the EFL classroom, since they aim at the request of linguistic production, (“*calls of attention*”, “*completion commands*”, “*repetition commands*”), which is one of the major objectives in the ESL/EFL classrooms (cf. White and Lightbown 1984; Chaudron 1988; Ellis 1997) or aim at the control of the child’s action and behaviour (i.e. “*calls of attention: selection*”, “*action commands*”, “*behaviour commands*”) to guarantee classroom management and disciplinary matters. Furthermore, it could also be argued that their variation of the lexicogrammatical patterns is a corollary of the frequent display of these functions in the EFL classroom. It would then follow that those children with less time of exposition to English might develop the ability to recognise and comprehend miscellaneous linguistic patterns in the instantiation of the most frequent functions displayed in their classrooms.

On the other hand, non-native teachers tend to display low frequencies in the possible surface structures and resort to the prototypical pattern instead. Furthermore, the deep analysis of the domains of “subject type”, “clause complexity” and “modality” in the *Mood* system in Chapter 7 revealed that the non-native teachers’ talk was simpler than the native teachers’. The subject choice (most often ellipsed) and clause complexity (elaboration through embedding and hypotaxis- only present in 3.4% of the non-native teachers’ speech), result from the search of simple, clear and brief speech by the non-native teachers. It can be claimed that non-native speakers prefer monoclausal

request formulae over biclausal request formulae (use of embedded clauses), used by native teachers instead (cf. Takahashi's (1996) study of requests)¹³².

This finding was further underlined in this study by the extraordinarily recurrent use of ellipsis in the non-native *corpus*. It should be borne in mind that ellipsis, which consists of omitting an element that can be recovered from the context, is characteristic of dialogues (Halliday 1994:92) and has also been regarded as a didactic function of teacher talk (Hyltenstam 1983; Kliefgen 1985). However, as mentioned in Chapter 5, ellipsis in the non-native *corpus* seems to be the tool to efficiently communicate a regulatory function by only realising those items carrying out the greatest informational load (i.e. nouns). This has been evidenced in the common omission of subjects and of verbs, which could be retrieved by the situational context¹³³. In fact, the production of verbless requests, also acknowledged in previous studies (Ellis 1992a:11), may be explained by the fact that propositional completeness is equated to formal complexity, which is here avoided by non-native teachers. Indeed, a related feature of non-native speakers' speech act performance is that they tend to choose "explicit, transparent, unambiguous means of expression" (Faerch and Kasper 1989:233).

However, it is generally claimed that the concern for clarity favours explicit and transparent means of expression, which is associated with the overuse of explicit discourse instead of ellipsis in speech acts by foreign language speakers (Edmonson, House, Kasper and Stemmer 1984; Scarcella and Brunak 1981 and Charters 1997). Surprisingly, non-native teachers in this study did not confirm that claim whereas native teachers did. It may be suggested that the classroom interaction patterns of traditional foreign language teaching encourage the overt inclusion of elements which would be elided in normal speech (cf. Kasper 1982), which would lead native teachers in the *corpus* to explicitise some constituents that would have been omitted in any other classroom context. Consequently, I would argue that while native teachers may be aware of their different status in language proficiency (native teachers/non-native learners) and thus feel the need to include some elements in discourse, non-native

¹³² Cf. Blum-Kulka and Levenston (1987) and Takahashi (1996) for further analyses of embedded clauses by native vs. non-native speakers.

¹³³ It could also be argued that, somehow similar to ellipsis, the high frequency of absolute noun groups among non-native teachers' speech responds to a search for explicitness. Pica (1994:510) indeed acknowledges that one of the structural modifications of teacher talk consists of "the simple segmentation of an initial utterance, so that a portion of an utterance was extracted and repeated on its own".

teachers may unconsciously assume their status is the same as the learners' (non-native teachers/non-native learners)¹³⁴ and not a foreign language teaching ground where overt inclusion is required. Furthermore, non-native teachers -as English language learners themselves- can be said to be more aware of the possible comprehension problems and thus focus on key words (i.e. the object of the request) to convey meaning more efficiently, which accounts for their brief and direct messages.

(ii) *The Directness-Indirectness cline*

In the light of the results previously discussed, it may be claimed that non-native teachers aim at the presentation of a clear message which keeps them apart from indirectness, a process whereby the intrusion of the addressee's freedom of action is avoided¹³⁵. It is widely accepted that the requestive force of a regulatory function can be shaped by the directness level (cf. Blum-Kulka 1987; Kasper 1989; Hassall 2001) and that it often differs among speakers (native vs. non-native).

In the present study, the three degrees of directness acknowledged by Blum-Kulka (1989:46)¹³⁶ obtained in the regulatory functions instantiated by teachers. With *direct requests*, the illocutionary force is indicated in the utterance by grammatical (mood derivable forms, i.e. imperatives), lexical or semantic means (e.g. explicit performatives, hedged performatives, obligation statements or want statements, see example 226 below from the *corpus*); *conventionally indirect requests* express the illocution via fixed linguistic conventions (i.e. suggestory formula or preparatory conditions, e.g. "can you..." , "would you...", see examples 227 and 228 below from the *corpus*); and *indirect requests* require the addressee to compute the illocution from the interaction of the locution with its context (via use of strong or mild hints, see example 229 from *corpus*).

Example 226: [session NNcT1]
TCH: <L1 A ver L1>
show me
Julio

¹³⁴ It may be argued that their recurrent omission of constituents may well respond to natural conversation patterns and/or serve positive politeness ends, being a marker of in-group membership and casual informality (Brown and Levinson 1987:270).

¹³⁵ Indirectness appears to express empathy between the participants for Japanese speakers (cf. Clancy 1986), enhance in-group solidarity for American English (Ervin-Tripp 1976) and rely on the legitimacy of the request (Hermann 1982).

¹³⁶ "depending on the extent to which the illocution is transparent from the locution: direct, conventionally indirect and indirect requests" (Blum-Kulka 1989:46)

are you <x...x> with all your markers?
Show me your markers

Example 227: [session NkcE]

Stop!
 .. *Could you point to the word again, please?*
 .. Yeah..
 But don't put it on top of it

Example 228: [session NkcE]

Jacobo!
would you like to speak English?
and stop speaking Spanish?

Example 229: [session NmI1]

TCH: Okay. I don't want any screaming
 <x...x> as many people talking as possible quietly
 _okay?..
 Today we're going to finish. On Friday we have our test on animals.

However, a close look at the results in Chapter 6 and Chapter 7 evidence that *direct requests* are the most common in both native and non-native teachers' production of regulatory functions. Further, non-native teachers' preference for direct requests overshadows their scarce display of indirect requests. Directness in EFL teachers can be interpreted in two ways according to Nikula (2002): (i) the institutional setting with an asymmetric teacher-student relationship¹³⁷ where the dialogic interaction in the classroom is rare, and (ii) the teachers' status as non-native speakers, which plays a role in their directness. In the present investigation, non-native teachers seem to have at their disposal a very narrow repertoire of expressions to request an action, behaviour or linguistic productions. When the use of modal verbs is examined, it is found that non-native teachers mostly use the verbs "can" or "could", or simply prefer the use of bare infinitives.

As for the *conventionally indirect* acts and *indirect* acts, their use and display are here interpreted in the light of politeness theory and within a particular context, the EFL classroom. Common to all politeness theories reviewed in Chapter 2¹³⁸, the concept of politeness is understood as a strategic conflict avoidance. Brown and Levinson (1987:89) posit a taxonomy of possible strategies for performing face-threatening acts: either on record or off record. Within the on record options, the speaker may achieve it baldly, without redress by means of direct forms (e.g. imperatives for requests), or with

¹³⁷ Deeply explored in Christoph and Nystrand (2001).

¹³⁸ cf. Lakoff (1973); Brown and Levinson (1978), Fraser and Nolen (1981); and Leech (1983).

redress by displaying positive or negative politeness. Assuming regulatory functions are face-threatening acts which desire and demand the listener (children) to do some action (verbal, material or behavioural) as a favor to the speaker, it seems that politeness stands as a redressive action taken to counterbalance the disruptive effect of such act: “the cross-cultural data on requests do support the hypothesis that imposition on the hearer is regularly counterbalanced by mitigating strategies” (Kasper 1990:197). And this communicative goal is reached by enacting politeness through modifications- (i) internal by means of linguistic forms (e.g. mitigators, hedges, modal verbs, etc...and (ii) external by means of discourse strategies.

Accordingly, the data in this study show that regulatory functions may be *internally modified* (thus, *conventionally indirect*) through mitigation, which can be achieved through modal verbs, whose use is crucial in the alleviation of face-threatening acts¹³⁹. As Coates (1987) argues, modality is important for expressing addressee-oriented meanings in which the main goal is the maintenance of good social relationships. Indeed, modals are used to protect negative face by reducing the force of the utterance when the topic is sensitive. Modality (expressed through modal auxiliaries, periphrastic modal expressions, modal adjuncts, lexical verbs “think, wish”...) was scarcely used by non-native teachers since this implied the incongruent¹⁴⁰ use of language (more difficult for both the non-native teacher and for their audience, children with lower immersion into English). This accounts for the modal adjunct being by far the prototypical instantiation of modality in the non-native *corpus* (vs. modal finite in the native *corpus*), since this is the most explicit and less abstract realisation of modality.

Example 230: [session NNcT1]

Julio..

<L1 Julio y Javier!L1>

.. *Please go back to your sit*<DC-b>\$C-IM-MA-p-Rp-Radj\$..

CH: Yes Yes!

On the contrary, the interpersonal metaphor (often an off-record strategy) was barely displayed by non-native teachers as this often required a more complicated

¹³⁹ Cf. House and Kasper (1981); House (1987); Blum-Kulka *et al.* (1989), Bardovi-Harlig (1999) for other studies on mitigation of requests.

¹⁴⁰ “Congruence” is not to be understood as the “match of a speaker’s status and the appropriateness of speech acts given that status” (cf. Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford 1990:473) but is to be interpreted within the SFL paradigm, i.e. the mismatch between the form and meaning (cf. Halliday 1985).

inference (cf. Fraser 1990:230). Indeed, as the data revealed, teachers often reformulated their utterances once incongruent uses of language were displayed and no immediate response was obtained, which may hint at the children's difficulty of understanding the illocutionary force of indirect messages (see examples 231-232 below).

Example 231: [session NNncS1]

TCH: *Do you remember that song?* <DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-Fp-S2-Rp-Rc\$

David

TCH: *How is that song?* <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

((both singing)) "If you're...If you're ((SINGING))

Example 232: [session NNncN2]

Well, can you tell me [[what's this]]? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlp-inc-S2-Rp-Rc_emb.cl_INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

What's this? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CHI: <L1 ¡ala! Parece L1>

TCH: is this a blue pencil? ?

CHI: no, no

TCH: no,

what's this? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

((chair noises))

On the other hand, regulatory functions were *externally modified*, through downgrader or upgrader moves. In the *corpus*, some regulatory functions such as "action commands", "linguistic production commands", "completion commands" and "repetition commands" often consist of two main parts: the head (the act itself) and its peripheral elements (labelled "prompts" in this study, namely "action prompts" and "linguistic prompts") which trigger the achievement of the request, but contribute to positive politeness¹⁴¹ (see examples 233-234 below). As shown in Chapter 6, prompts were far more frequent in non-native teachers than in native teachers' discourse (108 vs. 56 instances). It might be argued along with Kasper (1989:53) that as a consequence of their foreigner role, non-native speakers may feel a stronger need than native speakers to establish common ground and explicitise the reasons for exerting an imposition on their interlocutor. While non-native teachers sought directness in their message and barely used internal modifiers, they displayed a wide amount of peripheral modifiers, i.e. prompts, in comparison to native speakers.

Example 233: [session NNncS3]

Come on <DPR-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

CH: Yes ((the children come round the teacher))

¹⁴¹ Cf. Trosborg (1995), Sifianou (1999), Papafragou (2000), Hassall (2001) and Safont (2003) for further analyses of requests and external modification.

TCH: All right, yes,
make a circle<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$
come on<DPR-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
Make a circle
come on<DPR-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$.
Everybody
David
come on<DPR-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

Example 234: [session NNncN2]

TCH: ok,
what else?<DPR-l>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-SFE-RpE\$
Come on<DPR-l>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
Laura!
Act as a teacher
say: this is a snowman
this is a Christmas tree
come on<DPR-l>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
LAU: this is a snowman

It may be suggested that the non-native teachers' preference for external modifiers results from the difficulty of production and comprehension for non-native learners in a lower immersion context to assimilate internal modifiers. In fact, it is widely accepted that lexical or phrasal internal modifiers added to a bare head act may increase the complexity of the pragmalinguistic structure and that extra-processing effort will be required from the part of the learner (Trosborg 1995; Hassall 2001)

Finally, the last type of *indirectness* is that achieved through hints and irony, a deliberate and goal directed statement instantiated through some interpersonal metaphors. According to Leech (1983:82), irony conveys impolite beliefs in an overtly polite way. Indirectness was hardly ever displayed by non-native teachers in the data but was occasionally found in the native teachers' classrooms (see example 235 below). It seems to me that "there is evidence that the speaker accomodates to, or responds to, certain characteristics of the listener" (Takahashi 1989:246).

Example 235: [session NkcE]

TCH: *Eh, did I ask you* <DP-b>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-Fps-S1b-Rp-Rc\$
Joaquín?
[...]
TCH: Maybe you think we do. Manuel thinks we do... ((Juan Carlos is walking round the teacher))
Are you having fun? ((teacher is angry))<DC-b>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-Fp-S2-Rp\$.
Could you get back to your post? <DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlf-inc-S2-Rp-Radj\$
((he does))

Instead, native teachers did use interpersonal metaphors in “*action commands*”, “*behaviour commands*”, “*linguistic production commands*” in 15% of those instances, and displayed far higher frequencies in “*action prohibitions*”, “*behaviour prohibitions*”, and “*linguistic prohibitions*” (between 60% and 80%). Those instances were mainly instantiated by “need” statements and non-conventionally indirect hints as in example 236 below.

Example 236: [session NkcE]

TCH: Hands down

... Now I know why you don't wanna do it

CH: <x__x>

TCH: *Eh, did I ask you <DP-b> \$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-Fps-S1b-Rp-Rc\$*

Joaquín?

would you like [[me to open the door]] \$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFmf-incl-S2-Rp-Rc_emb.cl\$. and show you the way out? \$C'-INT-yn-MFE-SE-Rp-Rc-Rc\$

It would be worth pondering over the native teacher's display of indirectness bearing in mind that (i) requestive hints occur frequently, constituting more than half of English requests (Rinnert and Kobayashi 1999), (ii) the classroom is a context where hints are relatively easy to interpret and (iii) are “bound” to be carried out (status of interlocutors is very well defined). Since hints ease the force of the message by exploiting the hearer's cooperation in deciphering it (Fraser 1978), native teachers in the *corpus* seem to demand the high-immersion EFL learners' interpretation of their utterances. Indirect acts constitute a challenging discourse as they require the ability to trespass the limits of literal meaning and seek evidence in the shared context or presuppositions, thus building solidarity.

Furthermore, it can be argued that speakers may also build solidarity through implicitness, which could account for the low frequencies of interpersonal metaphors and the high frequencies of ellipsis in the non-native data as “this [also] expresses empathy between the participants, symbolizing a high degree of shared presuppositions and expectancies” (Kasper 1990:200). In other words, the use of interpersonal metaphors (indirect acts or hints) by native teachers with high immersion EFL learners, and the use of ellipsis by non-native teachers with lower immersion EFL learners are strategies that enhance solidarity between the speaker and the addressee. Whereas ellipsis demands the audience to supply those elements that have been removed but that can be retrieved from the co(n)text, interpersonal metaphors (hints) require the

ability to discern the metaphorical meaning (the speaker's intention) despite the literal wording. Nonetheless, it is important to bear in mind that indirectness is to be interpreted as part of a shared code within a specific register, i.e. the classroom, which facilitates the learners' comprehension of the regulatory functions conveyed.

Consequently, the fact that low-immersion EFL learners are not often exposed to such indirect discourse may be due to (i) individual differences between teachers and/or (ii) the fine-tuning process whereby the speaker accommodates their speech to the audience. Despite the fact that personal styles obtain in the *corpus* -teachers' idiolects- a general tendency (native vs. non-native) leads me to support the aforementioned second argument: simplicity and clarity prevail over complexity and indirectness in low-immersion EFL learners since their exposure to the target language is lower than the high-immersion learners.

(iii) *(In)directness and politeness*

Often studied cross-culturally, politeness and indirectness have been considered two parallel dimensions in language studies. More specifically, and as seen in Chapter 2, evidence in the literature suggests that the degree of politeness increases by using a more indirect kind of illocution. In other words, politeness is mainly inversely related to directness in discourse (Banerjee and Carrell 1988:315). In fact, indirect illocutions tend to be more polite because they increase the degree of optionality and reduce the force of the illocution. It thus follows that "the more the speaker risks loss of face in performing an act such as a request, the more indirect the strategy he or she uses to be polite" (Rinnert and Kobayashi 1999:1174).

In the light of those claims, it could be maintained that the EFL non-native teachers' direct discourse is somehow impolite since bare infinitives surpass any other lexicogrammatical realisation in the instantiation of a regulatory function¹⁴². However, the politeness-indirectness correlation has been questioned by some studies which asked raters to empirically evaluate statements on the grounds of politeness and indirectness. Blum-Kulka (1987) indeed claims that politeness and indirectness are linked in the case of conventional indirectness but not in the case of non-conventional indirectness (hints).

¹⁴² See results in Chapters 6, 7 and Appendix III.

Acceptedly, conventional indirectness has the property of potential pragmatic ambiguity between requestive meaning and literal meaning whereas non-conventional indirectness is open-ended. While direct, explicit strategies (mood derivable, i.e. imperatives) have a high chance of being perceived as impolite since pragmatic clarity prevails over non-coerciveness, highly indirect strategies (strong hints) might also be perceived as lacking politeness, because they testify to a lack of concern for pragmatic clarity (cf. Blum-Kulka 1987:144).

Does this imply that non-native teachers in the *corpus* were less polite than native teachers in the production of regulatory functions? Following Kasper (1990:204), I would argue that the degree of directness in requesting is contingent on the legitimacy of the request. In other words, it appears to me that requests are legitimate in the classroom context and hence can often be realised directly without being perceived as impolite. Indeed, it is not only the situation and the act demanded itself which shape the form of the regulatory function but the addressee the teacher is speaking to. In the case of non-native teachers, their audience is a lower immersion classroom (EFL learners). It should thus be taken into account that the learner could have difficulty in deciphering the intent correctly because the interpretation of the message has to depend upon contextual knowledge. In my view, even if hints are extremely formal and indirect, thus presumably polite, they might be regarded as impolite by non-native speakers since hints carry a lack of clarity to the message that could lead to unsuccessful communication. As Rinnert and Kobayashi claim, “the relative importance attached to pragmatic clarity in relation to the notion of politeness differs cross-culturally *and situationally*” (1999:1184, my italics).

8.4.NTs vs. NNTs’ discourse: pedagogical implications of the results

A thorough analysis of the native and non-native teachers’ linguistic production of the different regulatory functions unveils the differences that discriminate their discourse. Such dissimilarities might respond to three main factors, discussed throughout this section: (i) the non-native teachers’ incomplete knowledge of the lexicogrammatical system of English; (ii) their lack of pragmatic awareness and (iii) their low-immersion EFL audience. The present research does not focus on the effects of native vs. non-native teachers’ production on the learners’ intake and output. Instead, it aims at suggesting some pedagogical implications to be considered by teachers who

train non-native speakers (future potential EFL teachers) so as to guarantee effective communication in and outside the EFL classroom.

8.4.1. Focus on form (*FonF*): raising awareness and explicit form teaching

The results obtained in the present research reveal a somehow limited exploitation of the mood system (lexicogrammatical layer) of the English language by non-native teachers, especially regarding modality, interpersonal metaphors and clause complexity, which inevitably affects the instantiation of their regulatory functions. As it is widely acknowledged in the literature (Thomas 1983; Kasper 2001), “whereas grammatical development does not guarantee concomitant pragmatic competence, it does seem that increased linguistic and grammatical development is facilitative of pragmatic expression” (Bardovi-Harlig 2003:40).

It therefore follows that a need to focus on the linguistic realisation of meanings seems essential in the EFL classroom, which implies teaching those who might be future non-native EFL teachers. The debate on the degree to which teacher or learner attention should be directed to linguistic features is an old one. As explained in Chapter 2, three main trends offer different views on teaching language in language teaching and second language acquisition theory: (i) *focus on formS* or synthetic approach whereby the L2 is broken down into words, patterns, grammar rules, notions, and is taught in a linear and additive fashion; (ii) *focus on meaning* or analytic approach, which does not consider language the object of study but a medium of communication that can be acquired by mere exposure and (iii) *focus on form* (hence, *FonF*), which stands as the attempt to combine the strengths of the other two trends by shifting focal attention from meaning to forms during a meaning-focused classroom (Long and Robinson 1998:23).

As Schmidt (1993) suggests, *FonF* allows for focal attention to be allocated by means of *noticing*, which I consider crucial in teaching any potential non-native EFL teacher: “I use noticing to mean registering the simple occurrence of some event whereas understanding implies recognition of a general principle, rule or pattern [...]. Noticing is crucially related to the question of what linguistic material is stored in memory” (1993:26). I understand that noticing through explicit *FonF* instruction¹⁴³

¹⁴³ cf. DeKeyser (1995) and Robinson (1995; 1996).

means detection and it is in the extent to which the future non-native EFL teachers notice and store a linguistic form that this is recorded and will then be used. Following Muranoi (2000), I support interaction enhancement, whereby the interaction is enhanced by means of feedback provided by the classroom teacher, as a means to allow for the systematic instruction of linguistic forms¹⁴⁴. To my view, explicit grammar instruction integrated into meaning oriented tasks and interaction enhancement may well be the paths the non-native teachers should walk so as to widen their lexicogrammatical resources which will then lead them to a richer production of regulatory functions in the EFL classroom.

8.4.2. The teachability of pragmatics

Research on interlanguage pragmatics instruction has focused on the positive effect of instruction on the learner's acquisition and use of a wide variety of pragmatic aspects of the second or foreign language, extensively reported in Chapter 2. In fact, despite the importance of the lexicogrammatical competence (linguistic competence) so as to instantiate meaning, there is more to pragmatics than only form (Kasper 2001:51).

As Bardovi-Harlig observes, within interlanguage pragmatics research, "the study of grammatical development is not only about form, it is about how form develops in contexts and *the choice* among alternatives that new forms present to learners. It is about the acquisition of pragmatics" (2003:29, my italics). Therefore, it seems important to teach pragmatics to non-native speakers of English (in this case, non-native teachers). Despite the well-known function-form associations reflected in the display of the prototypical lexicogrammatical realisations, teachers should be trained to display multiple forms to convey a particular regulatory function.

The present study has indeed illustrated how the distinct regulatory functions are instantiated through different lexicogrammatical surface structures (e.g. "*action commands*" through declaratives with high modal finite operators, through imperatives, through interpersonal metaphors realised by an interrogative sentence) and has then confirmed that a single surface structure (the imperative sentence) may instantiate different functions (e.g. "*action commands*", "*behaviour commands*", "*prompts*",

¹⁴⁴ Other studies supporting this claim are Lightbown and Spada (1990), Doughty and Williams (1998) and Long and Robinson (1998).

“*action prohibitions*”). Although there has not been any pragmatic problem in the data analysed (i.e. no important misunderstanding has obtained between children and non-native teachers), it is worth highlighting the relevance for non-native teachers to incorporate a wider range of lexicogrammatical structures in the instantiation of regulatory functions. In fact, it should be borne in mind that the only input children receive in the EFL context is their teachers’. It thus seems paramount to provide non-native children with a rich input. To me, it is the researchers’ responsibility and the university teachers’ role to discern when and how to raise the future EFL teachers’ awareness of the mapping of form, meaning and use.

On the one hand, I consider that *metapragmatic instruction* (cf. Takahashi 2001) should be a component in advanced EFL classrooms where the learners might be future EFL teachers. This would require the teacher-learner interaction and a conscious reflection and discussion on some pragmatic features: in this case, the use and instantiation of regulatory functions within the English politeness system. However, and as some studies have pointed out (cf. Kubota 1995; House 1996), learning complex pragmatic strategies demands “*sustained* attended exposure and active collaborative processing of the learning material” (Kasper 2001:55, my italics) in order for the learner to recall and recognise the available representations permanently. The non-native teachers in the present study should, in my view, be exposed to instruction in the formulation and use of regulatory functions as this would mean the acquisition of a wider variety of formulae¹⁴⁵.

On the other hand, I believe that *practice* (immersion in the target language with ESL learners or in the classroom with EFL learners) is essential to learn the appropriate use of language in context. Together with instruction, practice in the classrooms could be encouraged through production questionnaires and role plays, the latter triggering longer responses, a larger and greater variety of strategies due to their interactive nature¹⁴⁶. However, it should be borne in mind that the *learning setting* determines and affects the pragmatic development of EFL vs. ESL learners (cf. Takahashi and Beebe 1987; Tateyama *et al.* 1997; Fernández-Guerra, Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor 2003).

¹⁴⁵ Safont’s (2001) study on learners’ performance of requests indeed showed that instruction meant a wider variety of request formulae.

¹⁴⁶ Cf. Sasaki (1998) for a comparison of both types of activities.

Foreign language learners, i.e. our future EFL teachers in Spain, often lack input opportunities in the EFL classroom setting to learn language patterns (the different linguistic choices available) and their use (how to instantiate meaning), i.e. pragmatic development. In fact, EFL learners are often exposed to teacher-fronted classrooms and to artificial and decontextualised conversations, which do not allow them to interact collaboratively and acquire and practice real language use (cf. Boxer and Pickering 1995; Kasper 1997, Alcón and Safont 2001).

8.4.3. The audience

The previous section has suggested ways in which the non-native EFL teachers should be trained to instantiate meaning (learning the necessary lexicogrammatical structures and patterns and their pragmatic use), since it is understood that teacher talk shapes the learner's linguistic development, i.e. "scaffolding". However, these concluding lines wonder whether the non-native teachers' discourse indeed does nothing but respond to the learner's knowledge and needs, i.e. a "fine-tuning" process¹⁴⁷. Research shows that, in the same way the adult provides the linguistic model to the child, the adult speech modifications change directly as a reflection of the child's behaviour (cf. Penman *et al.* 1983); Smolack and Winraub (1983); Harris *et al.* (1988)). In other words, the speaker's style or variation can be attributable to the effect of their interlocutors (Takahashi 1989:245).

In the present work, non-native teachers have been shown to search for simplicity, brevity and explicitness of their messages, which is manifested in their preference for simple over projected or embedded clauses, use of ellipsis and absolute noun groups. As discussed above, the non-native teachers' display of indirectness would demand the learners to transcend the literal meaning and interpret the illocutionary force. Furthermore, clause-complexity would require learners with lower L2 input to process more elaborate information units that could deviate their attention from the essential communicative intent. Bearing in mind that the regulatory functions are urgent in nature, it would seem reasonable for non-native teachers to convey such messages as briefly and directly as possible so as to ensure an immediate understanding of the

¹⁴⁷ Cf. Cross (1977), Ellis and Wells (1980).

message and ultimately guarantee the fulfilment of the activity/action demanded in the classroom.

8.5. Summary

This chapter has outlined the potential of analysing meaning through the *Regulatory Functions System Network*, has explored the relationship between meaning and linguistic realisations at the lexicogrammatical stratum and has finally depicted the exploitation of the Mood system to communicate in the EFL classroom by comparing and contrasting the native and non-native teachers' talk. The last section has accounted for the native and non-native teachers' similarities in discourse (equal "meaning"- "form" relationship, same preferred linguistic choices) and has interpreted the quantitative and qualitative differences that arose in the data (fewer degree of exploitation, i.e. less variety of choices, generalisation of the prototypical surface structure and simpler lexicogrammatical patterns).

The underlying claim that arises from this chapter is that the lexicogrammatical system is not an abstract entity prescribing and proscribing the rules of language in order to convey regulatory meanings but where *choices* invite the teacher to make the system his/hers and hence define his/her communicative style, whose utmost aim is - no matter how- to be efficient in the EFL classroom.

“There is a need to reconsider the very nature of interaction in language classrooms if we want to take seriously the contention that foreign language teaching should provide opportunities to learn not only structural but also pragmatic skills. It is quite usual that in language classrooms the emphasis is put on students’ grammatical skills in the target language, but as Bardovi-Harlig (2001:26) points out ‘emphasis on microlevel grammatical accuracy in the foreign language classroom may be at the expense of macrolevel pragmatic appropriateness’”(Nikula 2002:459).

CHAPTER 9: CONCLUSION

- 9.1. Summary and conclusions
- 9.2. Contributions of the study and pedagogical implications
- 9.3. Further research
- 9.4. Coda

9. CONCLUSION

This final chapter summarises the investigation and reveals the possible contributions of the study. The last sections of the chapter highlight the pedagogical implications of this work and hint at possible lines for future investigations in the field.

9.1. Summary and conclusions

Given the influence of teacher talk on the ulterior child's linguistic and interactive development, this investigation has focused on the analysis of pre-school teacher talk in the EFL classroom. Motivated by the potential of instantiating meaning through lexicogrammar, understanding language as modular in nature and departing from the intuition that regulatory functions are the result of discourse-semantic options in the language instantiated through the linguistic structure, thus operationalisable, the present research has searched for a systematisation of the analysis of meaning. In particular, this investigation has carried out a cross-stratal analysis of the interpersonal metafunction of language in teacher talk through (i) the development and validation of an instrument to enable the discourse-semantic analysis of regulatory functions in the EFL classroom, (ii) the exploration of the function-form correspondence and (iii) the comparison of the native vs. non-native teachers' linguistic instantiations of regulatory meaning.

First, to achieve the discourse-semantic analysis this work has designed the *Regulatory Functions System Network*, a tool that summarises the various semantic and discursive choices that constitute the distinct contexts of occurrence of each regulatory function, which is in turn embodied in a specific lexicogrammatical structure. Not only does the *RFSN* provide a taxonomy of fifteen regulatory functions, but it also depicts the variables and features that define them, which will undoubtedly help future linguists in ulterior analyses. Particularly relevant is the fact that this investigation widens the concept "regulatory function" as this embraces all acts demanding different types of "goods and services" in the EFL pre-school classroom, namely (i) an action, (ii) linguistic production in the foreign language and (iii) behaviour. Furthermore, the intercoder reliability test has revealed that the instrument constitutes a reliable, valid and helpful tool of analysis since (i) each regulatory function is the result of an exclusive choice in the network, (ii) coders reach agreements on controversial categories by using a common system of analysis and (iii) the similar findings obtained

in the coders' analyses and the researcher's signal that the results can be generalisable and that hence, comparison across studies may obtain. These findings thus accomplish the first objective of the investigation, i.e. *To create and validate a tool of analysis that will account for the different discourse-semantic regulatory choices in EFL pre-school teacher talk: The Regulatory Functions System Network and a Regulatory Functions Taxonomy.*

Second, the cross-stratal analysis has examined the data at the lexicogrammatical layer of language so as to shed some light upon the function-form mapping and fulfill the second objective of this work. More specifically, the qualitative and statistical analyses of the data have probed that although no bi-uniqueness exists between the regulatory functions and their lexicogrammatical realisations, a dependency relationship underlies the function-form relationship. In other words, within the whole array of choices available to the speaker at the lexicogrammatical stratum of language, some realisations are prototypical and predominate over others in the instantiation of regulatory functions, which validates the first hypothesis of the investigation, i.e. *"There will be a dependency relationship between the lexicogrammatical realisation and the regulatory function instantiated"*.

And third, this study has acknowledged the similarities and differences found in the instantiation of the distinct regulatory functions across teachers (native vs. non-native). On the one hand, the teachers' linguistic production reveals that some fundamental principles govern *Teacher Talk* in the EFL pre-school classroom. In the interest of producing comprehensible messages, teachers seem to prefer simplicity, clarity, brevity and transparency, which accounts for their linguistic adjustments evidenced in the rare use of clause-complex patterns and indirect discourse (expressed through modality and interpersonal metaphors) on the one end, and resort to simple clauses on the other end.

On the other hand, some qualitative and quantitative differences in the analyses corroborate that native and non-native teachers exploit the Mood system differently in the instantiation of regulatory functions. A more frequent use of ellipsis and minor clauses (absolute noun groups) in non-native teachers' discourse contribute to pack their

information in brief units, which may indicate urgency and seek for a straightforward interpretation of the message. Likewise, their search for directness in their communication with young learners is supported by a scarce display of modality (rare use of modal verbs and interpersonal metaphors). Furthermore, the non-native teachers' discourse evidences a wider degree of dependency between the regulatory functions and their lexicogrammatical realisations. In other words, non-native teachers tend to resort to the prototypical lexicogrammatical surface structures to facilitate an unequivocal interpretation of their illocutionary meanings.

A much lower function-form correspondence, on the contrary, is found in the native teachers' discourse, who tend to display a wider range of lexicogrammatical structures to instantiate a particular regulatory function. Their variation in choice is more frequent and is inextricably linked to their display of incongruent messages, i.e. lack of function-form mapping. In fact, native teachers have been shown to use interpersonal metaphors and a wider range of modal finite operators to mitigate their regulatory functions and to some extent conceal such illocutionary meanings. Further, the intricacy of native teachers' messages also results from their more frequent use of clause complexity (embedded and hypotactic clauses). Altogether, those findings validate the second major hypothesis of this study, namely that qualitative and quantitative differences would be found between native and non-native teachers' instantiation of regulatory functions.

9.2. Contributions and pedagogical implications of the study

In general terms, this research has established a complex but systematic framework to analyse spoken data at the discourse-semantic level, which has then allowed the researcher to model the discourse-grammar interface of regulatory functions and compare native and non-native teachers' production, a challenging issue bearing in mind that the study focuses on spoken data in the EFL classroom and analyses language across strata. The results of this study contribute to different areas of Applied Linguistics, and particularly, to EFL discourse analysis and foreign language acquisition.

The implications of this study are of two types. Theoretically, it is the first time that the dynamics of system networks within the *Systemic-Functional* model is applied

to the configuration of an instrument that enables the analysis of spoken data in the EFL pre-school classroom. The *Regulatory Functions System Network* has been proposed as an instrument of discourse analysis that depicts the various discourse-semantic options instantiated through language in the EFL classroom. The interest of the present tool is twofold. On the one hand, it provides a taxonomy of regulatory functions through the explicitation of their inherent characteristics and features, which invites other linguists to consider those criteria in their analysis of regulatory functions, regardless of their nomenclature. On the other hand, it does not present a finite set of options, thus limited to the data analysed in the present work (e.g. regulatory functions), but can be expanded by practitioners if necessary, since it can be endlessly developed. Furthermore, I would argue that the present *RFSN* can help in the configuration and design of a software to model and systematise the regulatory functions analysis.

The validation of the *RFSN* demonstrates that it is possible to analyse functions at the discourse-semantic level and then explore their lexicogrammatical realisations. Further, the results of the present thesis leads (i) to model the discourse-grammar interface by displaying the various linguistic realisations of the distinct regulatory functions and (ii) to explore in what ways native and non-native teachers exploit the lexicogrammar so as to instantiate regulatory functions in the classroom. This work can contribute to similar projects that aim at the analysis of the instantiation of meaning in an EFL spoken *corpus* and provides opportunities for further research.

Pedagogically, the present investigation contributes to the field of foreign language acquisition and learning. In fact, the similarities and differences in the exploitation of the Mood system in the instantiation of the regulatory functions across teachers raises several relevant issues within the aforementioned field. While no bi-uniqueness in the function-form exists in the data, it is important to highlight that a statistically significant degree of function-form dependency obtained across speakers in all the regulatory functions. As a result, this investigation contributes to map the distinct functions and their analogous forms, summarised in the tables and networks that portray the prototypical lexicogrammatical realisations of the discrete regulatory functions. These correspondences set the function-form associations that future EFL teachers are to be taught. The associations found in this work indeed specify the contents of a

possible grammar course addressed to future EFL teachers. Given that one of the ramifications in the role of grammatical competence is its role in interlanguage pragmatics, it seems crucial to teach how to use those prototypical forms in context.

Besides, the analyses carried out in the comparison of native and non-native teachers' talk signal two major differences: (i) the depiction of two distinct communicative styles: the native teachers' elaborate and intricate messages vs. the non-native teachers' direct messages and (ii) the variation in choice: the degree to which the speaker displays distinct lexicogrammatical structures to convey the same regulatory function. More specifically, this investigation reveals that non-native teachers display a more restricted repertoire of lexicogrammatical surface structures and tend to resort to the prototypical realisations of the distinct regulatory functions more frequently. Bearing in mind that pragmatic competence implies the acquisition and learning of language forms and their appropriate use, this research invites teachers at university to consider L2 pragmatics as an active component in their teaching. So as to encourage the acquisition of a wider variety of formulae to instantiate regulatory functions, instructors should expose their non-native learners (future EFL teachers) to appropriate input, make them aware of the function-form-use associations, provide instruction in particular pragmatic aspects of the target language and lead them to practice and production of several forms to instantiate one single meaning.

The present research encourages teachers at university to integrate the teaching of grammar in context, a course that would include the following components: (i) "Theoretical approach to the correspondence of form-meaning-use" (differences between sentence and utterance; differences between sentence meaning and utterance meaning; the function-form distinction; functions and notions in language teaching; context, medium and genre) and (ii) "Implications for teaching" (teach how forms combine to express concepts; teach how forms can be employed to do things and raise awareness on which function-form is appropriate in a particular context). Given the main differences in the *corpus* among teachers (display of modality, interpersonal metaphors, clause-complexity and display of ellipsis), this research would call for teaching those forms through the exploration of concepts such as "how to express obligation" and "how to express prohibition", among others.

As a brief summary, Larsen-Freeman (1991) mentions the following are widely recognised as features of good teaching practice of form-meaning and use.

- (i) focus on meaning and use, not just form
- (ii) contextualisation
- (iii) attention to appropriacy: grammar as a resource permitting choices
- (iv) realistic models and use of language
- (v) providing purposes for communicating
- (vi) attending to fluency, accuracy and elaboration (developing in interlanguage)
- (vii) selection of teaching points according to the learners' needs.

9.3. Further Research

Firstly, regarding the nature of this investigation, further studies are needed to analyse teacher talk in more depth. From a more global perspective, this investigation has posed new questions and identified further areas of research in linguistics and foreign language acquisition.

The cross-stratal nature of the study has identified the need for further research. This empirical study has allowed to approach the “meaning”-“lexicogrammatical realisation” relationship by considering the different layers of language that have provided a general picture of the instantiation of regulatory functions in the EFL classroom. However, there is one more step to undertake so as to fulfil the “major task” of analysing the interrelationships of TONE, MOOD, SPEECH FUNCTION and NEGOTIATION (Martin 1992:90). The analyses carried out throughout this investigation suggest that the phonological layer of language is an essential ingredient to consider in the examination of meaning. First, prosody has helped in the identification of some concealed lexicogrammatical surface structures (e.g. distinction declarative vs. interrogative utterances through intonation). Second, tonicity has contributed to the segmentation of discourse (information units) and has played a relevant role in the identification of the units of analysis. These findings undoubtedly call for further research on (i) the interaction of discourse, lexicogrammar and phonology in construing meaning (ii) the role of phonology in the instantiation of regulatory functions and (iii) the differences and similarities in the exploitation of the Tone system vs. the Mood system between native and non-native teachers of EFL pre-school classroom (cf. Riesco-Bernier 2003).

Besides this, further research is also needed on the analysis of EFL classroom discourse analysis through system networks. The *Regulatory Functions System Network* has suggested a methodology of description and analysis of meaning in the EFL classroom and has thus provided the bases onto which future investigations can be built. While the *RFSN* has been designed as a tool that enables the analysis of regulatory functions in initiation moves within teacher talk, it would seem interesting to expand the system network through the development of other moves (responsive and follow-up) and other participants (i.e. the learners). As a matter of fact, the *RFSN* portrays an asymmetric and unbalanced network in that some domains of contrasts are further developed through the scale of delicacy than others. This would be solved through the analysis of learner talk since s/he is the “needed” participant that unmarkedly covers the responsive move in the interaction in classroom discourse. It is in this sense that the *Regulatory Functions System Network* can be claimed to embody meaning potential and to be in constant creation.

In relation to the results obtained from the analysis of the teachers’ lexicogrammatical instantiation of regulatory functions, this investigation confirms that there is a communicative style, common to all teachers, who seeks comprehensibility through their adjusted discourse. However, this work is not able to provide evidence for the direction of the fine-tuning process between adult and children’s speech. Although it can be inferred that the teachers’ discourse is shaped by the linguistic knowledge of her/his young audience, further research is needed so as to discover whether some lexicogrammatical surface structures are preferred by the EFL young learner. What is being suggested is that this investigation provides the bases for a future work on (i) the EFL young learners’ comprehension of regulatory functions and (ii) their ulterior acquisition of the linguistic and pragmatic knowledge concerning regulatory functions.

The results on the similarities and differences in the native vs. non-native teachers’ instantiation of regulatory functions and the discussion of the results have opened as well new lines of inquiry. Most differences encountered in the display of regulatory functions could be grouped under the mastery of indirectness (through the display of internal modifications embodied in interpersonal metaphors and modality and external modification in supportive moves), which calls for further experimental research on how indirectness is related to the instantiation of regulatory functions and

their ulterior comprehensibility. Along with that, and as mentioned above, research on how to teach non-native teachers a wider variety of formulae to instantiate a particular function is also encouraged. In fact, the discussion of the results has suggested that the non-native teachers' tendency to use prototypical lexicogrammatical surface structures and display less variation in choice than native teachers derives from their non-native status and their linguistic/pragmatic competence. Nonetheless, this explanation needs further evidence from research.

Finally, what the present investigation however leaves unanswered and invites the reader to consider is whether such differences in the exploitation of the Mood system affect the transmission and comprehension of regulatory functions in the EFL classroom. Further work should consider how learners react to native and non-native teachers' communicative styles. Should those be different but efficient, the aim of language education would be profoundly modified. As the *Common European Framework* claims "it is no longer seen as simply to achieve mastery of one or two, or even three languages, each taken in isolation with the 'ideal native speaker' as the ultimate model. Instead, the aim is to develop a linguistic repertory in which all linguistic abilities have a place" (2001:9). It thus remains to be seen whether the narrow repertory non-native teachers display is sufficient and thus simply a different but effective style of communication.

9.4.Coda

The focus of this research project has been systematisation of the analysis of regulatory functions in the EFL pre-school teacher talk from discourse-semantics to lexicogrammar and has been achieved through (i) the development of an instrument of analysis, the *RFSN*, (ii) the exploration of the function-form correspondence and (iii) the comparison of the lexicogrammatical instantiation of regulatory functions across native vs. non-native teachers.

Among the major achievements of the present investigation, it is worth highlighting the possibility of operationalising the study of meaning through the design and validation of a tool, the resulting taxonomy of regulatory functions which incorporates different types of goods and services exchanged within the EFL classroom

(i.e. actions, language in the foreign language and behaviour), the non-bi-uniqueness but dependency found in the function-form analysis and the differences encountered in the comparison between native and non-native's lexicogrammatical instantiation of regulatory functions despite some common traits underlying teacher talk.

To conclude, I would highlight the scope of the present investigation since it is interdisciplinary in nature and has thus implications that range from theory to pedagogy. It is theoretical in that it develops a tool of analysis that contributes to the principles and methodology of EFL classroom discourse analysis. It is practical in that it uses the tool to analyse authentic data from a *corpus* of EFL pre-school teachers and draws on the implications of the results concerning the function-form relationship and the differences across teachers. That task, to my knowledge, had not been undertaken before in the EFL classroom. Following this investigation, I can claim that it still deserves special attention since it portrays the EFL teacher as the ultimate meaning creator and the researcher becomes the ultimate meaning interpreter.

CONCLUSIONES

9': CONCLUSIONES

- 9.1. Resumen y conclusiones
- 9.2. Contribuciones del estudio e implicaciones pedagógicas
- 9.3. Comentarios finales

9.1. Resumen y conclusiones

Dada la influencia del habla del profesor en el desarrollo lingüístico e interactivo del niño, este trabajo se ha centrado en el análisis del habla del profesor del aula de pre-escolar en un contexto de Inglés como Lengua Extranjera. Motivada por el potencial de la léxico-gramática para crear significado, entendiendo que el lenguaje es un conjunto de estratos en el que cada uno de ellos desempeña un papel crucial y partiendo de la intuición de que las funciones reguladoras son el resultado de las opciones discursivo-semánticas materializadas en una estructura lingüística, esta investigación ha tratado de sistematizar el análisis del significado. En particular, esta tesis ha llevado a cabo un análisis a través de los estratos del lenguaje del profesor mediante (i) la creación y la validación de un instrumento que permita analizar las funciones reguladoras del lenguaje en el nivel discursivo-semántico, (ii) la exploración de la correspondencia función-forma y (iii) la comparación de la producción lingüística de las funciones reguladoras por parte de los profesores nativos vs. no-nativos.

En primer lugar, para lograr un análisis discursivo-semántico, este trabajo ha diseñado la *Red Sistémica de Funciones Reguladoras*, una herramienta que resume las diferentes opciones discursivo-semánticas de los distintos contextos en los que se realizan las funciones reguladoras que, a su vez, se materializan en una estructura formal. La *RSFR* no sólo proporciona una taxonomía de quince funciones reguladoras sino que describe las variables que las definen, lo que indudablemente será de gran ayuda para los lingüistas que realicen estos análisis en el futuro. Especialmente relevante es el hecho de que esta investigación amplía el concepto de “función reguladora” ya que incluye todos los actos que demandan diferentes tipos de “bienes y servicios” dentro del aula de preescolar en un contexto ILE, siendo éstos (i) una acción, (ii) una producción lingüística en una lengua extranjera y/o (iii) un comportamiento.

Asimismo, la prueba estadística de fiabilidad ha concluido que el instrumento creado en esta investigación constituye una herramienta fiable y válida para el análisis del discurso del profesor. En otras palabras, (i) cada función reguladora es el resultado de una opción exclusiva en la *RSFR*, (ii) los codificadores externos llegan a un acuerdo sobre aquellas categorías que presentan controversia gracias al uso de este sistema de análisis y (iii) los análisis de los dos codificadores y el investigador llegan a resultados similares y por tanto permiten la generalización de los mismos. Esto supone haber creado un sistema de análisis común que permita la comparación de estudios de contenido. De este modo, puede afirmarse que los resultados de la investigación cumplen el primer objetivo mencionado en la presentación de la tesis, siendo éste el “*Crear y validar una herramienta de análisis que contempla las diferentes opciones discursivo-semánticas de las funciones reguladoras del habla del profesor en el aula de preescolar ILE: la Red Sistémica de Funciones Reguladoras y la taxonomía de funciones reguladoras*”.

En segundo lugar, este trabajo ha analizado los datos en el estrato léxico-gramatical con el fin de aportar conclusiones sobre la relación “función-realización formal” y así alcanzar el segundo objetivo de esta investigación. Más concretamente, los análisis cualitativos y cuantitativos de los datos prueban que a pesar de no existir univocidad entre las funciones reguladoras y sus realizaciones léxico-gramaticales, subyace una relación de dependencia entre las mismas. Es decir, dentro del abanico de opciones de realizaciones léxico-gramaticales del que dispone el hablante, ciertas realizaciones son prototípicas y predominan sobre cualquier otra materialización de la función, lo que valida la primera hipótesis de la tesis: “*Existe una relación de dependencia entre la realización lingüística y la función reguladora*”.

Y en tercer lugar, este estudio ha desvelado las similitudes y diferencias en la producción lingüística de las funciones reguladoras entre los profesores nativos y los no-nativos. Por una parte, la producción lingüística de todos ellos pone de manifiesto que existen ciertos rasgos fundamentales característicos e inherentes al habla del profesor en el aula de inglés como lengua extranjera. Con el fin de producir mensajes comprensibles, los profesores muestran una tendencia a elegir construcciones simples, claras, breves y transparentes, lo que justifica un estilo carente de patrones de

complejidad en las cláusulas y de un discurso indirecto (uso escaso de la modalidad y de metáforas interpersonales).

Por otra parte, ciertas diferencias cualitativas y cuantitativas en los análisis corroboran que los profesores nativos y no-nativos explotan el sistema léxico-gramatical de forma distinta a la hora de producir funciones reguladoras. Un uso más frecuente de la elipsis y de cláusulas mínimas en el caso de los profesores no-nativos contribuye a presentar los mensajes de una forma compacta, lo que indica una urgencia a la hora de garantizar una interpretación rápida de la información. Asimismo, el interés por producir mensajes directos se refleja en un uso escaso de modalidad. Más aún, el discurso de los profesores no-nativos presenta un mayor grado de dependencia entre las funciones reguladoras y sus realizaciones léxico-gramaticales. Esto se traduce en un uso recurrente de las estructuras prototípicas que facilitan una interpretación inequívoca de los mensajes ilocutivos.

La correspondencia función-realización lingüística es mucho menor en el caso del discurso de los profesores nativos, quienes tienden a desplegar un mayor rango de estructuras lexico-gramaticales cuando formulan una función reguladora. Su variación en las opciones es más frecuente y está inextricablemente ligada a la producción de mensajes indirectos. En realidad, los profesores nativos utilizan una mayor variedad de verbos modales y de metáforas interpersonales para mitigar sus mensajes reguladores y de esta forma disfrazar la fuerza ilocutiva de sus órdenes. Además, la complejidad de los mensajes formulados por los profesores nativos es fruto de un uso más frecuente de estructuras complejas (oraciones subordinadas). Por consiguiente, teniendo en cuenta los resultados ya expuestos, puede afirmarse que este estudio valida su segunda hipótesis: “*Existen diferencias cualitativas y cuantitativas en la realización lingüística de las funciones reguladoras entre los profesores (hablantes nativos vs. no-nativos de inglés)*”.

9.2. Contribuciones del estudio e implicaciones pedagógicas

En términos generales, esta investigación establece un marco complejo pero sistemático para analizar datos orales en el estrato discursivo-semántico, lo que nos permite configurar la interfaz discurso-gramática de las funciones reguladoras y

comparar la producción de profesores nativos y no-nativos. El estudio ha permitido analizar el discurso hablado en el aula de preescolar ILE de una manera sistemática a través de diferentes estratos del lenguaje. Por consiguiente, los resultados de este trabajo contribuyen a diferentes áreas de la Lingüística Aplicada y, en particular, al análisis del discurso en el aula de preescolar de Inglés como Lengua Extranjera.

Las implicaciones de este trabajo son de dos tipos. En el ámbito teórico, es la primera vez que la dinámica de las redes sistémicas dentro del modelo sistémico-funcional se aplica a la creación de una herramienta que permita el análisis de datos orales en el aula ILE. La *Red Sistémica de Funciones Reguladoras* se presenta como una herramienta de análisis de significado en el aula ILE especificando las diferentes opciones discursivo-semánticas que se materializan en el lenguaje. El interés de esta herramienta radica en no presentar un conjunto de opciones finitas y por ello limitado a los datos analizados en el presente estudio, sino en una red que los investigadores puedan extender, si fuera necesario, ya que ésta puede desarrollarse infinitamente. Asimismo, la naturaleza de esta tesis (estudio empírico a través de los estratos del lenguaje) permite analizar la relación “función”-“realización formal” considerando los diferentes niveles del lenguaje. Se puede concluir por ello que la gran tarea de analizar la interrelación de gramática, funciones e interacción (Martin 1992:90) constituye una clave para entender cómo los diferentes componentes del lenguaje interactúan en la creación de significado en el aula ILE.

La validación de la *RSFR* demuestra que es posible analizar funciones en el nivel discursivo-semántico de la lengua y explorar sus realizaciones formarles posteriormente. Los resultados de la tesis permiten (i) modelar la interfaz discurso-gramática desplegando las múltiples realizaciones formales de las funciones reguladoras y (ii) explorar de qué forma los profesores nativos y no-nativos hacen uso de la léxico-gramática cuando producen funciones reguladoras en el aula. Este trabajo contribuye a proyectos similares que pretendan analizar cómo se crea el significado en un *corpus* oral de Inglés como Lengua Extranjera..

En el ámbito pedagógico, esta investigación contribuye al área de Adquisición del lenguaje de lenguas extranjeras. Las similitudes y diferencias obtenidas en el análisis de la explotación de las formas léxico-gramaticales invita a considerar los

siguientes aspectos. Aunque no exista univocidad entre la función y la realización lingüística de los datos, es importante señalar que los datos revelan una dependencia estadísticamente significativa entre las mismas. De esta forma, esta investigación ofrece una visión global de las distintas funciones y sus diferentes realizaciones al resumir en tablas y en forma de redes las estructuras léxico-gramaticales prototípicas de cada una de ellas. Estas correspondencias entre función y forma se convierten en el material o contenido de un curso de gramática dirigido a futuros profesores no-nativos de inglés como lengua extranjera. Puesto que una de las ramas de la competencia gramatical es su papel en la pragmática de interlenguas, parece crucial enseñar a los profesores qué formas deben usarse así como sus contextos de aplicación.

Además, los análisis que han comparado el discurso de los profesores nativos y no-nativos a lo largo de esta investigación señalan dos diferencias esenciales: (i) el retrato de dos estilos comunicativos distintos – más elaborado en el caso del profesor nativo frente a más directo en el caso del profesor no-nativo- y (ii) la variedad en la elección: los profesores no-nativos despliegan un repertorio más restringido de formas léxico-gramaticales y tienden a repetir las estructuras prototípicas. Considerando que la competencia pragmática supone la adquisición y aprendizaje de formas de la lengua y su uso apropiado, esta investigación plantea a los profesores de universidad el considerar la pragmática de la lengua extranjera como un componente más en sus currícula. Con el fin de proporcionar una mayor variedad de formas que produzcan funciones reguladoras, los profesores deberían exponer a sus aprendices no-nativos (futuros profesores de ILE) a un mayor *input*, hacerles ser conscientes de las asociaciones función-forma y uso, proporcionar una enseñanza de estos aspectos pragmáticos y ofrecer la oportunidad de usar una mayor variedad de formas cuando se produce una función.

Esta tesis anima por ello a los profesores de universidad a incluir en sus clases “*La gramática en su contexto*”, un curso que contendría los siguientes componentes: “Enfoque teórico de las correspondencia forma-función y uso” (distinción entre función y forma, funciones y nociones en la enseñanza de lenguas, el co-texto, el registro, el género) y (ii) “Las implicaciones para la enseñanza” (enseñar cómo las estructuras formales se unen para expresar conceptos, enseñar cómo las formas

lingüísticas han de usarse de una forma apropiada y dependiente del contexto, etc...). Teniendo en mente las diferencias principales de este estudio (en el uso de la modalidad, metáforas interpersonales, complejidad en las cláusulas, ellipsis), esta tesis apela a la enseñanza de formas mediante la exploración de conceptos como “cómo expresar la obligación”, “cómo expresar la prohibición”, entre otros.

9.3. Comentarios finales

Entre los mayores logros de esta tesis, cabe destacar (i) la posibilidad de materializar el estudio del significado de una forma sistemática mediante el diseño y validación estadística de una herramienta; (ii) la propuesta de una taxonomía de funciones reguladoras que incluye todos los bienes y servicios que se intercambian en un aula de ILE, (iii) el análisis de la dependencia entre las funciones reguladoras y sus realizaciones lingüísticas y (iv) las diferencias encontradas en la comparación del discurso del profesor nativo y no-nativo.

Para concluir, subrayaría el ámbito de aplicación del presente trabajo debido a su interdisciplinariedad ya que sus implicaciones van de la teoría a la pedagogía. Esta tesis es teórica porque desarrolla una herramienta de análisis que contribuye a los principios y metodología del análisis del discurso del aula de ILE. Y es práctica porque utiliza esta herramienta para analizar datos de un corpus auténtico (el habla de profesores de ILE en el aula de preescolar) y extraer conclusiones sobre la producción de los profesores nativos frente a los no-nativos. Esta tarea no había sido llevada a cabo anteriormente en el contexto de ILE y merece, en mi opinión, una atención especial pues presenta al profesor de ILE como el creador de significados y al investigador como codificador e intérprete de los mismos.

CHAPTER 10
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10. REFERENCES*

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PART V: APPENDIX I: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1.1. Brown and Levinson's Politeness Theory.....468

APPENDIX 1.1. BROWN & LEVINSON'S POLITENESS THEORY
The five strategies of politeness

Bald on record: S can have different reasons to do the FTA with its maximum efficiency, without fearing or caring about the H's face. When these FTA are not mitigated and are done on record, they mean that "face is ignored or irrelevant"(95)¹. These may occur when urgency or desperation prime over the hearer's face,. in a warning situation that actually aims at the H's interest "Mind the step!", or in a channel noise interaction where there is a sense of rush: "call me tomorrow!". They can also occur in a task oriented interaction "Pass me the scissors!". When there is a very different power between interactants, S may not fear non-cooperation or retaliation as s/he is the most powerful one.

However, sometimes the effect the FTAs produce through a bald on record utterance can be minimised as they are presented with some hedges that indicate positive politeness: "Do come in please". This mainly occurs in offers, greetings and rituals such as welcoming or farewells.

This strategy makes the speaker get credit for outspokenness, for honesty and sincerity and avoid the danger of being misunderstood (71).

Positive Politeness: "is redress directed to the addressee's positive face, his perennial desire that his wants [...]should be thought of as desirable"(Brown & Levinson 1987:101). It is an approach-based strategy as it allows S to show that his/her wants H's, which minimises the potential FTA by assuring H that the FTA was not meant or was not a negative evaluation of H's positive face. Positive politeness, nonetheless, is not only used in order to minimise an FTA but just to claim some appreciation/closeness towards H: "positive politeness techniques are usable not only for FTA redress but in general as a kind of social accelerator, where S , in using them, indicates that he wants to 'come closer' to H"(Brown & Levinson 1987:103). It is also claimed in this theory that exaggeration is one of the most relevant features involved in positive politeness and, this "serves as a marker of the face redress aspect of positive politeness expression"(Brown & Levinson 1987:101). This means that there may be some kind of insincerity in the part of S as s/he may be pretending to want H's wants

¹ In this section, as all references will refer to Brown & Levinson (1987), just the page number will be given.

when s/he does not really but, what is important is that this is balanced with S's very sincere wants of enhancing H's positive face.

It is used in this way to:

- claim common ground between S-H: by conveying interest towards H (attend H's interests/wants, by including him in conversations, by noticing some changes etc; by exaggerating the approval or sympathy towards H (intonation) ; claim in-group membership (by using in-group markers → address forms, slang/jargon, ellipsis or contraction of names); by claiming common values, knowledge...(by trying to seek agreement –safe topics, repetitions- by avoiding disagreement – white lies, hedging opinions, pseudo agreement- by presupposing common ground: gossip/small talk, same values etc..)
- assert H & S are cooperators: by knowing H's wants and taken them into account; by making offers and promises; by including H & S in the action (inclusive we, let's), by giving or asking reasons, by being optimistic and by assuming or asserting reciprocity (I'll do this and you'll do that).
- Fulfil H's want for some x: this is mainly done when S wants to satisfy H's wants by giving a gift (goods, sympathy, understanding...)

Negative Politeness: “is redressive action addressed to the addressee's negative face: his want to have his freedom of action unhindered and his attention unimpeded” (Brown & Levinson 1999:129). As positive politeness was said to be the core of joking and familiar behaviour, negative politeness is the respect behaviour. It is actually oriented to maintain H's claims of self-determination, his/her claim of territory. There is in negative politeness a sense that there will not be an impingement on H's freedom of action. Closely related to apologies, it is linked to impersonalisations, hedges in order to minimise any potential transgression: it is a distance mechanism that aims at the H's integrity. Negative politeness is thus used to:

- be direct: first Brown & Levinson (1987) support that there is however a tension when using negative politeness and this comes from the clash of wanting to go on-record but wanting to go off-record in order to avoid imposition. This is what was called conventionalised indirectness, that is the way to be able to make an FTA on-record but not imposing or infringing the H by using a conventional formula that is

being conventionally indirect. This is the only technique done on record, the rest presented below are do have a redressive function.

- Don't presume/assume: by making a minimal assumption about H's wants (question or hedges: tags, quotative particles, possibility or dubitative markers, adverbial clauses, words that go against Grice's maxims – believe, roughly, to put it simply etc...)
- Don't coerce when H is involved in Action: by giving H the option not to act (not assuming s/he is willing or able to do it; being pessimistic, by minimising the imposition through euphemisms for instance, by giving deference-honorifics).
- Not to impinge on H: by apologising (admitting the impingement, reluctance, giving reasons, begging forgiveness, or by dissociating S from the FTA (impersonalising H and S, stating FTA as a general rule and using nominalisations).
- Redress other wants of H's that derive from negative face: going on record as incurring a debt or not indebting H, (giving deference to H).

Off record: “if a speaker wants to do an FTA, but wants to avoid responsibility for doing it, he can do it off record and leave it up to the addressee to decide how to interpret it” (Brown & Levinson 1999: 211). Using off-record is to do a speech act in such a way that ambiguity is left in the air and that S does not take responsibility for what s/he has just said. It is a way of being tactful and non-coercive and in this way mitigates or redresses a possible FTA. Essentially, the off-record strategy involves indirect uses of language. This means that “a trigger serves notice to the addressee that some inference must be made and that some mode of inference derives what is meant (intended) from what is actually said” (ibid). Most of these triggers are related to the violation of the Gricean maxims (be true, be relevant, don't say more or less than what is needed, and don't be obscure).

These are the ways in which off-record may be realised:

- Invite conversational implicatures, via hints: by violating the relevance maxim (giving hints, giving association clues (euphemisms) or presupposing); by violating the quantity maxims (understate by hedging, overstate by sarcasm or exaggerations, using tautologies); by violating the quality maxims (when using contradictions and thus H decides on what to take, by being ironic, by using metaphors and rhetorical questions).
- Be vague or ambiguous: by violating the manner maxim, S can be ambiguous, vague, overgeneralize with proverbs, displace H and be incomplete and use ellipsis.

Don't do the FTA: if "S avoids offending H at all with this particular FTA" (Brown & Levinson 1987:72). When S decides not to threaten *niehter* directly nor indirectly H, there is the last strategy that allows S not to perform such FTA. However, it was interesting to see how Brown & Levinson did not pay much attention to this option as they considered that "S also fails to achieve his desired communication and as there are naturally no interesting linguistic reflexes of this last ditch strategy, we will ignore it in our discussion henceforth"(ibid). This seems to have been one of the most relevant and criticised view this theory raised: if the S avoids performing FTAs, Brown and Levinson view this S as not achieving his/her wants or aim in communication. This means that they have treated almost every utterance as an FTA, with or without redress, direct or indirect ,but still an FTA: a claim that was to face many later counter-arguments.

PART V: APPENDIX II: THE *CORPUS*

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APPENDIX 2.0. TAGGING CODES (Transcription and Analyses)

Transcription:

TCH: teacher
 CH: child
 ((hands up)): paralinguistic information
 [...]: overlapping words
italics: children's words or reading passages: not analysed
-interrupted- we do not listen to the end
 <x...x>: not understandable
 <L1...L1>: spoken in Spanish
 <r> repeated

Regulatory functions

Code	Function
AS	Call of attention: selection
ASC	Call of attention: scolding
DS	Suggestion
DC-l-m	Linguistic production command
DC-l-im	Linguistic imitation command
DC-l-cm	Linguistic completion command
DC-a	Action command
DPR-l	Linguistic prompt
DPR-a	Action prompt
DC-l-re	Linguistic repetition command
DP-l	Linguistic prohibition
DP-a	Action prohibition
DC-b	Behaviour command
DW	Warning

Lexicogrammatical analysis

[[]]: embedded clause (emb.cl)
 { } : dependent clause (dep.cl)

<C>: major clause
 <C'>: major clause paratactically related to the previous one, so where some elements are there ellipsed.
 D: declarative
 IM: imperative
 INT: interrogative
 INT-yn: yes no question
 INT-wh: Wh-question
 EX: exclamative

S: subject
 SE: subject ellipsed
 S1a: first person inclusive
 S1b: first person exclusive
 S2: second person
 S3: third person

F: finite
 FE: finite ellipsed
 Fp- positive

Fn: negative
Fp-p: present;
Fp-f: future
Fp-ps: past
MF: modal finite
H: high
L : low

R: residue
RE: residue ellipsed
Rp: predicator (Rvgc: verb group complex; Rmod.p: modulated predicator)

MA: modal adjuncts
MA-pol-p: modal adjunct: polarity, positive
MA-pol-n: modal adjunct: polarity, negative
MA-m: mood adjunct
CA: comment adjunct
MA-t: modal adjunct: temporality
MA-inc: modal adjunct inclination
-obl: obligation
-inc: inclination

E: ellipsis

INT.MET: interpersonal metaphor

<MC>: minor clause
<MC-EX>: minor clause, exclamation
<MC-V>: minor clause vocative
<MC-ANG> : minor clause : absolute noun group

<TA>: textual adjunct

SCHOOL CODES

Sessions with Native teachers

Private

NskJ (Teacher 1, session 1)

English school 1

NrC1 (Teacher 1, session 1)

NrC2 (Teacher 1, session 2)

NrK (Teacher 2, session 1)

English school 2

NkcE (Teacher 1, session 1)

Private with state funds

NmI1 (Teacher 1, session 1)

NmI2 (Teacher 1, session 2)

NmI3 (Teacher 1, session 3)

Sessions with Non-native teachers

Private (NC)

NNcT1 (Teacher 1, session 1)

NNcT2 (Teacher 1, session 2)

NNcT3 (Teacher 1, session 3)

Private (NSC)

NNncS1 (Teacher 1, session 1)

NNncS2 (Teacher 1, session 2)

NNncS3 (Teacher 1, session 3)

NNncN1 (Teacher 2, session 1)

NNncN2 (Teacher 2, session 2)

NNncN3 (Teacher 2, session 3)

APPENDIX 2.1. EXAMPLE FROM NATIVE CORPUS

Code: NkcE

[...]

TCH: <x At __ x>...Ok, well

1. <x Our new words x> around the wall<AS>\$MC-ANG\$

.. We did those over there, didn't we? ..

We did those over there.. Eh.. We did.. He, be, me, we, she.... but we didn't put them in a sentence, did we?

CH: No.

TCH: Would you like to put them in a sentence [now]?

CH: ((Some)) [Yes!]

CH: ((Some)) [[No]]..

CH: Noo

TCH: Emm.. -

2. Hands up if you said no<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc-Radj-Radj_hypot.exp.cl\$

.... Right.. I'll start a new <x fold x> .. If you said no..

Irene.

Ignacio García

.. Who else said no?

.. Paula

CH: [Nacho]

TCH: [and Ignacio..]

CH: And Pablo.

CH: <x__x>

CH: And Pablo.

TCH: All right!..Shall I see one of my <x__x>.. that's decided to work.. or not.. ((some laugh)) ((Long silence))

CH: <x__x>

TCH: Oh! It does!

3. Look!<AS>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$

4. .. Can you see that one there then? <AS>\$C-INT-yn-p-MFlp-ab-S2-Rp-Rc-Radj-Radj\$

CH: ((Some)) Yes.

5. TCH: Ehmm.. Who can <x__x>..

6. Could you read that for me? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlf-incl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

That word ((lengthening)) that is not going to work.. I'm gonna have someone standing in a chair... ((Putting a chair))

And that someone is going to choose the words for me.. I'm not going to choose them... umm.. Juan Carlos is going to choose them.. Would you like a ruler,

7. Juan Carlos? <AS>\$MC-V\$..

Can you reach?.. Would you like a ruler?

CH: (Juan Carlos) I don't reach <x up x> there.

TCH: Well..

8. Can you tell me the ones [[that.. I'm going to ask the children]]? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-yn-p-MFlp-inc-S2-Rp-Rc_emb.cl\$

9. Tell me which ones.. which ones [[you think they are]]<DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Rc_emb.cl\$..

10. Which ones you- did we do the other day? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fps-S1a-Rp-Radj\$..
(He points at them))

Right..

11. Could you reach those?<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlf-ab-S2-Rp-Rc\$

If you <x go x> on the chair.. can you reach them <x__x>, you think? ((he tries to reach)) ..Are you okay?.. Do you need a ruler or not?

CH: (Juan Carlos) Yes.

TCH: Well.. <x__x> in a case..

((The teacher gives it to him))

((He gets on the chair))

12. Careful!<DW><C-IM-p-RpE-Rc\$

13. Don't get on the chair<DP-a>\$C-IM-Fn-Rp-Radj\$

You'll fall down

All Right..

14. Juan Carlos <AS>\$MC-V\$.

15. Which one would you like us to start with? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-MFmf-incl-S2-Rpvgc\$..
(he points at one , which seems it is not part of the group, with the ruler)) ..

16. Juan Carlos! <AS>\$MC-V\$

17. Will you wake up?! <DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-Ff-S2-Rp-Radj\$.. ((They all laugh. He points at another one which seems is incorrect))

18. Which ones did we do the other day<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fps-S1a-Rc-Radj\$,

19. Juan Carlos?<AS>\$MC-V\$

20. .. Which ones did we do the other day? <DC-l-m><r>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fps-S1a-Rc-Radj\$

21. .. You just showed! <DPR-l>\$C-D-S2-MA-p-Fps-Rp\$

He just showed me, didn't he!

CH: ((Some)) Yes ((he shows them))

TCH: Right! Thank you..

22. So those are the ones [[that you're gonna ask the other children]]<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S3-p-

Fp-Rp-emb.cl_S2-p-Ff-Rp-Rc\$

.. All right? ((he nods))

23. Later we might trick them<C-D-Radj-S1a-p-MFlp-prob-Rp-Rc\$ and mix another one in
<DS>\$C'-D-SFE-Rp-Rc\$

((Juan Carlos laughs)) .. umm?.. All right.. So..

24. But.. Listen<AS>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$

25. .. We're not going to start with "has" because "has" belongs to a different pattern<DP-l>\$C-D-
S1a-p-Ff-Rp-Rc-hypot.exp.cl\$

right?

CH: <x We don't know x>

TCH: Yes.. That's one we could start with if we wanted to.. but I'm gonna let you choose ((Emphasis on you))

26. But you've got to whisper in my ear<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-p-MFhp-obl-Rp-Radj\$

27. .. You've got to whisper [[what it is]]... In my ear.. <DC-a><r>\$C-D-S2-p-MFhp-obl-Rp-
Rc_emb.cl_Radj\$

28. You can't tell them..<DP-l>\$C-S2-n-MFhp-obl-Rp-Rc\$

CH: No.. <x__x>

TCH: All right..

29. See [[what's <x in]] x><AS>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc_emb.cl\$

((he seems to be whispering to loudly))

30. TCH: Sh!! <DC-b>\$NMS\$

CH: ((Many)) He!

TCH: oh! Yeah!..

CH: ((Many)) He!

CH: Is he

31. TCH: Put your hands down! <DC-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

CH: Is he

32. TCH: Be quiet<DC-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$

CH: And is he

CH: <x Is he x>

33. What is that? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-S3\$

CH: I knew it.. <x A house x>.

34. TCH: Point again<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

.. Right..

35. Irene<AS>\$MC-V\$

36. .. What's that one? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CH: (Irene) She ((pronouncing a /s/))

37. TCH: He<AS>\$MC-ANG\$

.. Right <x there x>..

38. Can you put it into a sentence for me? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MF|p-ab-S2-Rp-Rc-Radj-Radj\$

CH: (Irene) Right ..He is beautiful.

TCH: Right..

39. What do you think [[Irene is talking about]]? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-S2-Rp-Rc_hypot.proj.cl_S3-Rp\$

((one child raises his/her hand))

CH: You are beautiful.

TCH: Oh,

40. Hold on<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$..

I think I'm making a mistake.

CH: A boy.

TCH: A boy... A boy that Irene's fallen in love with..

((All the children laugh))

41. TCH: Which one is it? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CH: (Irene) John.

((all the children laugh))

TCH: Okay.. <xWhat- What ___x>.. Irene's <x told you x> .. Right!

42. Sh! <DC-b>\$NMS\$

43. Stop! <DP-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$ ((Some children do not stop from laughing)) ...

44. Stop! <DP-b><r>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$

45. Juan! <ASC>\$MC-V\$

((they go on)) ..

46. Ehh<AS>\$MC-EX\$

47. Look<ASC>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$..

You are not looking.. I bet you didn't see.. I bet you didn't see, did you?

CH: I see it.

TCH: I saw it..

CH: I saw it.

TCH: Right.. Fingers ... ((the teacher laughs)) Crying? Is that so funny?.. ((the child nods)) .. ((laughing))

<x___x>.. ((To another child))

48. Choose it again<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

49. .. Choose it again<DC-a><r>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$..

Right..

50. Let's see<AS>\$C-IM-p-S1a-Rp\$

51. .. Ignacio García<AS>\$MC-V\$

52. , what was that one? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fps-Rp-S3\$

CH: (Ignacio García) <x__x> ((cannot be heard))

53. TCH: Again<DC-l-re><i>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$

CH: (Ignacio García) We

TCH: We ((He nods)) Not the we that I think you're going to tell me about ((Come children laugh))

CH: We

CH: Will

((Some children laugh))

54. TCH: The other one.. the correct one<AS>\$MC-ANG\$..

55. Put it into a sentence<DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

56. .. Joaquín<ASC>\$MC-V\$

57. , sit down <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

CH: (Ignacio García) <x The will is me x>

CH: The boy–

TCH: ((interrupting the children who are about to speak)) Sorry.. Sorry..

58. Stop! <DP-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$

59. .. Could you point to the word again, please? <DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFIf-incl-S2-Rp-Rc-Radj-MA\$.. Yeah..

60. But don't put it on top of it<DP-a>\$C-IM-Fn-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

... Right, now..

61. What was that here? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fps-S3-Radj\$

CH: (Ignacio García) We

62. TCH: Again<DC-l-re><i>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$

CH: (Ignacio García) We ((louder))

63. TCH: What's he saying? <DC-l-re><i>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-S3-Rp\$

CH: ((All)) We

TCH: We.. ((Ignacio nods)) You're saying we? .. All right

CH: ((Ignacio García)) <x The will is me.. Is __x>

((all the children laugh))

64. TCH: You just help me a minute<DC-l-re><i>\$C-D-S2-MA-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

65. .. just help me a minute<DC-l-re><i>\$C-IM-p-MA-Rp-Rc-Radj\$..

Because sometimes I hear “we”.. and sometimes I hear “will”.. And I don't know whether it's my ears or his tongue..

CH: Will

CH: His tongue

CH: Is will

CH: It is will

CH: Is his tongue

66. TCH: Well, Why are you using will? <DP-l>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-Radj-p-Fp-S2-Rp-Rc\$

67. .. Help me please<DC-l-re><i>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-MA\$

, because .. him.. The word is “we”..

CH: (Ignacio García) Yes

TCH: So you changed it out to will .. ‘cause you want to..

68. Can someone else.. put ‘we’ into a sentence for me, please? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlp-ab-S3-Rp-Rc-Radj-Radj-MA\$

69. .. Inés.. <AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Inés) We have a.. party

TCH: We have a party.. Wow.. was it a birthday or something?

CH: ((Many)) [<L1 ¡Bien! L1>]

CH: ((Many)) [Yes!!]

((All the children speak at a time, enthusiastically))

70. TCH: Hold on.. <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

71. Stop! <DP-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$

72. .. Do you mean “We have”\$C-INT-yn-p-Fp-S2-Rp-Rc\$ or do you mean “We had”? <DC-l-re><p>\$C-INT-yn-p-Fp-S2-Rp-Rc\$

CH: (Inés) We had .

CH: Had.

TCH: “We had”.. right!.. So that’s because Palomi’s birthday party already passed, didn’t it? Right?

CH: Yes.

TCH: So we had a party and.. emmm.. and what happened in the party

73. , Inés? <AS>\$MC-V\$

.. Anything exciting?

CH: Yes.

CH: Tell me <x __ x> called Inés.

74. TCH: Miguel<ASC>\$MC-V\$

75. Hands down<DC-b>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc-Radj\$

((They do))

CH: [She <x__x>]

TCH: [What happened?]

Anything exciting?

.. Who else was at Palomi’s party?

CH: You know why?

TCH: No, thank you..

CH: No invitations.

CH: <x__ Cartoons x> and she done <x__x>

TCH: All right..

76. Lucía's party<AS>\$MC-ANG\$
 .. We change to Lucía's party
 .. Anything exciting having at.. eh.. Luci.. eh.. ?
 77. .. Let's see<AS>\$C-IM-p-S1a-Rp\$
 78. Pablo<AS>\$MC-V\$..
- CH: (Pablo) We paint the <x daisies x>
 CH: ((Some)) Yes.
 TCH: We painted
 CH: ((Many)) Yes.
 CH: (Pablo) Painted the <x__x> and I <x__x>
 TCH: oh, it doesn't surprise me the least.. As usual.. Something exciting! ((Some children raise their hands))
 CH: The- The The <x children at x> the party said to Joaquín sit down and he's .. he's stand up..
 TCH: And so he was Mister Opposite.. ((The children laugh))
 CH: Nete- Nine.. Nine..
 TCH: Nine times? Why doesn't that surprise me?.. .. It doesn't surprise me.. ((some children laugh))
 CH: Mister Opposite
 TCH: All right..
79. Would you like.. to point to another one <DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFmf-incl-S2-Rpvgc-Rc\$
 80. .. Juan Carlos<AS>\$MC-V\$.... Ohhh!
- CH: Ohh! ((some))
 CH: o-oh!
 TCH: Ohh!!..
81. Paula<AS>\$MC-V\$
 82. a minute<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-MA-RpE-Radj\$
 83. Read it first<DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$
 84. Point to it<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$
 85. .., Juan Carlos<AS>\$MC-V\$....
- She's forgotten.
 CH: (Paula) I be
 TCH: I be I can only see one word there..
86. How many words can you see? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-MFlp-ab-S2-Rp\$..
- CH: One
 CH: Two
87. TCH: Come near<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
 88. Paula <AS>\$MC-V\$
 .. ((She goes)) ..
89. Come near<DC-a><r>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

90. Come here nearer.. <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj-Radj\$..

CH: (Paula) <x One.. two x>

TCH: Are you saying letters?

CH: (Paula) Ah.

91. TCH: Ah.. How many words can you see there? <DC-l-m>>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-MFlp-ab-S2-Rp-Radj\$..

CH: (Paula) Two

92. TCH: Show me then<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$.. ((Silence for some seconds)) Aha!.. Now...

93. What are words made of? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Radj-p-Fp-S3-Rp\$.

94. What? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Radj-p-SFE-RpE\$

CH: Letters

TCH: Letters... Right?... Words are made of letters.. Let's suppose.. I want the word.. "red".. Red.. Right?..

95. Just a minute<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-MA-RpE-Radj\$,

96. Paula<AS>..

97. Come on here<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

98. .. Will you stand up<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlf-incl-S2-Rp-Radj\$,

99. León<AS>\$MC-V\$

100. Celia<AS>\$MC-V\$

101. Juan<AS>\$MC-V\$

102. .. Stand up<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

.. Now.. that is the word "red".. <x __ that's x> the word "red".. Now.. Who's "ra"?.. Who's "e"?.. Who "de"?
((They raise their hands)) ..

103. How many letters have we got? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Radj-p-Fp-S1a-Rp\$

CH: (Paula) <x Three x>

104. TCH: But what word is it? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CH: (Paula) Red.

105. TCH: Red<AS>\$MC-V\$

106. How many words did you say right now? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fps-S2-Rp-Radj\$

107. .. Red<AS>\$MC-ANG\$..

108. How many words?.. <DC-l-m>>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-FE-SE-RpE\$

CH: (Paula) Three

TCH: Three?

109. .. Juan<AS>\$MC-V\$

110. sit down<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

.. So we have letter .. "ra" .. Letter "e".. Letter .. "de" ..

111. Say the word "red" together<DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

112. .. All of you together<AS>\$MC-V\$

113. .. Now<DPR-l>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$
 CH: ((León, Celia and Juan)) Red
114. TCH: How many times did they speak? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Radj-p-Fps-S3-Rp\$
 115. .. Say it again<DC-l-re><p>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$
 CH: ((León, Celia and Juan)) Red
 CH: (Paula) <x three x>
 TCH: Three times?!
 ((Some children laugh))
116. TCH: León<AS>\$MC-V\$
 117. say “red” <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$
 CH: (León) Red
118. TCH: Celia<DC-l-im>\$MC-V\$
 CH: (Celia) Red
 CH: (Juan) Red
119. TCH: How many times? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Radj-SFE-RpE\$
 CH: Three?
120. TCH: Sh! <DC-b>\$NMSS\$
 CH: (Paula) <x Three x>
121. TCH: Red<DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc\$
 122. all together<AS>\$MC-V\$..
 123. One.. two.. three.. <DPR-l>\$MC\$
 CH: ((León, Celia and Juan)) Red
124. TCH: How many times did you hear [[they speak]]? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Radj-p-Fps-S2-Rp-Rc_emb.cl_S3-Rp\$
 CH: (Paula) I don’t know
 TCH: Really?
 CH: <x__x> the other say.. and the other say <x it x> all, and then <x rr x> very quickly.. rredd..
125. TCH: <x__x> Could you say it together please\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFIf-inc-S2-Rp-Rc-Radj-MA\$ and tell me <DC-l-m>\$C’-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$
 126. .. Put your hands up if you hear “red” three times one after the other.. or if you whether you hear one word.. altogether.. <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj-Radj_hypot.exp.cl\$
 CH: ((León, Celia and Juan)) Red
127. TCH: Could you hear one word?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-yn-p-MFIfs-ab-S2-Rp-Rc\$
 CH: ((all)) Yes
128. TCH: <x__x> Sit down just a minute <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj-MA-Radj\$
 129. .. Let- Let’s try again<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-S1a-Rp-Radj\$
 .. emmm..
130. Irene<AS>\$MC-V\$

131. Lucía<AS>\$MC-V\$,
132. Jacobo<AS>\$MC-V\$,
133. Carla.. <AS>\$MC-V\$,
134. Stand up [[where you are]]<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj-Radj_emb.cI\$

... We're gonna change the colours this time.. It'll be blue .. All right?.. So.. Who's "b"? ((the children raise their hands alternatively)) .. Who's "l"?.. Who's the "u" for umbrella?.. And who's the "e" at the end? .. It sounds silly, doesn't it, but it makes "blue"..

So....

135. Are you a letter<C-INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S2-Rc\$ or a word<DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-p-FE-RpE-SE-Rc\$,
136. Irene? <AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Irene) A word- A letter..

137. TCH: Are you a letter<C-INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S2-Rc\$ or a word? <DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-p-FE-RpE-SE-Rc\$,

CH: (Lucía) A letter

138. TCH: Are you a letter<C-INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S2-Rc\$ or a word? <DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-p-FE-RpE-SE-Rc\$,

CH: (Jacobo) A letter

139. TCH: Are you a letter<C-INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S2-Rc\$ or a word? <DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-p-FE-RpE-SE-Rc\$,

CH: (Carla) A letter

140. TCH: All together<AS>\$MC-V\$,
141. what are you? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S2\$

CH: ((Many)) A word!

TCH: A word..

142. Words are made of? <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$

CH: ((Many)) Letters

143. TCH: Numbers are made of? <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$

CH: ((some)) Numbers

CH: ((Many)) Pieces.

TCH: Right.. So.. Could you say,

144. Marta<AS>\$MC-V\$, I count three..
145. can you say the word .. blue? <DC-l-im>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlp-ab-S2-Rp-Rc\$,
146. .. One, two, three.. <DPR-l>\$MC\$

CH: ((Tree children)) [Blue!]

CH: ((one of the children)) [Glue!]

((they all laugh))

TCH: But, we changed.. we changed.. Right..

147. After three you say the word “blue” <DC-l-im>\$C-D-Radj-S2-p-Rp-Rc\$..

148. Jacobo<AS>\$MC-V\$

149. .. One, two, three.. <DPR-l>\$MC\$

CH: ((The three children altogether)) Blue!

150. TCH: How many times did they say.. a word? <DC-l-m >\$C-INT-wh-Radj-p-Fps-S3-Rp-Rc\$

CH: (Paula) One

TCH: Once...

151. How many words did they say? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fps-S3-Rp\$.. ((Paula does not answer)) ((To the children))

152. Say it again<DC-l-re><p>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

153. .. One two three<DPR-l>\$MC\$

CH: ((Three)) Blue

CH: Blue!

TCH: Ahh! Was a lot of rubbish!..

154. One, two, three.. <DPR-l>\$MC\$

CH: ((The three children)) Blue!

155. TCH: How many words did you hear? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fps-S2-Rp\$

CH: (Paula) One

TCH: one..

156. What was that word? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fps-Rp-S3\$

CH: (Paula) Blue

TCH: ((To Paula)) Thank you ((To the three children))

157. sit down<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

... Now!.. ((To Juan Carlos))

158. Could you point to that word again, please? <DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-p-MFlf-inc-S2-Rp-Rc-Radj-MA\$

((He does)) ..

159. Sit down <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

160. <x_x>.. Ignacio<ASC>\$MC-V\$

161. .. Could you tell me that word up there, please, [[that Juan Carlos is pointing to]]? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlf-inc-S2-Rp-Rc-Rc_emb.cl_Radj-MA\$

CH: (Ignacio) Be

TCH: Be.. Were you pointing to be, Juan Carlos?.. They didn't see you.. <x_x> see..

CH: yes

TCH: Right..

162. Be.. <AS>\$MC-ANG\$

163. Can you put that word into a sentence? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MF|p-ab-S2-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

CH: (Ignacio) Yes

164. TCH: oh! Let's see! <AS>\$C-IM-S1a-p-Rp\$

165. .. Would you like to stand up so I can hear you a bit better?<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFmf-incl-S2-Rpvgc-Radj_hypot.exp.cl\$

CH: (Ignacio) I am a bin.

TCH: A bin? ((Some children laugh)) I can't <x ___ at the end x> ..

166. Look! <AS>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$

167. .. Listen\$C-IM-p-Rp\$ Listen \$C-IM-p-Rp\$ Listen<AS>\$C'-IM-p-Rp\$..

168. Be<AS>\$MC-ANG\$

((Emphasis)) .. not Bin.. not Beam.. Be..

With nothing at the end.. Be

CH: Only .

169. TCH: Hands down<DC-b>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc-Radj\$

... Now I know why you don't wanna do it

CH: <x__x>

170. TCH: Eh, did I ask you <DP-b>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-Fps-S1b-Rp-Rc\$

171. Joaquín?<ASC>\$MC-V\$

172. would you like [[me to open the door]] \$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFmf-incl-S2-Rp-Rc_emb.cl\$.. and show you the way out?<DW>\$C'-INT-yn-MFE-SE-Rp-Rc-Rc\$

((the children laugh))

173. Guille<AS>\$MC-V\$

what's the matter?

You've got tummy ache?

CH: <x__x>

174. TCH: Come here<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$..

175. Come here<DC-a><r>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

.. Well, and still it's <x__x> here.. You still have done it.. Are you sure you <x__ x>?.. You don't.. Shall we call daddy? Shall call daddy.

TCH: No?.. Well, you say no!..

Emmm,

176. Manuel.. <AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Manuel) ["Me"]

TCH: ["Me"]

CH: (Manuel) Me .. is.. in

TCH: ((Interrupting Manuel)) Thank you very much..

Emm.. Do we start a sentence with .. “me”?

CH: ((Some)) No.

TCH: Do we start a sentence with “me”?

CH: ((Some)) No

((The teacher shruggs))

TCH: Maybe you think we do. Manuel thinks we do... ((Juan Carlos is walking round the teacher))

177. Are you having fun? ((teacher is angry))<DC-b>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-Fp-S2-Rp\$..

178. Could you get back to your post? <DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlf-inc-S2-Rp-Radj\$ ((he does))

Crisy.

CH: (Cris) Can we bring - Can you bring – Can you bring me <x something x> for me?

TCH: Oh! That’s a nice sencence.. Can you bring a bag of sweets for me?.. Can you bring me a piece of your birthday cake for me?

CH: [Yes! Yes!]

TCH: [You didn’t]

TCH: You forgot.. You ate it all ((some children laugh))

CH: ((Shaking her head)) I don’t

CH: <x__x>

179. TCH: Fernando<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: <x__x>

TCH: I am me?.. Excuse me, Lucía

CH: I am me.

TCH: I am me?!.. But that’s a bit complicated.. I am me.

CH: That is not nothing

TCH: Is not nothing?!

CH: Nothing, nothing!

180. TCH: Celia<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Celia) Somebody says who’s this? who is this?.. it’s me!

181. TCH: Wait a minute<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$..

Somebody knocks at the door and you say.. who is it?

182. .. [and they say] <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$

CH: [It’s me!]

CH: It’s me

TCH: It’s me!.. Big bad wolf.. Let me in!..

183. What does the little pig say? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-S3-Rp\$

CH: ((all)) No , <x__x> cheating!

184. TCH: I will ((rising intonation))<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S1b-p-Ff-RpE\$&T3&

CH: ((all)) Not <x__x>

TCH: <x Not let you in x>...

185. Another word<DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc\$

186. Juan Carlos<AS>\$MC-V\$

187. .. Quick! <DPR-l>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$

188. .. <x I want [[you do these x]]>.<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S1a-Fp-Rp-Rc_emb.cl\$

[We?]

CH: ((Some)) [We]

TCH: We did that one?

CH: Yes!

CH: ((Some)) She!!

TCH: She..

All right.. Well I said it already..

would you like to try this one,

189. Juan?<AS>\$MC-V\$

190. .. She (rising intonation)<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-FE-RpE\$&T3&

CH: (Juan) She is a girl.

191. TCH: Now.. did you say “she’s” \$C-INT-yn-p-Fps-S2-Rp-Rc\$ or “she is”? <DC-l-re><p>\$C’-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

CH: (Juan) She is

bTCH: Right.. She is a girl.. A bit boring that sentence , don’t you think?.. A bit boring..

CH: She says that

TCH: Eh,

192. Pablo. <DC-l-m>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Pablo) She

TCH: ((interrupting)) Oh, this is going to be fun!..

193. Listen to this one! <AS>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$

CH: (Pablo) She is a beautiful girl.

TCH: Well, that’s a bit better...

194. Nacho. <AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Nacho) She ((pronouncing /si/)) ((one girl laughs))..[is]

195. TCH: [Shh!] <DC-b>\$NMS\$..

196. Jacobo<ASC>\$MC-V\$

197. turn around.. <DC-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

CH: (Nacho) She is <x__x>

TCH: She’s <x__ the kitchen x>?

CH: (Nacho) ((Nacho nods)) Yes

TCH: Has she got a <x sting x>, <x__x> and <x hairish x> wings?

CH: <x__x>

TCH: ehh,

198. Lucía<AS>\$MC-V\$

199. .. She ((rising intonation)) <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-FE-RpE\$&T3&

CH: (Lucía) She is lovely

TCH: She is lovely

CH: <x__x>

200. TCH: Palomi. <DC-l-m>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Palomi) I- She .. had a house.

TCH: She had a house and now what's happened to it?

CH: I know

TCH: What? What happened to it?

CH: She has a birthday.

201. TCH: She has a birthday- ((rising intonation))<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-RcEE\$&T3&

CH: Party.

TCH: Party!.. All right.. She has a birthday party and I'm going!

CH: and I don't.

TCH: And she promised me some cake!.. But she didn't bring it!..

CH: But I did

TCH: Who's it? ..

202. Last one with "she"<DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc\$

CH: She

203. TCH: Sh! <DC-b>\$NMSS\$

CH: She has a big stomach ache. ((pronounces /estomak/))

TCH: She has a big stomach ache?!.. Poor thing! ((Some laugh)) What should-

204. What should we do if somebody has a big stomach ache? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Mfmf-obl-S1a-Rp-Radj_hypot.exp.cl\$

CH: Miguel has a big [stomach ache.]

TCH: [Yeah, but he..] he.

205. What should we do? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Mfmf-obl-S1a-Rp\$

206. .. Irene<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Irene) Give something that-

207. TCH: ((Interrupting)) Could you sit still, please? <DC-b>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlf-obl-Rp-Rc-MA\$ ((to another child))

CH: (Irene) that <x rise a __x> .. Something that is good for <x__x>

208. TCH: ((interrupting)) Could you sit still, please? <DC-b>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlf-obl-Rp-Rc-MA\$ ((To another child))..

209. Ignacio<ASC>\$MC-V\$

210. your shoe!<DC-b>\$MC-ANG\$

CH: (Irene) <x fruit x> is good

TCH: For stomach aches..

CH: (Irene) Yes

TCH: and <x__apple x> is good for stomach aches, is it?.. Are they magic? <x__ apple x> are they magic things?

CH: ((Many)) No!

211. TCH: Is there anything else we should do if you had stomach aches? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-S1a-p-Mfjf-obl-Rp-Radj_hypot.exp.cl\$

CH: Yes.. Yes..

212. TCH: <x__x>.. Nacho<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: Yes

213. TCH: Would you sit properly, please?<DC-b>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFmf-incl-S2-Rp-Radj-MA\$

CH: Yes

214. TCH: Virginia<AS>\$MC-V\$

215. what could you do if you had a stomach ache? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-MFIf-ab-S2-Rp-Radj_hypot.exp.cl\$

CH: (Virginia) <x__x>

216. TCH: Sorry? <DC-l-re><i>\$MC\$

CH: (Virginia) Do eat fruit.

217. TCH: Do what? <DC-l-re><i>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-SE-FE-Rp\$

CH: (Virginia) Do eat fruit.

218. TCH: Do eat <x frost x>t? <DC-l-re><i>\$C-INT-yn-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

CH: (Virginia) Fruit!

CH: Fruit!

TCH: Ah! Do eat fruit!.. Oh! I told you I was going deaf!.. Do eat fruit.. So if you got stomach ache you have to eat something

CH: No

CH: No

219. TCH: I'm just asking.. Joaquín<DP-b>\$C-INT.MET.D-S1b-p-Fp-MA-Rp-Rc\$

CH: (Joaquín) <x Measure.. Measure x>

TCH: Well, if you're Guille that <x you measure x>.. Crisy

CH: (Cris) Go to the bed.

TCH: Go to bed?..

CH: (Juan Carlos?) <x A story x>

TCH: Well, that's not such a bad idea

CH: A story book

TCH: I read a story book <x__x>

((Silence))

TCH: <x__x>?

CH: ((Many)) Yes!

220. TCH: <x__x> the left?.. Which one? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-SFE-RpE\$

CH: Yes, yes, the one of the top

TCH: Finished? Are you going home now?

CH: Yes.

TCH: Bye!

X: ((Apart)) <L1 Le llevo a casa porque estaba preocupado porque decía que tenía que devolver esto L1>

TCH: <L1 Y no le da tiempo a entrar no .. Gracias L1>

CH: The one of the top.. ((Pronounces /tup/))

221. TCH: The one at the top<AS>\$MC-ANG>..

222. Who knows the one at the top?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-S3-p-Fp-Rp-Rc\$

223. Lucía<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Lucía) Ah! He.

TCH: .. Lovely..

224. He...<AS>\$MC-ANG\$

225. Could you put that into a sentence for me, please? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlf-inc-S2-Rp-Rc-Radj-MA\$

CH: ((Many)) We do.. We do

TCH: Did we do it?

CH: ((all)) Yes.

TCH: The same?

CH: Oh Yes.. Yes.. Yes

CH: <L1 Sí L1>

((they all speak at the same time))

CH <x__x>

CH: I said John!

TCH: Oh! Yeah! .. Would you like to do it again?

CH: No

TCH: Oh, sorry!

226. I'm asking Lucía.. <DP-b>\$C-INT.MET.D-S1b-p-Fp-Rp-Rc\$

CH: (Lucía) Yes

227. TCH: Lucía<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Lucía) Yes

228. TCH: Sorry?<DC-l-re><i>\$MC\$

CH: Yes

229. TCH: Come on<DPR-l>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
- CH: (Lucía) He is very good
- TCH: He is very good.. Now, you're talking about.. What are you talking about? He is very good.
- CH: (Lucía) Of- Of John.
- TCH: John again?! What is it that you do you the girls, John?
- CH: <x__x> Irene
- TCH: Irene's <x__x>?
- CH: And he – And he wants to <x__x> with me!
- TCH: Too silly.. ((All the children laugh))
230. Silence!<DC-b>\$MC-EX\$
231. ... Irene. <AS>\$MC-V\$
- . <x__x> Right.. I'm gonna start with these words over here.. You know <x how many x> words are there here..
- Ehh,
232. Juan Carlos<AS>\$MC-V\$
233. come over here<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
- CH: Oh-oh!
234. TCH: Ehh.. Stand up <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
235. everybody! <AS>\$MC-V\$
236. Turn around! <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
237. ... Look at the wall<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$
238. ... Hands in front of you, stretched out! <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc-Radj\$
239. .. Clap three times! <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
- CH: ((The all do, some speak)) One, two, three
240. TCH: Somebody could count<DS>\$C-D-S3-p-MFlf-obl-Rp\$..
241. Clap three times.. <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
- CH: ((The all do, some speak)) One, two, three!
242. TCH: Clap three times<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
243. , Palomi<AS>\$MC-V\$
- CH: ((Many clap their hands and speak)) One, two, three!
244. TCH: Turn around<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
245. .. Say hello. <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$
- CH: ((all)) Hello!!
246. TCH: Jump up high as you can<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj_emb.cl\$..
- As high as you can ((they do it repeatedly))
- CH: One time?
247. TCH: Stop!.. <DP-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$
- CH: One time?

248. TCH: Sit down <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$. . . Right..
249. We're going to start with these words over here now<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S1a-p-Ff-Rp-Rc-Radj\$ <x around these x>..

So, good luck.

((Juan carlos points to one word))

250. Hands up if you know that word! <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc-Radj-Radj_hypot.exp.cl\$. . .
umm..
251. Fernando<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Fernando) Play

TCH: Wow!..

252. Sit down<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
253. . . Ehh, could you.. put that word in a sentence for me? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-yn-p-MFlf-inc-S2-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

CH: (Fernando) I play.

254. TCH: Wait just a minute<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
255. .. If I ask you a question, do you- how do you answer my question? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Radj-Fp-S2-Rp-Rc-Radj_hypot.exp-cl\$
256. .. If I say, "Can you do this for me?" what do you say? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-Fp-S2-Rp-Radj_hypot.exp-cl\$
257. .. Yes<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-yn-SFE-RpE-MA-pol-p\$ or no? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-yn-SFE-RpE-MA-pol-n\$

CH: ((some)) Yes

258. TCH: Fernando<AS>\$MC-V\$
259. can you put the word "play" into a sentence for me? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlp-inc-S2-Rp-Rc-Radj-Radj\$

CH: (Fernando) I play with -

TCH: He wasn't listening..

260. Look<AS>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$

CH: (Fernando) Yes

TCH: Oh! Thank you, yes, right.

261. Carry on.. <DPR-l>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

CH: (Fernando) I play with Miguel

TCH: I play with Miguel ((Slowly)) .. you play with Miguel every day?

CH: (Fernando) ((Shaking his head)) No

CH: No.

CH: Sometimes.

CH: Sometimes.

((They begin talking at the same time))

262. TCH: Who am I asking? <DP-b>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-S1b-Rp\$

263. Who am I asking? <DP-b><r>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-S1b-Rp\$

CH: (Fernando) With Carla

TCH: With Carla.. Then why didn't you say Carla?!..

264. Sit down<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

265. Who else can think of another word- another sentence?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-S3-MFlp-ab-Rp-Rc\$ ((some children raise their hand))

266. Crisy<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Crisy) I play with my new toy.

TCH: All right..

267. Ehh, Juan Carlos<AS>\$MC-V\$

268. another one<DC-l-m>\$MC-V\$....

In order?!.. Even you're doing in order?!

CH: Yes

TCH: Oh, I hope not.. ((he points to another card))

269. Manuel<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Manuel) He's

TCH: ((interrupting)) No

CH: Was.

270. TCH: Palomi? <AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Palomi)<x Is x>.

TCH: No..

271. Lucía? <AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Lucía) Was

272. TCH: Point to it again <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$..

I think I forgot which one.

CH: Was

CH: He pointed was.

((The children speak at a time))

TCH: But I wasn't looking ..

273. Which one did you point to? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fps-S2-Rp\$

CH: ((Some)) Was

TCH: What you've been doing? ..

Now..

274. Changing.. <DC-a>\$NMSS\$

275. Choose which one [[you want]]<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc_emb.cl\$

CH: ((some)) Was

TCH: Right, right..

276. I didn't see that<DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.D-S1b-n-Fps-Rp-Rc\$

277. Inés<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Inés) Was

278. TCH: Was<AS>\$MC-ANG\$

279. Could you put that into a sentence for me? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlf-inc-S2-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

280. ... Yes\$C-INT-yn-RpE-SFE-MA-pol-p\$ or no? <DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-RpE-SFE-MA-pol-n\$

CH: Yes

TCH: Inés.. Hello?

CH: (Inés) No.

TCH: No? ((some laugh)) No?

CH: No.

TCH: Oh,

281. Inés! <ASC>\$MC-V\$

282. .. Sit down<DC-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

283. ...I'm not going to choose anyone [[who is not sitting properly]]<DW>\$C-D-S1b-p-Fp-Rp-Rc_emb.cl\$

284. .. Juan<DC-l-m>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Juan) I was in the park.

285. TCH: I was in the park when... <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S1b-p-Fps-Rp-hypot.exp.clEE\$

CH: (Juan) I was sick ((some laugh))

TCH: I was in the park when I was sick.. How disgusting! What a thing to do!.. <x the ducks ___x>! Ehh..

286. Lucía<AS>\$MC-V\$

287. , your turn. <DC-l-m>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

CH: (Lucía) I was in the park when.. he was <x crazy x>

TCH: uh! That's a nice one.. I was in the park when <x ___x>..

288. Nacho<DC-l-m>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Nacho) "Ait" was ((pronounces /ait/)) at school.

289. TCH: I was at? <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S1b-p-Fps-Rp-Radj\$

CH: (Nacho) School.

290. TCH: I was at school when.. <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S1b-p-Fps-Rp-Radj-hypot.exp.cl\$

CH: He <x ___x>

CH: (Nacho) <x ___x>

291. TCH: Listen to this.. <AS>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$

292. I was at school.. when along came.. a gigantic.... what? <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S1b-p-Fps-Rp-Radj-hypot.exp.cl_Radj-p-Fps-Rp-S3EE\$

CH: Wolf

TCH: Wolf?

((Some laugh))

CH: Wolf.

CH: Wolf.

293. TCH: The next word, “going”.. <AS>\$MC-ANG\$

294. I was at school when along came a gigantic wolf who was? <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S1b-p-Fps-Rp-Radj-hypot.exp.cl_Radj-p-Fps-Rp-S3_emb.clEE\$

CH: Going to eat.

CH: Going to eat me

TCH: Going

CH: Going to eat us.

CH: Me.

TCH: Going to eat me.. ((pointing to herself))

CH: ((All)) Me.. me ..me ((pointing to themselves))

295. TCH: Now we’re going to use the word “away”.. <DC-l-m>\$C-D-S1a-p-Ff-Rp-Rc\$

296. I was at school when... <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S1b-p-Fps-Rp-Radj-hypot.exp.clEE \$

((showing them to continue)) what happened?

CH: <x_x>

CH: A long

TCH: Along

297. TCH/CH: ((Some)) came a gigantic <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-Radj-p-Fps-Rp-S3EE\$

CH: <x manx>

CH: Wolf.

298. TCH: Wolf... Who was<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3_emb.clEE-p-FpE-RpE\$

299. TCH: /CH: Going to eat <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-SE-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$

CH: ((Some)) us.

CH: eat me.

CH: ((some)) Me.

TCH: Me ((pointing to herself))

CH: ((Some)) Me! ((pointing to themselves))

TCH: Me ((pointing to herself))

CH: ((Some)) Me! Me! Me! Me! ((pointing to themselves))

300. TCH: [Sh! Sh!<DC-b>\$NMS\$

301. Quiet! Quiet!] <DC-b>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc\$

CH: ((Some)) [Me! Me! Me! Me!]

302. TCH: What's the next word? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CH: You! You! You.

303. TCH: "Away" \$MC-ANG\$ "Away". <AS>\$MC'-ANG\$

CH: Where?

304. TCH: So I .. ((rising intonation))<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S1b-p-FE-RpE\$

CH: Was away.

305. TCH: Sorry? <DC-l-re><i>\$MC\$

CH: Was away

TCH: Not "was away"

306. .. So I..((rising intonation)) <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S1b-p-FE-RpE\$

CH: Ran away.

TCH: Ran away!.. So I ran away

CH: I <x__x>

TCH: Can you say "I go away" if you're talking about something that already happened? ... You are telling the story of something that already happened? Can you say "So then I go away"

CH: No.

307. TCH: What word would you have to use? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-MFhf-obl-Rp\$

CH: Now

CH: Run.

TCH: Then you're changing the word?

CH: <L1 Sí L1>

TCH: You're changing the word.. Who's said it? .. Somebody said it..

CH: Ignacio.

308. TCH: Irene<ASC>\$MC-V\$

309. , you're listening? <DC-b>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-p-Fp-Rp\$&T2&

CH: Yes.

CH: Ignacio García said it.

310. TCH: Yeah, but, I- I don't want "run".. It's something to do with <x Juan's x> word "go".. Begins with a double u. <DC-l-m>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-Radj\$

CH: Double u letter <x__x>

CH: <x__x>

TCH: No..

311. Pablo? <AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Pablo) Went

TCH: Went.

CH: Went

TCH: I went

CH: Went.

TCH: Away.. [Not I go]

CH: [

TCH: Because going is not happening now.. ((One child shakes his head)) “went” <x away x> happened then..
All right!

312. Let’s choose another word! <DC-l-m>\$C-IM-S1a-p-Rp-Rc\$

313. Juan Carlos<AS>\$MC-V\$

314. ... Let’s choose three of them<DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-S1a-Rp-Rc\$

.. Three.. ((to Juan Carlos))

315. Tell me [[which ones they are]].. <DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Rc_emb.cl\$

CH: (Juan Carlos) ((he is pointing to “going”)) Go

316. TCH: Sorry? <DC-l-re><i>\$MC\$

CH: (Juan Carlos) <x Know x>?

317. TCH: Is that “clow”?.. ((She is mixing the two words)) <DC-l-re><p>\$C-INT-yn-p-Fp-
Rp-S3-Rc\$

CH: ((Some)) No!

TCH: That’s a good word.. I like that word.. “Clow”

CH: “Clowing”

TCH: Is it “clowing”?

CH: No

CH: ((some)) Yes!

TCH: I like that word even better than[the other but]

CH: ((some)) [Going! Going!]

((Some)) Going.

TCH: Going.. It is “going” <x__x> All right..

318. I put the word going.. ((writing on the board)) Right.. And another one.. <DC-l-m>\$C-
IM-p-RpE-Rc\$

CH: You

CH: ((Some)) You ((repeatedly))

TCH: You.. ((writing on the board)) No, not “you”, <x Peter x> ((exaggerating the “y” as /dz/) but “you”
((pronouncing it properly))

CH: <x Peter x>

319. TCH: And.. <DPR-l>\$CA\$ ((Juan Carlos is pointing to “like”))

CH: Lik ((pronouncing /Lik/))

CH: Like

CH: lik, lik

CH: ((Some)) Like

320. TCH: Who thinks they know [[what that word is]]? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET-INT-wh-S3-p-Fp-Rp-Rc_hypot.proj.cl_S3-p-Fp-Rp-Rc_emb.cl_INT-wh-Rc-S3-p-Fp-Rp\$
 ((some raise their hands))..

321. Carla<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Carla) Like

TCH: Like, thank you.

CH: (León) Light

TCH: Who said “liked” right now?

CH: (León) Liked?

TCH: Who said “liked” right now,

322. Inés?<AS>\$MC-V\$

.. Now did you hear me say “like”?

CH: (León) I say “light”.

CH: Yes, yes, yes

CH: Light

TCH: Hum!.. So.. umm.. Somebody who’s <x__x>..

323. Sit properly, please! <DC-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj-MA\$

324. Let’s see<AS>\$C-IM-p-S1a-Rp-Rc\$

325. .. Is going to try to make.. a sentence using those three.. words..<DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.INT-p-Ff-S3-p-Fp-Rpvgc-Rc-Radj_emb.cl\$

326. Let’s see<AS>\$C-IM-p-S1a-Rp-Rc\$

327. León<DC-l-m>\$MC-V\$

CH: (León) You like going to the park

TCH: How do you know?

CH: (León) Because they start “you” and “like going”..

TCH: Is that how do you know that I like going to the park? ((one boy raises his hand. The teacher laughs))

CH: (León) Because you always are here ((pointing)) and you want to go to the park more.

TCH: You <x want to tell me x> .. <x__x> being here..

CH: Yes

TCH: Very good, León..

328. Who could think.. of another sentence using those three words? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-S3-p-MFlf-inc-Rp-Rc-Radj_emb.cl\$

329. .. Three words<DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc\$

330. Fernando <AS>\$MC-V\$ ((He does not answer))

331. Joaquín<AS>\$MC-V\$

332. can you help him? <DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlp-inc-S2-Rp-Rc\$..

333. Tell me <DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$

CH: (Joaquín) You like going to see the Atlético de Madrid.

TCH: You're quite right.. I don't like they win .. I don't like neither they lose .. All right! One-

334. One more.. <DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc\$

335. Lucía. <AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Lucía) You like sweeties.

TCH: I like sweeties, but where's "going"?

CH: (Lucía) You like going

336. TCH: ((interrupting Lucía))Sh! <DC-b>\$NMS\$ ((Some children are talking))

CH: (Lucía) to the

337. TCH: Sh! <DC-b>\$NMS\$

CH: (Lucía) To the

338. TCH: Sh! <DC-b>\$NMS\$

CH: (Lucía) to the zoo((pronounced /zo:/)) ..

CH: To the zoo ((pronounced well))

TCH: How do you know?

CH: Because she knows.

TCH: Because she knows!

CH: Because

CH: ((Interrupting)) Because

CH: she knows that you know <L1 animales L1>.

CH: Animals.

CH: (Lucía) I [know because]

339. TCH: [Who says] one more?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-S3-p-Fp-Rp-Rc\$

CH: You like going home.

TCH: oh yeah!! I like going home.

CH: I like

TCH: All right,

340. Juan Carlos<AS>\$MC-V\$

341. , three more! <DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc\$

CH: and then we-

CH: ((Few)) "Me"

342. TCH stops the child: No! <DP-b>\$C-IM-RpE-MA-pol-n\$

343. Let's see.. <AS>\$C-IM-p-S1a-Rp\$

344. Put your hand up! <DC-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

345. .. ((to Juan Carlos)) Choose it.. <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$

346. Point to it again<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$.. ((he's pointing to "my"))

347. ... Ehhh.. Ignacio García<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Ignacio García) "Me"

348. TCH stopping child: Nop!<DP-b>\$C-IM-RpE-MA-pol-n\$
 349. No more hands up?!<DC-b>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-n-SFE-RE-Rc-Radj\$
 350. Miguel<AS>\$MC-V\$...

You're going asleep, aren't you?

CH: No

351. TCH: Point to it, <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$
 352. Juan Carlos... <AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: No! ((some children laugh))

353. TCH: No tricks.. <DP-b>\$C-IM-n-RpE-Rc\$
 354. Miguel! <ASC>\$MC-V\$
 355. ... Don't go to sleep on me<DP-a>\$C-IM-Fn-Rp-Radj\$,
 356. Miguel<ASC>\$MC-V\$...
 357. Now, Laura<AS>\$MC-V\$ ((she does not answer))...
 358. Pablo<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Pablo) Ehhh... "My".

((some children get angry))

TCH: "My"

359. .. Point to another one<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$
 360. , Juan Carlos... <AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: Oh-ohh.

TCH: Uhh, my goodness.. that's difficult.

CH: <x Four x>

361. TCH: Inés.. <DC-l-m>\$MC-V\$

CH: Four

TCH: No, not number four

Not number four

CH: For

TCH: "For"

CH: <x four.. four x>

TCH: oh, my goodness..

362. Palomi? <DC-l-m>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Palomi) See

TCH: See... Well, good luck!...

363. Who thinks ((Some children have already put their hands up)) they can make a sentence
 using.. those .. three .. words?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET-INT-wh-S3-p-Fp-Rp-
 Rc_hypot.proj.cl_S3-p-MFlp-ab-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

... I'm gonna give you time to think..

364. Put your hands down<DC-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$..

365. Put your hands down<DC-b><r>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$.... ((Slower))

366. Put your hands down<DC-b><r>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$. ((slower))

and <x__x> now... <x you don't !x> ..

That's four times at least that I've said it

367. Joaquín<ASC>\$MC-V\$

.. Or do you want to go to the toilet.

CH: <x__x> ((In very low voice. Cannot be heard))

TCH: I'm gonna ask someone who has not got their hand up.... Does anybody not know what those words mean?..Which one,

368. Ignacio García?<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Ignacio García) I don't know what <x__x>

TCH: You don't know "my"?.. Just "come to my house".

CH: <L1 ¿Qué es? L1>

TCH: Do you know my house?

CH: (Ignacio García) Yes

369. TCH: What's the Spanish "my house"? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-Rc\$

CH: (Ignacio García) <L1 Mi casa L1>

TCH: So do you know what "my" means?

CH: (Ignacio García) Yes

TCH: Right..

370. What about "for"? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-FE-RpE-S3\$

CH: In Spanish?

TCH: Yeah

CH: <L1 Cuatro L1>.

TCH: I said: not number four... Now..

371. We've got the word "for"<AS>\$C-D-S1a-p-Fp-Rp-Rc\$

372. I need the word "for" into a sentence for me<DC-l-m>\$C-D-S1a-p-Fp-Rp-Rc-Radj-Radj\$

373. .. Laura<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Laura) I have four sisters.

TCH: Right.. Now..Do you remember I said that this is not a number?

CH: <x__x>

374. TCH: If you tell me how many sisters you have, are you telling me a number?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-yn-p-Fp-S2-Rp-Rc-Rc-Radj_hypot.exp.cl\$

CH: Yes.

TCH: Yes.. Right,

375. Lucía.. <AS>\$MC-V\$

376. Could you tell me now, please?.. <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-yn-p-MFlf-incl-S2-Rp-Rc-Radj-MA\$
- CH: (Lucía) It's my fault.
377. TCH: Sorry?<DC-l-re><i>\$MC\$
- CH: (Lucía) Is my fault.
- TCH: Fault.. That's different.. You're thinking of a different word..
378. Joaquín? <DC-l-m>\$MC-V\$
379. This is "for".. "for".. <AS>\$MC-ANG\$
- CH: <x__x>
- TCH: Yes, disappear. ((he goes)) ..
380. Celia. <DC-l-m>\$MC-V\$
- CH: (Celia) This cake is for you.
381. TCH: This what is for you? <DC-l-re><i>\$C-INT-wh-S3-p-Fp-Rp-Rc\$
- CH: (Celia) This cake.
- TCH: oh! Thank you.. This cake is ..for .. you. ((slowly)) <x__x>.. For.. Go away!.. For..
382. For in Spanish? <DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$
383. ... Nacho<AS>\$MC-V\$...
384. Carla<AS>\$MC-V\$..
- CH: (Carla) <L1 Para L1>
- TCH: I think so.. [I think so, Yes]
- CH: (Pablo) [Can I go to the bathroom], please?
- TCH: Yes ((he goes))
- So!.. If I say,
385. Ignacio García.. <AS>\$MC-V\$
- This is for you.. Do you understand what I mean with "for"?
- CH: (Ignacio García) Yes
- TCH: Right.. Well, I see you know that one.
- CH: (Ignacio García?) Yes
- CH: I see.
- CH: ((some)) I see.
- TCH: I see a cat..
- CH: I'm going to the sea.
- TCH: ughhh
- CH: I'm going to the park.
- TCH: That is that one.. It sounds the same.. I'm going to see the sea.. Do you see?.. All right!..
386. Who thinks they can make a sentence with those three words there?<DC-l-m>]]?\$C-INT.MET-INT-wh-S3-p-Fp-Rp-Rc_hypot.proj.cl_S3-p-MFlp-ab-Rp-Rc-Radj\$
387. ... Nacho<AS>\$MC-V\$

((Some children are whispering))

388. TCH: Let's see. <AS>\$C-IM-S1a-p-Rp\$

CH: (Nacho) My.. for.. see.

389. TCH: <x__x>.. Virginia<DC-l-m>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Virginia) For my, For my brith- birthday I'm going to see <x__x>

TCH: For my birthday I'm going to seeeee.. a pantomime....

390. You could say that... For my birthday.. I'm going to see (rising intonation)<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S2-p-MFlf-obl-Rp-Rc_hypot.proj.cl_Radj-S1b-p-Ff-Rp-RcE\$

CH: <x_ You're going to see __x>

TCH: A hundred and one dalmatians.

CH: No!.. Eh- eh.

TCH: The Phantom Menace.

CH: Yes.

CH: Yes! Phantom Menace!!

CH: Is Phantom Menace?

391. TCH: Ignacio García.. <AS>\$MC-V\$

((to the girl)) Episode One....

392. who's [in it?] <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-S3-p-Fp-Rp-Radj\$

CH: [Star Wars]

CH: Star Wars

CH: Star [Wars]

TCH: [It belongs] to Star Wars, but it's not Star Wars

CH: <x__x> Nacho?

TCH: Yeah.

CH: <L1 La Amenaza Fantasma L1>

TCH: ehh.. sorry...

393. Juan.. <AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Juan): I don't know <x to __ x> for of the number ((It seems that he does not know the difference between "for" and "four"))

TCH: Ehh..

394. Let me see<AS>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Rc\$. ((He goes to the board to write))

CH: Now, and I, and I ((like singing))

TCH: ((He has written "four" on the board)) Can you see the difference then?

CH: No- Yes

395. TCH ((pointing to the board)): This is? <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$

CH: [Four]

CH: [Four]

TCH: This is for you ((emphasis on “for”))

CH: <L1 Pa ti y pa mí L1>

TCH: ((laughing)) Yes.. And this is number ((pointing)).

396. What’s the difference? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

.. You can see-

397. Who can tell me the difference? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-S3-p-MFlp-ab-Rp-Rc-Rc\$

398. .. Juan Carlos<AS>\$MC-V\$.

CH: (Juan Carlos)The eh-

TCH: Four.. It’s one extra letter, isn’t it?

CH: That if we rub out the “eh” is “for”

TCH: Exactly.. Exactly.. If I have “four”..

CH: Me

TCH: And I rub out the “eh” ((referring to “u”)) for “umbrella”.. you’re quite right.. I would have a different word

CH: (Irene) If you write <x “i” for x>

((One child want to write on the board))

399. TCH: Irene’s talking<DP-b>\$C-INT.MET.D-S3-p-Fp-Rp\$..

CH: (Irene) <x “i” for yellow x>

400. TCH: What? <DC-l-re><i>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-SFE-RpE\$

CH: (Irene) ((The teacher gives her the pen to write on the board)) <x__x>

401. TCH: ((Someone knocks on the door)) Come in!.<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

402. <x Don’t x> Look at the time! <DP-a>\$C-IM-Fn-Rp-Rc\$

CH: Judo

403. TCH: What do you mean Judo?<DC-l-re><p>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-S2-Rp-Rc\$

<x__x> if I changed my name or something? .. Who was the one who <x__x> where the message comes from?

My goodness!.. You start again.

CH: Can they throw <x__x> to judo?

TCH: Who’s they?

CH: Ignacio.. Nacho.. and I don’t know the other more name..

TCH: [

CH: ((some)) [Pablo]

TCH: So really all you’re saying is .. Could the judo children come please?

CH: Where’s Laura?

TCH: Excuse me.. How am I talking to you?.. But what is this?! ((Children laugh))..

404. you don’t do that, when you’re take messages do you? <DP-a>\$C-D-S2-n-Fp-Rp-Rc-hypot.exp.cl\$

CH: ((some)) No.

CH: No

TCH: oh! I bet!

CH: Ignacio.. and.. I can 't-

TCH: The Judo children then . then you're safe.. If you say the judo children you're right..

405. Judo <AS>\$MC-ANG\$

406. children<AS>\$MC-V\$..

407. Off you go! <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Radj-S2-Rp\$

APPENDIX 2.2. EXAMPLE FROM NON-NATIVE CORPUS

Code: NNcT2

TCH: <x __x> I'm going to put these in the <x__x> .. <x__x> okay?.. At the back of the book.. And now.. I'm giving you something!.... If you're copying our book didn't you anything..

1. TCH: Who's talking<DP-b>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-S3-p-Fp-Rp\$

CH: <x <L1 Un montón así L1> x>

CH: Uhh!

2. TCH: Shh! <DC-b>\$NMS\$....

((the teacher is going to hand in some sheets with boys and girls and the children will have to dress up different clothing)) Ehh..

What do you prefer?

3. .. a boy \$C-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$ or a girl? <DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

CH: Boy.

TCH: Boy.. ((she gives the child the paper))

4. Write your name<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$... ((to another child))

What do you want?

5. .. a boy \$C-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$ or a girl? <DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

CH: <x__x> ((Cannot be heard))

TCH: ((the teacher gives the previous child a piece of paper)).. ((to another child)) What do you want?

6. A girl?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

CH: ((While the teacher is giving the sheets)) <L1 Te falta <x__x>... Aquí te falta ¿ves?, ¿ves? L1>

7. TCH: ((Giving the papers)) .. a boy \$C-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$ or a girl? <DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

((Apart))

CH: <L1 Ventidós L1>

CH: <L1 Te lo juro L1>.. <L1 Las he terminao L1>

8. TCH: Alberto<AS>\$MC-V\$,

what do you want?

9. .. a boy \$C-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$ or a girl? <DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

CH: <L1 ¿Qué hay que hacer? L1>

TCH: Finished? Finished? What do you want?

CH: <L1 Las tenemos que vestir L1> ((to the child who asked before?))

CH: <L1 ¿Qué hay que hacer? L1>

10. TCH: ah! Ah!<DC-b>\$NMS\$

CH: <L1 Ah! Ya sé lo que hay que hacer! Vestir al niño L1>

CH: <L1 Yo sé L1>

TCH: [You see the boys and girls?]

CH: [<L1 Yo de esto tengo en mi casa L1>]

11. TCH: Shh! <DC-b>\$NMS\$

CH: <x__x>

12. TCH: Look at the picture<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

13. , children!<AS>\$MC-V\$..

14. Julito!<ASC>\$MC-V\$

15. Go to your sit<DC-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$..

16. Go to your sit<DC-b><r>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$...

17. Julito<ASC>\$MC-V\$

18. Go to your sit<DC-b><r>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$..

CH: <L1 <x__x> un rosa L1>

TCH: I will find a pink for you.

19. Wait<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$

20. Sit down<DC-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

21. <L1 ¡Estoy explicandoL1><DP-b>

22. Julio<ASC>\$MC-V\$

CH: <L1 ¡Mira! L1>

23. TCH: Children<AS>\$MC-V\$

24. look<AS>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$

25. Can you see these boys and girls [that I have uphere]?<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-MFlp-ab-S2-Rp-Rc_emb.cl\$

26. Okay.. <x see if I find it there x><DC-a>\$C-INT.MET-IM-p-Rp_hypot.exp.cl-D-S1b-p-Fp-Rp-Rc-Radj\$..

27. Listen<AS>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$...

28. Can you see them<DC-a>?\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlp-ab-S2-Rp-Rc\$..

29. You've got to colour them<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-p-S2-MFhp-obl-Rp-Rc\$

30. ... and then we cut them out<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-p-S2-MFhp-oblE-S1a-Rp-Rc-Radj\$..

31. and we're going to try these clothes on<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-p-Ff-S1a-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

CH: <L1 ¿Me lo dejas? L1>

32. TCH: <L1 Le podemos poner el L1>jumper with shorts<DS>

CH: <L1 Pero le tenemos que poner <x__x> L1>

33. TCH: Yes.. Or we can put them a jumper with trousers<DS>\$C-D-S2-p-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Rc\$..

34. or jumper with shoes<DS>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

35. .. Or shorts with shoes<DS>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-Rc\$..

36. We can put many things on<DS>\$C-D-S1a-p-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$..

And the same with the girls.. She's got the skirts.. and she's got the jumper.. and trousers.. and a dress, and shoes, and a hat, and socks.. and a blouse.. okay? ..

37. But first of all, colour it<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Radj-Rp-Rc\$..

38. Write your name<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$..

39. colour it<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$

40. and then you can cut it out<DS>\$C-D-Radj-S2-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$...

41. <x use x> scissors <x please x><DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-MA\$

42. Settle down!<DC-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$...

Here you are.. <x__x>

((some children are talking in low voice)) ((Pause of the tch))

And.. <L1 mientras tanto L1>... the good boys and the good girls...

((There is silence for some seconds. It seems the teacher is working with a child, but it can not be seen))

TCH: Thank you

CH: <L1 Lo <x pinto x> justo ahora? L1>

TCH: Yes, you can colour it

CH: <x Can draw it x>

43. TCH: And the good boys and the good girls.. are going to<x__x> something<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S3-p-Ff-Rp-Rc\$

... Ahhh!

((apart))

CH: <L1 <x__x> esto L1>

CH: <L1 Que no, Julio L1>

44. TCH: Look <AS>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$.

<L1 No, no es un columpio L1>

CH: <L1 No lo es L1>

TCH: <L1 No lo es L1>

CH: <L1 ¿Qué es? L1>

TCH: Ahh! You will see.

<x__x> Quique<AS>..

CH: <L1 Voy L1>

45. TCH: <L1 A ver L1><DPR-a>

Thank you..

46. Joaquín<AS>\$MC-V\$

what do you want..

47. a girl \$C-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$ or a boy? <DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

CH: (Joaquín) Boy

TCH: Good.

TCH: And now..

CH: <x <L1 Ay, si me dejas L1> x>

TCH: Now, you remember these things? ((Bringing some pieces of papers)) ((Nobody answers))

48. We are going to put them here<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S1a-p-Fp-Rp-Rc-Radj\$..

49. I need some glue<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S1b-p-MFhp-obl-Rp-Rc\$..

50. Who's got some glue for me, please? <DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-S3-p-Fp-Rp-Rc-Radj-MA\$ ((Two children raise their hand))

CH: <L1 Yo L1>

CH: <L1 Yo L1>

TCH: Glue, not blue. Glue

CH: <L1 Toma L1>

TCH: Thank you..

51. And I need ((long silence))<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S1b-p-MFhp-Rp-RcE\$

Whose shoes are these? ((picking up one piece of paper))

CH: <L1 De Diego L1>

52. TCH: Diego?<AS>\$MC-V\$

53. Where's Diego?<AS>\$C-INT-wh-Radj-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$...

Are these your shoes?..

54. Come here<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

<x__x>

CH: <L1 ¿Y podemos empezar? L1>

TCH: <x If you're ready x>.. ((Diego comes))

Is this your shoe?..

CH: Yes

TCH: Okay, now.. <x__x>

55. You stick them with the glue on the floor<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-p-Fp-Rp-Rc-Radj-Radj\$ ((He has to stick the cut out shoes on a big poster))...

Whose is this? ((showing another piece of paper)) .. Is it yours?

56. What is it?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CH: Coat

TCH: It's a coat ((the teacher shows the child to come there))

57. Come here<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

58. .. Have you got some glue?<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-Fp-S2-Rp-Rc\$

59. ((the child goes to get some)) Bring the glue with you<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$ ((long silence))

CH: <x__x> ((The boy sticking the shoes))

60. TCH: Yes<DC-a>\$C-IM-SFE-RpE-MA-pol-p\$

61. put it down there<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$...

Whose is this?

CH: Javi

CH: Jorge

CH: Javi

CH: ((Some)) Javi

62. TCH: Come here with the glue<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj-Radj\$. ((To the previous girl who had to go for the glue))

63. Stick it here<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$..

64. put on glue back<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj-Rc-Radj\$

65. and then you stick it here<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-Radj-S2p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

Whose are these? ((Showing a pair of trousers))

CH: Ricardo

66. TCH: What are they<DC-l-m>?\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$ ((long silence))

67. Ricardo<AS>\$MC-V\$

68. what are they?<DC-l-m><r>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CH: (Ricardo) Trousers

TCH: Trousers ((Shows him to come there))

69. Come here<DC-a>..

70. Have you got some glue? <DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-Fp-S2-Rp-Rc\$ ((The first child hands it to her)) ..

Don't worry...

71. Put some glue on the back <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

72. and put them on the line<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

CH: <L1 Toma.. Toma L1> ((a child is giving a pencil to a girl))

73. TCH: Put this<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$

74. Stick it<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$. ((to another child))

What do you want,

75. .. a boy \$C-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$ or a girl? <DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

CH: A girl

TCH: A girl

((Long silence))

TCH: <x__x>.. <x__x>.. Whose this? It's yours? ((The child nods))

76. What's this?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CH: Trou-

77. TCH: It's a?<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$...

78. Who knows [what's this]?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-p-Fp-Rp-Rc_emb.cl_INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

79. Aaaa... <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-SFE-RcE\$

80. Macarena<AS>\$MC-V\$

81. you know what this is<DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-p-Fp-Rp-Rc_emb.cl_INT-wh-Rc-S3-p-Fp-Rp\$

CH: No

CH: <L1 No me lo ha dicho L1>

82. TCH: Lucía?<AS>\$MC-V\$

You don't know?

CH: ((Showing the teacher the glue)) <L1 Era de Inés L1>

TCH: <L1 Es de Inés L1> I know it's Ines..

83. <L1 Ven L1><DC-a>

84. <L1 Ven L1><DC-a><r>

CH: <L1 ¿Cómo se dice? L1>

85. TCH: <L1 ¿Cómo se dice? How do you say it? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Radj-p-Fp-S2-Rp-Rc\$

CH: <L1 Ya!.. ya! ya me lo sé.. Ya lo sé L1> .. <x <L1 Se dice L1> x> dress

TCH: Dress.. Dress.. Very good.

CH: <L1 Es que tiene __x>

86. TCH: Stick your dress<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$..

Right...<x

87. <L1 Aquí L1> <DC-a>

.. Thanks ((A child gives the glue back to her)) Thank you..

((Very long silence))

TCH: Whose is this?..

88. Hello children!<AS>\$MC-V\$..

CH: <x Julio x>

89. TCH: What's this?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$...

90. Ssssss<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-RcEE\$

CH: Scarf.

TCH: Scarf, very good.. ((The teacher gives the piece of paper to a child to take it to the child who answered right)) Who said scarf?.. Who said scarf?.. You did.. You said scarf, right?.. <L1 Yo lo he oído .. Yo lo he oído L1>..

91. Come here with the scarf<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj-Radj\$..

92. Put it here<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

93. Julito<AS>\$MC-V\$ ((She whispers something to him))

<L1 ¿Vale? L1>.... ((She seems to be talking to herself)) Ahh.. We don't have it, well.. ((to the class)) Whose is this?

CH: <L1 Es mío L1>

CH: <L1 Traigo pegamento L1>

94. TCH: Yes<DC-a>\$C-IM-SFE-RE-MA-pol-p\$

95. , please<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-RpE-RcE-MA\$

96. .. Put it there<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

CH: <x__x> ((He seems to be asking the teacher where to put the scarf))

TCH: ((Whispering)) <x__x>..

97. <L1 Más arriba L1><DC-a>

98. Yes<DC-a>\$C-IM-RE-MA-pol-p\$

99. on the line<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-RpE-RcE-Radj\$.. ((The child is putting the piece of paper there))

100. There<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-RpE-RcE-Radj\$

CH: <L1 Aquí está mi <x__x> L1>

TCH: There, you see? ... ((To the previous girl who went for the glue))

101. You have to stick this<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-MFhp-obl-Rp-Rc\$((Tapping on it)) ,

102. ((To the class)) Pleaaaaaaase!!<AS>\$MA\$...

Whose is this?

CH: Paula

103. TCH: Paula<AS>\$MC-V\$

104. your pinafore<DC-a>\$C-IM-RpE-Rc\$ ((The teacher realises that she has told the child the name of the clothing))

105. Paula<AS>\$MC-V\$

106. what's this?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-S3\$

CH: (Paula) Pinafore

TCH: Okay.. <x I see ... __ laugh x>

CH <L1 No, porque <x__x> L1>

107. TCH: <x__x> ((handing the piece of paper to Paula)) Put the pinafore on the line<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

CH: (Paula) <x__x>

108. TCH: Put it there<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$.. <x__x>

((The girl remains still. She seems not sure where she has to stick the pinafore still)).... ((the teacher goes on))

Whose are these?

CH: <L1 Mío L1>

109. TCH: Put it <x under x> the line<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

.. Where the shoes are..

Next to the shoes

CH: (Paula) <L1 Lo voy a poner ahí <x__x> L1> ((While the teacher is talking. The child is talking to another girl))

TCH: Okay,

110. Quique<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Quique) <L1 ¿Ahí? L1> ((pointing))

TCH: Yes,

111. go<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$

CH: (Paula) <L! ¿Yo dónde lo pongo? L1>

TCH: On the line

CH: (Paula) <L1 <x ¿En esta? x> L1>

TCH: Yes

CH: <L1 <x Ya x> L1> Teresa

TCH: <x__x>... ((To the class)) Whose is this? ((Showing a piece of paper which is an umbrella))

CH: <L1 ¡Ay! ¡Qué bonito! L1>

CH: Laura.

112. TCH: Laura<AS>\$MC-V\$..

What Laura?

You?

CH: <L1 Sí L1>

TCH: Very nice <x__x>

CH: (Paula) <x__x>

113. TCH: ((To Laura)) Can you put it here please? <DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-MFlp-inc-S2-Rp-Rc-Radj-MA\$ ((The teacher puts the umbrella on the paper))

114. Laura<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Laura) Yes

TCH: Okay, thank you..

CH: <L1 <x__x> último L1>

115. TCH: What's this?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$ ((pointing to the umbrella))

CH: (Laura) <x An umbrella x>

TCH: An umbrella, very good, Laura

116. Do you want a boy\$C-INT-yn-p-Fp-S2-Rp-Rc\$ or a girl?<DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

117. Javier<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Javier) Boy

TCH: Boy..

CH: <L1 Toma.. ¡Toma! L1>

CH: <L1 ¡Voy! <x__x> L1>

TCH: Very nice

CH: <x__x>

CH: ((Giving the teacher a finished worksheet)) <x__x>

TCH: <x__x> What do you now want now

118. .. a boy \$C-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$ or a girl? <DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

119. .. a boy and girl? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

CH: Girl

TCH: Whose is this? .. It's yours again? <x__x>...

120. On the line<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$..
 ((Sor some seconds, it cannot be understood))
 “Is he going?”.. “Is it going?”, <x “ she’s going” x>
 CH: <x <L1 ¿Dónde lo pego ? L1> x>
 TCH: <L1 Allí L1>.. On the line there.. <x__x> there.
 CH: <L1 ¿Aquí? L1>
 TCH: It’s not line there.. It’s line uphere ((pointing)), line down there ((pointing)) .. And there’s little space..
 there
 CH: ((Showing again that near her))
 121. TCH: No<DP-a>\$C-IM-RE-MA-pol-n\$
 122. .. there<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$
 CH: Ah! ((She realises))
 TCH: <L1 Allí hay sitio L1>.. Okay? ((The child goes where the teacher indicated)) Okay?
 CH: Teresa!
 TCH: Yes.
 CH: <L1 <x__x> el niño? L1>
 TCH: Yes.. At the boy.. Have you finished colouring?.. No..
 123. then don’t cut<DP-a>\$C-IM-n-Fp-Rp-RcE\$
 CH: Teresa?
 TCH: Yes.
 CH: <L1 ¿Coloreamos todos los vestidos que hemos hecho o no? ¿O sólo los que vayamos a hacer, a reco- a
 recortar para pegárselos? L1>
 TCH: All of them.. All of them.
 CH: <L1 ¿Todos? L1>
 ((The teacher nods))
 TCH: Whose is this?
 CH: Guillermo
 TCH: Okay, thank you..
 124. What’s- the What’s this?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$
 CH: ((Background)) Irene!
 CH: <L1 Ah! Que cómo se llama L1>
 ((The teacher nods))
 125. TCH: What’s this<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$
 126. Irene<AS>\$MC-V\$
 127. .. I can’t remember... <L1 Un chubasquero <DC-l-m>L1>\$C-INT.MET.D-SE-p-RpE-FE-Rc\$..
 It’s a raincoat .. to put the rain when it’s raining.. Yes?..
 128. Come on<DPR-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
 129. please.. Let’s put the raincoat on the line<DC-a>\$C-IM-MA-S1a-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

((One child is following her around with his paper))

You finished? You haven't finished?.. Yes?.. What do you want?

130. .. a girl \$C-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$ or a boy? <DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

CH: A boy.

TCH: <x__x> ((the previous child is waiting)) ... There is, there was, there wasn't, there isn't..

131. ((The teacher and the child go to the child's table)) Sit on the chair! <DC-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

((Some seconds in which nothing can be heard or understood))

CH: <L1 <x No tenemos que pintar x> L1>

CH: <L1 ¡Sí Si! Tenemos que pintar todo.. Tenemos que pintar L1>

132. TCH: Victor<AS>\$MC-V\$

you still miss some pink? .. <L1 Quieres L1> pink?.. Yes? You want pink? .. Yes? ((The teacher goes for some pink))

CH: <x The ___ are on x>

TCH: Yes, there are.. there's one <x here and there's one there x>.

CH: And there's not the other.

133. TCH: No<DP-a>\$C-IM-SFE-RE-MA-pol.n\$

134. you don't need<DP-a> <x the <L1 plastis L1> x>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-n-Fp-Rp-Rc\$

CH: So <x__x>

135. TCH: ((Bringing the pink to the other child)) Say thank you at least<DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-CA\$

CH: Thank you.

TCH: Ahh.. <x <L1 bueno L1> x>

136. <L1 A ver L1><AS>

137. let's see who's next here<AS>\$C-IM-S1a-p-Rp-Rc_emb.cl\$.... Whose is this?....

138. [What's this? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rc-S3\$

CH: [Jacket]

TCH: It's a jacket..

139. Come here with the jacket\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj-Radj\$ and put it on the line<DC-a>\$C'-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$..

CH: <L1 <x Pero x> tengo pegamento L1>

TCH: There's one over there.. <x wasn't it x> ((The child goes to leave his on the table)).. Whose is this?

CH: Irene

TCH: Irene again?

140. Irene<AS>\$MC-V\$

141. Come here<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$..
 CH: <x <L1 déjame L1> your <L1 Lápiz L1> x>
 CH: <L1 Un momento! L1>
 CH: <x your <L1 Lápiz L1> .. your.. <L1 el borrador más bueno L1> x>
142. TCH: Irene \$MC-V\$ Irene<AS>\$MC'-V\$
 143. what's that?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$
 144. What's that?<DC-l-m><r>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$ ((pointing))
 CH: <L1 Es mío L1>
 CH: <L1 Toma! L1>
 TCH: It's a wallet
 CH: Wallet? Why?..
 TCH: a <x sweeps x>... a <x sweeps's here x>..
145. Can you say that.. <x sweeps x>?<DC-l-im>\$C-INT.MET.INT-MFlp-inc-S2-Rp-Rc_parat.proj.cl_MC-ANG\$..
 146. Can you repeat?<DC-l-im>\$C-INT.MET.INT-MFlp-inc-S2-Rp-RcE\$...
 CH: sweeps
 TCH: Very good.. Okay.. Excellent!
 TCH: ((To another child)) Whose are those?.. No, not the colours.. Whose.. Whose are those?.. You know <x__x>..
147. [Ask him to <x__x><DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-RcE_parat.proj.cl\$
 CH: [<L1 Como tú has hecho L1>].. <L1 ¡Como tú has hecho, Javi! L1>
148. TCH: Alberto!<ASC>\$MC-V\$
 149. .. Javier!<ASC>\$MC-V\$
 150. Go back to your sit! <DC-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$..
 151. Javier!<ASC>\$MC-V\$..
 152. Don't do that!<DP-a>\$C-IM-n-Fp-Rp-Rc\$..
 CH: ((all)) Don't do that. ((in a kind of musical way))
153. TCH/ CH: ((All)) Don't...do that<DP-a>\$C-IM-n-Fp-Rp-Rc\$.. .
 154. Don't do that! <DP-a><r>\$C-IM-n-Fp-Rp-Rc\$
 CH: ((all)) <L1 No hagas eso.. No hagas eso.. No hagas eso L1>
 TCH: Whose is this?
 CH: ((Some)) <L1 ¡De Diego! L1>
155. TCH: Diego<AS>\$MC-V\$..
 156. What's this<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$
 157. Diego?<AS>\$MC-V\$
 CH: (Diego) <x__x>
158. TCH: Very good, Diego ((A child who was sticking the paper , and did it wrong, goes away)) ...
 Come here! <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

159. Where is the line? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Radj-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CH: Under... <x Beneath x>

TCH: <L1 Aquí abajo L1> ..

160. Take it off<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$ ((he does))

CH: <x__x>

161. TCH: ((to the previous child who stuck it wrong)) On the line<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-RpE-RcE-Radj\$

162. On the line<DC-a><r>\$C-IM-p-RpE-RcE-Radj\$ ((pointing)) ...

You put it on the line .. <L1 Como cuando tiendes la ropa en casa L1> .. You put the clothes on the line...

163. ((To Irene)) No<C-IM-RpE-MA-pol-n\$, no<DP-a>\$C'-IM-RpE-MA-pol-n\$

164. not there<DP-a>\$C-IM-n-RpE-Radj\$..

165. On the line<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-RpE-RcE-Radj\$..

166. Irene<AS>\$MC-V\$

167. You put it on the line<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-p-Fp-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

168. Look<AS>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$,

169. like this<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-RpE-RcE-Radj\$

.. Eh, Irene?.. Yes?

170. ((To the previous boy)) <L1 pero aquí L1><DC-a>

171. like this <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-RpE-RcE-Radj\$

172. here <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-RpE-RcE-Radj\$..

, ((following the line with her finger))

173. look.. <x A long x> line for you <AS>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$ ((he finally sticks it well)) ..

174. Yes<DC-a>\$C-IM-RpE-RcE-MA-pol-p\$

175. like that<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-RpE-RcE-Radj\$

((To another child)) What's the matter?... What's the matter?

CH: <L1 <x__x> L1>

CH: <L1 <x__x> L1>

176. TCH: Sit down! <DC-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

CH: <L1 Yo no he sido L1>

((Irene has stuck her piece of paper wrong, literally, on the line))

177. TCH: Where is the line?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-Radj-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$ ((She points to the upper line))

178. This line up here? \$C-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Radj\$ ((pointing to it)) or this line down there?<DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Radj\$..

179. It has to be on the line<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S3-MFhp-obl-Rp-Radj\$

((pointing where the clothes have to hang)) ((They unstick it)) ...

180. Where is the line?<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-Radj-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$ ((the child points to it))

181. <L1 Aquí? L1> <DC-l-m>

182. So you put it on the line<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-p-Fp-Rp-Rc-Radj\$
 <L1 Como en casa L1> ... <x <L1 Mami L1> x> put the clothes on the line, right? ((Irene nods)) Yeah?..
 <x__x> ((For some seconds, the teacher cannot be understood)) You see, that's better.
183. TCH: No<DP-a>\$C-D-SFE-RE-MA-pol-n\$..
184. You can try first the trousers and the <x__x><DS>\$C-D-S2-MFlp-obl-Rp-Radj-Rc\$
185. .. And then you can try the shorts with the shirt<DS>\$C-D-S2-MFlp-obl-Rp-Radj-Rc-Radj\$
186. .. Different things!<AS>\$MC-ANG\$
187. .. You can try them on<DS>\$C-D-S2-MFlp-obl-Rp-Radj-Rc\$...

Whose is this?

CH: Laura

188. TCH: Laura!...<AS>\$MC-V\$.
189. Can you put this- <DC-a>\$C-INT.MET-INT-yn-MFlp-inc-S2-Rp-Rc\$
190. What's this? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$
191. .. What's the name? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CH: (Laura) <L1 falda L1>

TCH: <L1 Falda L1>..

192. And the name in English?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-RcE-p-FpE-RpE-S3\$..
 <L1 ¿No te acuerdas? L1> ((The child shakes her head))

193. Sss<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-RcEE\$

CH: Skirt

TCH:... Skirt.. Very good, Laura... <x you know ____x> ((Giving the glue to the child))

CH: <L1 ¿Dónde lo pongo? L1>

TCH: On the line ((pointing))....

Whose are these? ((the child comes to get the piece of paper and he also gives the teacher his finished worksheet))

194. What are these? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$ ((Referring to the cut picture))

CH: <x__x>

TCH: Very good..

195. Put them on the line<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$
 What do you want?

196. .. a boy \$C-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$ or a girl? <DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

CH: The boy.

TCH: The boy.

This is cut? You've cut the boy? .. <x__x> ((For some seconds, the teacher cannot be understood)) .. <x__x>
 this on..

197. Or maybe this with these<DS>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-CA-MA-Radj\$..
198. Or these with that<DS>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-CA-Radj\$..
199. or this off <DS>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-CA-Radj\$..

.. and the hat.. ((For some seconds the teacher cannot be understood)) Okay?...

((to another child)) This was for.. Jorge.. This was for you, right? .. Thank you, Laura.. Very nice..

200. What is it?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$....

201. What is it?<DC-l-m><r>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

202. It's a ssss-<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcEE\$... sss..

CH: (Laura) Skirt.

TCH: It's a skirt.. Very good.

CH: ((on the background)) <L1 Toma.. Toma <x__x> L1>

TCH: ((To the child who was sticking his paper and had just handed in his worksheet)) <x__x> ((Cannot be heard. She points at something. The child goes there)) ...

Whose are these? ((Nobody answers)) Whose are these?

203. Children!<AS>\$MC-V\$

204. girls!<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: Laura.

CH: Laura.

TCH: Are they yours? ..

205. What are they?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$ ((It seems the child does not answer))

206. What are they?<DC-l-m><r>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CH: Trousers.

TCH: Not trousers, trousers are long.. These are trousers ((referring to her own)) ..

207. But these are<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcEE\$... ((Showing that the "shorts" are up to the middle of the thigh)) up to here....

208. You should know the name<DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc\$

.. these are yours..

CH: <x I don't know the name x>

209. TCH: These are shhhh-<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcEE\$... ..

Sho-...

CH: [Shorts]

TCH: [Shorts] Paula, very good. ((Referring to another girl, not the one she was addressing to))

210. And you put these shorts on- in... this little space here<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-p-Fp-Rp-Rc-Radj ..

211. Can you put that there?<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-MFlp-inc-S2-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

212. You need some glue<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-MFhp-obl-Rp-Rc\$

((the child goes to get hers))

213. TCH: No!<DP-a>\$C-IM-FE-RpE-MA-pol-n\$

214. There's one there<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S3-Fp-Rp-Radj\$ ((pointing, but the child goes to get hers. The teacher points at it again, the child gets the glue)) ...

215. Stick the short on the line<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$
CH: (Laura) <x__x>
216. TCH: Hold on<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
Well, yes.. There's little space.. But there's no line there..
217. <L1 <x Tienes que buscarte otra línea.x> L1><DC-a>..
You want to draw another line? ...
CH: (Laura) <x__x>
TCH: Okay ((The teacher goes away to get a pen. Some silence for some seconds))
CH: (Laura) <x__x>
218. TCH: ((Bringing a felt-tip pen)) You have to do another line<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-p-MFhp-obl-Rp-Rc\$
219. <L1 Tienes que hacer la línea L1><DC-a>.. ((the teacher nods and the child nods))... <x__x>..
your shorts..
((Some seconds in silence. Some children who are speaking cannot be understood))
220. Who's talking too much?<DP-b>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-S3-p-Fp-Rp-Radj\$..
221. Macarena is talking too much today<DP-b>\$C-INT.MET.D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-Radj-Radj\$ ((going to the child)) ..
222. She's speaking Spanish<DP-l>\$C-INT.MET.D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-Rc\$
<x__x>.. ((Some second in which the tch. Is talking to the child in very low voice))
The blouse .. Yes, good girl, it's a blouse..
223. And this?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-whE-p-FE-RpE-S3\$ ((pointing to the picture on the sheet))
CH: Dress.
TCH: Dress, very good..
CH: (Laura) <L1 ¿Dónde lo pongo? .. ¿Dónde lo pongo? L1> ((Referring to the shorts she was going to stick))
TCH: <x It's very __x>...
224. <x You need to cut<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-MFhp-obl-Rp-RcE\$ __x>.. <x__x> ((She is addressing to the child in the group, with the worksheet))
CH: (Laura) <L1 ¿Dónde lo pongo? L1>
TCH: Okay, then..
225. Quickly<DPR-a>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$
CH: (Laura) <L1 ¿Dónde lo pongo? L1>
((The teacher realises))
226. TCH: Stick it on your line<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$..
You were going to draw a line!... You said you were going to draw a line, no? <x Space x>.. A new line... you said you were going to draw a line.. <L1 La pintas L1>.. Then you put it on the line.. Yes?
CH: (Laura) Yes.
227. TCH: <L1 Ahí L1><DC-a>

Then you put the line like this.. <x__x> the bottom... Like this one.. <x__x>.. Uphere.. <x__x>.. <L1 ¿Vale? L1>... ((The child seems to be drawing the line)) Yes... Yes!... Very good!... Very good... <x __it all over the way x>, All over the way.. All over the way down <x__x>.... <x And now there x>.. . <x Have to __x>..

CH: (Julito) Teresa.. Teresa, <L1 mira L1>

TCH: ((To Laura)) Yes .. ((to the other child))

228. Julito<AS>\$MC-V\$

What's the matter with the boy?! .. <x He's got a red body x>.. <L1 ¿Qué le pasa? L1> .. Is the boy sick? ... <L1 ¿Está malito? L1>... Is sick?

229. You've got to take the boy to the hospital<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-p-MFhp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$.. Yes? ((the boy nods)) .. To take some medicine? ((Julito nods)) .. Yes? ((Julito nods)) ... <x__x>.. His face is green..

CH: (Julito) <x__x>

TCH: No.. <x the __ are yellow x>.. because <x the paper's red x>... <x__x>.... Poor little boy!

CH: <L1 Es suyo, ¿no? L1> ((pointing to somebody))

TCH: <L1 ¿Está malito? L1>

CH: (Julito) <L1 Sí L1>

TCH: <L1 ¿Sí? L1>

CH: (Julito) <L1 Sí L1>

TCH: <L1 ¿Y por eso es rojo? L1> ((Julito nods)) Yes?.. Okay..

230. But don't- don't<DP-a>\$C-IM-Fn-RpE-RcE\$

231. use another colour.. <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$

232. Not red all the time<DP-a>\$C-IM-MA-pol-n-RpE-Rc-Radj\$..

233. <L1 Sí, otro L1><DC-a>..

((To another child)) Okay..

234. ((To another child)) <L1 A ver L1><AS>

235. Macarena <AS>\$MC-V\$

236. What are these? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CH: ((Macarena)) <x socks x>

TCH: Socks, very good.. ((To another child))

237. Can you close the door, please?<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-MFlp-inc-S2-Rp-Rc-MA\$.. ((to Macarena))

238. And what's this?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CH: <L1 ¿Me vas a preguntar todo? L1>

TCH: Yes .. everything .. everything..

239. And this was a?<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$

CH: <L1 Blusa L1>

TCH: Blouse.. very good..

240. And this is a?<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$

CH: (Macarena) Jumper

TCH: It's a jumper, very good..

241. And this one?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-whE-p-FE-RE-S3\$ (It is doubtful what she points to, either the trousers or the skirt))

CH: (Macarena) Trousers

TCH: No.. These are trousers? ((Macarena points to the trousers and the teacher to the skirt))

CH: ((Macarena)) <x Skirt x>

TCH: It's a skirt, it's a skirt, very good..

242. And these?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-whE-FE-RE-S3\$ ((pointing)) ((there is silence for some seconds))

243. What do you wear on your feet?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-S2-Rp-Radj\$ ((Silence for few seconds))

244. Shhh<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-RcEE\$

245. Shhh<DC-l-cm><r>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-RcEE\$

246. Shoes<DC-l-im>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-RcEE\$

CH: (Macarena) Shoes..

TCH: very good.... ((to another child))

247. What's this?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CH: Jacket

TCH: Jacket, very good..

248. and this?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-whE-p-FE-RE-S3\$...

It's a jumper..

249. And these are?<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$ ((long silence))

250. Shhh<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-RcEE\$

Shorts... Short trousers..

251. <x of what sort? x>.. these are?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-S3-Rp\$

CH: <x trousers x>

252. TCH: And this is a?<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$ ((long silence))

Shirt...

253. and these are?<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$

CH: ((Interrupting the teacher and the child)) <L1 ¿Hay que cortar todo? L1>

254. TCH: One moment, please<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj-MA\$...

255. These are?<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$...

256. Shhh.. <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-RcEE\$

CH: Shoes

TCH: Shoes.. Very good..

257. And this a?<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$ ((long silence. For some seconds)) ((to Macarena))

258. What's this? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CH: (Macarena) Ummmm

TCH: ((To the child who had interrupted)) Yes?

259. What's this?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$...

CH: Hat

260. You said it<DC-l-re><p>\$C-D-S2-p-Fps-Rp-Rc\$

CH: Hat

TCH: Yes...Hat

CH: <L1 ¿Recortamos todo? L1>

TCH: <L1 ¿Qué? L1>

CH: <L1 ¿Recortamos todo? L1>

TCH: Yes, yes..

261. Cut everything<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$

CH: <L1 ¿Y le ponemos todo? L1>

262. TCH: You can put the- For example, you can put the shorts with the t-shirt<DS>\$C-D-S2-MFlp-obl-Rp-MA-Rc-Radj\$..

263. or then you can take it off<DS>\$C-D-CA-S2-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

264. and then you can put the trousers with thee jumper<DS>\$C-D-CA-S2-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

265. ... <x Don't look at the x> scissors<DP-a>\$C-IM-nF-Rp-Rc\$

266. And then you can put the socks with the shoes<DS>\$C-D-CA-S2-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$..

267. And then you can take them off<DS>\$C-D-CA-S2-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$..

268. <x all sorts of things x><DS>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

CH: <x__x>

TCH: <L1 Sí L1>.. Okay?....

Hello...

269. Laura<AS>\$MC-V\$,

270. what's this?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

271. It's a dree <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcEE\$.. ...

CH: Dress.. Dress..

272. And these are?<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$...

CH: (Laura) Trousers.

TCH: Trousers..

273. This is a?<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$.. Jumper..

274. And this is a?<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$

275. Ssssssss..<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-RcEE\$

276. What's this?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$,

277. Macarena<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Macarena) <x Scart x> ((Meaning skirt. Pronouncing [Esk] and not [sk]))

TCH: Very good.. Skirt..

278. And these are?<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$ ((one child is interrupting)) ((to Laura))

279. one moment<DC-a>\$C-IM-RpE-Radj\$..

280. What's the matter here<DC-b>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Radj\$

281. Alberto<ASC>\$MC-V\$?! ((The children get silent))

.... And...

282. what's this?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$,

CH: (Laura) Hat

TCH: Very good.. It's a hat..

283. And this?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-whE-p-FE-RE-S3\$...

284. Blouse<DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc_parat.proj.cl_MC-ANG\$

CH: (Laura) Blouse

TCH: It's a blouse... Hello!

285. Irene<AS>\$MC-V\$

286. .. What's this?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

287. Irene<AS>\$MC-V\$

((Irene can barely be heard))

CH: (Irene) Trousers

TCH: Trousers..

288. And this is a?<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$

289. ((long silence)) Ssss<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-RcEE\$

CH: (Irene) <x Scarf x>

TCH: Very good..

290. And these are?<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$

((Long silence)) You put them on your feet.. With your shoes..

291. What are they?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

292. .. Ssss<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-RcEE\$

CH: (Irene) <x Sock x>

293. TCH: Very good... And these are the?<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$

CH: (Irene) Shoes

294. TCH: The shoes.. And this is the?<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$

295. ... Drre.. <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-RcEE\$

CH: (Irene) <x__x>

296. TCH: The what<DC-l-re><i>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-RcEE\$?

.. The dress.. It's the dress, okay? ((The girl nor nods or shakes her head)) .. Okay.

((The teacher moves)) Whose is this? ((The teacher indicates the child to come nearer))

297. .. What is it?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$((to another child))

298. What's this?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$...
<x You don't know x>
299. ... Is it short \$C-INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$.. Or is it long?<DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$...
300. ... short \$C-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$.. Or long?<DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-p-SFE-RpE-Rc\$...
301. <x Vanesa x><AS>\$MC-V\$
302. ... Is it long \$C-INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$.. Or is it short?<DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$...
303. <L1 ¿Como el mío? L1>.. It's a sweater? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$..
304. Or is it a dress? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$...
- It's a sweater..
305. Well, put it on the line, please<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj-MA\$..
((What follows cannot be heard)) <x Yes, because there's no little space x>...
- CH: <L1 ¿Me dejáis un rosita? L1>
((Some children are gathering around))
- TCH: What's the matter ?
306. Julio<AS>
- CH: ((To other children)) <L1 ¿Me dejáis un rosita? L1>
- TCH: <x __ and it x>.. Today you are going ... listen to <x__x> ... Whose are these? ((referring to a bunch of felt-tip pens one child is holding in his hand))
((For some seconds, it cannot be understood what the teacher and the children say))
307. Look\$C-IM-p-Rp\$, look\$C-IM-p-Rp\$ look<AS>\$C'-IM-p-Rp\$
.. That one is used..
- CH: ((to the teacher)) <L1 <x__x> cosas? L1>
308. TCH: ((To Julio, not the previous one)) Go back to your sit! <DC-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
309. Julio<ASC>\$MC-V\$..
310. <L1 Julio y Javier!L1><ASC>
311. .. Please go back to your sit<DC-b>\$C-IM-MA-p-Rp-Radj\$..
- CH: Yes Yes!
- CH: ((to the child who was asking before. While the teacher is telling off some children)) <L1 Para ponerlos en .. para poner- L1>
- TCH: <L1 ¿Qué? L1> ((to the child who was asking before))
- CH: <x__x> ((Cannot be heard))
- TCH: <x__x> because we put them on.. on the feet and then – ((The child goes away))
- CH: <L1 No sé para qué sirve <x__x> L1>
((For some seconds, it cannot be understood what the teacher says))
((It cannot be heard what the child says in the middle)) It's on the line, on the line.. It's on ((showing the child))..

<x Down x>.. the next here.. <x And one x>.. Very good..

312. And this? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-whE-p-FE-RpE-S3\$

313. ..And this was what? <DC-l-m>\$C-D-S3-p-Fps-Rp-RcE\$((pointing))

CH: <x__x> ((Cannot be heard))

314. TCH: It- Was it a dress?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-yn-p-Fps-Rp-S3-Rc\$.. .

315. It is a hat? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$

CH: No

TCH: No, no..

316. Is it a skirt? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$

CH: No

317. TCH: And a coat? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$

CH: No

TCH: No!

318. So what is it?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$..

CH: <x__x>

319. TCH: It's a?<DC-l-m>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$

320. You know <x these wordsx><DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-p-Fp-Rp-Rc\$

321. .. It's a sweater<DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc_parat.proj.cl_D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-Rc\$

.. Sweater.. like this one ((Referring to the teacher's))

322. ((the child nods)) Sweater<DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc_parat.proj.cl_MC-ANG\$..

323. Or jumper<DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc_parat.proj.cl_MC-ANG\$..

324. ((To the child)) Jumper<DC-l-m><r>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc_parat.proj.cl_MC-ANG\$

Okay,

325. jumper<DC-l-m><r>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc_parat.proj.cl_MC-ANG\$....

CH: jumper

TCH: ((looking to the pieces of paper to stick on)) Skirt.. Whose are these?..

326. Children!<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: <L1 Nunca sale lo mío L1>

TCH: ((The child who did it comes)) Are these yours?..

327. What are they? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$... ((to another child))

328. Do you know what they are?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT.MET-INT-yn-p-Fp-S2-Rp-Rc_emb.cl-INT-wh-Rc-S3-p-Fp-Rp\$

329. Miguel<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Miguel) <x__x>

TCH: Um-umm ((Denying)).. ((to another child who has come to show his pictures))

330. Alberto<AS>\$MC-V\$

331. do you know the name?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-yn-p-Fp-S2-Rp-Rc\$

.. You put them in your hands....

332. What are they?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CH: (Alberto) Fingers.

TCH: Not fingers.. These are the fingers and these ((ref. To the gloves)) you put them on, like this ((showing))

CH: (Alberto) <L1 No es mío L1>

TCH: I know it's not yours.. but she can't remember.

CH: <L1 No me acuerdo L1>

TCH: <L1 ¡Ayy! No me acuerdo L1>..

333. What are they?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$..

334. Miiii<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-SFE-RpE-RcEE\$

CH: ((the girl)) Mittens

TCH: Mittens, mittens.. Very good..

335. <x Could you x> put them on the line, somewhere? <DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-yn-MFlp-incl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$..

There's a little space here...There's a little space there..

336. Don't sit like that<DP-b>\$C-IM-Fn-Rp-Radj\$

337. Laura<ASC>\$MC-V\$.. <x ___x>

((Alberto shows the paper to the teacher))

Well, that's finished ..

338. Be careful<DW>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$..

339. Cut these bits in r- in red<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$..

CH: <L1 No lo corto? L1>

((The teacher nods. The children nods))

TCH: <L1 <x Ssssi x> L1> .. <L1 Pero con ello L1>> .. Like this ((She looks for a pair of scissors))

340. Where are my scissors?<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.INT-wh-Radj-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

341. .. <x Findx> my scissors<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$

342. Like this <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Radj\$

((the teacher begins cutting one of the pictures. Silence for some seconds))

343. Like that with them<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$, with them, eh? ..

344. don't cut them off <DP-a>\$C-IM-Fn-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

CH: (Alberto) <L1 El niño no L1>

345. TCH: Then, after.. you can cut the boy after at the end<DS>\$C-D-S2-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

.. ((To the class)) Where is the <x__x>....

346. Everybody<AS>\$MC-V\$

347. write your name.. and your surname<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$

CH: Teresa

TCH: Very good..

348. Now write your name<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$

CH: <L1 ¿Todo? L1>

TCH: <L1 Claro L1>

CH: Ah!

TCH: Ah! ((the boy goes away))

349. ((One child shows the paper to the teacher)) You <x have to x> cut<DC-a>\$C-INT.MET.D-S2-MFhp-obl-Rp-RcE\$

CH: ((another child)) <L1 ¿Todo? L1>

TCH: Yes.. All of them.

CH: <L1 ¿Y nos lo vamos a llevar a casa? L1>

TCH: Yes..

CH: <L1 ¡¡Bien!! L1>

CH: <L1 ¿Con toda la ropa? L1>

350. TCH: So you can play with them<DS>\$C-D-S2-MFhp-obl-Rp-Radj\$

351. You can put them the jumper and the trousers on.. [with the hat.] <DS>\$C-D-S2-MFhp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

CH: ((Some)) [<L1 ¿Todo encima?! L1>]

352. TCH: What?<DC-l-re><i>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-SFE-RpE\$

CH: <L1 ¿Todo encima? L1>

353. TCH: Yes

354. You can do whatever you want<DS>\$C-D-S2-MFhp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

355. .. <x You can put all the cothes x><DS>\$C-D-S2-MFhp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

356. .. Or maybe, you can do<DS>\$C-D-CA-S2-MFhp-obl-Rp-RE\$

CH: <x__x>

357. TCH: You can do<x more other x> things<DS>\$C-D-S2-MFhp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

CH: <x__x>

358. TCH: You can do<DS>\$C-D-S2-MFhp-obl-Rp-RE\$ <x__x>, yeah..

CH: <L1 Oye, Teresa.. Le ponemos un?<x__x> L1>

TCH: Yes.. you can put them

CH: <L1 Teresa, mira L1>

TCH: Yes

359. cut it out.. <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

((some children are talking))

360. TCH: ehh!!<ASC>\$MC-EX\$

361. Julito!<ASC>\$MC-V\$

362. Julito!!<ASC>\$MC-V\$

363. Ts, ts, ts, ts!<DC-b>\$NMS\$ ((like telling him off))

CH: ((To another child)) <L1 Era broma L1>

TCH: Whose are these?,

364. children?<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: Maca ((Referring to Macarena))

365. TCH: Maca?<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: (Macarena) <L1 Mía L1>

366. TCH: ((shows her to come)) What are they?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$..

CH: <x Ah! ___ of dogs! L1>

CH: (Macarena) Shoes . ((Pronouncing a /s/))

TCH: No, not shoes.. They were not shoes..

((Someone knocks on the door))

CH: ((Some)) Adelante!

TCH: they were running shoes.

CH: ((On the background. Asking to the teacher))<x__x>

TCH: Yes.. <L1 Sí L1>

((Cut))

TCH: Those were shoes

367. and these were what?<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fps-Rp-RcE\$

CH: Running shoes

368. but .. the name\$MC-ANG\$, the name\$MC-ANG\$, the name<AS>\$MC'-ANG\$

369. What was the name?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CH: (Macarena) Running shoes. ((pronounces the first sibilant as /s/))

TCH: The running shoes

370. .. snek<DC-l-cm>\$D-SFE-RpE-RcEE\$..

CH: (Macarena) <x Snicher x>

TCH: ((Laughing)) Sneakers! .. Training shoes <x__x>.. Training shoes ..

CH: <L1 <x ¿Los pongo aquí? x> L1>

TCH: Yes.. on the floor, on the floor,.. With the <x__x>..

((long silence between the teacher and the child))

On the floor.. on the floor.. <x__x>

((For some seconds nothing can be understood.))

Who needs a boy or a girl? .. Everybody has got a boy and a girl?.. Yes? .. <x__x>

((Silence for some seconds))

371. Children<AS>\$MC-V\$

, tomorrow we put this- not tomorrow... Monday, we put this in the <x pin up book x> . Yeah? remember? ..

372. Remind me to put this in the <x pin up book x><DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Rc_emb.cl.Rp-Rc-Radj\$.

CH: <L1 ¿Después? L1>

TCH: Tomorrow- no, the Monday... Very good, Paula.. <x there you go x> ((Silence for some seconds))

APPENDIX 2.3. EXAMPLE FROM DEMAND VERBAL ACTIVITY

Code: NmI2

Okay. First. I'm going to talk about an animal.. Let me see. Eeeeeeeeh..

1. Victoria<AS>\$MC-V\$

.. Okay.

2. Ask her her name<DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-Rc\$
3. say: what's your name? <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc-parat.proj.cl_INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

CH: [What's your name?]

Victoria: [My name is Victoria]

TCH: Very good, Victoria. Okay. I'm going to tell Victoria.. an animal. And the letter it begins with, beginning with, whatever it begins with.. And you have to guess, you have to guess what animal it is. <L1 Tenéis que adivinar.. qué animal es L1>, which of the animals it is.

CH: <L1 Ella, o nosotros L1>

TCH: You have to. Okay? She knows the animal, so she answers: yes, it is; or: no, it isn't. So what do we use? We use: one, question one is the animal. Question two is what colour is it?.. Question three: is it dangerous?.. And question four? ((makes gestures))

CH: Big!

TCH: strong.

CH: Big!

TCH: Fat..or...

4. TCH: a giraffe is? <DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$

Ana: Tall!

TCH: Tall. Good girl, Ana. Okay.

5. So let's start<DPR-a>\$C-IM-S1a-p-Fp-Rp\$.
6. Íñigo \$MC-V\$ Íñigo<AS>\$MC'-V\$
7. sit down<DC-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$
8. Leticia! <ASC>\$MC-V\$

((whispers something in Victoria's ear))..

Okay? Okay. So..Victoria knows the animal

9. <L1 A verL1><AS>
10. Victoria<AS>\$MC-V\$
11. I spy<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S1b-p-Fp-Rp-RcE\$ ((rising tone))

CH (VICTORIA): I spy with my little eye something beginning with.. "p".

TCH: [p p p p]

CH: [p p p p]

12. TCH: p p p p p p.<AS>\$NMS\$
13. What's the "p"? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$
14. The "p" sound. <AS>\$MC-ANG\$

CH: Polar bear?

15. TCH: Sh<DC-b>\$NMS\$.

Now first we've got to ask a question

16. "p"<AS>\$MC-ANG\$.

Okay.

17. Let's begin<DC-a>\$C-IM-S1a-p-Rp\$
18. Table one<AS>\$MC-V\$
19. One question<DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc\$.
20. The colour<DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc\$.
21. Say: is it..yellow? <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc_parat.proj.cl_INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$
22. Is it green? <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc_parat.proj.cl_INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$
23. Is it red?<DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc_parat.proj.cl_INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$

CH: Polar bear.

24. TCH: Sh<DC-b>\$NMS\$.
25. A question<DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc\$.
26. Laura<AS>\$MC-V\$
27. First question<DC-l-m>\$C-IM-Radj-Fp-Rp\$

Laura: Is is...white?

TCH: Is it white?

Victoria: Yes.

TCH: Yes, it is.. No, white.

28. Table two<AS>\$MC-V\$
29. a question<DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc\$.
30. Ask if it's dangerous<DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc_hypot.proj.cl_INT-yn-p-Fp-S3-Rp-Rc\$

CH: Is a dangerous?

31. TCH: <L1 A ver L1><AS>
32. Miriam<AS>\$MC-V\$
33. Ask again very clearly Is it dangerous?<DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj-Radj-Rc_parat.proj.cl_INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$

Miriam: Is it dangerous?

Victoria: It is dangerous.

34. TCH: Yes, it is vvvery<DC-l-cm>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-RcEE\$ ((rising))

Victoria: Very very dangerous.

TCH: Very dangerous.

35. Table three<AS>\$MC-V\$.

36. Do you have any questions? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-yn-p-Fp-S2-Rp-Rc\$..

37. Ana<AS>\$MC-V\$

38. Is it? <DC-l-cm>\$C-INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-RcE\$

CH: Fat.

TCH: Is it?

39. Ask the question: Is it fat? <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc_parat.proj.cl_INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$

Ana: Is is fat?

Victoria: No.

TCH: No, it's not very fat, you wouldn't call <x it the fattest animal x>.

40. Table four<AS>\$MC-V\$

41. .. Íñigo<AS>\$MC-V\$

42. .. What animal is it? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-Fp-Rp-S3\$

.. It's white, it's very very dangerous, begins with a "P" and it's..not too fat..

43. Ask: is it strong? <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc_parat.proj.cl_INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$..

44. Íñigo<AS>\$MC-V\$

45. .. Is it strong? <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc_parat.proj.cl_INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$..

46. Íñigo<AS>\$MC-V\$

47. Is it strong? <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc_parat.proj.cl_INT-yn-p-Fp-Rp-S3-Rc\$..

Victoria: Yes.

TCH: Very strong.

CH: Polar bear!

48. TCH: Hands up<DC-b>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc-Radj\$

49. Table one<AS>\$MC-V\$,

50. Fernando<AS>\$MC-V\$

Fernando: Polar bear.

TCH: It is.

51. Take <x the bear x><DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$

52. Which animal is it?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-Rp-S3\$

Fernando: A polar bear.

TCH: Very good.

53. A big clap for Fernando! <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-FpE-RpE-Rc\$

Well done..

It is a polar bear. Well done, Victoria. Well done. Okay. Fernando.

APPENDIX 2.4. EXAMPLE FROM DEMAND ACTION ACTIVITY

Code: NrC2

TCH: Has anybody got anything else to show and tell?

CH ((some)): No.

TCH: No? Okay. Then I'll tell you what we're going to do today. Now. Let me find your pots ... Now.

1. Listen<AS>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$

Oops, they're stuck.

CH: Stuck, stuck, stuck.

CH: They're stuck.

TCH: Okay.

2. Listen<AS>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$

Your pots are now dry, so they're ready to paint

CH: Crayon?

TCH: No, we're not going to paint with crayons

3. What are we going to paint with?<DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Radj-p-Ff-S1a-Rp-Rc\$
4. Nacho<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH: Paintbrush.

CH ((some)): Paintbrush.

TCH: That's right.

We're going to paint with paintbrush and paint

Now, there are different ways that you can do this.

5. You can either paint it all one colour\$C-D-S2-p-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$, and then we leave it to dry\$C-D-SE-p-MFlpE-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$ and then you paint some little pictures on it<DS>\$C'-D-S2-p-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$,
6. or, if you want you can paint it all different colours<DS>\$C-D-S2-p-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj-Radj_hypot.exp.cl\$
7. like you can do the colours of a rainbow going all the way down or all the way around <DS>\$C-D-S2-p-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$
8. You can do it [[however way you like]]<DS>\$C-D-S2-p-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj_emb.cl\$, okay?
9. Whichever way you like<DS>\$C-D-S2E-p-MFlpE-obl-RpE-RcE-Radj_emb.cl\$,.

CH: <x...x>

TCH: Yes?

10. Finlay?<AS>\$MC-V\$
11. ((TCH to the rest of the class)).. SSShhh!<DC-b>\$NMS\$
12. . I'm listening to Finlay!<DC-b>\$C-D-S1b-p-Fp-Rp-Rc\$

CH Finlay: <x x> to my pot and I saw <x x> newspaper, and it says <x x>

TCH: Does it? Oh! Okay. So

13. listen<AS>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$

, it's up to you.

14. If you want to paint it all one colour, then we'll leave it to dry and in the afternoon when it's dry you can paint little pictures on it<DS>\$C-D-S2-p-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj-Radj_hypot.exp.cl\$.

15. You can maybe paint little flowers<DS>\$C-D-S2-p-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc\$

16. or anything [[that you like]]<DS>\$C-D-S2E-p-MFlpE-obl-RpE-Rc_emb.cl\$..

17. Or you can paint it all now different colours<DS>\$C-D-S2-p-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj-Radj\$

18. , either stripes going down<DS>\$C-D-S2E-p-MFlpE-obl-RpE-RcE-Radj\$

19. or this way around<DS>\$C-D-S2E-p-MFlpE-obl-RpE-RcE-Radj\$

CH: Miss Landazabal.

TCH: Yes:

CH: I know I'm gonna do, I'm gonna paint it all blue and I'm gonna leave it to dry, and then later on I'm going to put some little flowers on it.

TCH: That sounds lovely, what a lovely pot you're going to have.

Any more ideas

20. Finlay?<AS>\$MC-V\$

21. (to the rest of the class). Sh sh sh<DC-b>\$NMS\$

22. . Finlay<AS>\$MC-V\$

, how are you going to paint it?

23. .. Oh, wait a minute<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Rc\$

24. Everyone! <ASC>\$MC-V\$

25. stop! <DP-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$

26. .. I can't hear Finlay<DP-b>\$C-INT.MET.D-S1b-n-MFhp-ab-Rp-Rc\$.

27. Finlay<AS>\$MC-V\$

, how are you going to paint it?

CH Finlay: <x x> some grass around the <x x> at the bottom and then <x you x> could do some flowers.

TCH: What a good idea.

28. You can do some grass along the bottom and then some flowers<DS>\$C-D-S2-p-MFlp-obl-Rp-Rc-Radj\$

Has anybody else got some ideas?

29. Alejandro<AS>\$MC-V\$

CH Alejandro: I'm gonna paint the colour blue and I'm gonna do a Dragon Ball picture.

TCH: He's gonna play- paint it blue and he's gonna do a Dragon Ball picture. Fantastic. Alberto.

((some children begin to speak))

30. TCH: Eh! Eh!<ASC>\$MC-EX\$

31. Sh sh<DC-b>\$NMS\$

CH Alberto: I'm going to do animals.

TCH: Alberto's going to paint animals.

32. Nacho! <ASC>\$MC-V\$

33. Can you turn around \$C-INT-yn-p-MFlp-obl-S2-Rp-Radj\$, look at me\$C-INT-yn-p-MFlpE-obl-S2E-Rp-Radj\$ and listen? <DC-b>\$C'-INT.MET.INT-yn-p-MFlpE-obl-S2E-Rp\$

How are you going to paint your pot?

CH: <x x> like he.

TCH: Like Alejandro, <x right x>.

34. Amelia<AS>\$MC-V\$

, how are you going to paint the pot?

CH Amelia: I'm gonna paint some flowers. First I'm gonna paint some grass and some flowers around. But Sophie wants to copy me.

TCH: It doesn't matter, you can do the same as somebody else, it doesn't matter.

CH Finlay: Yeah, but you have to look in your pot to see <x x>

CH: No, I'm gonna do the <x x>

TCH: You're gonna do a <x x>

CH: If you want.

TCH: That's good. Okay. It doesn't matter, if you wanna do the same as your friend, it doesn't matter. Lis-

35. Finlay! <ASC>\$MC-V\$

36. Sh<DC-b>\$NMS\$

37. I'm talking<DC-b>\$C-INT.MET.D-S1b-p-Fp-Rp\$

This time I won't be cross if you copy somebody, okay? If you're doing your maths work and you copy somebody, then that makes me cross, but this time if you wanna do the same as your friend then that's okay, you can copy, that doesn't make me cross, okay? So,

38. listen<AS>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$

when- we don't all have room to paint at the same time. So- oh, okay,

39. Stelvio<AS>\$MC-V\$

okay <x x> and tell us [[How are you gonna paint it]]

CH Stelvio: I'm gonna paint my pot like a zebra, then in- afternoon I- I go- I'm going to do my face.

TCH: Ah ((surprise)) So you're gonna do a zebra and then you're gonna do your face on it.

CH Stelvio: Yes.

TCH: Wow, that's gonna be very original. Fantastic. Okay. Now. Do you think that's <x funny? x> .. Okay. Now, as I said, we don't all have <x time x> er space to do it at the same time, so let me see who's gonna do that first .. Uh, you're all sitting so beautifully I don't know who to choose. Well,

40. listen<AS>\$C-IM-p-Rp\$

, I'm gonna choose- One, two, three, four, five, six children can do it

and the rest of you will have to go to the tables and do your work, okay?.. So, let me see. ((CONTINUES))

APPENDIX 2.5. EXAMPLE FROM DEMAND ROLE-PLAY ACTIVITY

Code: NNncS2

TCH: ((putting the book on the table again)) OK , very good ... ((All children speaking together. Some of them in Spanish)) Now ... OK. I'm gonna sit down ((going to one of the child's seats))

1. Raquel<AS>\$MC-V\$

((pointing to Raquel))

2. You're the teacher<DC-a>\$C-D-S2-p-Fp-Rp-Rc\$

((Raquel gets up immediately and goes to the teachers table))

3. And María<AS>\$MC-V\$

4. sit down<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$ ((addressing to another child))

5. you tell Raquel [[what to do]]<DC-l-m>\$C-D-S2-p-Fp-Rp-Rc-Rc_emb.cl\$

OK? So I sit down ((sitting on a child's chair))

DAV: < L1 No puedes, hay radiador L1> ((to their teacher)) ((María puts her finger on her mouth as if she were thinking))

TCH: Now I sit down ((sitting down on one table))

6. TCH: María<AS>\$MC-V\$

7. ... take a ... <DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-RcE\$ ((to María in a very low voice))

8. María<AS>\$MC-V\$

9. Plasticine<DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc_parat.proj.cl_MC-ANG\$...

((trying to the teacher's sentence and still with her hand touching her lips))

DAV: Take plasticine... < L1 azul L1> ((also with his hand on his lips)) { Plasticine ball blue }

10. TCH: What do you say?<DC-l-re><p>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-Fp-S2-Rp\$

11. ... take a ... <DC-l-cm>\$C-IM-p-Rp-RcE\$ ((counting the words with her fingers))

CH: {{ Plasticine ... blue .. ball ... }}

CH: { Take a blue plasticine ball } ((The teacher is still counting with her fingers and saying the words in silence with the movement of her mouth))

DAV: Take a plasticine ball

CH: Blue ((trying to help his partner))

12. TCH: ((Assenting with her head to what David is saying)) Can you repeat ? <DC-l-re><p>\$C-INT-yn-MFlp-inc-S2-Rp\$

13. Take a (rising intonation)<DC-l-cm>\$C-IM-p-Rp-RcE\$

DAV: { Take a blue plasticine ball } ((moving his head on each word))

CH: {{ Plasticine, plasticine ball }}

TCH: Good! ((turning to the table)) Ah!

14. Big\$C-INT-yn-SFE-RpE-Rc\$ or small? <DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-SFE-RpE-Rc\$ ((looking to David again))

DAV: { Small }

CH: {{ Big }}

15. TCH: So, take a ... s ... <DC-l-cm>\$C-IM-p-Rp-RcE\$

DAV: Small plasticine ... ((keeping silence while thinking))

CH: Ball ((completing the sentence))

16. TCH: Take a small ... blue<DC-l-cm>\$C-IM-p-Rp-RcE\$

CH. Plasticine ball

TCH: Good

RAQ: ((On the teacher's table looking for the ball)) Big or small? ((making the gestures with her hands while she says it))

17. Big\$C-INT-yn-SFE-RpE-Rc\$ or small? <DC-l-m>\$C'-INT-yn-SFE-RpE-Rc\$

((CH: {{ Big! ... small! }} ((all at the same time)) ((Raquel shows a plasticine ball smiling))

TCH: { This is small }. Oh, no, no, this is a big blue plasticine

CH: {{ No, no }}

CH: {{ Ball ! }}

((Raquel shows another one. this time a small one and she smiles again))

TCH: Very good. ((clapping)) Yes, all right.

18. David<AS>\$MC-V\$ ((looking to a boy who is standing up))

What?

19. Sit down! <DC-b>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$ ((pointing to his seat))

20. Come on<DPR-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$...

21. take ... <DC-l-cm>\$C-IM-p-Rp-RcE\$

DAV: Take a ... ((putting his finger into his mouth))

22. TCH: Sssh.... sssh <DC-b>\$NMSS\$.

23. David<AS>\$MC-V\$ ((trying to get David's attention))

24. Take a ... <DC-l-cm>\$C-IM-p-Rp-RcE\$

CH: Take a pencil < x It's purple x > ((the boy in front of him touching his hair as if nervous))

TCH: ((Laughing))

DAV: ((Standing up)) Take a big plasticine yellow ((he sits down and pus his finger on his mouth again))

TCH: What? A big plasticine yellow? No ((correcting David))

DAV: A big plasticine ((trying again))

25. TCH: A big ... <DC-l-cm>\$C-IM-p-RpE-RcEE\$

CH: { Plasticine ball }

CH: {{ A big plasticine ball yellow ... big }}

CH: {{ Yellow }}

TCH: big ...

26. and now the colour<DC-l-m>\$C-IM-p-Radj-RpE-Rc\$

CH: { Big }

CH: {{ Yellow }}

DAV: Yellow plasticine ball

TCH: Very good. Big yellow plasticine ball ((speaking fast to Raquel who is still on her table)) ((Raquel shows a big red plasticine ball)) ((She shows it smiling))

CH: { No it's ... }

TCH: { No,

27. it's red }<DC-l-im>\$C-D-S3-p-Fp-Rp-Rc\$

CH: It's red ... <x got a big plasticine ball! x >

28. TCH: but what colour? <DC-l-m>\$C-INT-wh-Rc-p-SFE-RpE\$

CH: Yellow

TCH: So ... a yellow one ...((Raquel shows another one))

CH: No, it's blue , got the ..

29. TCH: Take ... <DC-l-im>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc_parat.proj.cl_IMP-p-Rp-RcE\$ ((correcting him))

CH: Take

30. TCH: ... the ... <DC-l-cm>\$C-IM-p-RpE-Rc\$

CH: Take the big plasti

CH: ... big yellow plasticine ball

TCH: Very good

RAQ: This one ((showing one that it isn't either))

TCH: No

CH: No, that's no ..

31. TCH ((to a boy who has get up and is touching something on the wardrobe)): Fernando! <ASC>
\$MC-V\$

32. Take a ... <DC-l-cm>\$C-IM-p-Rp-RcE\$

CH: ((All together)) Take a big plasticine ball ((Raquel takes the right one and shows it to the classroom))

TCH: Big one. Very good.

33. Raquel<AS>\$MC-V\$

34. sit down<DC-a>\$C-IM-p-Rp-Radj\$

Excellent ((going back to her table)) ((All children clapping while Raquel goes back to her sit)).

PART V: APPENDIX III: EXPLORATION OF THE FUNCTION-FORM MAPPING IN REGULATORY FUNCTIONS IN THE EFL CLASSROOM

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**APPENDIX 3.1. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS:
 Regulatory functions in the corpus**

The nature of this investigation is of a qualitative nature (i.e. to observe the linguistic realisation of the different regulatory functions and the differences across speakers). Consequently, the fact that we do not deal with the same frequencies in the display of some regulatory functions will not be at issue. However, this implies that when the analysis of the different linguistic realisations displayed across speakers are presented, the results are provided in percentages and in relation to the specific function. For this reason, a simple *Contingency Table* displays the frequencies of the data in order to inform of the *corpus* size in relation to the fifteen regulatory functions (table 1 below) in the two groups of teachers (native vs. non-native). The frequencies will be further illustrated by means of a bar graph presenting the display of the functions (figure 1) for the two groups. Additionally, the percentages (informing of what each regulatory function represents within each group of speakers) will be illustrated by means of two chart pies (figures 2-3).

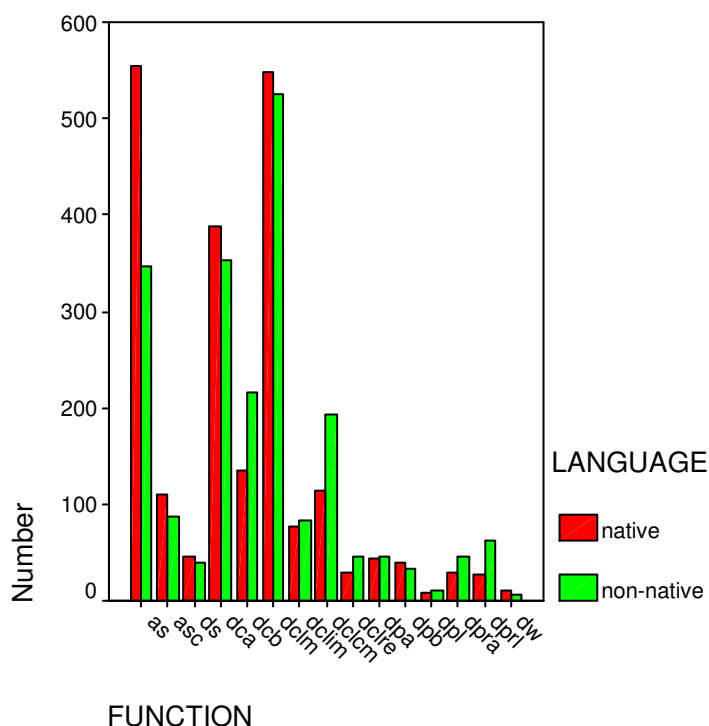


Figure 1. Regulatory functions frequencies across teachers.

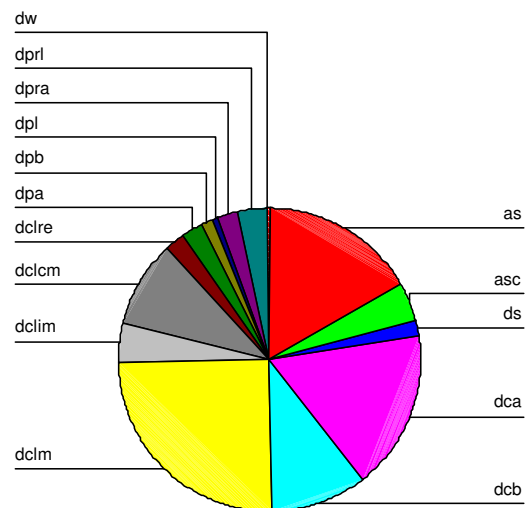
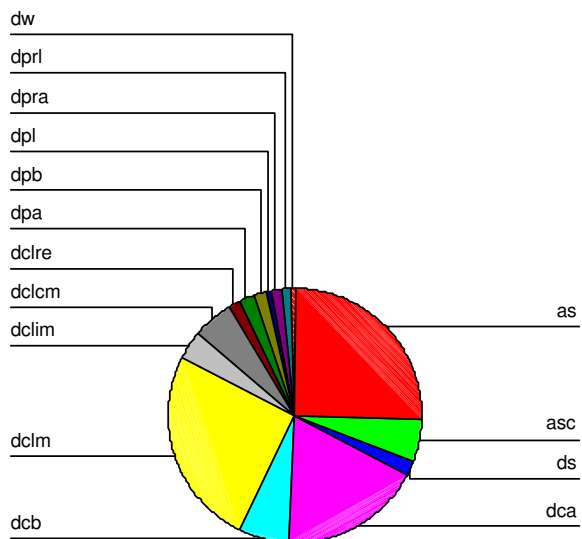


Fig. 2. Regulatory functions in Native Teachers

Fig.3. Regulatory functions in Non-native Teachers

Contingency table FUNCTION * LANGUAGE

			LANGUAGE		Total
			native	non-native	
FUNCTION	as	Number	554	347	901
		% de LANGUAGE	25,6%	16,6%	21,2%
	asc	Number	111	88	199
		% de LANGUAGE	5,1%	4,2%	4,7%
	ds	Number	46	39	85
		% de LANGUAGE	2,1%	1,9%	2,0%
	dca	Number	389	353	742
		% de LANGUAGE	18,0%	16,8%	17,4%
	dcb	Number	135	216	351
		% de LANGUAGE	6,2%	10,3%	8,2%
	dclm	Number	548	525	1073
		% de LANGUAGE	25,3%	25,0%	25,2%
	dclim	Number	77	84	161
		% de LANGUAGE	3,6%	4,0%	3,8%
	dclcm	Number	114	193	307
		% de LANGUAGE	5,3%	9,2%	7,2%
	dclre	Number	30	45	75
		% de LANGUAGE	1,4%	2,1%	1,8%
	dpa	Number	43	46	89
		% de LANGUAGE	2,0%	2,2%	2,1%
	dpb	Number	40	34	74
		% de LANGUAGE	1,8%	1,6%	1,7%
	dpl	Number	9	11	20
		% de LANGUAGE	,4%	,5%	,5%
	dpra	Number	29	45	74
		% de LANGUAGE	1,3%	2,1%	1,7%
	dprl	Number	27	63	90
		% de LANGUAGE	1,2%	3,0%	2,1%
	dw	Number	11	7	18
		% de LANGUAGE	,5%	,3%	,4%
Total		Number	2163	2096	4259
		% de LANGUAGE	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

25.6% means that Calls of attention (AS) represent 25,6% of all the regulatory functions in Native teachers

Table 1. Contingency Table: Regulatory functions / Teachers (Native vs. Non-native)

APPENDIX 3.2. Statistical analysis of the function-form relationship.

3.2.1. Regulatory functions & Linguistic realisation: “Independent variables?”

Working with two qualitative variables, the *Contingency Table* is the suitable table presenting the simultaneous distribution for the variables clause-type per function per speaker (native vs. non-native teachers). Contingency Table 2 corresponds to the cross-tabulation of three variables and consists of 2 blocks (native vs. non-native teachers) x 15 rows (regulatory functions) x 10 columns (clause-type) =300 cells. The table must be read as follows: the table is presented in 2 blocks (each assigned to one group of speakers). In each block, the rows correspond to the 15 different categories of the variable “Regulatory functions”, while the columns correspond to the 10 different clause types. Each block is then formed of 15X10=150 cells and each cell exhibits the observed frequency of the function and clause type (row and column). For illustration purposes, let us briefly look at table 2. For the Block “Native”, the first row in “regulatory function” “As” (standing for call of attention) is linguistically realised by a minor clause-vocative (mc-v) in 70% of the cases, whereas it is instantiated through an absolute noun group (mc-ang) in 12.3% of the cases (see data within an ellipse).

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Contingency Table FUNCTION * CLAUSETY * LANGUAGE

LANGUAGE			CLAUSETY										Total
FUNCTION			no analysis	declarative	wh interrog	yn interrog	imperative	mc ang	mc vocat	exclamative	textual adjunct	mc	
native	as	Number	14	1	0	2	75	68	392	2	0	0	554
		% de FUNCTION	2,5%	,2%	,0%	,4%	13,5%	12,3%	70,8%	,4%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	asc	Number	0	0	0	0	3	0	95	13	0	0	111
		% de FUNCTION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,7%	,0%	85,6%	11,7%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	ds	Number	0	35	1	3	7	0	0	0	0	0	46
		% de FUNCTION	,0%	76,1%	2,2%	6,5%	15,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dca	Number	11	86	1	22	264	3	2	0	0	0	389
		% de FUNCTION	2,8%	22,1%	,3%	5,7%	67,9%	,8%	,5%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dcb	Number	49	4	0	14	64	1	0	3	0	0	135
		% de FUNCTION	36,3%	3,0%	,0%	10,4%	47,4%	,7%	,0%	2,2%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dclm	Number	1	23	339	117	54	1	13	0	0	0	548
		% de FUNCTION	,2%	4,2%	61,9%	21,4%	9,9%	,2%	2,4%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dclim	Number	0	2	1	2	70	0	2	0	0	0	77
		% de FUNCTION	,0%	2,6%	1,3%	2,6%	90,9%	,0%	2,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dclcm	Number	0	97	0	6	0	11	0	0	0	0	114
		% de FUNCTION	,0%	85,1%	,0%	5,3%	,0%	9,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dclre	Number	0	3	8	5	7	0	0	0	0	7	30
		% de FUNCTION	,0%	10,0%	26,7%	16,7%	23,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	23,3%	100,0%
	dpa	Number	2	11	1	0	28	1	0	0	0	0	43
		% de FUNCTION	4,7%	25,6%	2,3%	,0%	65,1%	2,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
dpb	Number	6	11	7	0	16	0	0	0	0	0	40	
	% de FUNCTION	15,0%	27,5%	17,5%	,0%	40,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
dpl	Number	0	5	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	9	
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	55,6%	22,2%	11,1%	11,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
dpra	Number	1	2	0	2	22	0	0	2	0	0	29	
	% de FUNCTION	3,4%	6,9%	,0%	6,9%	75,9%	,0%	,0%	6,9%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
dpri	Number	0	4	7	1	6	0	0	0	4	5	27	
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	14,8%	25,9%	3,7%	22,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	14,8%	18,5%	100,0%	
dw	Number	0	4	0	1	5	0	0	0	0	1	11	
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	36,4%	,0%	9,1%	45,5%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	9,1%	100,0%	
Total		Number	84	288	367	176	622	85	504	20	4	13	2163
		% de FUNCTION	3,9%	13,3%	17,0%	8,1%	28,8%	3,9%	23,3%	,9%	,2%	,6%	100,0%
non-native	as	Number	12	2	3	0	21	51	258	0	0	0	347
		% de FUNCTION	3,5%	,6%	,9%	,0%	6,1%	14,7%	74,4%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	asc	Number	0	0	0	0	0	0	87	1	0	0	88
		% de FUNCTION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	98,9%	1,1%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	ds	Number	1	36	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	39
		% de FUNCTION	2,6%	92,3%	,0%	2,6%	,0%	2,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dca	Number	11	65	7	16	255	1	0	0	0	0	353
		% de FUNCTION	3,1%	17,8%	2,0%	4,5%	72,2%	,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dcb	Number	100	5	8	4	95	0	0	4	0	0	216
		% de FUNCTION	46,3%	2,3%	3,7%	1,9%	44,0%	,0%	,0%	1,9%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dclm	Number	11	15	350	97	46	0	6	0	0	0	525
		% de FUNCTION	2,1%	2,9%	66,7%	18,5%	8,8%	,0%	1,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dclim	Number	0	14	0	2	68	0	0	0	0	0	84
		% de FUNCTION	,0%	16,7%	,0%	2,4%	81,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dclcm	Number	10	111	7	12	36	16	0	0	1	0	193
		% de FUNCTION	5,2%	57,5%	3,6%	6,2%	18,7%	8,3%	,0%	,0%	,5%	,0%	100,0%
	dclre	Number	1	4	28	4	2	4	0	0	0	2	45
		% de FUNCTION	2,2%	8,9%	62,2%	8,9%	4,4%	8,9%	,0%	,0%	,0%	4,4%	100,0%
	dpa	Number	0	4	0	0	41	0	0	1	0	0	46
		% de FUNCTION	,0%	8,7%	,0%	,0%	89,1%	,0%	,0%	2,2%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
dpb	Number	2	3	3	3	23	0	0	0	0	0	34	
	% de FUNCTION	5,9%	8,8%	8,8%	8,8%	67,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
dpl	Number	0	1	1	0	9	0	0	0	0	0	11	
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	9,1%	9,1%	,0%	81,8%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
dpra	Number	12	0	0	1	32	0	0	0	0	0	45	
	% de FUNCTION	26,7%	,0%	,0%	2,2%	71,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
dpri	Number	0	0	10	3	40	0	0	1	9	0	63	
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	,0%	15,9%	4,8%	63,5%	,0%	,0%	1,6%	14,3%	,0%	100,0%	
dw	Number	1	2	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	7	
	% de FUNCTION	14,3%	28,6%	,0%	,0%	57,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
Total		Number	161	260	417	143	672	73	351	7	10	2	2096
		% de FUNCTION	7,7%	12,4%	19,9%	6,8%	32,1%	3,5%	16,7%	,3%	,5%	,1%	100,0%

7.1. Table 2. Contingency Table for Function / Clause type per group of speakers

3.2.2. The function-formal linguistic realisation correspondence

The *Hierarchical LogLinear Model* (hereafter, *HLM*) is a technique that allows us to interpret the relationships among different qualitative variables, by displaying the significant interactions among them (in our case, the regulatory function, clause type and features such as: polarity, modality, clause complexity, person...) and does so by providing a lineal model for the logarithms of the frequencies of the multivariate contingency tables. Let us first display the results of the *Hierarchical LogLinear Model* for the total data (native and non-native) (figure 4 below) in order to then explain the HLM procedure and the obtained findings in detail.

```

* * H I E R A R C H I C A L   L O G   L I N E A R F O R A L L T E A C H E R S * * *
DATA   Information
      4259 unweighted cases accepted.
        0 cases rejected because of out-of-range factor values.
        0 cases rejected because of missing data.
      4259 weighted cases will be used in the analysis.

```

```

FACTOR Information
Factor Level Label
FUNCTION      15
CLAUSETY     10
ELLIPSIS     3
PERSON       5
POLARITY     3
MODALITY     2
CLCMPLEX     9

***** H I E R A R C H I C A L   L O G   L I N E A R   * * * * *

DESIGN 1 has generating class

FUNCTION*CLAUSETY*ELLIPSIS*PERSON*POLARITY*MODALITY*CLCMPLEX

Note: For saturated models ,500 has been added to all observed cells.
This value may be changed by using the CRITERIA = DELTA subcommand.

Goodness-of-fit test statistics

Likelihood ratio chi square =      ,00000      DF = 0      P = 1,000
Pearson chi square =      ,00000      DF = 0      P = 1,000

***** H I E R A R C H I C A L   L O G   L I N E A R   * * * * *

Tests that K-way and higher order effects are zero.

      K      DF      L.R. Chisq      Prob      Pearson Chisq      Prob      Iteration
      7      16128      ,000      1,0000      ,000      1,0000      2
      6      57376      ,294      1,0000      ,149      1,0000      2
      5      97256      2,790      1,0000      1,466      1,0000      4
      4      116140      63,291      1,0000      72,514      1,0000      NA
      3      120842      1538,657      1,0000      23637,337      1,0000      NA
      2      121459      32349,601      1,0000      6774816,322      ,0000      2
      1      121499      63710,875      1,0000      22515005,027      ,0000      0

-----

Tests that K-way effects are zero.

      K      DF      L.R. Chisq      Prob      Pearson Chisq      Prob      Iteration
      1      40      31361,273      ,0000      15740188,705      ,0000      0
      2      617      30810,944      ,0000      6751178,985      ,0000      0
      3      4702      1475,366      1,0000      23564,823      ,0000      0
      4      18884      60,501      1,0000      71,048      1,0000      0
      5      39880      2,496      1,0000      1,317      1,0000      0
      6      41248      ,294      1,0000      ,149      1,0000      0
      7      16128      ,000      1,0000      ,000      1,0000      0

```

```

* * * * * H I E R A R C H I C A L   L O G   L I N E A R   * * * * *

Tests of PARTIAL associations.

Effect Name                    DF    Partial Chisq    Prob    Iter
FUNCTION*CLAUSETY           126      1475,327      ,0000    20
FUNCTION*ELLIPSIS          28       686,987       ,0000    20
CLAUSETY*ELLIPSIS              18        323,987        ,0000    20
FUNCTION*PERSON           56       326,759       ,0000    20
CLAUSETY*PERSON               36        1360,156       ,0000    20
ELLIPSIS*PERSON               8         703,870        ,0000    20
FUNCTION*POLARITY         28       552,390       ,0000    20
CLAUSETY*POLARITY            18        281,372        ,0000    20
ELLIPSIS*POLARITY            4         47,669         ,0000    20
PERSON*POLARITY               8         11,956         ,1532    20
FUNCTION*MODALITY         14       426,365       ,0000    20
CLAUSETY*MODALITY            9         114,619        ,0000    20
ELLIPSIS*MODALITY            2         26,630         ,0000    20
PERSON*MODALITY              4         160,927        ,0000    20
POLARITY*MODALITY            2         21,900         ,0000    20
FUNCTION*CLCMPLEX         112      1150,862      ,0000    20
CLAUSETY*CLCMPLEX            72        842,595        ,0000    20
ELLIPSIS*CLCMPLEX            16        72,623         ,0000    20
PERSON*CLCMPLEX              32        85,202         ,0000    20
POLARITY*CLCMPLEX            16         6,224          ,9855    20
MODALITY*CLCMPLEX            8         29,287         ,0003    20
FUNCTION                      14        4810,744       ,0000    2
CLAUSETY                      9         4187,190       ,0000    2
ELLIPSIS                      2         3844,572       ,0000    2
PERSON                        4         4604,232       ,0000    2
POLARITY                      2         3041,764       ,0000    2
MODALITY                      1         2251,448       ,0000    2
CLCMPLEX                      8         8251,126       ,0000    2

```

Fig. 4. Hierarchical LogLinear Model for all teachers (native and non-native)

Figure 4 must be read as follows. First of all, the figures present the data the *HLM* uses for the two different groups and specify the factors (variables) that have been selected to build the model in order to explain the interactions between them. Then, the *HLM* is introduced by presenting which model is proposed (Function*clause type*ellipsis*person*polarity*modality*clause complex) and there is a note on the type of model chosen (saturated²).

² Since in some cells the observed frequency is equal to zero, in order to avoid the impossibility to carry out the model (logarithms of zero are impossible), the *HLM* has the option of a *Saturated* model (which adds 0.5 to all cells), which was chosen in this study (cf. Ferrán Aranaz 2001: 302).

Once the descriptive data have been provided, the figures indicate the “Goodness-of-fit test statistic” which is a technique that permits us to determine whether the model we have chosen is adequate to our data. It details if a significant difference exists between the observed number of cases falling into each category and the expected number of cases, based on the null hypothesis. In other words, it permits us to answer the question “How well does our observed distribution fit the theoretical distribution?” (cf. Elifson *et al.* 1998: 382). If the p value associated to this statistic is less than α ($=.050$), we will reject the null hypothesis that the model is adequate. In figure 4, the p values is superior to α (in our case $p=1.000$, see squared values) and thus we accept the null hypothesis that the model is adequate to our data.

The interest of the *HLM* lies in specifying the significant interactions which will then enable us to interpret the relationship among the different variables. In order to determine which effects are statistically significant, the Test of the k -ways (next step in figure 4) is displayed in the figure in its double version. First, in the “Tests that K -way and higher order effects are zero” section, the null hypothesis that is being contrasted is that all the effects due to the interactions of a k -order or superior, $k=1,2,3$ are equal to zero³. In figure 4, we obtain that in the case that k is equal to 7 (seven order interaction, the seven variables proposed), the p value corresponding to the *Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square* and the *Pearson Chi-Square* for the Total data (Native and the Non-Native groups) is $p = 1.000$, that is superior to α , which indicates that there is no interaction. However, if k is equal to 2 or 1, the p values are less than $.050$ ($p=.000$ for the total data, see circled values in Figure 4 above). In other words, while the effect of the interaction of the seven variables cannot be considered statistically significant, the effects of the interactions $k=2$ and main effects ($k=1$, one variable) are statistically significant. This result is confirmed by the second version of the same test, labelled in both figures “Tests that K -way effects are zero”, where we observe that the p value is $.000$ when k is 2 or 1.

However, it must be borne in mind that while the effects of the interactions in pairs of variables are statistically different from zero, this does not imply that each of the effects in

³ The number assigned to k indicates the number of variables interacting.

particular is necessarily different from zero. To contrast the null hypothesis that an effect is null in particular, the adequate test is the *Test of Partial Associations*. If the p value obtained (Partial χ^2), is less than α , the null hypothesis will be rejected. Figure 4 above focuses on the total amount of data and indeed demonstrates that all the main effects ($k=1$) and interactions of order 2 ($k=2$) are significantly distinct from zero (see all the p values except the ones in italics). Therefore, there are statistically significant interactions between “Function” and the rest of the formal lexicogrammatical features (note the bold figures in figure 4 above). Indeed, there is a statistically significant interaction between the “Function” and the “Clause type” (already studied and explored above); between “Function” and “Ellipsis”; between “Function” and “Modality”; between “Function” and “Polarity”; between “Function” and “Person” and between “Function” and “Clause complex”, which is reflected in the p values ($p=.000$ in all the cases).

Consequently, this analysis leads us to conclude that the only effect that must be considered null is the one corresponding to the interaction of all the variables together, while the interaction between pairs of variables is statistically significant. However, in order to know the degree of relationship among the different variables, and the extent to which one variable predicts another (in our study, the regulatory function), further operations must be carried out. The next section will therefore provide the analysis of the variables in pairs through the *IxJ Contingency Tables*.

3.2.2.1. Regulatory functions and Polarity

Once the Contingency Table for the relationship existing for regulatory function and the polarity type has been constructed for native and non-native teachers (contingency table 3 below) and graphically presented in figures 5-8 below, the measures of association were calculated and are displayed in tables 4 to 6 below.

Table 3: Contingency table "Function-Polarity"

				POLARITY			Total
LANGUAGE		FUNCTION		no polarity	positive polarity	negative polarity	
Native speaker	as			Number	476	78	0
		% de FUNCTION	85,9%	14,1%	,0%	100,0%	
	asc	Number	95	16	0	111	
		% de FUNCTION	85,6%	14,4%	,0%	100,0%	
	ds	Number	2	43	1	46	
		% de FUNCTION	4,3%	93,5%	2,2%	100,0%	
	dca	Number	16	373	0	389	
		% de FUNCTION	4,1%	95,9%	,0%	100,0%	
	dcb	Number	53	80	2	135	
		% de FUNCTION	39,3%	59,3%	1,5%	100,0%	
	dclm	Number	16	527	5	548	
		% de FUNCTION	2,9%	96,2%	,9%	100,0%	
	dclim	Number	2	75	0	77	
		% de FUNCTION	2,6%	97,4%	,0%	100,0%	
	dclcm	Number	11	102	1	114	
		% de FUNCTION	9,6%	89,5%	,9%	100,0%	
	dclre	Number	7	23	0	30	
		% de FUNCTION	23,3%	76,7%	,0%	100,0%	
	dpa	Number	1	7	35	43	
		% de FUNCTION	2,3%	16,3%	81,4%	100,0%	
dpb	Number	1	22	17	40		
	% de FUNCTION	2,5%	55,0%	42,5%	100,0%		
dpl	Number	0	5	4	9		
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	55,6%	44,4%	100,0%		
dpra	Number	1	27	1	29		
	% de FUNCTION	3,4%	93,1%	3,4%	100,0%		
dpri	Number	9	18	0	27		
	% de FUNCTION	33,3%	66,7%	,0%	100,0%		
dw	Number	5	6	0	11		
	% de FUNCTION	45,5%	54,5%	,0%	100,0%		
Total		Number	695	1402	66	2163	
		% de FUNCTION	32,1%	64,8%	3,1%	100,0%	
Non-native speaker	as	Number	322	25	0	347	
		% de FUNCTION	92,8%	7,2%	,0%	100,0%	
	asc	Number	88	0	0	88	
		% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	ds	Number	2	37	0	39	
		% de FUNCTION	5,1%	94,9%	,0%	100,0%	
	dca	Number	12	339	2	353	
		% de FUNCTION	3,4%	96,0%	,6%	100,0%	
	dcb	Number	102	114	0	216	
		% de FUNCTION	47,2%	52,8%	,0%	100,0%	
	dclm	Number	17	508	0	525	
		% de FUNCTION	3,2%	96,8%	,0%	100,0%	
	dclim	Number	0	84	0	84	
		% de FUNCTION	,0%	100,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	dclcm	Number	1	192	0	193	
		% de FUNCTION	,5%	99,5%	,0%	100,0%	
	dclre	Number	7	37	1	45	
		% de FUNCTION	15,6%	82,2%	2,2%	100,0%	
	dpa	Number	0	8	38	46	
		% de FUNCTION	,0%	17,4%	82,6%	100,0%	
dpb	Number	2	10	22	34		
	% de FUNCTION	5,9%	29,4%	64,7%	100,0%		
dpl	Number	0	2	9	11		
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	18,2%	81,8%	100,0%		
dpra	Number	12	33	0	45		
	% de FUNCTION	26,7%	73,3%	,0%	100,0%		
dpri	Number	10	53	0	63		
	% de FUNCTION	15,9%	84,1%	,0%	100,0%		
dw	Number	1	5	1	7		
	% de FUNCTION	14,3%	71,4%	14,3%	100,0%		
Total		Number	576	1447	73	2096	
		% de FUNCTION	27,5%	69,0%	3,5%	100,0%	

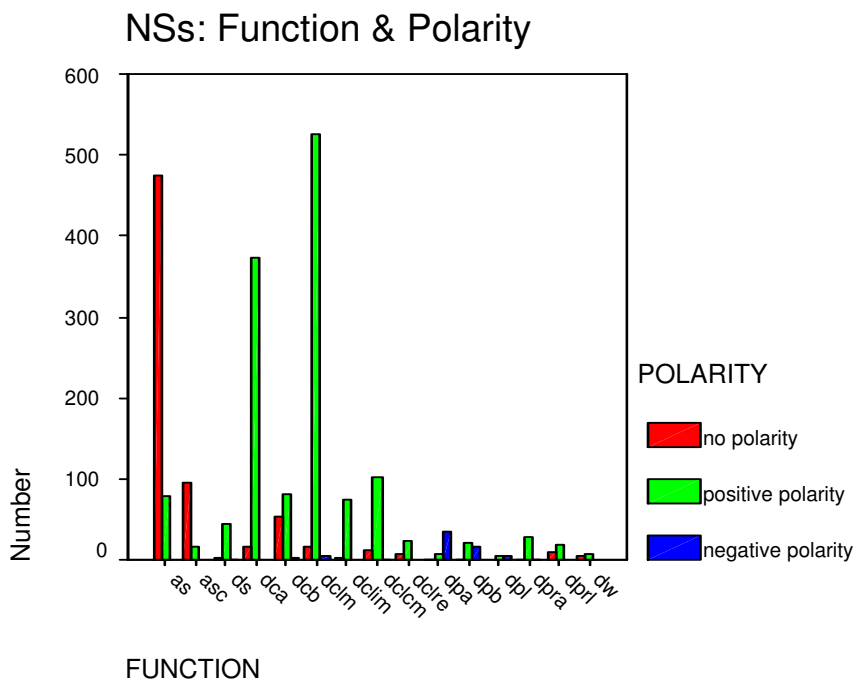


Fig 5. Interaction between polarity and functions in Native teachers.

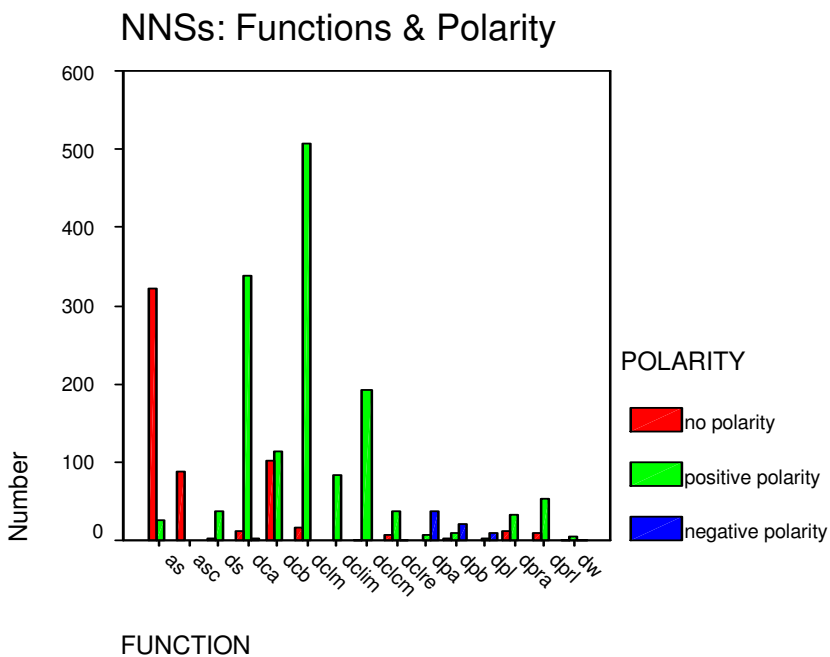


Fig.6. Interaction between polarity and functions in Non-native teachers.

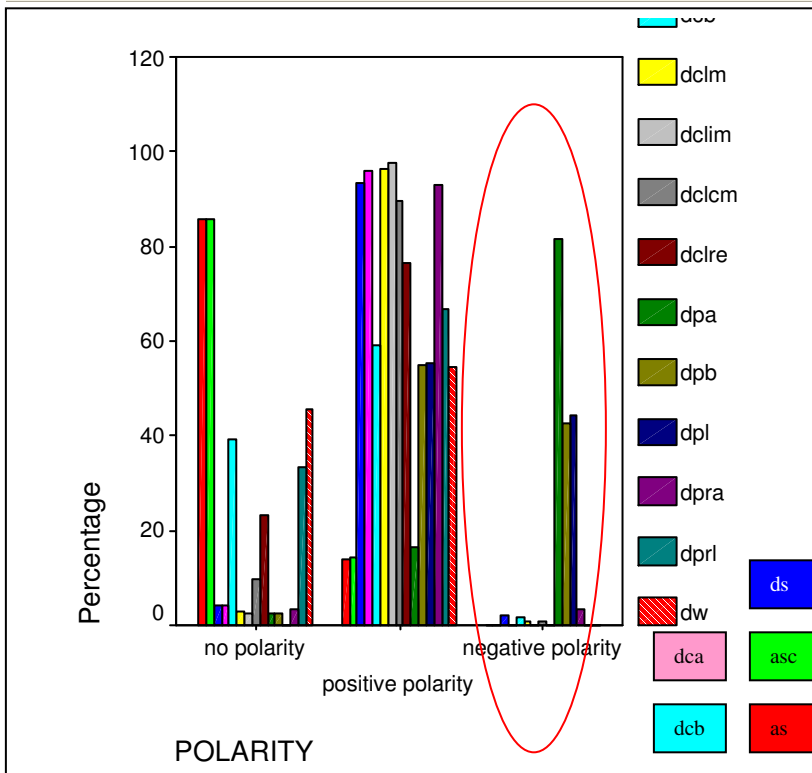


Fig.7. Polarity explored through functions (percentages): Native teachers.

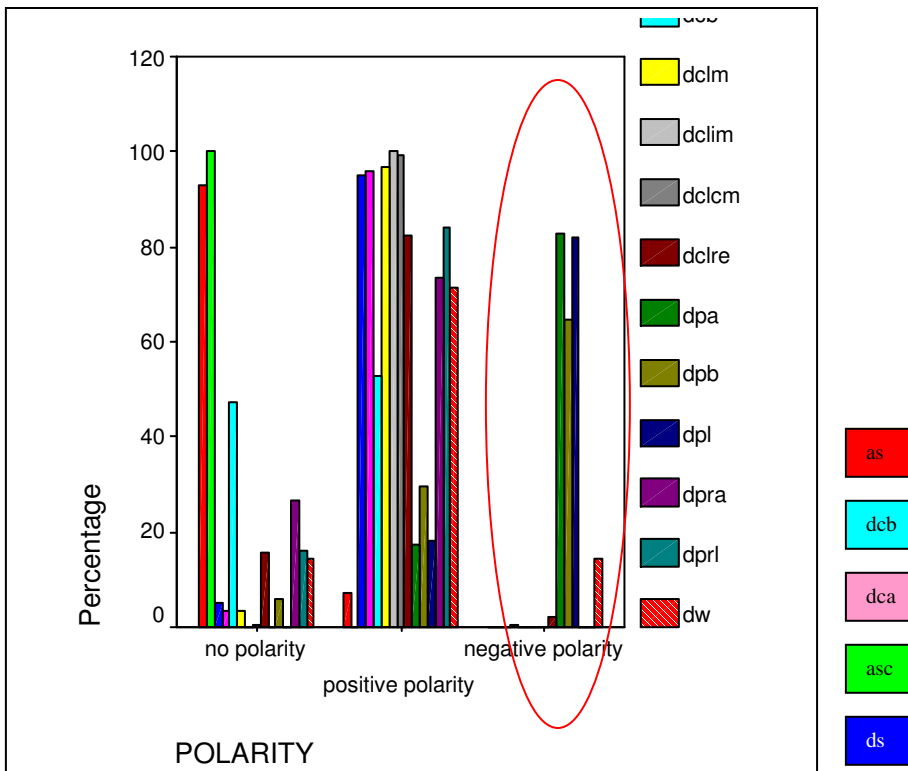


Fig.8. Polarity explored through functions (percentages): Non-native teachers.

Chi-Square Test

L		Valor	gl	Sig. asintótica (bilateral)
Native	Chi-cuadrado de Pearson	526,067 ^a	70	,000
	Razón de verosimilitud	535,329	70	,000
	Asociación lineal por lineal	136,555	1	,000
	N de casos válidos	594		
Non native	Chi-cuadrado de Pearson	772,354 ^b	62	,000
	Razón de verosimilitud	555,665	62	,000
	Asociación lineal por lineal	60,504	1	,000
	N de casos válidos	639		

Table 4. Chi-Square Test (Regulatory function - Polarity variables).

Nominal measures of association based on Chi-square

LANGUAGE			Valor	Sig. aproximada
Native speaker	Nominal por nominal	Phi	1,085	,000
		V de Cramer	,767	,000
		Coefficiente de contingencia	,735	,000
	N de casos válidos	2163		
Non-native speaker	Nominal por nominal	Phi	1,180	,000
		V de Cramer	,834	,000
		Coefficiente de contingencia	,763	,000
	N de casos válidos	2096		

Table 5. Nominal measures of association based on Chi-Square (Regulatory function-Polarity variables).

Nominal measures of association

LANGUAGE				Valor	Error tip. asint. ^a	T aproximada ^b	Sig. aproximada
Native speaker	Nominal por nominal	Lambda	Simétrica	,417	,013	29,542	,000
			FUNCTION dependiente	,301	,013	20,990	,000
			POLARITY dependiente	,664	,020	20,806	,000
	Tau de Goodman y Kruskal	Lambda	FUNCTION dependiente	,174	,008		,000 ^c
			POLARITY dependiente	,610	,019		,000 ^c
			Coefficiente de incertidumbre	,301	,011	25,136	,000 ^d
	FUNCTION dependiente	Lambda	Simétrica	,205	,008	25,136	,000 ^d
			FUNCTION dependiente	,562	,019	25,136	,000 ^d
			POLARITY dependiente				
Non-native speaker	Nominal por nominal	Lambda	Simétrica	,350	,014	21,282	,000
			FUNCTION dependiente	,218	,011	19,148	,000
			POLARITY dependiente	,669	,020	20,829	,000
	Tau de Goodman y Kruskal	Lambda	FUNCTION dependiente	,134	,006		,000 ^c
			POLARITY dependiente	,675	,016		,000 ^c
			Coefficiente de incertidumbre	,324	,011	27,473	,000 ^d
	FUNCTION dependiente	Lambda	Simétrica	,216	,008	27,473	,000 ^d
			FUNCTION dependiente	,652	,018	27,473	,000 ^d
			POLARITY dependiente				

Table 6. Nominal measures of association for the variables Function-Polarity.

Once the three tables have been analysed, we must conclude the following results:

- There is a statistically significant dependency between the regulatory function and the polarity type in the native and the non-native groups of teachers (cf. Chi-Square analysis).
- The strength of association of the two variables “regulatory function” and “polarity” is statistically significant for the two groups (cf. *Cramer’s V* coefficients, *p*. value =.000 in the two groups).
- The value attached to *Cramer’s V* accounts for a very strong degree of association between the two variables.
- There is no difference in the strength of association between the two variables across speakers (i.e. very similar *Cramer’s V* value).
- The error of predicting the dependent variable (“function”) when knowing the information of the polarity-type (cf. *p* values associated to the *Uncertainty coefficient*) is statistically significant in both groups and is higher in non-native teachers.
- The degree of reduction of error in the prediction of the “regulatory function” when the information of the independent variable “polarity type” is considered, is very low and is similar in the two groups (cf. values associated to the *Uncertainty coefficient*) though is higher in non-native teachers.

3.2.2.2. Regulatory functions and Modality

Once the Contingency Tables for the relationship existing for regulatory function and the modality type have been constructed for native and non-native teachers (table 7 below), we can graphically observe modality across functions (figures 9-10) and analyse the calculated the measures of association displayed in tables 8 to 10 below.

The contingency table below exhibits the frequencies of modality used in the different functions in both groups of speakers. The figures unveil that modality is displayed in “demanding goods and services” where the goods and services is an action (“Action commands”, “Suggestion”), behaviour (“behaviour command”) and in prohibitions (“Action prohibition”, “Behaviour prohibition” and “linguistic prohibition”) in both native

and non-native teachers. Furthermore, the graphs highlight on the one hand that a much higher frequency of modalised utterances is found in the non-native teachers group when instantiating “action” or “behaviour commands” and on the other hand unveil that linguistic commands (“Completion command”, “Linguistic Production command” and “repetition command”) and Prompts are sometimes embodied in modalised utterances in native teachers’ talk (which scarcely happens in non-native teachers’).

Contingency Table REGULATORY FUNCTION * MODALITY * LANGUAGE

LANGUAGE		FUNCTION		MODALITY		Total
				no	yes	
Native	as	Number	550	4	554	
		% de FUNCTION	99,3%	,7%	100,0%	
	asc	Number	111	0	111	
		% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	ds	Number	12	34	46	
		% de FUNCTION	26,1%	73,9%	100,0%	
	dca	Number	249	140	389	
		% de FUNCTION	64,0%	36,0%	100,0%	
	dcb	Number	106	29	135	
		% de FUNCTION	78,5%	21,5%	100,0%	
	dclm	Number	468	80	548	
		% de FUNCTION	85,4%	14,6%	100,0%	
	dclim	Number	72	5	77	
		% de FUNCTION	93,5%	6,5%	100,0%	
	dclcm	Number	103	11	114	
		% de FUNCTION	90,4%	9,6%	100,0%	
	dclre	Number	27	3	30	
		% de FUNCTION	90,0%	10,0%	100,0%	
	dpa	Number	20	23	43	
		% de FUNCTION	46,5%	53,5%	100,0%	
	dpb	Number	17	23	40	
		% de FUNCTION	42,5%	57,5%	100,0%	
	dpl	Number	1	8	9	
		% de FUNCTION	11,1%	88,9%	100,0%	
dpra	Number	27	2	29		
	% de FUNCTION	93,1%	6,9%	100,0%		
dprl	Number	22	5	27		
	% de FUNCTION	81,5%	18,5%	100,0%		
dw	Number	10	1	11		
	% de FUNCTION	90,9%	9,1%	100,0%		
Total		Number	1795	368	2163	
		% de FUNCTION	83,0%	17,0%	100,0%	
Non-native	as	Number	346	1	347	
		% de FUNCTION	99,7%	,3%	100,0%	
	asc	Number	88	0	88	
		% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	ds	Number	10	29	39	
		% de FUNCTION	25,6%	74,4%	100,0%	
	dca	Number	241	112	353	
		% de FUNCTION	68,3%	31,7%	100,0%	
	dcb	Number	183	33	216	
		% de FUNCTION	84,7%	15,3%	100,0%	
	dclm	Number	502	23	525	
		% de FUNCTION	95,6%	4,4%	100,0%	
	dclim	Number	75	9	84	
		% de FUNCTION	89,3%	10,7%	100,0%	
	dclcm	Number	190	3	193	
		% de FUNCTION	98,4%	1,6%	100,0%	
	dclre	Number	41	4	45	
		% de FUNCTION	91,1%	8,9%	100,0%	
	dpa	Number	23	23	46	
		% de FUNCTION	50,0%	50,0%	100,0%	
	dpb	Number	5	29	34	
		% de FUNCTION	14,7%	85,3%	100,0%	
	dpl	Number	2	9	11	
		% de FUNCTION	18,2%	81,8%	100,0%	
dpra	Number	45	0	45		
	% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	100,0%		
dprl	Number	53	10	63		
	% de FUNCTION	84,1%	15,9%	100,0%		
dw	Number	6	1	7		
	% de FUNCTION	85,7%	14,3%	100,0%		
Total		Number	1810	286	2096	
		% de FUNCTION	86,4%	13,6%	100,0%	

Table 7. Contingency table for the variables Function-Modality.

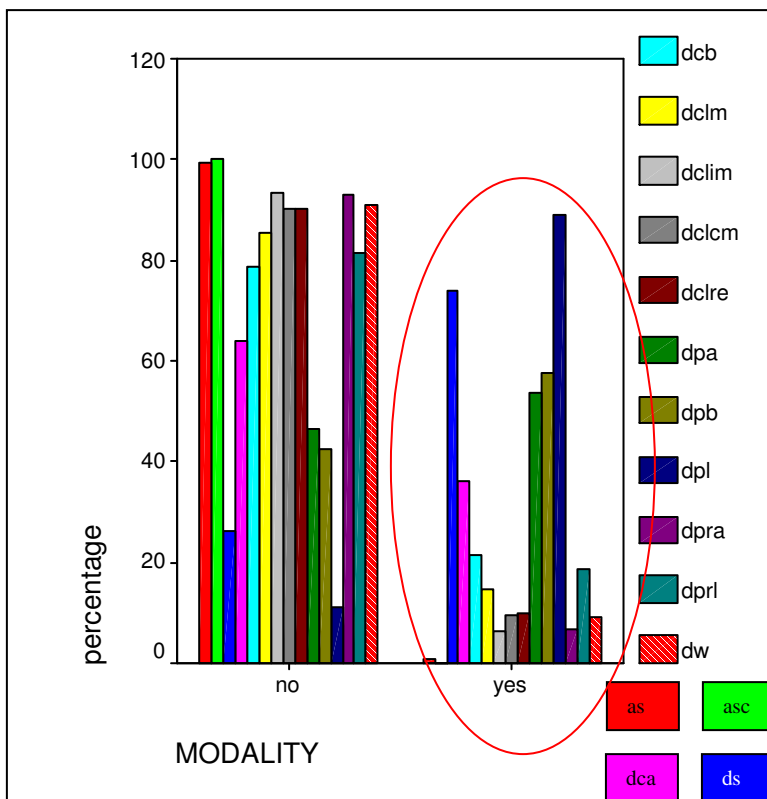


Fig. 9. Modality through functions in Native teachers (percentages).

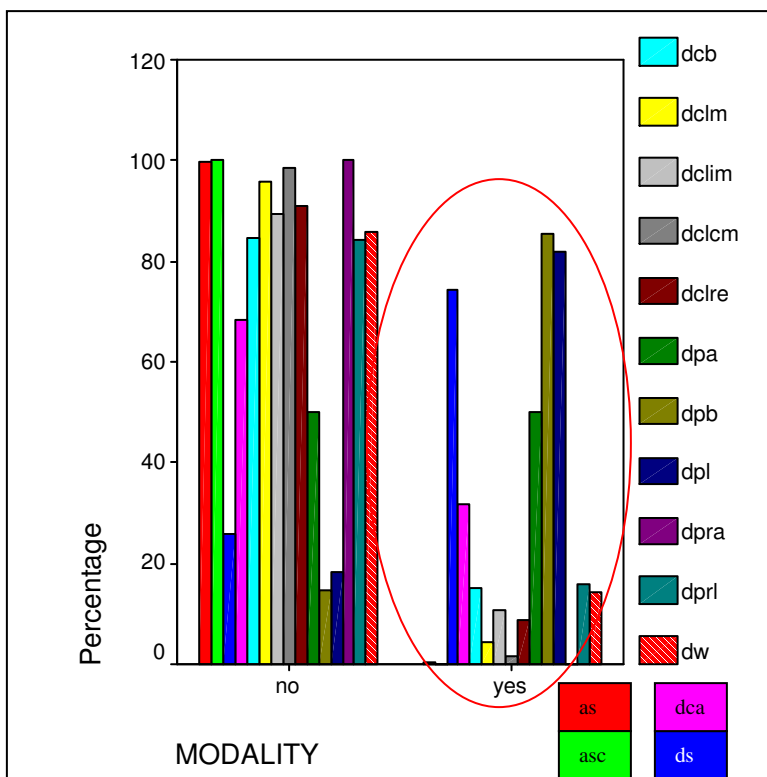


Fig. 10. Modality through functions in Non-native teachers (percentages).

Chi-Square test

LANGUAGE		Valor	gl	Sig. asintótica (bilateral)
Native	Chi-cuadrado de Pearson	469,750 ^a	14	,000
	Razón de verosimilitud	472,265	14	,000
	Asociación lineal por lineal	60,775	1	,000
	N de casos válidos	2163		
Non-native	Chi-cuadrado de Pearson	601,048 ^b	14	,000
	Razón de verosimilitud	519,018	14	,000
	Asociación lineal por lineal	19,948	1	,000
	N de casos válidos	2096		

Table 8. Chi-Square Test (Regulatory function - Modality variables).

Nominal measures of association based on Chi-square

LANGUAGE			Valor	Sig. aproximada
Native	Nominal por nominal	Phi	,466	,000
		V de Cramer	,466	,000
		Coefficiente de contingencia	,422	,000
	N de casos válidos	2163		
Non-native	Nominal por nominal	Phi	,535	,000
		V de Cramer	,535	,000
		Coefficiente de contingencia	,472	,000
	N de casos válidos	2096		

Table 9. Nominal measures of association based on Chi-Square (Regulatory function-Modality variables).

Nominal measures of association

LANGUAGE				Valor	Error típ. asint. ^a	T aproximada ^b	Sig. aproximada	
Native	Nominal por nominal	Lambda	Simétrica	,088	,008	10,629	,000	
			FUNCTION dependiente	,085	,007	11,686	,000	
			MODALITY dependiente	,103	,030	3,243	,001	
		Tau de Goodman y Kruskal	FUNCTION dependiente	,029	,003		,000 ^c	
			MODALITY dependiente	,217	,018		,000 ^c	
			Coefficiente de incertidumbre	,087	,007	12,756	,000 ^d	
	Non-native	Nominal por nominal	Lambda	FUNCTION dependiente	,053	,004	12,756	,000 ^d
				MODALITY dependiente	,239	,017	12,756	,000 ^d
			Tau de Goodman y Kruskal	FUNCTION dependiente	,075	,007	9,597	,000
				MODALITY dependiente	,057	,007	7,769	,000
Non-native	Nominal por nominal	Lambda	FUNCTION dependiente	,175	,029	5,495	,000	
			MODALITY dependiente	,024	,002		,000 ^c	
			Coefficiente de incertidumbre	,287	,021		,000 ^c	
		Tau de Goodman y Kruskal	FUNCTION dependiente	,095	,007	12,501	,000 ^d	
			MODALITY dependiente	,056	,004	12,501	,000 ^d	
			Coefficiente de incertidumbre	,311	,021	12,501	,000 ^d	

Table 10. Nominal measures of association (Regulatory function-Modality Variables).

Once the three tables have been analysed, we must conclude the following results:

- There is a statistically significant dependency between the regulatory function and the modality type in both the native and the non-native groups of teachers (cf. Chi-Square analysis).
- The strength of association of the two variables is statistically significant for the two groups (cf. *Cramer's V* coefficients, *p*. value =.000 in the two groups).
- The degree of association of the two variables “Regulatory function” and “modality” is considerable though remains low.
- There is no difference in the strength of association between the two variables across speakers: the value attached to *Cramer's V* is almost identical in the Native and the Non-native groups.
- The error of predicting the dependent variable (“function”) when knowing the information of the modality-type (cf. *p* values associated to the *Uncertainty coefficient*) is statistically significant.
- The degree of reduction of error in the prediction of the “regulatory function” when considering the information of the independent variable “modality type” is extremely low and very similar in the two groups (cf. values associated to the *Uncertainty coefficient*).

Despite the low degree of *PRE* in predicting regulatory functions, the degree of association between “regulatory function” and “modality” was not particularly low. The findings presented in the Contingency Table above indeed (illustrated in the graphs 9-10 above), reveal that modality is strongly related to certain functions in particular. In fact, since modality is one of the key linguistic devices the speaker may employ to produce regulatory functions (and convey them in a more indirect way), a further analysis was carried out to explore *which types* of modality were displayed across functions.

- *Regulatory functions and modality type*

Since those results do not look for a quantitative but a qualitative picture of how modality is displayed across functions, the Contingency Table 11 and the graphs 11-12 below will suffice to provide a general picture of the use of modality by both groups of teachers.

Table 11: Contingency table “Function-Modality”

				Contingency Table REGULATORY FUNCTION * MODTYPE * LANGUAGE					
LANGUAGE	FUNCTION			MODTYPE					Total
				no modality	MFhigh	MFmed	MFlow	Conj adjunct	
Native	as	Number	552	0	0	2	0	554	
		% de FUNCTION	99,6%	,0%	,0%	,4%	,0%	100,0%	
	asc	Number	111	0	0	0	0	111	
		% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	ds	Number	11	0	0	33	2	46	
		% de FUNCTION	23,9%	,0%	,0%	71,7%	4,3%	100,0%	
	dca	Number	328	20	4	18	19	389	
		% de FUNCTION	84,3%	5,1%	1,0%	4,6%	4,9%	100,0%	
	dcb	Number	128	0	3	4	0	135	
		% de FUNCTION	94,8%	,0%	2,2%	3,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	dclm	Number	491	10	7	40	0	548	
		% de FUNCTION	89,6%	1,8%	1,3%	7,3%	,0%	100,0%	
	dclim	Number	73	1	0	2	1	77	
		% de FUNCTION	94,8%	1,3%	,0%	2,6%	1,3%	100,0%	
	dclcm	Number	103	4	3	3	1	114	
		% de FUNCTION	90,4%	3,5%	2,6%	2,6%	,9%	100,0%	
	dclre	Number	30	0	0	0	0	30	
		% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	dpa	Number	39	4	0	0	0	43	
		% de FUNCTION	90,7%	9,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	dpb	Number	38	2	0	0	0	40	
		% de FUNCTION	95,0%	5,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	dpl	Number	7	1	0	1	0	9	
		% de FUNCTION	77,8%	11,1%	,0%	11,1%	,0%	100,0%	
	dpra	Number	28	1	0	0	0	29	
		% de FUNCTION	96,6%	3,4%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	dprl	Number	23	0	0	0	4	27	
		% de FUNCTION	85,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	14,8%	100,0%	
	dw	Number	10	0	1	0	0	11	
		% de FUNCTION	90,9%	,0%	9,1%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
Total	Number	1972	43	18	103	27	2163		
	% de FUNCTION	91,2%	2,0%	,8%	4,8%	1,2%	100,0%		
Non-native	as	Number	347	0	0	0	0	347	
		% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	asc	Number	88	0	0	0	0	88	
		% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	ds	Number	10	0	0	24	5	39	
		% de FUNCTION	25,6%	,0%	,0%	61,5%	12,8%	100,0%	
	dca	Number	316	26	0	11	0	353	
		% de FUNCTION	89,5%	7,4%	,0%	3,1%	,0%	100,0%	
	dcb	Number	209	3	0	4	0	216	
		% de FUNCTION	96,8%	1,4%	,0%	1,9%	,0%	100,0%	
	dclm	Number	519	3	0	3	0	525	
		% de FUNCTION	98,9%	,6%	,0%	,6%	,0%	100,0%	
	dclim	Number	77	3	0	2	2	84	
		% de FUNCTION	91,7%	3,6%	,0%	2,4%	2,4%	100,0%	
	dclcm	Number	190	0	0	2	1	193	
		% de FUNCTION	98,4%	,0%	,0%	1,0%	,5%	100,0%	
	dclre	Number	41	1	0	3	0	45	
		% de FUNCTION	91,1%	2,2%	,0%	6,7%	,0%	100,0%	
	dpa	Number	44	2	0	0	0	46	
		% de FUNCTION	95,7%	4,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	dpb	Number	34	0	0	0	0	34	
		% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	dpl	Number	11	0	0	0	0	11	
		% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	dpra	Number	45	0	0	0	0	45	
		% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	dprl	Number	54	0	0	0	9	63	
		% de FUNCTION	85,7%	,0%	,0%	,0%	14,3%	100,0%	
	dw	Number	6	1	0	0	0	7	
		% de FUNCTION	85,7%	14,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
Total	Number	1991	39	0	49	17	2096		
	% de FUNCTION	95,0%	1,9%	,0%	2,3%	,8%	100,0%		

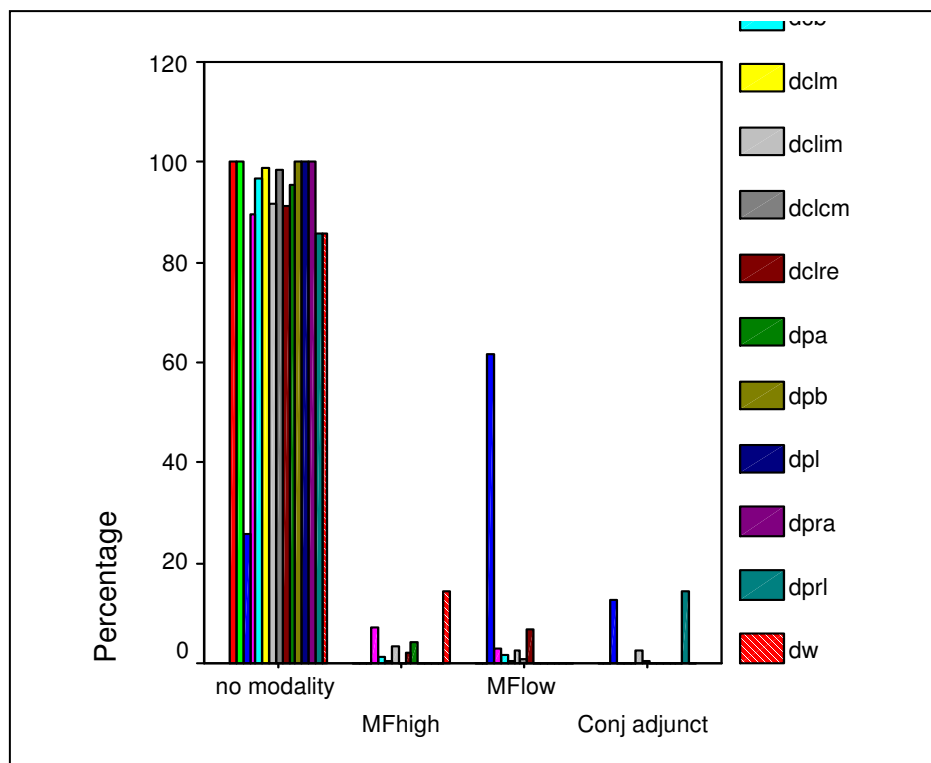


Fig.11. Use of modality types across functions. Native speakers (percentage)

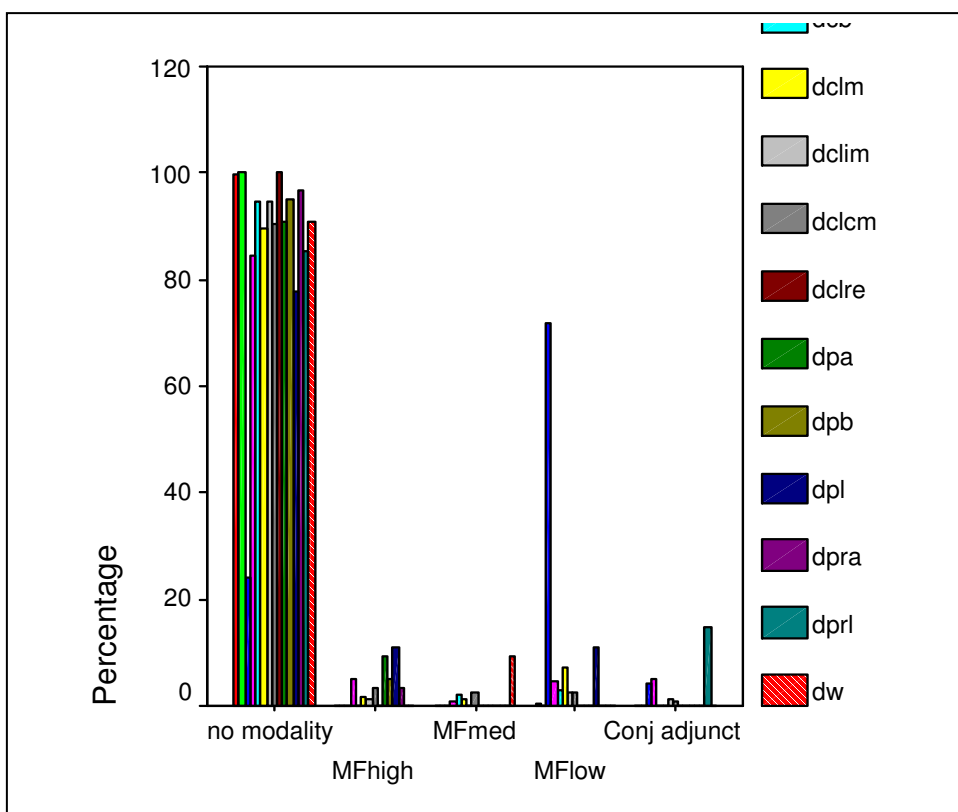


Fig.12. Use of modality types across functions. Non-native speakers (percentage)

- *Regulatory functions and interpersonal metaphor*

However, while the previous analysis contributed to a more detailed picture of how modality was displayed across functions, there still remains one more step to further appreciate how regulatory functions were displayed through modality: the analysis of interpersonal metaphors (Contingency table 12 and graphs 13-14 below). Actually, as a very specific type of modality, this was examined separately.

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Contingency Table REGULATORY FUNCTION * INTERMET * LANGUAGE

LANGUAGE				INTERMET		Total	
				no inter met	inter met		
Native	FUNCTION	as	Number	552	2	554	
			% de FUNCTION	99,6%	,4%	100,0%	
			asc	Number	111	0	111
				% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	100,0%
			ds	Number	46	0	46
				% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	100,0%
			dca	Number	280	109	389
				% de FUNCTION	72,0%	28,0%	100,0%
			dcb	Number	120	15	135
				% de FUNCTION	88,9%	11,1%	100,0%
			dclm	Number	499	49	548
				% de FUNCTION	91,1%	8,9%	100,0%
			dclim	Number	74	3	77
				% de FUNCTION	96,1%	3,9%	100,0%
			dclcm	Number	114	0	114
				% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	100,0%
			dclre	Number	30	0	30
				% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	100,0%
			dpa	Number	40	3	43
				% de FUNCTION	93,0%	7,0%	100,0%
			dpb	Number	22	18	40
				% de FUNCTION	55,0%	45,0%	100,0%
			dpl	Number	1	8	9
				% de FUNCTION	11,1%	88,9%	100,0%
			dpra	Number	29	0	29
				% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	100,0%
			dprl	Number	27	0	27
		% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	100,0%		
	dw	Number	11	0	11		
		% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	100,0%		
	Total	Number	1956	207	2163		
		% de FUNCTION	90,4%	9,6%	100,0%		
Non-native	FUNCTION	as	Number	347	0	347	
			% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	100,0%	
			asc	Number	88	0	88
				% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	100,0%
			ds	Number	39	0	39
				% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	100,0%
			dca	Number	264	89	353
				% de FUNCTION	74,8%	25,2%	100,0%
			dcb	Number	208	8	216
				% de FUNCTION	96,3%	3,7%	100,0%
			dclm	Number	507	18	525
				% de FUNCTION	96,6%	3,4%	100,0%
			dclim	Number	77	7	84
				% de FUNCTION	91,7%	8,3%	100,0%
			dclcm	Number	193	0	193
				% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	100,0%
			dclre	Number	44	1	45
				% de FUNCTION	97,8%	2,2%	100,0%
			dpa	Number	45	1	46
				% de FUNCTION	97,8%	2,2%	100,0%
			dpb	Number	25	9	34
				% de FUNCTION	73,5%	26,5%	100,0%
			dpl	Number	9	2	11
				% de FUNCTION	81,8%	18,2%	100,0%
			dpra	Number	45	0	45
				% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	100,0%
			dprl	Number	63	0	63
		% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	100,0%		
	dw	Number	7	0	7		
		% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	100,0%		
	Total	Number	1961	135	2096		
		% de FUNCTION	93,6%	6,4%	100,0%		

Table 12. Contingency table. Regulatory functions-Interpersonal metaphor (native and non-native teachers)

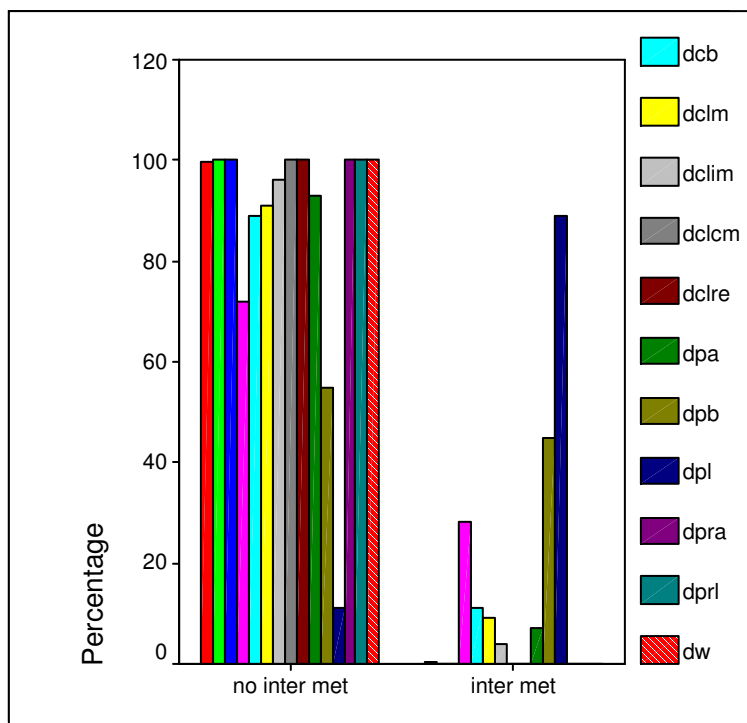


Fig. 14. Interpersonal metaphor across functions in NSs

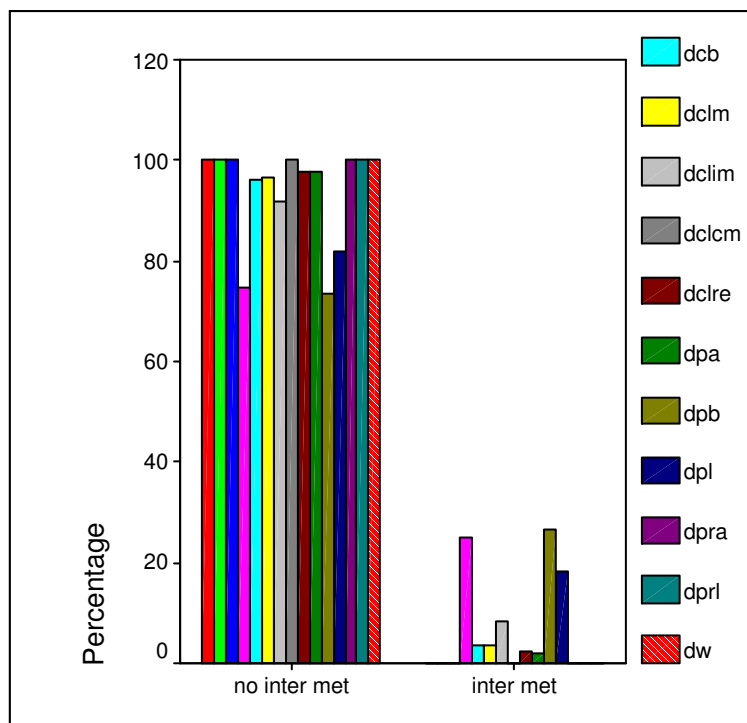


Fig.13. Interpersonal metaphor- functions (NNSs)

3.2.2.3. Regulatory functions and Ellipsis

Following the elaboration of the Contingency Tables for the relationship existing for regulatory function and ellipsis for native and non-native teachers (table 13), illustrated in the following bar graphs (figures 15 and 16), the measures of association were calculated and are presented in tables 14 to 16 below.

Table 13: Contingency table "Function-Ellipsis"

LANGUAGE				ELLIPSIS			Total
				no ellipsis	ellipsis	part ellipsis	
Native	FUNCTION	as	Number	553	1	0	554
			% de FUNCTION	99,8%	,2%	,0%	100,0%
	asc	Number	111	0	0	111	
		% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	ds	Number	29	17	0	46	
		% de FUNCTION	63,0%	37,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	dca	Number	357	32	0	389	
		% de FUNCTION	91,8%	8,2%	,0%	100,0%	
	dcb	Number	117	18	0	135	
		% de FUNCTION	86,7%	13,3%	,0%	100,0%	
	dclm	Number	443	105	0	548	
		% de FUNCTION	80,8%	19,2%	,0%	100,0%	
	dclim	Number	31	46	0	77	
		% de FUNCTION	40,3%	59,7%	,0%	100,0%	
	dclcm	Number	0	74	40	114	
		% de FUNCTION	,0%	64,9%	35,1%	100,0%	
	dclre	Number	23	5	2	30	
		% de FUNCTION	76,7%	16,7%	6,7%	100,0%	
	dpa	Number	29	14	0	43	
		% de FUNCTION	67,4%	32,6%	,0%	100,0%	
	dpb	Number	34	6	0	40	
		% de FUNCTION	85,0%	15,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	dpl	Number	8	1	0	9	
		% de FUNCTION	88,9%	11,1%	,0%	100,0%	
dpra	Number	18	11	0	29		
	% de FUNCTION	62,1%	37,9%	,0%	100,0%		
dprl	Number	19	8	0	27		
	% de FUNCTION	70,4%	29,6%	,0%	100,0%		
dw	Number	6	4	1	11		
	% de FUNCTION	54,5%	36,4%	9,1%	100,0%		
Total			Number	1778	342	43	2163
			% de FUNCTION	82,2%	15,8%	2,0%	100,0%
Non-native	FUNCTION	as	Number	344	3	0	347
			% de FUNCTION	99,1%	,9%	,0%	100,0%
	asc	Number	88	0	0	88	
		% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	ds	Number	29	10	0	39	
		% de FUNCTION	74,4%	25,6%	,0%	100,0%	
	dca	Number	295	58	0	353	
		% de FUNCTION	83,6%	16,4%	,0%	100,0%	
	dcb	Number	210	6	0	216	
		% de FUNCTION	97,2%	2,8%	,0%	100,0%	
	dclm	Number	303	220	2	525	
		% de FUNCTION	57,7%	41,9%	,4%	100,0%	
	dclim	Number	30	54	0	84	
		% de FUNCTION	35,7%	64,3%	,0%	100,0%	
	dclcm	Number	3	106	84	193	
		% de FUNCTION	1,6%	54,9%	43,5%	100,0%	
	dclre	Number	14	24	7	45	
		% de FUNCTION	31,1%	53,3%	15,6%	100,0%	
	dpa	Number	22	24	0	46	
		% de FUNCTION	47,8%	52,2%	,0%	100,0%	
	dpb	Number	14	20	0	34	
		% de FUNCTION	41,2%	58,8%	,0%	100,0%	
	dpl	Number	4	7	0	11	
		% de FUNCTION	36,4%	63,6%	,0%	100,0%	
dpra	Number	40	5	0	45		
	% de FUNCTION	88,9%	11,1%	,0%	100,0%		
dprl	Number	49	14	0	63		
	% de FUNCTION	77,8%	22,2%	,0%	100,0%		
dw	Number	7	0	0	7		
	% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%		
Total			Number	1452	551	93	2096
			% de FUNCTION	69,3%	26,3%	4,4%	100,0%

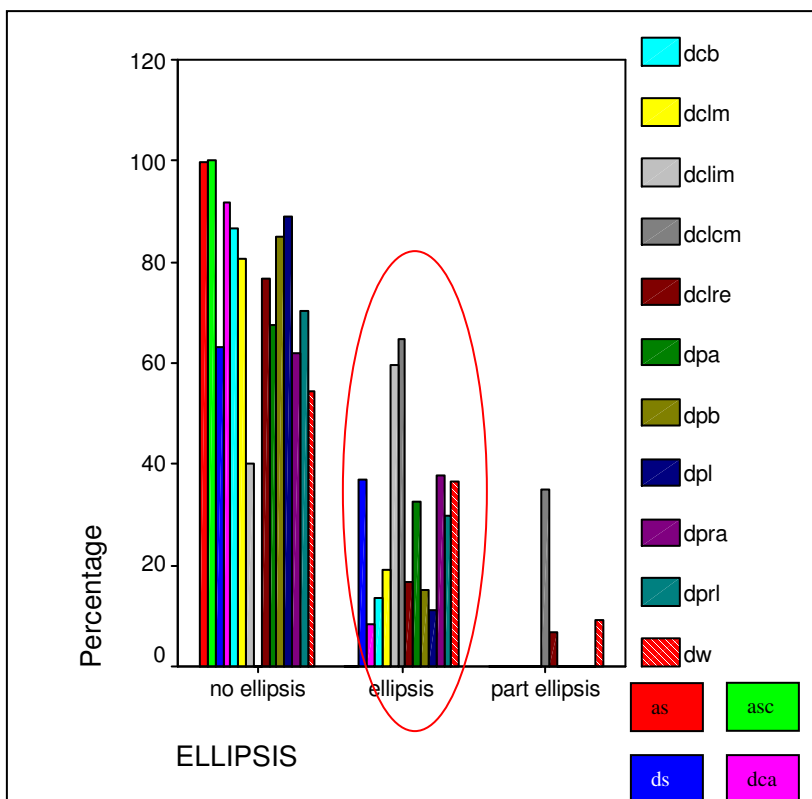


Fig. 15. Ellipsis through functions in Native teachers (percentages).

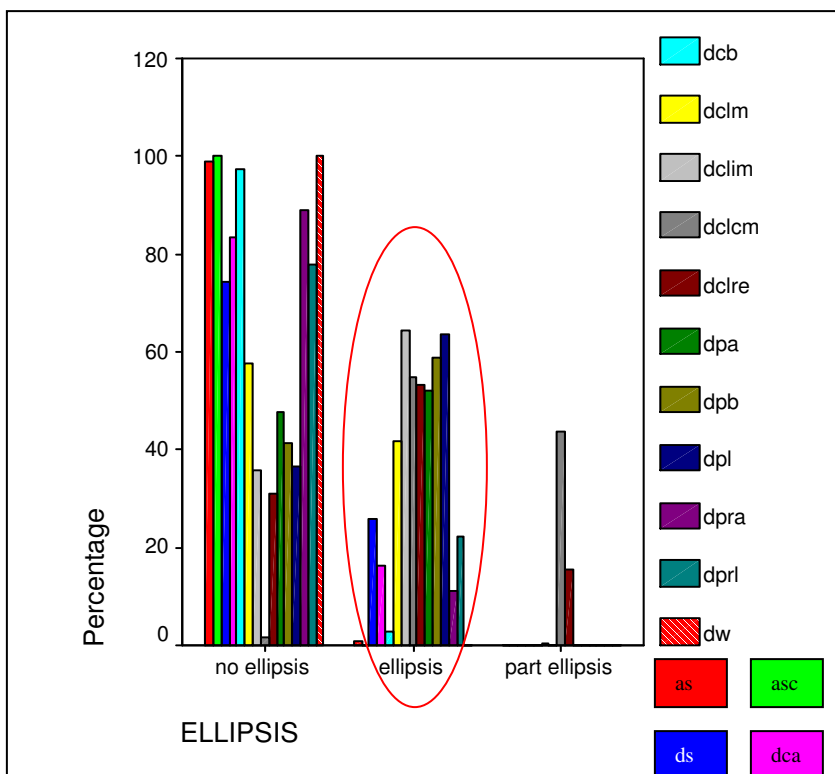


Fig. 16. Ellipsis through functions in Non-native teachers (percentages).

To statistically explore the relationship between the variables “ellipsis” and “regulatory functions”, we calculated the measures of association (tables 14 to 16 below).

Chi-square test

LANGUAGE		Valor	gl	Sig. asintótica (bilateral)
Native	Chi-cuadrado de Pearson	1246,248 ^a	28	,000
	Razón de verosimilitud	879,343	28	,000
	Asociación lineal por lineal	300,245	1	,000
	N de casos válidos	2163		
Non-native	Chi-cuadrado de Pearson	1392,932 ^b	28	,000
	Razón de verosimilitud	1218,084	28	,000
	Asociación lineal por lineal	273,811	1	,000
	N de casos válidos	2096		

Table 14. Chi-Square test (Regulatory function and ellipsis variables).

Nominal measures of association based on chi-square

LANGUAGE			Valor	Sig. aproximada
Native	Nominal por nominal	Phi	,759	,000
		V de Cramer	,537	,000
		Coefficiente de contingencia	,605	,000
	N de casos válidos	2163		
Non-native	Nominal por nominal	Phi	,815	,000
		V de Cramer	,576	,000
		Coefficiente de contingencia	,632	,000
	N de casos válidos	2096		

Table 15. Nominal measures of association based on Chi-Square test (Regulatory function-ellipsis).

Nominal measures of association				Valor	Error típ. asint. ^a	T aproximada ^b	Sig. aproximada
LANGUAGE							
Native	Nominal por nominal	Lambda	Simétrica	,117	,007	14,130	,000
			FUNCTION dependiente	,089	,007	12,329	,000
			ELLIPSIS dependiente	,231	,028	7,332	,000
		Tau de Goodman y Kruskal	FUNCTION dependiente	,052	,003		,000 ^c
			ELLIPSIS dependiente	,311	,013		,000 ^c
			Coeficiente de incertidumbre	Simétrica	,157	,008	17,972
		Coeficiente de incertidumbre	FUNCTION dependiente	,099	,005	17,972	,000 ^d
			ELLIPSIS dependiente	,383	,015	17,972	,000 ^d
			Non-native	Nominal por nominal	Lambda	Simétrica	,122
FUNCTION dependiente	,078	,017				4,566	,000
ELLIPSIS dependiente	,230	,024				8,385	,000
Tau de Goodman y Kruskal	FUNCTION dependiente	,080			,004		,000 ^c
	ELLIPSIS dependiente	,335			,012		,000 ^c
	Coeficiente de incertidumbre	Simétrica			,197	,008	22,461
Coeficiente de incertidumbre	FUNCTION dependiente	,132			,006	22,461	,000 ^d
	ELLIPSIS dependiente	,391			,014	22,461	,000 ^d

Table 16. Nominal measures of association (Regulatory function and subject ellipsis) .

The obtained results are therefore the following:

- There is a statistically significant dependency between the regulatory function and the ellipsis in native and non-native teachers (cf. Chi-Square analysis).
- The strength of association of the two variables “Regulatory function” and “ellipsis” is statistically significant for the two groups (cf. *Cramer’s V* coefficients, p . value =.000 in the two groups).
- The value attached to *Cramer’s V* accounts for a considerable degree of association between the two variables.
- There is a higher strength of association between the two variables in non-native teachers (i.e. *Cramer’s V* value is slightly higher in non-native teachers).
- The error of predicting the dependent variable (“function”) when knowing the information of the ellipsis choice (cf. p values associated to the *Uncertainty coefficient*) is statistically significant in both groups.
- The degree of reduction of error in the prediction of the “regulatory function” when considering the information of the independent variable “ellipsis” is very low and is slightly higher in non-native teachers (cf. values associated to the *Uncertainty coefficient*).

3.2.2.4. *Regulatory functions and subject (person)*

Once the Contingency Table for the relationship existing for “regulatory function” and the “subject choice” have been constructed for native and non-native teachers, we can graphically observe subject choice across functions (figures 17 and 18) and analyse the calculated the measures of association that are displayed in tables 18-20 below.

The information provided by the Contingency table 17 and the graphs below unveils the similarities and differences in the distribution of subject choice across the different regulatory functions in both groups of teachers. On the one hand, as far as the similarities are concerned, let us mention the predominance of the “no person” in the instantiation of the different functions in both groups (see circled values in the first column and the totals: 62.6% for native teachers and 71.2% for non-native teachers), which might result from the display of ellipsis (examined above). Additionally, “Suggestions” are mostly realised through a second person subject in 58.7% of the instances in the native teachers’ group and in 69.2% of the cases in the non-native teachers’ (see circled values in the third column). Similarly, a third person subject is chosen by both groups to instantiate “Linguistic Production Commands” (50% for native teachers, 55.6% for non-native teachers, see circled values in the fourth column). Furthermore, it is worth noticing that the first person subject, both the inclusive “we” and exclusive “I”, are scarcely used in both *corpora* (6% and 5% in native teachers’ talk and 1.4% and 1.3% in non-native teachers’ respectively), though is more frequent in native teachers.

On the other hand, as far as the differences are concerned, two other figures attract our attention in the native teachers’ group (see squared values). Most “Completion commands” are instantiated through third person subjects by native teachers, whereas they are instantiated through ellipsis by the non-native teachers. Similarly, most “Linguistic prohibitions” are realised through a second person subject whereas they are subject-less in the non-native teachers’ *corpus*.

Appendix III: Exploration of the function-form mapping

Contingency Table REGULATORY FUNCTION * PERSON * LANGUAGE

LANGUAGE	FUNCTION		PERSON					Total
			no person	first person inclusive	second person	third person	first person exclusive	
Native	as	Number	531	21	2	0	0	554
		% de FUNCTION	95,8%	3,8%	,4%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	asc	Number	111	0	0	0	0	111
		% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	ds	Number	10	6	27	1	2	46
		% de FUNCTION	21,7%	13,0%	58,7%	2,2%	4,3%	100,0%
	dca	Number	245	55	67	4	18	389
		% de FUNCTION	63,0%	14,1%	17,2%	1,0%	4,6%	100,0%
	dcb	Number	118	0	14	0	3	135
		% de FUNCTION	87,4%	,0%	10,4%	,0%	2,2%	100,0%
	dclm	Number	115	40	68	274	51	548
		% de FUNCTION	21,0%	7,3%	12,4%	50,0%	9,3%	100,0%
	dclim	Number	72	0	4	1	0	77
		% de FUNCTION	93,5%	,0%	5,2%	1,3%	,0%	100,0%
	dclcm	Number	33	7	5	42	27	114
		% de FUNCTION	28,9%	6,1%	4,4%	36,8%	23,7%	100,0%
	dclre	Number	17	0	4	9	0	30
		% de FUNCTION	56,7%	,0%	13,3%	30,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dpa	Number	21	1	7	3	1	43
		% de FUNCTION	72,1%	2,3%	16,3%	7,0%	2,3%	100,0%
	dpb	Number	22	0	4	6	8	40
		% de FUNCTION	55,0%	,0%	10,0%	15,0%	20,0%	100,0%
	dpl	Number	1	1	6	1	0	9
		% de FUNCTION	11,1%	11,1%	66,7%	11,1%	,0%	100,0%
	dpra	Number	24	3	2	0	0	29
		% de FUNCTION	82,8%	10,3%	6,9%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dprl	Number	19	2	3	3	0	27
		% de FUNCTION	70,4%	7,4%	11,1%	11,1%	,0%	100,0%
dw	Number	6	0	1	2	2	11	
	% de FUNCTION	54,5%	,0%	9,1%	18,2%	18,2%	100,0%	
Total	Number	1355	136	214	346	112	2163	
	% de FUNCTION	62,6%	6,3%	9,9%	16,0%	5,2%	100,0%	
Non-native	as	Number	336	8	0	3	0	347
		% de FUNCTION	96,8%	2,3%	,0%	,9%	,0%	100,0%
	asc	Number	88	0	0	0	0	88
		% de FUNCTION	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	ds	Number	11	1	27	0	0	39
		% de FUNCTION	28,2%	2,6%	69,2%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dca	Number	268	14	51	10	15	353
		% de FUNCTION	74,5%	4,0%	14,4%	2,8%	4,2%	100,0%
	dcb	Number	199	0	11	5	1	216
		% de FUNCTION	92,1%	,0%	5,1%	2,3%	,5%	100,0%
	dclm	Number	187	1	40	292	5	525
		% de FUNCTION	35,6%	,2%	7,6%	55,6%	1,0%	100,0%
	dclim	Number	69	0	13	1	1	84
		% de FUNCTION	82,1%	,0%	15,5%	1,2%	1,2%	100,0%
	dclcm	Number	118	1	18	54	2	193
		% de FUNCTION	61,1%	,5%	9,3%	28,0%	1,0%	100,0%
	dclre	Number	34	0	7	3	1	45
		% de FUNCTION	75,6%	,0%	15,6%	6,7%	2,2%	100,0%
	dpa	Number	45	0	1	0	0	46
		% de FUNCTION	97,8%	,0%	2,2%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dpb	Number	24	0	4	4	2	34
		% de FUNCTION	70,6%	,0%	11,8%	11,8%	5,9%	100,0%
	dpl	Number	9	0	1	1	0	11
		% de FUNCTION	81,8%	,0%	9,1%	9,1%	,0%	100,0%
	dpra	Number	44	1	0	0	0	45
		% de FUNCTION	97,8%	2,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dprl	Number	61	2	0	0	0	63
		% de FUNCTION	96,8%	3,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
dw	Number	5	2	0	0	0	7	
	% de FUNCTION	71,4%	28,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
Total	Number	1493	30	173	373	27	2096	
	% de FUNCTION	71,2%	1,4%	8,3%	17,8%	1,3%	100,0%	

Table 17: Contingency table for the variables Subject/Person-Function (native and non-native teachers).

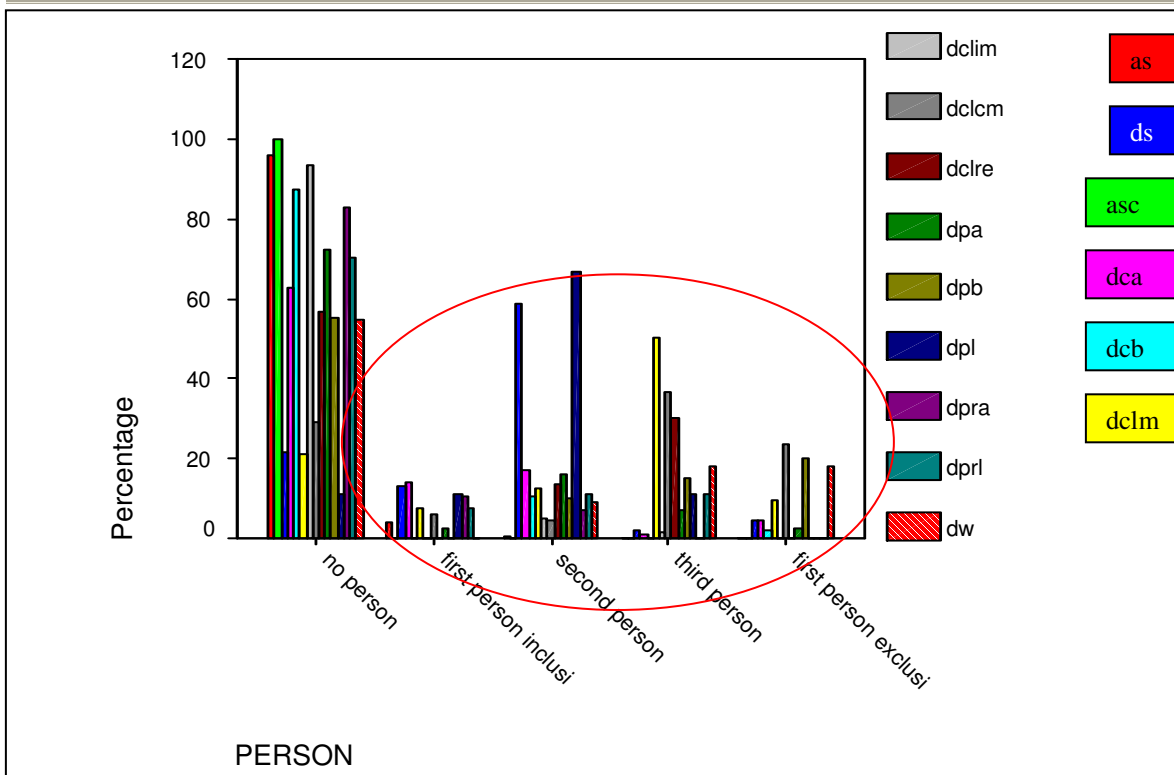


Fig.17. Subject choice across functions. (Native teachers, percentages).

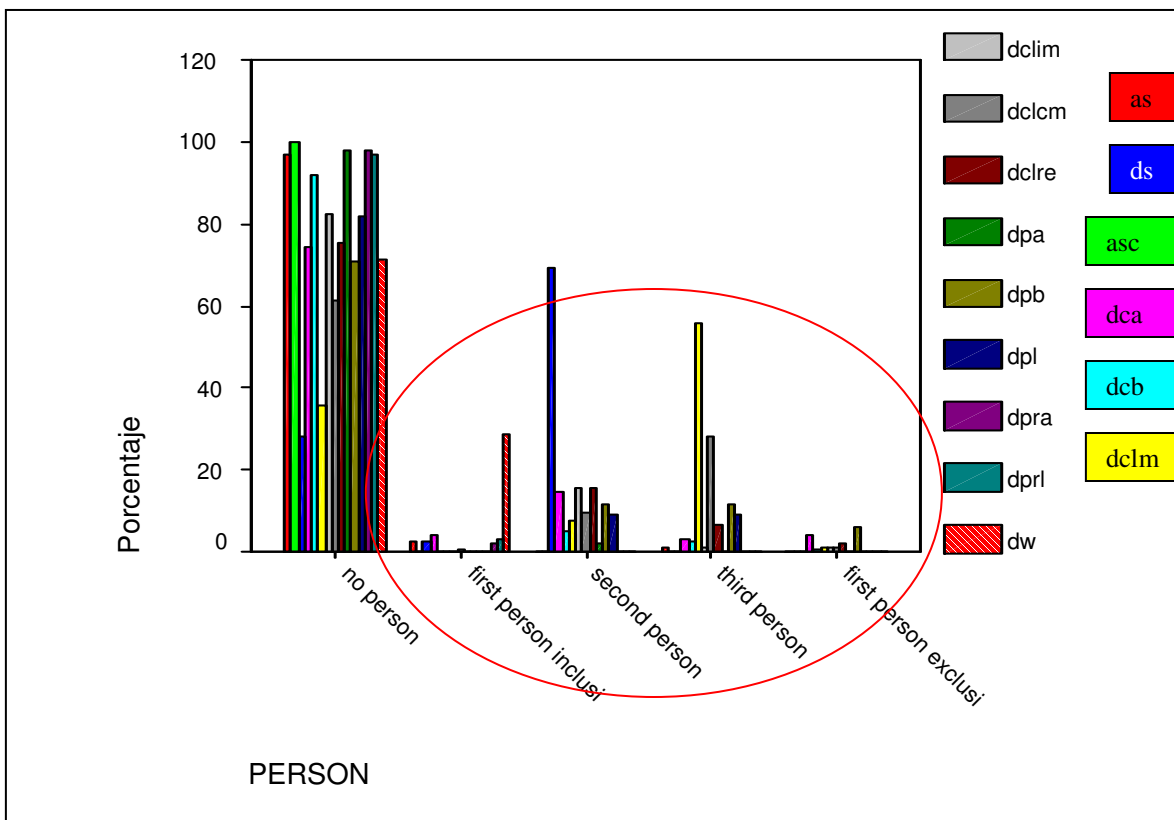


Fig.18. Subject choice across functions (Non-native teachers, percentages).

First, the dependency relationship of the two variables (regulatory function and subject choice) was studied through the *Chi-Square* test.

Chi-square test

LANGUAGE		Valor	gl	Sig. asintótica (bilateral)
Native	Chi-cuadrado de Pearson	1445,967 ^a	56	,000
	Razón de verosimilitud	1505,417	56	,000
	Asociación lineal por lineal	287,560	1	,000
	N de casos válidos	2163		
Non-native	Chi-cuadrado de Pearson	1171,283 ^b	56	,000
	Razón de verosimilitud	1088,277	56	,000
	Asociación lineal por lineal	28,404	1	,000
	N de casos válidos	2096		

Table 18. Chi-Square test (Regulatory function and subject choice variables)

Nominal measures of association based on Chi-square

LANGUAGE			Valor	Sig. aproximada
Native	Nominal por nominal	Phi	,818	,000
		V de Cramer	,409	,000
		Coficiente de contingencia	,633	,000
	N de casos válidos	2163		
Non-native	Nominal por nominal	Phi	,748	,000
		V de Cramer	,374	,000
		Coficiente de contingencia	,599	,000
	N de casos válidos	2096		

Table 19. Nominal measures of association based on Chi-Square (Regulatory function-Subject choice).

Nominal measures of association				Valor	Error típ. asint. ^a	T aproximada ^b	Sig. aproximada
Native	Nominal por nominal	Lambda	Simétrica	,254	,014	16,725	,000
			FUNCTION dependiente	,264	,012	21,590	,000
			PERSON dependiente	,235	,024	8,572	,000
	Tau de Goodman y Kruskal	Lambda	FUNCTION dependiente	,141	,006		,000 ^c
			PERSON dependiente	,287	,012		,000 ^c
			Coeficiente de incertidumbre	,217	,008	26,631	,000 ^d
	Coeficiente de incertidumbre	Lambda	FUNCTION dependiente	,169	,007	26,631	,000 ^d
			PERSON dependiente	,305	,011	26,631	,000 ^d
			Simétrica				
Non-native	Nominal por nominal	Lambda	Simétrica	,140	,017	7,860	,000
			FUNCTION dependiente	,116	,015	7,273	,000
			PERSON dependiente	,201	,034	5,358	,000
	Tau de Goodman y Kruskal	Lambda	FUNCTION dependiente	,102	,006		,000 ^c
			PERSON dependiente	,275	,016		,000 ^c
			Coeficiente de incertidumbre	,169	,008	20,047	,000 ^d
	Coeficiente de incertidumbre	Lambda	FUNCTION dependiente	,118	,006	20,047	,000 ^d
			PERSON dependiente	,298	,013	20,047	,000 ^d
			Simétrica				

Table 20. Nominal measures of association.

The obtained results are therefore the following:

- There is a statistically significant dependency between the regulatory function and the subject choice in the native and the non-native groups of teachers (cf. Chi-Square analysis).
- The strength of association of the two variables “regulatory function” and “subject choice” is statistically significant for the two groups (cf. *Cramer’s V* coefficients, *p* value =.000 in the two groups).
- The value attached to *Cramer’s V* accounts for a low degree of association between the two variables.
- There is a stronger degree of association between the two variables in the native teachers’ group (higher *Cramer’s V* value).
- The error of predicting the dependent variable (“function”) when knowing the information of the subject choice (cf. *p* values associated to the *Uncertainty coefficient*) is statistically significant in both groups.
- The degree of reduction of error in the prediction of the “regulatory function” when considering the information of the independent variable “subject choice” is very low and is slightly higher in native teachers (*Uncertainty coefficient*).

3.2.2.5. Regulatory functions and clause complexity

After the elaboration of the Contingency Table 21 accounting for the joint distribution of the “regulatory function” and the “clause complexity” variables, graphically displayed in figures 19 and 20 below, the nominal measures of association were calculated to depict the relationship, if any, between the two variables, and are presented in tables 22 to 24 below.

Table 21: S. Rinsgen Bernier "Function-Clause-complex patterns"
 The discourse grammar interface of EFL in school teacher talk

Contingency Table REGULATORY FUNCTION * CLCMPLX * LANGUAGE

LANGUAGE	FUNCTION	as	CLCMPLX							Total	
			no analysis	simple	complex hypot	embedded	multiple	minor clause	nms		parat proj
Native	as	Number	16	71	0	3	13	446	5	0	554
		% de FUNCTION	2,9%	12,8%	,0%	,5%	2,3%	80,5%	,9%	,0%	100,0%
	asc	Number	2	16	0	0	3	90	0	0	111
		% de FUNCTION	1,8%	14,4%	,0%	,0%	2,7%	81,1%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	ds	Number	0	32	8	3	3	0	0	0	46
		% de FUNCTION	,0%	69,6%	17,4%	6,5%	6,5%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dca	Number	11	314	35	24	0	5	0	0	389
		% de FUNCTION	2,8%	80,7%	9,0%	6,2%	,0%	1,3%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dcb	Number	1	75	1	1	5	4	48	0	135
		% de FUNCTION	,7%	55,6%	,7%	,7%	3,7%	3,0%	35,6%	,0%	100,0%
	dclm	Number	1	449	16	30	36	14	0	2	548
		% de FUNCTION	,2%	81,9%	2,9%	5,5%	6,6%	2,6%	,0%	,4%	100,0%
	dclim	Number	0	7	9	1	0	2	0	58	77
		% de FUNCTION	,0%	9,1%	11,7%	1,3%	,0%	2,6%	,0%	75,3%	100,0%
	dclcm	Number	0	96	7	0	0	11	0	0	114
		% de FUNCTION	,0%	84,2%	6,1%	,0%	,0%	9,6%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dclre	Number	0	23	0	0	0	7	0	0	30
		% de FUNCTION	,0%	76,7%	,0%	,0%	,0%	23,3%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dpa	Number	2	30	1	4	5	1	0	0	43
		% de FUNCTION	4,7%	69,8%	2,3%	9,3%	11,6%	2,3%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
dpb	Number	6	34	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	
	% de FUNCTION	15,0%	85,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
dpl	Number	0	8	1	0	0	0	0	0	9	
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	88,9%	11,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
dpra	Number	1	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	29	
	% de FUNCTION	3,4%	96,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
dprl	Number	0	17	0	1	0	5	4	0	27	
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	63,0%	,0%	3,7%	,0%	18,5%	14,8%	,0%	100,0%	
dw	Number	0	7	1	1	1	1	0	0	11	
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	63,6%	9,1%	9,1%	9,1%	9,1%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
Total	Number	40	1207	79	68	66	586	57	60	2163	
	% de FUNCTION	1,8%	55,8%	3,7%	3,1%	3,1%	27,1%	2,6%	2,8%	100,0%	
Non-native	as	Number	11	20	0	1	18	296	1	0	347
		% de FUNCTION	3,2%	5,8%	,0%	,3%	5,2%	85,3%	,3%	,0%	100,0%
	asc	Number	0	1	0	0	1	86	0	0	88
		% de FUNCTION	,0%	1,1%	,0%	,0%	1,1%	97,7%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	ds	Number	1	37	0	0	0	0	0	1	39
		% de FUNCTION	2,6%	94,9%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,6%	100,0%
	dca	Number	11	332	1	4	4	1	0	0	353
		% de FUNCTION	3,1%	94,1%	,3%	1,1%	1,1%	,3%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dcb	Number	2	108	1	0	2	4	98	1	216
		% de FUNCTION	,9%	50,0%	,5%	,0%	,9%	1,9%	45,4%	,5%	100,0%
	dclm	Number	11	444	3	15	46	6	0	0	525
		% de FUNCTION	2,1%	84,6%	,6%	2,9%	8,8%	1,1%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dclim	Number	0	6	0	0	2	0	0	76	84
		% de FUNCTION	,0%	7,1%	,0%	,0%	2,4%	,0%	,0%	90,5%	100,0%
	dclcm	Number	10	138	3	0	0	16	0	26	193
		% de FUNCTION	5,2%	71,5%	1,6%	,0%	,0%	8,3%	,0%	13,5%	100,0%
	dclre	Number	1	38	0	0	0	6	0	0	45
		% de FUNCTION	2,2%	84,4%	,0%	,0%	,0%	13,3%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	dpa	Number	0	40	0	0	6	0	0	0	46
		% de FUNCTION	,0%	87,0%	,0%	,0%	13,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
dpb	Number	2	28	0	0	4	0	0	0	34	
	% de FUNCTION	5,9%	82,4%	,0%	,0%	11,8%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
dpl	Number	0	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
dpra	Number	12	30	0	0	3	0	0	0	45	
	% de FUNCTION	26,7%	66,7%	,0%	,0%	6,7%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
dprl	Number	0	52	0	0	1	1	9	0	63	
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	82,5%	,0%	,0%	1,6%	1,6%	14,3%	,0%	100,0%	
dw	Number	1	3	1	0	2	0	0	0	7	
	% de FUNCTION	14,3%	42,9%	14,3%	,0%	28,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
Total	Number	62	1288	83	20	89	416	108	104	2096	
	% de FUNCTION	3,0%	61,5%	,4%	1,0%	4,2%	19,8%	5,2%	5,0%	100,0%	

← NS total

← NNS total

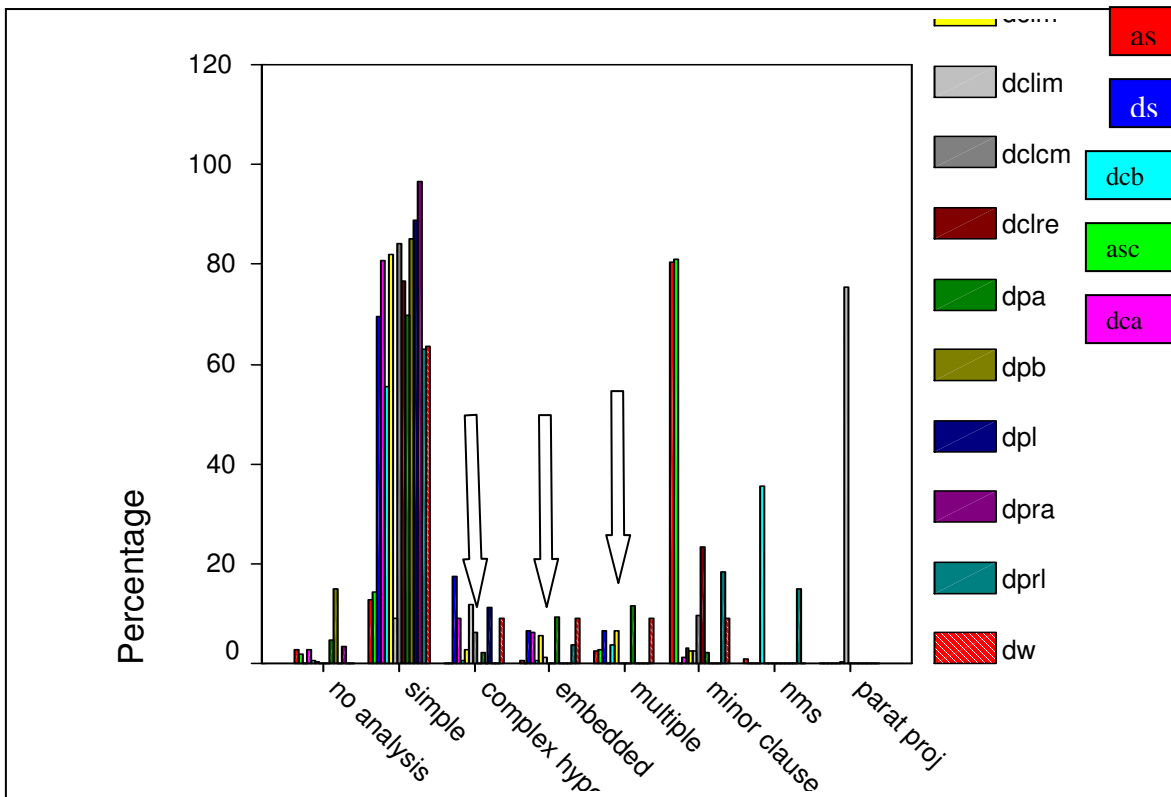


Fig.19. Clause complexity across functions. Native teachers (percentage).

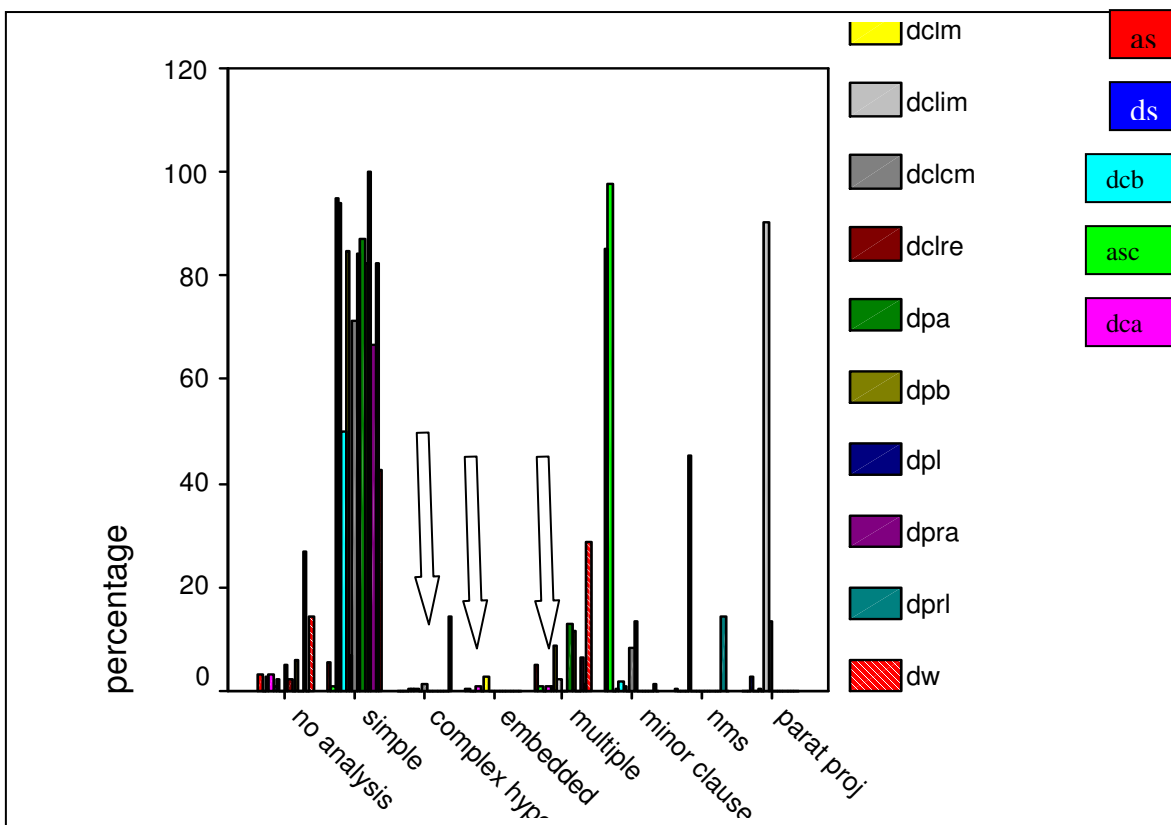


Fig.20. Clause complexity across functions. Non-native teachers (percentage).

Chi-square test

LANGUAGE		Valor	gl	Sig. asintótica (bilateral)
Native	Chi-cuadrado de Pearson	3829,622 ^a	98	,000
	Razón de verosimilitud	2421,329	98	,000
	Asociación lineal por lineal	391,427	1	,000
	N de casos válidos	2163		
Non-native	Chi-cuadrado de Pearson	4087,800 ^b	98	,000
	Razón de verosimilitud	2732,968	98	,000
	Asociación lineal por lineal	255,967	1	,000
	N de casos válidos	2096		

Table 22. Chi-Square test (Regulatory function and clause complexity variables).

Nominal measures of association based on Chi-square

LANGUAGE			Valor	Sig. aproximada
Native	Nominal por nominal	Phi	1,331	,000
		V de Cramer	,503	,000
		Coefficiente de contingencia	,799	,000
	N de casos válidos	2163		
Non-native	Nominal por nominal	Phi	1,397	,000
		V de Cramer	,528	,000
		Coefficiente de contingencia	,813	,000
	N de casos válidos	2096		

Table 23. Chi-Square test (Regulatory function and clause complexity variables).

Nominal measures of association

LANGUAGE				Valor	Error típ. asint. ^a	T aproximada ^b	Sig. aproximada
Native	Nominal por nominal	Lambda	Simétrica	,415	,012	31,098	,000
			FUNCTION dependiente	,351	,014	23,007	,000
			CLCMPLX dependiente	,523	,019	20,898	,000
	Tau de Goodman y Kruskal	Lambda	FUNCTION dependiente	,236	,008		,000 ^c
			CLCMPLX dependiente	,429	,016		,000 ^c
			Coefficiente de incertidumbre	,335	,010	29,786	,000 ^d
	Lambda	Simétrica	FUNCTION dependiente	,272	,009	29,786	,000 ^d
			CLCMPLX dependiente	,436	,013	29,786	,000 ^d
Non-native	Nominal por nominal	Lambda	Simétrica	,377	,013	24,432	,000
			FUNCTION dependiente	,296	,012	23,372	,000
			CLCMPLX dependiente	,533	,019	21,648	,000
	Tau de Goodman y Kruskal	Lambda	FUNCTION dependiente	,224	,007		,000 ^c
			CLCMPLX dependiente	,515	,015		,000 ^c
			Coefficiente de incertidumbre	,386	,010	33,337	,000 ^d
	Lambda	Simétrica	FUNCTION dependiente	,296	,009	33,337	,000 ^d
			CLCMPLX dependiente	,531	,014	33,337	,000 ^d

Table 24. Nominal measures of association (Regulatory function and clause type variables).

Below ensues a summary of the obtained findings:

- There is a statistically significant dependency between the regulatory function and the clause type in the native and the non-native groups of teachers (cf. Chi-Square analysis).
- The strength of the association of the two variables “Regulatory function” and “clause type” is statistically significant for the two groups (p values $<.050$ in both groups).
- The value attached to *Cramer’s V* accounts for a reasonable degree of association between the “regulatory function” and the “clause type” variables.
- There is a slight difference in the strength of association between the two variables across speakers (i.e. the *Cramer’s V* value is higher in the non-native group).
- The error of predicting the dependent variable (“function”) when knowing the information of the clause complexity (cf. p values associated to the *Uncertainty coefficient*) is statistically significant in both groups.
- The degree of reduction of error in the prediction of the “regulatory function” when considering the information of the independent variable “clause complexity” is very low in the two groups (cf. values associated to the *Uncertainty coefficient*), though is higher in the non-native group.

PART V: APPENDIX IV:**VALIDATION OF THE REGULATORY FUNCTIONS SYSTEM NETWORK**

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APPENDIX 4.1. VALIDATION OF THE INSTRUMENT
Instructions and documents provided to the external coders

Dear researchers,

I hereby request your collaboration in the validation of the “*Regulatory Functions System Network*”. In order to have a previous knowledge of what the research is about and carry out the analysis of the data, I send you the following documents:

- I. Introduction to regulatory functions
- II. A Guide on the Dynamics of Network Elaboration: a document explaining the dynamics of creating a network as a tool of analysis.
- III. The Regulatory Functions System Network: presentation of the tool we have elaborated to analyse regulatory functions in the EFL classroom.
- IV. The resulting taxonomy of the different regulatory functions: a chart summarising the distinct functions, with a definition, examples and further comments
- V. The sessions that have been chosen to analyse the regulatory functions at the discourse-semantic stratum by means of the tool and resulting taxonomy.

The procedure of this tool validation is as follows:

Step 1: the external analysts will read through the information provided by the researcher (project, guide, system network presentation and taxonomy).

Step 2: the researcher will have a session of standardisation of criteria with the external analysts:

- clarification of information provided
- see examples of sessions analysed by the researcher

Step 3: the sessions will be provided to the external analysts, they will be able to analyse them individually (at home)

Step 4: the external analysts will meet in order to compare their analyses and will try to reach an agreement where differences exist in their coding. (2 afternoons)

Step 5: the external analysts will suggest any changes in the taxonomy, if necessary

Step 6: the external analysts will fulfil a questionnaire qualifying the usefulness of the network as a tool of analysis (at home)

Step 7: the researcher will analyse the results of the analysts’ codings.

4.1.1. AN INTRODUCTION TO “REGULATORY FUNCTIONS”

Despite being aware of the different sub-registers and thus the wide range of functions acknowledged within teacher talk in the literature (Christie 2000; Llinares 2000; Riesco 2003), this research concentrates on those regulative functions in order to see to what extent teacher talk affects the children’s verbal and non-verbal behaviour in the EFL classroom.

Among the five basic functions suggested for the interpretation of the language of a very young child (phase I), Halliday (1975) postulates that the *regulatory function* is “the function of language as controlling the behaviour of others” (Halliday 1975:19). These utterances are directed towards a particular individual and aim at influencing the addressee’s behaviour. Therefore, under this category lie all those meanings such as requests, demands, suggestions, etc...

Far from being restricted to children’s language, the regulatory function is also presented as one of the components of the adult’s language. Halliday (1975:108) understands that the adults’ language results from the interaction between the mathetic and the pragmatic functions of language. The mathetic function focuses on observing and understanding experience: “experience must be construed by the child with the help of the conversational partner; and language in the mathetic function is the tool for doing this” (Painter 2000:42). The pragmatic function, in turn, is “the use of language to make an effect on the world- to intrude, to change the situation in some way, which usually involves interacting with others” (ibid). Therefore, while the former is a means of learning *about* reality, the latter is the use of the symbolic system as a means of acting *on* reality.

However, not only is the dichotomy mathetic/pragmatic acknowledged in functional systemic studies. Indeed, “assertives” vs. “directives” (Searle 1969; 1976; Austin 1962) considering adult talk, or “descriptives” vs. “requestives” (Dore 1974; 1979; Akhtar, Dunham and Dunham 1991) when classifying children’s speech acts, are other labels used either for the utterances describing/asserting vs. those calling on the child to perform a specific behaviour.

Motivated by exploring interactional roles, and by how the teachers' language affects the children's behaviour, this study focuses on the regulatory function within the pragmatic function (see graph 21), or in other words, on directives (Searle 1976) (cf. figure 22below).

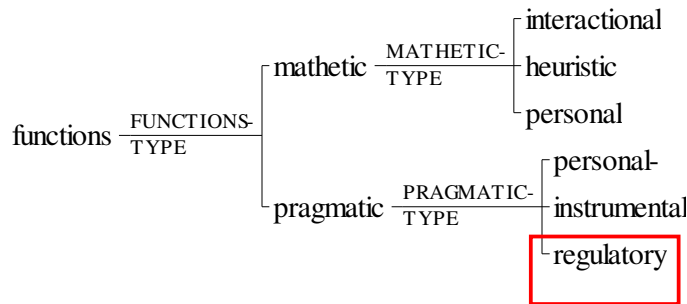


Fig. 21: Halliday (1975) Functions of language

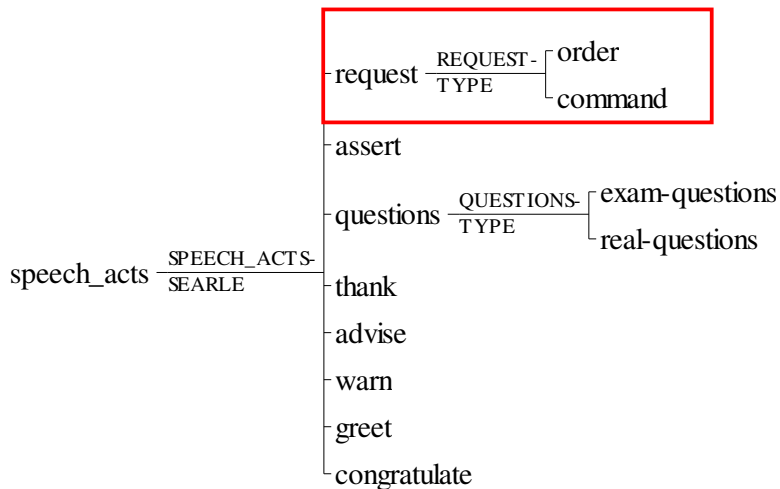


Fig. 22: Searle (1976) Speech Acts

It should also be mentioned that these became the focus of this study since, as Ervin Tripp (1976:26) claims, they are frequent at all ages, they are likely to be relatively sensitive to addressee features since they ask work of the hearer and they often lead to action and are thus easily identified. Therefore, the sessions that were analysed in this research were carefully selected according to the type of functions displayed, i.e. regulative functions, which not hazardly were mainly found in similar types of activities/tasks taking place in the EFL classroom.

4.1.2. GUIDE ON DYNAMICS OF NETWORK ELABORATION

This section presents “system networks” (in general) as a tool enabling the systematisation of the study of meaning and ulterior analysis texts since the principles and methodological bases here explained shaped the elaboration of the *Regulatory Functions System Network* elaborated in this investigation⁴ (*post* Hasan 1985, *post* Martin 1992).

Definition and creation of system networks

Inheritors of Firthian Linguistics, and as its very name indicates, Systemic Functional Linguistics gives priority to system. Language is conceived as “networks of interlocking options” (Halliday 1994:xiv, my italics). A system network of meaning, for instance, presents an inventory of ways in which meaning can be realised and analysed, and where there is an array of choices that will determine which meaning is being instantiated through language. In other words, not only does the network provide the meaning potential but leads the researcher to see which choices were made in order to convey one or other meaning:

“The network is a tool for establishing what is distinctive, and what is shared, between instances of meaningful behaviour. We are highlighting actual choices and so, unlike rules and “deviations”, every case study is in ‘the positive’; every observed behaviour changes the probabilities for every feature node (when chosen, or not chosen)” (Moore and Butt 2002: 4).

Designed from the most general characteristics or features concerning an aspect of language (in our case, the communicative function), systems are developed into more specific options, or subsystems. “Choice” comes into play in that the first option at the level of the most general feature will lead the speaker into a specific contrastive set of features, where only one option is to be selected. In turn, that decision will lead the speaker into a further choice, and so on until there is no further option in the path. Each of these systems or subsystems is concerned with one type of contrast or opposition and they are ordered along a scale of delicacy from left to right, whose extension depends on the researcher’s will: “and we go on as far as we need to, or as far as we can in the time available or as far as we know how” (Halliday 1994:xiv).

⁴ Our system network is presented in Chapter 5, being at the same time a created tool to analyse communicative functions at the discourse semantic level and is then developed in Chapter 6, since it enabled to account for all the different regulatory functions obtained in our data (thus, a finding).

Following the mechanics of networks (van Leeuwen 1996; Butt 2002), systems are drawn conventionally. Each system, is made of a cluster of systems or sub-systems which can be identified vertically and that are called “domains of contrast” or “variables”. When interpreting a network, the reader must (as the speaker in discourse) choose within each sub-system, conventionally in angle brackets, one single option, which is in turn indicated by square brackets. Figure 23 below exemplifies what has been previously explained by drawing up the basic system of speech function (Halliday 1985/1994):

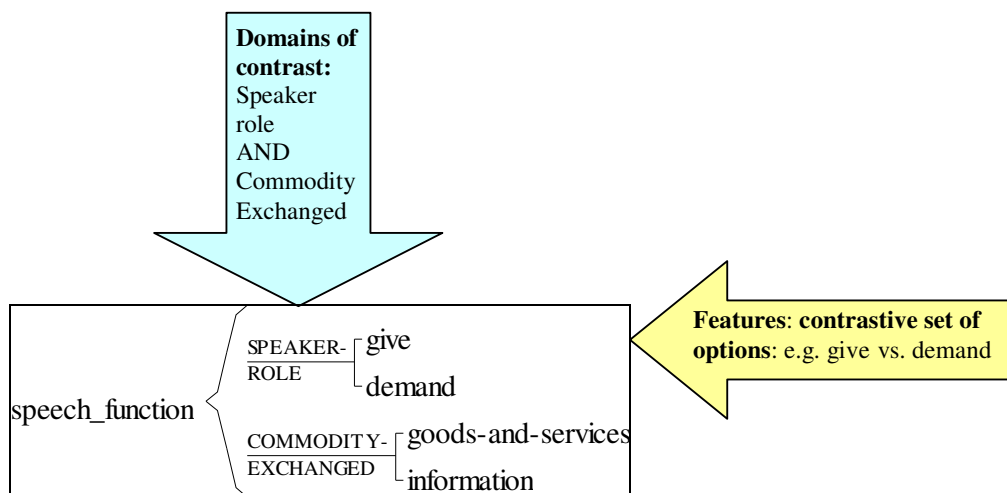


Fig. 23: Systemic network of speech functions

Figure 23 above is the system of speech functions, where there are two domains of contrast: the speaker role and the commodity exchanged. Since these domains of contrast or sub-systems appear within an angled bracket, it indicates that the speaker must make an option in each of them. Consequently, the speaker must first decide upon his/her role *and* about the commodity being exchanged. Furthermore, each domain of contrast adds further levels of delicacy in contrasts of meaning (signalled by red arrow in figure 23), which are represented in the horizontal axis of the network and that will be referred to as “features” throughout this study. As the convention is for them to appear in square brackets, the speaker must make only one choice within the contrastive set of options. Following with the example, the speaker can either “give” or “demand” as far as the role is concerned, and the commodity exchanged can either be “information” or “goods and services”. Meaning is the result of the choices that are made at all the levels of domains of contrast present within the network. The four

primary speech functions result from the interaction of the two main variables and, as it is better illustrated in figure 24 below, they each represent a particular complex of semantic features.

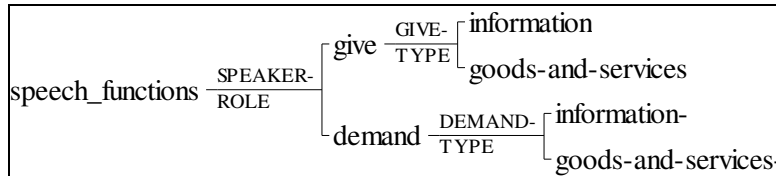


Fig.24: Primary speech functions

The speaker first chooses or adopts a *role* (give vs. demand), a choice that inevitably leads the speaker into a further option: the *commodity exchanged* (information vs. goods and services). In this way, if s/he gives information the speech function is *informing*, if the commodity is goods and services, s/he is *offering*, whereas if the speaker demands information, s/he is *questioning* and if s/he is demanding goods and services, the resulting speech function is *commanding*.

In this way, networks can (i) stand as the graphical representation of the different options the speaker (un)consciously makes in communication at the discourse-semantic stratum of language (instantiated through language) and (ii) become a tool of analysis where the researcher depicts the different array of choices at the discourse-semantic stratum of language, available to the speaker, and that enables him/her to operationalise the study of meaning by analysing the linguistic instantiation of those semantic options at the lexicogrammatical stratum of language.

Finally, in order to achieve the technical elaboration of our system, the *Systemic Coder* (Mick O'Donnell, www.wagsoft.com) was used in this study.

4.1.3. THE REGULATORY FUNCTIONS SYSTEM NETWORK

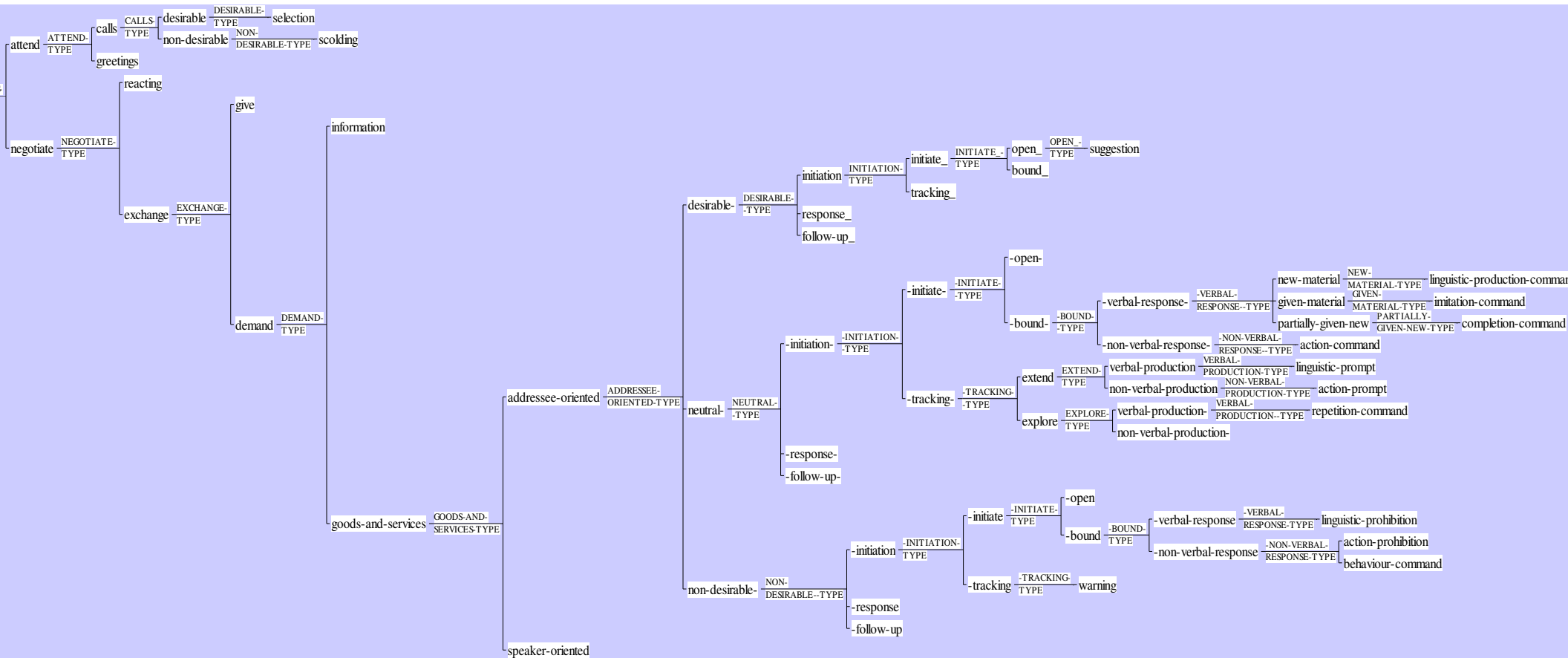


Fig. 25. Regulatory Functions System Network

4.1.4. REGULATORY FUNCTIONS TAXONOMY: A DISCOURSE-SEMANTIC ANALYSIS

REGULATORY FUNCTIONS				
Regulatory functions	Code	Variables within network and definition	Examples	Further comments
Call of attention: selection	AS	[Attend: Calls: Addressee-oriented: Desirable: Initiate: Bound] Any attention-getter used by the teacher to nominate or select the child's attention whose use presupposes their ulterior (non)verbal response.	Ex. 1. "Everybody, close your eyes"; "Victoria, ask her her name"; Ex.2. "Look here, one..."; "So, Listen, it's up to you". Ex.3. "Look at me everybody, picture number two"; "Milk, does milk come from plants?";	They are dependent moves (e.g. Used with commands, cf. ex.1 and 2). Some expressions convey specific emphasis or reinforcement and thus function as appeals (ex.3).
Call of attention: scolding	ASC	[Attend: Calls: Addressee-oriented: Non-desirable: Initiate: Bound] Any attention-getter used by the teacher to prohibit or reprimand the child whose use implies the end of some activity or behaviour.	Ex.1. "David, sit down"	
Suggestion	DS	[Negotiate: Exchange: Demand: Goods and Services: Addressee-oriented: Desirable: Initiation: Initiate: Open] Act made in the best interest of the child, used to help them toward some goal they desire or are assumed to desire. Its use does not require an immediate (non)verbal response.	Ex. 1. "you can do it however way you like, okay?" Ex.2. "you can paint it all different colours"	Note the degree of desirability and openness to differentiate them from commands.
Allowance	DA	[Negotiate: Exchange: Demand: Goods and Services: Addressee-oriented: Desirable: Response] Act giving the child permission to carry out a task that they already acknowledged.	Ex. 1. CH: Miss Landazabal, can I go to the toilet? TCH: Yes	Note the discursive move: response
Action Command	DC-a	[Negotiate: Exchange: Demand: Goods and Services: Addressee-oriented: Neutral: Initiation: Bound to non verbal response] Teachers' directives whose responses are non-verbal. They are neutral in that they guide the child's actions but are non-arguable (the child has no choice but to accomplish the demanded task), thus bound to the non-verbal response. As it is not possible to see whether the child perceives it as encouraging or inhibiting utterance, it is neutral.	Ex.1. "Stand up, please" "Cut up the pictures" Ex. 2. "Maria" (Maria stands up and gives the newspaper to the teacher).	This category differs from "instructions" (acts giving information, being desirable, and not requiring any immediate physical or verbal response). In this category, some "calls of attention:selection" DO have the illocutionary effect of requesting an action (ex.2).
Action Prompt	DPR-a	[Negotiate: Exchange: Demand: Goods and Services: Addressee-oriented: Neutral: Initiation: Tracking: Extend: Action] Tracking acts that reinforce a directive (preceding or following them), and that demand or request a non-verbal response (extend their meaning and illocutionary force). They are neutral since they may either encourage the child and thus be desirable to him/her or, on the contrary put some pressure on him/her.	Ex. 1. CH:Naranja TCH: An orange! Come on, Draw an orange!	Because prompts are extensions of commands, and accepting that commands are of two types: (i) action; and (ii) linguistic- It follows that prompts are also of two types. Here action prompts.

Action Prohibition	DP-a	[Negotiate: Exchange: Demand: Goods and Services: Addressee-oriented: Non-Desirable: Initiation: Bound to non verbal response: action] The child is here addressed as the potential doer of a forbidden activity and requested not to achieve some action (bound to an immediate non-verbal response) or stop an inappropriate behaviour, thus non-desirable to the child. We also include in this category commands of behaviour (sit down) as they alter the child's behaviour and are non-desirable to him.	Ex. 1. "Don't cut the papers like this"; Ex. 2. "Now we'll see this but...can't show this You can't show this". Ex.3. TCH: Pero bueno!What are you doing?!	This category includes "Action prohibitions" and "Commands of Behaviour" as both imply a non-desirable message for the child and expect an immediate change in the child's behaviour/actions.
Linguistic Command: Request L2 production	DC-I-m	[Negotiate: Exchange: Demand: Goods and Services: Addressee-oriented: Neutral: Initiation: Bound to verbal response: new material] Utterances whereby the teacher demands goods and services, but where g&s is verbal. Those commands ask the child to produce "new" material in EFL ("new" in that s/he is the source of the linguistic production).	Ex.1. "Now, we've got to ask him a question"; Ex.2. "Now, tell me what's this"; "What is this boy doing"; "Do you remember what's this?" Ex.3. "Can you put it in a sentence for me"; "How do you say this in English?"	Known as "Display questions"/ "Test questions" in the literature, they do not seek for information but check the child's knowledge. They aim at getting the child's verbal performance in English, the foreign language.
Linguistic Command: Request imitation	DC-I-im	[Negotiate: Exchange: Demand: Goods and Services: Addressee-oriented: Neutral: Initiation: Bound to verbal response: given material] Instances where the teacher provides the exact words the child is asked to repeat with a linguistic command (ex.1) or the words alone (ex.2), thus "given" material. Those are bound to the child's exact imitation.	Ex.1. Say the word red together Ex.2. CH: "What do you wear on your feet? ... Shoes." CH: "Shoes".	Although some studies have distinguished "exact repetitions" from "modifications" (expansions and reductions), they do not consider exact imitation of the model, keeping the pragmatic function of the original.
Linguistic Command: Request repetition	DC-I-r	[Negotiate: Exchange: Demand: Goods and Services: Addressee-oriented: Neutral: Tracking: Explore: Bound to verbal response] Instances whereby the child is asked to repeat information s/he has already uttered (bound to verbal repetition). They are desirable in that they contribute to reinforce the child's input (pedagogic purpose). Discursively, they are tracking moves as they explore some already mentioned material.	Ex.1.: CH: big one TCH: What colour is it? CH: orange CH: orange	Tracking moves differ from Initiating moves since they follow the child's answer: they request a complete replay of the experiential meaning. They are found at any point in exchange structure though are more common at the beginning, before follow-up moves (Martin 1992:69).
Linguistic Command: Request completion	DC-I-cm	[Negotiate: Exchange: Demand: Goods and Services: Addressee-oriented: Neutral: Initiation: Bound to verbal response: partially given material] Utterances encouraging the child to complete some given material, provided by the teacher. They are desirable in that they contribute to master structures and sentence patterns and are thus bound to the child's linguistic production.	Ex.1. TCH: Victoria knows the animal. I spy... CH: I spy with my little eye something beginning with p'. Ex.2. TCH: It's vvvvery...CH: It's very very dangerous TCH: It's very dangerous	The teacher initiates the exchange by providing some linguistic material that the child completes by providing the missing word. Whether the child reproduces the cue the teacher provides (ex.1 and 2) in order to complete the utterance is not considered relevant.

Linguistic Prompt	DPR-I	<p><u>[Negotiate: Exchange: Demand: Goods and Services: Addressee-oriented: Neutral: Initiation: Tracking: Extend: Linguistic production]</u> Tracking acts that reinforce a linguistic command (preceding or following them), and that demand or request an immediate verbal response (extend their meaning and illocutionary force).</p>	<p>Ex.1. TCH: Say the word red together. All of you together. Now CH: Red Ex.2.TCH:Oh! Thank you, yes right. Carry on...CH: I play with Miguel</p>	<p>Because prompts are extensions of commands, and accepting that commands are of two types: (i) action; and (ii) linguistic- It follows that prompts are also of two types. Here, linguistic prompts.</p>
Linguistic Prohibition	DP-I	<p><u>[Negotiate: Exchange: Demand: Goods and Services: Addressee-oriented: Non-Desirable: Initiation/Tracking: Bound to verbal response]</u> They are instances whereby the child is forbidden to carry out a verbal action (speak in L1, use a word in wrong position), thus non-desirable to the child.They are to be found in initiation (the teacher is thus warning) or tracking moves (to re-direct the child's linguistic production), before a follow-up is reached.</p>	<p>Ex.1."And don't say it in Spanish"; Ex.2. TCH; oh! You're not a baby. <i>You don't say "gray"</i>. What do you have to say? CH: The train is grey.</p>	<p>Linguistic prohibitions are to be differentiated from linguistic feedback the teacher may provide in a follow-up turn.</p>

Table 25. REGULATORY FUNCTIONS TAXONOMY: A DISCOURSE-SEMANTIC ANALYSIS

APPENDIX 4.2. VALIDATION OF THE INSTRUMENT
Standardization session

NN/NC/S3

Focus on functions <AS>;<ASC>; <DP-a>; <dc-b>; <dc-a> <DC-l-m>; <dc-l-Cm>

[...]

1. TCH: I am tired ((to another child)).
((many children are talking at the same time))
2. No _____
3. TCH: You say... Alberto close _____ pointing the door))
((a child comes near the teacher and asks her something)).
- TCH: No.
4. All right, sit down _____
5. Carmen _____
6. Sssshh _____
7. look _____ look \$C-IM-p-Rp\$ look _____ ((shows a picture))
8. Tell me _____
Many CH: < Un gigante>
9. TCH: And...
- CH: <No ha sido María eh>
- CH: Si ha sido
10. TCH: Sssshhh! _____
11. María , María , María _____
12. sit down please _____
13. Sit properly _____
14. sit properly _____
15. All right, so what's ((the teacher shows the picture again)) _____
CH: < Un gigante>
16. TCH: { How is he? } _____
CH: { A monster
17. TCH: How is he _____
18. Laura? _____
- CH: xxxxx
- CH: Cookies
- TCH: Is a xxx of cookies
- CH: xxxxx
- TCH: So he is not. All right. So,
19. Fernando _____
20. can you raise the hand, please? _____
- CH: < Sí>
21. TCH: Now, this one _____
22. What is this boy doing? _____ ((Showing a picture))
- CH: Swimming pool
23. TCH: He is swimming, swimming in the... _____
- CH: Swimming pool
- TCH: In the swimming pool, all right?
- CH: < A braza>
- TCH: Can you , can you swim? Can you swim?
- CH: Yes.
24. TCH: Yes! Show me _____
25. show me _____ ((pointing her eye))

26. How, how do you swim? _____ ((made a movement as if she was swimming))
 Yes, very good. Like this ((pointing to a child))
 CH: < Se nada así>
 TCH: Like this ((pointing to a child)) ((leaves the picture on the blackboard)).
 Very good,
 27. now this one _____ ((shows a picture))
 28. What is this one doing? _____
 CH: Basketball ((all together))
 29. TCH: Miguel Angel _____
 30. The boy is playing (rising intonation).. _____
 CH: < Baloncesto>
 TCH: no ! She said, he said the girl is playing basketball.
 CH: No, no. The..
 TCH: The girl is playing basketball
 CH: No, the boy..
 TCH. Ah a boy, a boy. All right, a boy. A boy. Very good, so now,
 31. the boy is ... _____
 32. Victor _____ ((pointing to a boy))
 CH: Jumping
 CH: Girl
 CH: This is a girl
 TCH. It's a girl! Yes.
 33. And the girl is... _____
 CH: Jumping roll
 TCH: Jumping!
 CH: Jumping roll!
 TCH: With the jumping roll , very good
 ((talking to a child)).
 34. No! _____
 35. sit down _____
 ((showing another picture))
 36. And what is this? _____
 CH: Playing tennis
 CH: Playing tennis
 37. TCH: "A boy, a boy.... is playing tennis"
 CH: No, a girl
 TCH: A girl, a girl.
 38. Miguel Angel _____
 what is it, _____

.....

NN/NC/N1

Focus on functions <AS> <DC-l-m><DC-l-im><DC-l-cm><DPR-l><DC-l-re><DS>

1. TCH: Guillermo _____
 2. you are the teacher
 3. And you say, for example er, # sit down Rosa please _____
 CHI: <L1 Que no veo L1>
 4. TCH: Guillermo is going to say, ehh, Alejandro please, you say Alejandro.. can you give me a blue pencil? Alejandro, come here blue with blue, takes blue goes there looks for pencils and puts them in the blackboard, all right? And you say, blue pencil, all right?
 5. You _____
 6. blue pencil _____
 7. come on _____

8. Guillermo _____
((tch does an example))
CHI: [(COUGH)]
CHI: [<L1 Que no veo L1>]
CHI: Alejandro
9. TCH: Alejandro _____
10. can you give me..? _____
CHI: can you give me ..?
CHI: (COUGH)
11. TCH: what? _____
CHI: <L1 ¿ya? Si estás ahí! L1>
12. TCH: come on _____
13. can you give me, what? _____
14. Blue pencil? _____
15. red door ? _____
16. yellow [window]? _____
CHI: [purple] window
TCH: purple window,
17. come on! _____
CHI: in the blackboard
CHI: <L1 ¿a dónde voy? L1>
18. TCH: look for the window there ((points to the flashcards))
CHI: <L1 ¡ahííí! L1> ((child points))
19. TCH: shhh!
CHI: < L1 ¡que se acaba el tiempo L1>, [<L1 ¡que se acaba el tiempo! L1>]
20. TCH: where's the window? Where's the window? _____
21. No, this is the, [is this a window?] _____
CHI: [nooo!]
TCH: [no]
22. TCH: window _____
23. come on
24. look for the window
CHI: <L1 ¡Que se te acaba el tiempo Alex! L1>
25. TCH: [shhh!]
CHI: [< L1 Uno, dos, tres, cuatro, cinco, seis L1>]
26. TCH: [<L1 En inglésL1>] _____
CHI: one, two, three, [four, five, six]
27. TCH: [ok now, let it there
28. and...come on ((two clappings)) _____
29. and the colour?(rising intonation) _____
30. The colour? _____
CHI: <L1 ¡Que lo digas! L1>
31. TCH: and now, what's this? _____
CHI: yellow
32. TCH: come on _____
33. aloud _____
34. , what's this? _____
35. .. blue door? ..blue door? _____
CHI: nooo
CHI: purple
TCH: [blue pencil]
CHI: [purple]
CHI: no, purple
36. TCH: purple... what? _____
CHI: purple window

TCH: purple window, very good, Andrea. Purple window, thank you,
37. Alejandro!
38. Sit down, please
CHI: me, me, me, me, me, me
39. TCH: shhh!

.....

APPENDIX 4.3. VALIDATION OF THE INSTRUMENT
Samples from corpus analysed by the external coders

TEXT 1: NS

TCH: Ehmm.. Who can <x__x>..

1. Could you read that for me? _____

That word ((lengthening)) that is not going to work.. I'm gonna have someone standing in a chair... ((Putting a chair)) And that someone is going to choose the words for me.. I'm not going to choose them... umm.. Juan Carlos is going to choose them.. Would you like a ruler?

2. Juan Carlos? _____

Can you reach?.. Would you like a ruler?

CH: (Juan Carlos) I don't reach <x up x> there.

TCH: Well..

3. Can you tell me the ones that I'm going to ask the children?

4. Tell me which ones.. which ones you think they are _____

5. Which ones you- did we do the other day? _____ ((TCH points at them))

Right,

6. Could you reach those? _____

If you <x go x> on the chair.. can you reach them <x__x>, you think? ((he tries to reach)) ..Are you okay?.. Do you need a ruler or not?

CH: (Juan Carlos) Yes.

TCH: Well.. <x__x> in a case..

((The teacher gives it to him))

((Child gets on the chair))

7. Careful! _____

8. Don't jump on the chair _____

You'll fall down

All Right..

.....
((The teacher asks a child to point at words))

9. TCH: All right.. Would you like.. to point to another one _____..

10. Juan Carlos _____

Ohhh!

CH: Ohh! ((some))

CH: o-oh!

TCH: Ohh!!..

11. Paula _____

12. a minute _____

13. Read it first _____

14. Point to it _____

15. ..., Juan Carlos _____

(Paula doesn't speak) TCH: She's forgotten.

CH (Paula reads the word "be"): I be

TCH: I be I can only see one word there..

16. How many words can you see? _____

CH: One

CH: Two

17. TCH: Come near _____

18. Paula _____

.. ((She goes)) ..

19. Come near _____

20. Come here nearer.. _____
 CH: (Paula) <x One.. two x>
 TCH: Are you saying letters?
 CH: (Paula) Ah.
 TCH: Ah..
21. How many words can you see there? _____
 CH: (Paula) Two
22. TCH: Show me then _____.. ((Silence for some seconds))
 Aha!.. Now...
23. What are words made of? _____
 24. What?
- CH: Letters
 TCH: Letters... Right?... Words are made of letters.. Let's suppose.. I want the word.. "red"..
 Red.. Right?..
25. Just a minute _____
 26. Paula _____
 27. Come on here _____
 28. .. Will you stand up? _____
 29. León _____
 30. Celia _____
 31. Juan _____
 32. .. Stand up _____
- .. Now.. that is the word "red".. <x __ that's x> the word "red"..
 ((Teacher now gives a letter (r-e-d) to a different child))
 Now.. Who's "ra"?.. Who's "e"?.. Who "de"?
 ((Children raise their hands)) ..
 ((Teacher asks Paula))
33. TCH: How many letters have we got? _____
 CH: (Paula) <x Three x>
 34. TCH: But what word is it? _____
- CH: (Paula) Red.
 35. TCH: Red _____
 36. How many words did you say right now? _____
 37. .. Red _____
 38. How many words?.. _____
- CH: (Paula) Three
 TCH: Three?
39. .. Juan _____
 40. sit down _____
- .. So we have letter .. "ra" .. Letter "e".. Letter .. "de"..
41. Say the word "red" together _____
 42. .. All of you together _____
 43. .. Now _____
- CH: ((León, Celia and Juan)) Red
 ((Teacher asks Paula now))
44. TCH: How many times did they speak? _____
 ((Teacher looks at the three children))
45. .. Say it again _____
- CH: ((León, Celia and Juan)) Red
 CH: (Paula) <x three x>
 TCH: Three times?!
 ((Some children laugh))
46. TCH: León _____
 47. say "red" _____

- CH: (León) Red
48. TCH: Celia _____
- CH: (Celia) Red
CH: (Juan) Red
49. TCH ((to Paula)): How many times? _____
- CH: Three?
50. TCH: Sssshhh! _____
- CH: (Paula) <x Three x>
51. TCH: "Red" _____
52. all together _____
53. One.. two.. three.. _____
- CH: ((León, Celia and Juan)) Red
54. TCH ((to Paula)): How many times did you hear [[they speak]]?

- CH: (Paula) I don't know
TCH: Really?
CH: <x__x> the other say.. and the other say <x it x> all, and then <x rr x> very quickly..
redd..
55. TCH: <x__x> Could you say it together please and tell me? _____
56. .. Put your hands up if you hear "red" three times one after the other.. or if you
whether you hear one word.. altogether. _____
- CH: ((León, Celia and Juan)) Red
57. TCH: Could you hear one word? _____
- CH: ((all)) Yes
58. TCH: <x__x> Sit down just a minute _____
59. .. Let- Let's try again _____
.. emmm..
60. Irene _____
61. Lucía _____
62. Jacobo _____
63. Carla _____
64. Stand up where you are _____
- ... We're gonna change the colours this time.. It'll be blue .. All right?.. So.. Who's "b"? ((the children raise their hands alternatively)) .. Who's "l"?.. Who's the "u" for umbrella?.. And who's the "e" at the end? .. It sounds silly, doesn't it, but it makes "blue"..
So....
65. Are you a letter or a word? _____
66. Irene? _____
- CH: (Irene) A word- A letter..
67. TCH: Are you a letter or a word? _____
- CH: (Lucía) A letter
68. TCH: Are you a letter or a word? _____
- CH: (Jacobó) A letter
69. TCH: Are you a letter or a word? _____
- CH: (Carla) A letter
70. TCH: All together _____
71. what are you? _____
- CH: ((Many)) A word!
TCH: A word..
72. Words are made of? _____
- CH: ((Many)) Letters
73. TCH: Numbers are made of? _____
- CH: ((some)) Numbers

- CH: ((Many)) Pieces.
TCH: Right.. So.. Could you say,
74. Marta _____
I count three
75. can you say the word .. blue? _____
76. .. One, two, three.. _____
CH: ((Tree children)) [Blue!]
CH: ((one of the children)) [Glue!]
((they all laugh))
TCH: But, we changed.. we changed.. Right..
77. After three you say the word "blue" _____
78. Jacobo _____
79. .. One, two, three.. _____
CH: ((The three children altogether)) Blue!
80. TCH: How many times did they say.. a word? _____
CH: (Paula) One
TCH: Once...
81. How many words did they say? _____.. ((Paula does not answer))
((To the children))
82. Say it again _____
83. .. One two three _____
CH: ((Three)) Blue
CH: Blue!
TCH: Ahh! Was a lot of rubbish!..
84. One, two, three.. _____
CH: ((The three children)) Blue!
85. TCH: How many words did you hear? _____
CH: (Paula) One
TCH: one..
86. What was that word? _____
CH: (Paula) Blue
TCH: ((To Paula)) Thank you
((To the three children)):
87. sit down _____
... Now!.. ((To Juan Carlos))
88. Could you point to that word again, please? _____
((He does)) ..
89. Sit down _____
90. <x_x>.. Ignacio _____
91. .. Could you tell me that word up there, please, that Juan Carlos is pointing to?

CH: (Ignacio) "Be"
TCH: "Be".. Were you pointing to "be"
92. Juan Carlos?
.. They didn't see you.. <x_x> see..
CH: yes
93. TCH: Right.. "Be".. _____
94. Can you put that word into a sentence? _____
CH: (Ignacio) Yes
95. TCH: oh! Let's see! _____
96. .. Would you like to stand up so I can hear you a bit better? _____
CH: (Ignacio) I am a bin.

TCH: A bin? ((Some children laugh)) I can't <x ___ at the end x> ..

97. Look! _____

98. .. Listen, Listen, listen _____

99. "Be" _____

((Emphasis)) .. not Bin.. not Beam.. Be..

With nothing at the end.. Be

CH: Only .

100. TCH: Hands down _____

... Now I know why you don't wanna do it

CH: <x__x>

TCH: Eh!

101. Did I ask you ? _____

102. Joaquín? _____

103. would you like me to open the door and show you the way out?

.....
((Children are speaking and shouting))

104. TCH: Sh! _____

CH: She has a big stomach ache. ((pronounces /estomak/))

TCH: She has a big stomach ache?!.. Poor thing! ((Some laugh)) What should-

105. What should we do if somebody has a big stomach ache?

CH: Miguel has a big [stomach ache.]

TCH: [Yeah, but he..] he.

106. What should we do? _____

107. .. Irene _____

CH: (Irene) Give something that-

108. TCH: ((Interrupting child who is speaking and talking to another child))

Could you sit still, please? _____

CH: (Irene) that <x rise a __x> .. Something that is good for <x__x>

109. TCH: ((interrupting)) Could you sit still, please? _____.

110. Ignacio _____

111. your shoe! _____

CH: (Irene) <x fruit x> is good

TCH: For stomach aches..

CH: (Irene) Yes

TCH: and <x__apple x> is good for stomach aches, is it?.. Are they magic? <x__ apple x> are they magic things?

CH: ((Many)) No!

112. TCH: Is there anything else we should do if you had stomach aches?

CH: Yes.. Yes..

113. TCH: <x__x>.. Nacho

CH: Yes

114. TCH: Would you sit properly, please? _____

CH: Yes

115. TCH: Virginia _____

116. what could you do if you had a stomach ache? _____

CH: (Virginia) <x__x>

117. TCH: Sorry? _____

CH: (Virginia) Do eat fruit.

118. TCH: Do what? _____

CH: (Virginia) Do eat fruit.

119. TCH: Do eat <x frost x>t? _____
 CH: (Virginia) Fruit!
 CH: Fruit!
 TCH: Ah! Do eat fruit!.. Oh! I told you I was going deaf!.. Do eat fruit.. So if you got stomach ache you have to eat something
 CH: No
 CH: No

120. TCH: I'm just asking.. Joaquín! _____
 CH: (Joaquín) <x Measure.. Measure x>
 TCH: Well, if you're Guille that <x you measure x>.. Cris
 CH: (Cris) Go to the bed.
 TCH: Go to bed?..
 CH: (Juan Carlos?) <x A story x>
 TCH: Well, that's not such a bad idea
 CH: A story book
 TCH: I read a story book <x__x>
 ((Silence))

 ((The teacher is pointing at words on some cards and the children have to use it in a sentence))

121. TCH: The one at the top _____
 122. Who knows the one at the top _____
 123. Lucía _____
 CH: (Lucía, reading): "He"
 TCH: .. Lovely..
 124. "He"... _____
 125. Could you put that into a sentence for me, please? _____
 CH: ((Many)) We do.. We do
 TCH: Did we do it?
 CH: ((all)) Yes.
 TCH: The same?
 CH: Oh Yes.. Yes.. Yes
 CH: <L1 Sí L1>
 ((they all speak at the same time))
 CH <x__x>
 CH: I said John!
 TCH: Oh! Yeah! .. Would you like to do it again?
 CH: No
 TCH: Well, sorry!

126. I'm asking Lucía! _____
 CH: (Lucía) Yes
 127. TCH: Lucía _____
 CH: (Lucía) Yes
 128. TCH: Sorry? _____
 CH: Yes

129. TCH: Come on _____
 (Lucía makes a sentence with the word "he"):
 CH: (Lucía) "He" is very good
 TCH: "He is very good". Now, you're talking about. What are you talking about? "He is very good".
 CH: (Lucía) Of- Of John.
 TCH: John again?! What is it that you do you the girls, John?

-
130. Sit down _____
131. Ehh, could you put that word in a sentence for me? _____
- CH: (Fernando) I play.
132. TCH: Wait just a minute _____
133. If I ask you a question how do you answer my question?

134. If I say "Can you do this for me?" what do you say? _____
135. Yes or no? _____
- CH: ((some)) Yes
136. TCH: Fernando _____
137. Can you put the word "play" into a sentence for me? _____
- CH: (Fernando) I play with -
- TCH: He wasn't listening!...
138. Look _____
- CH: (Fernando) Yes
- TCH: Oh! Thank you, yes, right.
139. Carry on _____
- CH: (Fernando) I play with Miguel
- TCH: I play with Miguel ((Slowly)) .. you play with Miguel every day?
- CH: (Fernando) ((Shaking his head)) No
- CH: No.
- CH: Sometimes.
- CH: Sometimes.
- ((They begin talking at the same time and the teacher gets angry))
140. TCH: Who am I asking? _____
141. Who am I asking? _____
- CH: (Fernando) With Carla
- TCH: With Carla.. Then why didn't you say Carla?!
142. Sit down _____
-
143. TCH: Listen to this.. _____
144. I was at school.. when along came.. a gigantic.... what? _____
- CH: Wolf
- TCH: Wolf?
- ((Some laugh))
- CH: Wolf.
- CH: Wolf.
- TCH: The next word,
145. "going".. _____
146. I was at school when along came a gigantic wolf who was? _____
- CH: Going to eat.
- CH: Going to eat me
- TCH: Going
- CH: Going to eat us.
- CH: Me.
- TCH: Going to eat me.. ((pointing to herself))
- CH: ((All)) Me.. me ..me ((pointing to themselves))
147. TCH: Now we're going to use the word "away".. _____ I
148. I was at school when... _____
- ((showing them to continue))
- what happened?
- CH: <x_x>
- CH: A long

TCH: Along
 149. TCH/CH: ((Some)) came a gigantic _____
 CH: <x manx>
 CH: Wolf.
 150. TCH: Wolf... Who was _____
 151. TCH: /CH: Going to eat _____
 CH: ((Some)) us.
 CH: eat me.
 CH: ((some)) Me.
 TCH: Me ((pointing to herself))
 CH: ((Some)) Me! ((pointing to themselves))
 TCH: Me ((pointing to herself))
 CH: ((Some)) Me! Me! Me! Me! ((pointing to themselves))
 152. TCH: [Sh! Sh! _____
 153. Quiet! Quiet!] _____
 CH: ((Some)) [Me! Me! Me! Me!]
 154. TCH: What's the next word? _____
 CH: You! You! You.
 155. TCH: "Away", "Away" _____
 CH: Where?
 156. TCH ((continues the story)): So I .. ((rising intonation)) _____
 CH: Was away.
 157. TCH: Sorry? _____
 CH: Was away
 TCH: Not "was away"
 158. .. So I..((rising intonation)) _____
 CH: Ran away.
 TCH: Ran away!.. So I ran away

 TCH: Do you know my house?
 CH: (Ignacio García) Yes
 159. TCH: What's the Spanish "my house"? _____
 CH: (Ignacio García) <L1 Mi casa L1>
 TCH: So do you know what "my" means?
 CH: (Ignacio García) Yes
 160. TCH: Right.. What about "for"? _____
 CH: In Spanish?
 TCH: Yeah
 CH: <L1 Cuatro L1>.
 TCH: I said: not number four... Now..
 161. We've got the word "for" _____
 162. I need the word "for" into a sentence for me _____
 163. .. Laura _____
 CH: (Laura) I have four sisters.
 TCH: Right.. Now..Do you remember I said that this is not a number?
 CH: <x__x>
 164. TCH: If you tell me how many sisters you have, are you telling me a
 number? _____
 CH: Yes.
 TCH: Yes.. Right,
 165. Lucía.. _____
 166. Could you tell me now, please? _____
 CH: (Lucía) It's my fault.
 167. TCH: Sorry? _____

CH: (Lucía) Is my fault.

TCH: Fault.. That's different.. You're thinking of a different word..

168. Joaquín? _____

169. This is "for".. "for".. _____

CH: <x__x>

TCH: Yes, disappear. ((he goes)) ..

170. Celia. _____

CH: (Celia) This cake is for you.

171. TCH: This what is for you? _____

CH: (Celia) This cake.

TCH: oh! Thank you.. This cake is ..for .. you. ((slowly)) <x__x>.. For.. Go away!.. For..

172. "For" in Spanish? _____

173. ... Nacho _____

174. Carla _____

CH: (Carla) <L1 Para L1>

TCH: I think so.. [I think so, Yes]

CH: (Pablo) [Can I go to the bathroom], please?

TCH: Yes ((he goes))

So!.. If I say,

175. Ignacio García..

This is for you.. Do you understand what I mean with "for"?

CH: (Ignacio García) Yes

TCH: Right.. Well, I see you know that one.

CH: (Ignacio García?) Yes

CH: I see.

CH: ((some)) I see.

TCH: I see a cat..

CH: I'm going to the sea.

TCH: ughhh

CH: I'm going to the park.

TCH: That is that one.. It sounds the same.. I'm going to see the sea.. Do you see?.. All right!..

176. Who thinks they can make a sentence with those three words there?

TEXT 2: NNS 1 (T)

1. Irene _____
2. Come here _____
- CH: <x <L1 déjame L1> your <L1 Lápiz L1> x>
- CH: <L1 Un momento! L1>
- CH: <x your <L1 Lápiz L1> .. your.. <L1 el borrador más bueno L1> x>
3. TCH: Irene , Irene _____
4. what's that? _____ ((pointing))
5. What's that?
- CH: <L1 Es mío L1>
- CH: <L1 Toma! L1>
- TCH: It's a wallet
- CH: Wallet? Why?..
- TCH: a <x sweeps x>... a <x sweeps's here x>..
6. Can you say that.. "sweeps" ? _____
7. Can you repeat? _____
- CH: sweeps
- TCH: Very good.. Okay.. Excellent!
- TCH: ((To another child)) Whose are those?.. No, not the colours.. Whose.. Whose are those?.. You know <x__x>..
8. [Ask him to <x__x>
- CH: [<L1 Como tú has hecho L1>].. <L1 ¡Como tú has hecho, Javi! L1>
- ((TCH speaks to children who are walking in the class)):
9. TCH: Alberto! _____
10. .. Javier! _____
11. Go back to your sit! _____
12. Javier! _____
13. Don't do that! _____
- CH: ((all)) Don't do that. ((in a kind of musical way))
14. TCH/ CH: ((All) Don't...do that _____
15. Don't do that! _____
- CH: ((all)) <L1 No hagas eso.. No hagas eso.. No hagas eso L1>
- TCH: Whose is this?
- CH: ((Some)) <L1 ¡De Diego! L1>
16. TCH: Diego _____
17. What's this? _____
18. Diego? _____
- CH: (Diego) <x__x>
- TCH: Very good, Diego ((A child who was sticking the paper , and did it wrong, goes away))
19. Come here! _____
20. Where is the line? _____
- CH: Under... <x Beneath x>
- TCH: <L1 Aquí abajo L1> ..
21. Take it off _____
- ((the child does))
- CH: <x__x>
22. TCH: ((to the previous child who stuck the paper wrong)) On the line _____
23. On the line ((pointing)) _____
- You put it on the line .. <L1 Como cuando tiendes la ropa en casa L1> .. You put the clothes on the line...
24. ((To Irene)) No, no
25. not there _____
26. On the line _____

27. Irene _____
28. You put it on the line _____
29. Look _____
30. like this _____
.. Eh, Irene?.. Yes?
31. ((To the previous boy)) <L1 pero aquí L1> _____
32. like this _____
33. here _____
, ((following the line with her finger))
34. look.. <x A long x> line for you ((he finally sticks it well)) ..
35. Yes
36. like that _____
((To another child)) What's the matter?... What's the matter?
CH: <L1 <x__x> L1>
CH: <L1 <x__x> L1>
37. TCH: Sit down! _____
CH: <L1 Yo no he sido L1>
((Irene has stuck her piece of paper wrong, literally, on the line))
38. TCH: Where is the line? ((She points to the upper line)) _____
39. This line up here? ((pointing to it)) or this line down there? _____
40. It has to be on the line _____
((pointing where the clothes have to hang)) ((They unstick it)) ...
41. Where is the line?((the child points to it))
42. <L1 Aquí? L1>
43. So you put it on the line _____
... <L1 Como en casa L1> ... <x <L1 Mami L1> x> put the clothes on the line, right? ((Irene nods)) Yeah?.. <x__x> ((For some seconds, the teacher cannot be understood)) You see, that's better.
((The teacher stops a child))
44. TCH: No _____
45. You can try first the trousers and the <x__x> _____
46. .. And then you can try the shorts with the shirt _____
47. .. Different things! _____
48. .. You can try them on _____
... Whose is this?
CH: Laura
49. ((TCH wants the child to dress the paper boy)): Laura!... _____
50. Can you put this? _____
51. What's this? _____
52. .. What's the name? _____
CH: (Laura) <L1 falda L1>
TCH: <L1 Falda L1>..
53. And the name in English? _____..
<L1 ¿No te acuerdas? L1>
((The child shakes her head))
54. TCH: "Sss _____
CH: Skirt
TCH:... Skirt.. Very good, Laura... <x you know ____x> ((Giving the glue to the child))
CH: <L1 ¿Dónde lo pongo? L1>
TCH: On the line ((pointing))....

Whose are these? ((the child comes to get the piece of paper and he also gives the teacher his finished worksheet))

55. What are these? ((Referring to the cut picture)) _____

CH: <x__x>

TCH: Very good..

((Teacher is guiding children as to how to “dress” boys and girls she’s giving in paper)

56. Put them on the line _____

.... What do you want?

57. .. a boy or a girl? _____

CH: The boy.

TCH: The boy.

This is cut? You’ve cut the boy? .. <x__x>

((For some seconds, the teacher cannot be understood)) .. <x__x> this on..

58. Or maybe this with these _____ ..

59. Or these with that _____

60. or this off _____

.. and the hat.. ((For some seconds the teacher cannot be understood)) Okay?...

((to another child)) This was for.. Jorge.. This was for you, right? .. Thank you, Laura.. Very nice..

61. What is it? _____

62. What is it? _____

63. It’s a sss sss.. _____

CH: (Laura) Skirt.

TCH: It’s a skirt.. Very good.

CH: ((on the background)) <L1 Toma.. Toma <x__x> L1>

TCH: ((To the child who was sticking his paper and had just handed in his worksheet))

<x__x> ((Cannot be heard. She points at something. The child goes there)) ...

Whose are these? ((Nobody answers)) Whose are these?

64. Children! _____

65. girls! _____

CH: Laura.

CH: Laura.

TCH: Are they yours? ..

66. What are they? _____ ((It seems the child does not answer))

67. What are they? _____

CH: Trousers.

TCH: Not trousers, trousers are long.. These are trousers ((referring to her own)) ..

68. But these are _____

... ((Showing that the “shorts” are up to the middle of the thigh)) up to here....

69. You should know the name _____

.. these are yours..

CH: <x I don’t know the name x>

70. TCH: These are shhhh- _____

Sho...

CH: [Shorts]

TCH: [Shorts] Paula, very good. ((Referring to another girl, not the one she was addressing to))

71. And you put these shorts on- in... this little space here _____

72. Can you put that there? _____

73. You need some glue _____

((the child goes to get hers))

74. TCH: No! _____

-
75. There's one there _____ ((pointing, but the child goes to get hers. The teacher points at it again, the child gets the glue)) ...
76. Stick the short on the line _____
-
- ((Julito is painting everything red.))
- TCH: <L1 ¿Y por eso es rojo? L1>
- ((Julito nods))
- Yes?..
- Okay..
77. But don't- don't _____
- now,
78. use another colour.. _____
79. Not red all the time _____
80. <L1 Sí, otro L1> _____..
- ((To another child)) Okay..
81. ((To another child)) <L1 A ver L1> _____
82. Macarena _____
83. What are these? _____
- CH: ((Macarena)) <x socks x>
- TCH: Socks, very good.. ((To another child))
84. Can you close the door, please? _____ ((to Macarena))
85. And what's this? _____
- CH: <L1 ¿Me vas a preguntar todo? L1>
- TCH: Yes .. everything .. everything..
86. And this was a? _____
- CH: <L1 Blusa L1>
- TCH: Blouse.. very good..
87. And this is a? _____
- CH: (Macarena) Jumper
- TCH: It's a jumper, very good..
88. And this one?<DC-l-m> _____ (It is doubtful what she points to, either the trousers or the skirt)
- CH: (Macarena) Trousers
- TCH: No.. These are trousers? ((Macarena points to the trousers and the teacher to the skirt))
- CH: ((Macarena)) <x Skirt x>
- TCH: It's a skirt, it's a skirt, very good..
89. And these? _____ ((pointing))
- ((there is silence for some seconds))
90. What do you wear on your feet? _____ ((Silence for few seconds))
91. "Shhh _____
92. "Shhh _____
93. Shoes _____
- CH: (Macarena) Shoes..
- TCH: very good.... ((to another child))
94. What's this? _____
- CH: Jacket
- TCH: Jacket, very good..
95. and this? _____ ...
- It's a jumper..
96. And these are? _____ ((long silence))
97. Shhh _____
- Shorts... Short trousers..
98. <x of what sort? x>.. these are?
99. CH: <x trousers x>

100. TCH: And this is a? _____((long silence))
Shirt...
101. and these are? _____
CH: ((Interrupting the teacher and the child)) <L1 ¿Hay que cortar todo? L1>
102. TCH: One moment, please _____
103. These are? _____
104. Shhh.. _____
- CH: Shoes
- TCH: Shoes.. Very good..
105. And this a? _____ ((long silence. For some seconds)) ((to Macarena))
106. What's this? _____
CH: (Macarena) Ummmm
107. TCH: ((To the child who had interrupted)) Yes? What's this?
_____ ...
- CH: Hat
108. You said it _____
- CH: Hat
- TCH: Yes...Hat
- CH: <L1 ¿Recortamos todo? L1>
- TCH: <L1 ¿Qué? L1>
- CH: <L1 ¿Recortamos todo? L1>
109. TCH: Yes, yes.. Cut everything _____
- CH: <L1 ¿Y le ponemos todo? L1>
110. TCH: You can put the- For example, you can put the shorts with the t-shirt _____ ..
111. or then you can take it off _____
112. and then you can put the trousers with these jumper _____
113. ... <x Don't look for the x> scissors _____
114. And then you can put the socks with the shoes _____
115. And then you can take them off _____
-

TEXT 3: NNS (S)

TCH: Like this ((pointing to a child)) ((leaves the picture on the blackboard)).

Very good,

39. now this one _____

40. What is this one doing? _____

CH: Basketball ((all together))

41. TCH: Miguel Angel _____

42. The boy is playing ...((rising intonation)).. _____

CH: < Baloncesto>

TCH: no ! She said, he said the girl is playing basketball.

CH: No, no. The..

43. TCH: The girl is playing basketball

CH: No, the boy..

TCH. Ah a boy, a boy. All right, a boy. A boy. Very good, so now,

44. the boy is ...? _____

45. Victor _____ ((pointing to a boy))

CH: Jumping

CH: Girl

CH: This is a girl

TCH. It's a girl! Yes.

46. And the girl is... _____

CH: Jumping roll

TCH: Jumping!

CH: Jumping roll!

TCH: With the jumping roll , very good

((talking to a child)).

47. No! _____

48. sit down _____

((showing another picture))

49. And what is this? _____

CH: Playing tennis

CH: Playing tennis

50. TCH: "A boy, a boy.... is playing tennis" _____

CH: No, a girl

TCH: A girl, a girl.

51. Miguel Angel _____

52. what is it? _____

53. boy or girl? _____

CH: Girl < o> boy?

CH: { < Lo he dicho yo> }

54. TCH: A boy? _____

55. A girl? _____

CH: Playing football

TCH: Is she playing football? _____

CH: No

CH: Tennis

TCH: Oh yeah! Tennis

CH: Play tennis

TCH: All right, so

56. Laura _____

57. come _____ ((Laura goes near the teacher))

CH: Play football

TCH: No

58. sssshh!! _____
 59. Sit down _____
 60. Raquel _____
 61. tell her _____
 ((Raquel stands up)).
 62. No, no _____
 63. sit down I said.. _____ ((The teacher sits down))
 OK,
 64. Dani _____
 RAQ: xxxx ((Laura points to the first picture))
 TCH: Yes, very good.
 65. Another one _____
 66. Touch _____
 CH: Very
 CH: Very
 CH: OK Mackey
 CH: Berry to
 67. TCH: Fernando! _____
 CH: < Fernando que eres un bocazas >
 68. TCH: Sssssshhhhhh!! _____
 CH: < Tú si que lo serás >
 69. TCH: Fernando! _____
 CH: Tú
 70. TCH: Ssss, sssshh _____
 All right.
 CH: < Eres un bocazas eh >
 71. TCH: No _____
 72. Raquel _____
 73. can you repeat? _____
 74. Dani, Dani, Dani _____
 75. come on, come on, come on _____
 RAQ: The girl playing tennis
 76. TCH: Touch _____
 RAQ: { The girl playing tennis }
 TCH: { The girl playing tennis }. Very good, all right,
 77. TCH: ((calling somebody else)): another one _____
 78. Laura _____
 79. stand up there, please _____
 RAQ: The boy
 80. The what? _____
 81. TCH: Sit down _____
 82. Fernando _____
 83. sit down, please! _____ ((talking to Laura))
 All right thank you
 84. sit down _____
 Now
 ((a child tells her something)).
 85. TCH: No. I´m getting angry now. Very angry ((a child is talking to her)) Yes.
 CH: < Estás mintiendo >
 CH: < Quién yo? >
 CH: < No, tú >
 86. TCH: María _____
 87. how is the teacher?
 CH: Very angry

TCH: Very angry.

88. How is the teacher?

CH: Very angry

CH: Very angry

TCH: {Very angry}

CH: Very angry. Very angry

TCH. Yes, very angry

MAR: Very angry

89. TCH: Sssshhhh _____

90. María _____

91. please _____

all right.

92. Alejandro! _____

93. come on _____

94. please _____

{ And.. }

MAR: { Me, me! }

95. TCH: Now you have to be silent _____

96. María<ASC>\$MC-V\$

I'm sorry. ((Alejandro comes near the teacher)).

97. Come on _____

98. go to the blackboard _____

99. Miguel Angel _____

100. tell me _____

((Miguel Angel stands up and stays in the middle of the classroom)).

101. No _____

102. there _____

103. stand there _____

104. stand there

You have the xxxxx so you have to stand there. All right? Yes?

105. Come on _____

106. touch _____

MIG: An xxxxx

TCH. All right. ((Alejandro touches the picture with a monster)). Very good.

MIG: A basketball

TCH: The boy playing basketball

CH: The basket

107. TCH: What? _____

MIG: The girl playing tennis

TCH: Playing tennis?

((The boy touches the correct picture))

Very good!

108. Another one _____

((Maria stands up))

109. TCH: No _____

110. María _____

111. sit down, please _____

112. sit down _____

MIG: The swimming pool

113. TCH: What? _____

MIG: The swimming pool

TCH: The? The boy swimming ((Alejandro has touched the correct picture)). Very good! Boy swimming. All right.

114. Sit down _____
 Thank you very much.
 ((Alejandro runs to sit down again)).
 Now
 CH: Me, me!
 TCH. Now.
115. Everybody _____
 116. stands up _____
 117. Come on _____
- CH: Yes ((the children come round the teacher))
 TCH: All right, yes,
118. make a circle _____
 119. come on _____
 120. Make a circle _____
 121. come on _____.
 122. Everybody _____
 123. David _____
 124. come on _____
 125. Sssshh _____
 126. David _____
- eh!
127. Victor _____
 128. come on _____
- ((To María who is drawing))
129. TCH: No _____
 130. María _____
 131. stop _____
 132. stop _____
- All right
133. Sss, ssss, ssss, silent! _____
 ((TCH now talking Raquel to the middle of the circle)):
 Now,
134. Raquel
 135. here _____
 136. in the middle _____
- She's a teacher, right? And Raquel, she has come to say something like what she wants us to do.
 Jump? Sit down?... Dance? Sing? ((talking to María that is sat on the floor))
- CH: Stand up?
137. What? _____
- LAU: Stand up.
 TCH: No, no
 She has to say, anything, sit down! Stand up! Jump! ((clapping her hands))
 CH: < Señor, se ha colado Fernando >
138. TCH: Fernando _____
 139. you want to sit down? _____
- CH: < Qué diver >
 TCH: Yes?
 TCH: No, no.
 RAQ: Playing tennis
140. What? _____
- RAQ: Playing tennis
141. TCH: Playing tennis! _____

-
142. everybody_____ ((the children pretend they are playing tennis)).
143. Fernando_____
144. sit down_____
- Very good.
-
- OK, now,
145. Listen to her_____
146. Raquel_____
- ((Maria is not sitting properly))
147. María_____
- MAR: < Qué? >
148. TCH: Sit properly_____
- RAQ: Have you got the school bag?
149. TCH: What? _____
- RAQ: The school bag
150. TCH: Can you repeat please? _____
- RAQ: Have you got the school bag?
- TCH: Have you got the school bag? Let me see it
- CH: < Sí o no>
- TCH: Yes! Here you are ((Gives her the picture))
- RAQ: OK
- TCH: Thank you!
- LAU: { Me! }
- CH: { Me! }
151. TCH: Miguel Angel_____
- ((he is standing up)). Right,
152. sit down_____
- Right,
153. sit down_____
154. "Have you got a..?" _____
- MIG: xxxx ((He has his hand on his mouth))
155. TCH: Listen, please_____
- MIG: xxx
156. TCH: The what? _____
- MIG: xxx
- TCH: xxx
- CH: No, no
- TCH: No! ((surprised))
- ((children are moving and speaking))
157. Have you got the..? _____
158. Have you got the...? _____
- CH: Have you the?
159. TCH: { Have you got the...? } _____
- CH: { Have you got the puzzle? }
160. TCH: What? _____
- CH: Have you got the puzzle?
- TCH: Yes, yes, yes, sure. Is this a puzzle?
- CH: No
- CH: His a Kite
- TCH: It's a Kite. Yes, yes.
161. This one? _____
- CH: This is..
162. TCH: Now Carmen_____
163. sit down_____

164. Tell me 'Have you got...?' _____
CAR: Have you got the..?
165. TCH: the what? _____
((Carmen stands up))
166. TCH: No, no _____
167. sit down _____
168. Sit down _____
CAR: Have you got the triangle?
169. TCH: Sssh _____

APPENDIX 4.4. VALIDATION OF THE INSTRUMENT
Intercoder Reliability Test (Coder 1 vs. Coder 2)

		CODER2														Total
		as	asc	dca	ds	dclm	dclim	dclcm	dclre	dpri	dcb	dpra	dpa	dpl	dw	
CODER as	Number	64	0	2	0	1	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	72
	% of COD1	88,9%	,0%	2,8%	,0%	1,4%	4,2%	2,8%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% of COD2	90,1%	,0%	3,2%	,0%	1,2%	23,1%	6,5%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	17,9%
asc	Number	17	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	22
	% of COD1	13,6%	77,3%	9,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% of COD2	4,2%	100,0%	3,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	5,5%
dca	Number	0	52	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	5	1	0	0	62	
	% of COD1	,0%	,0%	83,9%	1,6%	3,2%	1,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	8,1%	1,6%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	% of COD2	,0%	,0%	82,5%	7,7%	2,3%	7,7%	,0%	,0%	,0%	11,4%	11,1%	,0%	,0%	15,4%	
ds	Number	0	1	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	14	
	% of COD1	,0%	,0%	7,1%	85,7%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	7,1%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	% of COD2	,0%	,0%	1,6%	92,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	11,1%	,0%	,0%	3,5%	
dclm	Number	0	0	0	76	0	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	81	
	% of COD1	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	93,8%	,0%	1,2%	4,9%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	% of COD2	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	88,4%	,0%	3,2%	20,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	20,1%	
dclim	Number	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	
	% of COD1	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	% of COD2	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	69,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,2%	
dclcm	Number	0	0	0	6	0	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	34	
	% of COD1	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	17,6%	,0%	82,4%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	% of COD2	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	7,0%	,0%	90,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	8,5%	
dclre	Number	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	15	0	0	0	0	0	17	
	% of COD1	5,9%	,0%	,0%	,0%	5,9%	,0%	,0%	88,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	% of COD2	1,4%	,0%	,0%	,0%	1,2%	,0%	,0%	75,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	4,2%	
dpri	Number	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	0	0	0	11	
	% of COD1	9,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	9,1%	81,8%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	% of COD2	1,4%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	5,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,7%	
dcb	Number	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	39	0	12	0	55	
	% of COD1	3,6%	,0%	3,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	70,9%	,0%	21,8%	,0%	100,0%	
	% of COD2	2,8%	,0%	3,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	88,6%	,0%	60,0%	,0%	13,7%	
dpra	Number	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	11	
	% of COD1	,0%	,0%	36,4%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	63,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	% of COD2	,0%	,0%	6,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	77,8%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,7%	
dpa	Number	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	0	0	8	
	% of COD1	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	% of COD2	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	40,0%	,6%	,0%	2,0%	
dpl	Number	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	3	
	% of COD1	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	100,0%	
	% of COD2	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,7%	
dw	Number	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	
	% of COD1	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
	% of COD2	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,7%	
Total	Number	71	17	63	13	86	13	31	20	9	44	9	20	3	402	
	% of COD1	17,7%	4,2%	15,7%	3,2%	21,4%	3,2%	7,7%	5,0%	2,2%	10,9%	2,2%	5,0%	,7%	100,0%	
	% of COD2	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	

Table 26: Contingency table⁵: Coder 1 vs. Coder 2

⁵ The *Contingency Table* corresponds to the cross-tabulation of two qualitative variables (coder 1 vs. coder 2 analyses). It is presented in 2 blocks (one for the different values or categories of the variable “Coder 1” (horizontally) vs. “Coder 2” (vertically)). In each block, the rows correspond to the different categories of the variable “regulatory functions” that have been assigned by coder 1, while the columns correspond to those that have been assigned by coder 2. Each cell presents the observed frequency of the regulatory function assigned by both coder 1 and coder 2 (row and column).

The figures 25-32 below illustrate the analyses of the intercoder reliability test carried out between coder 1 and coder 2 in chapter 7 above. The figures should be read as follows: on the horizontal axis appears the regulatory functions that coder 1 has identified. The bars, in turn, represent what coder 2 has interpreted.

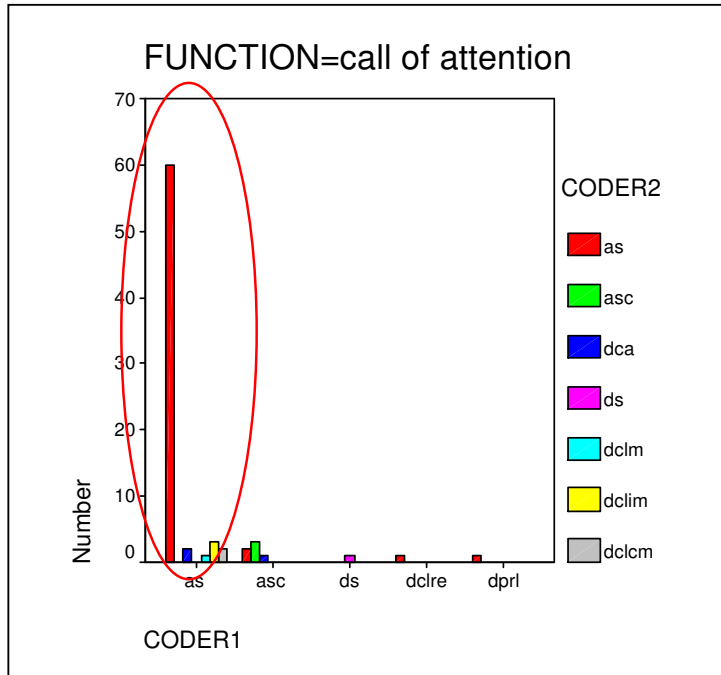


Fig. 25. Distribution of “calls of attention” across coders.

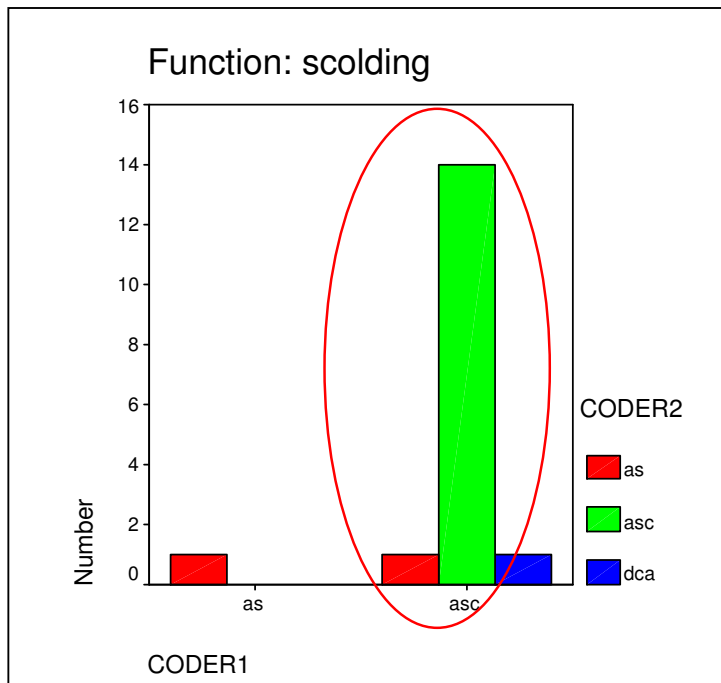


Fig. 26. Distribution of scolding calls across coders

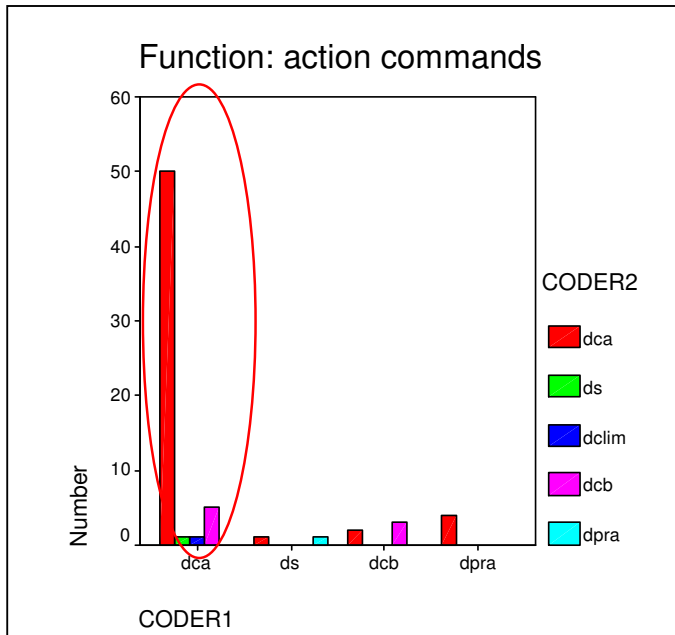


Fig. 27. Distribution of Action commands across coders

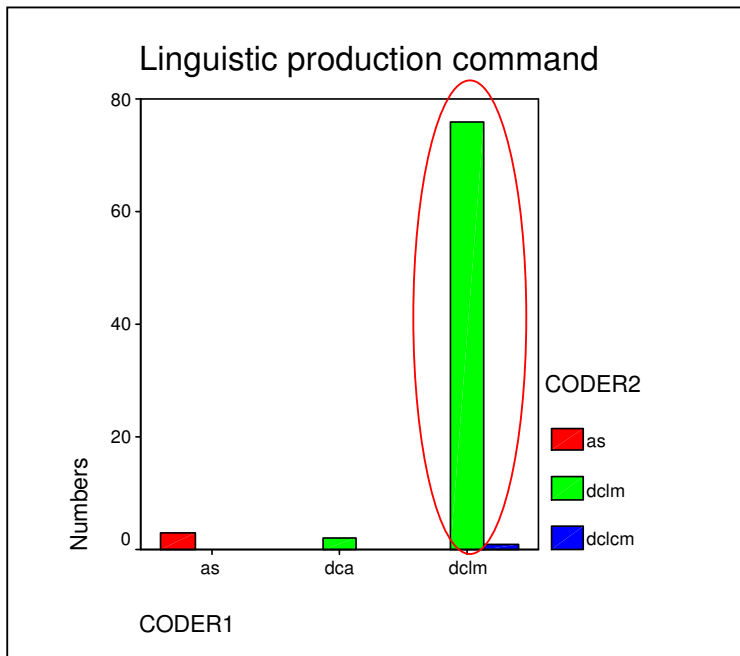


Fig. 28. Distribution of Linguistic production commands across coders

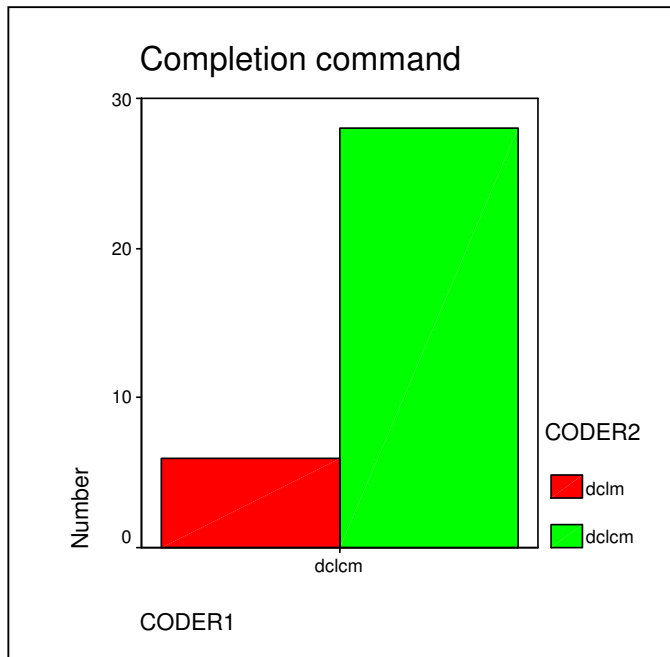


Fig. 29. Distribution of Completion Commands across coders

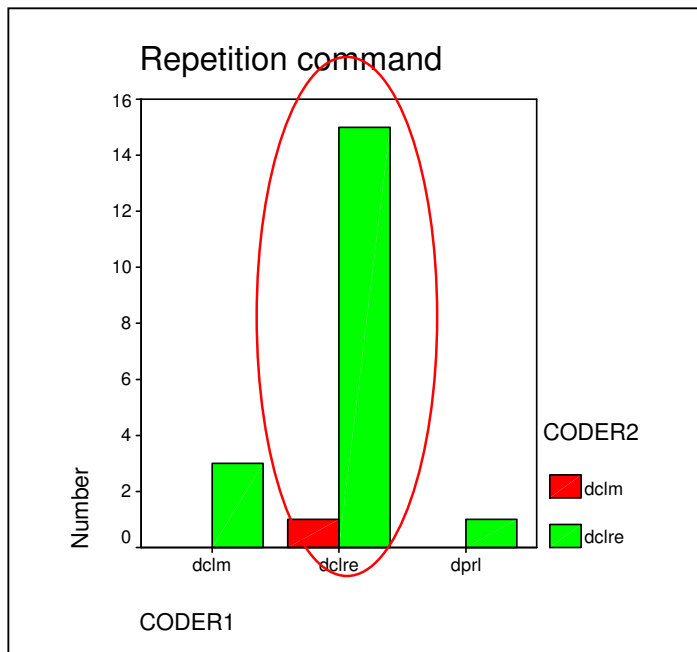


Fig. 30. Distribution of Repetition Commands across coders

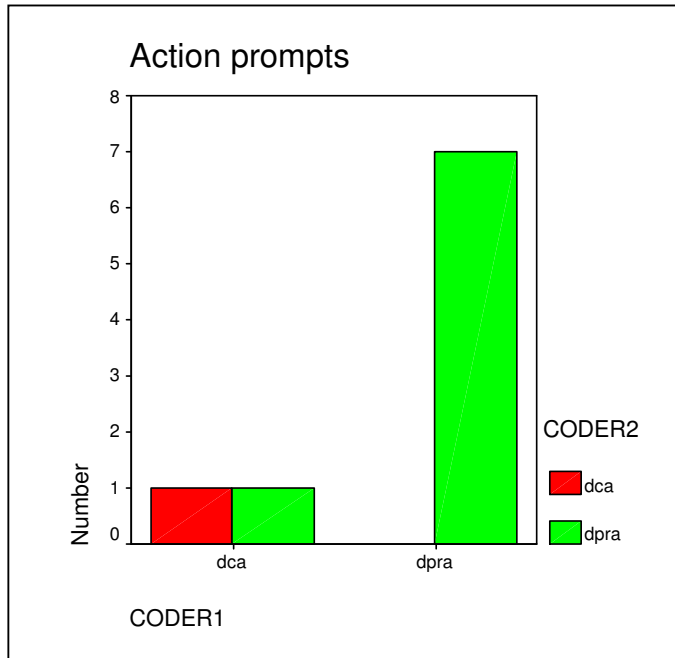


Fig. 31. Distribution of Action prompts across coders

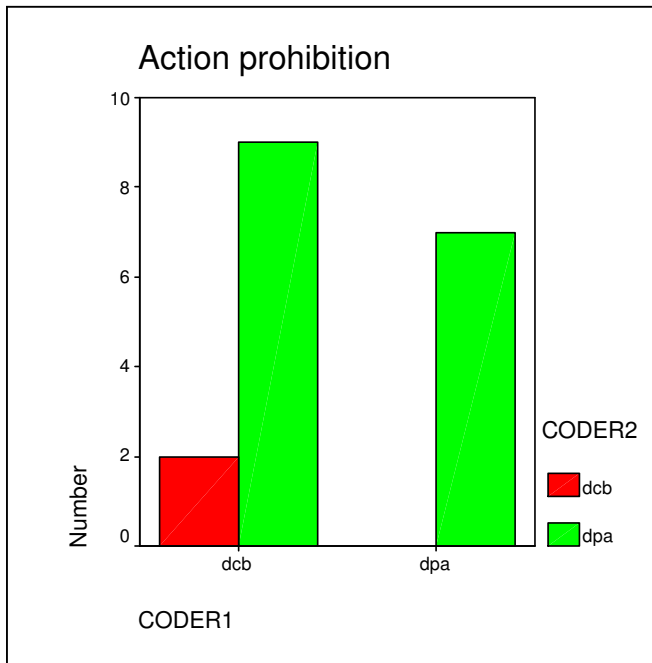


Fig. 32. Distribution of Action prohibitions across coders

APPENDIX 4.5. VALIDATION OF THE INSTRUMENT
Intercoder Reliability Test (Coders' final version vs. Standard)

Tabla de contingencia FUNCTION * AGREEM

FUNCTION		AGREEM														Total		
		as	asc	dca	ds	dclm	dclim	dclcm	dcire	dpri	dcb	dpra	dpa	dpl	dw			
as	Recuento	70	3	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	77
	% de FUNCTION	90,9%	3,9%	1,3%	1,3%	1,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	1,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de AGREEM	93,3%	16,7%	1,6%	7,7%	1,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	10,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	19,2%
asc	Recuento	2	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	17
	% de FUNCTION	11,8%	88,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de AGREEM	2,7%	83,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	4,2%
dca	Recuento	0	0	61	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	68
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	,0%	89,7%	1,5%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	8,8%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de AGREEM	,0%	,0%	95,3%	7,7%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	11,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	16,9%
ds	Recuento	0	0	0	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de AGREEM	,0%	,0%	,0%	84,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,7%
dclm	Recuento	3	0	0	0	79	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	82
	% de FUNCTION	3,7%	,0%	,0%	,0%	96,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de AGREEM	4,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	96,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	20,4%
dclim	Recuento	0	0	0	0	1	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	10,0%	90,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de AGREEM	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	1,2%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,5%
dclcm	Recuento	0	0	0	0	0	0	34	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	34
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de AGREEM	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	8,5%
dcire	Recuento	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	5,0%	,0%	,0%	95,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de AGREEM	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	1,2%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	5,0%
dpri	Recuento	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de AGREEM	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	90,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,2%
dcb	Recuento	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	33
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	,0%	3,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	97,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de AGREEM	,0%	,0%	1,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	59,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	8,2%
dpra	Recuento	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	9
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	,0%	11,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	88,9%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de AGREEM	,0%	,0%	1,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,2%
dpa	Recuento	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	0	7	0	0	0	0	18
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	61,1%	,0%	38,9%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de AGREEM	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	20,4%	,0%	70,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	4,5%
dpl	Recuento	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	2	3	0	0	0	0	9
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	44,4%	,0%	22,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de AGREEM	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	7,4%	,0%	20,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,2%
dw	Recuento	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	3	0	0	5
	% de FUNCTION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	20,0%	,0%	20,0%	,0%	60,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de AGREEM	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	1,9%	,0%	10,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	1,2%
Total	Recuento	75	18	64	13	82	9	34	19	10	54	8	10	3	3	0	0	402
	% de FUNCTION	18,7%	4,5%	15,9%	3,2%	20,4%	2,2%	8,5%	4,7%	2,5%	13,4%	2,0%	2,5%	,7%	,7%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de AGREEM	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 27: Contingency Table: Researcher vs. Coders' analyses⁶.

Contingency table 27 must be read as follows: the table is presented in 2 blocks (one for the different values or categories of the variable "Function" (horizontally) vs. "Agreement" (vertically)). In each block, the rows correspond to the different categories of the variable "regulatory functions" that have been assigned by the researcher, while

⁶ Contingency tables can be percentaged in three ways, depending on the base (cf. Elifson, *et al.* 1998:155). In table 7 above, one finds both percentaging down, where one can see that the percentages in each of the regulatory functions of the coders total 100% and percentaging across, where one can see that the percentages in each of the regulatory functions of the researcher total 100%. Moreover, each cell contains two percentages, the first one represents the percentage of the row (researcher) whereas the second stands for the percentage of the column (coders).

the columns correspond to the different categories of the variable “regulatory functions” that have been assigned by the external coders. Each cell presents the observed frequency of the regulatory function assigned by the researcher and the coders (row and column). Figures 33-43 below illustrate the analyses of the intercoder reliability test carried out between the coders’ final version and the researcher’s in chapter 6 above (cf. section 6.3.2.). The figures should be read as follows: on the horizontal axis appears the regulatory functions that standard has identified. The bars, in turn, represent what the coders have interpreted.

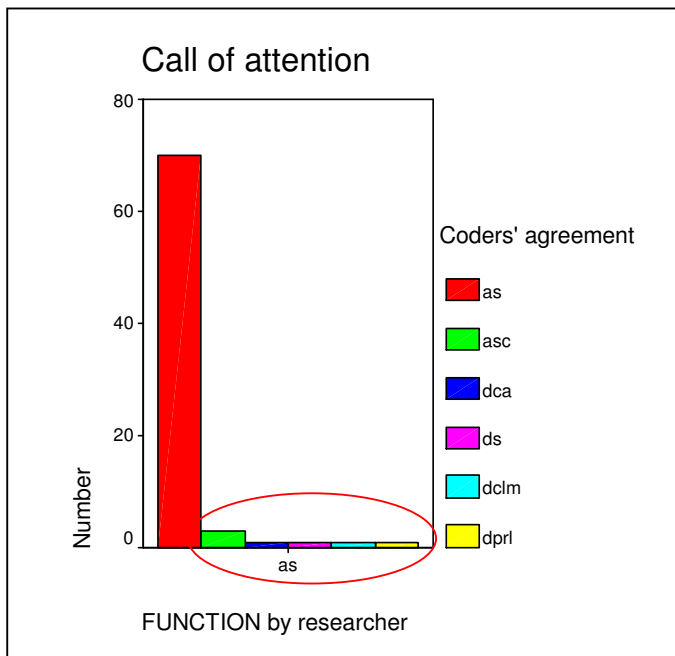


Fig. 33. Distribution of calls of attention across analyses: researcher’s vs. coders’

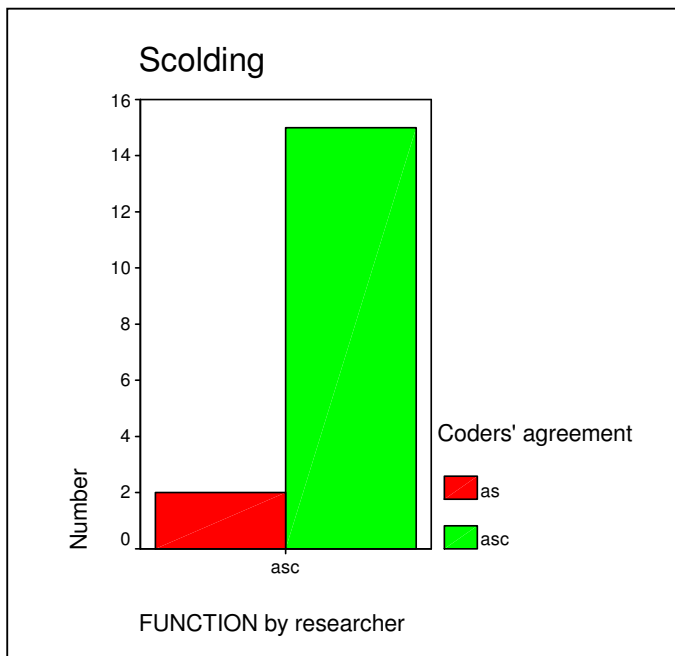


Fig. 34. Distribution of scolding calls across analyses: researcher’s vs. coders’.

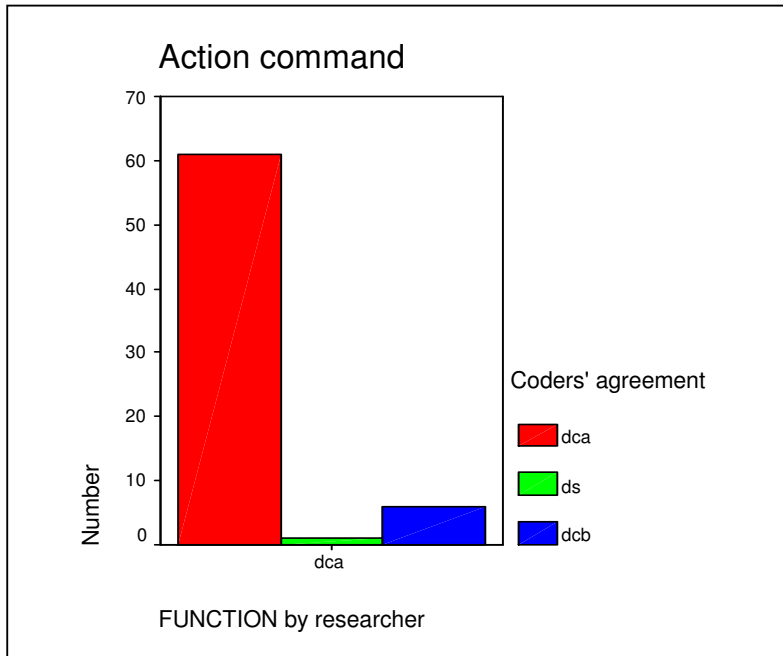


Fig. 35. Distribution of Action commands across analyses: researcher's vs. coders'.

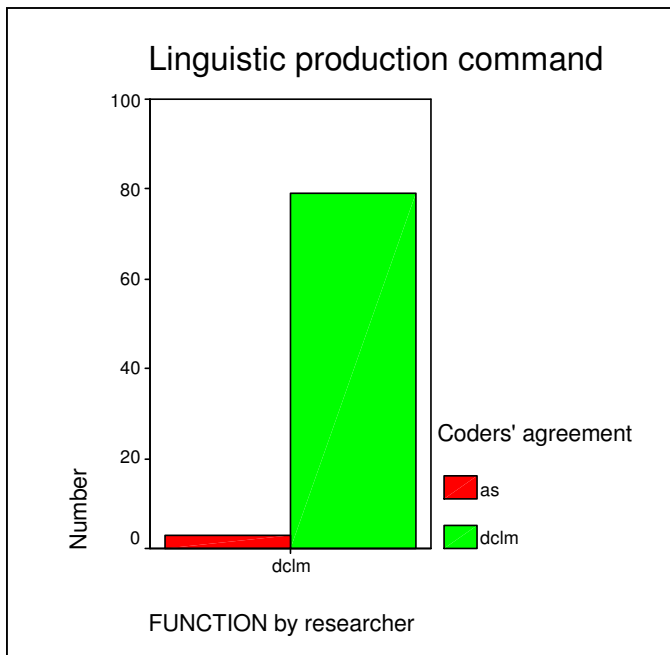


Fig. 36. Distribution of Linguistic production commands across analyses: researcher's vs. coders'.

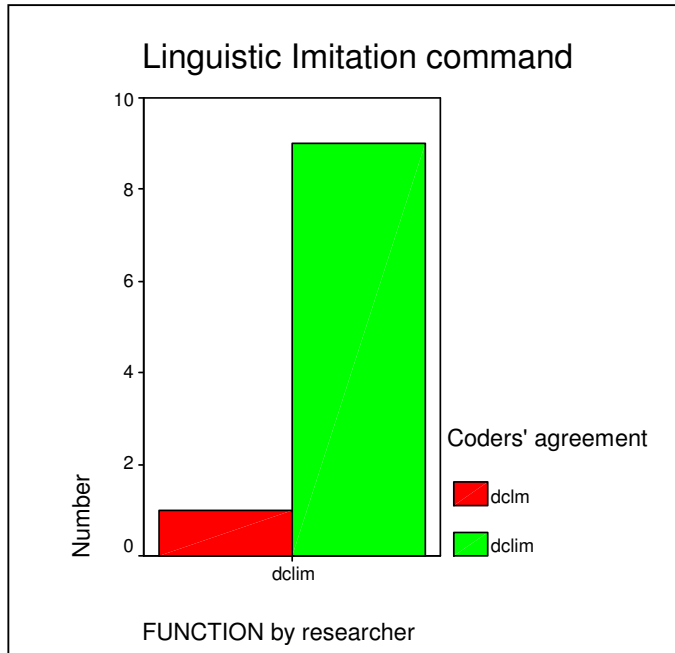


Fig. 37. Distribution of Linguistic imitation commands across analyses: researcher's vs. coders'.

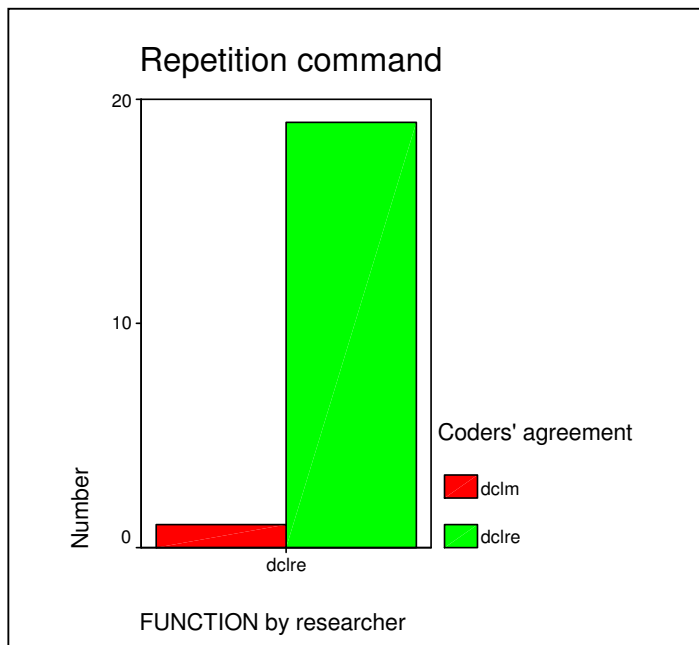


Fig. 38. Distribution of Repetition Commands across analyses: researcher's vs. coders'.

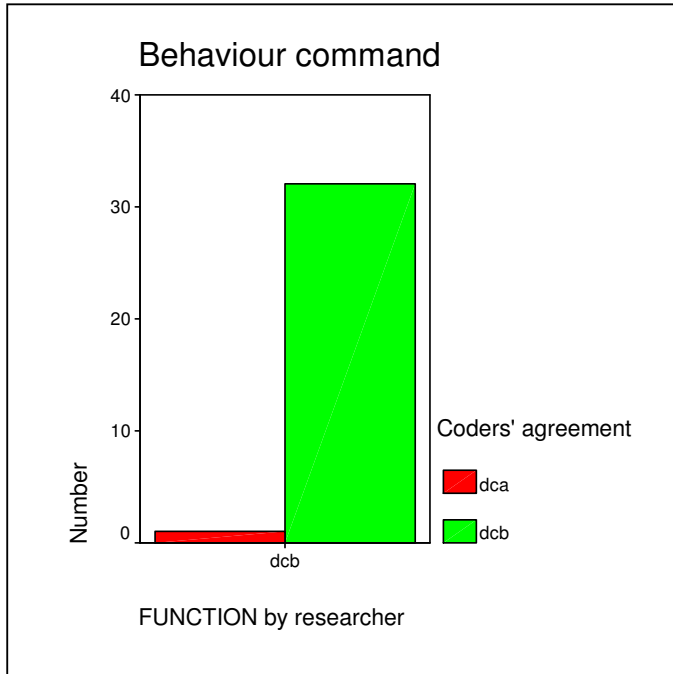


Fig. 39. Distribution of Behaviour Commands across analyses: researcher's vs. coders'.

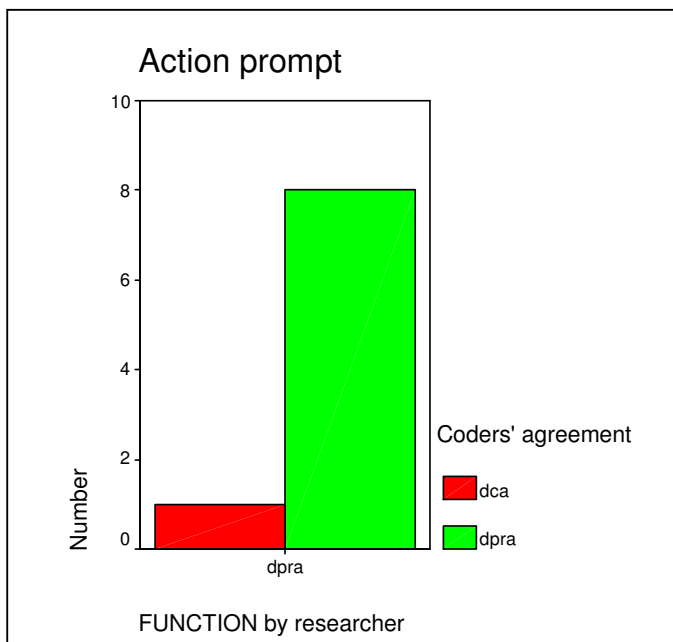


Fig. 40. Distribution of Action prompts across analyses: researcher's vs. coders'.

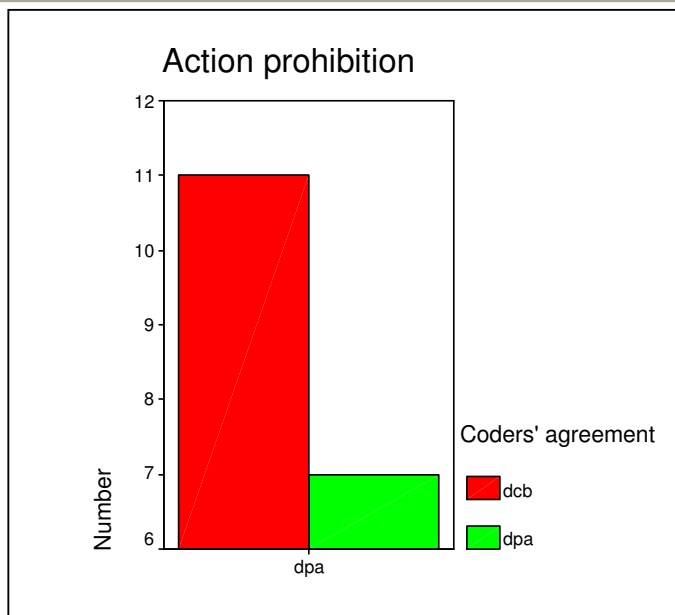


Fig. 41. Distribution of Action prohibition across analyses: researcher's vs. coders'.

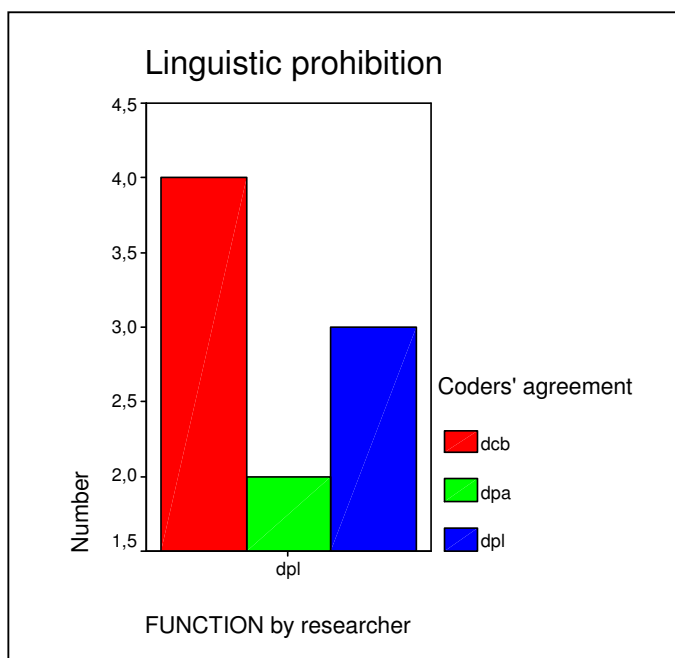


Fig. 42. Distribution of Linguistic prohibition across analyses: researcher's vs. coders'.

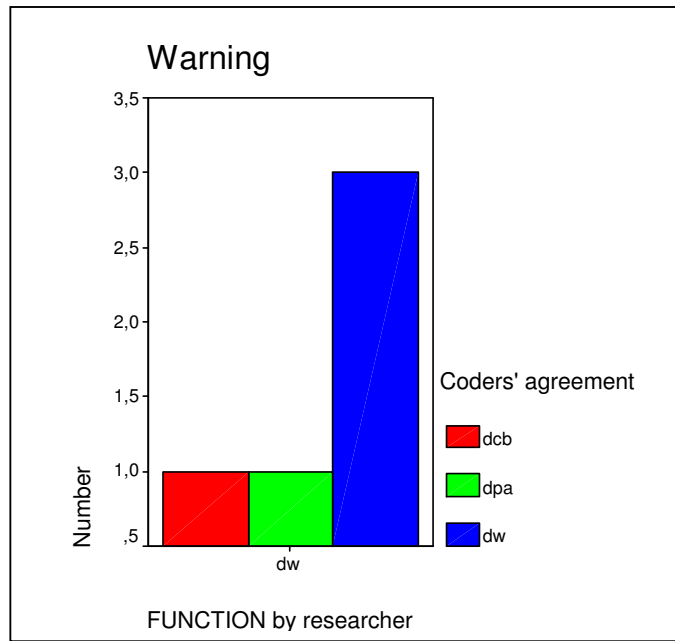


Fig. 43. Distribution of Warnings across analyses: researcher's vs. coders'.

APPENDIX 4.6. VALIDATION OF THE INSTRUMENT
Inter-coder Reliability Test: Coder 1 vs. Researcher

Contingency Table FUNCTION CODER1

FUNCTION as		CODER1														Total	
		as	asc	dca	ds	dclm	dclim	dclcm	dclre	dpri	dcb	dpra	dpa	dpl	dw		
as	Recuento	68	6	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	77
	% de FUNCION	88,3%	7,8%	,0%	1,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	1,3%	1,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER1	94,4%	27,3%	,0%	7,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	5,9%	9,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	19,2%
asc	Recuento	1	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	17
	% de FUNCION	5,9%	94,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER1	1,4%	72,7%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	4,2%
dca	Recuento	0	0	57	2	0	0	0	0	0	5	4	0	0	0	0	68
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	83,8%	2,9%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	7,4%	5,9%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER1	,0%	,0%	91,9%	14,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	9,1%	36,4%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	16,9%
ds	Recuento	0	0	0	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER1	,0%	,0%	,0%	78,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,7%
dclm	Recuento	3	0	2	0	77	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	82
	% de FUNCION	3,7%	,0%	2,4%	,0%	93,9%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER1	4,2%	,0%	3,2%	,0%	95,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	20,4%
dclim	Recuento	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	10,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER1	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	1,2%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,5%
dclcm	Recuento	0	0	0	0	0	0	34	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	34
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER1	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	8,5%
dclre	Recuento	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	16	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	20
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	15,0%	,0%	,0%	80,0%	5,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER1	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	3,7%	,0%	,0%	94,1%	9,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	5,0%
dpri	Recuento	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER1	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	81,8%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,2%
dcb	Recuento	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	32	0	0	0	0	0	33
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	3,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	97,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER1	,0%	,0%	1,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	58,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	8,2%
dpra	Recuento	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	9
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	22,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	77,8%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER1	,0%	,0%	3,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	63,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,2%
dpa	Recuento	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	0	7	0	0	0	18
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	61,1%	,0%	38,9%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER1	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	20,0%	,0%	87,5%	,0%	,0%	,0%	4,5%
dpl	Recuento	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	1	3	0	0	9
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	55,6%	,0%	11,1%	33,3%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER1	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	9,1%	,0%	12,5%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	2,2%
dw	Recuento	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	3	0	5
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	40,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	60,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER1	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	3,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	1,2%
Total	Recuento	72	22	62	14	81	9	34	17	11	55	11	8	3	3	3	402
	% de FUNCION	17,9%	5,5%	15,4%	3,5%	20,1%	2,2%	8,5%	4,2%	2,7%	13,7%	2,7%	2,0%	,7%	,7%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER1	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 28: Contingency Table between Researcher and Coder 1

Symmetrical values

		Valor	Error tip. asint. ^a	T aproximada ^b	Sig. aproximada
Nominal por nominal	Phi	3,009			,000
	V de Cramer	,834			,000
	Coefficiente de contingencia	,949			,000
Medida de acuerdo	Kappa	,849	,019	46,341	,000
N de casos válidos		402			

a. Assumiendo la hipótesis alternativa

Table 29: Cohen's Kappa coefficient. Agreement between Researcher and Coder 1.

APPENDIX 4.7. VALIDATION OF THE INSTRUMENT
Inter-coder Reliability Test: Coder 2 vs. Researcher

Table 30: Contingency Table between Researcher and Coder 2.

Tabla de contingencia FUNCTION * CODER2

FUNCTION	as	CODER2													Total		
		asc	dca	ds	dclm	dclim	dclcm	dclre	dpri	dcb	dpra	dpa	dpl	dw			
as	Recuento	64	3	3	1	1	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	77
	% de FUNCION	83,1%	3,9%	3,9%	1,3%	1,3%	3,9%	2,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER2	90,1%	17,6%	4,8%	7,7%	1,2%	23,1%	6,5%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	19,2%
asc	Recuento	2	14	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	17
	% de FUNCION	11,8%	82,4%	5,9%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER2	2,8%	82,4%	1,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	4,2%
dca	Recuento	0	0	57	1	0	1	0	0	0	8	1	0	0	0	0	68
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	83,8%	1,5%	,0%	1,5%	,0%	,0%	,0%	11,8%	1,5%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER2	,0%	,0%	90,5%	7,7%	,0%	7,7%	,0%	,0%	,0%	18,2%	11,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	16,9%
ds	Recuento	0	0	0	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER2	,0%	,0%	,0%	84,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,7%
dclm	Recuento	3	0	0	0	78	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	82
	% de FUNCION	3,7%	,0%	,0%	,0%	95,1%	,0%	1,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER2	4,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	90,7%	,0%	3,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,5%
dclim	Recuento	0	0	0	0	9	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	90,0%	,0%	10,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER2	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	69,2%	,0%	5,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,5%
dclcm	Recuento	0	0	0	0	6	0	28	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	34
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	17,6%	,0%	82,4%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER2	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	7,0%	,0%	90,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	8,5%
dclre	Recuento	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	5,0%	,0%	,0%	95,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER2	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	1,2%	,0%	,0%	95,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	5,0%
dpri	Recuento	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	9
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER2	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,2%
dcb	Recuento	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	32	0	0	0	0	0	33
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	3,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	97,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER2	,0%	,0%	1,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	72,7%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	8,2%
dpra	Recuento	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	9
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	11,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	88,9%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER2	,0%	,0%	1,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	88,9%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	2,2%
dpa	Recuento	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	16	0	0	0	18
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	11,1%	,0%	88,9%	,0%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER2	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	4,5%	,0%	80,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	4,5%
dpl	Recuento	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	3	0	0	9
	% de FUNCION	22,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	22,2%	,0%	22,2%	33,3%	,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER2	2,8%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	4,5%	,0%	10,0%	100,0%	,0%	,0%	2,2%
dw	Recuento	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	3	0	3	5
	% de FUNCION	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	40,0%	,0%	60,0%	,0%	100,0%
	% de CODER2	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	10,0%	,0%	100,0%	,0%	1,2%
Total	Recuento	71	17	63	13	86	13	31	20	9	44	9	20	3	3	3	402
	% de FUNCION	17,7%	4,2%	15,7%	3,2%	21,4%	3,2%	7,7%	5,0%	2,2%	10,9%	2,2%	5,0%	,7%	,7%	,7%	100,0%
	% de CODER2	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Symmetrical values

		Valor	Error t _p . asint. ^a	T aproximada ^b	Sig. aproximada
Nominal por nominal	Phi	3,076			,000
	V de Cramer	,853			,000
	Coficiente de contingencia	,951			,000
Medida de acuerdo	Kappa	,854	,019	46,565	,000
N de casos válidos		402			

Table 31: Cohen's Kappa coefficient. Agreement between Researcher and Coder 2.