WHY THAT LANGUAGE, IN THAT CONTEXT, RIGHT NOW?: THE USE OF THE L1 IN L2 CLASSROOM INTERACTION IN AN EGYPTIAN SETTING

By

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Author's declaration

I certify that, to best to my knowledge, all the material in this thesis represents my own work and that no material is included which has been submitted for any other award or qualification.

Signature:.....

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my uncle Shabaan, who instilled in me from an early age, the value of education. It is also dedicated to the memory of my mother who passed away during my PhD journey, and my loving family; my husband Reda and my sons Ahmed and Mohammed, with Love.

ABSTRACT

Why that language, in that context, right now?: The use of the L1 in L2 classroom interaction in an Egyptian setting

This thesis explores the relationship between the use of the L1 and L2 in different classroom contexts. The aim of the study was to investigate the use of the L1 within the overall interactional organisation of L2 classroom discourse using a combination of CA sequential analysis and a CL approach. The data for this study consist of 27 video-recorded hours of classroom interaction from primary to university classes.

It is argued that a CA context-based approach to the use of the L1 may be more suitable for depicting the variations in L2 classroom interaction than an overall description of the functions within the lesson as a whole that does not take into account the different contexts that can occur within a single lesson. Following Seedhouse's (2004 p. 207) concept of L2 classroom context as "the instantiation of a particular pedagogic focus and a particular organization of interaction", the study looks at how the L1 and the L2 are used in each context. The organisation of turn-taking and repair within each context is illustrated using classroom transcripts. The argument is developed using the emic sequential analysis of CA and adapting the classic CA question: "why that language, in that context, right now?"

The functions of L1 use by both teachers and learners are identified using an adapted version of Ferguson's (2003) system of categorisation. Some of the identified functions are similar to those found in previous studies, while new ones are also identified. The functions are located within the different contexts with the help of CL. It was found that at the macro context level some functions are pertinent to a specific context and that those functions are appropriate to the pedagogical focus of the context in which they operate. Moreover, some other functions behave differently in different contexts. At the micro-interaction level, two distinct uses of the L1 were identified: background and foreground uses of the L1.

The study concludes that the use of the L1 can facilitate L2 classroom interaction and that a combination of CA and CL could provide a more complete understanding of L2 classroom discourse. It is also recommended that managing language alternation in the L2 classroom could be incorporated as a component of classroom interactional competence (Walsh 2006).

List of abbreviations

BNC	British national corpus
CA	Conversation analysis
CBC	Content-based context
CIC	Classroom interactional competence
CL	Corpus linguistic
CS	Code-switching
DA	Discourse analysis
DIU	Designedly incomplete utterance
ECA	Ethnomethdological conversation analysis
EFL	English as-a-foreign-language
ELT	English language teaching
EM	Ethnomethodology
ESL	English as-a-second-language
FAC	Form and accuracy context
FL	Function/s by learners
FT	Function/s by teachers
IRE/IRF	Initiation-response-evaluation/feedback
L2	Second language
Ll	First language
MICASE	Michigan corpus of academic spoken English
MOE	Ministry of education
NTRI	Next turn repair initiator
PC	Procedural context
RI	Repair initiator
SETT	Self evaluation of teacher talk
SLA	Second language acquisition
TBC	Text-based context
TCU	Turn constructional unit
TL	Target language
TRP	Transitional relevant place
VBC	Vocabulary-based context
ZPD	Zone of proximal development

CA transcription conventions

Transcription Conventions (Atkinson and Heritage 1984)

[[ ]]	Simultaneous utterances – (beginning [[ ) and (end]])
[ ]	Overlapping utterances – (beginning [ ) and (end])
=	Contiguous utterances
(0.4)	Represents the tenths of a second between utterances
(.)	Represents a micro-pause (1 tenth of a second or less)
:	Sound extension of a word (more colons demonstrate longer stretches)
.	Fall in tone (not necessarily the end of a sentence)
,	Continuing intonation (not necessarily between clauses)
-	An abrupt stop in articulation
?	Rising inflection (not necessarily a question)
__	Underline words indicate emphasis
↑↓	Rising or falling intonation (after an utterance)
° °	Surrounds talk that is quieter
hhh	Audible aspirations
·hhh	Inhalations
.hh.	Laughter within a word
> <	Surrounds talk that is faster
< >	Surrounds talk that is slower
(( ))	Analyst's notes (I used it to indicate nonverbal)
……	
(xxx)	Intelligible speech
Bold	Arabic words are written in bold
{tr. }	Translation is provided between brackets

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview of the research

We are now living in a global era in which in many ways the world appears to have become a small village. Developments in computer and internet technologies mean that people can now communicate with each other across national and cultural boundaries. Globalisation can thus be seen as "a reformulation of social space in which the global and the local are constantly interacting with one another" (Mckay 2011, p. 122). These trends have in turn resulted in the need for an international language that can serve the diverse needs of globalisation. That language is English.

In this regard, Crystal (2003) shows how the history and potential of English as an international language of communication has given it genuine global status all over the world. According to Crystal, global English is now "the medium of a great deal of the world's knowledge, especially in such areas as science and technology. And access to knowledge is the business of education" (Crystal 2003, p. 110). Thus "to have English is to have access to the wealth of the world that is otherwise obscured behind linguistic barriers" (Seargeant 2009, p. 8). It is therefore unsurprising that, in many countries, English has become the medium of instruction or the official language. Otherwise, it is taught as a foreign language. In fact, "English is now the language most widely taught as a foreign language – in over 100 countries, such as China, Russia, Germany, Spain, Egypt and Brazil – and in most of these countries it is emerging as the chief foreign language to be encountered in schools" (Crystal 2003, p. 5). These nations are keen to equip their citizens with the tools they need to access knowledge. Thus at the educational level, English has an impact on education policy.

At the interactional level, the status of English as an international language has resulted in emerging situations, some of which are related to particular uses of English known as 'New Englishes', such as English as a lingua franca (ELF). Firth (1996 p. 240) defines ELF as "a 'contact language' between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture, and for whom English is the chosen foreign language of communication". Another contact phenomenon is that of code-switching (henceforth CS) in which "interactants rely on two or more languages to communicate with each other" (Crystal 2003, p.164). Crystal also points out that, "the increase in code-switching is evidently one of the most noticeable features of the situations in which New Englishes are emerging". In the present study the focus of interest is on this phenomenon as it is found in L2 classroom settings in particular.

As far as education is concerned, the use of CS in the context of teaching English in a classroom setting has provoked a long-standing and hitherto unsettled debate. The problem emerged with the introduction of the Direct Method in foreign language teaching (Harbord 1992, p. 350), which enforced the exclusive use of the target language or the 'monolingual principle' and meant that the mother tongue no longer played a role in language teaching. In the eyes of proponents of English-only classes, use of the first language serves only to reduce the learners' exposure to comprehensible input in the target language (Krashen 1982 cited in Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain 2009, pp. 2-3) and hence negatively affects language proficiency. Research, however, does not support this view (for a detailed account see Cook 2001; Macaro 2005). As Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain (2009 p. 5) argue, "it is to be noted that Ellis (1994; see also Cook 2001; van Lier 2000) claims that target-language exposure is necessary, but not sufficient to guarantee target language learning, since target-language input must become intake". It follows then that the input should be comprehensible by

students and 'internalised'; thus, "judicious and theoretically-principled first language use can facilitate intake and thereby contribute to learning" (ibid.).

A change in attitudes towards the role of the L1 has therefore begun and many researchers have called for a re-examination of the role of the L1 in L2 classrooms (Cook 2001; Macaro 2005; Cummins 2009; Ferguson 2009). Moreover, there has been a concerted move towards understanding this phenomenon and identifying teacher's local practices. The use of the L1 is thus attracting more attention by researchers into language teaching and learning (for example, at the 7th BAAL Language Learning and Teaching SIG Conference where I presented a paper on classroom CS (Waer 2011), I found that many studies were focused on revealing the actual use of the L1 as one of the 'affordances' that bilingual teachers bring to the classroom). Besides, recent papers on CS or on the use of L1 highlight the need for further research into this phenomenon (Littlewood and Yu 2011; Ferguson 2009; Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain 2009).

1.2 Purpose and scope of the study

This thesis depicts the relationship between the use of the L1 and L2 in different L2 classroom contexts occurring within a single lesson. The aim of the study was to investigate the use of the L1 within the overall interactional organisation of L2 classroom discourse, using conversation analysis (henceforth CA) and corpus linguistics (hence forth CL). The study is original in the following ways. Firstly, an examination of the related literature reveals that most previous research in this area has used discourse analysis (hence forth DA) to study CS in classrooms (see, for example, literature reviews on this topic by Ferguson 2003; Turnbull and Arnett 2002). These studies consider the functions of the L1 or CS within the lesson as a whole, without considering the diversity of classroom interaction. Secondly, little research has been conducted in classroom settings using CA methodology. Seedhouse (2011, p. 354) explains that,

"although there is a considerable literature on bilingual code-switching, relatively little CA research has been undertaken on code-switching in L2 classrooms". Thirdly, the available CA literature (see chapter 2, section 2.2.3) on this issue indicates that no research has been carried out into the use of the L1 from a CA context-based approach that differentiates the use of the L1 in different 'L2 classroom contexts' (Seedhouse 2004) occurring within a single lesson. Fourthly, to the best of my knowledge, no research has been conducted using a combination of CA and CL to investigate L2 classroom interaction in general and the use of the L1 in this setting in particular.

Hence, it is argued that a combined CA context-based and CL approach to investigating the use of the L1 may be more suitable to depict the diversity in L2 classroom interaction than a mere description of the functions within a lesson as a whole. Adapting Seedhouse's (ibid. p. 207) concept of the L2 classroom context, which he defines as "one instance of the reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction", in this thesis the organisation of turn-taking and repair within each context is illustrated using classroom transcripts. The argument is supported according to the emic sequential analysis of CA, adapting the principal question in CA: "why that language, in that context, right now?"

1.3 Research context

The context of the present study from which the data were collected is an Egyptian EFL setting. In this section a brief description of the Egyptian educational system is provided in order to contextualise the present study. The current status of English in Egypt is examined, followed by a brief description of the education system and English language education in particular.

1.3.1 Status of the English language in Egypt

The English language enjoys a high status in Egypt in a variety of domains. As Schaub (2000) shows, the British presence in Egypt (1882-1952) has had a major impact on educational practices, to the point where something approaching "Egyptian English" is common currency among professional and service-oriented groups working in engineering, business, medicine and the tourist industry. He investigated the status of English in Egypt, studying the current forms and functions of English use in Egypt. Schaub concluded that English played an important role in university education. Quoting Kachru (1992), Schaub (ibid. p. 225) has also pointed out that

> The status of English in Egypt has led one to conclude that though Egypt is not in the 'Expanding Circle' of countries in which English is becoming a universal second language, there are a number of Egyptian contexts, such as medicine, higher education or tourism where English serves as a first language of communication between natives of the country (within their own country).

Moreover, according to Schmidt (1996 p. 10), "English is the medium of instruction in most tertiary education, including colleges of medicine, engineering, science, and agriculture". Recently new state schools (pre-university) have been set up in which English is the medium of instruction.

1.3.2 The education system in Egypt

The official language in Egypt is Arabic. There are two educational systems in Egypt: state education and religious education, the latter being sponsored by Al-Azhar university. Both systems have several parallel levels. In addition, there are private schools at all grade levels, but these do not constitute a separate system. The education system (Table 1.1) consists of: kindergarten (two years), which is not obligatory, followed by basic education (which is obligatory), consisting of primary school level

(six years) and preparatory school level (three years), followed by the general secondary level (three years), and lastly, the university level (four-five years).

Table 1.1 Education system in Egypt

Education	**Level**	**Grade** (from – to)	**Age** (from – to)	**Duration** (years)
Kindergarten	Pre-school education		4 – 5	2
Primary	Basic education	1 – 6	6 – 11	6
Preparatory		7 – 9	12 – 14	3
Secondary	High school	10 – 12	15 – 17	3
University	Higher education		18 - 21/22	4-5

At the basic education level students are taught general subjects, all of which are obligatory, such as Arabic, English and mathematics. In general secondary education, at the end of the first year, and on the basis of the grades he or she has achieved, the student enters one of three streams in which he or she studies for the next two years; these are the humanistic, scientific or mathematical streams, each of which has its own specific curricular focus, although some subjects, such as Arabic and religious education, are obligatory in all streams.

The Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) is responsible for state tertiary education, proposing higher education policy and setting the plans and projects. The Supreme Council of Universities (SCU), established in 1950, plans university education and scientific research policy as well as coordinating between the Egyptian state universities.

The Ministry of Education (MOE), on the other hand, has control over pre-university education. The MOE is responsible for planning and policy formulation. The curriculum of the various subjects taught is determined at state level. "Each subject-specific committee comprises consultants, supervisors, experts, professors of education, and experienced teachers. Once the committee has reached agreement, the curriculum guidelines are then referred to the Supreme Council of Pre-university Education for official release. Each governorate is responsible for implementing the guidelines" (Hamdy 2007, pp. 3-4).

In pre-university education, the assessment system is based on achievement tests (see also Hargreaves 2001). At the end of each level, students take an exam before moving up to the next level. The preparatory school exam determines which secondary school (general, technical etc) a student moves to. Both of these exams are conducted at governorate (similar to a UK county) level. In contrast, the secondary school exam, which is similar to the UK's GSCEs, is a high stake exam and is administered at national level. On the basis of their results in this exam, students are selected for a faculty.

1.3.3 English language education in Egypt

Up until 1994, English was taught from the first year of preparatory school. In 1994, English was introduced in year four at primary level. Since 2003, English has been taught from primary level year one. At this level, learners receive 3 lessons of English a week.

Before 1988 the English language curriculum was based on the structural approach, which emphasised the selection and sequencing of language forms (Shawer 2010, p. 333). Shawer goes on to explain that

> Since 1988, the communicative approach has underpinned a new curriculum to address the inability of the structural approach to develop student communicative competence. Communicative-based textbooks were therefore developed and disseminated throughout the country (ibid.).

The aim and methodology of the new 'Hello' syllabus as specified in the MOE publication (Ministry of Education 2000, p. 197; cited in Ibrahim 2003, p. 52-53) are as follows:

> The main aim of the 'Hello! 'course is to teach children to communicate in English. All skills are introduced: listening, speaking, reading and writing, therefore the communicative approach is applied. ... For the communicative approach to be successful, pupils must learn to speak to each other and to help each other in many ways. They must be encouraged to work alone, in pairs, in small groups and in large groups as well as a whole class.

- This approach should form the framework of class activities and foreign language interaction.
- Pupils should be encouraged to participate in the lesson.
- Teachers should be aware of the integration of language skills while teaching them. This means giving the four skills the same importance as no skill can be taught in isolation or separately.
- Error correction should not be at the expense of fluency and self-expression in English. Pupils should be encouraged to talk freely.
-
- Pupils should always be aware of what they are doing and how and why they are doing it.

It is clear that these aims are influenced by a movement towards the use of the communicative approach in teaching foreign languages. The whole class teaching method is the common method, although the MOE is trying to introduce new methods such as 'active learning'.

1.3.4 Use of Arabic in Egyptian language classes

As mentioned before, the L1 used in the setting of the present study is Arabic. When we mention the L1 in this study, this refers to two varieties of Arabic as used in Egypt: the 'standard Arabic' variety and the colloquial Arabic or the 'vernacular' (Mejdell 2006)

(which also includes sub-varieties; but this is beyond the scope of our discussion). The standard Arabic is used mainly in school books, writing school homework, governmental forms, reading 'Holly Quran', and performing prayers, for example. While the colloquial variety is used in daily face-to face conversations.

Thus it is noticed that it is common to switch between the two varieties in spoken discourse including classroom discourse. For example, in the data obtained for this study, when translating an English sentence then the statandard Arabic is used whereas the colloquial Egyptian Arabic is mostly used to annotate a text, to give a humorous comment, to provide procedural information or to maintain discipline. For example, in the following excerpt, the teacher uses the standard Arabic to give a translation in line 500 whereas he uses the colloquial one 'Illi huwwa' in line 502.

	499	T:	Look at the Swiss canal" (0.2)
→	500		**Inzouro illa** (0.5) **mabna quanta il-Swaiss**
			{tr. look at the Swiss canal building}
	501		"Swiss canal building
→	502		**Illi huwwa il-mabna il**-white building
			{tr. Which is the building the white building}

The general impression obtained from the data is that the teachers use the colloquial variety much more frequently than standard Arabic, especially when commenting on a text, but they are more inclined to use standard Arabic when giving translations of specific vocabulary.

1.4 Methodology of the study

One of the main contributions of this study lies in its methodological integration of two seemingly different methodologies, with the aim of yielding a better understanding of the phenomenon –CS in L2 classroom- from different perspectives. A CA context-based approach was used to identify the pedagogic focus of each context in relation to interaction (Seedhouse 2004). I elected to use CA sequential analysis as it is able to display the emic logic that participants orient to on a moment-by-moment basis. I also used an adapted version of Ferguson's (2003) categorisation of classroom CS. CL, on the other hand, was employed for its capability of providing a 'big picture' of the data. In particular, corpus-based analysis was used holistically to determine the frequency of words and the consistency of use of those words in all different L2 classroom contexts, and specifically to locate particular functions (of L1 use). This particular combination (of CA and CL) thus offered both micro and macro perspectives from which to interpret the data, which it was hoped would provide enhanced understanding of the data.

1.5 Outline of the thesis

This thesis is divided into six chapters of which this chapter is the first. In this chapter an overview of the research, including the purpose of the study and the methodology employed, has been provided. The research context has also been introduced. This included an account of the status of the English language in Egypt followed by a brief description of the Egyptian education system in general and the system of English language education in particular.

Chapter two contains a selective overview of the literature which is structured into four major sections: in the first section research into the use of the L1 in some teaching methods is discussed, and some research on the benefits of using the L1 in L2 classrooms is reviewed. The second section covers studies on CS, including DA studies

on classroom CS; CA studies of CS in bilingual settings and in the L2 classroom, and studies on the use of Arabic in the L2 classroom. The third section deals with research into L2 classroom interaction with a particular focus on the organisation of L2 classroom interaction, the three-way view of context and classroom interactional competence (CIC). In the fourth section a description of CL is provided, including a definition and the analytical approaches used in CL, and a discussion of how CA and CL may be combined for use in research.

Chapter three has three main foci: presenting CA, CL and presenting the data of this study. The purposes of the study and research questions are introduced, followed by a rationale for the choice of research methodologies. An outline of the general framework of CA is presented, focusing on the relationship between CA and the core ethnomethodological principles: indexicality, reflexive accountability and context. The types of interactional organisation which were used in analysing the data of the current study are also described. Issues involving the reliability and validity of CA and its limitations are discussed, followed by a discussion of how a methodological synergy of CL and CA can be achieved. This then leads into a description of CL and an explanation of methodological issues related to compiling and analysing a corpus of data, followed by an overview of CL tools. The method of data collection and transcription, the preparation of the corpus and initial analysis, and Ferguson's system of categorisation are also described in this chapter.

Chapter four shows how interaction is organised in the data obtained for the present research and describes the overall system of interaction used by the participants, or the 'emic logic', in the data. The presentation of the data is organised according to the different L2 classroom contexts. The chapter is structured as follows: first, the

organisation of each context in terms of turn-taking and repair is described; the use of the L1 and L2 within each context is then highlighted.

In **chapter five** the relationships between the functions of L1 use and the different L2 classroom contexts are identified. It is shown how this was achieved through a combined use of CA and CL. The chapter is organised as follows: first, the categorisation of the functions is explained, followed by a brief introduction to the data analysis, the functions of L1 use by the teacher, then by the learners. A discussion follows showing how a context-based approach is effective in elucidating the varying ways in which the functions operate at the pedagogic and interactional levels. The discussion also examines when the switch to the L1 occurs.

Chapter six provides a conclusion to the study, summarising the main research findings and identifying the limitations of the present research, as well as directions for future research.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

The aims of this chapter are to locate the present study in the context of the existing literature and to show how this literature provided the foundations for the present study. It will also be shown how this study addresses a research gap in the use of the L1 in L2 classroom discourse in particular. An introduction to CL is also provided in this chapter. The chapter contains a selective overview of the literature which is structured into four major sections: in the first section research into the use of the L1 in certain teaching methods (section 2.1.1) is discussed, and some research on the use of the L1 and the benefits of this for teachers and learners is reviewed (section 2.1.2). The second section covers studies on CS, including DA studies of classroom CS and Ferguson's system of categorisation (section 2.2.1), followed by an examination of CA studies of CS in bilingual settings (section 2.2.2) and in L2 classrooms (section 2.2.3); a small number of studies on the use of Arabic in the L2 classroom are surveyed in section 2.2.4. The third section deals with research into classroom interaction with a particular focus on CA. CA is introduced as an institutional discourse methodology in section 2.3.1, leading into a discussion of the organisation of L2 classroom interaction in the subsequent section (section 2.3.2); this is followed by an explanation of the three-way view of context (section 2.3.3), the concept of the L2 classroom context (section 2.3.4), and of classroom interactional competence (section 2.3.5). In the fourth section of the chapter, a description of CL is provided, including a definition and the analytical approaches used in CL (section 2.4.1); this is followed by a discussion of the use of CL in applied linguistics (section 2.4.2), and of the combining of CA and CL for use in research (section 2.4.3). The section concludes by posing a methodological question: can CA be combined with CL? (section 2.4.4). A summary of the chapter is provided in the final section.

2.1 Review of the use of the L1 in L2 teaching and learning

The use of the L1 in the L2 classroom is a debatable and thorny issue, as we will see shortly. It is also known in the literature as classroom code-switching, which is defined as the use of two languages (in my study: English and Arabic) in the EFL classroom. In this section the use of the L1 in the history of language teaching methods is reviewed, showing how the movement to 'ban the L1' developed. A review of some of the views of the opponents of L1 use is then provided.

2.1.1 The use of the L1 in language teaching methods

In this section, we briefly review some of the methods used throughout the history of language teaching (Cook 2001; Richards and Rodgers 2001; Howatt 2004). The reason for this review is twofold: firstly, it explains the history as well as the development of the debate surrounding the use of the L1. Secondly, since one of the questions that prompted the new directions in language teaching is "what should the role of the native language be?" (Richards and Rogers 2001, p. 14), we need to know how the different methods tackled this issue in different ways.

By the 19th century, the Grammar Translation Method was being used for foreign language teaching, with an emphasis on the morphology and syntax of the foreign language (ibid. 2001, pp. 4-5). The L1 plays a major role in this method as it is "maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the second language" (Stern 1983, p. 455 cited in Richards and Rogers 2001, p. 5). According to Cook (2001), this method has little or no public support.

In the mid- and late 19th century, opposition to this method developed and resulted in what is known as the reform movement, which paved the way for the emergence of new teaching methods. The reformers emphasised the spoken language while generally avoiding translation. Using the L1 to 'gloss' unfamiliar items "became a

major source of disagreement among the reformers" (Howatt 2004, p. 191). Thus the argument of proponents (teachers) of the Direct Method (which is considered the first attempt by a reformer (Gouin) to build a methodology) was that "the mental effort needed to 'work out' the meaning of an unfamiliar expression was an intrinsic feature of language learning and ought not to be 'short-circuited' by mother tongue glossing" (ibid.). Besides, this method is known for its strong focus on the exclusive use of the target language.

The Direct Method had a great influence in language teaching, to the extent that "it marked the language of the method era" (Richards and Rodgers 2001, p. 14). However, a rigid adherence to the principles of the Direct Method was criticised as being "often counterproductive, since teachers were required to go to great lengths to avoid using the native language, when sometimes a simple, brief explanation in the student's native language would have been a more efficient route to comprehension" (ibid. p. 13).

Most teaching methods since the 1880s have adopted the monolingual principle of the Direct Method. For example, the Audiolingual Method, which emphasised accurate speech with little focus on grammatical explanation, also discouraged translation or the use of the native language (Richards and Rogers 2001, p. 64). The idea of banning use of the L1 was also adopted in the oral approach and situational language teaching (ibid. p. 39). In other methods such as task-based learning and communicative language teaching methods, as Cook (2001) points out, the L1 is only mentioned when giving advice on how to minimise its use. For example, "the main theoretical treatments of task-based learning do not for example have any locatable mentions of the classroom use of the L1 (Nunan 1989; Skehan 1998)" (ibid.). Cook also adds that, "most descriptions of methods treat the ideal classroom as having as little of the L1 as possible, essentially by omitting any reference to it".

However, a few teaching methods make deliberate and positive use of the L1: for instance, the Alternating Language Approach, Reciprocal Language Teaching, Dual Language Programmes and the Two-way Immersion Model (ibid.). Moreover, other approaches actively create links between the L1 and L2. Amongst these are the New Concurrent Method, Dodson's Bilingual Method (1967), and Community Language Teaching (CLL) (See Cook (2001) for more details). For instance, in CLL, translation is one of the learning tasks, besides using bilingual practices such as "bilingual alternation" (Richards and Rogers 2001, pp. 90-95).

The teaching methods mentioned so far display various views concerning the role of the L1 in language teaching. Following Macaro's (2009 p. 53) continuum perspective (the virtual position [exclusive use of the target language] and the optimal position [in which CS can enhance second language acquisition better than second language exclusivity]), these views can be represented via a continuum; at one end is the banning of L1 use as it has no value. This is the case in the Direct Method and among its followers. At the other end, the L1 plays a significant role, as represented, for example, in the Grammar Translation Method and Alternating Language Approach. Between the two poles, we have a relatively balanced role played by the L1 in, for instance, CLL, which emphasises the bilingual mode by linking the L1 and L2. Despite this movement towards a balanced use of the L1, the issue is still thorny and debatable, as Howatt (2004 p. 259) describes:

> As we have seen more than once, the basic position of ELT on this issue has hardly changed for a hundred years. Try to avoid switching between languages, but obviously you will have to translate if you want to make sure that the learners understand what they are doing. Very reasonable, and seemingly straightforward. But, in fact it is not really a straightforward issue at all. It is a psychologically complex problem and language teachers could do with appropriate advice. But, the renewed interest in bilingualism, which is probably one or the most salient characteristics of language education in the late twentieth century (the Canadian experience has been particularly influential, for instance), has had more to do with the sociology of the question than the psychology. Perhaps this is set to change.

This quotation appears to provide an answer to the above-mentioned question regarding the role of the L1 in ELT methods. The author refers to a shift from treating the role of the L1 as a 'psychological' issue (e.g., use of the L1 is seen as negative (Cook 2001) to a sociological issue, in which the L1 is seen in practical terms as functioning within a bilingual model (see also Cook's "multicompetence" (Cook 1991)).

2.1.2 Research on the use of the L1 in L2 classrooms

Many researchers have called for a re-examination of the role of the L1 in L2 classrooms (Atkinson 1987; Cook 2001; Butzkamm 2003; Macaro 2005; Cummins 2009). Most recently, Jenkins (2010), building on the 'no Arabic' policy in L2 classrooms in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, has also called for a re-examination of 'monolingualism'.

This debate encouraged researchers to go down new avenues in order to investigate the use of the L1. For instance, some researchers aimed to demonstrate that the use of the L1 was beneficial for both teachers and learners (e.g., Macaro 2005). Thus it provides "an enhanced form of input that is more salient for the learner, more easily processed and consequently results in a greater understanding of the TL" (Turnbull and Arnett 2002, pp. 205-206). The L1 also aids in "maintaining and deepening student understanding and motivation" (Forman 2008, p. 330) and helps "to enhance communicative competence in the foreign language" Butzkamm 1998, p. 81). Hence, banning the use of L1 deprives the L2 learners of an important 'communication strategy' (Macaro 2005, p. 80).

Research into learners' use of L1 from a Vygotskian perspective has identified it as a scaffolding tool that facilitates their learning. Brooks and Donato (1994 p. 268) suggest that L1 use during L2 interaction is "a normal psycholinguistic process that facilitates L2 production and allows the learners both to initiate and sustain verbal

interaction with one other". In a similar vein, Antón and DiCamilla (1999 p. 237) shows that, "L1 use provides, through collaborative dialogue, an opportunity for L2 acquisition to take place". They also show that L1 performs three main functions: "construction of scaffolded help, establishment of intersubjectivity and use of private speech" (ibid. p. 245). Similar views of L1 as a 'scaffolding tool' are also held by van Lier (1996). This body of research presents empirical evidence for the social and cognitive benefits of using the L1.

My own view regarding the issue of L1 use is similar to Cook's (2001) remark that "like nature, L1 creeps back in". A similar position is suggested by Harbord (1992 p. 351) who sees translation "as an inevitable part of the second language acquisition". Moreover, Cameron (2001 p. 200) argues that "if the teacher and class share a common mother tongue, then not to use that first language is very unnatural". Researchers also confirm that avoidance of using the first language is unlikely to occur, especially when the teacher and learners share the same first language (Raschka et al. 2009), which is the situation in the teaching of English in Egyptian state schools. These views imply that in practical terms teachers cannot avoid using the L1, and this is certainly what I have usually found when supervising both pre- and in-service teachers.

The issue, then, is not *to use or not to use the first language?* but rather *when and how should the first language be used?* However, it should be made clear that this does not mean "passing out a license to overuse of the first language" (Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain 2009, p. 2), or teachers will resort to it as an easy solution (Cook 2001; Macaro 2005). This in turn implies that we cannot design a *systematic set of rules* for using the L1, but that it should be approached on a moment-by-moment basis during lessons. To this end, this research examined the issue through an investigation of the relationships between L1 use and the different contexts of L2 classroom interaction using sequential CA and CL. What I wanted to investigate was how the L1 is actually used and oriented to by the participants.

In this section we have reviewed the role of the L1 in some teaching methods as well as reviewing some of the research into the use of the L1 and the benefits of this for teachers and learners. In the following section CS discourse studies and CA studies in the bilingual classroom are examined.

2.2 Studies on code-switching

2.2.1 DA studies on classroom CS and Ferguson's system of categorisation

A large body of research exists that focuses on CS using DA; however, there is only space here to examine three recent papers. Tien's (2009 p. 173) microethnographic study utilised in-class observations, together with field notes and audio recordings. The research revealed that, "in order to arouse students' interest in learning English, teachers often choose to switch between English and Mandarin in classrooms". Raschka et al. (2009 p. 157) used functional and temporal analysis of transcribed classroom interaction, which "reveals the strategic ways in which the teachers use CS to shape and guide their classes". Similarly, Uys and van Dulm (2011) show that CS fulfils both academic functions – explaining and clarifying subject content; assisting learners in understanding and interpreting material; confirming understanding and encouraging participation; maintaining learners' attention and reprimanding disruptive behaviour - and social functions: being used as humour and as a marker of bilingual identity.

In addition to the above studies on CS, Ferguson (2003) presents a summary of several studies on which his categorisation system is based. His system is adapted in this study for three reasons: 1) it is based on the findings of previous research, 2) it is comprehensive and 3) it is used in empirical research (Üstünel 2004). The system includes three main categories.

i. CS for curriculum access. Basically, to help pupils understand the subject matter of their lessons.

This includes negotiation of the meaning of a written text. Ferguson cites examples from Martin's (1999) and Lin's (1996) research showing "the significant role of CS in providing access to English medium text and in scaffolding knowledge construction for pupils with limited English language resources" (ibid. p. 21). For example, he analyses an excerpt from Martin (1999 pp. 51-52) taken from a geography class in Brunei, demonstrating "how the teacher switches from English to Malay in order to encourage and elicit pupil participation" and to "clarify the meaning of certain sections of text" - a process that Martin (ibid. p. 53) refers to as "unpacking the meaning" - and to "demarcate reading the text from commentary on it".

These are similar to the functions identified in the current research. My data also show how teachers use the L1 to give an Arabic translation, to comment on a text, to highlight an important point and to resume reading a text. When I examined the frequency and use of those functions in the data obtained from the various different L2 classroom contexts, I found that these functions occurred more frequently and played more significant roles in text-based and content-based contexts than in other contexts. In other words, my results show that those functions are frequently common in text-based contexts.

ii. CS for classroom management discourse. E.g., To motivate, discipline and praise pupils and to signal a change of footing.

Under this category, Ferguson (ibid. p. 42) points out that "code contrast often contextualises a shift of 'frame' (Goffman 1974) away from lesson content and towards some 'off-lesson' concern — to discipline a pupil, to attend to late comers, to gain and focus pupils' attention ...". Moreover, CS may also - as Ferguson adds - "demarcate talk about the lesson content from what we may refer to as the management of pupil

learning; that is, negotiating task instructions, inviting pupil contributions, disciplining pupils, specifying a particular addressee and so on". Under the same category he also highlights the use of CS as "'an attention focusing device' (Merritt et al 1992: 117)".

In this study, I found similar functions to the above-mentioned functions: for instance, maintaining discipline, or encouraging silent learners to participate. Nevertheless, in the data obtained for the current study, 'the attention focusing device' is more frequently used to indicate episode shifts within the different contexts or to different pedagogic foci: for example, to indicate a shift after a side sequence, or to reallocate a turn to a learner using Arabic markers (e. g., the use of **'ha-'** in the extracts 5.6 and 5.26) or as an attention focusing device to highlight important information.

iii. CS for interpersonal relations. E.g., To humanise the affective climate of the classroom and to negotiate different identities.

Under this category, Ferguson (ibid. p. 43) indicates that in many classrooms "English indexes a more distanced, formal teacher-pupil relationship and the local language-...-a closer, warmer more personal one". Thus the teacher may switch to the local language "to build rapport with individual pupils, create greater personal warmth and encourage greater pupil involvement, the teacher may, therefore, when the occasion is suitable, switch to the local language". Ferguson quotes an extract (Anderoff 1993) to show how a teacher switches to Zulu to praise a student. Similarly, in the present study, it was found that the teachers switched to Arabic to explain an English word using Egyptian Arabic situations or to encourage hesitating students. The data also reveal instances of switching to Arabic to insert a humorous comment. Indeed, it was found that these interpersonal functions and in particular the humorous use influenced the affective atmosphere of the classroom and made it more informal. This is evident in the latter case from the fact that the learner follows the comment with laughter (see extract 5.29).

In the present study, I used Ferguson's DA categorisation of classroom discourse, with two minor adaptations. Firstly, rather than listing the functions under main categories as in Ferguson, I listed all the functions of the L1 in the Egyptian EFL classrooms separately. From a practical point of view, this facilitated the identification of those functions within the different contexts and then helped with annotating them in CL. Secondly, I added a fourth category, called 'organising discourse'. This category is not new but is derived from Ferguson's second category. It includes 3 functions: resuming reading, highlighting important or coming information and indicating a shift.

The DA literature mentioned above provided a theoretical basis for this study in terms of identifying the functions of L1 use in the Egyptian L2 classrooms. I found similar functions to those reported in the literature. The difference between my study and previous research lies in the way in which the functions are examined. Previous studies have provided a description of CS functions within the lesson as a whole without considering the diversity among the different L2 classroom contexts that may occur within a single lesson. For example, although some of the lessons in the present data are based principally on a single context, such as the form and accuracy context, they also have procedural contexts which guide the learners to the forthcoming steps/context. The argument in this research is that when pedagogy varies, the interaction varies along with language choice (L2 and L1) as well. The use of the L1 in a *procedural context*, where the focus is on delivering *procedural information* about the coming activity, might be different from its use in a *form and accuracy context*, where the focus is on producing correct linguistic forms. Therefore, in this study a CA context-based approach was adopted to examine the use of L1 with the aim of depicting the diversity in L2 classroom interaction through an investigation of the relationship between the functions of L1 use and these different L2 classroom contexts.

In this section we have discussed DA studies of classroom CS; in the following section we will first present a brief overview of CA studies of CS in bilingual settings, then in a classroom setting, with an emphasis on the CA emic view of CS; this will be followed by an examination of some studies on the use of Arabic in the L2 classroom.

2.2.2 CA studies on bilingual code-switching

The application of CA to studying language alternation is exemplified in the work of Auer (1984, 1998), who suggested using CA as a methodology to study CS from the same perspective as the participants *in situ*. According to Auer (1984 p. 3), the purpose of adopting a CA approach to language alternation "is to analyse *members' procedures to arrive at local interpretations of language alternation*". In his seminal paper, Wei (2002) explicates the principles behind the CA approach to bilingual interaction as a new paradigm that shows "a move away from a dichotomy between the grammatical analysis of code-switching and the socio-psychological analysis of language choice" (ibid. p. 159). A CA orientation to CS thus differs from other models for analysing CS which depend on interpreting CS in terms of *etic* factors (Bell's Audience design model 1984 cited in Wei 2002) or speaker's rational choices (e.g., Myers-Scotton's Markedness model 1993). As Wei (2002 pp. 166-167) puts it:

> The CA approach to conversational CS avoids the imposition of analyst oriented classificatory frameworks and instead attempts to reveal the underlying procedural apparatus by which conversation participants themselves arrive at local interpretations of language choice. In contrast to other existing theories of bilingual CS, the CA approach dispenses with motivational speculation in favour of an interpretative approach based on detailed, turn-by-turn analysis of language choices. It is not about what bilingual conversationalists may do, or what they usually do, or even about what they see as the appropriate thing to do; rather, it is about how the meaning of CS is constructed in interaction.

There are at least two advantages to using CA to analyse the meaning of bilingual CS, as Wei (2005 p. 382) explains: first, "it gives priority to what Auer calls the 'sequential implicativeness' of language choice in conversation, i.e. - the effect of a

participant's choice of language at a particular point in the conversation on subsequent language choices by the same and other participants". Second, it "limits the external analyst's interpretational leeway because it relates his or her interpretation back to the members' mutual understanding of their utterances as manifest in their behaviour" (Auer 1984, p. 6). In particular, this is linked to the CA ethnomethodological view of context and the principles of indexicality and reflexive accountability (see section 3.4 for more details). This 'emic' view has also been emphasised in a recent paper by Wei (2010 p. 138):

> … the meaning of codeswitching in bilingual conversation, for example, must be interpreted with reference to the language choices in the preceding and following turns by the participants themselves, rather than by correlating language choice with some externally determined values. From a methodological perspective, we would require an analytic procedure that focuses on the sequential development of interaction, because the meaning of bilingual acts such as codeswitching is *conveyed as part of the interactive process and cannot be discussed without referring to the conversational context* (emphasis added).

In a similar vein, the present research investigates the switch to the L1 as locally managed by teachers and learners on a moment-by-moment basis. Hence, the analysis of the teachers' and learners' language choices is oriented to their behaviour and actions and therefore aims to "*reveal the underlying procedural apparatus by which conversation participants themselves arrive at local interpretations of language choice*" (Wei 2002, emphasis added). To this end, I focus on how teachers and learners co-construct and interpret the meaning related to their language choices and the evolving pedagogic focus and interaction.

2.2.3 CA studies of code-switching in L2 classrooms

Few researchers have used CA methodology in a classroom setting to unfold the sequential organisation of CS. In Seedhouse's (2011 p. 354) words,

> Although there is a considerable literature on bilingual code-switching, relatively little CA research had been undertaken on code-switching in L2 classrooms until very recently. Code-switching as a methodical phenomenon in L2 classroom interaction is now starting to be researched using a CA methodology.

Among the few studies that have been conducted, Liebscher and Dailey O'Cain (2005) found that students used CS for both participant-related functions and discourse-related functions. The authors conclude that "language learners are able to conceptualize the classroom as a bilingual space" (ibid. p. 234). Kasper (2004 p.551) shows how CS worked as "one device by which the novice requested a target language action format from the language expert". Mori (2004 p. 537) focused on how CS affects the ways in which learners' interactive activities are organised. Unamuno (2008) shows that language alternation serves to address practical issues related to the management and completion of assigned pair activities. Bonacina and Gafaranga (2010 p.319), on the other hand, demonstrate that "the notion of 'medium of classroom interaction' is a more appropriate 'scheme' for the interpretation of the bilingual practices" in their data.

Another study which was conducted in an EFL setting and which focused on teachers' use of CS is Üstünel and Seedhouse's (2005) research, which explored the organisation of teacher-initiated and teacher-induced CS and how it is related to pedagogic focus in a Turkish university. The authors used the methodological question "why that, in that language, right now?" to analyse the data and found that CS is an orderly interactional feature of the L2 classroom and that it is linked to the evolving pedagogic focus. They also found that "through their language choice learners may display alignment or misalignment with the teacher's pedagogic focus" (ibid. p. 302). Interestingly, they also found a preference organisation pattern of the teacher's switching to the L1 after less than one second when the learner delayed in giving a response.

The aim of the present study was to extend this body of research, using CA to investigate both teachers' and learners' switch to the L1. However, it differs from the study referred to above in combining CA and CL as a methodological framework. In addition, the current study uses a context-based approach to depict the relationship between the use of the L1 and the different L2 classroom contexts occurring within a single lesson.

2.2.4 Studies on the use of Arabic in EFL settings

Only few studies have investigated the use of the L1 in Arabic-speaking classroom settings. Kharma and Hajjaj (1989 cited in Al-Nofaie 2010) investigated the use of the L1 in ESL classrooms in the Gulf region. Their results showed that a great number of the teachers (93% of 185 teachers) used it for a variety of reasons, such as explaining grammar (66%) and new vocabulary (33%), whereas most learners (81%) particularly favoured the use of the L1 when they could not express their ideas in L2.

Mustafa and Al-Khatib (1994) investigated mixing Arabic and English in science lectures, with a focus on frequency, the grammatical categories involved, and the adequacy of syntactic constraints. The results show that the alternate use of the two languages in teaching was a prominent feature of the lectures and occurred in different grammatical categories to various degrees.

Al-Nofaie (2010) also conducted a case study to examine the attitudes of teachers and students towards using Arabic in EFL classrooms in Saudi state schools; the results revealed that the attitudes of both teachers and students towards using Arabic were generally positive. In addition, she found that the participants preferred to use Arabic in particular situations and for specific reasons. Most recently, Khassawneh (2011) investigated university students' attitudes toward the use of the Arabic language in teaching English as a foreign language in Jordan. The results indicated that the

attitudes of the students towards using Arabic were generally positive. Moreover, gender and level of study were not significant factors, but significant differences were found according to the students' proficiency level in English.

I came across only one study that examines the use of L1 in Egyptian EFL classroom settings. Sadek (2007) used questionnaires and interviews to study the use of L1 in some Egyptian preparatory schools in one location, focusing on teachers' and learners' attitudes towards and perceptions of the use of the L1. She also used a theoretical framework to code classroom observation and audio recorded lessons to analyse the use of L1 by teachers.

If we compare the above studies, we notice that the studies of Kharma and Hajjaj (1989), Al-Nofaie (2010) and Khassawneh (2011) focused on studying attitudes towards the L1, while that of Mustafa and Al-Khatib (1994) focused on frequency and grammatical constraints on Arabic-English code-mixing. Sadek (2007), on the other hand, concentrated on the participants' perceptions. On the basis of the findings of previous research, she designed a theoretical framework for the optimal use of the L1 to analyse classroom recordings. In my research, by contrast, I focus on CS as an interactional phenomenon and investigate the contextual use of the L1 within teacher-learner interaction in the EFL classrooms. Moreover, in the current study a combination of CA and CL was used, and classroom transcripts were examined according to the emic sequential analysis of CA.

In this section DA and CA studies of CS have been discussed, and Ferguson's categorisation system, which was the system adapted for use in this study, has been presented. An outline of some Arabic studies that examined the use of L1 in L2 classrooms was also provided. The following section contains a detailed account of the application of CA in L2 classroom interaction.

2.3 CA and L2 classroom interaction

Since the present study was conducted in an L2 classroom institutional setting, in this section the use of CA as an institutional discourse methodology is first discussed in detail. This leads into an explication of how CA can be used to analyse L2 classroom interaction, followed by explanations of the concept of the L2 classroom context and of classroom interactional competence.

2.3.1 Institutional CA

The early contributions of CA were made in analysing mundane conversation. In addition, a large body of CA research has investigated interaction in a variety of institutional settings: media discourse (Hutchby 2006) medical institutions (Clayman et al. 2006; Heritage and Robinson 2006) and classroom interaction (Markee 2000; Koshik 2002; Seedhouse 2004; Walsh 2006), to name but a few. Heritage (2004 p. 225) identifies six aspects that can be used to probe the institutionality of interaction:

1. Turn-taking organisation
2. Overall structural organisation of interaction
3. Sequence organisation
4. Turn-design
5. Lexical choice
6. Epistemological and other forms of asymmetry.

For instance, a particular form of turn-taking can reflect the characteristics of a particular institutional setting. Consequently, when studying an institutional setting, not only is the researcher examining the interactional structures, but he or she is also "oriented to discovering and describing how these structures are relevant for as well as constitutive of the organisation, institution, or work setting in which they occur" (Psathas 1995, p. 60). Schegloff (1992 p. 111) describes this relevance in terms of "procedural consequentiality", which means showing "how the context or the setting (the local social structure), in that aspect, is procedurally consequential to the talk. How

does the fact that the talk is being conducted in some setting (e.g., "the hospital") issue in any consequence for the shape, form, trajectory, content, or character of the interaction that the parties conduct?"

To this end, the analyst then has to prove how the institution is manifested in the local management of talk. As Heritage (1984 p. 290) explains, "it is within these local sequences of talk and only there, that these institutions are ultimately and accountably talked into being". One way of talking the institutional context into being can be through displaying the institutional focus (Seedhouse 2004, p. 200). According to Seedhouse, in a classroom setting this occurs as follows: "*By introducing a pedagogical focus in orientation to which turns in the L2 are produced, the institutional context is talked into being, and the interaction produced is L2 classroom*" (ibid.). Building on this idea, the present study is concerned with talk that reflects the L2 institutional context. This is a fundamental concern, since the present study investigates the use of the L1 in relation to the pedagogic foci of the different L2 classroom contexts within an L2 institutional setting.

2.3.2 The organisation of L2 classroom interaction

The present study depicts the relationship between the use of the L1 and L2 classroom contexts. In order to understand how the functions of the L1 operate in any L2 classroom, it is essential to understand the organisation of interaction in that classroom. We can then relate the functions of L1 use to this organisation. This section therefore contains a review of literature on the nature of L2 classroom interaction, as well as an explanation of the concept of the L2 classroom context as used in this study. This review summarises Seedhouse's (2004) system of L2 classroom interaction and his tri-dimensional view of context which this study follows.

As discussed above, institutional CA demonstrates how the institution is talked into being through interaction. Seedhouse (ibid. p. 184) splits this into three rationally sequenced properties that reflect the "unique fingerprint of L2 classroom interaction":

1. "Language is both the vehicle and object of instruction (Long 1983, p. 9)."

> "This property [as Seedhouse explains] springs rationally and inevitably from the core goal. The core goal dictates that the L2 is the object, goal and focus of instruction. It must be taught and it can only be taught through the medium or vehicle of language. Therefore language has a unique dual role in the L2 classroom in that it is both the vehicle and object, both the process and product of the instruction."

Importantly, however, he adds that, "this does not suggest that all of the teaching is conducted in the L2; the data shows that this is not the case". Here he refers to the use of languages other than the L2. He makes it explicit that his monograph is concerned solely with the teachers' and learners' L2 discourse. By contrast, in this thesis we are concerned with the use of both the L1 and the L2.

2. "There is a reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction and interactants constantly display their analyses of the evolving relationship between pedagogy and interaction."

Seedhouse (ibid. p.184) explains that this relationship has the following implications:

- "as the pedagogical focus varies, so the organization of the interaction varies".
- "the L2 classroom has its own interactional organization which transforms the pedagogical focus (task-as-work plan) into interaction (task-in-process)".

Thus, "whoever is taking part in L2 classroom interaction and whatever the particular activity during which the interactants are speaking the L2, they are always displaying to one another their analyses of the current state of the evolving relationship between pedagogy and interaction and acting on the basis of these analyses" (ibid. p.185).

This property was an important consideration in the data analysis for this research as it helped me to follow the moment-by-moment displays of the relationship between interaction and pedagogy by both teachers and learners, and consequently

enabled me to see how the functions of L1 use were related to the evolving pedagogic focus. For example, in extracts 5.14 and 5.15 in this thesis, the learners display their understanding of this relationship in a form and accuracy context and initiate other-repair of the teacher's utterance.

3. "The linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which the learners produce in the L2 are potentially subject to evaluation by the teacher in some way."

Seedhouse (ibid. p. 186) adds that, "the third property derives rationally from the second property; since the linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which the learners produce in the L2 are normatively linked in some way to the pedagogical focus which is introduced, it follows that the teacher will need to be able to evaluate the learners' utterances in the L2 in order to match the reality to the expectations".

The three properties described above generally characterise all L2 classrooms, but this does not mean that they are always manifested in the same way. In the following section we see how L2 classroom interaction can simultaneously display both heterogeneity and homogeneity.

2.3.3 A three-way view of context

Seedhouse identifies a property which he calls '*complementarity*' (Gribbin 1991, p. 118) to explain the way in which any example of L2 interaction "*simultaneously displays both uniqueness and institutional commonality along with a complex personality*" (Seedhouse ibid. p. 209). To this end, he presents a model that portrays and conceptualises the complexity of 'context' in the L2 classroom at three different levels, represented in three decreasing circles, shown in Figure 2.1 below.

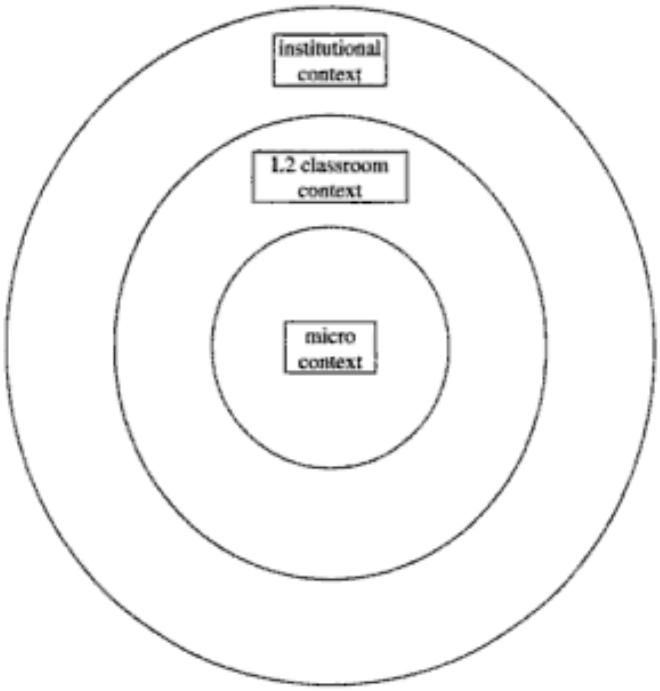

Figure 2.1 A three-way view of context. From "The interactional architecture of the language classroom: A conversation analysis perspective" by Seedhouse (2004 p. 210)

In his study Seedhouse analyses an extract, showing how it reveals both heterogeneity and homogeneity in L2 classroom interaction. Instead of quoting his extract, we shall now examine extract 2.1 from this thesis to see how the above three levels are concurrently manifested and interact. First, at the level of the micro-context, this extract is an example of a 'single occurrence' as "even a teacher giving the same prompts would never receive the same replies from the learners". Thus, "at the micro level of context the emphasis is on heterogeneity, uniqueness and the "instanced" nature of the interaction" (ibid. p. 212). At the L2 classroom level of context, the extract is an example of a particular L2 classroom context - a form and accuracy context - and hence is typical of this context. The interaction is rigid and the focus is on producing correct forms; the teacher initiates repair (line 6) as L4's response (line 4) is not identical to that targeted by the teacher. At the institutional level, this extract is an example of L2 classroom discourse and hence is similar to all other extracts in the database, since they

all belong to the L2 setting and display the three properties of L2 classroom interaction (see section 2.3.2).

Extract 2.1

```
     1    T:   Ask and answer (0.3) okay (.) (L4 name)
     2    L4:  [Have] you ever /graun/(0.2) a: plants? (0.2)
     3    T:   [L name]
→    4         /graun?/ (repeating the mispronounced word)
     5         (0.3)
→    6    L4:  /Graun/
     7    T:   grown gr[own]
     8    L4:      [Grown]
     9    LL:  Grown
```

There is insufficient space here to describe all the advantages of Seedhouse's model. There are many features of the model which make it suitable for the current research. Most recently, Seedhouse (2010 pp. 18-20) has explained the property of homogeneity and heterogeneity (on which his model is based, see Figure 2.1) as being a characteristic of complex adaptive systems, which is another reason for deeming it to be an appropriate model for use in this research.

2.3.4 Concept of the L2 classroom context

At the second level in Figure 2.1 above, we can differentiate between sub-varieties within the L2 classroom context. Seedhouse (ibid. p. 205) points out that "...L2 classroom interaction is not an undifferentiated whole but can be divided into a number of sub-varieties or classroom contexts". More specifically, he defines the different classroom contexts in relation to property two (section 2.3.2) as "*different actualizations of the reflexive relationship between the pedagogical focus and interactional organization*". He also provides another definition of the L2 classroom context as "modes of interactional organization through which institutional business is accomplished" (ibid. p. 206).

Seedhouse (2004) identifies four classroom contexts (out of the six contexts he identified in 1996) showing the variation among those contexts in terms of repair, turn-taking and sequence. These contexts are as follows:

1 Procedural context
2 Form and accuracy context
3 Task-based context
4 Meaning and fluency context

In the data for the current research, three of Seedhouse's original (1996) contexts were also identified: the procedural, form and accuracy and text based-contexts, and two further contexts were added: the vocabulary-based and content-based contexts.

2.3.5 Classroom interactional competence (CIC)

Walsh (2006 p. 99) designed a framework (Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk: SETT) based on actual data obtained from four different 'modes' which he identifies (Walsh uses the term 'modes' instead of 'contexts'): the managerial mode, the system and skills mode, the materials mode and the classroom context mode. He used SETT with stimulated recall interviews to raise teachers' awareness of "the complex interrelationship between language, interaction and learning" (ibid. p. 111). He also presents a concept called "classroom interactional competence" (CIC), which he defines as follows:

> The construct classroom interactional competence (CIC) ... is concerned to account for learning-oriented interaction by considering the interplay between complex phenomenona that include roles of teachers and learners, their expectations and goals; the relationship between language use and teaching methodology; and the interplay between teacher and learner language. *Although CIC is not the sole domain of teachers*, it is still very much determined by them. (ibid. p. 130, emphasis added)

This construct is highly important in terms of understanding the data of the present study. Importantly, the italicised phrase in the above quotation implies that learners also play a role in CIC. In this research, I found that learner-initiated use of the L1 is related to the context in which it is used (see chapter 5, section 5.3). Interestingly, it was found

that learners use the L1 as "a medium of interaction" (Bonacina and Gafaranga, 2010): for instance, to ask for a clarification, to initiate other-repair, or to bid for the floor. Although language alternation does not play a part in Walsh's CIC framework, in the opinion of this researcher it is an integral feature of many EFL settings all over the world. Hence, I suggest that managing language alternation in the L2 classroom could be incorporated as an aspect of CIC.

In this section we have discussed CA as an institutional discourse methodology and shown how it can be used to analyse the interactional organisation of L2 classrooms. We have shown the contribution of CA in revealing the interactional organisation of the L2 classroom from an emic perspective – that of the participants themselves. We have also explained what is meant by L2 classroom context in this study. The present study follows Seedhouse's explication of the L2 classroom context and adapts it as a framework for organising the data. In this research, it was found that the data are organised differently in different contexts (as discussed in chapter four) and that the L1 and the L2 are used differently in each context; the reason they are used differently relates to how the context is organised and its emic logic. This finding indicates the reflexive relationship between interaction, the pedagogic focus and the languages used in different L2 contexts and thus supports Seedhouse's (2004) findings.

In the following section, corpus linguistics will be discussed and several studies that have used CL will be examined.

2.4 Corpus linguistics

There has been some debate concerning whether CL is a theory or a method (see Tognini-Bonelli 2001). In this research, however, CL is used to support and complement a CA analysis of spoken features of institutional discourse in an EFL setting; thus, in the current research CL may be considered to be a method, rather than a

theory. In the following section, CL and some issues relevant to the present study are discussed.

2.4.1 Definition and analytical approaches

CL is a methodological tool that has emerged recently along with the development of computer technology (Baker 2010; O'Keeffe and Adolphs 2008). A corpus can be defined as "a body of language, or more specifically a (usually) very large collection of naturally occurring language, stored as computer files" (Baker 2010, p. 6). Biber et al. (1998 p. 4 cited in Farr 2010 p.52) give the following description of CL, outlining the methodological orientation of CL, its analytical tools and interpretative techniques:

- it is empirical, analyzing actual patterns of use of a language in natural texts
- it utilizes a large and principled collection of natural texts, known as a 'corpus', as the basis of analysis
- it makes extensive use of computers for analysis, using both automatic and interactive techniques
- it depends on both quantitative and qualitative analytical techniques.

CL has been increasingly applied in a variety of fields "where the use of language is the focus of empirical study in a given context" (O'Keeffe and Adolphs 2008, p. 69). Indeed, "this lauds the versatility of CL in its applicability to a wide range of areas while also posing new and interesting theoretical and practical challenges" (Farr and O'Keeffe 2011, p. 299). Among the domains in which CL has been applied are media discourse (O'Keeffe 2006), medical discourse (Ferguson 2001) pragmatics (Adolphs 2008; Jautz 2008), political discourse (Ädel 2010) health care (Harvey et al. 2008), educational contexts (O'Keeffe and Farr 2003; Farr 2010; Walsh et al. 2011) and courtroom discourse (Cotterill 2004), to name but a few.

When applied in these different domains, CL is generally used as a methodological tool complementing another methodology such as DA or CA. Nevertheless, as Walsh et al. (2011 p. 327) argue, "to call CL a methodological tool is

not to denigrate it"; hence the studies referred to above could not have achieved the same insights without CL. Here, we have to distinguish between

> "pure" CL research and research which *applies* CL. In the former, where the description of the language of the corpus is an end in itself (descriptive corpus research), it helps us find out more about the use of language in a certain context. The latter type of research, on the other hand, looks at the wider interactional context of language in use. In this case, the corpus and its description is not an end in itself, the corpus is merely a means to the end of finding out more about a broader research question. (ibid.)

This distinction is also known in the literature as 'data-driven' as opposed to 'corpus-based' research (for more details see Tognini-Bonelli (2001)).

In the present research, CL is also applied as a methodological tool to investigate features related to the functions of L1 use in different L2 classroom contexts. It was thought that by applying CL within a CA framework, deeper insights would be obtained, since the two methods would complement each other.

2.4.2 Corpus linguistics in applied linguistics

There has recently been increased interest in the application of CL in various areas of applied linguistics, such as teacher education, data driven learning, comparative studies and written and spoken discourse. Owing to a shortage of space, only a few studies can be mentioned here (for further details see O'Keeffe and McCarthy 2010). For instance, in teacher education, Tsui (2005) shows how corpus evidence was used to help teachers recognise linguistic features and patterns and how corpus data stimulated teachers' questions and often lead to new insights into linguistic patterns and language use.

Another area is that of learner corpora, which can be used to evaluate EFL learners' written production (Granger 1994), comparing the 'formulae'[1] of native and non-native speakers (Ellis et al. 2008; De Cock 1998), and to assess the development of foreign language proficiency (Belz 2004).

[1]According to De Cock (1998), 'formulaic expressions' are multi-word units performing a pragmatic and/or discourse-structuring function

CL has also been used to study spoken discourse in EFL settings. For instance, Fung and Carter (2007 p. 410) investigated and compared the production of discourse markers by native speakers and EFL learners in Hong Kong. The results indicate that, "in both groups discourse markers serve as useful interactional manoeuvres to structure and organize speech on interpersonal, referential, structural, and cognitive levels". The native speakers were found to use discourse markers for a wider variety of pragmatic functions than the Hong Kong learners.

In the following section the analysis of spoken discourse, which is the focus of the current study, is examined further, with an emphasis on the methodological aspect.

2.4.3 Combining CA and CL

In this section three recent studies which have used a combination of CL and CA and/or DA are examined.

Using a corpus-based discourse analysis, Farr (2010) established a framework for teaching practice feedback, which includes four main categories: direction, reflection, evaluation and relational. Comparing two corpora of feedback (spoken and written), Farr (ibid. p. 172) found that there were indicators of all the categories, "but the evidence suggests that the reflective and relational functions are performed more predominantly during face to face interactions, while evaluation, especially summative assessment and direction, are more easily and frequently communicated in the written reports".

Santamaría-García (2011) used an eclectic combination of CL, DA and CA to compare cross-linguistic agreement and disagreement sequences in Spanish and English casual conversation. The analysis revealed that the production of initiating and responding discourse acts in agreement sequences was similar in English and Spanish in terms of frequency, structure and distribution, at both lexico-grammatical and discourse

levels. Some differences were also identified. Indeed, this study is useful in showing a practical model for integrating the three approaches, as follows:

> Corpus linguistics (CL) guides the collection and analysis of data from spoken corpora by means of quantitative computer-assisted methodology. Qualitative CA and DA results in the mark up of conversations with codes which facilitate CL quantitative analysis and the statistical treatment of data. The use of a text-retrieval program, a typical tool for CL, allows for the testing and validation of hypotheses (ibid. p. 347).

In this research also this model was employed. First, CA was used to identify the interactional organisation of the different L2 classroom contexts in the data; then DA was used to identify the functions of L1 within these contexts, using codes that would facilitate the use of CL. *WordSmith* tools, which allow the researcher to locate each function in the context[s] in which it is used, were then employed. However, the method used in this research differs slightly from the above study in that CL was used to help in answering research questions (not in testing an hypothesis), then the CL results were validated by means of a close-up CA analysis and explanation.

Walsh et al. (2011) investigated spoken academic discourse using CL and CA in the context of small group teaching in higher education. Their study shows the flexibility offered by using both approaches in an iterative process. The analysis provides detailed descriptions of the interaction from three perspectives: linguistic (e.g., high frequency items, keywords, discourse markers, etc), interactional features (focusing on turn-taking and turn-design, etc.) and pedagogic (pedagogic functions such as eliciting, explaining).

Thus, CL offers a methodological tool which can benefit the study of L2 classroom interaction (as it has also benefited research in the other domains mentioned above) in a number of ways. Walsh et al. (ibid. p. 326), for example, consider the benefits of the combination of CL and CA and conclude that it "provides powerful insights into the ways in which interactants establish understandings in educational

settings and, in particular, highlights the inter-dependency of words, utterances and text in the co-construction of meaning". The combination of CL and CA can thus offer two levels of analysis: the macro (discourse) and micro (word) analytical levels, which in turn offer complementary perspectives from which to understand features of spoken academic discourse in L2 classrooms. This combination also provides enhanced descriptions of spoken interaction in academic settings.

This research followed Walsh's (2011) suggestion of combining CA and CL, with the minor adaptation of locating the specific functions of L1 use within different L2 classroom contexts. I believe that using both methodologies offers new insights into the relationship between the use of the L1 and the different L2 classroom contexts. Moreover, to the best of my knowledge, no other study has yet employed this combination to investigate this relationship.

2.4.4 Can CA be combined with CL?

The first question a reader may ask when beginning to read this thesis is 'how can CA (detailed analysis) be combined with CL (frequency)?' This question was put to me indirectly by a scholar conducting an informal reading of my work in the following way: 'Did Paul (my supervisor) agree to the use of CL?' It was therefore deemed appropriate to provide a brief answer to this question here (see chapter 3 for a more detailed discussion). In fact, the same question is expressed quite simply by Drew and Heritage (2006 p. 13) as "is there a role for quantification in CA?" There are two perspectives on this issue. The first is represented in Schegloff's (1993) observation that "one is a number", which is to say that, "if the goal is to characterize previously unidentified interactional practices, this cannot be done by coding and counting ... Accordingly there is no alternative to the kind of close analysis and dense description that is necessarily qualitative in character" (Drew and Heritage 2006, p. 13).

The second perspective – as (Drew and Heritage 2006, p. 13) add- is to be found in more recent research (i.e., since around 2002: Clayman et al. 2006; Heritage and Robinson 2006), "which uses methods of coding which are based on intensive and detailed (qualitative) analysis of data through which an understanding is gained of how a phenomenon works interactionally (i.e. What are its interactional properties) (Heritage 2004: 137-141)" . Thus, as Drew and Heritage (2006 p. 14) put it, "CA's traditional reluctance to quantify its emergent results is likely to recede, especially when research involves comparatively large data sets and where, for instance, connections between linguistic form and communicative outcomes are being explored". Indeed, CL technology has offered a way or a solution to how to do this. For instance, we mentioned above various studies that have used CL as a tool to help answer research questions. It does so, for instance, by providing reliable frequencies.

This research comes under the second category in its use of quantification, since it first draws upon Seedhouse (2004) to understand how the use of the L1 and L2 works interactionally within the different L2 classroom contexts. Then it uses Ferguson's (2003) coding to map the functions of the L1 within these different contexts with the help of CL. In the words of Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991 p. 14),

> What is important for reseachers is not the choice of a priori paradigms, or methodologies, but rather to be clear about what the purpose of the study is and to match that purpose with the attributes most likely to accomplish it. Put another way, the methothodological design should be determined by the research question.

2.5 Summary of the chapter

The aim of this chapter has been to locate the present study within the context of the existing literature and to show how the literature provided the foundations for this research. It has also shown how this study addresses a research gap in the use of the L1 in L2 classroom discourse in particular. Some of the available literature on the use of the L1 and the benefits of using it in some teaching methods has been examined.

Several studies of CS were also examined briefly, including DA studies and Ferguson's system of categorisation, CA studies in bilingual settings and L2 classrooms, and studies on the use of Arabic in the L2 classroom. Some of the available literature on classroom interaction was then discussed, with a particular focus on the use of CA, and including explanations of the three-way view of context and classroom interactional competence. Following this, a description of CL and CL analytical approaches was provided. The section concluded with a discussion of two methodological points: combining CA and CL, and quantification in CA.

The review of the literature contained in this chapter helps us to understand the use of the L1 in the L2 classroom. It has also shown that the use of Arabic in Egyptian EFL classroom interaction is not a well-researched area. The current study used a combined CA and CL approach to examine Egyptian EFL classroom transcripts. The review has also revealed that previous research into classroom CS has located the functions of CS within the lesson as a whole, whereas this study investigates the use of the L1 employing both CL and a CA context-based approach. In other words, this study addresses a research gap by investigating the relationship between the use of the L1 and different L2 classroom contexts.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

The aim of this chapter is to explicate the methodological framework of the present study which was based on a combination of CA and CL. The chapter has three main foci: presenting CA (sections 3.3 - 3.6), CL (section 3.7), and presenting the data of this study (3.8). First, the purpose of the study and research questions are introduced (section 3.1), followed by a rationale for the research methodologies (section 3.2). An outline of the general framework of CA is presented in section 3.3, and in section 3.4 the position of CA within ethnomethodology (henceforth EM), from which CA is principally derived, is defined. This is explicated first by focusing on the relationship between CA and EM, and then by relating CA to some of the core ethnomethodological principles: indexicality (section 3.4.1), reflexive accountability (section 3.4.2) and context (section 3.4.3). These concepts have formed the analytical foundation not only for CA generally, but also for the present study. In section 3.5 the types of interactional organisation which were used in analysing the data of the current study are presented. Issues involving the reliability and validity of CA (section 3.6.1) and its limitations (section 3.6.2) are then discussed, followed by a discussion of how a methodological synergy of CL and CA can be achieved, showing how each approach can compensate for the limitations of the other. This then leads into a description of CL (section 3.7) and an explanation of methodological issues related to compiling and analysing a corpus (section 3.7.1), followed by an overview of CL tools (section 3.7.2). A description of the procedural aspect of the research appears in section 3.8. This includes subsections on the data collection method, transcription, the preparation of the corpus and initial analysis, and Ferguson's system of categorisation. A brief summary of the chapter is presented in the final section (section 3.9).

3.1 Purpose of the study and research questions

The aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between the use of the L1 and different L2 classroom contexts in an Egyptian EFL classroom setting. In particular, this study addresses the following questions:

1 What is the overall interactional organisation of the data? and how are the L1 and L2 used within that organisation?

2 What is the relationship between the functions of L1 use and the different L2 classroom contexts?

In order to answer these questions, the present study adopted CA to investigate such a relationship in an interpretive analytical way in combination with CL.

3.2 Rationale for the research methodologies

For the purposes of this study, it was decided that a combination of CA and CL would make it possible to examine the complex nature of classroom interaction on two levels: the micro and macro levels, and that this in turn would lead to a clearer understanding of the relationship between the use of the L1 and L2 in EFL classroom interaction in different L2 classroom contexts. According to other researchers, since second language classroom interaction is considered "a complex adaptive system" (Seedhouse 2010), hence "combinations or blends of methodologies would seem appropriate to the study of complex systems" (Larsen-Freeman and Cameron 2008, p. 250; see Richard et al. 2011).

I elected to use sequential CA analysis, adopting Seedhouse's (2004) concept of L2 classroom context, to help identify the use of the L1 in L2 classroom interaction and relate it to the pedagogic focus of the different L2 contexts. CA is able to depict how the participants organise the use of L1 and L2 from their own perspective "on a moment by moment basis" (Markee 2000, p. 99). The micro-analysis of the details of interaction

revealed the ways in which the participants displayed their own understanding of the different language choices in relation to the evolving pedagogic focus and the resulting interaction. This in turn shed light on the relationship between the use of the L1 and L2 within the different L2 classroom contexts.

To manage the data, I used functional discourse analysis: namely, Ferguson's (2003) categorisation system, to classify the functions of L1 use in L2 classroom interaction. I identified all the instances of L1 use using an annotation scheme (carried out by hand) in a way that would make using CL (*WordSmith Tools*) possible.

CL was used in this study as a methodological tool that facilitated automatic examination of the large dataset of the present study, "something which would have been impractical manually" (Walsh et al. 2011, p. 327). CL tools were used as a means to help locate the functions of L1 use by both teachers and learners in the different L2 classroom contexts. Thus the use of CL tools contributed to answering the second research question: that is, it helped to reveal the relationship between the functions of L1 use and the identified L2 classroom contexts. CA was then applied to complement the results thus obtained by revealing the micro-details of interaction which could not be revealed through the application of CL or DA. Thus each method compensated for the limitations of the other, resulting in enhanced understanding of the data at the micro and macro levels.

3.3 Conversation analysis methodology

The position of CA among other qualitative approaches has been established as an empirical methodology that identifies social phenomena as an actual practice of participants through a close examination of naturally occurring talk-in-interaction on the one hand and by using consistent analytical tools on the other.

3.3.1 Definition and aim

CA is the study of "*recorded, naturally occurring talk-in-interaction*" which aims to "discover how participants understand and respond to one another in their turns at talk, with a central focus being on how *sequences* of actions are generated" (Hutchby and Wooffitt 1998, p. 14). Not only does this definition highlight a salient methodological requirement of CA data: they should be "recorded" and "naturally occurring", it also emphasises the fact that CA is not concerned with talk/language from a linguistic perspective but rather with what is done or achieved by talk: namely "social actions" (Schegloff 2007). In other words, the CA approach views "utterances as actions which are situated within specific contexts" (Hutchby and Wooffitt 1998, p. 20) and interactants display understanding of what is said through "mutual intelligibily" (Heritage 1984, p. 262). The meaning of any of these social actions is "heavily shaped by the sequence of the previous action from which it emerges" (Heritage 2004, p. 223). Hence, "CA's goal is to explicate *the shared methods* interactants use to produce and recognise their own and other people's conduct" (Pomerantz and Fehr 1997, p. 69, emphasis added). To achieve this, CA uses an "emic perspective" (Pike 1967); that is, the view of the participants is adopted, and this is achieved by examining participants' orientations to each other.

In this thesis, therefore, the ways in which the participants organised the use of the L1 and L2 in the EFL classroom are described from their own perspectives. The methods shared by both teachers and learners to organise the use of the L1 and L2 within the different L2 classroom contexts are illustrated, in an attempt to "reveal the underlying procedural apparatus by which conversation participants themselves arrive at local interpretations of language choice" (Wei 2005, p. 381). To this end, I therefore focus on how teachers and learners co-construct and interpret the meaning in relation to their language choices and the evolving pedagogic focus and interaction.

3.3.2 Data collection methods

In order to gain access to the participants' view, it is important to "describe the details of interaction to provide both the researcher and the reader with sufficient information to understand exactly not only what but how the persons were speaking" (Psathas 1995, p. 11). This makes the transcription an essential but also arduous task (ten Have 2007, p. 94), as it must include micro-details such as pauses, intonation and laughter. Thus in this study this contextual information was included in order to gain access to the same resources as used by the teachers and learners. For example, in the present research, in many instances of the use of the L1, non-verbal features played a role in the switch to the L1. In extract 3.1 below, for example, L5 is asking T a question, which he replies to in next-turn. In line 453, T uses a hand gesture which is seemingly not understood by L5. This is evident in line 455 as L5 switches to Arabic to initiate other-repair. In line 456, T confirms the correctness of her question in English.

Extract 3.1

	450	L5:	Is Tasneem taller than (0.2) Nesrin? (0.3)
	451	T:	Yea (.) Yes (0.2) she is.
	452		(1.7) ((T looks at L5))
→	453		(0.4) ((hand gesture meaning continue, while
	454		looking down))
→	455	L5:	**aqul tani**?
			{tr. Shall I say again?}
	456	T:	yea a (.) any (0.3) question (0.5)
	457	L5:	a: (.) is Tasneem (1.4) [thin] [fat] fatter

The CA methodological commitment to using only "recorded" and "naturally occurring" data as the main resource and not to depend on other resources, such as interviews, helps the researcher to adopt the emic perspective, as pointed out by Heritage and Atkinson (1984 p. 4): "(T)he use of recorded data serves as a control on the limitations and fallibilities of intuition and recollection…".

In the present study, I collected video-recorded data from various Egyptian EFL classrooms without any intervention on my part. The data collected in this way helped me to investigate the interactional resources used by both teachers and learners to organise their use of the L1 and L2 in classroom interaction.

In this section the goals and data collection method of CA have been introduced. In the following section the relation of CA to ethnomethodology will be explicated. Two ethnomethodological principles: indexicality and reflexive accountability will then be discussed in relation to the data of the present study.

3.4 CA and ethnomethodology

Ethnomethodology had a great influence on the emergence of CA. On the one hand, EM and CA are related, as both concentrate on actual social everyday practices; the difference between them is one of scope. EM has a broader scope than CA as it focuses on "the principles on which people base their social actions" (Seedhouse 2004, p. 3); the scope of CA is narrower, since it "focuses more narrowly on the principles which people use to interact with each other by means of language" (ibid.). CA is not only concerned with discovering the orderly principles of interaction but also with the outcomes or the achievements of these processes. In this regard, Clayman and Maynard (1995 p. 15) contrast the positions of EM and CA:

> Ethnomethodology may be understood as a form of inquiry which avoids making claims about the substantive character of social life, and investigates instead how social phenomena, whatever their character, are accountably achieved in the social environment of action. It is because of this stance that ethnomethodologists have traditionally remained "indifferent" to the results of classical sociological research and theorizing (Garfinkel and Wieder, 1992: 186). Conversation analytic inquiry, by contrast, does seem to render positive characterizations of social phenomena, characterizations that encompass not only the underlying *processes* of interaction but its accountable *products* as well.

The principal goal of CA is based on the ethnomethodological assumption that "there is order at all points" (Sacks 1984a, p. 22). Hence, the CA analyst aims to

"discover, describe and analyze that order or orderliness" (Psathas 1995, p. 45). The analysis of this order helps to reveal "the machinery of interaction", which is what Sacks, the main originator of CA, aimed to discover. In a sense, CA analytical procedures serve to confirm the fact that the main concern of CA is not "to explain why people act as they do but rather to explicate how they do it" (ten Have 2007, p. 9). For instance, in the present study the aim was to investigate *how* the L1 is used in relation to different L2 contexts, rather than to explain *why* the L1 is used. I found that some functions of L1 use behave differently in different L2 classroom contexts.

In the following subsections, the above explanation of the relationship between ethnomethodology and CA will be extended by focusing on two ethnomethodological principles that provide both the methodological and analytical foundations of CA and hence of this study. These are the principles of indexicality and reflexive accountability.

3.4.1 Indexicality and reflexive accountability

Indexical or deictic expressions are sets of words whose meanings are context-bound or embedded: for instance, this, now, there…etc. (Heritage 1984, p. 142). Understanding the contextual features of indexical expressions is fundamental to ethnomethodology and hence also to CA, as Garfinkel states:

> "I use the term 'ethnomethodology' to refer to the investigation of the rational properties of *indexical expressions and other practical actions as contingent ongoing accomplishments* of organized artful practices of everyday life (Garfinkel 1967, p. 11, cited in ten Have 2004, p. 21, emphasis added).

This principle explains "*CA's insistence that we invoke contextual features in analysis only when it is evident in the details of the interaction that the participants themselves are orienting to such features*" (Seedhouse 2004, p. 7, italics in original).

The second principle, "reflexive accountability", is considered as a "central pillar of Garfinkel's work" (Heritage 1984, p. 109). This principle indicates that, "the activities whereby members produce and manage settings of organized everyday affairs

are identical with members' procedures for making those settings 'account-able'" (Garfinkel 1967, p. 1, cited in Heritage ibid, p. 109). That is to say "reflexivity refers to the self-explicating property of ordinary actions" (ten Have 2004, p. 20).

Both these principles formed the epistemological as well as the methodological underpinning of this study. From an epistemological point of view, quoting Pike (1967), ethnomethodological reflexivity is based on adopting an '*emic*' or participants' perspective rather than an '*etic*' or outsider's view to describe social behaviour. The present study describes the use of the L1 in the L2 classroom from the perspective of the participants themselves.

The principle of reflexive accountability enabled me as researcher to study and gain access, like the partcipants, to the "understandability and expressability of an activity as a sensible action" (ten Have 2004, p. 20), or to the displayed "mutual interactional engagement" (Heritage 1984, p. 107). As Garfinkel (1967 p. vii) states,

> Ethnomethodological studies analyse everyday activities as members' methods for making those same activities visibly-rational-and-reportable-for-all-practical-purposes, i.e., 'accountable', as organizations of commonplace everyday activities. The reflexivity of that phenomenon is a singular feature of practical actions, of practical circumstances, of commonsense knowledge of social structures, and of practical sociological reasoning. By permitting us to locate and examine their occurrence the reflexivity of that phenomenon establishes their study.

In the present study, I investigated the use of the L1 and L2 in different L2 classroom contexts. Teachers and learners were in an EFL stetting where the institutional goal is to teach and learn the L2. I was therefore interested in how they display 'understandability' and 'intersubjectivity' to each other when they switched to the L1, and how this switch is related to the pedagogic focus within the different L2 classroom contexts.

3.4.2 What does context mean in CA terms?

The concept of context is germane to the present study, since it adapts a context-based approach (Seedhouse 2004). As shown above, the CA view of context is based on the ethnomethodological principles of indexicality and reflexive accountability. Thus context is shaped by what is relevant to the participants *in situ*. The CA view of context is quite problematic for non-CA practitioners, who see context at the macro level. Drew and Heritage (1992 p. 21) explain how CA researchers deal with context as "inherently locally produced, incrementally developed and, by extension, as transformable at any moment". Thus any claims concerning gender, culture and the like should be "actually procedurally relevant to the participants in the data" (Seedhouse 2004, p. 91); otherwise any such claims are seen as irrelevant. As stated above, CA requires this interactional understanding of context because it aims "to develop an emic perspective on how the participants display to each other their understanding of the context" (ibid. p. 43).

The CA concept of context relates to the present, in that each L2 classroom context is seen as "modes of interactional organisation through which institutional business is accomplished" (ibid. p. 206).

Also related to the issue of context is the use of field or ethnographic data within CA (see Moerman 1988). In the present study some ethnographic resources and "expert knowledge" (Arminen 2000) were made use of. I may have inadvertently made some use of my expert knowledge derived from 10 years' experience as a teacher (1998-2007) and also as a teacher-supervisor in the study setting, and also of cultural background, since I share the participants' knowledge of Arabic as the L1 and their familiarity with the Egyptian culture, as well as with the education system in Egypt.

The above discussion has examined some notions that are fundamental to ethnomethodology and shown how these are related to the present study. In the next section, types of interactional organisation are examined in detail and are also related to

the data obtained for the present study. These types of interactional organisation provided the analytical tools for the present study and in conjunction with the ethnomethodological principles discussed above also provided the theoretical underpinning of this research.

3.5 Types of interaction organisation

The early work of Sacks and Schegloff resulted in the discovery of the principal interactional unit of turn-taking, and also clarified the "technology of conversation" or "structure in interaction" that Sacks was looking for. It also confirmed the ethnomethodological principle of order (Psathas 1995, p. 17).

In the following sections a brief explanation of four sequential units of interaction: turn-taking, sequence organisation, repair organisation and the organisation of turn-design, is provided. These units were the analytical tools which were used to examine the interactional organisation of the data obtained for the present study.

3.5.1 Turn-taking organisation

The turn-taking mechanism can be defined as

> "an organizational device that would allow parties to achieve the design feature of one-party-at-a-time in the face of a recurrent change in who the speaking party was, while providing as well for such occasions of multiple speakership and lapses in the talk (i.e. silence) as the parties might undertake to co-construct." (Schegloff 2000a, p. 2)

Turn-taking is not a fixed system, but rather a "local management system" of both turn-size and turn-order (Sacks et al. 1974, p. 725). The foundational model of Sacks et al. (1974) explains the turn-taking system of conversation as being composed of two components: turn-construction and turn-allocation. The model also explicates how turn-transition is locally managed by participants in an orderly manner. Speakers can do this by normative orientation to possible "transition relevant places" which occur at "'possible completion points' of sentences, clauses, phrases and one-word constructions"

(ibid. p. 721). Hutchby and Wooffitt (1998 p. 48) suggest two key features of turn constructional units (TCU). The first is the property of 'projectability': that is, "it is possible for participants to project, in the course of a turn-construction unit, what sort of unit it is and at what point it is likely to end" (ibid.). The second feature is the fact that turn-construction units have 'transition-relevance places' at their boundaries: that is, "at the end of each unit there is the possibility for legitimate transition between speakers" (ibid.).

For example, in the extract below, the caller is oriented to the clausal TCU "*What is your last name*" as a possible transition relevant place; hence the caller projects an appropriate start in line 2. In lines 2-3, the turns are single-word units, which also allow projectability in the next turn.

```
1   Desk:    What is your last name [Loraine]
2   Caller:                         [Dinnis]
3   Desk:    What?
4   Caller:  Dinnis.
```

(Sacks et al. 1974, p. 702)

Turn-allocation refers to whether (a) the next turn is allocated by the current speaker's selecting the next speaker; or (b) the next turn is allocated by self-selection (ibid. p. 703). In the extract above, the current speaker (Desk) allocates the turn, by questioning in line 1 and by initiating a repair in line 3.

The turn-taking in a classroom setting is different from that in a conversation, since it is usually controlled by the teacher, leading to asymmetry between teachers and learners. Moreover, it is related to the pedagogic focus. So when the pedagogic focus varies, the turn-taking also varies (Seedhouse 2004). In the present study, it was found that the teachers usually allocate the turn-taking. However, it was also found that some learners self-select without teacher nomination, either bidding for the floor or initiating repair (see extract 3.7).

3.5.2 Sequence organisation

The turn-taking mechanism operates within sequence organisation, through which participants "initiate, develop and conclude the business they have together" (Heritage 2004, p. 230). A sequence thus shows how an utterance is linked to a previous utterance/turn (context-shaped) "while at the same time it creates a context for its own 'next utterance'" (ten Have 2007, p. 130). The minimal sequential unit is a two-move sequence or '*adjacency pair*' (Schegloff and Sacks 1973): for instance, greeting/return-greeting and question/answer. Adjacency pair organisation appears to function as "a resource for *sequence* construction comparable to the way turn-constructional units serve as a resource for *turn* construction" (Schegloff 2007, p. 9). The extract above can be classified as a request/acceptance adjacency pair. The following example from the data of the present study is taken from the beginning of a lesson with a secondary class:

Extract 3.2

1	T:	good morning
2	LL:	good morning Mister Mohmamed
3	T:	How are you?
4	LL:	Fine thank you

In this extract, line 1 represents the first part of a greeting/return-greeting adjacency pair, and is followed by the learners' greeting in line 2, which represents the second part. Thus an adjacency pair is composed of two parts and the second part in the adjacency pair sequence is relevant to the first part (greeting/return greeting). Schegloff (2007 p. 20) explains the relationship between the first and second pair parts in terms of "conditional relevance". He states that,

> "First" and "second" do not refer merely to the order in which these turns *happen* to occur; they refer to design features of these turn types and sequential positions. The very feature of "first-ness" sets up the relevance of something else to follow; it projects the relevance of a "second".

Consequently the production of relevant second parts provides "a powerful normative framework for the assessment of interlocutors' actions and motives by producers of first

parts" (Hutchby and Wooffitt 1998, p. 43). The production of a relevant second pair part also confirms "interactional enagaement" (Heritage 1984, p. 107) between speakers.

In an L2 classroom, when learners produce a suitable reply to the teacher's questions they are not only displaying their understanding of the teacher's question but also of the pedagogic focus. Thus the second pair part is important as it shows the teacher that the learner understands the evolving pedagogic focus.

However, "the absence of such a second part is a 'noticeable absence', and the speaker of the first part may infer a reason for that absence" (Hutchby and Wooffitt 1998, p. 42). In the data obtained for the present study, there are many instances of this 'noticeable absence'. In such cases, the teacher often uses the L1 in the next turn when the learner delays in giving an answer. For example, in the extract below, T reads the story, and then asks about the meaning of 'look at' in lines 495-496. LL do not produce a second relevant part, which is to give the Arabic equivalent. In addition, they look at their book, which implies a lack of 'understandability' about the teacher's pedagogic focus. Hence, in line 498, T uses the Arabic continuer **'ha-'**.

Extract 3.3

	494	T:	"Look at the: (0.3) Suez canal building"
	495		(.) ↑look at (.) What is the meaning of
	496		look at?
	497		(0.2) ((LL looking at their books))
→	498	T:	**ha-** =
			{tr. come on}
	499	LL:	=**inzur illa inzur illa**
			{tr. look at look at}

From an analytical point of view, this is an example of basic CA evidence, since it provides a '*next-turn proof procedure*', indicating that "a reflexive relationship exists between adjacent turns: the next turn is used as an analytic resource for making sense of the prior turn, which, for its part, has provided the sequential implications that have made the next turn relevant" (Arminen 2005, p. 3). It is therefore evident that the

ethnomethodological principle of reflexivity "underlies the CA mechanism of the adjacency pair" (Seedhouse 2004, p. 11).

Another inferential aspect of adjacency pairs is known as preference organisation (Hutchby and Wooffitt 1998, p. 42). Certain adjacency pairs, such as invitations and requests, make alternative actions relevant: e.g., acceptance/rejection or declination. Thus agreement with an assessment is a "preferred next action" while disagreement is a "dispreferred next action" (Pomerantz 1984, p. 63). Preferred actions are delivered directly, whereas dispreferred actions are delayed and "are variously softened and made indirect" (Atkinson and Heritage 1984, p. 53).

Several researchers have examined preference organisation in a classroom setting. Üstünel (2004) found a preference organisation pattern when the teacher code-switched to Turkish to repair the trouble of a learner's delayed reply after more than one second. The extract below is an example of this preference organisation as found in the present research. Several examples of this preference pattern were found in the data.

Extract 3.4

```
    244  T:   This is a possessive ↓adjective (0.5)
    245  L4:  [his]
    246  T:   [his] (0.4) ah {tr. yea} (.) yes my hands
                          {tr. yea}
    247       change into his (0.4) If the: speaker (0.2)
    248       is female (.) What can we say?
→   249       (0.5)
→   250       law  il-mutaHadeth mouanath hanqul biloGhatoh
              {tr. If the: speaker is female we will say
              in his words}
    251       (0.2)
    252  L4:  her=
    253  L2:  =she
→   254  T:   (.) ↑no: (.) ((T signs no and points at L4))
    255  L1:  Her
    256  L4:  Her
    257  LL:  [her]
    258       [her] ((still pointing)) (.) Yes (0.3)
    259       Yuba (.)Farid said (.) yes his hand  (2.2)
```

T asks a question in lines 247-248. After a pause of (0.5) in line 249, T repairs his question by switching to Arabic to translate it. After this switch, learners reply in the next turn (lines 252 and 253).

Seedhouse (2004 p.164) also shows how the teachers in his research used particular repair strategies in order to avoid using dispreferred unmitigated negative repair. In the present study, however, it was found that some teachers did use unmitigated repair. For example, in the extract above, T uses an unmitigated 'no' in line 254.

3.5.3 Repair organisation

Repair mechanisms deal with turn-taking errors, violations and troubles (Sacks et al. 1974, p. 723). A trouble can be defined as "anything which the participants judge is impeding their communication and a repairable item is one which constitutes trouble for the participants" (Seedhouse 2005, p. 168). For example, the trouble could be mishearing, or misunderstanding. In this sense, "from an ethnomethodological perspective, repair is a vital mechanism for the maintenance of reciprocity of perspectives and intersubjectivity" (Seedhouse 2004, p. 34).

In L2 classroom discourse, repair plays a very important role indeed, and it "tends to carry a heavier load than in other settings" (ibid.). Consequently, "it is of particular importance for L2 learners and teachers to understand how breakdown in communication and misunderstandings are repaired" (ibid.). Numerous instances of repair can be found in the data of the present study, carried out by teachers and sometimes even by learners (see extracts 5.14 and 5.16).

Repair can be categorised in two ways, according to (1) who initiated repair (self or others), and (2) who repaired (self or others) (Schegloff et al. 1977). Thus there are four trajectories of repair, as follows:

1. Self-initiated self-repair
2. Self-initiated other-repair
3. Other-initiated self-repair
4. Other-initiated other-repair.

For example, the extract below from the data of the present study shows an example of the third type. T asks about the meaning of the word 'run' in line 1. L1 gives the answer (line 5). This answer constitutes a trouble source for T, who initiates repair (line 6). '*What*' is a non-specific repair initiator (Drew 1997), as it does not specify the trouble source. L1 repairs in the next turn in line 7. L1 first repeats the trouble source '*insect*' and then switches to give the Arabic equivalent **'Ha$ara'** (line 8) to intiate repair. Schegloff (2000b p. 205) calls this a "next turn repair initiator" (NTRI).

Extract 3.5

	1	T:	..there is a run in my trousers (0.2)What does it mean?(0.4)
	2	LL:	((some learners raise their hands))
	3	L1:	yes=
	4	T:	=yea
	5	L1:	an insect
→	6	T:	what?
	7		(0.6)
	8	L1:	insect (0.5) **Ha$ara** (0.3) ((the student smiles)) {tr. insect}
	9	T:	there's likely an insect (0.2) in my trousers (.)
	10		there is a run in my
	11		trousers (.) thank you sit down

Thus this extract contains an illustration of other-initiated self-repair, the type of repair initiator (RI) and the position of the repair.

The organisation of repair has also been examined in relation to preference organisation. In mundane conversations, self-repair is more frequently preferred than other-repair (Schegloff et al. 1977). However, in the language classroom other-initiated (teacher) self-repair (learner) is common (see Kasper 1986; Seedhouse 2004), and this was also found to be the case in the present research. An instance of this occurs in the extract above where the teacher uses a non-specific repair, initiating other-repair.

Repair in the L2 classroom has also been discussed by previous researchers (Kasper 1986; van Lier 1988; Seedhouse 2004). For instance, Seedhouse (2004) investigates it in relation to pedagogic focus. He shows how the organisation of repair varies in the different L2 classroom contexts according to the pedagogical focus. Following Seedhouse, this study investigates the use of the L1 and L2 within different L2 classroom contexts. For example, in chapter five, functions of L1 use which are peculiar to the repair organisation of specific contexts are described.

3.5.4 Turn-design organisation

Heritage (2004 p. 231) explains that a turn being 'designed' refers to "two distinct selections that a person's speech embodies: (1) the action that the talk is designed to perform and (2) the means that are selected to perform the action". This refers to what Sacks et al. (1974 p.727) call "recipient design", which refers "to a multitude of respects in which the talk by a party in a conversation is constructed or designed in ways which display an orientation and sensitivity to the particular other(s) who are the co-participants".

For instance, in an L2 classroom setting, Koshik (2002) used a CA framework to examine an interactional and pedagogical practice: the designedly incomplete utterance (DIU), which is used by teachers in one-to-one second language writing conferences to elicit students' self-correction of their language errors. In the present study it was found that the teachers use DIU for different purposes: e.g., to get the learners to initiate self-repair, as in line 525 in the following extract:

Extract 3.6

```
     521  L2:  why do we (0.2) keep chickens?
     522  L1:  °chicken° (.) we keep (.) chicken a:  a(0.3)
     523       to get a: a meat
     524       (0.6)
  →  525  T:   to get↑
     626       (0.3)
```

```
527  L1:  Meat
528  T:   ((T looks at L2, signing as though to say,
          what?))
529  L1:  Meat
530  T:   yea ((nodding)) to get meat
531  T:   thank you (0.3)
```

Above, we have examined the units of interaction and related these to the present study. It is also important to note here the specific use of these CA analytical tools in this research. In this study ethnomethodological CA rather than the linguistic version of CA, was used (for differences between the two versions, see Seedhouse 2004, p. 51). This means that my analysis focuses on the social actions that the participants accomplish when using the L1 in L2 classroom contexts. Thus the focus here is on how the participants sequentially organise and locally manage the use of the L1 in L2 classroom interaction.

In the previous sections CA ethnomethodological principles and types of interaction organisation have been discussed in relation to the present study. In the following section an evaluation of CA as a research methodology is provided.

3.6 Methodological issues: judging CA quality

This section provides an evaluation of the quality of CA in terms of reliability and validity; the limitations of CA are outlined and the rationale for selecting CA as the main methodology for the current study is presented.

3.6.1 Reliability and validity

CA is different in nature from other qualitative research, since "CA operates *closer to the phenomenona* than most other approaches, because it works on … recordings and detailed transcripts, rather than on coded, counted, or otherwise summarized representations…" (emphasis in original, ten Have 2007, p. 9). Moreover, this procedural requirement ensures reliability because "(t)he use of recorded data serves as

a control on the limitations and fallibilities of intuition and recollection"(Heritage and Atkinson 1984, p. 4).

On the one hand, Peräkylä (2004) proposes obtaining large amounts of data as a way of improving reliability. He points out that "in order to be able to achieve a position where he or she can observe *the variation of the phenomenon* (such as the delivery of diagnosis) in any reliable way, the researcher needs a large enough collection of cases" (ibid. p. 288, emphasis in original). In this vein, the data of the present study includes 27 video-recorded hours to help observe the variations in the CS phenomenon in an Egyptian EFL setting.

On the other hand, Seedhouse (2004 p. 254) examines another facet of reliability in answer to Bryman's (2001 p. 29) question regarding "whether the results of the study are repeatable and replicable", and the way in which CA data should be presented. Seedhouse (2004 pp. 254-255) differentiates between the reliability of CA and that of other research methodologies in terms of the presentation of data:

> By contrast, it is standard practice for CA studies to include the transcripts of the data, and increasingly to make audio and video files available electronically via the Web. Furthermore, the analyst makes the process of analysis transparent for the reader. This enables readers to analyse the data themselves, to test the analytical procedures which the author has followed and the validity of his/her analysis and claims. In this way, conversation analyses are rendered repeatable and replicable to the reader. Also, it is standard practice for CA practitioners to take their data and analyses to data workshops and to send their work to a number of other practitioners for comment before sending them for publication

In relation to the present research, the researcher presented the data at selected workshops (see section 3.8.4). Additionally, the availability of recorded data in this research supports the validation of the analytic process as well as presenting the reader directly with the grounds for the analytic claims. Thus, the CA method of data collection enables readers to scrutinise both the transcripts and the claims based on them.

Seedhouse (2004 pp. 254-256) also argues for validity in CA, discussing four types of validity: internal, external, ecological and construct validity (Bryman 2001). Owing to limitations of space, only internal validity will be discussed here, since this was the most important type of validity in this study. Internal validity "is concerned with soundness, integrity and credibility of findings. Do the data prove what the researcher says they prove, or are there other explanations?" (Seedhouse 2004, p. 255). Thus internal validity puts the analytic process as well as the results under scrutiny. To analyse the "interactional organisation of social activities", CA uses an emic approach, which looks for evidence inside the social situation, within the analysed data itself, rather than applying external or theoretical assumptions (Hutchby and Wooffitt 1998, p.14). In the present study, the evidence is based on the displayed emic perspective of the interacatants: namely, how the teachers and learners organise the use of the L1 in the L2 classroom contexts. It is by adopting this emic perspective that I was able to understand how participants displayed understanding to each other - by "normative reference to the interactional organization" (Seedhouse 2004, p. 238). The question now arises: *how do CA analysts access participants' emic perspective?* The answer, according to Seedhouse, is as follows:

> Conversation analysts know what the participants' perspective is, because the participants document their social actions to each other in the details of the interaction by normative reference to the interactional organization. We as analysts can access the emic perspective in the details of the interaction and by reference to the same organization. Clearly, the details of the interaction themselves provide the only justification for claiming to be able to develop an emic perspective. Therefore, CA practitioners cannot make any claims beyond what is demonstrated by the interactional detail without destroying the emic perspective and hence the whole validity of the enterprise (ibid. p. 255).

In this thesis, I have presented the organisation of L1 and L2 use within L2 classroom interaction from the emic perspective of the participants themselves and have also presented the evidence contained in the micro details in the transcripts. The conclusions I have reached are based solely on what was relevant for the participants *in situ*.

3.6.2 Limitations of CA

From a methodological point of view, stating the boundaries of CA helps to establish its limitations as well as to explain the methodological limitations of the present research. So far this chapter has explained what CA can do and how it can do it. In this section the limitations and various criticisms of CA will be discussed.

The first criticism is related to the issue of context (section 3.4.3) and the interest of CA researchers in the details of the micro context to the detriment of the macro social context (see, for example, Kitzinger and Frith 1999, p. 311) Secondly, the selectivity of CA data is also seen as a limitation of CA. Hammersley (2003 p. 759) argues that the recorded data are "… not the same as the social interaction they record. They are selective... Furthermore, what is 'picked up' or 'in shot' is only part of a much wider realm of happenings". The third criticism is related to the difference between the CA analysts' view of the data and that of the participants. Hammersley (ibid.) adds that "we do not relate to recordings in the same way that we orient to social interaction when we are participants in it... This is heightened by the fact that we can slow down the recording, stop and replay it".

The three points mentioned above have in common the fact that they are derived from a slight misunderstanding of the methodological and epistemological position of CA. Firstly, the CA attitude towards context is closely related to and inseparable from its aim, which is to display the participants' emic perspective: in other words, "to determine which elements of context are relevant to the interactants at any point in the interaction" (Seedhouse 2004, p. 42). This dynamic view of context shows that "the participants build the context of their talk in and through their talk" (Heritage and Clayman 2010, p. 22) by displaying their understanding to each other. It obviously follows, then, that "this cannot be achieved by analysts' etically deciding which aspects of context they think are relevant, particularly as there are an infinite number of

potentially relevant contextual details which can be invoked" (Seedhouse 2004, p. 43) (for a detailed discussion of the issue of context, see section 3.4.3).

Secondly, concerning CA data, these are based on "the method of instances... One instance is sufficient to attract attention and analytic interest ... Its occurrence, however, is not proof of the adequacy of an analysis, because the analysis task is to provide a wholly adequate analysis of just how this instance is organized" (Psathas 1995, p. 50). Therefore, "it should be clear that the aim of conversation analysis is not to achieve 'empirical generalizations', but rather that it is concerned with providing analyses that meet the criterion of 'unique adequacy'" (Garfinkel and Sacks 1970, cited in Psathas 1995, p. 50). Thirdly, with regard to CA analysts' views of the data, it may be true that we do not react in the same way as the participants; however, CA analysts do take into account "the manners which participants themselves display that make sense (meaning) of what occurs" (ibid., p. 48). Again, this is related to a methodological constraint, which at the same time constitutes evidence in CA: that is, the '*next-turn proof procedure*' (Sacks et al. 1974). So a CA analyst cannot claim anything unless it is displayed in participants' *inter/actions*. A CA analyst aims to discover "the interactional phenomena that had been hitherto unnoticed" (Psathas 1995, p. 46). The interactional order is invisible to the participants themselves and noticed by them only when it is violated. This idea underlies Garfinkel's 'breaching' experiments (Garfinkel 1967).

In summary, CA analysts adopt an emic perspective in order to obtain the same view of the data as the participants themselves. Hence, nothing can be claimed unless it is transparent in the participants' inter/actions. Secondly, the aim of CA is to discover the invisible order beneath the details through "repeated listening/viewing and transcribing" (Psathas 1995, p. 46).

In the present study, efforts were made to overcome the limitations discussed above in two ways: the data for this study were video-recorded in order to gain

additional access to participants' body and non-verbal orientations. In the presentation in this thesis the analysis of the transcripts includes this non-verbal information, supplemented with contextual information (the pedagogic focus of each transcript) so that the reader understands what is going on in the interaction and is thus given as much access to participant interaction as the researcher.

The combining of CA with CL in this research also helped to overcome these limitations, as in data interpretation the two approaches provide micro and macro perspectives respectively. In the following section, we focus on explicating how CL was used to complement CA, followed by a description of CL.

3.6.3 CA and CL: a methodological synergy

In the previous section, some of the limitations of CA were described. In this section the ways in which CL as a methodological tool can work and complement CA, and vice versa, are discussed. Whereas CA is criticised for its emic view of context (as shown above in section 3.6.2), CL is criticised for presenting "language out of context" (Hunston 2002, p. 23). Corpus linguists also cannot "directly infer contextual factors from co-textual ones, and use textual data as conclusive evidence of discourse" (Widdowson 2004, p. 126). However, as Hunston (2002 p. 20) argues,

> … it might be more proper to say that corpora are a way of collecting and sorting data, and that it is the corpus access programs - presenting concordance lines and calculating frequencies – that are the tools. Stubbs (1999) points out that, just as it is ridiculous to criticise a telescope for not being a microscope, so it is pointless to criticise corpora for not allowing some methods of investigation. They are invaluable for doing what they do, and what they do not do must be done in another way.

Thus by combining CL and CA, the context issue can be resolved, as whatever CL cannot offer concerning the context, CA can accomplish in a different way.

Another limitation of CL concerns the scope of its analytical tools. As Baker (2010 p. 152) points out, "while the increasingly automatic techniques of analysis

afforded by corpus software are able to offer new and often fascinating perspectives on language use and patterning ... they are not (yet) capable of automatically identifying every case of a particular linguistic 'item' ". On the one hand, in this study DA was used to identify the functions of the L1. However, on the other hand CA is also capable of doing this through the full sequential analysis of single or deviant cases (Schegloff 1968). Again, CL and CA can complement each other on this point, which was indeed quite important for this study. For instance, CL revealed that some functions of the L1 occurred less frequently than others; however, CA contextual analysis showed that those functions were peculiar to particular L2 classroom contexts and were thus worthy of consideration in this study.

Therefore, the combination of CA and CL resulted in complementary views of the data by including both micro and macro levels.

3.7 Corpus linguistics

Corpus linguistics can be used as a "methodological tool that will help us investigate classroom discourse" (Walsh 2011, p. 93) through "seeing the data from a big picture to help identify the frequency of words and the consistent use of those words throughout the different lessons" (ibid.). According to McCarthy et al. (2002 p. 70, cited in Farr 2010, p. 51), there are two approaches within CL:

> Broadly, corpus linguistics may be performed in two ways: quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative approach usually looks for the largest corpus possible [….] from as wide a range of sources as possible. These data are then analysed computationally and the output comprises sets of figures that tell the discourse analyst about the frequency of occurrence of words, phrases, collections or structures. These statistics are then used to produce dictionaries, grammars, and so on. But for the discourse analyst, statistical facts raise the question "*Why*?", and the answers can only be found by looking at the contexts of the texts in the corpus. Discourse analysts, therefore, work with corpora in a qualitative way.

The present study adopts the second approach of using CL tools to help answer the research questions and exploring the data more deeply using a CA context-based

approach. However, rather than simply asking 'why?' this study also asks a modified CA question: 'why that language in that context right now?'

3.7.1 Issues involved in compiling and analysing the corpus

3.7.1.1 Corpus design

Before collecting the corpus of the present study, some points had to be considered in order to ensure that the corpus sample was representative of the diversity of the sample under study in a meaningful way (Hunston 2002, p. 29). As far as a corpus of classroom interaction data is concerned, Walsh (2011 p. 92) suggests the following design criteria:

- What language levels?
- How many nationalities?
- How many age groups?
- What range of teacher: experienced, novice, native speaker, non-native speakers?
- How many classes?
- What types of classes?

Applying these criteria to the present study, we find that this research covered a wide range of educational levels, from primary school to university, and hence a wide range of ages (9 - 21 years) and levels (basic education, high school and higher education). It also included teachers with varying amounts of experience (4 - 25 years). Both the learners and the teachers share the same nationality (Egyptian) and the same mother tongue (Arabic). The schools are in four different locations in Egypt and the sample also included both male and female teachers. The classes under study included a variety of different lessons: e.g., grammar, novel, listening and translation (see Appendix C for more details).

Thus the corpus of the present study can be described as a specialised corpus as it is of a particular type, which may be referred to as 'Egyptian EFL spoken classroom discourse'. Hunston (2002 p. 14) defines the specialised corpus as "A corpus of text of a particular type, such as.... lectures, casual conversations, essays written by students etc.

It aims to be representative of a given type of text. It is used to investigate a particular type of language".

3.7.1.2 Annotation

After compiling the corpus and transcribing it, the next step was corpus annotation, which is defined as "the process of adding information to a corpus" (Hunston 2002, p. 79). The aim of annotation, as Baker (2010 p. 149) explains, is "to enable patterns of language in a corpus to be identified more effectively, as well as helping to introduce different dimensions of linguistic analysis to our research, beyond the lexical text." What sort of information is added depends on the needs of the research. For example, the aim of the present study was to investigate the relationship between the functions of L1 use by teachers and learners and the different L2 classroom contexts. To this end, the functions and the different L2 classroom contexts were annotated to meet the needs of the study (Appendix E). In this concern, Hunston (ibid. p. 94) points out that, "It is important to be able to use *ad hoc* annotations as necessary. Annotation should serve the needs of the corpus user, not determine the direction the investigation must take".

3.7.2 Corpus tools

After preparing the data (collecting and transcribing), a corpus software can be used; *WordSmith* 5 was used in this study to analyse the data. *WordSmith* has three main tools: 'wordlist' or 'word frequency', 'concordance and dispersion plots', and 'keyword'.

3.7.2.1 Wordlist or word frequency

A word frequency list indicates the most frequently used words in the whole corpus. For example, Table 3.1 below shows the wordlist for the Egyptian EFL corpus (the corpus of the present study; for more details see section 3.8) as a whole.

Table 3.1 Wordlist of the Egyptian EFL corpus

N	Word	Freq.	%	Texts	%
1	THE	1,395	3.13	14	100.00
2	A	1,227	2.75	14	100.00
3	IL	1,188	2.66	14	100.00
4	IS	764	1.71	14	100.00
5	YES	718	1.61	14	100.00
6	YOU	625	1.40	14	100.00
7	EH	561	1.26	14	100.00
8	WE	524	1.17	14	100.00
9	OF	475	1.06	14	100.00
10	TO	462	1.04	14	100.00
11	I	451	1.01	14	100.00
12	IT	397	0.89	14	100.00
13	MISTER	391	0.88	9	64.29
14	WHAT	362	0.81	14	100.00
15	AND	361	0.81	14	100.00
16	IN	319	0.71	14	100.00
17	WI	305	0.68	12	85.71
18	OKAY	304	0.68	14	100.00
19	CAN	303	0.68	13	92.86
20	THIS	271	0.61	13	92.86
21	NO	257	0.58	14	100.00
22	HA	231	0.52	13	92.86
23	YACNI	222	0.50	12	85.71
24	HAVE	219	0.49	13	92.86
25	WAS	212	0.48	10	71.43

The wordlist reflects the academic characteristics of the corpus, since it "has more of the features of a written text such as a high frequency of articles *a* and *the*, use of the proposition *of*, use of *that*" (Walsh 2011, p. 96). Similarly, Baker (2010 p. 26) points out that "the word *the* is generally very frequent in most corpora, so knowing that it is frequent in a corpus we are examining ...simply tells us that that our corpus is typical of most language use". Thus we see (Table 3.1) 'the' followed by `'il'`, the Arabic definite article, then 'a', in the first ten words in the Egyptian corpus. This indicates the academic nature of the corpus of the present study, as suggested by Walsh (2011). Since the present study used a context-based approach, it was useful to employ CL to isolate the wordlist in each context. For instance, in the analysis (see chapter five, section

5.4.1), I used the 'part only' tag from the 'Tags' menu in *WordSmith* to select 'procedural context' in order to obtain a wordlist for that context alone.

3.7.2.2 Concordance

The concordance tool is useful for making it possible to see a word within a sentence. Baker (2010 p. 21) defines a concordance as "a table of all the occurrences of a linguistic item within their linguistic contexts ... Concordances are an important aspect of corpus linguistics in that they allow qualitative analyses to be carried out on corpus data". Although I do not present the concordance lines in the data analysis (chapter five), the concordance was useful for me in exploring the data. For example, the word 'page' was found to be a key word in the procedural context when the wordlist for this context was compared to those of the other four L2 classroom contexts (see chapter five, section 5.4.1). A concordance line for this word is shown in Figure 3.1 below.

N	concordance		
16	rest of it is on the next page	**page**	twenty five exercise num
17	book on <.> page forty nine	**page**	forty nine<0> okay Are y
18	e: <.> open your notebook at	**page**	forty nine <0> Page forty
19	exercise on the bottom of the	**page**	yes and the rest of it
20	to Egypt write the date on the	**page**	please I'm very sorry an
21	<0.5> write the date on the	**page**	<0.4>okay <0.6> yea <0.7
22	write the date on page forty	**page**	forty write the date

Figure 3.1 Sample concordance lines for 'page' in procedural context

3.7.2.3 Dispersion plots

Dispersion indicates whether an item "is evenly distributed throughout a corpus, or whether it is simply a very frequent and/or salient aspect in a single file or due to an idiosyncratic speaker (consistency)" (Baker 2010, p. 27). In classroom discourse, a dispersion plot shows whether or not specific words (especially discourse markers) are idiolects of certain teachers. For example, in the present study, the Arabic particle **'ha-'** {tr. come on or go on} is a high frequency word, coming in the top 25 words

(see Table 3.1 above). Looking at the plot (Figure 3.2), we see the detailed consistency of this item and how it appears in 13 texts.

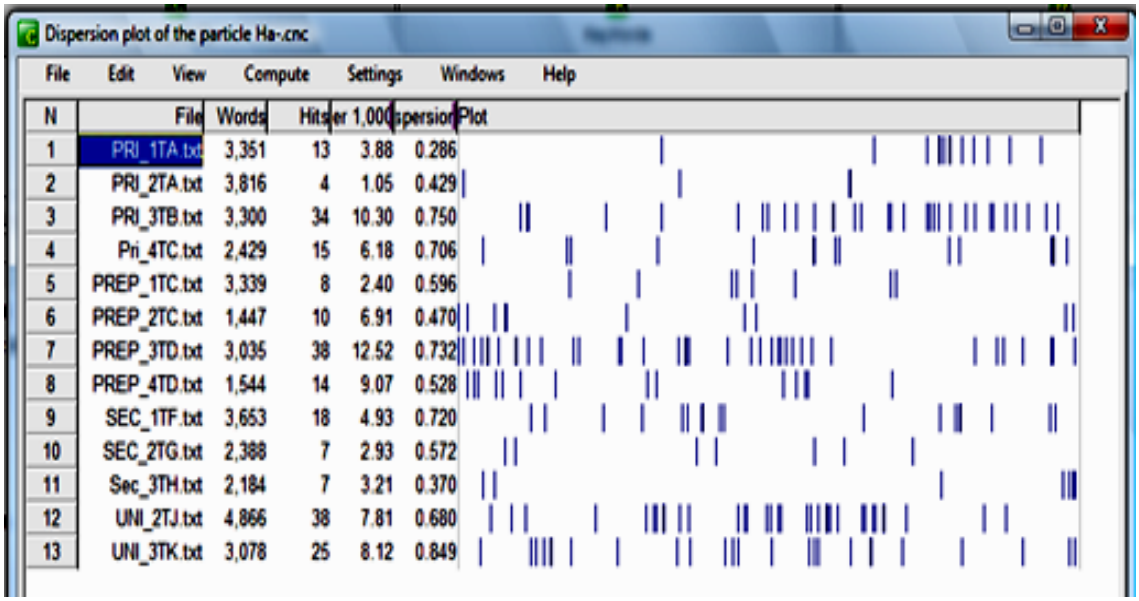

Figure 3.2 Dispersion plot of **ha-** particle in the Egyptian EFL corpus

I used the dispersion tool in my detailed analysis of this marker from both CL and CA perspectives. CL showed how the marker was used in 13 out of 14 texts. CA analysis revealed the different functions of its use.

3.7.2.4 Key words

Hunston (2002 p. 67) explains that "comparing the frequency lists for two corpora can give interesting information about the differences between the texts comprising each one. This is particularly useful when specialized corpora are being compared". In this study this tool was used to compare the frequency lists obtained for the different L2 classroom contexts. This was really illuminating as it provided information about some of these contexts in relation to the pedagogic focus of the context (e.g, procedural context).

So far we have seen the techniques or the tools that *WordSmith* software provides. Walsh (2011 p. 94) states that the range of CL tools "can be used to study classroom discourse". This depends on the researcher, who has to decide which tool will

suit his or her purpose. In this concern, Baker (2010 p. 19) explains that, "As corpus linguistics is a collection of methods, researchers need to determine which ones are more applicable in addressing their research questions".

Thus for this study, some tools were used and others were not, owing either to availability or the nature of the research questions. For example, it would have been useful to use *keyness* as a tool to identify the fingerprint of each L2 classroom context, as implemented by Walsh et al. (2011). However, this could not be used in the present study owing to the lack of a good reference corpus. The available corpora, for instance, BNC and MICASE (Simpson et al. 2002)[1], are highly academic, whereas the Egyptian EFL corpus is context-specific and contains many Arabic words. In addition, the corpus for the present study included EFL learners with a variety of academic levels and ages, whereas in the BNC and MICASE corpora the learners are native English speakers who are all at university level. The pragmatic way of overcoming this limitation was to compare the frequency lists of the different L2 classroom contexts. For example, in chapter five a comparison is made between the procedural context on the one hand and the form and accuracy and text-based contexts on the other. Indeed, this reveals some useful information about the fingerprint of the procedural context in terms of the frequently used words in this context; this information is then supplemented by relating the frequency to the pedagogic focus and the functions of the L1 in this context (the function of delivering procedural information was found to be peculiar to the procedural context). In this way, the two methods (CL and CA) operate at the macro and micro levels respectively and consequently provided enhanced descriptions which led to a deeper understanding of the data of the present study.

[1] BNC refers to the British National Corpus. MICASE refers to the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English.

3.8 Applying CA and CL

In this section the various stages involved in conducting CA and a CL analysis are described: namely, data collection, transcription, preparing the data for analysis and conducting the initial analysis. It also describes the preparation of the corpus.

3.8.1 Purpose of the study and procedures

The purpose of this study was to investigate the use of the L1 and L2 in an Egyptian EFL classroom setting. Hence in order to fulfil this purpose, the collection of data was the first procedure. As both CA and CL "use a corpus of empirical data" (Walsh 2011, p. 100), collecting audio and/or video data is an essential requirement for both CA (ten Have 2007) and CL. The following subsections firstly justify the selection of the Egyptian setting and then explain how the data for this study were collected, transcribed and initially analysed.

3.8.2 Data collection

In order to describe the use of the L1 and L2 in an Egyptian EFL context, naturally occurring data from classroom interactions were collected. It was decided to use video recording as a rich resource to understand the complex nature of the L2 classroom interaction (non-verbal actions in particular).

Why was an Egyptian setting selected?

The rationale for selecting an Egyptian setting for collecting the data for this study was as follows: I have personal experience of learning, teaching and supervising in the Egyptian educational system and am therefore familiar with the context. I share the participants' cultural background and we speak Arabic as our mother tongue. I have had experience of supervising student teachers during their teaching practice and micro-teaching sessions. In addition, some of the motivation for researching this particular

context was derived from my own experience of teacher training in Egypt, since pre-service EFL teachers frequently asked questions about the use of Arabic in their teaching. This inspired me to research the phenomenon in the real context, so that I would be able to give them more than mere prescriptions from ELT methodology books.

Pilot study

At the beginning of this study, it was originally decided that the target sample would be teachers and learners at secondary school level. Therefore, in late November 2008, the researcher collected 4 lessons (taught by three teachers) from a secondary school as a pilot sample. On examining the data, it was found that the interaction was mainly teacher-centred. Consequently, my supervisor recommended that the main sample should include different ages, different lessons and different institutions.

Access and consent

Before the recording process was begun, participants were informed about the purpose of the research (Appendix A). Participants have the right to know what the researcher is looking for and for what purpose the findings will be used. In addition, the participants were assured that any information they provided would be kept confidential and treated anonymously and would only be used for research purposes (BERA 2004). The participants were also asked for their written permission to video record the lessons and were informed of how the recorded data would be used, as shown in Appendix B.

In order to gain access to different classrooms, I used the social networking method. First I contacted a friend who knew the head teacher at one school; he then contacted the English teachers at this school and some other schools (showing them the letter which appears in Appendix A). This helped me to gain access to different schools (2 primary schools, 2 secondary schools and 3 combined preparatory and secondary schools). The recordings were collected during two different school terms. The

university lectures are taken from the faculty of education at a single university and the sample consists of students specialising in English. They had entered the faculty after completing their secondary education. They were studying language (reading and grammar) as well as content courses (drama, poetry and linguistics). The recorded lectures are drawn from different years and cover different topics. Further details on the whole corpus (e.g., learners' age, teacher's experience and recorded time) are to be found in Appendix C.

The recording of the first dataset took three months: February, March and April (second term 2008/2009) and the second data set was collected in October and November (first term 2009/2010). Table 3.2 below shows the details of the number of hours per institution. The entire set of data consists of nearly 27 hours of video recordings.

Table 3.2 Recording information on the entire corpus of the present study

Type of institution	**Recording time/hours**		
	Second term 2008/2009	First term 2009/2010	Total
University	3:53	3:49	7:42
Secondary	2:40	2:13	4:53
Preparatory	3:09	3:34	6:43
Primary	4:43	3:20	8:03
Total/hours	14:25	12:56	27:21

In Figure 3.3 below the entire corpus for this study is represented graphically in a bar chart.

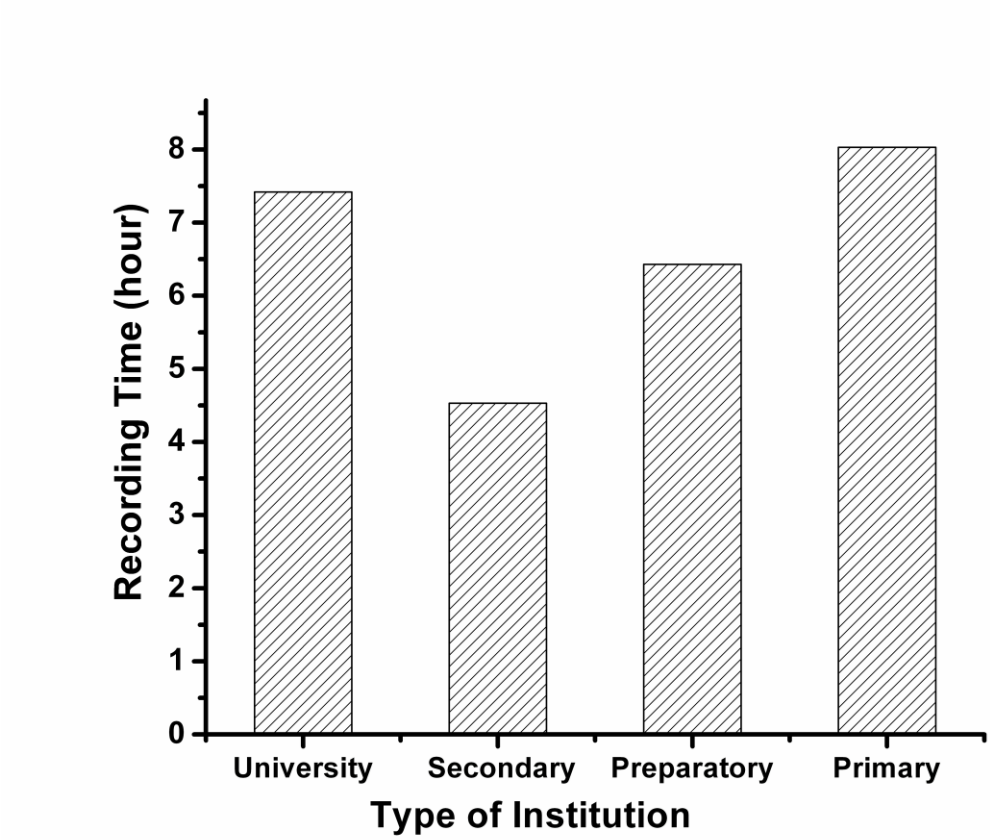

Figure 3.3 A graphical representation of the entire database of the present study

The details of the research context are as follows: as shown in Table 3.3, the data were collected from three different states in Egypt: Giza, Assuit and the New Valley. While Giza is in the north of Egypt close to Cairo, the other two states are in Upper Egypt. In Giza, the recordings were collected from a primary school in Giza city. In Assuit, the recordings were obtained from four different places: 1) a primary school in Assuit city, the capital; 2) a preparatory and secondary school in the town of Qusia; 3) a secondary school in the town of Dayroot, and 4) two preparatory and secondary schools in Bani Adi, which is a big urban district. In the New Valley state, the recordings were collected from the faculty of education in the city of El-Kharja.

Table 3.3 A detailed account of the research context

State	**District**		**Institution**	**Class size**	**Gender**
Gizza	Gizza	Big city	Primary	25-30	Mixed
Assuit	Assuit city	Big city	Primary	20-25	Mixed
Assuit	Qusia	Town	Preparatory Secondary	10-20 10-15	Segregated
Assuit	Dayroot	Town	Secondary	20-30	Male
Assuit	Bani Adi	Urban	Secondary Preparatory	30-35 25-30	Male
The New Valley	El-Kharja	Big town	University	30-40	Mixed

It was thought that this variety in recordings obtained from different teachers in different locations and schools would provide rich data for the research. It would have been even better if I could have had access to additional locations in Egypt in order to collect more data; however, owing to limitations of time and money, this was not possible.

In addition to collecting video-recording lessons, 10 hours of interview data (with teachers from the various educational levels mentioned above) were also collected after finishing the recording of the lessons (15 July-10 August 2009). These were semi-structured interviews (the protocol of the interview process is contained in Appendix D). Owing to limitations of space, time and the large amount of data in the recorded lessons, however, the interview data were not analysed. These data may be used in future research but are not used in this thesis.

Some difficulties emerged during the recording. Some teachers refused to allow their lessons to be recorded at all. For example, one of them said, “the level of the students is very poor, so I speak a lot of Arabic to help them understand English”. Some other teachers did not allow recording to begin until they had told the cameraman they

were ready. This means that some of the recordings consist of parts of a lesson while others are whole classes. Moreover, whenever there was an inspection at the school, the recording process was delayed, as the schools sometimes did not allow access to classes while the inspections were being carried out.

The recording process

The researcher decided in advance not to attend any of the recording sessions so as to avoid any outsider effect on the participants. The reason for this decision was that some of the teachers might think that the recordings were designed to be judgemental of their teaching, even though the consent letter clearly informed them of the purpose of the recordings and of how the researcher would use them. For example, one of the teachers contacted me to ask my opinion of her teaching while another teacher asked me the same question during the interview.

The recordings were made using one camera positioned at the front of the class, operated by a cameraman. The camera was directed to capture the speaker. The reasons behind using only one camera were: a) most teachers use whole-class teaching, referred to in the literature as ‘plenary’ teaching, therefore, one camera was thought to be enough; b) it would be expensive and difficult (owing to the small size of many of the classrooms) to use two cameras. Some technical problems arose at this stage related to the quality of the recording. In some recordings, the cameraman could not focus on the teacher and students at the same time owing to the small size of the room, and was unable to zoom in and gather the whole classroom within the same shot. Despite the reasons mentioned above, two cameras would have been more convenient and would have helped to produce better transcriptions, in turn giving more fine detail in the subsequent analysis. Hence, there were some limitations and the results claimed for this study should be understood within the scope of those limitations.

3.8.3 Data adequacy

The idea to extend the range as well as the amount of the collected data (section 3.6.2) was advantageous for two important reasons. The literature supports collecting a large database for the sake of maximising the reliability of the data (see section 3.5.1). When collecting data, having a "large and varied database when investigating the L2 classroom" is also recommended (Seedhouse 1996, p. 97). A varied database is also useful in terms of providing both "homogeneity and heterogeneity" (van Lier 1982, pp. 138-139, cited in Seedhouse 1996, p. 88). The data for this study represent a total of 27 hours of video recordings, of which 8 hours were fully transcribed. On the one hand, the data are heterogeneous as they cover different ages, levels and institutions. On the other hand, they are homogeneous as all participants share Arabic as their L1.

3.8.4 Data transcription

Once the data were collected, a tedious phase followed. The transcription[2] followed the conventions in Atkinson and Heritage (1984 p. 4). The initial transcription process began with repeated listening from June 2009 until September 2009 to define and locate the interesting moments. I used TRANSANA[3] software, as the literature recommends it (Monadada 2007; ten Have 2007); also, some CA practitioners in my research community were using it at that time.

As Figure 3.4 below demonstrates, Transana is composed of four windows from the top left, as follows:

1- Visualisation window: This displays the data in a visual form, as a waveform (also as bars or charts for analysis purposes).

[2] See the transcription conventions in page 7 in this thesis.
[3] Transana is a qualitative analysis software application for video and audio data that was mainly designed by Chris Fassnacht and developed by David K. Wood at the University of Wisconsin-Madison Centre for Education Research. All information about Transana can be accessed through the website (http://www.transana.org). I purchased version 2.40 then upgraded to version 2.41b.

2- Transcript window: This enables the user to transcribe the data while listening to the audio or watching the video. Time codes can also be used to mark the transcription.

3- Video window: This shows the video/audio file

4- Data window: This organises the data first into a series, then into episodes and transcripts.

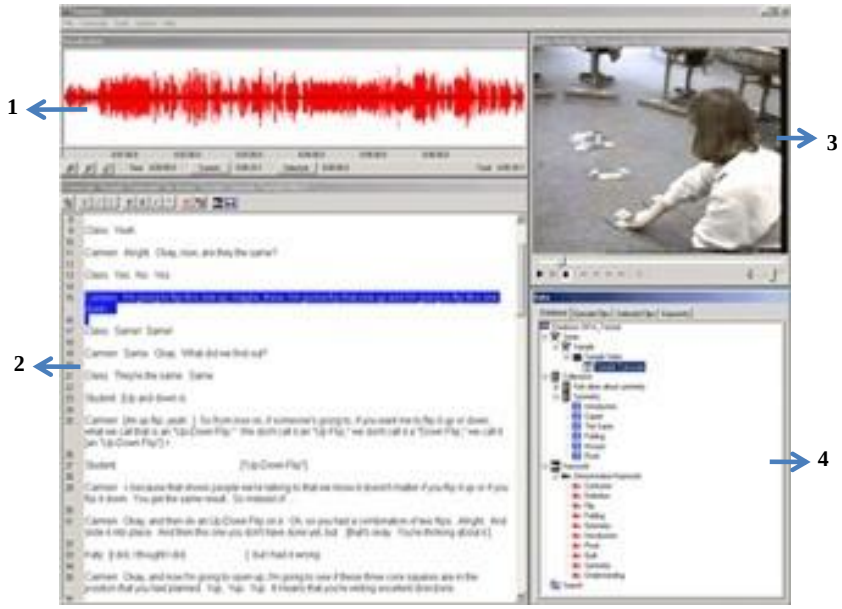

Figure 3.4 Transana's four windows; visualisation window (1), transcript window (2), video window (3) and data window (4)

Transana is useful in facilitating transcription, making it possible to add notes while transcribing. It was very practical in terms of enabling me to gather all the information and data related to my project into one place as well as to export it into a document file when writing up the final transcript.

3.8.5 Preparing the data for analysis

One of the distinguishing characteristics of CA practice is that it needs to be shared within a community (ten Have 2007, p. 140) through which one can foster and develop

one's analytic skills. This also helps the CA analyst validate his/her claims through discussions (see section 3.6.1: validity and reliability). When the transcripts were ready I began sharing them within the CA community (see Table 3.4 below). These sessions were helpful in terms of checking transcription precision and providing different ways of looking at the data. For example, in one session it was recommended that I include more contextual information with the transcript owing to the dynamic nature of the interaction (session 4).

Table 3.4 Data sharing sessions

No.	Event	Date	Venue
1	MARG data session	26.11.2009	1.71B KGB. ECLS, Newcastle university UK
2	AVIA-Workshop: Audiovisual Interaction Analysis	28.01.2010	Technical university Berlin, Germany
3	MARG data session	3.03.2010	1.36 KGB. ECLS, Newcastle university, UK
4	MARG data session	9.11.2010	2.12 KGB. ECLS, Newcastle university, UK
5	MARG data session	3.02.2011	1.12 KGB. ECLS, Newcastle university, UK
6	7th BAAL SIG conference[4]	7-8 July 2011	Aston university, UK

3.8.6 Initial analytical thoughts

The initial steps in approaching the data were aimed towards obtaining an initial understanding of the overall picture. This was done by repeated listening/viewing and detailed transcribing of the data. As Psathas (1995 p. 46) explains,

> Thus the phenomena that are discovered are the result of a process of repeated listening/viewings and transcribing. Numerous instances of similar phenomena, or singular instances of structurally complex and transparently significant phenomena, may be collected.

[4] 7-8th July, 2011, Learning and Teaching SIG conference, "Theorising practice and practising theory: developing local pedagogies in language teaching", Aston university, UK.

The first feature I noticed was that the turn-allocation was carried out mainly by the teachers. Going deeply into the details of the data, the researcher found several interesting moments where the students either overlapped or interrupted a turn using the L1. It appeared that some learners were trying to take the floor from the teacher, who usually dominates it. In those moments of self-selection, I identified other-initiated repair of the teacher's utterance by the learners without teacher delegation. The frequent use of certain Arabic markers, such as **'ha-'** {tr. go on}, at pre-university levels was also noticed. In order to shed more light on these initial thoughts, the first step in the analysis was transformed into a more sequential analysis conducted in order to locate these initial thoughts within the overall interaction system used by the participants and to identify the use of the L1 and L2 within that system. The second step was to decide on another method that would help to obtain an overall picture of the data with the aim of determining the frequency of words and the consistency of use of those words throughout the different lessons. CL was selected as the best-fit method for the research purpose[5]. As mentioned earlier in this chapter (section 3.2), the literature supports the use of mixed approaches, such as the combination of CA and CL, to study classroom discourse (Walsh 2011; Walsh et al. 2011) and complex systems like L2 classrooms (Larsen-Freeman and Cameron 2008; Richard et al. 2011).

The next step was to organise the data according to the different L2 classroom contexts (adapting Seedhouse's context-based system (2004)). It was found that the L1 and L2 were used differently according to the emic logic of each L2 classroom context (see chapter four). This suggested[6] a new direction in using the corpus analytic tools, which was mainly to support the CA analysis after identifying the functions of the L1 within the whole corpus (using Ferguson's 2003 system of categorisation). This meant

[5] This decision entailed the analysis of 8 hours of complete lessons. In addition I had to learn how to use the *WordSmith* software.

[6] It was my supervisor's idea to use the corpus to identify the functions within the different contexts.

that the corpus would be used for a specific purpose, and necessitated the annotation of the different contexts to make it possible to identify the different functions (used by both teachers and learners) within each context separately (see Appendix E for annotated examples). Then followed the annotation of each function within the corpus data. The results of this are shown in chapter five.

The following section contains a brief description of the system of functions categorisation, followed by a description of the corpus of this research.

3.8.7 Ferguson's categorisation system

DA was applied in this study using Ferguson's (2003) system of categorisation (see chapter 2, section 2.2.1), to categorise the speech acts I needed to analyse. DA uses a "coding and category system" which is epistemologically considered an 'etic' perspective in CA (for more details see Psathas 1995, p. 67). However, in this study, functional discourse analysis was integrated into the CA sequential analysis. As Seedhouse (2004 p. 66) explains,

> ... if DA is used as an isolated system, it has a great number of problems and limitations for the reasons given. However, the basis of DA—form-function mapping—forms an integral part of CA, namely the "why that?" part of the question "why that, in that way, right now?" ... Form-function mapping or speech move DA analysis is certainly undertaken, but it forms only a part of a much broader perspective which concentrates on the relationship between pedagogical focus and the organisation of the interaction, in particular the organisation of turns, sequence, repair and topic. So a CA institutional discourse approach to L2 classroom interaction is very much founded on and compatible with the many studies of L2 classrooms undertaken in a DA paradigm. The CA approach is, however, able to take the exploration much further and create more connections with social and institutional context.

Consequently, in this study, the first part of the CA question 'why that?' was answered by classifying the functions of L1 use in the L2 classroom discourse.

To that end, an adapted version of Ferguson's (2003) categorisation of classroom CS was employed in this research. As mentioned earlier, his scheme is

composed of three main categories: curriculum access, classroom discourse management and interpersonal relations (see chapter 2, section 2.2.1 for more details). These categories were used as a guiding framework, but adapted to suit the present study. For example, in this research the curriculum access category is called 'pedagogy'. The functions which come under the pedagogy category were taken from Üstünel (2004). These are: giving an equivalent in L1, giving a translation in L1, eliciting an English equivalent/response, eliciting an Arabic equivalent/response, providing metalanguage explanation, providing generic feedback[7], delivering procedural information, dealing with a delay in response and encouraging learners to continue participation. In this research, the following additional functions were included in this category: initiating mitigated-repair, initiating unmitigated-repair, confirming a learner's answer and encouraging learners to bid. Under the 'classroom management discourse' category, there is one function: maintaining discipline. In the 'interpersonal relations category', there is also only one function: making a humorous comment. For the current research, a fourth category was added to Ferguson's existing three categories; this is called 'organising discourse'. It includes three functions: resuming reading, highlighting important/coming information and indicating a shift.

In examining the functions of L1 use by the learners in this research, some functions, such as holding the floor (Eldrige 1996), were adopted from CS literature. The following additional functions were developed on the basis of the literature on classroom interaction: initiating/doing repair, dealing with a procedural trouble (pedagogy/management), negotiating a different agenda, bidding for the floor and asking for the meaning of a word (Kasper 1986; van Lier 1988; Seedhouse 2004; Walsh 2006). In addition, some other functions were also identified from the data; initiating-

[7] This function is called simply "providing feedback" in Üstünel, but has been adapted to suit the data obtained for this research, since it was found that various teachers use this function to provide feedback to the whole class concerning the pronunciation of words.

self-repair using an Arabic negative token and confirming understanding of a text (all the functions are listed in chapter five; Tables 5.1 and 5.6).

However, in the data many cases are multifunctional; they may represent more than one function at a time. For instance, in the extract below, the use of L1 (line 13) can be categorised as both maintaining discipline and giving a humorous comment. I therefore used sequential analysis or '*next-turn proof procedure*' (Sacks et al. 1974) to identify the problematic function. In this extract, L1 bids for the floor (line 2) while standing up. T maintains discipline in the L2 (lines 6-9), then L4 initiates a non-specific repair in Arabic which reveals his misunderstanding of what T said. In the next turn, T uses the L1 to state that what L1 said: **'ēh**?' {tr. What?} (line 10) is not appropriate. T is smiling while he is speaking in line 13. The learners' reaction is laughter, as revealed in next-turn. Hence, I categorised this function as giving a humorous comment.

Extract 3.7

	1	T:	thanks [(0.2) [thanks a lot]
	2	L1:	[>**aqul** [**illi bacdeha**]
			{tr. I say the next one}
	3	T:	sit [down] [sit (.)down]
	4	LL:	[↑mister][↑mister ↑mister]
	5	L1:	[mister]
	6	T:	[↑sit] (.) down (1.0) ((facial expression
	7		of being upset))
	8		please (0.2) no say mister (1.1) just
	9		raise your hand I see you
	10		(0.3)
	11	L1:	**ēh**? {tr. What?}
	12		(0.6)
→	13	T:	↑**gak**>↑**huwwa**< ((smiling))
			{tr. it indicates that L1's response is
			inappropriate}
	14		(0.5)
	15	LL:	Hahaha
	16	L2:	**Nazil Eidak ani $aifak**
			{tr. put your hand down I can see you}
	17		(1.0)
	18	T:	he hasn't bought a car.....

3.8.8 The corpus of the present study

From the main corpus (27 hours) the researcher selected 4 lessons each at primary and preparatory stages (a total of 8 lessons), 3 lessons at secondary stage and 3 university lectures. The selected lessons include different foci: reading, grammar, novel and short story, listening. This was to make the corpus as representative as possible. The whole corpus consists of approximately 8 hours, as shown in Table 3.5 below. Each file indicates the educational level, followed by T, the abbreviation for teacher, and a letter (A-K) as a pseudonym. For the purpose of identification the corpus was called the Egyptian EFL corpus.

Table 3.5 Data details of the Egyptian EFL corpus

No.	Stage	Lesson	Time (m)
1	Primary	Pri_1TA	40
2		Pri_2TA	45
3		Pri_3TB	40
4		Pri_4TC	30
5	Preparatory	Prep_1TD	40
6		Prep_2TD	25
7		Prep_3TE	30
8		Prep_4TE	25
9	Secondary	Sec_1TF	45
10		Sec_2TG	30
11		Sec_3TH	30
12	University	Uni_1TI	25
13		Uni_2TJ	45
14		Uni_3TK	65
			485 minutes

The beginning and end of each turn was marked up to indicate the speaker (see Appendix E). *WordSmith* 5 software was used to obtain corpus analyses. Overall statistics indicated that the total number of tokens (running words) in the text was 82,106 and the number of tokens used for the word list was 75,017. The analyses of the results are presented in chapter five.

3.9 Summary of the chapter

In this chapter the methodological framework of the present study, which is based on a combination of CA and CL, has been presented. This has been accomplished by first giving the rationale behind the research methodology as well as by proposing a synergy of the two approaches and showing how they can be compatible. CA has also been discussed as an offshoot of ethnomethodology which focuses on talk-in-interaction, where participants co-construct meaning depending on a contingent and situated context. The basic ethnomethodological assumption that 'order is assumed' was also established, showing how the aim of CA is to uncover this order and reveal the ethno-methods people use to produce 'the technology of conversation'. Two fundamental ethnomethodological principles: indexicality and reflexive accountability have also been explicated in this chapter, since these principles provided the main analytical foundation for the present study. The CA concept of context was then examined in the light of these principles. This concept was of prime importance in the present study, which investigates the relationship between L1 and L2 use on the one hand and different L2 contexts on the other. The units used in CA to analyse the machinery of interaction were also discussed, focusing on four organisations: turn-taking organisation, sequence organisation, repair organisation and the organisation of turn-design. These units also provided the analytical foundation for the study, in conjunction with the ethnomethodological principles referred to above. Certain methodological aspects of CA related to reliability and validity and the limitations of CA were also discussed in this chapter. It was then demonstrated how the use of CL can compensate for the limitations of or any problems associated with the use of CA alone. An introduction to CL was provided, some methodological issues concerning compiling and analysing a corpus were discussed, and an overview of some CL tools was presented. Finally, the procedural aspects of the research: data collection, data transcription, corpus

preparation, an initial analysis of the data, and the use of Ferguson's categorisation system, were briefly described.

In the following two chapters, the analyses of the data are presented, relating the findings to the research questions.

CHAPTER FOUR: OVERALL INTERACTIONAL ORGANISATION OF THE DATA

The aim of this chapter is to show how interaction is organised in the data obtained for the present research and to describe the overall system of interaction used by the participants, or the 'emic logic', in the data. The presentation of the data is organised according to different L2 classroom contexts. It was found that the L1 and L2 are used differently in each context depending on how each context is organised and the logic of the particular context. The argument of this chapter, then, is that each of the contexts examined here is organised differently and that the L1 and L2 are also used differently in each context according to the logic of that context. The organisation of turn-taking and repair within each context is illustrated with classroom transcripts using mainly sequential CA.

The chapter is organised as follows: first, the organisation of each context in terms of turn-taking and repair is described; the use of the L1 and L2 within each context is then highlighted. A brief summary of the chapter is presented in the final section.

4.1 Research questions

1 What is the overall interactional organisation of the data? and how are the L1 and L2 used within that organisation?

2 What is the relationship between the functions of L1 use and the different L2 classroom contexts?

4.2 Overall interactional organisation of the data

In characterising the overall system of L2 discourse in the Egyptian EFL classroom, the present study adopts the concept of the L2 classroom context as an "**overall**

combination of a particular pedagogical focus and a particular organisation of the interaction" (Seedhouse 1996, p.125; bold in original). In particular, this concept is used as

> ...a point of reference and as a gateway to the analysis and exploration of an L2 classroom text. The identification of the L2 classroom context in which the interaction is operating simply means that the analyst is then able to approach that extract from the same perspective as the participants (ibid. p.135).

Thus this particular concept of context as used in CA (see chapter three) and as explained here is based on the emic logic that teachers and learners display on a moment-by-moment basis.

In this research, five different contexts of linguistic interaction were identified: the form and accuracy context, the procedural context, the text-based context, the vocabulary-based context and the content-based context. In the following sections each context is examined in turn. Each section begins with a description of the context, followed by an examination of the organisation of turn-taking, sequence and repair and the use of the L1 and L2 within that context.

4.3 Form and accuracy context (FAC)

In a form and accuracy context teachers are concerned with linguistic forms and accuracy rather than with meaning. Seedhouse (1996 p. 123) characterises the form and accuracy context in terms of turn-taking and repair as follows:

> The turn-taking system is centrally controlled by the teacher and the teacher allocates turns to the learners. The turn-taking needs to be rigid and tightly controlled because the pedagogical focus is rigid and narrowly focused. Similarly, the organisation of repair is tightly focused on the aim of producing a specific string of linguistic forms.

Thus even if learners produce appropriate responses, if these are not the intended response the teacher will consider them incorrect; only the intended response will be deemed correct. The interaction in extract 4.1, taken from a primary class, shows the

narrow rigid focus in this context. T asks the question 'Where is the book?' in line 3 and L2 provides an answer in line 7 'on the desk' which is linguistically correct and sequentially appropriate. However, this answer is not accepted by T who initiates repair in line 9. This repair is slightly problematic for L2 who shows a misunderstanding of the teacher's rigid focus, so he repeats the answer hesitantly in line 11. Hence, T then initiates the same repair preceded by an Arabic word **'Niqul'** {tr. we say} in line 12. This time the repair is successful as L2 produces the targeted form in line 13. After he has produced it, T evaluates L2 positively. Thus it is clear that the focus here is not on meaning, since although the first response is sequentially appropriate and meaningful it is not accepted by T as it does not match the narrow pedagogic focus, namely, to produce a complete sentence.

Extract 4.1

	1	T:	okay (0.7) **Law caizah a aqul** (1.4)
			{tr. If I want to say}
	2		((T puts the book on the desk))
	3		Where is the book? (0.6)
	4		Where is the book?
	5	L:	**ayyna a: il:: il-kitab?**
			{tr. Where is the book?}
	6	T:	((T selects L2))
→	7	L2:	On the desk
	8		(0.4)
	9	T:	It's
	10		(0.2)
	11	L2:	on on on:
→	12	T:	**Niqul** ↑It's (0.2)
			{tr. we say}
	13	L2:	It's on the: (0.2) desk
	14	T:	↑excellent excellent sit down thank ↑you

4.3.1 Turn-taking and repair organisation in form and accuracy contexts

The interaction in extract 4.2, below, also shows how turn-taking is tightly controlled by the teacher and how repair is tightly linked to the narrow pedagogic focus of a form and accuracy context. The extract is taken from a preparatory class

and the pedagogic focus is on 'polite request'. T has just explained the example: 'will you open the door please?' She then asks the learners how they should respond to this request (lines 301 and 302). The turn-taking is tightly controlled by T who directs speakership. This is manifested sequentially as she selects L3 to answer in line 306. This tight control is also exerted over the learner's contributions. Although L3's contribution, in line 307, is linguistically correct and sequentially suitable, T interrupts her with a negative overt direct repair in Arabic **'la'** {tr. no}. After this negative evaluation, T then demonstrates the rigid narrow focus of a form and accuracy context by indicating that she wants the learner to reply with 'okay', or to accede to the request. She ends her turn with this strong Arabic marker **'bi** okay **XalaS'** {tr. with okay it's over}. Again, this marker **'XalaS',** which means 'it's over', displays her tight control over what L3 has to say. This can be explained in terms of the emic logic of the micro context of this extract. As Seedhouse (2004 p. 149) puts it, "... according to the emic logic of this context, even learner utterances which are entirely correct in linguistic terms may still be subject to repair by the teacher".

Extract 4.2

	300	T:	[**Talab bi-Adab**] thank you sit down (.)
			{tr.[polite request]}
	301		**wi lamma niHeb nirod calaiha iTalab da**
	302		**bi-Adab hanrod izzayy?**
			{tr. and when we want to reply to her request politely, how shall we reply?}
	303		(0.8)
	304	L:	aa[aa]
	305	L:	ple[ase] miss=
	306	T:	= without please miss **ha-** (.) stand up (L3 name)
	307	L3:	°sorry **ana mi$ haqdar° ana a-**=
			{tr. I can't I a-}
→	308	T:	=↑**la** (.) **iHna hanrod calaiha bi** okay **XalaS**=
			{tr. ↑No we will reply to her with okay it's over}
	309	L3:	=s::a(.)certainly(0.5)
	310	T:	[certainly] **aw** {tr. or} yes of[course] (0.2)
	311	L3:	[of course] [of course]

312 T: s[ure]
313 LL: [sure]
314 L3: [sure]
315 T: >anyone< word of **doula aktibha**
316 **wi bacdha (Touba) Tabcan** x
317 **laIny** (0.2) **fEh komalah le-ikalam betacy**
{tr. I write any of these words and after it of course xx because (0.2) there is a completion of my talk}
318 (0.2) thank you sit down (.)

The interaction in extract 4.3, below, contains a noteworthy illustration of the tight organisation of repair in a form and accuracy context through the use of unmitigated bold negative evaluation. This extract is taken from a secondary classroom and the focus is obviously on form and accuracy, since T demands the production of a specific linguistic form in line 20. As in the previous examples (4.1 and 4.2), this extract illustrates the tight IRE/F cycle: it begins with T selecting learners to answer, followed by their contributions. They are then evaluated positively when their contributions are correct (line 38) and negatively when they fail to produce the required grammatical form (lines 26 and 31). What is noteworthy is the use of very bold and direct negative evaluation using negative tokens as evaluative slots in the IRE cycle. T makes no attempt to mitigate the negative evaluation and simply produces it either in isolation: 'No' in line 31, or more powerfully with another, stronger bald repair '↑No (0.3) that's wrong' in line 26. The teacher's negative evaluation is sequentially relevant in this context, as neither contribution corresponds to his intended pedagogic focus, which is the use of 'not only'. In making this evaluation, he is treating errors as a normal occurrence, although this overtly negative feedback may be face-threatening, particularly with secondary students.

However, when L5's contribution matches the intended pedagogic focus, T scaffolds in line 36, helping L5 to complete the answer. This scaffolding is successful, as shown in the subsequent take-up by L5 who brings the pedagogic

focus to its completion. T then evaluates his contribution positively; then he repeats the answer with an embedded correction 'the only' in line 39. This appears to be regarded as a minor problem by T, since he does not correct it in line 35 but ignores it until L5 has finished his answer. Thus it can be said that T accentuates the main pedagogic focus and tolerates minor linguistic errors. When learners deviate and hence their responses do not match the intended pedagogic focus, T reacts negatively (lines 26 and 31), but when the learners match the focus T provides scaffolding and ignores minor errors so that the learners can proceed and complete their attempts.

Extract 4.3

	16	T:	yea (0.7)a: when we say-thank you sit down
	17		(.) All (1.3) my (1.3)friends (1.5) attended
	18		(1.6) the party (3.5) except(2.4) for (1.2)
	19		Ahmed (3.5) we want to rephrase the
	20		sentence using (1.2) only (3.0)
	21		((T writes 'only' on BB)) (2.6)
	22		((T looks at the class)) we want to
	23		rephrase the sentence using only (0.4)
	24		yes ((T selects L2))(1.7)
	25	L2:	xxx (0.5)
→	26	T:	↑No (0.3) that's wrong (0.6)
	27	L3:	please mister ((hand up))(0.3)
	28	T:	yea ((touching L4 arm))(2.6)
	29	L:	please mister
	30	L4:	not only a: (.)
→	31	T:	↑No (0.3)
	32	LL:	please mister
	33	L3:	please mister (0.6)
	34	T:	Yea (1.1)
	35	L5:	Ahmed is only a is only one a(.)(to::) (0.4)
	36	T:	who attended
	37	L5:	who attended the party
→	38	T:	↑wonderful (.) thank you (.) so we can sa:y
	39		(0.4) Ahmed is the only one (5.7)((T writes on BB))

The above extracts (4.1 - 4.3) have illustrated how teachers exert a tight control over turn-taking in a form and accuracy context. This is quite clear in extract 4.3 above, where T selects different learners until the targeted form is produced. As Seedhouse (1996) puts it, "[T]here is central control of the turn-taking system by the

teacher, who allocates turns until the learners have produced the required string of forms. So we can see a structural similarity in the extracts which points to a systematic organisation" (ibid. pp. 155-156). This structural similarity is manifested in the above extracts showing systematic organisation in terms of the teacher's authority over the management of the turn-taking system, as well as in evaluating the learners' contributions.

With regard to sequence organisation, it was found that the IRF cycle occurs frequently in this context. Thus teachers use verbalised positive evaluations, mainly employing English words such as 'yes', 'thank you', 'right', 'okay', 'wonderful' and 'excellent'. The teacher's repetition of learners' contributions is another way of providing feedback and this is locally understood as a positive evaluation.

If the learner's production does not accord with the teacher's expectations/agenda, then the teacher normally initiates repair, which may be direct or indirect. We have seen in extracts 4.1 and 4.2 that even if learners' contributions are meaningful and sequentially appropriate, if they do not conform to the pedagogic focus they are not accepted by the teachers, who initiate self-repair. Thus, repair in this context is closely linked to the strict pedagogic focus of a form and accuracy context, which only targets specific items.

So far we have seen that the interaction in a form and accuracy context is largely based on a specific linguistic form/s, and learners are required to produce a precise linguistic production that corresponds exactly with the pedagogic focus. The turn-taking and repair organisations are closely linked to the accomplishment of this rigid pedagogic focus. The overall interaction usually includes the teacher's question and learner's response, followed by either negative or positive evaluation. In a way, this organisation matches the tight pedagogical focus in this context; nevertheless, not all the extracts in the corpus display the three-move cycle: as we have seen, four or five

sequence-moves may also occur (extract 4.3; lines 35-39). The inverted sequences can be but are not always restricted to teacher-scaffolding, learner uptake, or other-learner repair. In other words, in this research the IRF/E cycle is sometimes not the best fit to describe all the data. This indicates the variability in the micro context of each extract and its unique fingerprint.

4.3.2 The use of the L1 and L2 in form and accuracy contexts

Having described the organisation of turn-taking, repair and sequence in a form and accuracy context, in this section we shall demonstrate how the L1 and L2 are used within this context. As the data show, the use of the L1 is one of the resources to which teachers have recourse in accomplishing their pedagogical agenda. Generally speaking, in this research it was found that the L1 is used within a form and accuracy context in a way that matches the narrow pedagogic focus of that context. Thus in a form and accuracy context, when learners fail to produce the required response, the teacher usually uses the L2 to initiate repair. When learners show no uptake, the teacher switches to L1 to scaffold learners until they produce the targeted response (see extract 4.1). Usually, following T's initiation, learners manage to produce the targeted L2 response. For example, in extract 4.1, T uses the L2 to get the learner to produce a complete answer instead of a contracted form. Hence, T tries to give a prompt in the L2 in the form of a DIU (Koshik 2002) to be completed by the learner. Since this is not successful, T follows the L2 prompt with an Arabic word. This strategy is successful, as the learner follows in L2, providing a complete answer.

In both extracts 4.1 and 4.2, the learners' answers are appropriate but are not the precise targeted form. This is different from extract 4.4 below, in which L7 produces a wrong answer `'to:(0.2) a: (0.5)ours'` (line 785); hence, T first produces a strong unmitigated repair in the L2 `'No (0.2) that's wrong'` (line 787). Second,

T gives a metalanguage prompt in the L2 explaining how the required response would be an object, since L7's response is a possessive pronoun (line 789). As L7 produces the same incorrect answer (lines 790 and 793), T initiates another repair by switching to Arabic (lines 795 and 796). L7 follows in the L2 producing the correct answer in line 797. T repeats her answer in the L2 followed by an Arabic equivalent (line 800).

Extract 4.4

	777	L7	mister mister
	778	T:	(L7 name)
	779	L7:	(1.0)((L7 looks at the book to read))
	780		that's our (0.3) a::(0.2) [that's] our
	781	T:	[ball]
	782	L7:	((L7 looks at T))
	783	T:	>↑ball< (0.2)that's our ball(0.2)
	784	L7:	that's our ball (0.2) give it a:: (0.4)
	785		to:(0.2) a: (0.5)ours
	786		(0.3)
→	787	T:	No (0.2) that's wrong(0.2)
	788	L1	↑mister
	789	T:	we have an object (0.3)
	790	L7	we=
	791	T:	=we need an object
	792		(0.4)
	793	L7:	We
	794	T:	yes (0.2) that's our ball (.)
→	795		**di koretna iHna** (.)((hands on his heart))
	796		**haydeha lemein?** (0.8)(**hah**)=
			{tr. this is our ball to whom shall we give it? (0.8) come on}
	797	L7:	=we a: (.) us
	798		(0.2)
	799	T:	Us: (.) ((T moves to BB))
	800		to us (0.4)**ilyyna** (0.3)((T writes us on BB)) yes
			{tr. to us}

The data also reveal another use of the L1 when the learners delay in producing the required response. This is described in Üstünel (2004) as a preferred action after a pause. Thus in the interaction below, the task is to change an active sentence (**'**My hands are very dirty' Farid said) into the passive voice. The lines below are taken from a long sequence. Before these lines, L4 has answered the first part of the sentence with 'his', while some other learners have said 'her'. The name mentioned in the question (Farid) is a male name in Arabic. T then repeats L4's

answer in line 246, followed by an Arabic agreement token **'ah'** {tr. yea}. In lines 247-248, T asks a question in the L2. After a pause of (0.5) T initiates repair by saying the question in Arabic (line 250). The learners follow, providing the answer in English. T then uses the L2 to provide a negative evaluation of the wrong answer (line 254) initiated by L2 (line 253) while pointing at L4 who gave the correct answer. In the subsequent turns the learners follow, repeating the correct answer (lines 256 and 257). T then moves to the BB to write the answer while accepting the learners' response 'yes'.

Extract 4.5

	244	T:	This is a possessive ↓adjective (0.5)
	245	L4:	[his]
	246	T:	[his] (0.4) **ah** (.) yes my hands
			{tr. yea}
	247		change into his (0.4) If the: speaker (0.2)
	248		is female (.) What can we say?
→	249		(0.5)
→	250		**law il-mutaHadeth mouanath hanqul biloGhatoh**
			{tr. If the: speaker is female we will say in his words}
	251		(0.2)
	252	L4:	her**=**
	253	L2:	**=**she
→	254	T:	(.) ↑no: (.) ((T signs no and points at L4))
	255	L1:	Her
	256	L4:	Her
	257	LL:	[her]
	258		[her] ((still pointing)) (.) Yes (0.3)
	259		**Yuba** (.)Farid said (.) yes his hand (2.2)
			{tr. so}

4.4 Procedural context (PC)

The procedural context is a keystone, or, as van Lier (1988 p. 163) calls it, "the centre of gravity, or the base line of the lesson". In every L2 classroom, this context normally introduces the lesson and precedes the onset of activities. For example, although some of the lessons in the present data are based principally on a single context, such as the form and accuracy (lesson 1) or text-based context (lesson 3), they also have procedural contexts which guide the learners to the forthcoming steps/context. The main focus of this context, as Seedhouse (1996 p. 205) says, is "...on the transmission of procedural

information and the basic speech exchange system of teacher monologue is appropriate to this focus". Within this monologue, shift markers are "essential for learners to follow the unravelling interaction and 'navigate their way' (Breen 1998) through classroom discourse" (Walsh 2006, p. 69).

An example of the procedural context taken from a primary lesson is shown in extract 4.6 below. After greeting the students, T starts with the procedural context to mark the opening of the lesson. The characteristics of this context are manifested in the extended turns by T; long pauses (1.8) and (2.7); discourse markers such as 'okay' and 'now', and instructional verbs like 'open', 'listen', 'repeat' and 'put'. The use of extended turns is also noticeable in this extract as T dominates the turn-taking; the interactional space available for learners occurs when he checks their understanding of the procedures before giving more instructions (lines 13 and 20). The learners' confirming responses are minimal ('yes' and 'okay'), they make no interruptions, and they utter these responses in reply to the teacher's questions.

Extract 4.6

```
      7    T:   ↑Okay (0.8) ↑Now let's start our lesson (0.6)
      8         open your books  (1.1) at page twenty (.)
      9         two (0.8) page twenty two okay (0.7) yea
      10         (0.5) open your notebook (2.7)
      11        ((T looks at book)) at  page (.) forty nine
      12        (0.5) page forty nine (3.0) okay?
  →   13        (1.1) Are you ready?
      14        (0.3)
      15   LL:  Yes
  →   16   T:   ↑okay (0.7) page forty nine (0.8) okay listen
      17        to me (0.4) a:nd repeat after me repeat
      18        after me (1.0) repeat after me (0.2)the
      19        new words (.) repeat the new words after me
  →   20        (.) Okay?
      21   L:   Okay
      22        (0.3)
  →   23   T:   Yes (1.8)((T gazes at the book))
      24        the title of the lesson travel to Egypt
      25        (0.8) write the date please I'm very
      26        sorry (0.2) write the da:te (1.2)
      27        on the page(1.6) A:na(.) put your finger
```

28 on the word (0.5) put your finger
29 on the word (0.7) while I read
30 (.) while I'm reading (1.0) how

The opening interaction in extract 4.7 is slightly different from the openings of all the other lessons in the corpus, as T shifts within the procedural context to a vocabulary-based context, asking about the word 'revision', which is the title of her lesson. After a positive evaluation of the learner's contribution, T resumes by stating her agenda '↑today we are going to deal with' in line 9. Another interesting device is seen in the way in which T designs her turn using the embedded question **'ēh?'** {tr. what} in line 2 to highlight the main topic of the lesson which is revision.

Extract 4.7

	1	T:	(xxx) of ↑our(.)unit (0.2) **xalasna xalasna**
→	2		**il-unit betacitna (.)wi gina le ēh?**(0.3) **le**
			{tr. we finished our unit and we came to what? (0.3) to
	3		revision (.) What does it mean revision?}
	4		(0.4) ((pointing at L3))
	5	L:	**Muragca**
	6	L3:	°(xx)°
	7	T:	ye↑S (.) thank you (.) sit down (.) revision
	8		**Yacni** (0.3) **wiSlna le il-muragca** (0.5)
			{tr. that is we reached the revision}
→	9		↑Today (0.3) we are going to deal with (0.2)
	10		revision B (.) lesson one (0.7) our new
	11		vocabulary (0.7).....

The procedural context can also occur before or within the other L2 classroom contexts, e.g., the vocabulary-based context, to indicate a shift to a sub-focus and to explain what will be required in the next activity. In the extract below, T has just finished reading the new words and he now selects one learner at a time to read them.

Extract 4.8

188	T:	[who can can read?]
189	LL:	[mister mister] ((LL raise hands up)) mister mister
190	T:	Yeah(h) ((selecting L6))

```
     191  LL:   (0.3) ((hands down))
     192  T:    >okay (.) okay< (0.5) listen to your (.)
 →   193        classmate  (0.2) istamicu lezamiletko:
                                  {tr. listen to your classmate}
     194        (0.3) ca$an  nerakiz (0.2)
                {tr. so we concentrate}
 →   195        <↑when (0.6) she makes (0.2) a mistake (.)
 →   196        you can  (.)↑correct (1.0) the mistake
     197        (0.4) > okay (0.3) yea  (1.0)
     198  L6:   how (0.5) trip (0.4) a good time (0.5).
     199        degrees (0.7) to:day (1.0)
```

4.4.1Turn-taking organisation in procedural contexts

As we have seen above, the turn-taking is dominated by the teacher. This is evident in extract 4.8, in the teacher's extended turns and long pauses (1.0) with no interruptions from the learners. The turn-taking system in this context matches the pedagogic focus; the teacher's extended turns are designed to transmit instructions about the next activity or context. For example, in extract 4.7, T tells LL to concentrate (line 194). What is interesting is that T also states the purpose of this concentration: 'you can (.)↑correct (1.0) the mistake'.

Although learners do not normally interrupt their teachers during the procedural context, in the interaction below we see two learners initiate repair. After the teacher's delay in giving complete instructions, they ask about the page number (lines 356 and 358). The pause is not long (0.5), but T is looking down at her desk.

Extract 4.9

```
     354  T:    Okay (0.2) thank you sit down (.)
     355        open your books (0.5)
 →   356  L:    Page kam?
                 {tr. what's the page number?}
     357        (0.2)
 →   358  L:    at page?
     359         (0.6)
     360  T:    (hhhhh) (0.5) page thirty three (1.5)
```

The interaction in extract 4.10 below illustrates another interesting case in which a learner interrupts T to ask about a different agenda ('tomorrow's exam'). This

interruption is different from what happens in the interaction quoted in extract 4.9, and also different from an extract Seedhouse (1996 p. 134) cites as an example of a learner's interruption, in which the learner informs the teacher that he did not do the homework. In both these examples, the learners' interruption is still related to the ongoing interactional business. However, here, in extract 4.10, L1 negotiates a completely different agenda. In line 2, T opens the lesson with a procedural context stating his agenda. L1 is trying to attract the teacher's attention in lines 5, 7, 9 and 11. In all these turns, she uses Arabic. At last, she manages to gain the floor, as T looks at her initiating unspecified repair, which indicates that he could not hear what she said in line 16. Hence, in line 17 she repeats the question but this time in a mixed code. T answers her question regarding the different agenda with **'nacam?'** {tr. yes?}. But in line 19 she asks for further confirmation, saying **'moutakid'** {tr. are you sure?}. T responds by restating his own agenda using stressed syllables and a high rising tone in lines 20 and 21.

Extract 4.10

	1	LL:	((noise in the class))
	2	T:	[Toda::y (0.4)]
	3	LL:	[((inaudible voices))]
	4	T:	we are going to s deal with (.)Spider (1.0)
→	5		**°aywa ya UstAz°** {tr. yes teacher}
	6	T:	↑Spider (1.1)
→	7	L1:	**illa:** {tr. the}
	8	T:	contains (.) eight chapter↑S
→	9	L1:	**°il-imteHan Boukrah (.)> ya UstAz <°** {tr. Is the exam tomorrow mister?}
	10	T:	(.)first term (.) we::(.) have dealt wiTH:• (.)
	11		four chapters (2.0) aa: today (.)we will begin
	12		(.)the first chapter in the second term (2.0)
	13		a::: it's title IS [(.)]into:: ((T points at the word "into" on the board))
	14	L1:	[>↑Mister<]
	15	T:	((T turns his back and looks at the class))
→	16	L1:	**illa::-**exam >tomorrow?< {tr. Is the exam tomorrow?}
	17	T:	**nacam?** {tr. yes?}
	18	L1:	**il-**exam (1.0) tomorrow?=
	19	T:	=tomorrow yes=
→	20	L1:	=↑**moutakid** {tr. are you sure?}

```
20   T:    we are (.) now (.)going to deal with (1.1)the
21         ↑novel ↑Spider (1.0)
22   L1:   x[xx]
23   T:     [into](.) the city (.)of the dead (1.1) what's the
24          meaning of (.) city?
25         ((T looks at the board))
```

As we have seen in extracts 4.6-4.10 the overall turn-taking in a procedural context consists of a monologue, which is linked to the pedagogic focus of transmitting information about upcoming activities or procedures that will be part of the coming context. The use of confirmation checks such as 'okay' and 'yes' is also noticeable, in addition to other organising or attention markers such as 'now' and 'today'. Arabic markers such as **'dilwaqti'** {tr. now} and **'Tayyib'** {tr. okay} are also used (see extract 4.12). Thus the turn-taking system and language choice are connected to the pedagogic focus of this context which is to deliver information about the activity/context which is to follow. Repair rarely occurs in this context.

Above, we have described the overall turn-taking which takes place in the procedural context. In the following section the use of the L1 and L2 within this context will be examined, with a focus on whether either the L1, or the L2, or both are used.

4.4.2 The use of the L1 and L2 in procedural contexts

As seen above, the database for the current research includes examples of various strategies involving the use of the L1. A recurring strategy of language use among all the teachers at all educational levels who participated in this research was the exclusive use of English in stating the main agenda at the outset of the lesson (see extracts 4.7 and 4.10). This is seen by researchers as a "good pedagogical practice" (Seedhouse 2004, p. 196). In lessons 10 and 12 (university level) and lessons 8 and 9 (secondary level) the L2 is used exclusively in the delivering of procedural information, with the exception of lesson 11, in which T occasionally uses both languages in different activities. In primary and preparatory classes the 'double-checking' strategy, in which the same procedural

information is delivered in English and then in Arabic, is generally employed (e.g., lines 1 and 2 in extract 4.7).

Another strategy is that of code-mixing, in which part of the information is delivered in English and part in Arabic. In the interaction below, T begins delivering procedural information about the activity which is to follow. First, he delivers it in English (line 411), then he switches to Arabic (line 412), drawing the learners' attention to the location of the exercise in the textbook and then addressing them using an emotional expression 'my darlings' in Arabic. In line 413, T indicates that he will model the first answer. He switches to English in line 414 to answer the question. In line 415, he uses an Arabic marker **'Tayyib'** {tr. okay} to indicate a shift, then he switches to English for the second question. T then uses a 'double-checking' strategy to deliver more procedural information, first in English (line 417) then in Arabic (line 418).

Extract 4.11

411 T: then (0.3)number ↑one (.) we have exercise B
412 (.)**il-tamreen illi taHt da ya Habayybi** number
{tr. the exercise which is below, my darlings}
413 one (.)**ana hacmiloko il-awalnyyah wi ni$of**
{tr. I will make the first one for you and we will see}
414 what has he got? (.)he has got a bag of
415 crisps (0.2)**Tayyib** (.) number two I ask and
{tr. Okay}
416 You: will answer me (.) number two what has
417 she got? What has she got? Have a look and
418 try to answer? (.)**buSy wi Hawli tigawbi** (0.3)
{tr. look and try to answer}
419 yes (L8 name)

Another noteworthy although infrequent use of the L1 within the procedural context is to confirm the knowledge of a basic word in the new activity (an example of this was shown in extract 4.7). In extract 4.12 below, T introduces a listening activity to the learners in lines 369 and 370. He then shifts to explaining the meaning of 'listening'

in line 371. After receiving a response from the learners in line 372, he confirms the meaning and shifts back to the procedural context in line 375. Here T uses a mixed-code strategy, delivering the procedural information using both the L1 and the L2 in succession.

Extract 4.12

	369	T:	↑Exercise A (.) page thirty five (.)
	370		**il-tamreen illi hanxdouh dilwaqti ya Habaiby**
			{tr. the exercise which will take now my darlings}
	371		(.)↑listening (.) **Yacni ēh** listening?=
			{tr. what does it mean?}
	372	LL	=**Yastamic**=
	373	L:	[xx]
→	374	T:	=[↑**Yacni**] (xx) **hatHoTu arquam hina** (.)
			{tr. it means (xx) you will put numbers here}
→	375		question number one (.) first one (0.2)
	376		is ↑Done for you (.)a bunch of bananas
	377		**humma camlinha** (.) **Yibqa di** number one (.)
			{tr. they did it (.) so this is}
	378		number two (.) a glass of milk

4.5 Text-based context (TBC)

The focus of the text-based context is on a text (e.g., a reading comprehension passage, or a story). The data for this research include entire lessons on one story (e.g., primary 5) or on a chapter of a novel (e.g., secondary lesson; extract 4.21). It is also common to see this context appearing with other contexts, constituting part/s of a lesson. The pedagogic aim of the text-based context is for learners to "become familiar with an L2 text (by means of reading or listening) and the rationale is that by doing so the learners will acquire elements of the L2" (Seedhouse 1996, p. 133). Learners demonstrate their familiarity with the text by participating in various activities such as translation, identifying grammatical points in the text or answering questions about it, or giving equivalents in L1. The variety of activities linked to this context may result in varied modes of interaction (ibid.).

4.5.1 Turn-taking organisation in text-based contexts

The turn-taking in a text-based context is firmly controlled by the teacher who decides who says what, and when. The turn-taking is controlled mainly by the teacher in order to manage the shift among different sub-foci in this context. The interaction below is taken from a primary lesson based entirely on a story called 'the fox and the crow'. The interaction is taken from the beginning of the class. T first selects L1 to read in line 4, and then T interrupts in line 6 to ask for the meaning of what he has just read.

Extract 4.13

	1	LL:	((hands up))
	2	T:	yes (L1 name)(0.6) ((pointing))
	3		open your book page twenty four
	4		(0.4)
	5	L1:	the fox and the crow (.)
→	6	T:	what is the meaning of the fox
	7		and the crow?
	8	L1:	**al-Thcalab wa al-**(0.3) **a Ghurab**
	9	T:	**wa il-Ghurab** (0.)
	10		↑today (0.3) we have a story (.)
	11		about the fox and the crow
	12		(1.0)
	13	L1:	what did the crow see on the grass?
	14		one day a crow sit sat in a tree …

The teacher also interrupts to shift to other pedagogic sub-foci. In extract 4.14 below, the pedagogical focus in the first part of this interaction is on reading the text aloud. In line 6, T tells L3 to continue, intending L3 to translate what she has just read, but her request is slightly problematic for L3 who continues her reading. Hence, T interrupts her in line 9 to introduce a different sub-focus, which is translation. The teacher's shift to a different sub-focus using 'hmm' was therefore unclear to L3. T's use of the continuer 'hmm' in line 6 was misinterpreted by L3 as meaning 'continue reading', as shown in her next turn in the sequence. In line 9 T uses the negative token to indicate a procedural trouble, which is displayed by L3's misunderstanding of her pedagogic focus. Unlike extract 4.18, in which T uses a continuer followed by a precise statement

of the sub-focus, here the teacher's shift is unsuccessful, as shown in L3's subsequent response. Once the shift has been stated clearly, however, L3 displays successful uptake of it in lines 10 and 11 by translating what she has read. T evaluates her translation positively using an Arabic agreement marker **'ah'** {tr. yea}, followed by an extended translation in lines 13 - 15. T then indicates a shift back to reading aloud by using the Arabic continuer **'ha-'**, followed by the first part of the next reading (line 15). Then L3 continues reading. In this instance, the shift is clear for L3, as indicated in her response, which is sequentially appropriate.

Extract 4.14

	1	T:	yes (L3 name) picture number seven
	2		(0.4)
	3	L3:	you have a (beautiful) voice (.) please sing
	4		for me ((L3 gazes at T))
	5		(0.3)
	6	T:	**Hmm**
	7		(0.2)
	8	L3:	a:: the fox asked=
→	9	T:	no (no) translate
	10	L3:	**a: inta Souatak gamil- inta bitmatalik**
	11		**Sout gamil mumkin >teGhanily?**< (0.6)
			{tr. your voice is beautiful- you have a beautiful voice , can you sing for me?}
	12	T:	↑**ah qaloh inta Souatak gamil zayy Sout il-ba$ar**
	13		(0.2) **Yacni ka-inak bitGhani zayy Sout il-muTrib**
	14		(0.3)
			{tr. yea he told him: your voice is as beautiful as human's. That is as if you sing like the singer}
→	15		**ha-** please sing for me
	16	L3:	the fox asked the crow to sing(.) ...

When they have completed the reading, T selects one learner at a time to answer the questions about the story in their book. In the interaction below, T selects L5 to answer the question. L5 does so in line 48 after T initiates a repair in line 44 using an Arabic continuer **'ha-'** and then repeating the question in line 46 after a long pause of (2.0). In line 53, L5 repeats the answer after T asks her to do so. In line 56, T positively evaluates the answer.

Extract 4.15

```
40   T:   (L5 name) (0.8) question number four
41        (1.8)
42   L5:  what did he do?
43        (0.2)
44   T:   ha-
45        (2.0)
46        what ↑did he do:?
47        (2.5)
48   L5:  he saw (1.4) a piece of cheese (0.2)
49        on the grass
50        (0.8)
51   T:   he saw:  (0.6) ↑yes again
52        (0.4)
53   L5:  he saw (0.2) a: [piece] of cheese
54   T:                    [piece]
55   L5:  on the: grass
56   T:   y↓es (.) thank you sit down
```

4.5.2 Repair organisation in text-based contexts

Repair also fits the pedagogic focus of the text-based context as it occurs when learners cannot display familiarity with the text according to the sub-foci (e.g., reading, giving an equivalent, translating). The repair can be organised around, for example, correcting pronunciation or word meaning (extract 4.17). In extract 4.16 below, we see that T interrupts at any time to correct pronunciation. This is evident in lines 2 and 6, where T says the corrected item, whereas in line 11 she prefaces the corrected item with 'no'. By failing to read the text correctly the learner has not reflected the pedagogic focus of this context, hence, T conducts repair to correct her reading. L1 displays uptake of the teacher's repair in subsequent lines (3, 7 and 11). Here, T uses two slightly different strategies: the first is to correct the item (lines 2 and 6); the second is the use of the negative token 'no' followed by the corrected item. Both strategies are effective in terms of learner uptake.

Extract 4.16

```
1    L1:  The clever fox fox /smelled/ (0.2)a=
→ 2  T:   =smiled
3    L1:  smiled and
4    T:   smiled again
5    L1:  smiled and /a::t/ the ches[se]
```

```
→  6   T:                                [ate](0.2)ate
   7   L1:  ate the cheese (.)
   8   T:   Hah
   9   L1:  what fo (.) foolish /craw/ (.)
→  10  T:   No: (.) what a ↑foolish (.) crow!
   11  L1:  what a foolish crow
```

Thus in response to any contribution that does not demonstrate familiarity with the text, repair occurs. The interaction in extract 4.17 is part of a listening text in a preparatory class. T reads part of the text (lines 836 - 838). She then shifts from listening to a sub-focus related to the meaning of some of the words in her utterance. In line 839, she asks L3 about the meaning of 'probably'. Since L3 fails to demonstrate familiarity with the word, T's repair is sequentially relevant. She uses an unmitigated negative response 'no', followed by an explanation of the English word 'important' in response to L3's contribution of **'hAmm'**. She repeats the main question, giving L3 another chance to self-repair. L3 manages to produce the Arabic equivalent in line 842. T accepts the answer, positively evaluates it and then shifts back to the main text in line 844.

Extract 4.17

```
     836  T:   my mum wa:nts me to try to work on radio
     837       (0.2) or TV (.)but I do not want to (0.2)
     838       I think I will probably work (.)
     839  T:   what does it mean probably? (0.2) ((T points))
     840  L3:  °hAmm°
→    841  T:   ↑no:: (.) important hAmm probably?=
     842  L3:  =a: [min] al-moHtamal
     843  L:        [xxx]
     844  T:   y↓ES (.) thank you sit-down (0.4) fa qaluh (.)
                                    {tr. so he told him}
     845       I probably work on computer (.) I'm sure I do
     846       not want to be a teacher (.) huwwa moutakid
     847       inoh mi$ cawiz yi$atghal ēh?(.) MudaRES
               {tr. he is sure that he doesn't want to work as
               what? A teacher}
```

As shown in the previous extracts (4.13 - 4.17), the overall structure of a text-based context is different from that of a form and accuracy context. Learners'

contributions are mainly linked to a text and they display their knowledge of this text in different ways as determined by the teacher[1]. The extracts (4.16 and 4.17) analysed above show how the turn-taking system is fairly firmly controlled by the teacher. Although the text is tackled from different aspects, the teacher directs speakership and interrupts at any time. Repair is tightly linked to the pedagogic focus in this context. When learners fail to demonstrate familiarity with some aspect of the text, then repair is carried out. As Seedhouse (1996 p. 233) puts it, "(T)he general principle underlying the organization of repair in this context appears to be this: when the required familiarity with an aspect of the text is not displayed by a learner, then repair will be undertaken".

4.5.3 The use of the L1 and L2 in text-based contexts

Having demonstrated the general organisation of turn-taking and repair in a text-based context, we shall now show how the L1 and L2 are used in this context through an examination of various extracts from the data. The interaction in the following extracts is organised around two different activities which display two different sub-foci: reading and translation. It is mainly the L2 which is being used to read the text.

In extract 4.18, L3 is reading part of a story aloud in the L2, and hence displaying both her reading ability in the L2 (lines 17, 18 and 19) and her familiarity with the story. Then she uses the L1 to demonstrate her familiarity with the text by translating what she has just read (line 20). The teacher's intention here is to make L3 display her understanding of the meaning of what she has read by means of translation (lines 21, 22, 24 and 25).

Extract 4.18

→	17	L3:	"the fox asked the crow to sing(.)
	18		the crow wanted (.) to sing and (.)
	19		a:nd opened his beak" (.)

[1] Two classes which involved a text-based context used pair and group work to answer comprehension questions about the text. These are not included here as these activities were not engaged in any of the other lessons in the database (22 lessons), and also because of the quality of the recording.

```
    20   T:   ↑ha- ↑translate
              {tr. go ahead}
→   21   L3   a a:: il ill a (.) thaclab sAal il-Ghurab (.)
    22        mumkin teGhanily=
              {tr. the fox asked the crow, can you sing for me?}
    23   T:   =ah= {tr. yea}
→   24   L3:  = fa il-Ghurab kan cayiz yiGhani (.) fa Ghana
    25        wi ill [a:] qetcit il-gubna wiqcit minoh=
              {tr. so the crow wanted to sing and so he sang and
              the cheese piece fallen down}
    26   T:          [ah] {tr. yea}
```

The L1 is used as a means by which learners display familiarity with the text by giving an Arabic equivalent of an English word. It was found that the teachers normally use the L2 to ask learners to do this. In extract 4.19, T interrupts her reading to ask about the meaning of the word 'suddenly' in line 127. Here L3 displays her familiarity with this word by giving an Arabic equivalent: **'fAgatan'**.

Extract 4.19

```
124  T:   "they were working (.) someone has turned off
125       the electricity (.) I went into the shop I could
126       not see anything (0.2) ↑suddenly"
127       (.) what does it mean (L3 name) suddenly?
128  L3:  °fAgatan°
129       (0.3)
130  T:   FAgatan (.) yes thank you sit down (.)
```

It was also found that the teachers use the L1 to repair learners' responses which fail to show familiarity with an aspect of the text. The use of L1 varies according to the sub-focus. Thus in the interaction below, when the learners demonstrate their unfamiliarity with the word 'grab' by repeating the word in line 142, T first provides an explanation of this word by acting out part of the story (lines 133-140), followed by repeating the question at the end of line 140. L2 provides an incorrect Arabic equivalent; hence T uses a negative token, followed by a second explanation which includes miming a situation. This second explanation is useful, since in line 149 the learners produce the correct Arabic equivalent of the word 'grab', which is confirmed by the teacher in line 150. T then uses the L2 to thank L2 for her correct contribution.

Extract 4.20

	130	T:	Someone grabbed (0.2) what does it mean (L2
	131		name) grab? (0.6)
	132	L2:	grab?
	133	T:	ye:↓s **hyya gededa** (0.2) grab **huwwa biHekelna**
			{tr. it's a new word he is telling us}
	134		**biouloko Ana roHt anwwar il-nour** (.)
			{tr. he says I went to turn on the light}
	135		**wiqefet cand il-fi$ah** (0.2)
			{tr. stand next to the plug}
	136		((T moves towards the plug))
	137		**naftariD i il-nour da wi binawar**
			{tr. suppose this light he turns it on}
	138		((T turns on the electricity switch))
	139		**il-nour mi$ binawwar wi fagAh liqy Had**
			{tr. and it doesn't turn on and suddenly someone}
	140		gra:bbed him (0.2) **Yuba camal ēh**?=
			{tr. so what did he do}
	141	L2:	=**dafac** {tr. pushed}
→	142	T:	>↑no (.) grab **ana waqfah kida wi Had** grab me
			{tr. I'm standing like this and someone}
	143	L:	**ya: yasHab**? {tr. grab}
	144	T:	↑**yasHab** ↑yes (.) grab repeat after me grab
	145	LL:	Grab
	146	T:	Grab
	147	LL:	Grab
	148	T:	grab what does it mean?
	149	LL:	**yasHab.**
	150	T:	**yasHab** (.) thank you sit down

It was also found in the data obtained for this research that when a learner shows difficulty in reading a word in a text followed by a pause and a look at the teacher, the teacher normally responds by providing or confirming the correct pronunciation in English, giving an equivalent for the English word in Arabic. This is what is known as 'initiating other-repair', as seen in extract 4.21, below. The interaction contained in this extract is taken from a secondary class, which was mainly about a novel called *Spider*. The lesson has included various sub-foci, beginning with an explanation of the title of the chapter, then revising some questions about the previous chapter. The third activity, in which they are now involved, is reading the chapter. Just before the interaction contained in this extract, T has read part of the chapter and explained the word 'anti-venom'. T now selects L1 to continue reading. In line 736, the

learner begins reading, struggling to read the word 'anti-venom'. Gazing at T, he confirms her pronunciation in Arabic **'Aywa'** {tr. yes}. In line 740, L1 continues reading until she comes to the word 'process', which she utters in a rising tone, looking at T. T repeats the word and then gives an explanation, comparing it with the word 'operation', which has a similar meaning. T then switches to Arabic to explain and contrast the meanings of these two words until he finishes in line 755. In line 756, he indicates a shift back to the reading using the continuer 'hmm'. In line 757, L1 resumes reading.

Extract 4.21

	734	T:	**Hmm**
	735		(0.2)
	736	L1:	scientists will have to develop (0.3) a new a
	737		ant anti venom ((L1 gazes at T))
	738	T:	**Aywa** {tr. yes}
	739		(0.4)
	740	L1:	that will be a a slow and (.)difficult
→	741		a: (0.4) process? ((L1 gazes at T))
	742		(0.4)
→	743	T:	x process (0.3) a process **Yacni cammaliyya**
	744		(0.8) **fEh kam kilmah Yacni** process
	745		**Yacni cammaliyya** (0.2) process **cammaliyya**
	746		(0.3)operation↑ (0.6) **cammaliyya**
	747		Operation **Yacni ēh?**
	748	LL:	**Cammaliyya**
	749	T:	**cammaliyya bass cammaliyya ēh?**
	750		**cammaliyya geraHyya**
	751	LL:	**Gerahhyya**
	752	T:	for surgeons (.) **il-gaRaHeen** (0.4) operate
			{tr. surgeons}
	753		(0.2) on someone (0.3) a:n operation, **Ycmilo**
	754		(.)**cammaliyya lakin di** process in the lab(.)
	755		**fi il-macmal Ycmelou cammaliyya Yesmuha** process
	756		(0.3) **hmm**
	757	L1:	process with process with lots of problems
	758		(0.2)first we have to get some
	759		venom from the spiders

It was also found that the teachers use the L1 to initiate repair when the sub-focus is on displaying understanding of the text by giving an answer to a comprehension

question. Thus in extract 4.22 below, L4 gives a wrong answer (line 148) and thus he fails to display understanding of this part of the story. T therefore uses the L1 to repeat the question in Arabic. L4 follows in Arabic, then says **'>lA<** {tr. no} No no no' in English.

Extract 4.22

```
      146  T:   Did the crow sing for the fox?
      147       (0.4)
      148  L4:  a:(0.2) a ye >yes< he did
      149       (0.2)
  →   150  T:   yeS?(0.4) il-crow (.) il-crow Ghana?
      151            {tr. the crow the crow sang?}
      152       (0.4)
      153  L:   °No°
      154  L4:  >lA< {tr. No} No no no
      155  T:   ↑No (.) no he didn't
```

The L1 is also used when learners delay in giving an answer to a comprehension question. This delay puts the interactional business on hold. In the interaction below, T asks a comprehension question about the novel. T either uses an Arabic continuer **'ha'** (extract 4.15) or repeats the question in Arabic (extract 4.23; line 13). The learners usually follow by providing the required answer in English, as shown in the interaction below.

Extract 4.23

```
      1    T:   with whom did she live?
      2         (1.0)
      3         with ↑whom did she live?
      4    L:   °xx°
      5         (1.0)
      6    L:   a:
      7         (0.7)
      8    T:   [with ↑whom] did?-]
      9    L:   [(°in he:r] house°)]
      10        (0.2)
      11   T:   with whom?
      12        (0.3)
  →   13        maca [↑mann taci$?]
                {tr. with ↑whom does she live?}
      14   L1:       [her daughter]
      15   T:   ((pointing))
      16   L1:  her daughter
```

```
17   T:   with whom? (0.2)
18        with her daughter
```

4.6 Vocabulary-based context (VBC)

In a vocabulary-based context, the teacher introduces new vocabulary to the learners who are required to give the meaning, usually in Arabic. T also explains the meaning of the new words, using sentences to help the learners guess the meaning of the new vocabulary. Thus the pedagogic focus of this context is on familiarising learners with the new vocabulary, and the learners are required to demonstrate their understanding of these new or revised words either by giving the Arabic equivalents or a description of the meaning of the word in Arabic, repeating, and then reading them. This context usually occurs at the beginning of a lesson before reading a text, or when introducing forthcoming activities which will include this new vocabulary. Some of the sub-foci (e.g., giving Arabic equivalents) in this context are similar to those of a text-based context, but unlike the text-based context, in which the words are derived directly from a text, in a vocabulary-based context they are not in a text. The words are introduced as a list. In some of the extracts quoted above demonstrating the procedural context (e.g., extracts 4.6 and 4.8), we can see the onset of a vocabulary-based context.

4.6.1 The organisation of turn-taking in vocabulary-based contexts

In this subsection, we examine the turn-taking in vocabulary-based contexts. The interaction shown in extract 4.24 below illustrates the first phase of a vocabulary-based context in a primary lesson. T has just written the new words on the BB, along with some drawings. In lines 39 and 40, T delivers procedural information to introduce the new words and then he reads the first word ‘hot’ while miming the meaning of the word. LL first indicate their familiarity with this word by repeating it, then by giving its Arabic equivalent **‘Harr’**. T does not read the next word, but just points at it (line 47), taking an incomplete turn which LL complete by reading aloud the word ‘thirsty’ in the

next turn. Then in line 50, LL produce the Arabic equivalent **'cat$an'** in unison. The turn-taking in this phase is thus controlled by the teacher. It fits the pedagogic focus, which requires the learners to demonstrate familiarity with the new vocabulary. The sequence is organised mainly as an IRE cycle.

Extract 4.24

	39	T:	now please look at the blackboard (.)
	40		we have some new words today (0.5)
I	41		Hot
	42		(0.2)
R	43	LL:	↑hot (.) **Harr** ((hand gesture for hot))
E	44	T:	yes hot **Harr** (.) o:h. I'm tired! ((miming))
	45	LL:	**Moutcab** {tr. tired}
	46	T:	I'm tired I want to sleep
	47		yes thank you what ↑about (0.2)
	48	LL:	↑thirsty ↑thir[sity]
	49	T:	[thir]sty=
	50	LL:	=**cat$an** **cat$an** =
	51	T:	**Cat$an** .....

The next phase in the vocabulary-based context requires the learners to practise reading the new words. First they repeat the whole list in unison, word by word, after T, as shown in extract 4.25.

Extract 4.25

209	T	Now please repeat after me (0.2). Hot
210	LL:	↑hot
211	T:	Tired
212	LL:	Tired
213	T:	Thirsty
214	LL:	Thirsty
215	T:	Hungry
216	LL:	Hungry

Then T selects one learner at a time to read some words and the other learners either listen or repeat after him/her, as shown in extract 4.26 below. This repetition is a common feature of a primary class, whereas in preparatory classes it appears only occasionally (extract 4.8). At secondary level, the teacher just reads the new words and then asks the learners about the meaning. This suits the age and level of the learners.

Thus the younger the learners are the more repetition of new words there will be. Primary learners are new to the language, hence they need more practice.

We can also see that the turn-taking is mainly controlled by the teacher who directs speakership and interrupts to select another learner, as seen in the extract below. T first interrupts L7 in line 268 to end L7's turn. Then he selects L5 to continue reading the next set of words in line 270.

Extract 4.26

```
     252  T:   now I want a girl to read (0.2) to read
     253       from the BB
     254  LL:  ((raising hands up))
     255       ↑who can read? (.) in a loud voice
     256       yes (.) okay (L1 name)
     257  L7:  Hot
     258  LL:  Hot
     259  L7:  Tired
     260  LL:  tired=
               .......
     267  L7:  wa[ter]
  →  268  T:     [yes] thank you
     269  LL:  Water
  →  270  T:   yes ((T gazes at L5)) go on hmm kamily
                                          {tr. complete}
     271  L5:  a cup of
     272  T:   a cup of
     273  L5:  a glass of
     274  LL:  a glass
```

The above extract reveals that the teacher manages the turn-taking in this phase and pre-allocates turns to allow 'equal participation' (Sacks et al. 1974) among learners. The turn-taking in this phase fits the pedagogical sub-focus, which is on displaying familiarity with the new words: for example, by reading and repeating them. The sequence organisation consists mainly of adjacency pairs, in which the teacher or a selected learner reads the words in the first pair part and the whole class repeats in the second pair part. This sequence suits the pedagogic focus as it helps learners to practise reading and listening to the new words.

4.6.2 Repair organisation in vocabulary-based contexts

Repair organisation in this context is linked to the pedagogic focus; thus when learners fail to display familiarity with the new words, the teacher tries to help them guess the meaning by giving them prompts or examples. As the main pedagogic focus in this context is on familiarising learners with the new words through producing/guessing the targeted response, the repair is focused principally on getting the learners to produce the target meaning rather on evaluating their production. For example, in the following extract (4.27), T encourages the learners to guess what the meaning of the verb 'decided to' is. T uses various repair techniques, for instance, repeating the word (line 152), using it in a sentence (line 139) and encouraging the learners to continue guessing. What is more interesting is that the learners take turns, following one another in attempting to guess what the word means in Arabic. This is evident in the latching turns or overlapping with T and other learners. At the end of this long extract, in line 170 T repeats what L4 has said.

Extract 4.27

	130	T:	decide to ((T points at the word))
	131	LL:	decide to
	132		(0.2)
	133	T:	↑please (0.6) I deci:ded (.) to: (0.3) take an
	134		exam tomorrow
	135		(0.7)
	136	L3:	**Aamorak?** {tr. I order you}
	137		(0.4)
	138	L2:	[xx]
→	139	T:	[I decid]ed I: decided to take (0.2) the exam
	140		↑tommorrow=
	141	L:	**=YoHazer?**= {tr. warn}
	142	L:	=**roubama** {tr. may be}
→	143	T:	((facial expression of disapproval))
	144		(.)
	145	L:	**Yaz-hab**= {tr. go}
	146	L:	=**anwi**= {tr. intend}
	147	L:	=**Yagib Ann**
	148	T:	**ha-** {tr. go on} ((hand gesture))
	149	L:	**Yageb Ann**? {tr. must}
→	150	T:	**$abah Yanwi heh**
	151		{tr. it is similar to intend come on}
		L2:	**Aureed** {tr. I want}

→	152	T:	↑decided
	153		(0.2)
	154	L:	x[x]
	155	L1:	[**Ya**]**gib Ann**= {tr. must}
→	156	L:	=xx=
	157	T:	=[make]a decision (.) make a decision =
	158	L4:	[**Yuqarir**] ((raising his hand)) {tr. decides}
	159		=**qarrar** an= {tr. decided}
	160	T:	= make a decision=
	161	L3:	= ↑**Yuqarir** {tr. decides}
→	162	L:	[**YaHSoul**] {tr. get}
	163	T:	yea ((pointing)) **a**[**h**] {tr. yea}
→	164	L:	[**Yu**]**qarir** {tr. decides}
	165	T:	[ma:ke] a decision to leave now ((opening the door))
	166	L11:	[**YaHSoul**] {tr. get}
	167	T:	[make] a decision to leave now (.)
	168	L1:	[**Yag**]**ib Ann** {tr. must}
	169	T:	**Ah** ↑**a:h** (.) **quaRaret**= {tr. yea, yea I decided}
	170	L1:	=**quaRar Ann** {tr. decide to}
	171	LL:	**Yuqarir An** {tr. decide to}
	172	T:	**macnaha YuqaRer** {tr. it means decide}

However, in the following extract (4.28) from the same class, T uses a sequentially mitigated repair when the learners appear to have a problem in getting the precise meaning. This time, the learners are required to give the meaning of two words together. The interaction shows that they know the individual words but they have difficulty getting the meaning of the compound word. From line 84 until line 93, T selects different students to translate the term 'farm crops', but in line 94 L6's response surprises T so that he hesitates to give feedback. L6 offers a different interpretation from the one T is looking for, translating the term as 'crops farm'. In line 98, L13's response is still imprecise and quite similar to L6's response. In line 99, T uses repeated negative tokens in Arabic, followed by a question in Arabic 'tr.what is it called?' then he utters one word of the Arabic translation in a high tone which solicits whole-class participation in the next turn (line 101). LL complete the teacher's translation. Hence, in line 104, T confirms their response using 'okay'.

Extract 4.28

79	T:	farm crops
80	LL:	farm crops

	81	T:	((T points))
	82	L6:	Mister
	83	L:	Mister
→	84	L4:	**Yagmac aGhlAal** {tr. collect crops}
	85	T:	↑**ha-**
	86	LL:	mister mister
	87	T:	farm crops
	88	L4:	**Yazrac**? {tr. farm}
	89	T:	Farm [farm]
	90	LL:	[mister] **UstAz UstAz**
	91	L6:	mister mister
	92	L:	Please
→	93	T:	**ha-**= {tr. go ahead}
	94	L6:	=**mazrcit Ghelal** {tr. crops farm}
	95	T:	aa- (1.1) ((hand gesture))
	96	L:	**MaHSoul** {tr. crops}
	97	T:	**mA$i** {tr. okay}
	98	L13:	**mazeracit maHaSeel** (0.2) {tr. crops farm}
→	99	T:	**la la la lA ismha ēh?**(.)((pointing)) **maHaSee:l** - {tr. no no no no what is it called?} {tr. crops}
	100	L:	**Maha**
	101	LL:	> ↑**zeracaih**< {tr. farm}
	102	T:	o:kay
	103	L:	**maHaSeel zeraciah**
	104	T:	yea yea okay good

So far the extracts (4.24 - 4.28) used to illustrate the vocabulary-based context have shown that the turn-taking differs slightly according to the different sub-foci. However, generally it is the teacher who directs speakership, especially in the reading-aloud phase. This ensures equal participation by different learners. In the meaning-guessing phase, the teacher for the most part gets the whole class to collaborate in trying to guess the Arabic equivalent (extract 4.24) or uses the method of self-selection (extract 4.27). The sequence also sometimes takes the form of an IRE cycle; this occurs more frequently when the learners are producing Arabic equivalents, whereas in the reading-aloud phase, adjacency pairs are found more frequently. With regard to repair organisation, this is linked to the pedagogic focus of this context. Thus when learners fail to display familiarity with the new words, the teacher conducts repair according to the sub-foci. For example, in the reading-aloud phase repair is undertaken when mispronunciation occurs (extract 4.30).

4.6.3 The use of the L1 and L2 in vocabulary-based contexts

Having discussed the organisation of turn-taking and repair within a vocabulary-based context, in this section we shall demonstrate the use of the L1 and L2 within this context. From the extracts above, we notice that language choice varies according to the sub-foci. Thus in the meaning phase, the L1 is used as a means by which learners display knowledge of the new words through giving the equivalent meaning in Arabic (e.g., extracts 4.24, 4.27 and 4.28). In the interaction below, T asks about the meaning of 'a bunch of'. In line 150, T selects L8 to answer. L8 gives the Arabic equivalent of the phrase (lines 151 and 153). T also uses the L1 to confirm her answer, using an Arabic agreement token in line 152 and also positively evaluates her answer in line 154.

Extract 4.29

	145	T:	a bunch of (.) a bunch of means many
	146		pictures (.)the first one (.)what can
	147		you see (.) what is it?
	148	L:	Banana
	149	L:	Banana
	150	T:	Yes (.) ↑you ((pointing))
→	151	L8:	a::: **Touba a** (.) **zoubaTah**
			{tr.it wil be a bunch of dates}
	152	T:	**aywa** (.) {tr. Yes}
→	153	L8:	**wi canquod** {tr. And a bunch of grapes}
	154	T:	(xx) **Bravo calaiky** (.) thank ↑you (.)
			{tr. very good}
	155		very much clap your hands for her
	156	LL:	((applause))

However, in the reading-aloud phase, the L2 is used by the learners to display familiarity with the new words through reading them correctly. This is demonstrated when the learners do a choral repetition of the new words after the teacher (extract 4.25), or after a classmate, as in extract 4.30 below. In this interaction, the learners repeat the new words after L4. In line 288, T thanks L4 and then shifts to Arabic in line 289 to provide 'generic feedback' without directing it at a specific learner. T rather addresses the whole class concerning the correct pronunciation of the word 'plate'. Moreover, T mentions other, similar words like 'gate' to demonstrate the pronunciation

of the sound /ei/. T then uses the L2 to shift to the next activity in line 292. Thus the L2 is used to display familiarity with the new words, but when a learner (or learners) fails to display this familiarity the L1 is used to initiate repair and provide generic feedback for the whole class.

Extract 4.30

```
     283  L4:   a a tube of
     284  LL:   a tube of
     285  L4:   a pl ap ap plate of
     286  LL:   a plate of
     287        (0.3)
     288  T:    thank you very much (.) plate (.)
  →  289        ihna aXdnha qabl kida mafe$ E (.)
                {tr. We previously took that there is not E}
     290        Yuba plate zayyha zayy ga:te (.) bawAbah
                {tr. So plate is like gate (.) gate}
     291        zayy plane (xxx)  yaXlIni kida ei
                {tr. Like plane (xxx) it make then ei}
     292        okay now please (0.2) open your book ...
```

On the interactional level, the use of the L1 by the teacher functions as a repair strategy when interactional problems arise, especially when the teacher indicates a shift in turn-taking while a learner reads the word list, as in extract 4.31. In this extract, the interactional business is put on hold owing to the learner's delay in reading the words. After T uses the Arabic word **'kamilly'** {tr. complete}, L5 follows in English in the next turn.

Extract 4.31

```
     267  L7:  wa[ter]
     268  T:     [yes] thank you
     269  LL:  Water
  →  270  T:   yes ((T gazes at L5)) go on hmm kamilly
                                          {tr. complete}
     271  L5:  a cup of
```

In another sub-focus, when the learners display unfamiliarity with the meaning of a specific item, the teacher uses the L1 to encourage the learners' production of Arabic equivalents, as shown in extracts 4.27 and 4.28 above.

4.7 Content-based context (CBC)

The content-based context is found mainly in university lectures; this context is organised around a particular topic, which is stated at the outset of the lecture. In lessons 12 and 13, two minor sub-foci were also found: a form and accuracy focus and text-based activities, whereas in lesson 14 the context is mainly content-based. The overall structure of a content-based context is organised around presentation followed by explanation. The interaction below is taken from a lecture in which the teacher introduces the topic of 'assimilation'. T builds on the previous lecture (line 260), establishing shared knowledge. LL respond to her, by non-verbal or verbal agreement (lines 263 and 264). Thus the turn-taking here is mainly controlled by T, who directs speakership. The learners' responses form the second pair part to the teacher's statement. Thus the sequence in this context is either in the form of adjacency pairs, as seen in this extract, or, as when T asks the learners to confirm their understanding in line 268, in the form of a DIU (Koshik 2002), which is completed in line 270. Thus in both cases (lines 264 and 270) learner participation takes the form of whole-class participation.

Extract 4.32

	257	T:	..this is progressive assimilation
	258		but in (.) regressive assimilation
	259		(0.4) we see many examples like
	260		the examples we mentioned last
	261		session (0.3)about not me that girl that
	262		((inaudible))
	263	L1:	((nodding))
	264	LL:	Yes
	265	T:	(1.5) ((T changes the slide))
→	266		**Tab niggy ni$ouf hina baqa** (1.0)
			{tr. so let's look here, then}
	267		"reads" in English a:: (0.2) the words
	268		news and the words? (0.5)
→	269	T:	**ha-**
	270	LL:	bigger

4.7.1 Turn-taking and repair organisation in content-based contexts

The teacher dominates in this context as s/he read the text (either from a book or PowerPoint slides) without nominating learners, as is the case in a text-based context. Thus T reads part of the text, explains it, asks the learners some questions and then shifts back to the next part in the PowerPoint (typically, lessons 11 and 12) or the textbook (lesson 10). This may give learners a restricted space in which to participate under the teacher's control. For example, in extract 4.32 above, T points at the displayed slide and asks the learners to read the word 'bigger', which they do in line 270. Thus the content of these questions is based on the discussed topic rather than on form or meaning. The pedagogic focus is then on getting learners to show their knowledge of the topic discussed by providing a targeted utterance. Repair in this context can occur when learners delay in giving a response. As seen above in extract 4.32, T uses a DIU to be completed by the learners, requiring them to complete what she has read from the slide. After a pause of (0.5) she initiates a repair using the Arabic continuer **'ha-'**. LL follow by reading the word 'bigger' in English.

The interaction in extract 4.33 below shows how the interaction is organised mainly around an explanation of the topic. This lesson has only one content-based context, in addition to one procedural context at the outset of the lesson. The lecturer moves in and out of the topic material (book). The turn-taking is controlled firmly by T; we find long turns similar to those in a procedural context. In the extract below, T reads a section from the textbook until line 196. Then T shifts to an explanation episode, using the L1 to indicate this shift in line 197. In subsequent lines he is giving an example of what he has read. The learners participate non-verbally, nodding or looking at the teacher or completing an expected word, as in line 200.

Extract 4.33

192 T: errors (.)In the following examples

193 the pupil knows the correct form of the
194 the third person singular of the present
195 simple tense but has made a mistake when
196 using the verb to catch
197 **a: aqulouko masalan** the word k **cu Haga cann il-**
{tr. I'll tell you for example)(something about the}
198 Error **waHid bitargim celag le** (.) swine vlu flu
{tr. someone translates a medicine for}
199 **illi huwwa maraD** inflenza
{tr. Which is flu of}
200 LL: **il-xanazir**
{tr. the swine}
201 T: **xanazir** [**bicid cankom**] (.)
{tr. swine}
202 L1 [°xxx°]
203 T: **Celag ēh?** (.) swine flu (.)**fa qual** cure for...
{tr. cure of what? So he said}

T goes on with his explanation for 10 more turns, which are omitted here. Then in line 216, he summarises what he has said and links it back to the sub-topic in line 219: 'this may be an error'. Some of the learners react verbally to what T has said, as in line 220. In line 221, T uses 'okay' as a confirmation check and the learners respond. In line 223, T uses double Arabic markers **'fa hina'** {tr. so here} indicating a move back into the text. Again, the use of this marker is similar to that in extract 4.17 (line 844), in which T uses a similar marker **'fa qaloh'** {tr. and so he told him} to get back into the text and continue the reading after asking a learner the meaning of a word. In such cases, the markers guide learners to the different episodes within the particular context.

Extract 4.34

216 T: **Yacni law ana masalan mu$** specialist I can mix
{tr. that is if I'm for example not}
217 or I may I can use a: treatment for cure and
218 cure for treatment (0.3) if I persist or insist
219 on using cure (0.4) this may be an error
220 L1: Yes
221 T: Okay?
222 LL: yes
223 T: **fa hina** ((T continues reading)) .....
{tr. so here}

So far we have seen that the turn-taking in the content-based context is mainly controlled by the teacher. The use of extended turns by the teacher is also noticeable in this context (extract 4.34). Repair is initiated usually by teachers, particularly when learners delay in giving a response (extract 4.32) or when they fail to demonstrate understanding of the topic discussed (chapter five, extract 5.18).

4.7.2 The use of the L1 and L2 in content-based contexts

A notable use of the L1 in this context is seen in the use of Arabic discourse markers, which play an interactional role in organising the explanation, as well as in the shift between reading and explanation. These markers attract the learners' attention and so facilitate their participation as well as their understanding. For example, in extract 4.29, in line 266 T indicates a shift to reading the slide by switching to the L1: **'Tab niggy ni$ouf hina baqa'** {tr. so let's look here, then}. This cluster of markers guides the learners to the next shift in the topic as well as to the place of the shift on the screen. In the other extracts (4.31 and 4.32), markers such as **'Yacni'** and **'maslan'** {tr. that is and for example not} or the English marker 'so' are used to organise the explanation. These markers perform a similar function to those used in the procedural context, which is "guiding the learners".

4.8 Summary of the chapter

This chapter has attempted to identify the overall organisation of the interaction in the data obtained for the present study. This has been done by applying CA (context-based approach) to analyse the machinery of interaction: the participant's display of the emic logic to each other on a moment-by-moment basis, focusing on the organisation of turn-taking, sequence and repair. Adopting Seedhouse's (2004) concept of the L2 classroom context, which relates the pedagogic focus to the organisation of interaction, in this chapter five main contexts were identified: the form and accuracy context, the

procedural context, the text-based context, the vocabulary-based context, and the content-based context (although the latter was only found at university level). In each of these contexts, the turn-taking and repair organisations were found to be linked to the specific pedagogic focus of the particular context.

The CA sequential analysis has shown that the data are organised differently depending on the L2 classroom context. It is argued that in each of the five contexts, the organisations and use of L1 and L2 vary according to the emic logic of the context in question.

This chapter has provided the framework for chapter five, in which the aim is to identify how the functions of the L1 are related to the different L2 classroom contexts, using both CA and CL.

CHAPTER FIVE: FUNCTIONS OF THE L1 IN L2 CLASSROOM CONTEXTS

In chapter four an overview of the data and a basic description of some L2 classroom contexts was presented. The overall system that is used by participants was also illustrated and the interaction was analysed in terms of turn-taking, sequence and repair organisation. In this chapter the functions of L1 use by both teachers and learners are identified. The aim is to determine the relationship between these functions and the identified L2 classroom contexts. This is managed through a combination of CA and CL. CA provides the framework for organising the data according to the different contexts identified and described in chapter four. CL is used to help identify the different functions within each context.

It is proposed that a context-based approach to the functions of L1 use may be more revealing than a mere description of the functions within the lesson as a whole. On the one hand, such an approach provides a framework to benchmark those functions against the pedagogical focus of the macro context (see chapter 2, section 2.4 for more details on Seedhouse's (2004) three-way view of context). On the other hand, it also makes it possible to conduct a turn-by-turn analysis of the micro interactional context. In this chapter the functions of L1 use within the five different L2 classroom contexts identified in chapter four (namely: procedural context, form and accuracy context, vocabulary-based context, text-based context and content-based context) are discussed using the combination of CL and CA described above.

It should be pointed out that not all the functions which occur in the data are examined here. The main argument in this chapter is that only certain functions are pertinent to a specific context and that those functions are appropriate to the

pedagogical focus of the context in which they are used. Hence, the analysis is geared towards providing supporting evidence for this argument.

The chapter is organised as follows: first, the categorisation of the functions is explained (section 5.2), followed by a brief introduction to the data analysis (section 5.3), the functions of L1 use by the teachers (section 5.4), then by the learners (section 5.5). A discussion follows showing how a context-based approach is effective in elucidating the varying ways in which the functions operate at the pedagogic and interactional levels (section 5.6). The discussion also examines when the switch to the L1 occurs. A brief summary of the chapter is presented in the final section (section 5.7).

5.1 Research questions

1 What is the overall interactional organisation of the data? and how are the L1 and L2 used within that organisation?

2 What is the relationship between the functions of L1 use and the different L2 classroom contexts?

5.2 Categorisation of functions

An adapted version of Ferguson's (2003) categorisation of classroom CS was employed in this research in order to identify the functions of L1 use by the teachers. A detailed description of the system of categorisation of functions used in this study was provided in chapter three (section 3.8.7). As a brief reminder: Ferguson's system of categorisation is composed of three main categories: curriculum access, classroom management discourse and interpersonal relations (see section 2.2.1 for more details). These categories were used only as a guiding framework, however, and I listed all the functions of the L1 in the Egyptian EFL classrooms separately (see Table 5.1). I also identified the functions of L1 use by learners with support from CA and from the

literature on the use of CS in the classroom (also clarified in section 3.8.7). These functions are listed in Table 5.6.

5.3 Data analysis

In order to prepare them for CL analysis, the data were marked up (see chapter 3, sections 3.7.2.1 and 3.8.8). The different contexts were annotated to indicate the beginning and end of each context. Then the functions were also annotated for both teachers and learners (see Appendix E). After running *WordSmith* software (section 3.8), the functions in each context were identified, as shown in Table 5.1 (teachers) and Table 5.6 (learners). In the following sections some of these functions as used first by the teachers (section 5.4), then by the learners (section 5.5) are analysed in detail.

5.4 Functions of L1 use by teachers

Table 5.1 below shows the variations in the frequency of the functions among and within the five contexts (horizontally) and amongst the 20 functions (total vertically).

As shown in the table, the total number of occurrences of the first two functions (giving an L1 equivalent (FT1) and giving a translation in L1 (FT2)) was 186/710: that is, 26.2%, which is more than a quarter of the total for all the functions. Moreover, if the total for these two functions is added to that of the function of eliciting an English equivalent/response (FT3), the resulting figure represents approximately 42% of the total for all the functions; by contrast, the total obtained for the functions which come under the second and third categories in Ferguson's system (interpersonal and management functions): namely, encouraging learners to bid (FT13), encouraging learners to continue participation (FT14), expressing a humorous comment (FT15) and maintaining discipline (FT16), was 28 (only around 4% of the total for all the functions), which is far smaller than that obtained for the three functions mentioned above. Two conclusions can be drawn from this notable difference: first, this indicates a

greater significance attached to explaining word meanings in the study setting. Second, it also indicates that greater emphasis is placed on pedagogical functions than on social and interpersonal functions. Thus, the figures presented in the table reveal that the various functions and categories of functions did not occur with the same frequency.

Table 5.1 Functions of L1 use by teachers in different L2 classroom contexts

No.	Function	Context[1]					Total
		FAC	PC	CBC	TBC	VBC	
[2]FT1	Giving an L1 equivalent (one word)	8	1	6	**56**	13	84
FT2	Giving a translation in L1 (a sentence)	19	4	17	**53**	9	102
FT3	Eliciting an English equivalent /response	**40**	0	18	**30**	**23**	111
FT4	Eliciting an Arabic equivalent /response	**16**	1	2	**13**	**18**	50
FT5	Providing metalanguage explanation	**9**	0	1	**9**	5	24
FT6	Providing generic feedback	0	0	0	0	**3**	3
FT7	Delivering procedural information	0	**60**	0	1	0	61
FT8	Confirming learner's answer	5	0	3	**32**	**28**	68
FT9	Initiating mitigated repair	7	0	0	3	4	14
FT10	Initiating unmitigated repair	4	0	0	1	0	5
FT11	Dealing with a delay in giving a response	19	1	1	7	3	31
FT12	Commenting on a reading text	0	0	**19**	**37**	0	56
FT13	Encouraging learners to bid	2	1	1	2	3	9
FT14	Encouraging learners to continue participation	3	1	1	2	2	9
FT15	Expressing a humorous comment	1	0	3	2	1	7
FT16	Maintaining discipline	1	0	1	1	0	3
FT17	Resuming reading	0	0	**5**	**7**	0	12
FT18	Highlighting important/coming information	1	0	**20**	**12**	0	33
FT19	Indicating a shift	15	1	0	3	7	26
FT20	Initiating peer repair	**2**	0	0	0	0	2
Total		152	70	97	275	116	710

[1] In the following Tables and Figures, the names of contexts are abbreviated owing to limitations of space. So PC refers to procedural context; FAC refers to form and accuracy context; VBC refers to vocabulary-based context; TBC refers to text-based context, and CBC refers to content-based context.
[2] Owing to limitations of space, the abbreviation FT is used to refer to functions used by teachers (Table 5.1).

The Table shows also noteworthy findings concerning these variations both among and within the contexts. As far as context is concerned, a closer look at the frequency distribution of the functions in Table 5.1 above reveals that some functions occurred much more frequently in some contexts than in others (e.g., FT1 and FT2). Another interesting finding is that some functions occurred in one context but not at all in any of the others (e.g., FT7, FT6, FT20). In the following paragraphs these findings are analysed and explanations are provided from both CL (when possible) and CA perspectives. Again, the analysis is intended to support the main argument presented in this chapter, which is that some functions are pertinent to certain contexts and that they are appropriate to the pedagogic focus of those contexts. Hence, owing to limitations of space we will focus solely on the most significant functions.

5.4.1 High frequency functions as indicators of a specific context (FT7)

Table 5.1 shows that delivering procedural information (FT7) had the highest number of occurrences in comparison to other functions. It also demonstrates that this function is 'cropped' in the procedural context. In other words, compared with the other contexts, the procedural context is characterised by having the highest number of FT7 (61 times: Figure 5.1 below). This function also occurred more frequently than any other function within the procedural context (see Table 5.1 above). This demonstrates that this function is predominant in this context.

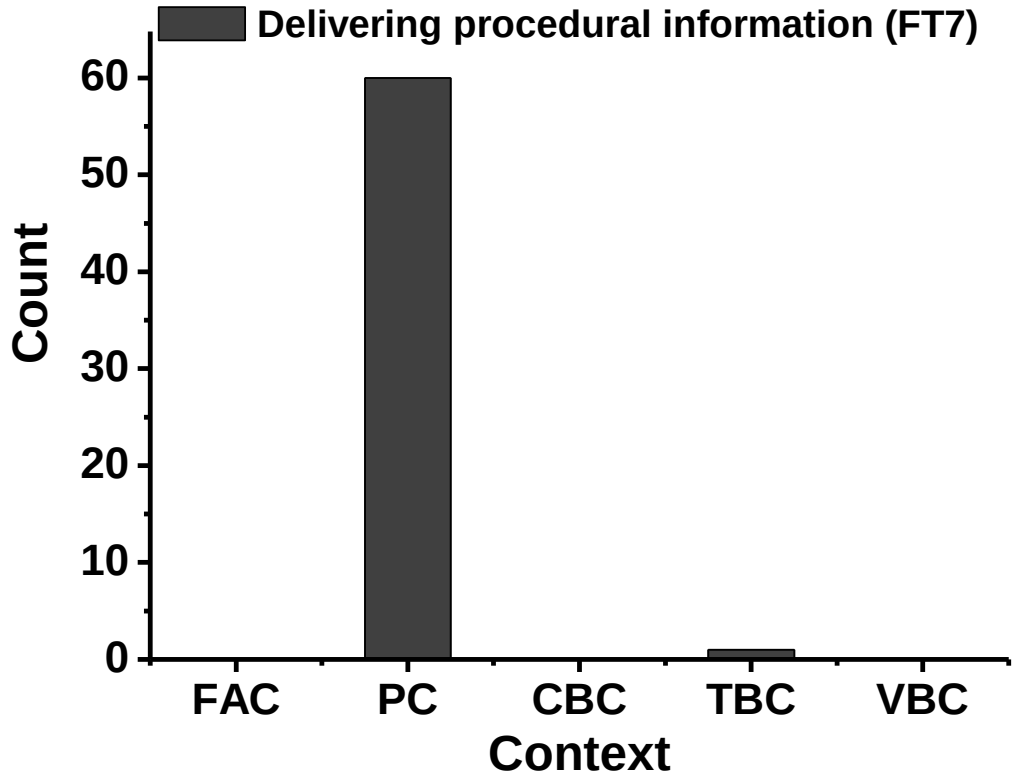

Figure 5.1 FT7 in the different L2 contexts

The question now arises: why does this function occur more frequently in the procedural context than in the other contexts and why is it also the most frequently occurring function within this context? The answer to this question, from a CA point of view, is that this function is linked to the core pedagogic focus of the procedural context: to deliver procedural information at the outset of the lesson, or before a new context, or within context episodes. From a CL point of view, we can see that the specific focus of this context is reflected in the most frequently used words in its wordlist, as described below.

The wordlist for the procedural context was compared with those for the other four contexts (see Appendix F for the wordlists for all contexts). Owing to limitations of space, however, here it is only possible to display two of the comparisons. As shown in

Tables 5.2 and 5.3 below, the word 'PAGE' occurs as the first key word in the comparison, indicating that this was the most frequently used word in the procedural context, but that it was used a lot less frequently in all the other contexts (see Appendix F for the other wordlists). Table 5.2 shows the comparison between the procedural context (PC) and the form and accuracy context (FAC), and Table 5.3 shows the comparison between the procedural context and the text-based context (TBC).

Table 5.2 Comparison between procedural context (PC) and form and accuracy context (FAC)

No.	Key word	Freq. PC	%	Freq. FAC	%	Keyness	P
1	PAGE	34	0.94	0		120.48	0.0000000000
2	NOW	21	0.58	0		74.35	0.0000000000
3	EXERCISE	15	0.41	0		53.09	0.0000000000
4	HOMEWORK	13	0.36	0		46.00	0.0000000000
5	TWENTY	12	0.33	0		42.46	0.0000000000
6	GOING	12	0.33	0		42.46	0.0000000000
7	LOOK	11	0.30	0		38.92	0.0000000000
8	LESSON	11	0.30	0		38.92	0.0000000000
9	READ	20	0.55	10	0.06	36.34	0.0000000001
10	COMPLETE	10	0.28	0		35.38	0.0000000003
11	OPEN	10	0.28	0		35.38	0.0000000003
12	TWO	24	0.66	19	0.11	33.04	0.0000000061
13	OKAY	34	0.94	41	0.23	32.40	0.0000000096
14	WORDS	9	0.25	0		31.84	0.0000000138
15	FORTY	8	0.22	0		28.30	0.0000001009
16	YOUR	28	0.77	34	0.19	26.46	0.0000002658
17	QUESTIONS	7	0.19	0		24.76	0.0000006457

Table 5.3 Comparison between procedural context (PC) and text-based context (TBC)

No.	Key word	Freq. PC	%	Freq. TBC	%	Keyness	P
1	PAGE	34	0.94	5	0.02	104.97	0.0000000000
2	HOMEWORK	13	0.36	0		50.91	0.0000000000
3	TWENTY	12	0.33	0		46.99	0.0000000000
4	NOW	21	0.58	10	0.05	46.33	0.0000000000
5	YOUR	28	0.77	25	0.11	44.02	0.0000000000
6	LESSON	11	0.30	0		43.07	0.0000000000
7	OUR	10	0.28	0		39.16	0.0000000000
8	COMPLETE	10	0.28	0		39.16	0.0000000000
9	OPEN	10	0.28	0		39.16	0.0000000000
10	LISTEN	10	0.28	0		39.16	0.0000000000
11	PUT	10	0.28	0		39.16	0.0000000000
12	WORDS	9	0.25	0		35.24	0.0000000004
13	FORTY	8	0.22	0		31.32	0.0000000189
14	QUESTIONS	7	0.19	0		27.40	0.0000001621

As shown in the above Tables, the key words used in the procedural context were grouped as follows:

- *Page numbers*: twenty, forty, two
- *Shift markers*: now, okay, going
- *Focus*: page, homework, exercise, questions
- *Instructional verbs*: open, listen, read, put, look, complete.

It is obvious that all of these words are linked to the pedagogical focus of the procedural context. Thus they reveal the specific nature of this context. For example, in extract 5.1 below, we see a cluster of these words in some lines (771, 773 and 776).

Extract 5.1

	769	T:	xx ears **betacna** (.) **haneXtaber↑** **wedanna**(0.3)
	770		**haneXta↓ber** (.) **wedanna**(0.4)
			{tr. xx our ears (.) we will test our ears
			we will test our ears}
→	771		open your books (0.4)
	772	L:	°at page **kam**?°(1.0) {tr. which page?}
→	773	T:	page (0.3) twenty one (0.4) quickly (0.6)
	774		exercise number one
	775		**Biqulak hatecmel ēh**?(0.4)
			{tr. he tells you what you will do?}
→	776		listen (0.2) ↑a:nd put **il-tikka di** (.)
	777		**Il-hyya calamit SaHH↑** (0.3)
			{tr. this tick (.) which is the correct sign}
	778		a:: (.) the correct answer A-B- or C (0.2)
	779		**Ana haqra**(0.5) **wiw into**
			{tr. I will read (0.5) and you}
	780		(0.5) you will listen (.) **hansemac wa hencmel**
	781		**ēh**? (.) **tikka qudam il-i:gabah il-**[**SaHH**]
			{tr. we will listen and do what?
			a tick before the right answer}

In this interaction, T is introducing a listening exercise. She uses both L2 and L1 to deliver the procedural information about this exercise. She uses a confirmation check strategy in which she delivers the procedural information in English then in Arabic in lines 769 and 770. Then she uses a mixed-code strategy in which she delivers part of the procedural information in English and part in Arabic in lines 775-781. Thus the L1 is used as a contextual resource to deliver the procedural information which is prerequisite

for the next activity. The use of the L1 here relates to the pedagogic focus of a procedural context. Now it is clear that FT7 is a function peculiar to the procedural context and that it is appropriate for the pedagogical focus of this context. In other words, the procedural context thus includes a function peculiar to that context alone, and which reflects the pedagogical focus of that context. This is similar to Seedhouse's (2004) findings that each L2 classroom context has its own particular organisation of turn-taking, sequence, repair and topic.

The question now arises: if this function is peculiar to the procedural context, then why in this research was an occurrence of this function found in a text-based context? A more detailed analysis of this case (see extract 5.2) is provided below in an attempt to explain why FT7 can occur outside the procedural context. In the interaction below, T is reading a section from the novel entitled *Spider*.

Extract 5.2

	369	T:	If you must fight an enemy (0.2)
	370		you: should first understa:nd (.)
	371	L:	[°the enemy°]
	372	T:	[the enemy] (.) you should first ↑understa::nd
	373		[↑the ↓enemy]
	374	L:	[the enemy]
→	375	T:	**Yuba nekteb il-souAl** (0.3) **ikteby**
	376		**il-souAl fouqeha** (0.3)
			{tr. so we shall write the question (0.3) write the question above it}
	377		what (0.2) should (0.5) what should we do? (0.8)
	378		what should we do?(1.0)to fight(1.1)a:n ↑enemy?
	379		(0.5)enemy **liha kilma waHda tani**
	380		**Fi el-en↓glizy** (0.2)**tesaweeha** (0.4)
			{tr. It has a another one word in English (0.2) equivalent to it (0.4)}
	381	T:	**[illi-haycrefha] Leih Candi gayyza**
			{tr. I'll give anyone who knows it a present}
	382	L1:	**[macnaha ēh?**]
			{tr. What does it mean?}

In the extract above, T (line 369) reads a line from the novel, and then repeats it in a high-pitched voice, stretching the syllables (line 372). T also uses a DIU (Koshik 2002), which is completed by L in lines 371 and 373 in an overlap with T. In line 375, T is

shifting the context temporarily to a procedural context in order to deliver procedural information. Seedhouse (1996 p.300) calls this a "temporary shift". We also notice the use of the Arabic marker **'Yuba'** to indicate this temporary shift, followed by T asking the learners to write down the question. After saying the question (lines 377 and 378) T shifts to the main context, which is a text-based context, in line 379. He marks this shift by repeating the word 'enemy', and then switches to Arabic to ask LL what the English equivalent of this word is.

Thus the extract above explains the reason for the occurrence of FT7 in a text-based context as being an incidental shift to deliver procedural information. Not only does this shift mark a different momentary context but also a different activity for the learners; they move from listening to and reading the novel to writing down a question. We also notice that this shift occurs quickly and does not last very long. In this regard, Seedhouse (2004 p. 207) points out that, "Contexts can shift *with great rapidity and fluidity from turn to turn during an L2 lesson*" (emphasis added).

5.4.2 Functions occurring more frequently in some contexts than in others

In Table 5.1 above, we also see that some functions occur much more frequently in two or three contexts than in the other contexts. Thus giving an L1 equivalent (FT1) and giving a translation in L1 (FT2) are found more frequently in the text-based than in the other contexts. Eliciting an English equivalent/response (FT3) is also common in three of the contexts: the form and accuracy, text-based and vocabulary-based contexts. Confirming a learner's answer (FT8) is also found more frequently in a vocabulary-based context than in a form and accuracy context. Dealing with a delay in giving a response (FT11) was found to be equally common in the form and accuracy and text-based contexts. In the following paragraphs, owing to limitations of space we will focus only on FT1 and FT2, as they were ranked higher than the other functions (after FT7).

Text-based context

Table 5.1 also shows that the text-based context was characterised by having the highest number of FT1 (56 times) and FT2 (53 times). These two functions are related to giving an Arabic equivalent or translation (Figure 5.2).

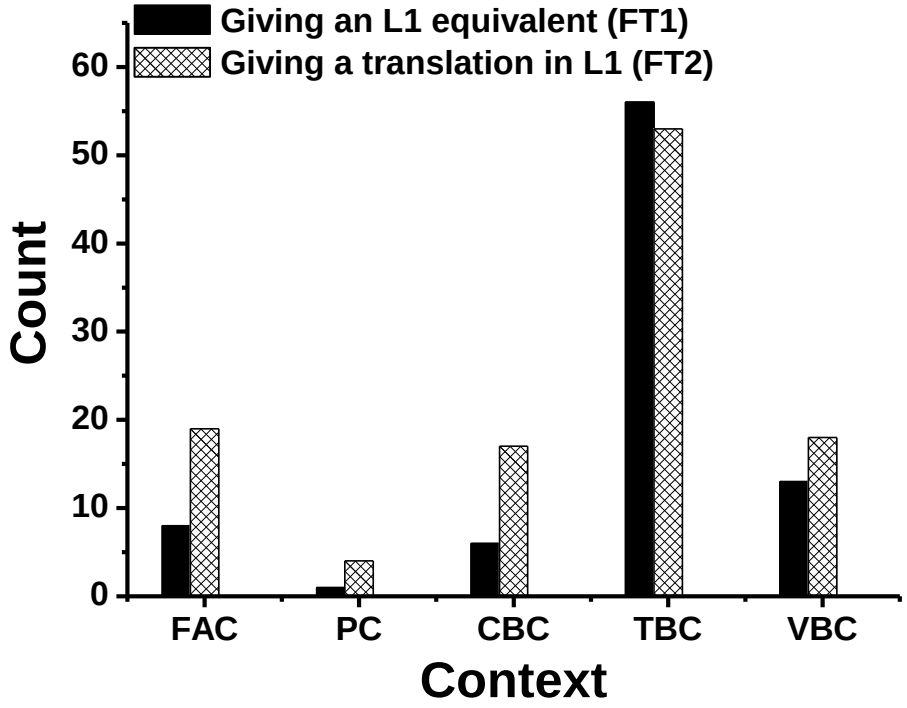

Figure 5.2 Distribution of FT1 and FT2 in the different L2 contexts

Figure 5.2 demonstrates that both functions (FT1 and FT2) occurred quite a lot more frequently in the text-based context than in the other contexts and also that they were the most frequently occurring function within that context (see Table 5.1). The CA analysis of the text-based context (see chapter four) revealed that showing familiarity with the meaning of a word (by giving the Arabic equivalent) is one of the sub-foci in a text-based context.

The CL analysis informs us about the most frequently used words in this context. Although here we are concerned with the frequency of functions and their relationship to the different contexts, as in the above explanation for the frequency of

FT7, the wordlists can provide another layer of meaning to explain the predominance of FT1 and FT2 in the text-based context. For example, when comparing the wordlist of the text-based context to that of the form and accuracy context, we see (Table 5.4) that both the English word 'meaning' and the Arabic equivalent **'Yacni'** {tr. that is/mean} are key words in a text-based context but not in a form and accuracy context.

Table 5.4 Comparison between FAC and TBC

N	Key word	Freq. FAC	%	Freq. TBC	%	Keyness	P
21	MEANING	0		20	0.09	-32.46	0.0000000093
33	YACNI	11	0.06	80	0.36	-44.85	0.0000000000

Moreover, a closer look at two members of the same lemma: 'mean' and 'means', in the wordlist of each context (Table 5.5 below) shows that the word '**means**' does occur in a text-based context (11 times) but not in a form and accuracy context, whereas '**mean**' (28 times) occurs more frequently in a text-based than in a form and accuracy context (9 times). This lemma comparison between the two contexts further supports the results shown in Table 5.4 above.

Table 5.5 Frequencies of the lemma 'mean' in the wordlists of a text-based context (TBC) and a form and accuracy context (FAC)

Text-based context						Form and accuracy context					
N	**Word**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Texts**	**%**	**N**	**Word**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Texts**	**%**
64	MEAN	28	0.13	4	40.00	123	MEAN	9	0.05	4	30.77
120	MEANS	11		2	0.05						

Thus the CL analysis reveals how word meaning is of prime importance in a text-based context. In this context the teachers focus on word meanings to make the text accessible to the students. For example, in extract 5.3 below, we see that the frequently used Arabic word **'Yacni'** (Table 5.4 above) precedes giving an Arabic equivalent (FT1) in line 936 and also giving an Arabic translation (FT2) in line 940.

Extract 5.3

	927	L2:	**aqoul ana ya UstAz**
			{tr. shall I say mister}
	928	T:	**aywa itfaDali**
			{tr. yes go ahead}
	929	L2:	xxx Aiman I expect you have met professor
	930		Jones (.) by now has he told you
	931		about a(0.2) the:: a g (0.8) medical
	932		medical ((mispronounced))
	933		a:
	934	T:	medi↑cal
	935	L2:	medical ↓text
FT1→	936	T:	text **Yacni nAS** (0.7) **feih nAS Tebby** (.)
			{tr. means text (0.7)there is a medical text}
	937		**tani aqurahlkom tani il-$ewyya dool**? (.)
			{tr. again I will read these bits again for you}
	938		"I expect you have met professor ↑Jones (0.2)
	939	LL:	[by now]
FT2→	940	T:	[by now] **Yacni atwaqac ini inta il-aan**
	941		**Iltaquait bi** professor Jones (0.3)
			{tr. that's mean I expect you now have met}
	942		Hasn't he told you about the medical text?

The high frequency of these functions (giving an Arabic equivalent or translation) can be explained in terms of "unpacking the meaning" (Martin 1999) of an English word/sentence. For example, in extract 5.4 T 'unpacks' the meaning of some words in order to help the learners understand the text.

In the interaction below, T is reading the title of the reading text 'my feelings'. He gives the learners some examples of feelings in line 295. In line 296, he uses Arabic to ask them about these examples. LL provide an Arabic answer in line 299, and T repeats their answer and extends the meaning of 'feelings' in Arabic in lines 299 and 300. T resumes his reading of the text in lines 300 and 301. Thus here he checks that the learners are familiar with a core word in the text - 'feeling' - then he moves to reading it.

Extract 5.4

	293	T:	okay now please (0.2) open your books at page
	294		thirty four (0.4) my feelings (1.0) my feelings
	295		(.) I'm ↑hot; I'm ↑thirsty I'm hungry (.)
	296		**kul doul ēh ya Habayybi?**
			{tr. All of these, what are they my darlings}
	297	L5:	[**ana ana ya** mister] ((raising hands))
			{tr. me me}
	298	LL:	**AHasees** [**AHasees**]
→	299	T:	[**AHasees**] **AHasees $icur illi ana ēh**?
			{tr. feelings feelings is the emotions which I what?}
	300		**Ba$cur bi bIh** (.) yes (.) we have a family
			{tr. I feel}
	301		here (.) look at the pictures (.)

In a text-based context the teacher 'unpacks word meaning' either by asking the students about the meaning of certain words or by giving the meaning in Arabic, either while s/he is reading the text or when the learners fail to produce the meaning. For example, in extract 5.5 below, T gives the Arabic equivalent of the word 'as' after L fails to give the correct Arabic equivalent. By contrast, in extract 5.6, T gives the translation of a sentence while he is reading the text. In extract 5.5 the learners are secondary school students so T focuses on the meaning of only certain words, whereas in extract 5.6 they are third-year elementary level learners so the teacher gives more translation.

Extract 5.5

	367	T:	Captain Ahmed knows that so he listened
	368		carefully (0.2) as professor Jones talked
	369		about the spider (1.0) ↑a:s the guard
	370		a::s? (0.2) what's the meaning of as?
	371		(0.3)
	371	L:	**Lezalik** {tr. So}
	372	L:	a:
→	373	T:	**Cendama** {tr. As}
	374	LL:	**Cendama** {tr. As}

Extract 5.6

	499	T:	Look at the Swiss canal" (0.2)
→	500		**Inzouro illa** (0.5) **mabna quanta il-Swaiss**
			{tr. look at the Swiss canal building}
	501		"Swiss canal building
→	502		**Illi huwwa il-mabna il**-white building
			{tr. Which is the building the white building}
	503	L?:	(xxx)
	504	T:	**mA$i**? It's very big (.) It's very **ēh**?
	505		{tr. Okay} {tr. What}
	506	LL:	Big
	507	T:	what is the opposite of big?
	508		(0.5)
	509	L:	aa:
	510	T:	**ha-**
	511		(.)
	512	T:	**Qulo**{tr. Say}
	513	LL:	small small small
	514	T:	small (.) okay thank you

Now it is evident that FT1 and FT2 (giving the Arabic equivalent or translation) are related to the text-based context and that these functions are appropriate to the pedagogical focus of this context which is making the text familiar to learners (here, by means of giving the Arabic equivalents of certain words).

5.4.3 Functions which are characteristic of similar contexts (FT12, FT17 and FT18)

Content-based context

The data also show a cluster of functions that were present in two of the contexts but not in the others. Thus, as shown in Table 5.1, the functions commenting on a reading text (FT12), resuming reading (FT17) and highlighting important/coming information (FT18) occur frequently in both content and text-based contexts. As shown in Figure 5.3 below, there is only one deviant case of FT18 being used in a form and accuracy context. In this case, the teacher is highlighting the importance of a grammatical point in a sentence.

Figure 5.3 shows that FT12 is used more frequently in a text-based context (37 times) than in a content-based context (19 times), whereas FT18 is commoner in a content-based context (20 times) than in a text-based context (12 times). The frequency of FT17 in both contexts was found to be fairly similar (5 and 7 times).

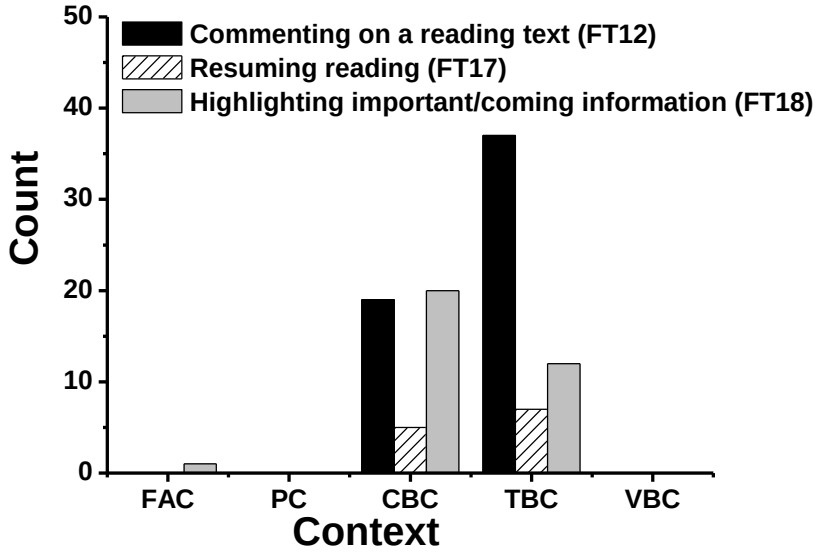

Figure 5.3 High frequency functions (FT12, FT17 and FT18) in text and content-based contexts

The focus in both text and content-based contexts is related to a text, although in the former, the text is tackled from different aspects: linguistically and semantically, whereas in the latter the focus is on understanding the content of the text. Nevertheless, in both contexts teachers use these functions in a relatively similar way. In the following paragraphs several extracts including the use of FT12 are analysed in order to compare the use of this function in the two different contexts.

FT12 is related to resuming the reading of a text. This function was found to occur slightly more frequently in a text-based context (7 times) than in a content-based context (5 times). Within the former context, it is used mainly to demarcate the resumption of reading the text after shifting to a sub-focus (e.g., the teacher shifts to ask about the meaning of a word). It is also used when the teacher is reading a story after

he/she has shifted to explain or translate some aspect of it. It is used to narrate and get back into the text after these shifts. For example, in extract 5.7 below, T asks a comprehension question about a listening text. Before this extract, she stopped to ask a learner about the meaning of a word. Now, in this extract (5.7), T thanks that learner and also attracts L6's attention to listen to her as she reads the question in line 826. T then reads the question in lines 827-834. She interrupts the reading and asks L3 about the meaning of the word 'probably' in line 835. In line 840, T positively evaluates L3's answer. Then T uses the Arabic **'Fa'** {tr. and so} to resume reading the question in line 841. In so doing, T is organising the flow of interaction so the learners can follow her shift among different pedagogic sub-foci (reading and giving the meaning of a word).

Extract 5.7

	826	T:	thank you sit down (.) **ha-** go on (L6 name)
	827		(.) **biqulik ēh**? (0.2) what job do you
			{tr. he tells you what?}
	828		think you will do when you leave
	829		School? (0.2) B **rad calih we qaloh**
			{tr. B replied and told him}
	830		I'm not sure (.) **ana mi$ mutaAkid** (.)
			{tr. I'm not sure}
	831		my mum wa:nts me to try to work on
	832		radio (0.2) or TV (.)
	833		but I do not want to (0.2)
	834		I think I will probably work
	835		(.) what does it mean probably? (0.2)
	836	L3:	°**hAmm**° {tr. important}
	837	T:	↑no:: (.) important **hAmm** probably?=
			{tr. important}
	838	L3:	=a: [**min**] **al-moHtamel**{tr. Probably}
	839	L:	[xx]
	840	T:	y↓ES (.) thank you sit down (0.4)
→	841		**Fa qaluh** (.) I probably work with computer
			{tr. and so he told him}
	842		(.) I'm sure I won't want to be a teacher (.)

However, in a content-based context, the teacher resumes reading the text after explaining a previous reading. That is to say, T reads part of the text, explains it and then resumes reading. For example, in extract 5.8 below, T explains the text after

reading it (10 turns are omitted). Then in line 216, T summarises what he has said and links it back to the sub-topic in line 219: 'this may be an error'. Some learners react verbally to what T has said, as in line 220. In line 221, T uses 'okay' as a confirmation check and LL respond. In line 223, T uses double Arabic markers **'fa hina'** {tr. so here}, indicating a shift (synchronised with a look at the book) to get back into the text and resume reading. The use of this marker is similar to that in extract 5.7 above (line 844), in which T gets back into the text and continues reading after asking a learner about the meaning of a word, using a similar marker **'fa qaloh'** {tr. and so he told him}. In such cases, the markers guide the learners through the different episodes within the particular context.

Extract 5.8

	216	T:	**Yacni law ana masalan mu$** specialist I can mix
			{tr. that is if I'm for example not}
	217		or I may I can use a: treatment for cure and
	218		cure for treatment (0.3) if I persist or insist
	219		on using cure (0.4) this may be an error
	220	L1:	Yes
	221	T:	Okay?
	222	LL:	(yes)
→	223	T:	**Fa hina**((T continues reading)) .....
			{tr. and so here}

5.4.4 Less frequently used functions as significant indicators of some contexts (FT6 and FT20)

In Table 5.1, we also see two functions (FT6 and FT20) with a relatively low frequency, but noteworthy as both occur only in one context and not in any of the others. The frequencies of these functions are presented in Figure 5.4 below.

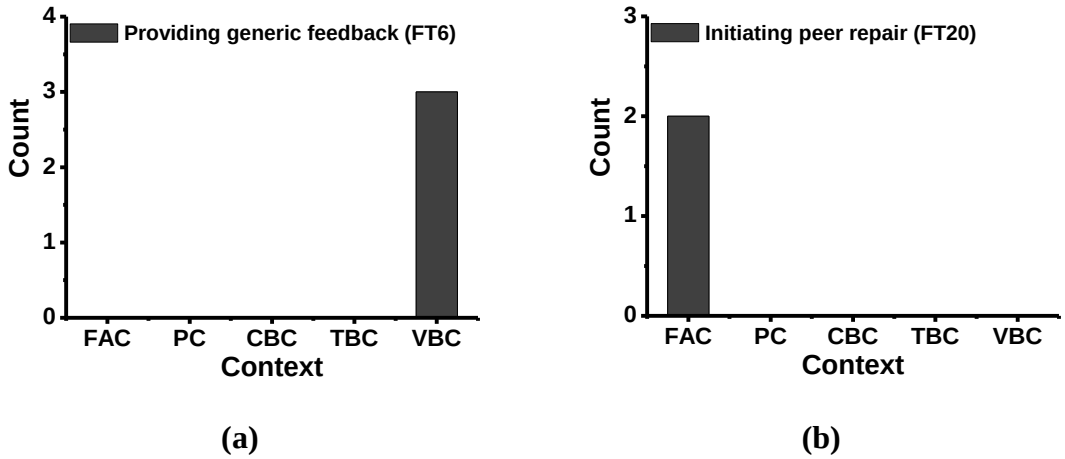

Figure 5.4 Less frequently occurring functions: (a) FT6 in a vocabulary-based context and (b) FT20 in a form and accuracy context

The Figure shows that providing generic feedback (FT6) takes place only in a vocabulary-based context, while initiating peer repair (FT20) is found only in a form and accuracy context.

Providing generic feedback in a vocabulary-based context (FT6)

As Figure 5.4a shows, FT6 occurred 3 times in a vocabulary-based context. Although this is a relatively low frequency, the fact that this function was found only in this context indicates a pertinent relationship between this function and the context in question. This function is concerned with giving generic feedback about the correct pronunciation of mispronounced words in particular. In the data obtained for this research this function was found only in this context and only at primary level. The three cases identified involved three different teachers.

For example, in the interaction below, LL repeat the new words after L4. In line 288, T thanks L4 and then shifts to Arabic in line 289 to provide generic feedback without directing it to a particular learner. He rather addresses the whole class about the correct pronunciation of the word ‘plate’. Moreover, he mentions other words with a similar pronunciation, such as ‘gate’, to give examples of the pronunciation of the sound /ei/. In line 292, T uses English to shift to a procedural context.

Extract 5.9

	283	L4:	aa tube of
	284	LL:	a tube of
	285	L4:	a pla pa p plate of
	286	LL:	a plate of
	287		(0.3)
	288	T:	thank you very much (.) plate (.)
→	289		**Ihna aXdnha qabl kida mafe$** E (.)
			{tr. We previously took that there is not E}
	290		**Yuba** plate **zayy** ga:te (.) **bawAbah**
			{tr. So plate is like gate (.) gate}
	291		**zayy** plane (xxx) **yaXlIni kida ei**
			{tr. Like plane (xxx) it make then ei}
	292		okay now please (0.2) open your books ...

In a similar vein, in the interaction below T uses the L1 to give generic feedback on the learners' pronunciation of the word 'thousand'. In line 309, after marking a transition by using **'okay'**, T switches to Arabic to ask about the meaning of 'thousand'. After a pause of (0.7), L1 begins the answer '**>one <th-**' in line 311, but T interrupts in line 312, emphasising the correct pronunciation of /th/. This interruption causes L1 to stop in the middle of her answer. After a pause of one second, T uses the Arabic continuer **'ha-'** synchronised with a head movement to encourage LL to complete the answer. In lines 313 and 314, LL continue to carry out the pedagogical agenda. T confirms their answer in line 315. T then uses Arabic to give generic feedback emphasising the pronunciation of /th/ in line 318. LL follow in English, pronouncing the problematic word 'thousand' correctly in line 320.

Extract 5.10

	309	T:	.. okay (0.2) **alf Yacni ēh**?
			{tr. What does thousand mean?}
	310		(0.7)
	311	L1:	[>↑one<] th- /s/
	312	T:	[ ] th: (0.1) **ha-**=
			((head nodding))
	313	LL:	=thous[anad]
	314	LL:	[thous]and
	315	T:	th:ousa↓:nd
	316		(0.3)
	317	LL:	thou:sand
→	318	T:	**Talaci lesanik**(.)**Harfeen Ahom**
	319		((pointing at her tongue))
			{tr. Get out your tongue . two letters here}
	320	LL:	Thousand

From a CA point of view, the presence of FT6 in a vocabulary-based context can be explained in terms of the nature of repair in this context. When learners fail to show their familiarity with the new words, in the example above in terms of correct pronunciation, then repair occurs. The teacher, in this context, provides generic feedback for the whole class rather than for a specific student. In this way, this particular function is related to the emic logic of a vocabulary-based context. Moreover, this also explains when the switch to the L1 takes place. In both the extracts above, the learners do not pronounce the new words accurately, hence T switches to the L1 to provide metalanguage feedback (extract 5.6) before moving to the next context or providing feedback and initiating other-repair as well (extract 5.7). Thus this function is particularly suited to the vocabulary-based context because of the nature of that context.

Initiating peer-repair in a form and accuracy context (FT20)

As mentioned above, in this research the function of initiating peer repair was found only in the form and accuracy context (2 times; Figure 5.4b). In the literature this function is referred to as "teacher-initiated delegated-repair" (Kasper 1986) or "teacher-initiated peer-repair" (Seedhouse 1996). In this repair trajectory, as shown in extract 5.8,

the teacher selects another learner to correct his/her peer. The following paragraphs contain an analysis of this extract in order to demonstrate this function (FT20).

Before the interaction below, T has asked L1 about the tenses in the sentence 'As soon as I had recovered I looked around the shop'. Now, in line 257, T asks another question about the order of the tenses in this sentence. In line 259, L1 produces the answer but it is not the required answer. In line 263, T provides a sequential negative evaluation. Then T selects L4 to answer the same question. What is worthy of note is the fact that T instructs L1 to listen to her classmate and then T allocates the turn to L4 (line 264). T confirms L4's answer in line 266 and then she provides more metalanguage information using both L1 and L2.

Extract 5.11

	257	T:	… **imta anhi waHid illi HaSal**
			{tr. when which one happened}
	258		**Il-awwel baHoToh fi ēh**?
			{tr. first I put it in which tense?}
	259	L1:	**fi il**-past simple
	260	T:	NO (0.4)
	261	L:	Miss
	262		(0.2)
	263	T:	↓°No° (.) pay attention ↓plea:se (.) sit down
→	264		↑**ismaci** (L4) **hatqulik ēh**? **Quli ya** (L4 name)
			{tr. Listen to what L4 tells you? Tell her L4}
	265	L4:	**Il-zaman il-awwal niHoToh fi il-**past perfect-
			{tr. the first tense we put it in the past perfect}
	266	T:	ye:s (.) **mi$ ihna qulna** expresses **ēh**?
			{tr. didn't we say it expresses what?}
	267		thank you sit down it expresses **ēh**? {tr. what?}
	268		two events **Hadathain** (.) one of them
	269		had happened first **aw** previously
	270		**Sabaqit il-awalani aw HaSlet fi il-awwal tamam?**
			{tr. had happened first or previously okay}

This repair trajectory is not mentioned, to the best of my knowledge, in the literature on the use of the L1 in L2 classrooms. Nevertheless, this finding is supported by Seedhouse (1996 p. 217), who reports that the "teacher-initiated peer-repair" repair

trajectory is an "idiosyncratic feature" of the form and accuracy context. Moreover, he explains this repair trajectory as follows:

> ... this repair trajectory only appears to occur in my L2 classroom data in form and accuracy contexts, which means that it appears to be a context-specific repair trajectory. This peculiar organization of the interaction can be explained in functional terms in relation to the pedagogical focus to which it is appropriate. The pedagogical focus in this context is on the production of a string of precise linguistic forms by the learners. If one learner fails to produce that string then the teacher may require another learner to produce the answer.

It is thus unsurprising that this function (FT20) was also found to be peculiar to the form and accuracy context in the data obtained for the present research. Moreover, this supports the main argument presented in this chapter, which is that some functions are peculiar to certain contexts and that these functions are appropriate to the pedagogic focus of those contexts. That is to say, the use of L1 to perform the "teacher-initiated peer-repair" repair trajectory is related to the emic logic of the form and accuracy context.

5.5 Functions of L1 use by learners

In this section, some of the functions of L1 use by the learners who took part in this research are presented. As will be shown in Table 5.6, the number of learner functions is small in comparison to those of the teachers. This might be explained in terms of the teacher's dominance in the interaction (this is evident in the extracts presented previously in chapter four and in section 5.4 of the present chapter). Hence, the cases in which learners initiate the use of L1 are relatively few. Nevertheless, they are exemplary cases of learners' managing the use of the L1 to gain interactional space in the L2 classroom discourse. Before we move to discuss these functions of L1 use, two examples from two different contexts and with two different age groups are presented. The first extract (5.12) is from a text-based context in a primary six class, while extract 5.13 is taken from a content-based context at university level. Both extracts show

learners managing the use of the L1 to gain interactional space. For example, in extract 5.12 below we see how L9 switches to the L1 to bid for the floor.

Extract 5.12

```
      446  T:   yea (.) okay (0.5) now↑ (0.3) let's
      447       complete the lesson (.) in the::(.) book
      448       (0.5) open your  books (0.) yes (0.4)
      449       picture number three
      450       ((T puts his hand up)) (0.6)
  →   451  L9:  mi$ Hadretak qayyel (.)aXud il-Soura
      452       il-tanyyah?=
                {tr. didn't your grace say I take (or read) the
                second picture?}
      453  T:   =yea (0.3)inti qulti (0.2) kammily  il-Soura
                      {tr. you said   complete the picture}
      454       (0.7) ↑comple:te the fi the >second (.)
      455       picture<  (.) il-Soura il-tanyya (0.5) yeS
                          {tr. the second picture}
      456  L9:  ((stands up)) yes (0.4) it is (0.7)
```

Before this interaction, L9 was reading and T interrupted her reading to explain a grammatical point. In this extract, T indicates a shift to reading the text (lines 446-448). Then T asks LL to bid for the floor by saying the number of the next picture 'number three' in line 449, synchronised with a hand gesture to solicit their participation. In line 451, L9 self-selects, stands up and uses Arabic to bid politely for the floor. She uses her L1 to gain the floor, explaining to T that he has previously selected her to read the words under the second picture. In a sense, this bidding is multifunctional; L9 attempts to gain the next turn as well as to deal with a procedural problem, namely, that the second picture which she was reading is not yet finished. T confirms her request with an English agreement token 'yea', then he follows in Arabic, thus accepting her procedural repair in line 452 as well as her bid for the floor. In addition, T loudly repeats the picture number, shifting his gaze from L9 to the whole class. In line 457, L9 continues reading the second picture. This indicates that her bid to gain the floor has been successful.

The second example below (extract 5.13) demonstrates how L1 manages to get the floor using Arabic to support her understanding of the discussed topic. T explains the effect of the mother tongue on translation, giving an example to show the difference in the verb used with 'cigarette' in Arabic and in English (lines 281, 282, 285, 286 and 287). In line 289, L1 self-selects at a TRP in an overlap with T using the Arabic marker **'Tab'** to ask about the correct verb to use with cigarettes. It seems that T does not hear L1 so he initiates an open repair in line 290. Hence, L1 repeats the question but without the marker, since she has already gained access to the floor. T then answers her question in 293.

Extract 5.13

	281	T:	it's an error (0.8) they say we smoke (0.9)
	282		**ihna benqul ne$rab sagayyer** (0.6)
			{tr. we say drink cigarette}
	283		**Il-targama il-XaTa** (1.0) **beHokm il-tatheer**
			{tr. the wrong translation because of the influence of}
	284	L1:	mother tongue
	285	T:	**il-louGh il-lom niqul ēh**? (.)
			{tr. mother tongue we say what?}
	286		to drink cigarettes (0.7) **wa da Tabcan Yacni** a:
			{tr. and this is of course I mean}
	287		destructive error (.) [ss]
→	288	L1:	[**Tab**]
	289	T:	**il**-alternative **betacaha ēh ya** doctor?
			{tr. so what's its alternative doctor?}
	290	T:	(**huh**)?
	291	L1:	**il**-alternative (0.4) drink cigarette (0.8)
	292		what (0.2) what can I say?
	293	T:	smoke(.) to smoke cigarette
	294	L1:	to smo::ke ((L1 nods and writes in her book))
	295	LL:	Smoke
	296	T:	yea (1.0) to smoke (0.8) not (0.3) but
	297		drinking (0.3) is related to liquids (1.1)
	298		I don't (0.5) drink (0.3) smokes (.)
	399	L1:	hhh ((the student smiles))
	300	LL:	((some learners smile))
	301	T:	**Yacni ēh?** (0.8) **mma matetqal$** (0.4)
			{tr. that is what? It shouldn't be said}
	302		so the: the influence of the mother tongue
	303		is so: great …..

Such successful attempts are to a certain extent related to achieving the pedagogic focus of the contexts in which they operate. In the text-based context in extract 5.12, L9 uses the L1 to bid for the floor in order to complete her previous reading and hence display familiarity with the text. In the content-based context shown in extract 5.13, L1 asks for a clarification, which supports her understanding of the topic under discussion. This is important in terms of supporting the main argument presented in this chapter that some functions are related to certain contexts and that those functions are appropriate to the pedagogic focus of the context in which they operate.

Having provided two examples of learners managing to gain interactional space through the use of their L1, we shall now look more closely at the distribution of the functions of L1 use by learners. The aim is to provide additional evidence for the main argument of this chapter that was begun in the examination of the functions of L1 use by teachers in section 5.4.

A quick glance at the totals obtained for each function shown in Table 5.6 below reveals that, overall, FL7 (bidding for the floor) is the most frequently occurring function, with a total of 27/62. Indeed, this is the highest number amongst all the other functions as it constitutes 42% of the total; it is followed by FL8 (holding the floor), with a total of 9 occurrences, comprising just over 14.5% of the total for all the functions. When the totals obtained for FL7 and FL8 are added together, we see that together they constitute 58% of the total. This high percentage indicates that learners are using the L1 to gain more interactional space either by bidding for or by holding the floor. Indeed, this is useful in terms of developing their classroom interactional competence, since the fact that this takes place in a teacher-dominated context means that learners struggle to obtain interactional space.

Table 5.6 Functions of L1 use by learners in different L2 classroom contexts

No.	Function	Context					Total
		FAC	PC	CBC	TBC	VBC	
FL1[3]	Initiating repair	**7**	0	0	0	0	7
FL2	Initiating open repair (non-specific)	**5**	0	0	**2**	0	7
FL3	Initiating self-repair using an Arabic negative token	**5**	0	0	0	0	5
FL4	Doing repair	0	0	0	**1**	0	1
FL5	Dealing with a procedural trouble (management)	**4**	2	0	1	1	8
FL6	Dealing with a procedural trouble (pedagogy)	**2**	0	0	0	0	2
FL7	Bidding for the floor	**16**	1	0	8	2	27
FL8	Holding the floor	**8**	0	0	1	0	9
FL9	Asking for a word meaning/pronunciation	0	0	1	**4**	0	5
FL10	Confirming understanding	0	0	0	**3**	1	4
FL11	Negotiating a different agenda	0	**2**	0	0	0	2
FL12	Initiating self-repair using an Arabic discourse marker	0	0	**1**		0	1
FL13	Self-initiated repair teacher-completion	0	0	0	**1**	0	1
Total		39	3	2	12	6	62

A close examination of the distribution of the functions within the contexts as shown in Table 5.6 above reveals that overall, all the functions occurred most frequently in the form and accuracy context (39 times), followed by the text-based context (12 times). It is also interesting to find that some functions occurred only in these contexts and not in the others. For example, we find that initiating other-repair occurred only in a

[3] Owing to limitations of space, the abbreviation FL is used here to refer to the functions of L1 use by learners.

form and accuracy context. In the following sections, examples of frequent functions of L1 use by learners in these two contexts are presented. The analysis is not intended to cover all the functions but rather to support the argument presented in this chapter. Thus in the form and accuracy context, we examine functions FL1, FL2, and FL3 (Table 5.6). In the text-based context, we examine functions FL9, FL10 and FL13 (Table 5.6).

It is also noticeable that most of these functions are focused on repair. Although it might have been expected that repair would be tackled as a function in this chapter, in the following analysis it is treated for the most part as an organisation, as it is viewed in CA. The reason for this is to provide a deep description from a CA context-based perspective and hence to link the function to the pedagogic focus of the L2 classroom context in which it occurs. This in turn will help to support the argument presented in this chapter.

5.5.1 Functions peculiar to form and accuracy contexts

As shown in Table 5.6 above, in this research nearly all the occurrences of functions FL1, FL2, FL3 and FL8 were found in form and accuracy contexts. The first three functions (FL1, FL2 and FL3) are repair initiations with different trajectories. FL1 is repair initiation of what the teacher says. FL2 is initiating "a non-specific repair" (Drew 1997) using the Arabic **'ēh?'** {tr. what}. FL3 is initiating self-repair using the Arabic negative token **'lA'** {tr. no}. FL8 is related to turn-taking and concerns holding the floor.

With regard to the distribution of these functions, Table 5.6 shows that FL1 (7 times) and FL3 (5 times) occurred only in a form and accuracy context, and although FL2 and FL8 occurred in both form and accuracy and text-based contexts, they were found more often in a form and accuracy context (5 and 8 times) than in a text-based

context (2 and 1 times respectively). In the following sections we examine examples of some functions (mainly FL1 and FL3) in relation to the context in which they operate.

5.5.1.1 Initiating repair (FL1)

In this section, instances of FL1 (initiating repair) as used by learners are discussed. In the interaction presented in extract 5.14 below, LL are required to join two sentences using 'too' or 'either'. In their books, they are given two examples of the use of these two conjunctions. Before this extract, L1 and L12 have already read the examples[4] and T has also explained them. In this extract, T announces the first question to be answered (line 990). The learners bid for the floor, but T selects L2, who begins reading in line 995. T confirms her reply by saying 'yes' and then restating what is required to answer the question. This 'yes' is taken by L12 as a chance to answer the next question, so he uses Arabic to bid for the floor. However, it seems that T has not yet finished with the answer to the previous question, so he says 'please' as a management tool to stop this side sequence initiated by L12. T resumes stating his agenda 'we can join this sentence' and then repeats the first part of the sentence 'Ali is late'. Then he repeats the first sentence and moves to the BB to write the answer. In line 1000, L2 repeats the answer she gave previously in line 995. T repeats what L2 says about the sentence, adding 'and' between the two sentences:

'Ali is late and Amr is late too'.

[4] This is the example which LL read before extract 5.9
L1: Noha likes chicken (0.8) and Dina likes chicken too
T: yes yes
L: mister
L12: Sami doesn't like fish and (1.6) a: Nabila doesn't like fish a:
T: either

Extract 5.14

	990	T:	Yes (0.4) number one (0.5)
	991	L1:	Mister
	992	T:	Please
	993	L2:	Mister
	994	T:	Ali is late (0.2)
	995	L2:	Ali is late (0.2) Amr is late too↑(0.4)
	996	T:	↑Yes (0.4) we: (.) can (0.2) join (0.3)
	997	L12:	mister >**aqul**]**ana ya UstAz**<
			{tr. Shall I say (or answer)teacher?}
	998	T:	↑please we can join this ↑sentence (0.4)
	999		Ali is late (0.8)
	1000	L2:	Amr (0.2) is (.) late too (0.4)
	1001	T:	Ali is late (1.2)a:nd (0.3) Amr(1.4) is
	1002		late too (0.4)((T writes on BB))
→	1003	L2:	**bass a:** (0.5) [mister **mafi$** and]
			{tr. but a: (0.5) mister there is no and]}
	1004	T:	[is late (.) too] (0.5)
→	1005	L2:	mister (0.3) **bass mafi$** and (0.2)
		L3:	{tr. but there is no}
	1006	T:	please=
→	1007	LL:	=**mafi$** and (.) {tr. there is no}
	1008	L3:	**mafi$** and
	1009	T:	[No No we] can [use and]
	1010	L:	[mister↑ (.)] [**mafi$** and]
	1011		**mafi$** and
	1012	T:	>↑no ↑no no no<(0.2) yes (.) number two
	1013		(0.3)
	1014	L1:	°**mafi$** and°
	1015	T:	we can use and (.) we can ↑USE (0.2)and
	1016		(0.8)
	1017		[xxx]((T mentions L5's name))
	1018	L:	[mister] mister mister↑

In this extract, we have an interesting phenomenon, which we referred to in chapter four as learner initiation of repair. Here, L2 initiates a repair of what T says in line 1003. The trouble source is in T's use of 'and' in line 1001. The use of 'and' as a conjunction tool does not appear to have been in the learner's agenda, since she initiates repair in line 1003, the L1 being a suitable local resource which L2 can use to initiate the repair. It is noted how the learner designs this repair as a dispreferred action by mitigating it with **'bass'** {tr. but} followed by a long pause (0.5) and then saying the repair **'mafi$** and' {tr. no and}. As this repair is in overlap with T, L2 repeats it

in line 1005, but this time she begins it with 'mister' to solicit his attention, followed by a pause and then the same repair **'bass mafi$** and'. This is taken as a threat to the teacher's authority, revealed in his use of 'please' to manage the floor. What is interesting is how the other learners co-participate with L2, repeating the same repair in lines 1007, 1008, 1010, 1011 and 1014. However, T does not accept this repair, using the repeated negative token 'no' in lines 1009 and 1012. His non-acceptance of the repair also appears in his use of a rising tone (lines 1012 and 1015) in an attempt to close the sequence saying 'We can use and'.

The following extract (5.15) also shows another interesting interaction in which L5 uses mitigated repair, switching to the L1 to initiate repair. In this extract, T shifts to question number three in lines 397, 398 and 400. After eliciting the learners' comments on what the beginning of the answer might be (lines 400-404), T formulates the question; he asks the question in line 407 and then selects L5 to answer it. Rather than giving the answer, L5 interrupts the teacher's agenda by asking a confirmation question 'a::: He (.) he he has got?' which is confirmed by T in line 407. This confirmation check question is a pre-sequence to initiating repair in line 410. The learner packages her repair in a way to support her argument by using a certain word in a question form **'il-mafrouD ya** mister he's got?'. In order to mitigate her repair she first uses **'il-mfarouD'** {tr. it is supposed?}, then **'ya** mister'. This pre-sequence shows that L5 assumes that the correct pronunciation is 'he's got'. She also uses **'ya** mister' to downgrade her repair. Thus L5 changes her choice of language from English in confirming what she has heard (line 408), to Arabic to initiate repair of what T says (line 410).

Extract 5.15

	397	T:	what about number three? what has-
	398		**aqul** he got or he- she got?
	399	LL:	((hands up))
	400	T:	number three **bUSo kida**(0.3)**hanqul**
	401		[**ēh**?]
			{tr. look (0.3) we shall say what?}
	402	LL:	[she] got
	403	L1	He got
	404	LL:	he he=
	405	T:	=>he< because he's a boy
	406	LL:	((hands up))
	407	T:	ye↑s (.) Number three what has he got? (.)
→	408	L5:	a::: He (.) he he has got? (.)
	409	T:	↑yes
→	410	L5:	**il-mafrouD ya m**ister he's got?
			{tr. it is supposed?}
	411	T:	Okay (.) the same **iXtiSar di tenfacwi**
	412		**di tenfac** {tr. this is ok}
	413	L5:	(0.4) ((L5 looks at the book))
	414	T:	(xx)=
	415	L5	=He's got a::: ((L5 looks at the book))
	416		a packet of a cris a:-
	417	T:	of biscuits
	418	L5:	biscuits
	419	T:	((humourous side sequence in Arabic))

The above examples are of learners using the L1 to initiate repair of what the teacher has said. The two extracts (5.14 and 5.15) are taken from form and accuracy contexts in which the pedagogical focus is narrowly organised around producing precise linguistic forms. As soon as this focus is deviated from (from their point of view), the learners in both extracts initiate repair. In so doing, the learners are performing an interactional role that is usually performed by the teacher in such a tightly controlled context. Moreover, they use their L1 as an aspect of participating in and enacting the pedagogical agenda. Hence, this shows how the L1 is integrated into the interaction as a local resource to initiate repair in an L2 classroom, a context in which repair "tends to carry a heavier load than in other settings" (Seedhouse 2004, p. 34).

This unusual repair trajectory, to the best of my knowledge, is not mentioned in the L2 classroom discourse literature. This phenomenon is interesting for two reasons. Firstly, the data reveal that it only occurs in a form and accuracy context and hence it seems to be a context-specific repair trajectory. Secondly, from an interactional perspective, it helps learners enact interactional roles similar to those of the teacher, who is the one who usually initiates repair in this rigidly organised context, and to participate in the pedagogic agenda. The question now arises, why does this particular function occur only in a form and accuracy context and not in any of the other contexts? This can be explained in relation to the pedagogic focus of this context, which is, as its name suggests, the production of accurate linguistic forms. We know from Seedhouse (2004 p. 199) that "the overriding consideration of everyone involved in L2 classroom interaction is to follow the evolving relationship between pedagogy and interaction and to match the pedagogical focus to the patterns of interaction".

Thus, what has happened in the examples quoted above is that the learner/s have displayed his/her online emic analysis of the narrow pedagogic focus of the form and accuracy context not only by means of the usual method of producing the required targeted responses when asked to do so, but also unusually by evaluating the teacher's responses and initiating repair when this emic logic is violated. In other words, the teacher's utterance seems imprecise to the learners as it does not match the narrow pedagogic focus of the form and accuracy context. This is evident in the learners' successive repair initiations following L2 in extract 5.14. What L2 and the other learners do therefore is analyse the teacher's response as imprecise and then initiate repair as soon as a mismatch with the emic logic of a form and accuracy context occurs.

Comparing this repair trajectory in form and accuracy contexts to another single case (FL4; Table 5.6) in a text-based context will show us how each trajectory is related to the pedagogic focus of the context in which it operates. The following extract (5.16)

is taken from a secondary class, which is wholly organised around reading part of a novel called *Spider*. This interaction comes at the end of the lesson when the teacher is asking comprehension questions about what the learners have just read. In line 979, T asks a question 'who sent this email?' and then he selects L6 to answer the question. After L6 has replied to the question (line 982), T repeats the question with an embedded correction of the second name followed by a long pause (0.8). Meanwhile, L3 looks first at her novel then at T. With a loud negative token in Arabic, she initiates other-repair, **'lA**(.)↓**ya** ↓mist[er]' (line 985), followed by correcting the trouble source '↑$erief FaXary' (line 986). Thus L6's reply (line 982) and the teacher's turn (line 983) are both the trouble source. This prompts L3 to initiate other-repair and provide the correct answer in line 985. The teacher accepts the repair in the next turn by retracting his answer '[**LA]**↑a::(.) **mi$**[Wafaa ↑Sulta:n]' (lines 987 and 988) then repeating the correct answer (line 993). Interestingly, the other learners co-repair in subsequent lines (989, 990 and 991). T ends this repair sequence with an agreement token 'okay', then using an Arabic marker **'Tab'** {tr. ok} to indicate a shift to another question.

Extract 5.16

	979	T:	who sent this email? (0.2) **ha-**(0.3)
	980		**Mein? ya**(L5 name)
			{tr. go on (.) who?}
	981	L:	°xxx°.
	982	L6:	Wafaa Eid(0.3)
	983	T:	Wafaa(0.3)Sultan (8.0)
	984	L3:	((L2 looks at the story))
→	985		↑**lA**(.)↓**ya** ↓mist[er] (.){tr. no}
	986		↑$eriefFaXary
	987	T:	[**LA]**↑a::(.) **mi$**
			{tr. no:: not}
	988		[Wafaa ↑Sulta:n]
→	989	L3:	[>$eri:f (.)↑FaXry<]
→	990	LL:	$erif [FaXary [$erief]
→	991	L:	[$erif FaXary]
	992	T:	[$erief]FaXry (.)↑>okay<
	993		↓oka:y (0.4)↑**Tab** {tr. ok} who is Wafaa Sultan?

We can now see how the repair trajectory in each of the three extracts (5.14 - 5.16) above is related to the pedagogic focus of the context in which it occurs. The first two extracts (5.14 and 5.15) are taken from a form and accuracy context in which the pedagogical focus is narrowly organised around precise linguistic forms. Once a mismatch with this focus occurs, the learners in both extracts initiate other-repair. However, the pedagogic focus in a text-based context is on demonstrating familiarity with or understanding of the text. What triggers the repair in extract 5.11 is the fact that both the learner's reply and the teacher's feedback fail to demonstrate this familiarity. Hence, L3 conducts repair in order to maintain the focus on demonstrating familiarity with the text. Indeed, her attempt is successful as the teacher accepts her repair initiation.

It is thus clear that the high frequency of occurrence of this repair-initiation trajectory (FL1; Table 5.6) in a form and accuracy context compared with any of the other contexts reflects the emic logic of this context, in which repair plays an integral part. This repair trajectory is, then, context-specific. Consequently, this supports the argument presented in this chapter that some functions are peculiar to particular L2 classroom contexts and that they are appropriate to the pedagogic focus of those contexts.

5.5.1.2 Initiating self-repair using the Arabic negative token 'lA' (FL2)

The second most frequently occurring repair trajectory shown in Table 5.6 is initiating self-repair using the Arabic negative token **'lA'**. As shown in Table 5.6, in this research five cases of this repair trajectory were found, all of which occurred in a form and accuracy context. In this section, we examine one example of this repair trajectory (extract 5.17).

Before the interaction shown in the extract, L4 has produced an incorrect answer regarding the form of the present perfect tense. Now, in line 298, T initiates peer-repair (Seedhouse 2004), selecting L1 to conduct the repair in line 299: T **'L1 please 'qulilaha ya** L1' {tr. Please L1, tell her}. So, in line 300, L1 begins to correct her peer, but L6 overlaps with her. L6 interrupts, switching to Arabic to attract the teacher's attention, and expresses her wish to participate. So this side sequence interrupts the pedagogical agenda that L1 initiated in line 300. In line 304, T accedes in Arabic to L6's request. At the end of the same line, T indicates a shift back to the main agenda by using the Arabic continuer **'ha-'**, telling L1 to continue the main business, after a noticeable pause (0.3). In so doing, she indicates a shift back to the main pedagogical agenda after this unexpected side sequence. This shift also indicates a switch to the medium of instruction, which is English.

Extract 5.17

	297	LL	**[miss miss]**
	298	T:	**[Hatoulek]**(L1 name) (.) (L1 name) please
	299		**Qulilha ya**(L1 name) (.)
			{tr. L1 will tell you. Please L1, tell her)
	300	L1:	a: [have **aw** has] {tr. or}
	301	L6:	[°**HaDretik**](0.4) **mi$ Bet-buSy**
	302		**calia° Xales**
			{tr. your grace don't look at me at all}
	303		(0.3)
	304	T:	**Haqulik HaDer**(0.3) **ha-**(.)
			{tr. okay I will tell you. go on}
	305	L6:	[((hhhhh))]
→	306	L1:	[have] or has a plus **il**-verb plus a:
→	307		((pointing))(0.3) >↑**LA**< ((hand gesture))
			{tr. no}
	308		**il**-verb (0.2) a in:: the:: ((pointing))
	309	L3:	°**il**- past par[tciple]°
	310	T:	[↑p:ast]
	311	L1:	[past pa][rictpile]
	312	LL:	[participle]
	313	L1:	past participle
	314	T:	↑yes=
	315	L1:	=past participle
	316	T:	yes (0.2)thank you sit down(.) Have you
	317		listened (L4 name)?(.) Repeat what she said

L1 continues giving the answer which was interrupted by L6 in line 306. She continues her answer; then, after a pause of (0.3) she she initiates self-repair, switching to Arabic 'a: (0.3) >↑**lA**< {tr. no}((hand gesture))' in line 307. The rapidity with which L1 utters this negative token at a high volume, synchronised with a gesture with her index finger (signing 'no'), shows her noticing of her own error. This also indicates L1's effort to hold the floor until she can manage to produce the required linguistic form. Interestingly, L3 conducts repair and produces the remaining linguistic item. In overlap, L1 produces the same answer in line 311. T also conducts repair in overlap with both L1 and L3. T uses a DIU (Koshik 2002), hence the learners complete T's utterance in line 312. Then L1 repeats the answer in line 313. T follows on, accepting the answer in line 314.

In the example above the learner uses the negative Arabic token to initiate self-repair. This extract and the other identified cases occur only in a form and accuracy context, in which the pedagogical focus is narrowly organised around precise linguistic forms. This finding is different from that of Kasper (1986), who reports that "self-initiated self-repair is relatively rare in this context". This comment is cited in Seedhouse (1996 p. 216), who explains this trajectory as follows:

> As Kasper (1986b, p. 27) points out, self-initiated self-repair is relatively rare in this context. This is because it is the teacher who evaluates the accuracy of the learner's forms and who therefore predominantly initiates the repair. However, instances do occur, as in the following extract:
>
> L: er then Peter were mad *oh noeh ((tr:* oh no)) angry with James
>
> (Kasper 1986b, p. 28)

The extract mentioned in the quotation above is similar to extract 5.11 quoted above in that both learners use negative tokens from their L1. Hence, we can say that this repair trajectory is not relatively rare, but rather that it occurs infrequently in comparison to the teacher-initiated repair trajectories which are more common in this context.

Again, although this repair trajectory is not common it is still interesting to note that, according to the data obtained for this research, it occurs only in a form and accuracy context. This can be explained in relation to the narrow pedagogic focus of this context (this is similar to extract 5.17). What happens in extract 5.17 is that L1 displays an online emic analysis of her own production. Hence, the use of the negative token in this paralinguistic manner shows the teacher that she is aware of her own incorrect production. Interactionally speaking, this allocates her space by allowing her to hold the floor and hence have the opportunity to reproduce the correct item. This is shown by the fact that T does not interrupt to initiate/conduct repair after L1 has initiated self-repair in line 307. However, T initiates other-repair in line 310 after L3 produces the correct item (line 309).

Thus it can be said that this repair trajectory, as shown here, displays the learner's emic analysis of the narrow pedagogic focus of the form and accuracy context in terms of evaluating her own production before the teacher does. In other words, the use of this trajectory in the way shown above marks the learner's awareness of the fact that her production does not match the rigid pedagogic focus of the form and accuracy context. In a sense, this demonstrates the learner's self-awareness of both the narrow pedagogic focus on correct linguistic items as well as of the teacher's role in this context as a repair dominator.

In order to explain the relationship of this repair trajectory to the form and accuracy context, we shall examine another self-initiation repair trajectory (FL12; Table 5.6) similar to the one above, but different in its construction and context. Although this is an isolated case in the whole corpus, it is significant since it supports the argument presented in this chapter. This trajectory occurs in a content-based context in which the pedagogic focus is on understanding a topic. In the interaction in extract 5.18, T is revising the main points of the discussed topic ('assimilation') at the end of the lesson.

In line 1128, T asks a question and then L2 self-selects and provides an answer in next-turn. T initiates other-repair, as this is not the required answer. In line 1132, L2 displays her misunderstanding of this point. T explains the point using a DIU (lines 1135 and 1136). Instead of completing the teacher's utterance, L2 presents a different view (line 1137), which is not accepted by T in the next turn. Hence, in line 1139, L2 prefaces her turn with an Arabic self-repair **'aSdi'** {tr. I mean} followed by her reformulation of her view. In the rest of the interaction, T explains the problematic item, which is the word 'boundaries'.

Extract 5.18

	1125	T:	most of the assimilation occurs (0.2)
	1126		between word boundari[es]
	1127	L:	[**ah**]
	1128	T:	(0.2) word boundaries mean?
	1129	L2:	**il**-compound words **wi**{tr. the- and}
	1130	T:	**mi$**{tr. not}compound ((finger gesture signing no))
	1131	L:	the initial and the final
	1132	L2:	I cannot understand(0.2) what the meaning (0.2)
	1133		of word boundaries?
	1134		(0.4)
	1135	T:	word boundaries (0.3) that (.) girl(0.2)
	1136		that ends ↑with (0.3)
→	1137	L2:	okay(.) **mAahyy:** (.) compound **bardu** (0.3) {tr. but it is} {tr. also}
	1138	T:	**mi$** compound(1.6)
→	1139	L2:	**a: aSdi↑=**{tr. I mean}
	1140	T:	=**heh**((head nodding))
	1141	L2:	it consists of (0.2)two words(0.5)
	1142	T:	yESS ↑(0.7) the neib- (0.3) the order OF (.) words
	1143		we have two words for exa:mple (.)
	1144	L2:	Mmm
	1145	T:	word boundaries (.) **illi ihna benqul calieha ēh?** {tr. which we call it what?}
	1146		(.) **Hodoud il-kalimat** {tr. word boundaries}
	1147	L2:	(xxx)
	1148		(.)
	1149	T:	**Hodoud il-kelima fEn?** {tr. where are word boundaries?}
	1150		(0.8)
	1151	L2:	[a::]
	1152	T:	[the] last [sound of]
	1153	L7:	[the first]
	1154	T:	the last sound ↑of: the first a:nd
	1155	L7:	the initial sound
	1156	T:	the initial oF (0.3)

```
1157  L7:  the second
1158  L2:  the [second one]
1159  T:   [the second](.)this is called boundaries
1160  L2:  °x° ((nodding))
```

Our focus in this extract is on the use of the self-initiated self-repair trajectory using an Arabic discourse marker in line 1139. Here, the purpose of this trajectory is to clarify the meaning or the message. This is unlike the example shown in extract 5.17 above in which the learner uses the Arabic negative token to correct a linguistic item. Thus here, in both extracts (5.17 and 5.18) the L1 is used in different ways that match the pedagogic focus of the context in which it occurs. This means that the self-repair strategy in the form and accuracy context (extract 5.17) is intended to produce a precise linguistic form, whereas in the content-based context (extract 5.18) it is used to clarify the message and negotiate understanding of meaning or content rather than form. Thus, each repair strategy is appropriate to the pedagogic focus of the context in which it operates.

It is therefore evident that the occurrence of this repair trajectory (FL2) in a form and accuracy context and not in any of the other contexts reflects the emic logic of this context, in which teacher repair dominates and the repair is focused on producing precise linguistic forms. Once again, this finding supports the argument presented in this chapter that some functions are peculiar to a particular L2 context and that they are appropriate to the pedagogic focus of that context.

5.5.2 Functions pertinent to text-based contexts

As shown in Table 5.6, in the data obtained for this study, some functions were found that occurred only in text-based contexts. These functions are self-initiated repair teacher-completion (FL13; single case), confirming understanding (FL10; single case) and asking for an English word (FL9; 4 times)

5.5.2.1 Self-initiated repair teacher-completion (FL13)

In the interaction below, T asks a reading comprehension question in line 220. T selects L1 after she bids for the floor using Arabic. In line 225, L1 translates the question. It seems that her response is not aligned with T's pedagogic focus as he repeats part of the question in line 227. T then selects L3 after she bids for the floor. In line 236, L3 begins the answer. But it seems from the interaction that she is engaged in "a word search activity" (Goodwin and Goodwin 1986). This is apparent from the way she looks away from T and smiles in line 239. In the next turn after these non-verbal expressions, she switches to Arabic to complete the answer, followed by an attempt to hold the floor until she can remember the word **'illi huwwa::'** { tr. which is::}in line 241. T scaffolds her word search attempt by saying the Arabic agreement token **'aywa'** {tr. yes} and then provides her with the single word 'make' (line 243). L5 follows in English, completing the targeted answer. T repeats her answer, followed by a positive evaluation in Arabic then in English.

Extract 5.19

```
220  T:    Why didn't Aiman(.)want to tell anyone?
221        (0.6)
222  L1:   °aqul ana ya UstAz°(.) {tr. I say mister}
223  T:    (L1 name)
224        (0.7)
225  L1:   Lemaza lamm yurid Aiman ann uxbera AHad.
           {tr. why didn't Aiman want to tell anybody?}
           ((L1's answer is a translation of the question))
226        (0.8)
227  T:    why?
228        (1.0)
229  L1:   ((°kida Yacni)) ((L1 smiles))
           {tr. that's it?}
230        (0.4)
231  T:    mmm (.) sit doWN (.)
232        (2.2)
233  L3:   ((L3 raises her right hand))
234  T:    ((T mentions L3's name))
235        (1.0)
236  L3:   Because he:(.) Didn't (0.2) want (.)to:: (0.2)
237        ((L3 looks down at her book & looks at T,
```

```
238          opening her mouth as if speaking))
239         (1.4) (( L3 looks up/away from T then looks at T
240         and smiles...))
→ 241       a Yesebeb macahom ayy ma$akel (0.4) illi huwwa::
            {tr. to cause any problems with them (0.4) which
            is::}
242          (0.6)
243  T:     ↑aywa (.) ma:ke: (0.5)
244         {tr. yes}
245  L3:    make any problem >˚with [them]˚<=
246  T:                            [make] ↑any problem
247         (0.3) ah{tr. yea} okay(.)
```

What is interesting in this example is the strategic use of the L1 after non-verbal demonstrations of efforts to remember the word. We notice that the use of the L1 functions as an indirect repair initiator to uphold the pedagogic focus. In a sense this is similar to the next extract (5.20), in which the learner initiates direct repair and asks for help from T. But in extract 5.19 above the learner tries to hold the floor until she can remember the word she is searching for (the teacher provides her a candidate completion), whereas in extract 5.20 the learner has a problem with reading a word. Both cases are self-initiated teacher-repair but each is interactionally different. Also, in both extracts, the L1 functions as a resource to show familiarity with the text through two different sub-foci: reading the text and confirming comprehension of the text.

5.5.2.2 Asking for an English word (FL9)

In the interaction below L1 is reading from a novel called *Spider*. In lines 813 and 814, L1 reads some lines and then after a long pause of (1.3) she uses L1 to initiate other-repair by highlighting the trouble source and asking for the teacher's repair. This trouble source word puts her off continuing to read so she initiates repair.

Extract 5.20

```
813  L1:  be many years (0.3) before a safe anti-venom
814       could be produced(0.8) in large (1.3)
815       ˚ēh il-kelmah di ya UstAz?˚
          {tr. what is this word mister?}
816       (0.2)
817  T:   in ↑large (0.5) quanti[ties
```

818 [qua]nitites
819 L1: °Tariqa?°
820 T: ↑ quantities (.) **kemyyat** (0.2)**ca$an**
821 **yiTalcaou kemyy↑a:t** (0.4)
{tr. quantities so they get quantities}
822 L: Quantities

This "self-initiated other-repair" repair trajectory is also discussed by Seedhouse (1996 pp. 216-217), who reports similar cases in Kasper (1986) and van Lier (1988) in which learners use their L1 to initiate repair, but in a form and accuracy context. He explains this phenomenon as follows: "The learner gets as far as possible with the utterance, then highlights the trouble source which prevents him/her from continuing and asks the teacher to repair the trouble" (Seedhouse 1996, p. 217). Thus this phenomenon is similar to what we have in extract 5.20 above. The only difference is in the context in which it occurs. Whereas the reported cases occur in a form and accuracy context, the extract above is taken from a text-based context. Seedhouse (ibid. p. 217) provides the following functional analysis of the occurrence of this trajectory in a form and accuracy context: "The learner will initiate other-repair if he/she reaches a point at which he/she is no longer able to proceed or alternatively to verify that the forms produced are in fact those targeted".

By the same token, a functional analysis of the case shown in extract 5.20 above taken from a text-based context shows that the learner cannot continue reading the text and even after her efforts during the long pause she cannot proceed to display her familiarity with the text by reading it. Hence, she initiates other-repair. The data obtained for this research also contain other examples in this context of initiating other-repair when learners have difficulty in reading or understanding a specific word; these involve, for instance, looking at the teacher or saying the word in a high-pitched tone. What is common to all these examples, including extract 5.20 above, is that the teachers follow by reading the word in English, followed by an Arabic equivalent or an explanation in Arabic.

This finding is supported by the findings of previous research mentioned above. The cases mentioned in the literature are taken from form and accuracy contexts. Seedhouse's functional explanation indicates a relation to the context in which they occur. Thus, in previous studies it was found that learners in form and accuracy contexts were unable to proceed to produce "the targeted linguistic form", while in the text-based context examined in the current research, as extract 5.20 shows, the learner is unable to proceed to demonstrate familiarity by reading (the sub-focus here is on pronunciation) a particular word. Both trouble sources are related to the pedagogic focus of the context in which they occur. This is significant, as it shows how the same repair trajectory functions differently depending on the context in which it occurs.

5.5.2.3 Confirming understanding (FL10)

The interaction below is taken from the same class as extract 5.21 above. In line 786, L1 is reading. T produces a continuer `'yea'`. In line 790, L1 continues the reading but she is interrupted by L3 in line 791. L3 switches to Arabic to verbalise her understanding and check it. The turn is designed as a confirmation check question to which T responds in the subsequent turn, also using Arabic. T's reply is an extension of L3's understanding, supplying further clarification (lines 794 - 800). At the end of line 800, T checks her understanding and thus ends his explanation.

As the pedagogic focus of this context is on showing familiarity with or understanding of the reading text, L3 switches to Arabic to check her understanding of what she has read. In so doing, she is using her L1 as a local resource to accomplish the pedagogic focus of the L2 classroom context of this interaction. Also notable is her use of the discourse marker **`'Yacni'`** to gain access to the floor and put the interactional business on hold until her request is fulfilled.

Extract 5.21

	786	L1:	Extracting (0.2)a: the anti-venom (.)from
	787		the: (0.2) blood and making it safe to use=
	788	T:	=ye:a
	789		(0.6)
	790	L1:	it could be many yea[rs]
→	791	L3:	>[**Yac**]**ni**<**ya** mister a:: (0.3)((looks at the novel))
			{tr. Mister that is, this}
	792		used it **di illi huwwa ya Xlly il**: a:: (0.3) **il**
			{tr. used it which makes the: a:: (0.3) the}
	793		a: (0.8) **il-mASal da Amin ca$an yistaXdmoh**?
			{tr. a: (0.8) this anti-venom safe to use it?}
	794	T:	yes-**Habou** (0.5) **Yecmelou ēh?** (0.7)**wi yiDfu**
			{tr. they extract it (0.5) they do what?(0.7) and add}
	795		**calEh bacD il**:(**il-kaInat**)=
			{tr. some organisms}
	796	L:	**bacD**{tr. some}
	797	T:	**YeXluh** safe (0.2) to use **A:min le-istaXdam**
			{tr. they make it safe (0.2) to use safe to use}
	798		**Wi bacdain le-isteXdam** (0.3) **ah** (.)
			{tr. and then to use (0.3) yea}
	799		**ma-bi gdarou$ YeHeqnou bieh insAn (.) wi YecreDu**
			{tr. they cannot inject a human with it (.) and project}
	800		**Hayat insAn le il-↑XaTar (0.7) mA$i?**>˚**it-faDly**˚<
			{tr. put his life in danger (0.7) okay? <˚have a seat˚>}
	801	L1:	be many years before it can be produced

The above examination of the three individual cases contained in extracts 5.19-5.21, all of which are taken from text-based contexts, has shown that the interactions are all related to the sub-focus of this context: confirming familiarity with or understanding of the text (extract 5.21). Also, other-repair is initiated in order to get help when the learner cannot proceed to demonstrate familiarity with an aspect of the text, produce the correct pronunciation (extract 5.20) or find the right word (extract 5.19). Thus the three cases are significant in that they support the main argument presented in this chapter, which is that some functions are related to the specific context in which they occur and that they are appropriate to the pedagogic focus of that context.

5.6 Discussion

The aim of this chapter is to determine the relationship between functions of the L1 and L2 classroom contexts using a combination of CA and CL. To the best of my knowledge, this area has not so far been investigated in L2 classroom discourse research. The current research has shown that with the help of corpus analysis, it is possible to determine which functions occur in which contexts. Moreover, CL enables the researcher to obtain an overall picture of the L2 classroom context from the frequency of particular words and phrases in the wordlist. The CA context-based approach provides a different approach to examining the operation of the different functions in the context in which they occur. CA provides a benchmark which makes it possible to understand these functions in more depth and in a more systematic way. Thus the combination of the two methodologies (CA and CL) gives a more comprehensive understanding from which to interpret the data (this point is developed in chapter six).

The analysis above has shown that some functions are pertinent to a particular context and that they are appropriate to the context in which they occur. In other words, some of the functions only occur in certain contexts. For example, we have seen that the function of delivering procedural information is peculiar to the procedural context (section 5.4.1), while that of initiating peer-repair is peculiar to form and accuracy contexts (section 5.4.4). Three main issues arise from the previous analysis: the first concerns the question of when the switch to the L1 occurs; the second involves the diversity of L1 use in the L2 classroom discourse, and the third concerns language alternation as an aspect of classroom interactional competence. There now follows a discussion of these three issues.

5.6.1 When does the switch to the L1 occur?

A closer analysis of the interactions examined in this research reveals that the same function can perform different work in different pedagogical and interactional environments or micro contexts. We have seen that the same function can operate differently according to the micro context in which it occurs. For example, the function of giving an equivalent or a translation in the L1 can be used during reading (extract 5.6). It is also used when learners fail to demonstrate familiarity with the meaning of a word, in which case the teacher usually provides the Arabic equivalent in the next turn (extract 5.5), or when a learner initiates other-repair (extract 5.20). These two notable uses of L1 can be classified as foreground use of the L1 and background use of the L1. Foreground use of the L1 emerges on the fly when the interaction is put on hold owing to a lack of "mutual understanding" (Heritage 1984, p. 259), the absence of any verbal response, when the learner fails to match the pedagogic focus or when learners initiate other-repair (e.g., extracts 5.19 and 5.20). Background use of the L1, on the other hand, normally occurs within the flow of the interaction.

The following extract taken from a text-based context provides an example of these two different uses of the L1. We first notice the background use of the L1 in lines 500 and 502. T provides a translation in Arabic during his reading. The use of the L1 here is integrated into the flow of the interaction. However, in lines 510 and 512, we notice the foreground use of the L1. In this instance the L1 is used to deal with an absent or delayed response. T first uses the Arabic continuer **'ha-'** to reallocate the turn to LL (line 510). After a pause of (.) he initiates other-repair (line 512) to deal with LL's delay in giving a response. This repair is successful as LL provide the answer in the next turn (line 513).

Extract 5.6 (repeated)

	499	T:	"Look at the Swiss canal" (0.2)
→	500		**Inzouro illa** (0.5) **mabna quanta il-Swaiss**
			{tr. look at the Swiss canal building}
	501		"Swiss Canal building"
→	502		**Illi huwwa il-mabna il**-white building
			{tr. Which is the building the white building}
	503	L?:	(xxx)
	504	T:	**mA$i**? "It's very big" (.) It's very **ēh**?
	505		{tr. Okay} {tr. What}
	506	LL:	Big
	507	T:	what is the opposite of big?
	508		(0.5)
	509	L:	aa:
→	510	T:	**ha-** {tr. come on}
	511		(.)
→	512	T:	**Qulo**{tr. Say}
	513	LL:	small small small
	514	T:	small (.) okay thank you

5.6.2 The diversity of L1 use in L2 classroom discourse

If one function can work differently in the same macro context (e.g, extracts 5.5 and 5.6) or within different contexts (as will be shown shortly in extracts 5.23, 5.24 and 5.25), it follows that we cannot treat the functions of L1 use similarly within the lesson as a whole. Micro-analysis can be used to determine when and how the switch to the L1 occurs. Thus to determine only *why* the switch occurs may not be an adequate depiction of the diversity or complexity of the situation in which the L1 is used. It is therefore suggested that the system employed in this study (using a context-based approach combined with CL) might solve this problem. We observed in the previous sections (5.4 and 5.5) that a sequential analysis of the switch yields a more holistic view and locates the switch within the interactional sequence in which it occurs. This in turn shows the various ways in which the switch to the L1 occurs, which are interactionally unfolded using '*next-turn proof*'. That is to say, in addition to the coding of functions, next-turn proof provides subtle evidence of how the functions are related to the particular contexts (micro and macro) in which they are used. In the following paragraphs, two cases are

presented to support this point: the first is taken from the learners' corpus and the second from the teachers' corpus. The learners' case illustrates a methodological aspect involving coding, pedagogy and interaction, whereas the teachers' case shows the different work performed by the same function in different L2 classroom contexts.

The learners' case involving L1 use will first be examined in order to see how the use of CA can reveal a tension between pedagogy and interaction. The case below (extract 5.22) is categorised as dealing with a procedural problem (pedagogy) (coded as FL6 in Table 5.6). This only occurs in a form and accuracy context in the data obtained for this research.

The interaction below is part of a sequence in which L6 answers a question which L4 has just asked him: 'have you ever grown plants?' The second relevant pair to the question is the provision of an answer, which is the pedagogic focus of this micro context. However, instead of providing the answer, L6 switches to Arabic to confirm the required expected response. Hence, in line 868, he first asks **'agawib** (0.2) **bi** yes **aw** no?' {tr. Shall I answer with yes or no?}. Although T gives him the opportunity to answer (using a double confirming strategy, in English then in Arabic) in line 866, L6 initiates another question, making it more specific: **'agawib zayy ma fi il-kitab walla:**((L points at his heart))' {tr. Shall I answer as what is in the book or:}in line 867.

Extract 5.22

853	T:	again please raise your voice (0.2)
854		**[cali Souatak]**
		{tr. raise your voice}
855	L4:	[Have you] ever gr grown
856		(0.3) a: plants?
856	L6:	(1.8) ((looking at the book))
857	L4:	**Fouq fouq fouq** (.) ((L4 points at his book))
858		**Fouq Xales (0.5)**
		{tr. above above above}
859	T:	**Ana dil[waqti]**ask and answer questions
860		exercise four

			{tr. I am now}
	861	L6:	[xx]
	862	T:	(.) exercise four (0.6) ((T holds the book
	863		showing the exercise and pointing at it))
	864		**Hmm**
			(1.0)
→	865	L6:	**agawib** (0.2) **bi** yes **aw** no?
			{tr. Shall I answer with yes or no?}
	866	T:	as you like (0.3) **zayy mma teHeb**=
→	867	L6:	=**agawib zayy mma fi il-kitab walla:**((L6 points
	868		at his heart))
			{tr. Shall I answer as what is in the book or:}
	869	T:	**aywa**↑(0.2) b **braHatak inta** (.) **braHatak** (0.8)
			{tr. yes as you like}
	870		**[zayy] mateHeb** {tr. as you like}
	871	L6:	[Yes] I have (.) a Yes I have (.) grow (0.4)
	872	T:	grown=
	873	L6:	=plants=
	874	L4:	=grown (0.3)
	875	L6:	Yes (.) I have grown plants (0.3)
	876	T:	Thank you sit down

L6's question reflects two main things: first, the learner's orientation to match his answer to the teacher's expectations and hence to carry out his agenda precisely; second, the learner's understanding of the rare intrusion of personal meanings in this context, since they "do not normally enter into the picture" (Seedhouse 1996, p. 151). Hence he wants to know whether this is a display question or a referential question. This shows how keen L6 is to match the pedagogic focus by asking directly about what he is required to do. After getting the teacher's confirmation, L6 answers the question in line 875. T positively evaluates his contribution in the next turn.

This extract also illustrates what Seedhouse calls "***contextually ambiguous utterances***" (ibid. p. 301, emphasis in the original), as expressed in L6's effort to understand whether the question he is required to answer is a referential question, or a genuine question that requires actual experience of growing plants, or a display question which requires a specific form. It is clear that T does not care about the answer as much as he cares about the accuracy of whatever form is used. This is evident in his reply to L6 to answer using any form. It is also evident in his correction in line 872 of the

grammatical form of the verb ‘grow’. In line 875, L6 repeats the precise answer, correcting his linguistic mistake.

Thus the sequential analysis reveals that this function of L1 use (dealing with a procedural problem) is not related solely to pedagogy but also to interaction. In the coding of such functions, this would generally be coded simply under ‘dealing with a procedural problem’. Such functions are identified as either this or that. Nevertheless CA analysis shows that the interaction is not that simple. CA context-based analysis shows us that this case displays a tension between pedagogy and interaction. This tension can only be explicated when relating the function to the context in which it occurs.

The second case is taken from the functions of L1 use by teachers. As shown in Figure 5.5 below, in the data obtained for this research it was found that FT3, FT4 and FT5 occurred much more frequently in the form and accuracy, text-based and vocabulary-based contexts.

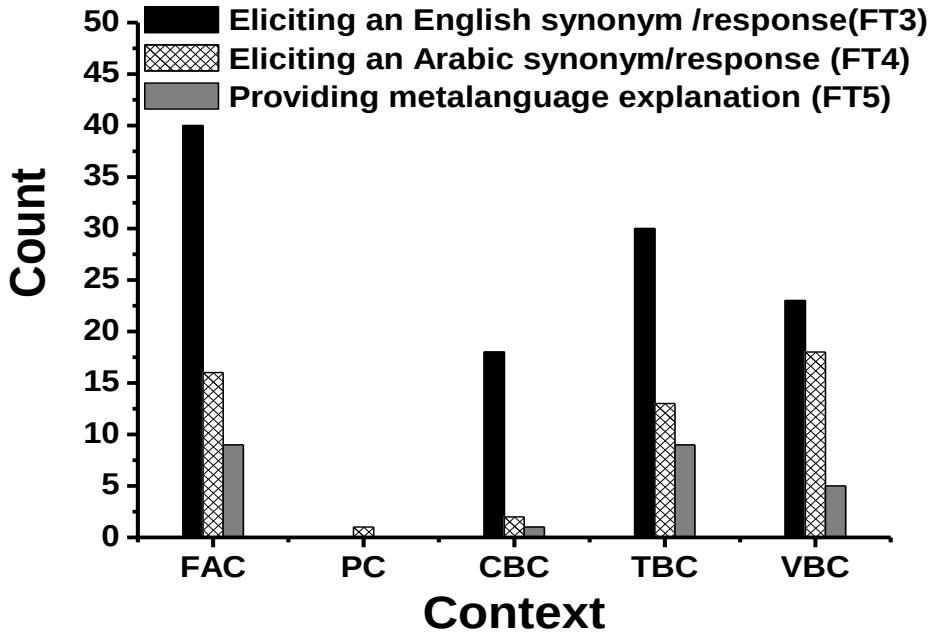

Figure 5.5 High frequency functions (FT3, FT4 and FT5) in form and accuracy, text-based and vocabulary-based contexts

Sequential analysis shows that these three functions do different work within these different contexts and that they also produce variant responses that are appropriate to the context in which the functions are used. In other words, the same function can work differently in a different context. In support of this claim, some examples of FT4 are examined below. In using FT4 (eliciting an Arabic equivalent/response), it may be seen that the learners' responses as well as the teacher's prompt are related to the context in which FT4 occurs. Thus in a form and accuracy context, all 16 occurrences of FT4 are designed to elicit a grammatical explanation or rule. This is linked to the nature of this context, which focuses on form and accuracy.

In extracts 5.23-5.27 below, this function (FT4) is used in three different contexts: form and accuracy, text-based and vocabulary-based. In extract 5.23, T uses this function to elicit a grammatical explanation (line 24).

Extract 5.23

	23	T:	please stand up (0.2)
→	24		**lEh hina il**-S **mi$ mawgudah**?
			{tr. Why is there no S here?}
	25		(0.3)
	26	L4:	**ca$an** does ((L4 points at BB)) **fIha** S
			{tr. Because there is an S in does}
	27	T:	**Aywa zaman ya habiaby wi into**
			{tr. Yes a time ago my darlings when you were}
	28		**SouGhareen kanu yiquloulk** does **di**
			{tr. young they told you this does}
	29		**il-**S **illi hina kalitha il-baTa**
			{tr. the S which was here, the duck ate it}
	30		yes thank you sit down
	31		((T moves to BB))

In extract 5.24, another teacher uses FT4 to elicit a grammatical form before the learner answers the main question, which involves changing a sentence (line 1260) into the passive voice. We see that T first uses Arabic to elicit a response in English (FT3). Then in line 1273, he switches again to Arabic but this time to elicit a response in Arabic. The

expected response is a grammatical rule. Hence, T gradually uses the L1 to scaffold learning and enable the learners to answer the main question. This is evident in line 1279 where L switches directly to the L2 to answer the main question without T's selection. T confirms his answer by moving to write it on the BB as well as by using **'Yea'** in Arabic. Thus in both extracts (5.23 and 5.24) the teacher's prompt and learners' responses are in tune with the pedagogic focus of a form and accuracy context.

Extract 5.24

	1260	T:	we (.)hear (0.3) music every day(0.3)
	1261		where is the object?(0.2)
	1262		**Fein il-mafcul hina?(**0.5)
	1263	L?:	°music°
	1264		(.)
	1265	L2:	music↑
	1266	L1:	Music
	1267	T:	we: (.) ca:n(.)begin the sentence(0.4)
	1268		with [music]
	1269	L2:	[music↑]
	1270		(0.4)
	1271	T:	music is an (.) count
	1272		is (.) a::n (0.4)↑uncountable noun (0.2)
→	1273		**Isem mma betecadi$** (1.0)**Youba hayyaXoud**
			{tr. uncountable noun(1.0) so it will take}
	1274		**Yetcamil moucamelt ēh?**(.)
	1275		((hand gesture for one))
→	1276	L2:	**mo[ufrad]**{tr. singular}
	1277	T:	[**il-moufrad**]{tr. the singular}
→	1278	LL:	[**moufrad]**{tr. singular}
	1279	L:	Is
	1280	T:	**Youba** is (.) **ahh**((T begins writing on BB))
			{tr. so is (.) yea}

However, in a text-based context, FT4 is used to elicit different responses from those shown above. Thus it can be used to elicit an Arabic equivalent (extract 5.25) or to elicit responses related to understanding a text (extract 5.26). That is to say, the use of this function here matches the pedagogic sub-focus in a text-based context. For example, in extract 5.25 below, we see that T uses this function to elicit the meaning of the word 'breathe'. The use of the L1 here is a foreground use, as L1 delays in giving a

response. In line 194, T reads part of the text and then stops to ask L1 about the meaning of 'breathe'. In line 197, L1 looks at her book. This lasts for (1.7). Hence, in line 199, T gives a prompt in both Arabic and English to explain the word 'breathe'. In line 205, L1 manages to display her knowledge of this word. This is clear as T repeats the Arabic equivalent she has given (end of line 206), thus confirming her answer.

Extract 5.25

194	T:	"I couldn't brea↑::the" (0.2) what does it mean
195		breathe(.) **Xadnaha fei:n**? (.) **fi-il↑qeSa**
196		(.) chapter two:
		{tr. where did we take it? In the novel}
197	L1:	(1.7) ((L1 looks at her book))
198	T:	brea:the (.) **il-ba il-$ibak** ((T points at the window))
		{tr. the doo the window}
199		**il-bab maqfoul wi** miss (T name)
		{tr. the door was closed and miss}
200		(0.2) ((sighing and miming))
201		**Wa aqulouko** {tr. and I tell you}
202		I couldn't breathe
203		please open [the win]dow
204	L:	[miss miss]
205	L1:	[**Yatanafas**] {tr. breathe}
206	T:	=↓ye::ss (.) thank you sit down **Yatanafas**
207		"I could not breathe and I fainted"

In extract 5.26, T uses this function (FT4) to elicit responses related to a text. It should be noted that the learners in this extract are third-year primary pupils whereas the learners in extract 5.25 above are third-year preparatory (middle school) level learners. What is also notable here, although it does not come within the scope of this research, is that T gradually and skilfully decreases the use of L1 (using Arabic to elicit responses). Thus, T uses the L1 to give a prompt in line 385. Then in lines 388 and 395 he gives the prompt in English and uses Arabic to confirm the learners' responses (FT8) in lines 387, 393 and 400.

Extract 5.26

	380	T:	question number one (.) first one (0.2) is
	381		↑Done for you a bunch of bananas
	382		**Humma camelinha (.) Yibqa di** number one (.)
			{tr. they answered it(.) so this is}
	383		number two (.) a glass of milk
	384	T:	number two (0.) a glass of milk (0.5)
→	385		**Youba hanHout** number two **fein**? (0.2)
			{tr. so where shall we put number two?}
→	386	LL:	**Cand kobayet i-llaban**
→	387	T:	**Kobayet l laban** thank you
	388	T:	number (.) three: a cup (0.4) of ↑tea:
	389		(0.2)
	390	L10:	mister mister
	391	T:	**Xalas** okay (.)**ha-**
	392	L10:	**Fingan $ai**
	393	T:	**Fingan $ai** bravo clap your hands for her.
	394	LL:	((applause))
	395	T:	yes what about number four (0.2)
	396		Yes (.) a bottle of water
	397	L13:	mister mister
	398	T:	Yes
	399	L13:	**Cand zugaget il-mAa**
	400	T:	**Cand zugaget il-mAa** (0.)
	401		clap your hands for her

In a vocabulary-based context, FT4 is used to elicit an Arabic equivalent for an English word, as shown in extract 5.27 below. In the previous extracts (5.23-5.26), the words were in a text, but in a vocabulary-based context the words are introduced as a list. In extract 5.27 below, T uses L1 to elicit the Arabic equivalents for a bottle of water and a bottle of oil (the words are written on the BB). T elicits the meaning of these new words in lines 183, 185 and 187. LL follow on displaying their knowledge of these words in lines 184, 187 and 189. Thus both the teacher's prompt in L1 and the learners' subsequent responses are related to the vocabulary-based context. This means that the use of FT4 here is designed to display knowledge of these new words which is the pedagogic sub-focus of this context. Thus the use of this function is appropriate to the vocabulary-based context in which it occurs.

Extract 5.27

→	183	T:	**Tayyib** (.) a bottle of wat:er **Touba zugaget ēh**?
			{tr. okay} {tr. is a bottle of what}
	184	LL:	**zugagah min il-maaA**
			{tr. a bottle of water}
→	185	T	**maA** (0.2) a bottle of oil **il-:: carfeen**
			{tr. water} {tr. the:: you know}
	186		[**il**-oil] {tr. the}
	187	LL	[**il-zayyt]zayyt zugagit zayyt**
			{tr. the oil oil a bottle of oil}
→	188	T:	yes **zugaget ēh**? (.) [**zayyt**]
			{tr. a bottle of what? oil}
	189	L:	[**zayyt**]
			{tr. oil}
	190	T:	okay thank you sit down

5.6.3 Managing language alternation as an aspect of CIC

Throughout the analysis, we have seen many examples of learners managing to gain the floor and contribute to the ongoing pedagogic focus (see section 5.5). They do so in whole classroom teaching where the teacher dominates and directs the interaction in many ways. What is interesting is that they manage the use of the L1 in a way that matches the pedagogic focus of the context in which they use it. Thus we found different types of repair-initiation that only occur in certain contexts (extracts 5.15, 5.17 and 5.22). Indeed, this supports the argument presented in this chapter that some of the functions occur only in particular contexts. It also highlights an aspect that is not usually mentioned by researchers when discussing "classroom interactional competence" (Walsh 2006). In addition to the cases analysed above, here we shall also examine one use of the L1 in "initiating non-specific repair" (Drew 1997), in order to show how learners manage the use of the L1 as an interactional resource. The reason for selecting this function in particular is twofold: firstly, it occurs frequently (7 times, as shown in Table 5.6) in the data at various educational levels, which suggests that there are various ways in which this repair trajectory can be used. Secondly, Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2003) report only one instance of this trajectory being used in their data,

although the learners were allowed to use the L1. They explain the rarity of this trajectory in terms of the roles of students and teacher in relation to using certain repair strategies. Thus although the teacher in their data used non-specific repair mechanisms, the learners only used one once. Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain add that this repair trajectory is face-threatening, which may be why their learners did not use it.

In the interaction below, L1 uses a non-specific repair (Drew 1997), as it seems she has not heard the teacher's question. In line 804, T selects L6 to answer question number three and then she reads the question in lines 806 and 807. She stops reading to ask L1 about the meaning of 'leave'. In line 810, L1 uses the Arabic marker **'ēh**?' to initiate unspecific repair. Hence, T repeats the question in the next turn. In lines 812 and 816, L1 tries to give an Arabic equivalent for the word 'leave', but her attempt is unsuccessful. T uses the bold negative token 'no' as an evaluation slot in the IRF cycle.

Extract 5.28

	804	T:	number three **wi hatgawebha**(L6 name)
	805		{tr. and L6 will answer it}
	806		(0.2) what job you think you
	807		will do when you leave school?
	808		what does it mean (L1) leave?
	809		(0.3)
→	810	L1:	**ēh**?{tr. What?}
	811	T:	lea:ve what does [it mean]?
	812	L1:	[**YacI$**] {tr. live}
	813	L4:	miss=
	814	T:	=↑NO:=
	815	L4:	=miss=
	816	L1:	=leave [**YouHib**]{tr. love}
	817	L:	[miss]
	818	LL:	↑miss ↑miss ↑miss

In extract 5.28 above, the learner uses this repair trajectory as a result of mishearing. However, in extract 5.29 below, we see that this trajectory may also be used as a result of a misunderstanding. The difference between these two cases is evident in

the fact that in extract 5.28 above, the teacher simply repeats his question after the learner's interjection, whereas in extract 5.29 below, the teacher's reaction to the same repair trajectory is different. In the interaction below, T first thanks a student who has answered a question. L1 self-selects at a TRP overlapping with T after a pause (0.2) in order to bid for the floor, saying **'aqul illi bacdiha'** {tr. I say the next one}. Here, L1 has switched to Arabic. However, in line 3 T orders L1 to sit down, as he was raising his hand and standing up. In line 4, more learners bid for the floor and stand up. Then L1 bids for the floor again in overlap with T. This behaviour is not accepted by T, as reflected in his facial expression and his repeated request to the learners to sit down in line 6. Moreover, he tells them what they need to do in order to bid for the floor: 'just raise your hand I see you'. This sentence engenders unspecific repair by L1 in line 11. In this utterance L1 also uses the Arabic word **'ēh?'**, which suggests that he has misunderstood what T has said. T follows in Arabic using an idiomatic expression which shows that it is improper to use **'ēh?'** (line 13). This produces laughter among the class. T does not repeat what he has said as in extract 5.25 above. L2 then self-selects himself to translate what is problematic to L1 into Arabic: **'nazel eidak ani $aifak'** {tr. put your hand down I can see you} in line 16. T then carries on with his agenda and reads the subsequent question in line 18.

Extract 5.29

	1	T:	thanks [(0.2) [thanks a lot]
	2	L1:	[>**aqul** [**illi bacdeha**]
			{tr. I say the next one}
	3	T:	sit [down] [sit (.)down]
	4	LL:	[↑mister][↑mister ↑mister]
	5	L1:	[mister]
	6	T:	[↑sit] (.) down (1.0) ((facial expression
	7		of being upset))
	8		please (0.2) no say mister (1.1) just
	9		raise your hand I see you
	10		(0.3)
→	11	L1:	**ēh**? {tr. What?}
	12		(0.6)

13 T: ↑**gak**>↑**huwwa**< ((smiling))
{tr. it indicates that L1's response is inappropriate}
14 (0.5)
15 LL: Hahaha
16 L2: **Nazil Eidak ani $aifak**
{tr. put your hand down I can see you}
17 (1.0)
18 T: he hasn't bought a car.....

Two interesting points appear in this extract: first, it illustrates how EFL learners use 'the L1 as a resource' (Cook 2001) to support their participation in classroom interaction. L1 first uses Arabic to bid for the floor; then, when T says something he does not understand, he again uses non-specific repair in Arabic in an attempt to clarify the point he has misunderstood. Thus, in order to maintain mutual understanding, and hence his ability to fit in with the pedagogic focus, rather than simply letting the misunderstanding go, L1 initiates non-specific repair. He does this using his preferred language, which is Arabic, as the medium of interaction, rather than English, the medium of instruction (Bonacina and Gafaranga 2010). L1's non-specific repair, however, is apparently not favoured by the teacher. The teacher indicates this using an Arabic idiom to express his meaning figuratively in line 13. Thus the choice of Arabic fulfils a pragmatic function as well as shifting the interaction to a different frame or footing (Goffman 1981), which is expressing a shared social identity in order to maintain discipline in the L2 classroom.

Both extracts 5.28 and 5.29 are taken from preparatory classes, while the interaction below (extract 5.30) is taken from a secondary class. Rather than using a freestanding **'ēh**?', the learners in this extract use this marker preceded by a polite English request 'excuse me (.)**ēh**?' (line 1063) or a specific repair 'who **ēh**?' (line 1065). In both cases the intensity of **'ēh**?' is lessened by what precedes it and hence it becomes less threatening. What is also noticeable is that in both extract 5.28 and extract 5.30, the teachers follow in English to deal with a pedagogic procedural

trouble that puts the interactional business on hold until mutual understanding is restored. In extract 5.29, however, the teacher follows in Arabic in order to express a shared social identity, since the trouble source involved maintaining discipline in the classroom. What is common though among the three extracts (5.28, 29, 30) is the use of the L1 as a resource to repair breakdowns in communication and mutual misunderstanding. Thus the L1 is integrated into the system as a repair initiator to help achieve the evolving pedagogic focus.

Extract 5.30

	1058	T:	**HasAl cedat asAala(.) ca$an into il-garas**
	1059		**hayren** (0.7) **il-souAl al-awwal**
			{tr. I will ask many questions as the bell
			will ring (0.7) the first question}
	1060		(0.2) who: (.) **ikteby fouqaha** (0.8)↓**ikteby**(.)
			{tr. write above it (0.8) write↓}
	1061		((Writing gesture)) who wrote this email?
	1062		(0.6) who sent it?(0.5)
→	1063	L3:	excuse me (.)**ēh**? {tr. what?}
	1064		(0.2)
→	1065	L2:	who **ēh**? {tr. who what?}
	1066		(.)
	1067	T:	who sent this email? (0.2)
	1068		**ha-**(0.3) **mein ya**(L name?)
			{tr. go on (.) who}

The use of this repair trajectory as an example of learner-initiated use of the L1 therefore shows how learners manage language alternation ‘as a means of interaction’ (Bonacina and Gafaranga 2010). It can also be explained in terms of ‘language socialisation’ (Rampton 1995). The data also show how the learners manage the use of the L1 as an aspect of participation in the pedagogic agenda (see section 5.5 for more examples). Hence, it is recommended that this aspect be integrated as a manifestation of learners “classroom interactional competence” (Walsh 2006).

5.7 Summary of the chapter

In this chapter the functions of L1 use by both teachers and learners have been identified. An attempt has been made to demonstrate the relationship between these functions and the different L2 classroom contexts. This has been accomplished through a combination of CA and CL. It is proposed that a context-based approach to the functions of the L1 may be more revealing than a mere description of the functions within the lesson as a whole.

An analysis of some of the functions of L1 use within the five different contexts (procedural context, form and accuracy context, vocabulary-based context, text-based context and content-based context) identified in chapter four has also been presented in this chapter. This analysis has shown that some functions are pertinent to a specific context and that those functions are appropriate to the pedagogical focus of the context in which they operate. The discussion has also shown how a context-based approach is effective in elucidating the different behaviour or different work performed by the functions at the pedagogic and interactional levels. It has also revealed when the switch to the L1 occurs, identifying two main uses of the L1: background and foreground use. It has also been shown that the ways in which learners manage the use of the L1 in L2 classroom discourse may be considered as an aspect of classroom interactional competence.

CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

6.1 Answers to the research questions

In this study two research questions were posed; the answers to each of these will be summarised in this section. The first question was, "**What is the overall interactional organisation of the data? and how are the L1 and L2 used within that organisation**?" Since the aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between the use of the L1 and the different L2 classroom contexts, this question was developed first in order to assist in understanding the overall interactional organisation of the data, and secondly in identifying the L2 classroom contexts that are common within this organisation, using Seedhouse's (2004) concept of L2 classroom context. As shown in chapter four, it was found that the L1 and L2 are used differently in each context depending on how each context is organised and on the logic of the particular context. Five main contexts were identified: a form and accuracy context, a procedural context, a text-based context, a vocabulary-based context and a content-based context.

The second research question was, "**What is the relationship between the functions of L1 use and the different L2 classroom contexts**?" This question was answered by using an adapted version of Ferguson's (2003) system of categorisation, CL and CA. As shown in chapter five, it was found that at the macro context level some functions are pertinent to a specific context and that those functions are appropriate to the pedagogical focus of the context in which they operate. Moreover, some other functions behave differently in different contexts. At the micro-interactional level, two distinct uses of the L1 were identified: background and foreground use. In addition, the data reveal how the learners manage the use of the L1 as an interactional resource in a way appropriate to the pedagogic focus of the context in which the L1 is used.

These findings have not been referred to in previous studies, and indeed offer new ways to consider the use of the L1 in L2 classroom interaction. In the next section, these findings are positioned within the literature on L1 use, language use and learning.

6.2 Relating the findings to the existing literature

In this section the above findings are set against a broader picture. This study used a combination of CL and a CA context-based approach to investigate the functions of L1 use within the different L2 classroom contexts. The findings mentioned above add to the existing body of knowledge in terms of relating the functions of L1 use to the L2 contexts in which it is operating, rather than identifying them within the lesson as a whole and ignoring the different L2 classroom contexts that occur within the lesson. In so doing this research fills a research gap identified as follows by Macaro (2009 p. 48): "Observation studies which have described the function to which first language use is put, or have measured the amount of target language used, *have failed to control for the type of learning environment that the teacher was trying to create*" (emphasis added). Thus this study has identified the learning environment by first using CA and CL to locate the functions and then relating these functions to the L2 classroom contexts (learning environment) in which the teachers and learners were operating.

From a CA point of view, the relationship identified in the current research supports Seedhouse's (2004) finding that a reflexive relationship exists between pedagogy and interaction in L2 classroom discourse. This study extends this finding by showing also how the L1 is related to the interactional organisation of L2 discourse. We have seen that some functions are peculiar to specific contexts. In a sense this also shows that there is '*order at all points*' in L2 classroom interaction (see chapter 5, sections 5.4.1 and 5.4.4). This finding supports Üstünel and Seedhouse's (2005 p. 322)

suggestion that "as with conversation, there is also order at all points in relation to code-switching in L2 classroom interaction".

Relating the findings to DA studies on the use of the L1, the functions used by teachers as identified in this study are similar to those found in previous studies such as that of Üstünel (2004) (i.e., dealing with a delay in giving a response); Uys and van Dulm (2011), which also identified social functions (e.g., humour) and Lin (1996) and Martin (1999), who identified similar functions found in a text-based context related to "unpacking meaning" and demarcating reading the text from commenting on it.

The findings of the current study also confirm the findings of studies such as that of Dailey-O'Cain and Liebscher (2006, 2009) regarding L1 use by learners. In addition, in this research new functions were identified (e.g., learner-initiated repair of teacher's utterance (extracts 5.14 and 5.15), initiating self-repair using the L1 negative token (extract 5.17), as well as initiating a non-specific repair (extract 5.28 and 5.29).

With regard to its theoretical contribution, this study has suggested two terms to describe the use of the L1: background and foreground use. While the former can be seen as integrated within discourse, the latter refers to the strategic ways of using the L1 by both teachers and learners in responding to emerging interactional needs (e.g., solving a misunderstanding (extract 5.29), dealing with a delay in giving a response (extract 5.6). This finding expands on the results obtained by Raschka et al. (2009) and Üstünel (2004).

From the perspective of language use and learning, the data obtained for this research support the findings of previous studies which have shown that the use of CS by both teachers and learners "can support learning through scaffolding or promotion of intersubjectvity" (Dailey-O'Cain and Liebscher 2009, p. 141). The data reveal many

instances in which the teachers provide learning opportunities by using the L1 as a scaffold. For example, when the learners fail to produce the required responses or delay in giving a response, it was found that the teacher resorts to the L1 to provide scaffolding (e.g., extract 4.4), which is followed by a response in English. In other cases, it was found that the learners themselves use "self scaffolding" (Behrend et al. 1992 cited in Dailey-O'Cain and Liebscher 2009) to ask for a clarification (extract 5.13) or word (extract 5.20) or to confirm understanding of a text (extract 5.21).

Thus in the light of these findings, it is proposed that language alternation which is managed in a way that promotes language learning through scaffolding or the promotion of intersubjectivity forms an integral part of classroom interactional competence (Walsh 2006).

6.3 Reflections on the methodology (CA and CL)

The methodological contribution of this study lies in the fact that it combines CA and CL to study the use of the L1 in L2 classroom contexts. In chapter five, we demonstrated that the two methodologies can be used together in a complementary fashion that exploits the potential of each. In pragmatic terms, CL facilitated the managing of the data in various ways: by collecting the corpus in one place and exploring the data holistically; by highlighting the frequently used words and then exploring those words in their concordance lines and determining the consistency of their use among the different texts. In particular, CL was very useful in making it possible to locate the functions within the different L2 contexts as well as characterising some contexts by the frequently used words in those contexts. Evidence for this was given in section 5.4.1, showing how the frequently used words in the procedural context served to characterise that context. The CA analysis complemented the CL findings by

unfolding the interaction and revealing the emic perspective displayed by the participants and the ways in which language choice is co-managed locally.

However, it was also found that, while some of the functions were significant by virtue of their high frequency from a CL point of view (see Tables 5.1 and 5.6), other functions (e.g., FT6 and FT20), which according to the CL analysis either had a low frequency or were single cases, were significant from a CA perspective. For example, Schegloff (1968) shows how one single (deviant) case reveals the organisation of opening in telephone conversations (for analyses of single cases, see also Waring 2009; Schegloff 1987, 1988). In a similar vein, in this research those single or less frequent functions (FT20, FL10, FL12 and FL13) were identified as significant in terms of their relationship to the context in which they operate.

It follows then that one of the advantages of using CA is that it reveals the interactional particularities of each case as significant. For instance, the single case in extract 5.22 is listed in the functions of L1 use by learners (Table 5.6) as dealing with a procedural problem (pedagogy). However, CA context-based analysis shows us that, interestingly, this case displays a tension between pedagogy and interaction. In coding, functions are identified as either one thing or another. However, CA analysis shows that the interaction is not that simple. This tension, then, can only be explicated when relating the function to the context in which it occurs. The point I am making here is that CA has the potential for revealing deeper layers of meaning which go far beyond coding and hence beyond the scope of CL.

It is therefore evident that the application of either CL or CA alone has limitations. The use of CL makes it possible to locate each function in particular contexts. Consequently, had I used CL alone, I could have identified the relationship between functions and L2 context in terms of frequency but could not have understood

the context in which the functions were operating. On the other hand, CA provides thick descriptions relating each function to the interactional organisation of its particular context and thus unravels the relationship in terms of interaction and pedagogy. Had I used CA alone, however, I could only have depicted the relationship between interaction and pedagogy on the one hand and language choice on the other, and could not have located the functions within the various contexts. Therefore, in this research CA compensated for the limitations of CL and vice versa, resulting in an enhanced understanding of the data at the micro and macro levels.

The combination thus proved to be successful as it provided a better interpretation of the data by revealing the relationship of the identified functions of L1 use and the different L2 classroom contexts in which they occur at the macro and micro levels. Here lies the methodological contribution of the present study, which has provided a deeper understanding of the use of the L1 in L2 classroom discourse. The discussion regarding the use of the L1 in the L2 classroom is not new (see chapter 2, section 2.1) but this novel methodological combination offers new perspectives for understanding both this phenomenon and L2 discourse in general. In sum, it presents 'old wine in new bottles'.

6.4 Pedagogical implications

It was not originally intended that the findings of this research would be of direct benefit to pedagogy. This is because, as Seedhouse (1996 p. 358) puts it, "Combining CA methodology (which is not a methodology of language teaching) with the examination of transcripts of the interaction means that we have an estrangement or alienation device which distances us from what is going on in the classroom sufficiently to be able to focus on the interaction rather than the pedagogy". However, on the basis of the findings presented in this thesis, the following implications can be useful for

teacher education, pedagogy language policy and, potentially for curriculum and teaching materials.

This thesis has sought to contribute to the ongoing discussions concerning the role of the L1 in the L2 classroom, particularly in settings where both the teacher and the learners share the same L1. It has been shown how L1 use can be managed as an interactional resource. On the one hand, the data show how teachers use the L1 to achieve different pedagogic foci in ways appropriate to the context in which it is being used. On the other hand, we have also seen how learners manage the use of the L1 to achieve pedagogical foci that are appropriate to the context in which they are used. In both cases, this implies a systematic way of using the L1: by using it specifically to suit the different L2 contexts.

Thus, in one way the findings illustrate the complexity and diversity of the phenomenon of CS in the L2 classroom. This in turn has implications for teacher training, for both novice and in-service teachers. The data analysed in this study could provide a rich resource for designing activities that would raise teachers' awareness of their language choice in relation to the different L2 classroom contexts that can occur within their lessons. Thus the basic aim of such activities would be to make teachers aware of the ample pedagogic foci they might aspire to achieve and to relate their language choice to a particular focus. In a sense, this provides a benchmark for evaluating their use of the L1. The transcripts analysed in this thesis could thus be used as a stimulus for such awareness-raising activities - particularly those which demonstrate the use of the L1 as an interactional resource to maintain 'mutual understanding' and to scaffold L2 learning.

The true benefit of such activities lies in showing teachers good practices of using the L1 as an interactional resource, rather than leaving them feeling guilty about using

it. As Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain (2009 p. 183) put it, "sweeping this complex topic under the carpet, so to speak, can lead to teacher and student guilt and anxiety". Such awareness-raising activities could therefore offer a way of discussing the role of the L1 explicitly in a calm and practical atmosphere.

In a similar vein, these activities could also be used to raise the awareness of the learners. They could form the basis for reflective stimulated recall sessions, in which a group of learners watch particular extracts (e.g., extract 5.17) to identify the interactional problem(s) that occur and see how a learner in such a situation uses the L1 to solve the problem(s): e.g., using L1 to 'self-scaffold' his/her learning of a new concept. This is beneficial in terms of helping to manage CS as an interactional resource and in particular as a component of 'classroom interactional competence' (Walsh 2006).

In order for such awareness-raising activities to be successful, it would be necessary to acquaint teachers and possibly learners with the terminology of L2 discourse so that they can use it to reflect on their practices. For this purpose, Walsh's SETT (2006) - with some adaptation to integrate the use of the L1- could be used to help teachers in their reflection.

In addition, showing the complexity of the CS phenomenon, as well as how it relates to the L2 classroom discourse, has implications for language policy makers and curriculum designers, indicating that L1 use cannot actually be banned even with strict policies. In the Egyptian context, in particular, the issue of L1 'Arabic' use is only mentioned in teacher's guidebooks with respect to minimising this use. However, as the analysed data show, both teachers and learners actually use Arabic as a communicative and interactional resource in a way that is related to the interactional organisation of the L2 classroom discourse.

This draws policy makers' attention to the fact that teachers cannot precisely follow the policy of the 'monolingual' principle or literally use the teaching methodologies that highlight this principle. For example, the strategic use of the L1: e.g., the *foreground use*, as shown in the data of this study, implies that the teachers themselves are creating their own local practices to achieve different L2 pedagogic foci. This in turn implies that the teachers are not in the 'method era' but rather in the '*post method era*' (Kumaravadivelu 2001). This means that the teachers in this study employ their own resources to achieve different pedagogic foci, taking into consideration their own and the learners' bilingual affordances as available resources.

It follows then that policy makers as well as inspectors should not impose particular teaching methods on teachers and insist that they apply them to the letter. Teachers or learners who are forbidden to use their first language are "disempowered, infantilised, frustrated, deprived of their identity and knowledge" (Cook 2007, p. 399). Hence, policy makers and teacher-trainers shoulder a great responsibility. Rather than banning the L1they should instead equip teachers with the premises of the post method concept and how to adapt the teaching techniques to their context, making use of the learners' linguistic and cultural background. For example, teachers should be trained to reflect on and investigate "how often and under what conditions the much-ignored and much-neglected common L1 can be used as an effective means of learning and teaching even though the mandated methods and materials might proscribe its use" Kumaravadivelu (2001 p. 550).

To this end, teacher-education programmes should expose teachers to different teaching methods that take into consideration the indispensable role of the L1. For example, teaching techniques that incorporate both the L1 and the L2 should be given ample consideration in a language teaching setting, particularly where the teacher and

the learners share the same L1. Using such techniques does not, however, mean "passing out a license to overuse of the first language" (Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain 2009, p. 2), and this use should be appropriate to the pedagogic focus of the L2 contexts and the learners' needs. For example, we would expect different/less use of the L1 in a meaning and fluency context, where the learners are supposed to practise the language, compared with a form and accuracy or a procedural context.

As far as language policy is concerned, the findings of the present study also have implications for a reconsideration of the main goal of learning a foreign language. The data analysed in this study show how both teachers and learners use their L1 as a natural, contextual and interactional resource. This implies, as well as confirming previous claims, that the '*monolingual*' principle is practically unattainable (Cook 1999). It follows then that policy makers as well as teacher trainers and inspectors should encourage the bilingual classroom, in which both teachers and learners practise using both L1 and L2 in a way that promotes L2 learning, in addition to creating a *bilingual 'community of practice'* (Wenger 1999) in which code-switching - as a contact language phenomenon - is practised and developed. This in turn requires reconceptualising the goals of L2 teaching so as to promote the multi-competence of the learner as an L2 user who has different needs from those of the unattainable 'native speaker' (Cook 1998). This reconceptualising will also have an impact on curriculum design and teaching materials, as they need to be developed to help learners "successfully use the second language for the purposes of their life" and gain "the mental benefits of learning another language as well as its utilitarian use" (Cook 2011, p. 152).

6.5 Directions for future work

There are some limitations of the present study, which might be taken into consideration in future research. It is suggested that more research should be conducted in different settings to support or refute the results of this study. The results of the present study are confined to the particular L2 classroom context in this study. Hence, more data could be collected from subjects with different L1s and from different L2 classroom contexts (e.g., task-based or meaning and fluency contexts) or from other classes (e.g., speaking and listening classes or content-based classes such as science) in order to investigate further the relationship between those contexts and the use of the L1. Research could also be carried out to determine whether the level of education: primary, preparatory or secondary, is an influential variable: that is, whether there is a relationship between the different educational levels, L2 classroom contexts and the functions of L1 use.

In addition, data could be collected from novice and more experienced teachers to investigate whether there is a relationship between use of the L1 and length of teaching experience. Moreover, in this thesis, owing to limitations of space, I could not use the data I had collected from the teacher interviews; these data could be used to provide useful insights into teachers' beliefs concerning the use of the L1 and learners' participation in the language classroom. Future research could also use stimulated-recall interviews to gain deeper insights into teachers' beliefs and cognition (Borg 2006) and to raise their awareness of good practices of L1 use, or to compare their beliefs to their actual practices before and after recording their lessons.

Another limitation of this study was imposed by the use of only one camera. Thus it is suggested that the use of more than one camera would provide a more detailed view of L2 classroom interaction. It would also make it possible to examine the non-

verbal cues that accompany or precede the switch to the L1, which would offer additional insights into this area of research.

6.6 Final remarks

This study set out to investigate the relationship between the use of the L1 and L2 in different L2 classroom contexts. It is the first study that combines a CA context-based and CL approach to study L2 classroom code-switching. I have argued that a CA context-based approach to the use of the L1 may be more suitable for depicting the variations in L2 classroom interaction than an overall description of the functions of L1 use within the lesson as a whole without taking into account the different contexts that can occur within a single lesson. It is therefore suggested that the system employed in this study (using a CA context-based approach combined with CL) provides an adequate depiction of the diversity of the situations in which the L1 is used.

Through a detailed analysis of recorded data produced in an Egyptian setting, it has been shown how the L1 and L2 are integrated within the interactional organisation of L2 classroom discourse and how some functions behave differently in different L2 classroom contexts. At the micro-interaction level, two distinct uses of the L1 were identified: background and foreground uses of the L1. It has also been shown how L1 use can be managed as an interactional resource by both teachers and learners in ways appropriate to the L2 context in which the L1 is used. This in turn suggests that managing language alternation in the L2 classroom could be incorporated as a component of classroom interactional competence (Walsh 2006).

In sum, the use of the L1 can facilitate classroom interaction. Besides, a combination of CA and CL could provide a more complete understanding of L2 classroom discourse by revealing the relationship of the identified functions of L1 use

and the different L2 classroom contexts in which they occur at the macro and micro levels.

In conclusion, I hope that this study has provided an example of how the use of the L1 in L2 classroom discourse might be approached, and that it has contributed and provided new directions to the ongoing debate on the use of the L1 in L2 classrooms.

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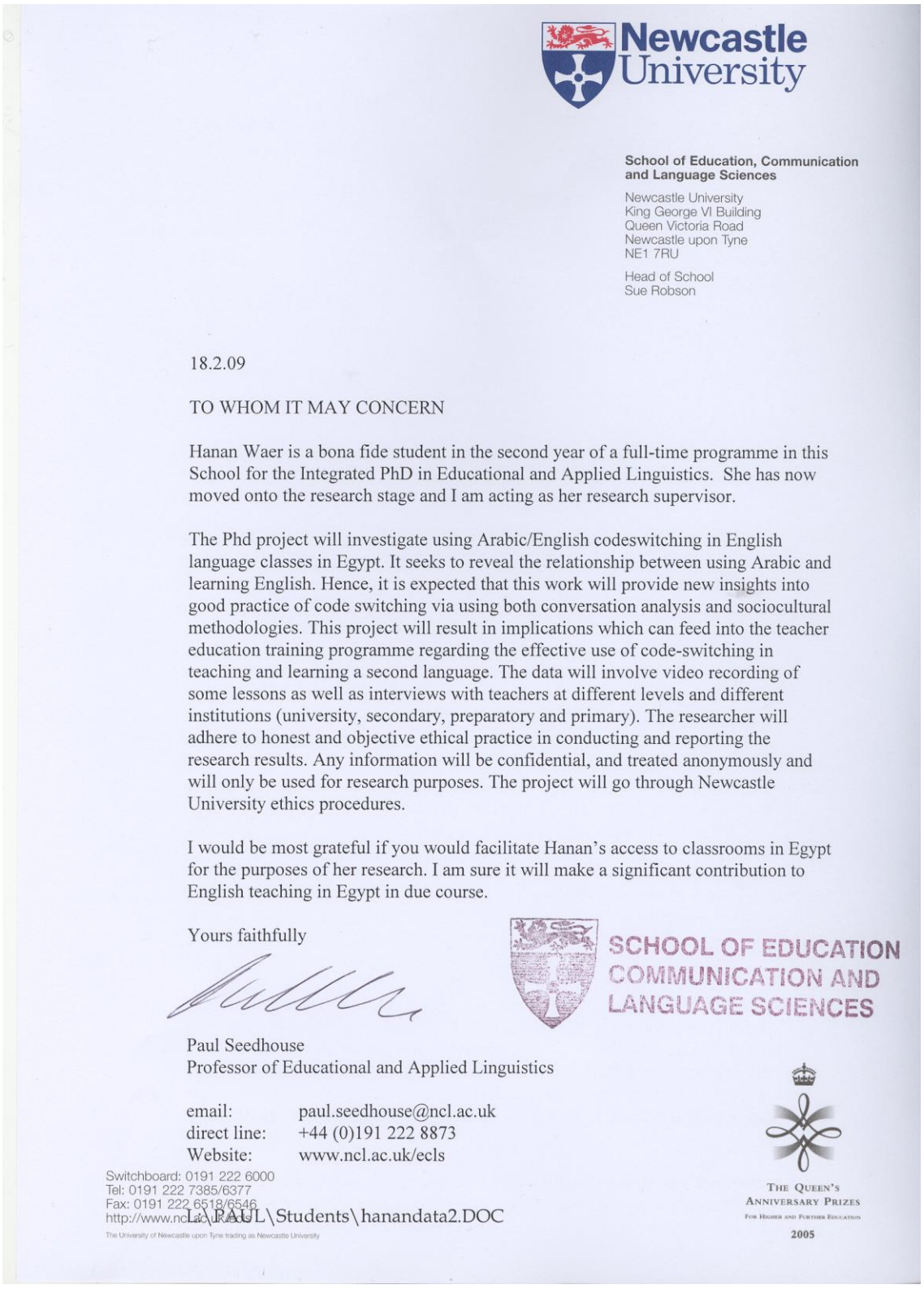
Appendix A: Supervisor's letter



Newcastle University

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Queen Victoria Road
Newcastle upon Tyne
NE1 7RU

Head of School
Sue Robson

18.2.09

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Hanan Waer is a bona fide student in the second year of a full-time programme in this School for the Integrated PhD in Educational and Applied Linguistics. She has now moved onto the research stage and I am acting as her research supervisor.

The Phd project will investigate using Arabic/English codeswitching in English language classes in Egypt. It seeks to reveal the relationship between using Arabic and learning English. Hence, it is expected that this work will provide new insights into good practice of code switching via using both conversation analysis and sociocultural methodologies. This project will result in implications which can feed into the teacher education training programme regarding the effective use of code-switching in teaching and learning a second language. The data will involve video recording of some lessons as well as interviews with teachers at different levels and different institutions (university, secondary, preparatory and primary). The researcher will adhere to honest and objective ethical practice in conducting and reporting the research results. Any information will be confidential, and treated anonymously and will only be used for research purposes. The project will go through Newcastle University ethics procedures.

I would be most grateful if you would facilitate Hanan's access to classrooms in Egypt for the purposes of her research. I am sure it will make a significant contribution to English teaching in Egypt in due course.

Yours faithfully

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION COMMUNICATION AND LANGUAGE SCIENCES

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http://www.ncl.ac.uk/ecls
The University of Newcastle upon Tyne trading as Newcastle University

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THE QUEEN'S ANNIVERSARY PRIZES
FOR HIGHER AND FURTHER EDUCATION
2005

Appendix B

Consent Form

We agree and permit to participate in a study of classroom interaction in Egyptian EFL classes conducted by Hanan Waer (Ph.D. Candidate in Applied Linguistics from Newcastle University, England and Assuit university, Egypt; advisor: Prof. Paul Seedhouse) with understanding that:

1. The purpose of the study is identifying the relation between using Arabic and teaching and learning teaching English. This will identify good practice which will result in implications for teacher training programs.
2. Teachers and their children will be video-taped in classrooms.
3. All tapes will be listened and analyzed by Hanan Waer for educational and scientific research purposes.
4. No one shall be identified by actual names. At all times participants' identity will be kept confidential.
5. At the end of the project, Hanan Waer is allowed to keep these tapes for future educational and scientific research purposes.

نوافق على تسجيل بعض الدروس (فيديو) للسيدة/ حنان واعر عضو البعثة المصرية بجامعة نيوكاسل بإنجلترا للحصول على درجة الدكتوراه وذلك على ان تستخدم التسجيلات كعينة دراسة لرسالة الدكتوراه التى تقوم الباحثة بإعدادها ولها الحق فى الاحتفاظ بها لغرض البحث العلمى.

Signature

Teacher(s):

- -
- -
- -

Students/student's parents:

- - -
- - -
- - -
- - -
- - -
- - -

Appendix C: Data of the study

Second term Feb-May 2008/2009

Type of institution	Stage	Subject	No. of LL	Recording time (min)	LL age (year)	T's experience (year)
University	4	Translation	30	50.25	22	10
	4	Grammar*[i]	30	46.03	22	25
	3	error analysis*	37	25.15	21	28
	4	Phonetics	30	1.03.39	22	8
	3	Reading	11	51.29	22	7
Secondary	3	Exercises*	10	40.23	18	11
	1	Reading	8	30.20	16	12
	2	Novel "Spider"*	11	45.00	17	21
	3	Reading	25	45.00	18	13
Preparatory	3	Reading	8	36.21	15	10
	3	Reading	8	32.50	15	11
	1	Reading	23	26.36	13	1
	3	Grammar "too and neither"*	8	23.44	15	11
	2	Novel "the old man and the sea"	8	36.00	14	10
	2	Reading	10	28.33	14	5
	1	Grammar	23	6.25	13	1
Primary	4	Grammar	28	33.06	10	4
	5	Reading	20	42.22	11	7
	6	Revision	25	50.20	12	6
	3	Reading	33	45.44	9	7
	3	Reading	33	40.22	9	4
	4	Grammar	28	37.26	10	4
				771.4 min ~ 13:40 h		

First term Oct.-Dec. 2009/2010

Type of institution	Stage	Subject	No. of LL	Recording time (min)	age of LL (year)	T's experience (year)
University	3	Linguistics "assimilation"*	29	90	22	12
	4	Listening	30	60	22	12
Secondary	1	Reading "the five senses"*	35	28	18	7
	1	Listening "Charles dickens"	30	33	16	7
	2	Reading "eclipse"	10	21.47	17	21
	2	Translation	11	24.24	18	21
	3	Reading	8	28	18	13
Preparatory	2	Revision B*	11	35	15	5
	3	Reading*	25	30.41	14	5
	3	Reading	8	19.37	13	5
	2	Revision	7	20.21	15	5
	2	Grammar	23	35.34	14	11
	2	Reading "crops"*	8	25.14	14	11
	1	Grammar "future"	7	22.20	13	10
	1	Grammar	9	29.16	13	16
Primary	6	Reading (weather)*	23	39.42	14	11
	6	Lesson 1,2, 3 from Bravo*	28	42.30	11	10
	5	Reading	20	33.50	12	10
	6	Grammar Exercises	25	32.51	9	8
	2	Dialogue	33	31.19	9	11
	4	"My feelings"*	28	21.18	10	20
				702.4 min (~13:26 h)		

[i] * indicates that this lesson is fully transcribed and used in the corpus analysis.

Appendix D: Teachers' Interview protocol

Introduction

- **Introducing self**: PhD at Newcastle University, UK.
- **Purpose of research**: interested in relationship between Code-switching and students' involvement in EFL classroom and L2 understanding.
- **Purpose of interview:** - using Arabic and Ss involvement in classroom discourse,
- Switching to Arabic and its contribution to understanding L2.
- **Confidentiality:** All information confidential-will be reported anonymously.
- **Timing**: 30-45 mins- check ok.

Recording: check and confirm can stop at anytime.

Check any questions.

Main questions:

1. **Target-setting**
   - teaching English
   - using the mother tongue
   - how and when
   - for what purpose
   - what contribution to L2 learning

2- **Learning climate/ affective factors**

   - Student participation and involvement.
   - affective and relational characteristics shared among learners and the instructor.
   - using Arabic for positive feedback, emotion's central role in learning
   - using humor/ its contribution

3- Understanding.

   - Learner asking for a clarification / word meaning
   - checking comprehension

Closing:

- Anything you would like to add?
- Go over main points (briefly)
- Again reassurance of confidentiality
- Say that the interview (or part of it) will be transcribed and repeat what it will be used for.
- Suggest that they might like to see transcript so that they can check and revise.
- Leave opportunity for follow up questions.
- Thanks.

Appendix E: Mark-up Conventions

TAG	DESCRIPTION	
Speaker ID		
<U WHO=T> text </U> <U WHO=L1> text </U> <U WHO=L2> text </U>	Speaker ID, assigned at the beginning of every new turn, in the order they first speak	
<U WHO=LU> text </U>	Unknown speaker	
<U WHO=LL> text </U>	Two or more speakers, in unison	
Laughter		
<EVENT DESC=LAUGH>		
Contextual events		
<EVENT DESC="WRITING ON BOARD"> <EVENT DESC="APPLAUSE"> <EVENT DESC="GAZES AT BOOK"> <EVENT DESC="GAZES AT TEACHER"> <EVENT DESC="WRITING ON BOARD"> <EVENT DESC="HANDS UP"> <EVENT DESC="HANDS DOWN"> <EVENT DESC="POINTS AT L1">	Describes non verbal actions by participants as writing, pointing, gazing, standing up, hand up....etc.	
READING PASSEGES		
<READING> ... </READING>		
UNCERTAIN OR UNINTELLIGIBLE SPEEACH		
(xx) (words	The number of X indicate the number of words that are completely intelligible	

NAMES		
<GAP REASON="NAME" EXTENT "ONE WORD"/>	when a learner name occur within a text	
Letters		
Letters	Letters used in spellings are written in caps with hyphens between adjoining elements	e.g. spell think T-H-I-N-K
Numbers	Numbers are fully spelled out. e.g. page numbers	Page twenty one

Tag file: context

beginning	End
<opening>	</opening>
<procedural context>	</procedural context>
<form and accuracy context>	</form and accuracy context>
<vocabulary-based context>	</vocabulary-based context>
<text -based context>	</text-based context>
<content-based context>	</content-based context>
<closing>	</closing>

Annotation list

<item>

<sect>,</sect>

<st>,</st>

<u>,</u>

<verse>,</verse>

<opening> /description "section"

<procedural context> /description "section"

<form and accuracy context> /description "section"

<vocabulary-based context> /description "section"

</text-based context> /description "section"

<content-based context> /description "section"

<closing> /description "section"

<Function T1> /description "item"

<Function L1> /description "item"

Appendix F: Comparing wordlists of the different L2 classroom contexts

1- Comparing PC to form and accuracy context (FAC)

N	Key word	Freq.	%	in FORM	%	Keyness	P
1	PAGE	34	0.94	0		120.48	0.0000000000
2	NOW	21	0.58	0		74.35	0.0000000000
3	EXERCISE	15	0.41	0		53.09	0.0000000000
4	HOMEWORK	13	0.36	0		46.00	0.0000000000
5	TWENTY	12	0.33	0		42.46	0.0000000000
6	GOING	12	0.33	0		42.46	0.0000000000
7	LOOK	11	0.30	0		38.92	0.0000000000
8	LESSON	11	0.30	0		38.92	0.0000000000
9	READ	20	0.55	10	0.06	36.34	0.0000000001
10	COMPLETE	10	0.28	0		35.38	0.0000000003
11	OPEN	10	0.28	0		35.38	0.0000000003
12	THE	82	2.26	173	0.98	34.89	0.0000000006
13	TWO	24	0.66	19	0.11	33.04	0.0000000061
14	OKAY	34	0.94	41	0.23	32.40	0.0000000096
15	WORDS	9	0.25	0		31.84	0.0000000138
16	FORTY	8	0.22	0		28.30	0.0000001009
17	YOUR	28	0.77	34	0.19	26.46	0.0000002658
18	QUESTIONS	7	0.19	0		24.76	0.0000006457

2- Comparing PC to text-based context (TBC)

N	Key word	Freq.	%	freq. in Text	%	Keyness	P
1	PAGE	34	0.94	5	0.02	104.97	0.0000000000
2	HOMEWORK	13	0.36	0		50.91	0.0000000000
3	TWENTY	12	0.33	0		46.99	0.0000000000
4	NOW	21	0.58	10	0.05	46.33	0.0000000000
5	YOUR	28	0.77	25	0.11	44.02	0.0000000000
6	LESSON	11	0.30	0		43.07	0.0000000000
7	OUR	10	0.28	0		39.16	0.0000000000
8	COMPLETE	10	0.28	0		39.16	0.0000000000
9	OPEN	10	0.28	0		39.16	0.0000000000
10	LISTEN	10	0.28	0		39.16	0.0000000000
11	PUT	10	0.28	0		39.16	0.0000000000
12	WORDS	9	0.25	0		35.24	0.0000000004
13	FORTY	8	0.22	0		31.32	0.0000000189
14	QUESTIONS	7	0.19	0		27.40	0.0000001621

3- Comparing PC to vocabulary-based context (VBC)

N	Key word	Freq.	%	in vocabulary	%	Keyness	P
1	PAGE	34	0.94	0		80.27	0.0000000000
2	TWO	24	0.66	0		56.61	0.0000000000
3	HAVE	21	0.58	0		49.52	0.0000000000
4	NOW	21	0.58	0		49.52	0.0000000000
5	WE	34	0.94	8	0.10	45.22	0.0000000000
6	NUMBER	18	0.50	0		42.44	0.0000000000
7	EXERCISE	15	0.41	0		35.36	0.0000000003
8	ASK	13	0.36	0		30.64	0.0000000282
9	HOMEWORK	13	0.36	0		30.64	0.0000000282
10	THREE	13	0.36	0		30.64	0.0000000282
11	THE	82	2.26	78	0.96	29.25	0.0000000608
12	ANSWER	12	0.33	0		28.28	0.0000001021
13	TWENTY	12	0.33	0		28.28	0.0000001021
14	BOOK	12	0.33	0		28.28	0.0000001021
15	GOING	12	0.33	0		28.28	0.0000001021
16	FOUR	11	0.30	0		25.92	0.0000003530
17	LOOK	11	0.30	0		25.92	0.0000003530
18	LESSON	11	0.30	0		25.92	0.0000003530
19	ONE	25	0.69	10	0.12	24.43	0.0000007691

4- Comparing PC to content-based context (CBC)

N	Key word	Freq.	%	ontent-based	%	Keyness	P
1	PAGE	34	0.94	0		126.52	0.0000000000
2	YOUR	28	0.77	0		104.15	0.0000000000
3	NOW	21	0.58	0		78.08	0.0000000000
4	READ	20	0.55	0		74.36	0.0000000000
5	OKAY	34	0.94	22	0.11	58.89	0.0000000000
6	HOMEWORK	13	0.36	0		48.31	0.0000000000
7	ASK	13	0.36	0		48.31	0.0000000000
8	TWENTY	12	0.33	0		44.59	0.0000000000
9	BOOK	12	0.33	0		44.59	0.0000000000
10	GOING	12	0.33	0		44.59	0.0000000000
11	LOOK	11	0.30	0		40.87	0.0000000000
12	FOUR	11	0.30	0		40.87	0.0000000000
13	LESSON	11	0.30	0		40.87	0.0000000000
14	PLEASE	17	0.47	6	0.03	38.82	0.0000000000
15	OPEN	10	0.28	0		37.15	0.0000000000
16	WORD	10	0.28	0		37.15	0.0000000000
17	PUT	10	0.28	0		37.15	0.0000000000
18	LISTEN	10	0.28	0		37.15	0.0000000000
19	COMPLETE	10	0.28	0		37.15	0.0000000000
20	EXERCISE	15	0.41	6	0.03	32.65	0.0000000081
21	FORTY	8	0.22	0		29.72	0.0000000470
22	MISS	8	0.22	0		29.72	0.0000000470
23	NUMBER	18	0.50	14	0.07	27.79	0.0000001325
24	WANT	7	0.19	0		26.00	0.0000003379
25	QUESTIONS	7	0.19	0		26.00	0.0000003379
26	ANSWER	12	0.33	5	0.03	25.69	0.0000003986

5- Comparing CBC to Form and accuracy context (FAC)

N	Key word	Freq.	%	freq. FA	%	Keyness	P
1	HERE	63	0.32	0		80.93	0.0000000000
2	YACNI	89	0.45	11	0.06	78.06	0.0000000000
3	THIS	142	0.72	38	0.22	75.85	0.0000000000
4	AW	58	0.30	0		74.50	0.0000000000
5	SAY	53	0.27	0		68.08	0.0000000000
6	SO	72	0.37	12	0.07	54.25	0.0000000000
7	THIS	142	0.72	38	0.22	53.71	0.0000000000
8	WHEN	40	0.20	0		51.36	0.0000000000
9	LIKE	34	0.17	0		43.66	0.0000000000
10	SO	72	0.37	12	0.07	41.51	0.0000000000
11	MAY	32	0.16	0		41.09	0.0000000000
12	BUT	29	0.15	0		37.23	0.0000000000
13	ME	28	0.14	0		35.95	0.0000000001
14	SEE	23	0.12	0		29.53	0.0000000523
15	THEN	22	0.11	0		28.24	0.0000001042
16	AFTER	22	0.11	0		28.24	0.0000001042
17	SOME	21	0.11	0		26.96	0.0000002051
18	OR	91	0.46	40	0.23	26.25	0.0000002969
19	THAT	45	0.23	11	0.06	25.94	0.0000003488
20	THESE	20	0.10	0		25.67	0.0000004016
21	WE	212	1.08	139	0.79	24.24	0.0000008474