



Teacher Talk at Three Stages of English Language Teacher Career Development:

A Corpus-Aided Study

by

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A thesis submitted to the Department of English Language and Literature, Mary
Immaculate College, for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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Submitted to Mary Immaculate College, August 7th, 2020

Declaration

I declare that the work presented in this thesis is to the best of my knowledge and belief original and my own work, except as otherwise acknowledged in the text. The material has not been submitted, either in whole or part, for a degree at this or any other university.

Signed:

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "J. S. J."

Acknowledgements

I would like to extend my heartfelt thanks and appreciation to the following people:

First, to my supervisors, Dr Tom Morton and Dr Joan O'Sullivan, I give my profound gratitude for their encouragement and guidance throughout this process.

To all the teachers who participated, thank you for sharing your teaching and your thoughts for this research, you made this all possible.

To Prof. Steve Walsh and Prof. Svenja Adolphs as examiners, and Dr Anne O'Keeffe as Chair, for making my viva such an enjoyable experience.

To Aoife, my eternal thanks go to you for your friendship and unswerving support.

To my husband Graham, for moving cross-country with me, and for tirelessly encouraging me in all my endeavours.

Finally, the biggest thanks of all go to my parents, Michael and Myriam Brennan, who have never stopped supporting me and without whom I could not have done this.

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Abstract: Teacher talk at three stages of English language teacher career development: a corpus-aided study

Classroom discourse (CD) and teacher talk (TT) have received much attention over the years across a range of research perspectives, from qualitative case studies of individual teacher narratives to large-scale quantitative research using corpus linguistics (CL) tools. The present study aims to combine the affordances of qualitative and quantitative approaches by using a mixed-method research design to examine the espoused beliefs and classroom discourse of fifteen English language teachers at three stages of career development: novice, developing, and expert. Under the theoretical framework of expert–novice research (e.g. Dreyfus and Dreyfus 1980, 1986; Berliner 1988, 1989; Bereiter and Scardamalia 1993; Tsui 2003, 2005), the present study incorporates corpus-linguistic and discourse-analytical (DA) methodology using a corpus-assisted discourse studies (CADS) approach (e.g. Partington 2008) in the analysis of two original, spoken corpora, built for the purposes of this research. The first is a corpus of classroom talk titled the ‘Dublin Corpus of Teacher Talk’ (DUBCOTT) and the second is a corpus of face-to-face interviews with the same teachers, titled the ‘Teacher Interview Corpus’ (TIC).

Although commonly used to investigate classroom discourse, there is currently a dearth of studies into teacher cognition, in particular the area of teacher beliefs specifically using CL approaches. Using a CADS approach in the analysis of a corpus of face-to-face teacher interviews allows the researcher to identify beliefs and perceptions of teachers at different career stages through the use of thematic analysis, complemented by CL tools, particularly frequency, cluster and keyword analyses. Analysis of how teachers at three career stages talk about their teacher talk is conducted concurrently with an examination of classroom discourse at each of the stages, with particular focus on operationalisation of initiation and feedback acts. As well as identifying patterns of language use specific to each stage, overall results indicate the presence of some shared beliefs and approaches of teachers at all three stages, while clearly showing the differentiation and change in beliefs and approaches across the three career stages.

Chapter 1: Introduction

'And the introduction would be um ... ' [T1]

1.1 Introduction

This study examines the classroom discourse of English language teachers at three stages of career development, focusing on how initiation and feedback moves and their associated acts are operationalised by teachers at the different stages. Using a mixed-method research design, this study incorporates corpus-linguistic and discourse-analytical methodology through the use of the corpus-assisted discourse studies (CADS) approach. This chapter will present the background to the present study and provide the context in which the research was conducted, as well as introducing the research questions, theoretical framework and methodology, which will then be examined in greater detail in later chapters. This chapter will also provide an outline of the organisation of the thesis, before concluding with a brief summary of the content of the present chapter.

1.2 Background

The origin of this study began in 2010 during my initial English language teacher training, when I was introduced to the concept of teacher talk. As a trainee teacher I was far more concerned with getting through my practicum than I was with paying close attention to what I was saying or how I was saying it, but the advice that I should ‘talk less’ stayed with me long after the course had concluded. As the years progressed, through observations with trainers, mentors and feedback from my students, it began to

become apparent why teacher talk was important, and that my classroom talk could have either a positive or negative impact on the learners. This recognition led to adapting, adjusting and improving my teacher talk – a process that is still under review to this day. In essence, my teacher talk developed apace with my teaching experience, as is the case with many teachers. A key question grew from those original roots: how does our teacher talk change and develop as we gain experience? And can aspects of teacher talk unique or specific to different stages of teachers' experience be identified?

The former question is one that has been asked by researchers for decades, but it is the latter that has received less explicit attention in the research literature. Given the present study's use of teacher experience as a framework for analysis, it is pertinent to provide a brief introduction into the study of teacher expertise before examining how the present study is positioned in relation to this research area.

1.2.1 Expertise and teacher discourse

The nature of teacher expertise and its development has been the focus of attention by teacher education researchers since the late 1980s, drawing predominantly on studies of expertise in other professional domains (Berliner 1992; Tsui 2003, 2005, 2009; Johnson 2005). The focus of this research can be categorised in two areas – the nature of expertise as a *state* (Shulman 1986; Berliner 1988; Berliner *et al.* 1988; Carter *et al.* 1987, 1988) and the nature of expertise as a *process* – the latter focusing on the development of teacher expertise over time (Bereiter and Scardamalia 1993; Bullough and Baughman 1995, 1997; Tsui 2003). In the former category, in which expertise was considered to be a state, the majority of studies took the form of direct expert–novice

comparisons, with the skills and aptitudes of novice and expert teachers compared and contrasted. These studies examined different stages of teacher decision-making (pre-active and interactive) and generally concluded that expert teachers are superior in efficiency of lesson planning, automaticity of decision-making based on prior experiences, problem-solving, and exercising autonomy in planning and execution of lessons (Calderhead 1984; Borko and Livingston 1989; Berliner 1989). These studies, in general, supported the characterisation of teacher expertise according to the possession of certain skills and aptitudes, which are generally the result of classroom and industry experience that the novice teacher inherently lacks.

This approach, however, was criticised (Bereiter and Scardamalia 1993) for its presentation of expert teachers as operating effortlessly, automatically and efficiently, and the positioning of novice teachers as deficient in these aptitudes. Bereiter and Scardamalia also questioned the assumption that experience inherently leads to expertise, highlighting that many highly experienced teachers drew heavily on routines and established patterns in their decision-making and problem-solving. This reliance was found to result in less engagement with problems outside their range of competence, and therefore less professional growth. These highly experienced teachers were considered to be ‘experienced non-experts’ rather than experts. Bereiter and Scardamalia found experts to be consistently reinvesting the mental resources made available from the use of routines into the consideration and solving of new and more challenging problems and classroom situations (1993, p.34). This notion of the ‘experienced non-expert’ was closely examined by Tsui (2005), who attempted to distinguish them from the truly ‘expert’ teacher, according to established characteristics of teacher expertise in

the existing literature. Tsui's work in this area will be examined in greater detail in Chapter 2.

This perspective on the nature of expertise in relation to teacher experience prompted a new approach into the study of expert and novice teachers – that of the development of expertise as a process, continually evolving, rather than a state, which once achieved remains static (Bullough 1989, 1990; Tsui 2003, 2005). These studies, however, primarily examined the development of expertise in teachers who were already considered to be experts by virtue of their level of experience rather than the progression from novice to expert over time. Additionally, as a result of the dichotomy in existing research between experts and novices, novices are generally presented in terms of their lack of ability in comparison with experts, or experienced non-experts, rather than in terms of their existing abilities and aptitudes (Scardamalia 2002). More recent studies focusing specifically on the novice language teacher tend to do so in terms of the beliefs and cognitions of novices (Farrell 2008, 2012; Kanno and Stuart 2011; Golombok and Doran 2014); these studies, however, tend to solely address the teachers' perception of their classroom practice, rather than examining the classroom data in its own right.

This brief overview of the area of expert–novice research, which will be examined in greater detail in the following chapter, has illustrated the development of the research area from consideration of language teacher expertise as a state to expertise as a continuously evolving process. It has highlighted, as Tsui pointed out, the crucial need for 'an understanding of the processes and learning mechanisms which mediate the development of expertise' (Tsui 2005, p.198).

The present study aims to contribute to our understanding of this development by examining the classroom discourse and the beliefs and cognitions of language teachers, both novice and expert, as well as examining teachers who are at an intermediary stage between these two states, using two original corpora of teacher talk to do so. Given that the realm of teacher talk is vast and comprises numerous elements – too many to explore in sufficient detail here – this study will narrow its focus to two aspects of the teacher turn in teacher–student interaction: the initiation move and the feedback move, both positive and corrective. The rationale for this focus will be explained in the next section.

1.3 The teacher's role in classroom interaction

At its most fundamental, classroom interaction can be divided into two turns – that of the learner(s) and that of the teacher. Despite this seemingly equal division, however, and the fact that the teacher is often considerably outnumbered in the classroom, the teacher's turn often dominates, frequently comprising up to 70% of all classroom discourse (Ur 2007; Nicaise 2015; Fahriany and Haswanj 2017). This dominance persists despite the ongoing popularity and purportedly widespread usage of communicative language teaching (CLT) approaches in ELT (Harmer 2007), a pedagogical approach that discourages too much teacher talking time (Thornbury 1996; Richards 1998b).

When classroom discourse is considered under the lens of conversation analysis (CA), however, the reason behind the disparity in quantity between teacher talk and student talk is evident. The teacher is responsible, in most cases, for opening and closing the interaction in question (Nunan 2001) – from the lesson as a whole to individual

activities, or sub-stages within these activities (Sinclair and Coulthard 1992). The teacher, as a result, holds the floor for the majority of the lesson, with the learners only able to contribute an utterance when signalled or permitted by the teacher, such as during an open-class feedback session following a language or skills task. Utterances produced during initiation and feedback moves comprise the majority of the teacher's discourse in a given lesson (Waring 2009; Molinari *et al.* 2013; Li 2018) rendering these moves a natural focus for examination in a study of teacher classroom discourse.

Initiation and feedback moves are not homogenous in nature, with each comprising a multitude of possible functions depending on the context of the interaction during which the utterance takes place – these include checking understanding, giving instructions, and providing praise or correction. These functions should, in theory, be considered in pursuit of the interactional goal of the institution – in the case of this study that goal is language acquisition. Given that teacher talk in the ELT context is both the medium and goal of instruction, and the language used by teachers is ‘often simultaneously the aim of a lesson and the means of achieving those aims’ (Walsh 2006, p.133), teachers’ decisions surrounding their classroom talk, whether consciously or unconsciously, will have a direct impact on how successfully that goal is achieved. It is prudent, therefore, that both the *process* and the *product* of teacher talk be examined when endeavouring to come to a deeper understanding of the nature of teacher classroom discourse. The process, in this case, refers to the stated perceptions, beliefs and decisions of the teachers themselves, while the product deals with the actual utterances produced by the teachers in the classroom context.

The inclusion of teachers’ views in the study of classroom discourse is a relatively recent one (Freeman 2002; Borg 2003) but has been crucial in shaping our knowledge of

why teachers make the decisions they do in the classroom. Research in this area has indicated that teachers' central beliefs concerning pedagogy directly inform their decision-making in practice, despite the influence of contextual factors such as administrative requirements or learners' perceived and stated learning preferences (Karavas-Doukas 1998; Phipps and Borg 2009; Mak 2011). Teachers' decisions, informed by their beliefs, have a powerful influence on what and how learners learn, and as such should be understood to the fullest extent possible. By examining teachers' espoused theories, as well as theories in practice (Schön 1987), 'divergences or discrepancies' between the two can be brought to light, and, ideally, necessary changes can then be initiated. In other words, 'this is about getting the walk to match the talk and vice versa' (Farr and O'Keeffe 2019, p.288).

These decisions are not necessarily congruent with teachers' own beliefs about learning and pedagogy, with studies reporting differences between teachers' stated beliefs and classroom practices, particularly in regard to prescribed curricula and the teaching of grammar (Karavas-Doukas 1996; Sato and Kleinsasser 2004; Phipps and Borg 2009; Li and Walsh 2011) The inclusion of teacher career stage as a variable in the present study allows for a more nuanced examination of teacher beliefs, particularly in identifying processes of change in the stated beliefs of newly qualified, developing, and proficient teachers.

In order to fully explore these difference between practice and beliefs, classroom data must also be examined to provide as complete a picture as possible. Classroom data is a rich resource that can be mined for a variety of purposes – sociolinguistic and ethnographic analysis, learner interlanguage, and, of course, teacher talk. By collecting

data from real language classrooms we can provide a snapshot of teacher and learner interaction that is, inasmuch as possible when recording is taking place, authentic and natural. This provides the researcher with salient information on how teachers and learners produce language, negotiate meaning, and manage the interaction in the somewhat rigid institutional setting of the language classroom (Drew and Heritage 1992). When considering teacher talk specifically, the analysis of recorded classroom data provides a rare opportunity for the researcher to observe a teacher without the potential of the observer's paradox (Labov 1972) – as any teacher educator knows, the lesson being observed by a trainer or manager is often an example of that teacher's concerted best effort, rather than their everyday teaching. It is the latter that can provide the most useful data, particularly in the area of teacher initiation and feedback (Amador Moreno *et al.* 2006; O'Keeffe, McCarthy and Carter 2007).

While teachers are generally aware of certain central guidelines around these features – for example, that referential questions are preferred to display questions; that they should never interrupt a learner while they are producing the target language, or that correction should not take place when learners are expressing something personal (Ranta and Lyster 2007) – the reality of the language classroom does not always allow for these guidelines to be followed. By examining authentic classroom data, we are provided with an insight into how these features occur in practice, rather than in theory.

The following section will set out the research problem and aims of the present study.

1.4 Research problem and aims

Research problem

The main problem addressed in this thesis is the relationship between teacher experience and teacher talk – both as classroom practice and in self-reported awareness of teacher talk as a phenomenon.

Aims

The aim of this thesis is to investigate the relationship between teacher experience and teacher talk by investigating the practices and self-reported conceptions of teacher talk of fifteen English language teachers at three different career stages – newly qualified, developing and proficient, with particular focus on initiation and feedback use. Two original spoken corpora were built for the purposes of this research – the first is a corpus of classroom talk titled the ‘Dublin Corpus of Teacher Talk’ (DUBCOTT) and the second is a corpus of face-to-face interviews with the same teachers, titled the ‘Teacher Interview Corpus’ (TIC). The corpus data is analysed using a corpus-assisted discourse studies (CADS) approach, which will be detailed later in this chapter.

Theoretical perspectives

The theoretical framework that underscores this research and drives the research questions is comprised of three key research areas – expert–novice theory, teacher cognition and classroom discourse.

a) Expert–novice theory

As discussed earlier in this chapter, research into the nature of expertise and expert practitioners, particularly in the area of language education, has provided a valuable insight into the aptitudes and competencies of language teachers at both the novice and the expert stage of their professional development. The lynchpin of this research area is undoubtedly Dreyfus's 1986 model of performance acquisition, which, although not specifically referring to teaching expertise, has provided the framework for numerous subsequent studies in teacher development (Borko and Livingston 1989; Shuell 1990a; Brown and Borko 1992; Bereiter and Scardamalia 1993; Berliner 1994; Tsui 2003).

Within this framework, researchers have conducted in-depth investigations into competencies of language teachers in different domains within their corresponding phase of expertise, into areas such as teacher knowledge, lesson-planning, and problem-solving (Nunan and Richards 1990; Freeman and Richards 1996; Freeman 2002; Andrews 2003; Andrews and McNeill 2005; Bigelow and Ranney 2005; Johnson 2009).

By contrasting the practices, attitudes and competencies of early-career or novice teachers with those of expert teachers, we can in theory provide an actionable route for teachers to progress from the former to the latter. The present study will apply frameworks and findings of expert–novice research to the original, spoken corpora of teacher talk compiled for analysis, focusing on variations and patterns of language-use according to each teacher's career stage.

b) Teacher cognition

As research into teachers' practices has developed throughout the decades, it has become increasingly apparent that rather than being merely reactionary automatons, the beliefs and attitudes of teachers play a central role in their classroom decision-making. The 'mental work' of language teaching was not something that was acknowledged until relatively recently, with researchers prior to the 1970s neglecting the less public aspects of teaching – planning, evaluating, reacting, deciding – which "remain invisible to outsiders and beyond the reach of research" (Burns, Freeman and Edwards 2015, p.585). Until the mid-1970s, the dominant process-product model of teacher thinking (Dunkin and Biddle 1974) posited that teachers, when making decisions in the classroom, were reacting specifically to the context at the time, such as the learners or the lesson content. This theory did not consider the extent to which teachers' classroom behaviour and decision-making were impacted by the teachers' individual beliefs, or the influence the teachers' 'mental lives' (Borg 2011, p.376) had on their actions in the classroom. The study of teaching from an emic perspective began in earnest from 1975 onwards, after the publication of Lortie's 1975 landmark study into the socialisation of language teachers, and comprehensive characterisations of what constitutes teacher beliefs have since been put forward. Kajala and Barcelos (2003, p.2) organised teacher beliefs according to six assumptions:

1. Beliefs are claimed to be contextual, personal, experiential, social, cognitive, and constructed in discursive practices.
2. They are described as dynamic and variable from one situation to another.
3. They are intrinsically related to actions, which guide and influence them.
4. Beliefs are part of a teacher's interpretive ability to make sense of the social world around him or her and respond to the problems he or she is faced with.

5. Beliefs are organized into clusters; earlier beliefs, it is claimed, are more difficult to change because these are more closely related to a teacher's emotions and sense of self.
6. Beliefs play an important role in helping teachers to understand themselves and others and adapt to the world.

These assumptions further cement the idea central to the present study that the beliefs and actions of language teachers are not, and cannot be, treated as mutually exclusive. Research into the beliefs, perceptions, and cognitions of language teachers has developed even further in recent decades, comprising studies on teacher knowledge, agency, identity, anxiety, privilege, the conflict between teacher beliefs and actions, and a growing focus on the nature of teacher identity among novices in particular (Vásquez 2007, 2011; Tsui 2007; Kubanyiova 2009; Feryok 2012; Xu 2013; Kumazawa 2014).

Most significant to the present study has been the growth in research that examines the interface between language teacher cognition and teacher classroom discourse (Hall and Walsh 2002; Borg 2006; Hall 2010; Kubanyiova 2015), which highlights the importance not only of the discourse taking place, but of the teacher behind the discourse, and the ‘inner resources’ being used during the teacher–learner interaction in question (Kubanyiova 2015, p.566). ‘Beliefs and their interplay with learner and teacher actions [...] are now recognised as being more complex than before’ (Kubanyiova 2012, p.13). Therefore, any study of teacher classroom practice is made more fruitful through the consideration of those teachers’ beliefs and allows us as researchers to better understand how beliefs are translated into action in the classroom context.

In an effort to further understand this ‘hidden side’ of classroom practice (Freeman 2002), the present study will examine the discourse used by teachers during initiation

and feedback moves, concurrently with the perceptions of the fifteen participating teachers regarding their own teacher talk, their conception of the role of the language teacher, and the impact of internal and external factors on their decision-making process.

c) Classroom discourse

The area of classroom discourse research is one that usually comprises elements of several schools of discourse analysis, such as classroom interaction analysis, conversation analysis and critical discourse analysis, with the use of corpus linguistics methodology to aid in these analyses becoming more and more prevalent. The primary purpose of engaging in classroom discourse research is to understand the ‘interactional processes of the language classroom’ (Walsh 2011, p.12) and to use this knowledge to help teachers better understand their practice. Effective communication is an essential tool in the language teacher’s arsenal, yet many teachers are unaware of the extent to which their own language use in the classroom could be hindering, rather than helping, the learning process (Walsh 2002). The development of classroom corpora is therefore a valuable addition to the body of knowledge in classroom discourse, with the practical benefit of such corpora being used by language teachers ‘as tools for reflective practice and professional development’ (O’Keeffe *et al.* 2007, p.220).

1.5 Research questions

This study intends to answer two interrelated research questions, each with a corresponding sub-question, which are as follows:

RQ1: How does teacher talk vary at three stages of career development?

- a) How does operationalisation of initiation and feedback moves vary at the three stages?

RQ2: What do teachers at three stages of career development believe about their teacher talk?

- a) What variation, if any, can be found between the teachers' stated beliefs and their observed practices?

The following section will introduce the methodological considerations taken in the present study.

1.6 Methodology

A corpus-assisted discourse studies (CADS) approach was taken in the analysis of the data of the present study. A concept introduced by Partington (1998), CADS is an approach that can be summarised as 'the investigation, and comparison of features of particular discourse types, integrating into the analysis where appropriate techniques and tools developed within corpus linguistics' (Partington 2008, p.3). The aim of this approach is to uncover meaning in a text, which may not be immediately apparent, by combining the quantitative approach of corpus linguistics with the qualitative approach of discourse analysis. This allows the researcher to conduct close, detailed analysis of chunks of discourse relevant to the research being undertaken, which were brought to light through the use of CL tools such as keyword and frequency lists.

The attitudes taken by proponents of the ‘traditional’ CL approach and those of the CADS approach are drastically different. CL researchers tend to treat the corpus as a ‘black box’ – in other words something for which the input and output are evident, but what is going on inside remains a mystery and not something to be looked into lest it impact the interpretation of the data (Partington 2008, p.5). Researchers using the CADS approach, by contrast, engage closely with their corpus, often reading outside the immediate frame of data provided by the corpus tools used to gain a better understanding of how the discourse is being done. Much of this work is intuitive, with CADS researchers often dealing with purpose-built corpora that represent a specific discourse type well known to them, allowing them to draw inferences and conclusions about the data – as was the approach taken in the present research.

The CADS approach was deemed an ideal methodology for the present study, as it deals with two comparatively small corpora, the combined total of which does not exceed 250,000 tokens, which were compiled by the researcher to investigate a very specific discourse type – the talk of English language teachers at different career stages. The size and custom-built nature of the corpora lend themselves perfectly to the CADS approach, which in turn greatly facilitated exploration of the research questions investigated in this study.

Firstly, using a CADS approach in the analysis of a corpus of face-to-face teacher interviews allows the researcher to identify beliefs and perceptions of teachers at different career stages through the generation of word lists and keyword analysis. The researcher can then delve deeper into the data and garner more information from the immediate context of the token being examined. Although commonly used to investigate

classroom discourse, there is a lack of studies into teacher cognition specifically using CL approaches. Using CL tools in conjunction with DA methodology in the analysis of interview data was especially fruitful for the present study in highlighting some universally shared beliefs and stated approaches among the teachers, while allowing for clear identification of differentiation and change in beliefs and approaches across the three career stages. This will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 6.

In the investigation of the first research question and its corresponding sub-question, which asks how teacher talk, in particular the discourse used during teacher initiation and feedback moves, varies according to teacher career stage, a more traditional CL approach was taken to the analysis of the larger of the two corpora built for the present study. After an extensive process of pragmatic coding, which will be detailed in Chapter 4, the corpus was analysed using CL tools such as the generation of sub-corpora, frequency and keyword lists, which allowed for the close examination and re-examination of the data from various perspectives. For example, clusters of language used in various stages of the lesson were identified using N-gram tools, which facilitated a contrastive analysis of these clusters at each of the three stages. This level of scrutiny of the corpus would have been impossible if not for the use of CL methodology, which highlighted key patterns and features that were then explored more deeply using a discourse analytical approach.

1.7 Context and participants

The data for this study was collected from fifteen English language teachers in Dublin, Ireland, between September 2016 and August 2017. All participating teachers were

working in private English language teaching organisations (ELTOs), teaching adult learners, and the teachers ranged in age from early 20s to late 30s at the time of data collection. Of the fifteen teachers eight were male and seven were female. The majority of the teachers were L1 English speakers, with nine from Ireland, one from Canada, one from the USA and one from Australia. Of the three L2 English speakers, one was Croatian, one was Dutch and one was Catalan.

All had completed an initial English language teaching qualification such as the Cambridge Certificate for English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) or the Irish equivalent Certificate in English Language Teaching (CELT). All participating teachers had a minimum of a primary third-level degree, as per Irish governmental regulations for English language teachers, and one had recently completed an MPhil. in TESOL, with a second teacher in the process of completing an M.Ed in History at the time of data-collection. Twelve of the fifteen teachers had only taught in the Irish ELT context – the three teachers with international experience had taught in India, South Korea, Spain, Vietnam, Turkey and Brazil.

Teachers were invited to participate based on their range of experience alone, with 5 teachers representing each of the 3 career stages previously mentioned – novice, developing and expert, corresponding to the stages of the British Council Continuous Professional Development Framework (2012): a self-assessment framework for language teachers commonly used in ELT organisations in Ireland as a means of promoting autonomous engagement with CPD. This framework was chosen both for the familiarity of language teachers with the stages, and for the framework's evident correspondence with Dreyfus's stages of performance acquisition (1986) which, as we

have seen, formed the backbone of numerous studies in expert–novice theory. All teachers were audio-recorded for the full duration of a lesson – three hours – and completed a subsequent face-to-face recorded interview of approximately twenty minutes each. More information on data collection will be presented in Chapter 4.

1.8 Organisation of the thesis

The thesis is organised as follows. Chapter 1 deals with the background to the study, and sets out the research problem, aims, and justification of the study. Chapters 2 and 3 will present a review of the relevant literature in the areas pertinent to the theoretical framework of the present study – expert–novice theory, teacher cognition and classroom discourse, while Chapter 4 deals with the methods of data collection and analysis taken in the study.

Chapter 5 examines the DUBCOTT corpus in order to answer the first research question and sub-question, while Chapter 6 turns to an exploration of the TIC corpus with a view to answering the second. Chapter 7 contains detailed analyses and discussion of the findings according to the research questions being investigated. Chapter 8 will conclude the thesis with a discussion of pedagogical implications, the limitations encountered in the study, the value of the study to the area of teacher talk research, and considerations of further directions of the research.

1.9 Chapter summary

This chapter has set out the background to the study, presented its aims and justification, and introduced the two research questions and sub-questions that will drive the analysis of the corpus data. The methodology, theoretical framework and context of the study were also introduced, each to be examined in greater detail in subsequent chapters. The following chapter will examine two of the three key theoretical perspectives of this study – expert–novice theory and teacher cognition.

Chapter 2: Expert–novice theory and teacher beliefs

'Well it's kind of like acting.' [T4]

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to provide a review of the literature in the fields of teacher cognition and expert–novice theory, with a focus on the relationship between the cognitions of language teachers and their level of expertise. The theoretical background to the chosen framework of expertise applied in this study, the British Council Continuous Professional Development Framework, is also examined in this chapter.

2.2 Expert–novice theory in language teaching

In examining stages of expertise in teaching, the differences therein, and the progression through the stages, it is necessary to first examine the concept of expertise itself. The study of expertise generally falls into two schools – the study of exceptional or absolute expertise (Chi 2006) and a contrastive approach, which examines the difference between expert and non-expert practitioners (e.g. Berliner, Tsui). The former approach, the study of ‘absolute’ expertise, requires the identification of the expert by examining the traits that make them exceptional – research output, sporting or academic achievement, globally significant invention, creativity and popularity (Minsky and Papert 1974; Chi 2006). This approach is not suitable for the subject of pedagogical expertise on the grounds that we in the language teaching profession do not have ‘superstars’ as they exist in other fields, and identifying a ‘master’ or expert teacher would undoubtedly be

quite a subjective endeavour. In her examination of studies into expertise in ELT, Tsui (2003) points out the flaws in some of the criteria used to determine expertise:

Studying novice and expert teachers necessarily raises the question of how one identifies them.

Identifying novice teachers is relatively straightforward. [...] As Bereiter and Scardamalia (1993) point out, it is much harder to identify an expert teacher than, say, an expert brain surgeon, who can remove brain tumours. This is because unravelling what distinguishes an expert from a non-expert teacher is very difficult. There is as yet no reliable way of identifying expert teachers.

(Tsui 2003, p.18).

A frequently occurring criterion in studies is recommendation from school management, which, as Olson (1992) raised, leads us to question the validity of how academic directors and managers determine whether or not a teacher has expertise. In addition to academic achievement scores, or student satisfaction rates, this can also vary according to the cultural values of the educational context. Tsui (2003) also raises the issue of experience and expertise often being spoken of as synonymous, interchangeable attributes, whereas experience does not necessarily grant expert status. Of more relevance to the present study is the second approach – the ‘relative’ approach, which focuses on the comparison between novices and experts (Chi 2006). The goal of the relative approach is not only to examine the traits of the expert, but to examine how the expert attained their expertise – assuming that they began as a novice and that this progression is linear through study and practice (Chi *et al.* 1989; Ericsson *et al.* 1993; Weisberg 1999).

As discussed in Chapter 1, the thinking around expertise development in teaching has shifted over several decades, from the behaviourist process-product model (Dunkin and Biddle 1974; Rivers 1987) to the highly influential work of Dreyfus and Dreyfus on the notion of the expert practitioner. Dreyfus and Dreyfus argued that at the core human expertise is ‘knowing how’ rather than ‘knowing that’ (Dreyfus and Dreyfus 1986) and put forth the concept that expertise in teaching is evidenced through ‘expert knowledge’ demonstrated in the expert’s ‘intuitive, tacit, non-reflective and automatic’ action (Tsui 2005, p.167) and is only acquired after years of experience in the expert’s domain.

Despite this shift in thinking, models of expertise in teaching throughout the 1980s and 1990s continued to present a dichotomous view of experts and novices, with progression from one to the other only considered possible after years of experience. Under this model of expertise as a state of achievement, an information-processing approach to the study of novice and expert pedagogical decision-making was adopted, which highlighted the seemingly vast differences in ability between the novice and expert. Most such studies were laboratory based and experimental, and involved the participants watching video footage of authentic teaching situations and being asked to respond, or performing a pedagogical task (Berliner *et al.* 1988; Carter *et al.* 1987, 1988; Peterson and Comeaux 1987; Sabers *et al.* 1991; Swanson *et al.* 1990). These studies found that the experts were superior to novices in the realms of organisation, information retrieval, self-monitoring, and metacognition. Other, more naturalistic approaches to the study of teacher expertise were also taking place at this time, with researchers observing teachers in natural classroom settings and conducting interviews, and expertise was considered to be contextually bound, and situated within the specific pedagogical domain within which the teacher operated (Leinhardt 1988; Gonzalez and Carter 1996; Smith and Strahan 2004; Turner-Bisset 1999, 2001; Berliner 2001).

Expertise being situated within a specific or limited context or domain is not, however, necessarily a positive characteristic of experts. Domain dependence in a specific knowledge area, as well as context dependence – the inability or slowness to adapt to a new pedagogical context such as learner level or learner age group – indicates an inflexibility present among experts (Chi 2006). This inflexibility appears to be a negative by-product of the development of their expertise – the establishment of routines and patterns, and thereby automaticity, over years of experience is recognised as an important quality possessed by experts (Hatano and Inagaki 1986), and unwillingness to deviate from these routines can create anxiety and frustration for the expert if required to do so, despite Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) establishing that adaptivity and flexibility are key characteristics of proficiency and expertise. Another shortcoming considered of experts is the inability to articulate their knowledge of their domain, since it is so often developed from experience and has reached a high level of automaticity, which can make experts poor instructors. This issue of teacher knowledge, both espoused and observed, is a key element of teacher cognition research, and will be explored later in this chapter.

As noted in the previous chapter, it was not until Bereiter and Scardamalia's 1993 study that a true shift from the understanding of expertise as a state to expertise as a process became apparent in expert–novice research. The following section will present the research findings following Bereiter and Scardamalia, which have served to shape current conceptions of the aptitudes and deficiencies of novice and expert teachers.

2.2.1 Characteristics of novice and expert language teachers

The majority of research into expertise in teaching has heretofore been conducted in the context of teaching in the primary and secondary level, with very little having been done on English language teaching specifically. A significant longitudinal study of this kind in EFL was conducted by Tsui in 2003, with four ESL teachers in Hong Kong over the span of eighteen months. Using recordings and interviews, she attempted to determine differences between the one expert and the three less experienced teachers. After comparing the data from these four teachers, it was concluded that the following differences can be seen between expert and less experienced teachers:

- the extent to which various aspects of teaching and the knowledge embedded in the teaching act as an integrated whole;
- the extent to which teachers are able to see possibilities for learning presented by the contexts they work in;
- the extent to which the practical knowledge gained through experience can be made explicit and to which formal knowledge can be transformed into practical knowledge.

Tsui also refers to the development of expertise in teachers as a dynamic process ‘which involves constant engagement in exploration and experimentation, in problematising the unproblematic, and responding to challenges’ (Tsui 2003, pp.277–278).

While this level of teaching proficiency had previously been thought to be exclusively the result of experience, research in the last two decades has challenged that notion.

Berliner (1994) outlines the development of the study of expertise from a psychological viewpoint – particularly in regard to the mastery of the game of chess. De Groot (1965) examined how chess masters had honed their expertise through thousands of hours of study and memorisation of past chess games, as well as thousands of hours playing the game themselves. Extensive study of the theory, combined with the experience of playing the game, resulted in a well-honed ability to recognise patterns and predict moves. This can be directly linked to mastery of language, and, indeed, language teaching, when one considers the notion of domain-specific knowledge, in which the expert can identify patterns and make decisions based on their extensive acquired knowledge of the subject. Glaser (1987, 1990) posited that we can refine the development of expertise into about two dozen ‘propositions’. These propositions were refined by Berliner (1994), and those related to teaching are as follows:

- Expertise is specific to a domain, developed over hundreds and thousands of hours and continues to develop.
- Development of expertise is not linear. Non-monotonicities and plateaus occur, indicating shifts in understanding and stabilization of automaticity.
- Expert knowledge is structured better for use in performances than is novice knowledge.
- Experts represent problems in qualitatively different ways than do novices. Their representations are deeper and richer.
- Experts recognize meaningful patterns faster than novices.
- Experts are more flexible, are more opportunistic planners, can change representations faster when it is appropriate to do so. Novices are more rigid in their conceptions.
- Experts impose meaning on ambiguous stimuli. They are much more “top down processors”. Novices are misled by ambiguity and are more likely to be “bottom up” processors.
- Experts may start to solve a problem slower than a novice, but overall they are faster problem solvers.

- Experts are usually more constrained by the task requirements and the social constraints of the situation than are novices.
- Experts develop automaticity in their behaviour to allow conscious processing of ongoing information.
- Experts have developed self-regulatory processes as they engage in their activities.

(Berliner 1994, p.13)

In summary, these propositions suggest that expertise is domain-specific and non-linear, with the key features of experts being their abilities in pattern-recognition, problem-solving, self-regulation, and the application of knowledge to practice. Experts are flexible, ‘top-down’ processors, who have developed a high level of automaticity in their regular classroom actions. While experts display all these generally positive characteristics, they are more limited by external constraints such as tasks and social requirements than novices are. Novices are less constrained by such limitations, as they tend to be more rigid in their conceptions than experts. An example of how these differences manifest in the classroom can be seen in the areas of pre-active and interactive decision-making.

How teachers make decisions before the lesson takes place (pre-active decision-making) and during the course of the lesson itself (interactive decision-making) (Tsui 2005; Walsh 2006) is one of the key areas in which experts and novices can be differentiated. Richards (1998b) argues that experienced teachers have developed more automated routines to deal with classroom management issues and are able to engage in more improvisational teaching and interactive decision-making than less experienced teachers, who tend to spend more time on pre-active decision-making – the planning that takes place before the lesson is taught. It was also found by Richards, Li and Tang (1998) that

novice teachers in their study were less skilled at thinking about the subject matter from the learners' perspective, had a more superficial understanding of the subject matter, were less able to present subject matter in appropriate ways and less knowledgeable about how to integrate language learning with broader curricular goals. In a separate study, Richards (1998a) examined the 'maxims' followed by language teachers and found that the maxims of less-experienced teachers were more along the lines of sticking to planning and time-management, while the more experienced teachers were more focused on language, curating their lessons according to learners' difficulties, and maintaining student involvement. While clear distinctions were found between the experienced and less-experienced teachers in Richards's study, Mok (1994), in a study of the concerns of experienced and less-experienced teachers, found some of the same concerns were expressed by both groups. Mok declared that it was 'impossible to therefore conclude that beginning teachers have more uncertainties or problems about teaching than experienced teachers' (p.102). Mok's findings also indicated that teachers were better equipped for instructional decision-making once they had garnered practical classroom experience, implying that practical experience contributed to changing the cognitions about teaching held by less-experienced teachers more than it did for the more experienced group. This conclusion was drawn, however, from teacher reflection only and not from observation.

The significance of domain-specific knowledge is one that holds a prominent position in the study of pedagogical expertise. A study undertaken by Berliner *et al.* (1994) highlighted that context, as well as domain, was extremely important to teachers. This study involved removing teachers from their own classrooms and observing them in a laboratory context, where the expert teachers felt the least comfortable and needed more

time to adapt to the new context in order to perform effectively, while novice and advanced beginner teachers did not report the same level of discomfort. Berliner determined that while the knowledge required by the teachers to teach the lesson in the new setting was not new or different, the expert teachers felt that the different context – and, in particular, the different students – would negatively impact their expertise. Expert teachers in the study reported that the inability to use ‘routines’ they had built up based on personal and contextual knowledge of students damaged their teaching performance. By removing the situations in which the teacher cognitions are usually situated, the teachers are unable to apply their expert knowledge with the same effectiveness. Context in English language teaching can vary considerably, with teachers often teaching more than one CEFR level at a time, owing to team-teaching or substitute teaching, and the difficulty of transitioning between higher-level and lower-level teaching style is something most teachers can attest to – and the cognitive work required to switch between them can be challenging (Berliner 1994).

The routines referred to above, which teachers become reliant on, are examples of the automaticity that is considered a feature of the expert teacher. Rather than indicating that a teacher’s skill has stagnated, automaticity ‘frees working memory to allow other more complex characteristics of the situation to be dealt with’ (Berliner 1994, p.22). Studies in this area have shown that expert teachers can take significantly less time to complete the same tasks as novices, who have not established routines or assimilated situational awareness for the tasks. These routines suggest a level of training of the learners by the teachers, with the learners knowing their role in the routine and facilitating the smooth running of the lesson. Speed, however, is not the only determiner of expertise – a 1989 study by Krabbe and McAdams showed that while novice teachers took less time to

introduce a new stage of the lesson, they did not establish the clear objectives or establish lesson sub-stages as the expert teachers did. This study also found the expert teachers were able to clearly transition the mood of the lesson with the distinct sub-stages, moving from jocular to serious. These features were absent in the analysis of the novice teacher, with no evidence of a routine in place.

Flexibility of planning and reaction to occurrences is a feature also observed more in expert teachers' lessons than in novices. Borko *et al.* (1988) termed expert teachers as 'improvisational performers' – these teachers are able to quickly analyse new information and make decisions, and are able to plan lessons far more loosely than novice teachers, being able to adapt and change their plan according to the students' moods and needs. Borko *et al.* (p.20) concluded that 'the success of the expert teachers' improvisation seemed to depend upon their ability to quickly generate or provide examples and to draw connections between students' comments or questions and the lesson's objectives'. Expert teachers can make changes on the spot, deciding whether or not a lesson is working well or falling flat, and can modify their plan accordingly in order to maintain learner interest and motivation. Novice teachers will often pursue activities and tasks that are not successful, or not engaging for learners, purely because they were on the plan (Westerman 1991). Novice teachers do not yet have the practical knowledge to change the activity to something more useful or enjoyable, as they do not yet have the experience of a range of such scenarios and the best courses of action to take. Only expert teachers can be successfully opportunistic, with the ability to add, remove, extend and ignore various elements of their lesson based on knowledge of past successes or failures. On the other hand, '[f]or novices the pedagogical schemata necessary for improvisation or opportunism seem to be less elaborate, less

interconnected, and clearly less accessible than are those of the experts' (Berliner 1994, p.178).

We have seen that the study of expertise in teaching is primarily laid out in terms of 'can-do' statements, which diametrically oppose the expert and the novice – experts 'can' while novices 'cannot'. More recent studies, however, have been conducted into the beliefs and attributes of novice teachers specifically, without comparison to their expert counterparts. For example, Foster *et al.* (2005) found that novice teachers who focus more on academic achievement in class than on discipline and classroom management have a stronger sense of 'self-efficacy' and more confidence. The study explored the link between novice teachers' sense of agency in the classroom with their notions of self-effectiveness, finding that novice teachers who were 'self-empowered' perceived themselves to be creating motivated and effective learning atmospheres.

2.3 Theories of performance acquisition and the British Council Continuous Professional Development Framework

Having presented the key characteristics of novice and expert teachers, in the following sections we will examine the framework of expertise progression used in the present study, the British Council CPD Framework, and its relationship to established theories of expertise and performance acquisition.

2.3.1 The British Council Continuous Professional Development Framework

Theories of performance acquisition generally divide acquisition of expertise into three stages – the novice stage, with frequently occurring errors; the intermediate stage, in which consolidation of learning is taking place and automaticity is being developed; and the final or expert stage, where the highest levels of performance can be seen (Berliner 1994, p.150). The British Council Continuous Professional Development framework (2012), which was used in the present study to categorise teachers into one of three career stages, is not explicitly linked to any existing theoretical model, but can be closely equated with Dreyfus's 1986 model, later revised by Shuell (1990b). The following sections will present both frameworks and draw correlations between them in how they relate to the present study.

Table 2.1 presents the essential elements of the framework. As the present study did not include teachers in the 'Starting', or 'pre-service' stage, key features for that stage have been omitted.

Table 2.1 British Council CPD Framework, Teaching for Success Report', 2012

British Council Continuous Professional Development Framework: stages and features		
Career stage	Length of experience	Key features
Starting	Pre-service	n/a
Newly qualified	0–2 years	Basic level of language knowledge, attention to error correction and accuracy focus, actively attempt to manage organisation and task completion.
Developing	2–6 years	Good understanding of language, with ability to explain effectively, smooth management of classroom, developing awareness of learner autonomy and begin to encourage collaborative learning.
Proficient	6+ years	Academic understanding and skilled pedagogical application of language, individualisation of learner feedback, actively support learner autonomy and collaborative learning.

This framework for classification of the teacher-participants was chosen because of its ubiquity in the private ELT sector, with many schools using the framework as a self-assessment mechanism for teachers to consult, and its evident links to widely used models of performance acquisition render it a suitable framework for the present study.

Although the present study into teacher talk at different levels of teacher expertise follows the British Council model of length of experience as an organisational framework, it must be acknowledged that length of experience is not the defining factor when it comes to teaching proficiency. As this study will endeavour to highlight, teachers at all stages of the development spectrum possess aptitudes that cannot be attributed to duration of experience alone. This idea will be revisited in Chapter 8 of the present study.

Although, as stated above, there is no explicitly stated theoretical background to the framework, its links to Dreyfus's theories of performance acquisition (1986) are evident. According to the descriptors provided in the British Council (BC) framework, Dreyfus's second stage of performance acquisition, 'advanced beginner level', is the most closely linked to the second stage of the BC framework, 'newly qualified' teachers. Dreyfus's 'competent' level corresponds to the BC's 'developing teachers'. The final two stages of Dreyfus's model combined are equivalent to the BC's 'proficient' teaching stage.

2.3.2 Performance acquisition and language teaching

The 'novice' stage described in the ELT setting is usually the pre-service stage, where the teacher learns the theory and is permitted to practice in highly controlled settings, such as monitored teaching practise. As Berliner (1994) points out, using learning to drive as a metaphor, theoretical knowledge is sometimes inadequate and context-free – the rules of the road may instruct a driver to shift gears after 20km/h, but the experienced driver knows that this is not always possible or, indeed, safe. Similarly, while pre-service teacher training programmes may teach rules such as 'wait three seconds after asking a higher order-question' (Berliner 1994, p.151), the experienced teacher knows that this rigidity of instruction is not always applicable. Newly qualified teachers, who have not yet gained the benefit of classroom experience, may stick to this rule as a means of providing a sense of structure in the early stage of their career. At the second stage of performance acquisition, 'advanced beginner' teachers are combining theoretical knowledge with experience, increasing episodic and case knowledge, and beginning to recognise similarities across contexts (Berliner 1994, p.152). The decision

of when to ignore and sometimes break the rules, an element of strategic knowledge, begins to develop in line with contextual experience.

Owing to the previously stated non-linearity of proficiency development, the third stage of this model, ‘competent’, is not the guaranteed successor of the ‘advanced beginner’ stage. It has been suggested (Borko 1992; Eisenhart *et al.* 1993; Tsui 2005) that experience does not guarantee competence, and movement through the stages of performance acquisition is not automatic for all teachers and that some may stagnate as ‘advanced beginners’. Competent performers are distinguished from their predecessors by the ability to make conscious choices about their actions, to plan and prioritise, and to be able to set rational and achievable goals. In so doing, competent performers must also be able to determine what is important and what is not – what can be ignored. At this stage Berliner finds that:

Teachers learn not to make timing and targeting errors, because one has learned through experience what to attend to and what to ignore in the classroom. And this is when teachers learn to make curriculum and instruction decisions, such as when to stay with a topic and when to move on, based on a particular teaching context and a particular group of students.

(Berliner 1994, pp.13–14)

It is suggested that this is the stage where teachers begin to feel more responsible for their actions and the resulting consequence in the classroom, as they are making decisions independently of what they have been instructed, either in the prescribed curriculum or in the rules they had been taught during their pre-service training. As a result, these teachers may feel more intensely emotional about perceived successes or failures than at previous stages.

Dreyfus's model distinguishes between two final stages of expertise, proficient and expert, but very little difference is evident between them. The key feature of these proficient/experts is that their knowledge of their domain is integrated with their other knowledge and skills, and more active problem-finding and -solving takes place. In most studies undertaken on this subject, expert-level teachers were not chosen on the basis of experience alone, but had been singled out as exceptional by teaching management, having won awards from external bodies or those who had attained further qualifications in their field (Sabers *et al.* 1991). Teachers at this stage act more intuitively than at previous stages and can recognise patterns at a more nuanced level. This leads to effective prediction of events and problems in the classroom, as the proficient teacher can access their resources of experienced past events and can apply their knowledge to act on the problems and solve them. At this level, teachers often do not reflect on when things are going well, but only when the lesson has not gone according to plan do proficient teachers reflect on their teaching.

While many studies observe the differences between the expert and the novice, and the stages that occur between the two states, few studies explore how practitioners actually make that transition. Persky and Robinson (2017) suggest that it is impossible for practitioners to jump from novice or advanced beginner to expert, and that each stage must be passed through in order to reach the final expert stage – or, more likely, ‘experienced non-expert’ stage (p.73). Practitioners may exhibit characteristics of more than one stage at a time, but progress is predominantly linear through the stages. In examining how to assist practitioners to progress, Persky and Robinson put forward instructional strategies for development in each stage, rather than merely identifying the

characteristics of the stages. These instructions serve to assist the development of automaticity, which most, if not all, studies into this area agree is a key factor in expertise development. Although this study relates to the teaching of pharmacology, its pedagogy is directly applicable to training teachers of English language. In the novice stage, which we have previously determined to be comparable to the pre-service teaching qualification undertaken by most English language teachers (CELTA, Cert. TESOL, etc.) the instructional strategies focus on presenting key knowledge that underpins the practice of teaching, establishing rules and procedures, showing learners how to plan and organise their time, presenting case studies of common situations, and allowing for strictly controlled practice. At advanced beginner stage the instructional strategies decrease in quantity but develop in complexity: less straightforward case studies and scenarios are present, feedback on practice is increased, and observation of patterns is prompted. At the competent stage, instructors begin to introduce self-reflection, allow learner-practitioners to take responsibility for their actions, and encourage constant questioning of why decisions are being made. In the final two stages of expertise the focus is on continuous coaching, identifying teachable moments, and knowledge-sharing.

The following section moves from a focus on teacher expertise to the area of teacher cognition.

2.4 Teacher cognition: from early research to present day

As previously noted, it is only relatively recently that significant attention has been paid to the study of what language teachers ‘know, think and believe’ (Borg 2006, p.1) in

relation to their classroom practice, with language-pedagogy research having previously focused on creating a largely behavioural and generalisable model of teacher effectiveness (Clark and Peterson 1986) through the examination of teachers' behaviours in the classroom. According to Kajala *et al.* (2015, p.86), teacher cognition research has 'typically concentrated on two objectives: (a) to identify the range of cognitions, usually beliefs or knowledge, that language teachers have about different aspects of their work [...] and (b) to shed light on the relationship between teachers' cognitions and practices'. This section will briefly examine the development of teacher cognition research from the early behaviourist stance to the present, more contextual approach.

Until the mid-1970s, consideration of the influence of teachers' 'mental lives' (Walberg 1972) on pedagogical decision-making was largely forgone in favour of a focus on teachers' observable behaviour, without due consideration of the cognitive processes behind teacher decision-making in relation to these behaviours. This almost complete absence of recognition of the importance of teacher thinking in teacher behaviour persisted until the late 1960s, when the influence of cognitive psychology on the field of teacher education research brought about a change in the dominant conceptual model of language teaching (Jackson 1968). Clark and Peterson (1986) cite Jackson's 1968 study as the turning point in the research of teacher cognition and decision-making, describing it as 'one of the first studies that attempted to describe and understand the mental processes that underlie teaching behaviour' (1986, p.255).

Subsequent research began to recognise and explore the impact of teacher thinking on behaviour, and the active role of teachers in classroom decision-making, and as a result focused on an area of teaching that is unobservable – the teachers' mental lives

(Walberg 1972). The pursuit of the generalisable model of teacher effectiveness was thereafter abandoned in favour of a more qualitative and holistic approach to the study of teacher behaviour and the cognitive processes behind it. This notion was cemented in 1975 following a report issued by the United States National Institute of Education, which concluded that without investigation into the relationship between thought and action in teaching, then the profession becomes ‘mechanical and might well be done by a machine’ (National Institute of Education 1975, p.1) This report further argued that researchers needed to study the cognitive processes being used by teachers to make sense of their teaching, and fed the notion that teachers were not merely acting out behaviours, but were in fact ‘active, thinking decision-makers, who processed and made sense of a diverse array of information in the course of their work’ (Borg 2007, p.738) As a result, the majority of early funded research on teacher cognition was conducted in the USA, and therefore the bulk of early thinking on teacher cognition was shaped in North America.

Rather than viewing teachers as mindless automatons (Kaufhold 2002), the dominant metaphor for teaching had by the 1980s shifted, with teachers instead being viewed as clinical processors of information, performing similar functions as physicians in regard to the ‘planning, anticipating, judging, diagnosing and problem-solving’ (Shulman and Elstein 1975, p.35) that comprised a large part of both vocations. The study of teacher cognition was at this time highly influential in the development of theories of teaching, with ‘[t]he study of the thinking processes of teachers – how teachers gather, organise, interpret and evaluate information’ considered a key element of ‘the uniquely human processes that guide and determine teacher behaviour’ (Clark and Yinger 1977, p.279). Studies such as that of Clark and Yinger examined planning, judgement, interactive

decision-making and teachers' perspectives from the point of view of teacher thinking and revealed the complexity and necessary flexibility required by teachers. A salient example of this is the emergent awareness of teachers' use of routines in the classroom, which served not to automate their practice, but to 'reduce the complexity and increase the predictability of classroom activities, thus increasing flexibility and effectiveness' (Clark and Yinger 1977, p.284). Concurrent research into teacher judgement, interactive decision-making and espoused theories was ongoing at this time, and the emergent finding was that teachers' thinking and behaviour stem from a set of unconsciously operating, organised beliefs about teaching.

The idea of 1975–1985 as the decade of changing perceptions of teacher cognition was examined in 1986 by Clark, who noted the shift in perceiving teachers from physician-like decision-makers in the 1970s to the constructivist, 'reflective sense-maker' (1986, p.12) in the mid-1980s. The change in the perception of the context of teaching was also evident, with the view of the classroom moving from a 'clearly bounded yet complex task environment' to 'the locus of psychological, physical, political, and metaphysical action, embedded in the world and affected by it' (Clark 1986, p.12). The recognition of the broader concern of teaching was a departure from previous studies in teacher cognition, which often took place in laboratory settings and were therefore isolated from the contextual factors present in authentic classrooms. Clark also took a critical approach to previous research on teacher thinking and the goal-oriented, prescriptivist viewpoint of the 1970s, arguing that this change in perspective was 'a turning away from the goal of making good teaching easier, to that of portraying and understanding good teaching in all of its irreducible complexity and difficulty' (Clark 1986, p.14). In 1986 Clark and Peterson produced a landmark review of literature on teachers' thought

processes, which was organised into three categories – teacher planning, teachers' interactive thoughts and decisions, and teachers' theories and beliefs. These categories were mutually informing and the addition of the final category was especially significant, given the noted lack of research into teacher beliefs prior to that point. Clark and Peterson determined in this work that teacher interactive decision-making was a significant factor, with teachers making an interactive decision every two minutes and the focus of teachers' interactive thoughts was on the learner. The authors also criticised research conducted into planning, which had been done in suburban elementary school classrooms and by experienced teachers, instead recommending a longitudinal approach to the study of planning – one that incorporated novice teachers as well as experienced ones.

While the examination of teacher cognition and its importance had hitherto been largely theoretical, its practical necessity was firmly espoused by Shavelson and Stern (1981), who posited that researching the link between teacher behaviour and the underlying cognitions, teacher beliefs in particular, could have a positive effect on innovation in teacher education, which could in turn provide for better planning and teacher development. By identifying positive practices in teaching, Shavelson and Stern asserted, these could be promoted generally among the teaching community, thereby enhancing quality systematically. In addition to the growing realisation among researchers in teacher education that thinking influenced classroom practice, it was acknowledged in this period that the relationship between the two functioned bilaterally, with classroom practice influencing teacher thinking, which again influenced practice, in a cycle (Loughran 2002; Sellars 2012).

Since the early 2000s a proliferation of studies into the field of teacher cognition have emerged, with a trend towards increased interest in the themes of teacher identity (Miller 2009; Tsui 2007; Morton and Gray 2010) and emotion in teacher cognition. Use of qualitative methods were foregrounded far more than they had been in previous decades, with researchers making use of data-collection methods such as face-to-face interviews (e.g. Farrell 2011; Li and Walsh 2011; Mak 2011; Skinner 2017), focus groups (e.g. Gladman 2009), questionnaires and surveys (e.g. Borg and Al-Busaidi 2012; Gao *et al.* 2011; Woods and Cakir 2011), and reflective teacher journals (e.g. Ahn 2011; Kanno and Stuart 2011; Young and Sachdev 2011). Recent research into teacher beliefs regarding learner autonomy, the role of the teacher and the perceptions of the learners and the contrast between teachers' stated beliefs and their reported actions and decisions, are of particular relevance to the present study.

As well as teachers' individual beliefs, factors in the classroom such as student gender and ability, in addition to extraneous factors such as school administration and parents, also began to be seen as influencers of teacher classroom decision-making (Smith 1996), although the teacher's belief was widely considered to be the more dominant factor. An example of this is in relation to research into teachers' instructional routes – teacher cognition research suggested that teachers stuck to internalised scripts, which they were reluctant to abandon or adapt even if they were not going well. Bailey (1996) suggested that teachers plan lessons based on certain 'principles' and deviating from the lesson plan, for reasons such as student engagement, resources, classroom management, led to a deviation from their own principles. 'Serving the common good' is determined to be a common cause for deviation, meaning that a teacher addresses the issue or error of one student because it will benefit the whole class. Richards (1998a) also found evidence of

on-the-spot modification for reasons such as simplification of language, the need for more discrete language explanation, and the desire to increase student engagement. Smith (1996) also found that student factors, particularly the affective state were common impetuses for on-the-spot modification, but teacher factors were also a part of this, such as lack of preparedness or lack of availability or functionality of a planned-for resource. Regardless of the reasons, we can see that the majority of these improvisational instances are prompted by interactive decision-making and driven by situational awareness.

Shavelson and Stern (1981) posited a new model of teacher interactive decision-making wherein the teachers follow the established routines but take cues from learners and adapt or change their internal script when necessary. This model was later considered to have overemphasised the importance of learner cues on teacher interactive decision-making, thereby pushing research in the wrong direction (Clark and Peterson 1986). The decision-making model was later criticised for its lack of a holistic approach to capturing teacher cognition and the processes involved in teaching – it was claimed by Mitchell and Marland (1989) that decision-making comprised only 25% of teacher thinking, and therefore should not be considered as dominant a factor in teacher cognition. Munby (1982) and Nisbett and Ross (1980) argued that teacher beliefs were not being studied in sufficient detail in teacher thinking research. Given the role of beliefs in human perception and hence in action, Munby argued that the scant attention paid to them in the study of teacher thinking at the time was surprising. Before moving to an examination of teacher beliefs, we will consider the role of teacher knowledge in teacher cognition research.

2.4.1 Teacher knowledge

Teacher knowledge is generally categorised in three areas: teachers' information-processing, teachers' practical knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge (Carter 1990). Decision-making and expert–novice theory were included under teachers' information-processing, and personal knowledge and classroom knowledge under teachers' practical knowledge, suggesting that 'expert teachers, in contrast with novices, draw on richly elaborated knowledge structures derived from classroom experience to understand teaching tasks and interpret classroom events' (Carter 1990, p.299). Carter points out, however, that this contrast is not helpful without establishing how expert teachers gain this knowledge, and he attempted to clarify the distinction between pedagogical content knowledge and practical knowledge, stating that pedagogical content knowledge is 'more formal than personal and situational knowledge' and is generally grounded in the 'collective wisdom of the profession' (Carter 1990, p.306).

By the 2000s, the term 'teacher knowledge' had become the most commonly used term in the study of teacher cognition. In the two main studies of 2001, many of the key findings from previous research were reiterated. The tension between the two existing conceptions of teacher knowledge, the first being 'propositional – generated through (psychological) research and which teachers learn and apply [...] and those based on more practice-oriented conceptions – where knowledge derives from and makes sense in relation to teachers' work' (Borg 2007, p.733), corresponded directly to the tension presented by Fenstermacher (1994) regarding practical knowledge versus formal knowledge. Verloop, Van Driel and Meijer (2001, p.446) provided a broad definition of teacher practical knowledge (their term for teacher knowledge) as 'the whole of the

knowledge and insights that underlie teachers' actions in practice'. The key feature of research into teacher cognition from the mid-2000s onwards was a move from considering individual teacher thinking and learning, to considering teachers as part of a teaching community. As we have seen, research into teacher cognition since its origin in the late 1960s has highlighted the vast range of factors affecting teachers' classroom practices. The notions of teacher practical knowledge and expert–novice theory introduced in this section will be examined in greater detail for the remainder of this chapter.

A key player in the field of teacher knowledge research was Lee Shulman, who, with his colleagues in Stanford University's Knowledge Growth in Teaching research programme, contributed greatly to the body of work on the topic. Shulman's area of focus was the role played by subject-matter knowledge, which he argued had been insufficiently researched (1986). He referred to this gap in research as the 'missing paradigm problem' (Shulman 1986, p.6) and criticised the process–product approach to teaching research as well as teacher cognition research for the lack of discussion of teacher knowledge. Shulman, with Wilson and Richert (1987, p.108), was critical of the emphasis on practical knowledge put forward by Elbaz (1981) for its lack of inclusion of teachers' theoretical knowledge. Shulman and his colleagues focused on how teacher knowledge is used and acquired in the classroom with a particular analysis of how teachers were able to convert the subject-matter knowledge they gained in university to easily communicated and understood information for learners. This work also established seven categories of teacher knowledge: subject-matter knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, curricular knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, knowledge of educational contexts, and

knowledge of educational ends. Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), as distinct from subject-matter content knowledge, is the teachers' ability to transform their awareness of the topic being taught to a form that is suitable for the learner. PCK 'represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems or issues are organised, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction' (Shulman 1986, p.8).

Shulman (1986) discussed teacher knowledge in terms of distinct notions, among which are teacher content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and knowledge of learners. Johnston and Goetsch (2000, p.461), however, asserted that these categories, while useful analytically when separated into discrete categories, are 'in reality [...] melded together in complex and indeed inextricable ways'. A similar fusion of knowledge and belief was proposed by Woods (1996) in the form of BAK (beliefs, assumptions, knowledge), referred to not as distinct concepts but rather 'points on a spectrum of meaning' (p.197) that shape teachers' interpretations of events in the classroom – from exchanges and utterances to pedagogical concepts and administrative duties (p.213). The question of how exactly BAK functions to impact teacher decision-making, however, has not yet been answered (Kumaravadivelu 2012). Johnston and Goetsch (2000) suggest that pedagogical content knowledge expresses the difference between less-experienced and experienced teachers by the way in which the latter are able to explain grammatical points in class, as a result of their experience and constantly developing knowledge about language (KAL). They found in their study of four experienced teachers in the USA that grammatical rules were rarely referenced directly during the explanation stage of the lesson, with teachers instead eliciting examples from students to facilitate their explanation, with lots of time given to student discussion of the language point during the lesson. Approaches to metalanguage here were found to

vary by level being taught – the teachers who taught lower levels at the time of the study were more in favour of using terminology during grammar explanation than the teachers with higher-level groups.

In Andrews's 2003 survey of 170 EFL teachers in Hong Kong, he concluded that teachers who prefer an inductive approach to grammar teaching tend to have higher levels of explicit grammar knowledge, while those who favour a deductive approach tend to have lower levels of explicit grammar knowledge (Andrews 2003, p.361–362). Andrews conducted further studies with seventeen of these teachers, using observation and interview, to establish patterns between their stated cognitions and their classroom practices. The teachers expressed generally negative opinions of grammar teaching, which relates closely to the affective impact of corrective feedback felt by teachers, as will be examined in later chapters.

Borg (2006) proposes that despite the amount of research into pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) in mainstream education, it has not been studied in any great detail in the context of language teaching. Freeman (2002, p.6) suggests that PCK does not lend itself to language teaching because the merger of content and medium renders PCK ‘a messy and unworkable concept’. Likewise, the needs of novice teachers in the second or foreign language teaching context have been little studied. Existing studies (e.g. Richards *et al.* 1992; Kern 1995; Flores 2001; Allen 2002; Tsui 2003; Borg 2015) suggest that when considering novice teachers it must be remembered that the gap between what is taught during pre-service teacher education and the real-world context of the classroom – learners and their issues, administration, working in a team, workload

– may be so vast as to negate or greatly alter what the teacher had been taught prior to beginning their in-service practice.

Spada and Massey (1992) conducted a study into the transfer of methodology taught during pre-service courses into the classroom, and found only some evidence of transfer. Their study found that the teacher working in a ‘tranquil’ school with well-behaved students was better able to apply the strategies and theories taught during pre-service than another teacher who had to focus more on classroom management and was less able to teach the lessons as planned. Richards and Pennington found further evidence of deviation from what had been taught during pre-service in their 1998 study, finding that all the teachers studied, once working in the classroom, changed their approach significantly from that taught to them. In this study the teachers had been trained to follow a flexible, learner-led, communicative approach, but by the end of their first year teaching it was found that this was not being followed, as teachers were focused more on behavioural management and following the prescribed curriculum to prepare for testing. These teachers were found to be deterred from their original training because of factors such as demotivation, low proficiency levels, lack of time for planning and innovation, and lack of reward for innovating (Richards and Pennington 1998). The culture shock of transitioning from the training classroom to the reality of the workforce was also identified by Farrell (2003) – teachers are confronted with drastically larger workloads and more contact hours than they have been trained for, and substantially less time for planning as a result of mandatory administrative tasks.

2.4.2 Language awareness, grammar teaching and expertise

Teachers' metalinguistic awareness (TMA) and teachers' language awareness (TLA) were researched in studies between 1997 and 2005 by Andrews and McNeil (1997, 1999, 2001, 2005). Andrews tested teachers' metalinguistic awareness in practice as well as their declarative knowledge by asking teachers to role-play their explanations of grammatical errors, and concluded that the deficiencies in explanation did not seem to result only from the teachers' lack of KAL, but their 'metalinguistic awareness in operation' (1997, p.160) and that assessing TMA and TLA by declarative awareness alone does not provide a complete picture, with operational awareness playing a necessary role too. Grossman's work on teacher knowledge (1989) found that declarative and implicit knowledge of the language does not necessarily equate to effective teaching, with pedagogical content knowledge also being required for teachers to transform their language awareness into a form suitable for learners. Andrews also noted the effect of low metalinguistic awareness on teachers' inability to transform the grammar content presented in their course materials into usable, appropriately modified content for learners.

How teachers integrated grammar into their teaching was studied by Borg (1998, 1999, 2003), who found that teachers who incorporated explicit grammatical instruction into their teaching did so not because of a belief in its effectiveness, but, rather, because they felt learners expected it. Usually exclusive strategies, such as inductive and deductive approaches, were also found to be used by teachers as a result of the amalgamation of their own experience of and views on grammar teaching. Teachers' knowledge and use of grammatical metalanguage was also studied – it was found that teachers who are

comfortable using grammatical and lexical terminology believed that explicit instruction was the more favourable method, and these teachers also believed that their learners had a highly functional awareness of terminology, responded positively to its use in the classroom, and they were positive about both traditional and communicative approaches. These teachers also believed that the role of the teacher in the classroom was to display their metalinguistic knowledge. Borg's 2003 framework of analysis for teachers' cognitions about grammar teaching was divided into three groups – teachers' declarative knowledge of grammar; their stated beliefs about teaching grammar; teachers' cognitions about grammar as expressed through their language teaching practices (p.109) – and concluded that attention to grammar was something the teachers valued and promoted in their work. This connection between metalinguistic awareness and their approach to grammar instruction suggests that teachers' pedagogical decisions were linked to their self-perception of their grammar knowledge. Studies with experienced teachers were conducted (Borg 1998) and it was found that those who expressed confidence in their grammatical knowledge tended to integrate explicit grammatical instruction into their lessons spontaneously, using learner questions and errors as prompts for unplanned language input; these were conclusions replicated in later studies (Basturkmen *et al.* 2004). Ng and Farrell (2003) and Farrell and Lim (2005) explored the congruence between beliefs and practices of in-service language teachers, and found them to be differing, which is an issue to be explored in greater detail later in this thesis with particular regard to the notion of correction. It must be noted that, although an increasing number of studies exist that explore teacher corrective feedback and its relationship to teacher beliefs (e.g. Borg 1998; Basturkmen *et al.* 2004; Lasagabaster and Sierra 2005; Jean and Simard 2011; Mori 2011), there are very few studies that have examined teacher positive feedback, either espoused or observed (Fagan 2014). The

present study aims to redress this imbalance through the inclusion of teacher positive feedback in the analysis of classroom discourse being conducted.

Having presented the area of teacher cognition in relation to teacher knowledge, in the following section we will examine three more recently emerging areas of teacher cognition research – teacher beliefs, teacher identity and teacher agency.

2.5 Teacher beliefs, identity, and agency

Kajala *et al.* (2015) highlighted the need for research into teacher beliefs to be longitudinal in nature, tracing developments in teacher beliefs over time, with particular regard to the notion of teacher agency, identity, emotions or actions, defining ‘belief’ as ‘a form of thought, constructions of reality, ways of seeing and perceiving the world and its phenomena which are co-constructed within our experiences and which result from an interactive process of interpretation and resignifying, and of being in the world and doing this with others’ (p.3).

At the outset of the surge in research into teacher cognition during the 1990s, the study of teacher beliefs was largely conceptual and often concerned with the relationship between belief and knowledge. Johnson (1994), working within the field of TESOL, suggested that teacher beliefs are neither easy to define nor study because they are not directly observable. What we do know is that teacher beliefs consist of tacitly held assumptions and perceptions about teaching and learning (Kagan 1992), that they are generally stable, and that they reflect the nature of the instruction the teacher provides to students (Hampton 1994). The study of teachers’ beliefs was identified by Clark and

Peterson in 1986 as a key area of research, but it was not until 1992 that a significant contribution to the research was made. Pajares's (1992) review of the existing literature on the topic highlighted the fact that an agreed definition of the concept was lacking and that a clear definition was needed for meaningful work to progress on the topic. In line with this, Pajares deconstructed the notion into several different foci, such as beliefs about teacher efficacy, epistemological beliefs, beliefs about causes of performance, beliefs about self-esteem, self-confidence and self-efficacy. Pajares (1992, p.316) suggested the definition of belief as 'an individual's judgement of the truth or falsity of a proposition, a judgement that can only be inferred from a collective understanding of what human beings say, intend, and do'. Drawing on the research of educational psychologists and educational research on teacher beliefs, Pajares developed a list of sixteen assumptions about teacher beliefs and concluded by noting that insights into the relationship between beliefs and practices need to be provided by the research, otherwise the study of teacher beliefs is fruitless. That same year, Thompson (1992, p.141) also addressed the issue of beliefs, concluding that 'it seems more helpful for researchers to focus their studies on teachers' conceptions – mental structures encompassing both beliefs and any aspect of the teachers' knowledge that bears on their experience, such as meanings, concepts, propositions, rules, mental images, and the like, instead of just beliefs'.

The 1990s also saw insight into the area of teacher thinking and teacher beliefs through the lens of educational psychology and teacher education. Richardson (1996) examined the way in which 'teachers' beliefs influence learning to teach, as well as [...] teacher education programmes that are designed to change beliefs and attitudes' (p.102). Richardson examined three categories of experience in particular that she identified as

having an impact on development of beliefs and teaching knowledge: personal experience, educational background, and experience with formal knowledge. The issue of the lasting impact of prior experience of schooling, and whether that shapes teachers' beliefs and how later teacher education can impact these beliefs, was one that had been met with controversy at the time. Richardson concluded that although the issue was complex, teacher education was a weak intervention 'sandwiched between two powerful forces – previous life history [...] and classroom experience as a student and a teacher' (p.113) and that 'some [teacher education] programs effect change and others do not; some programs affect certain types of students and not others; and some beliefs are more difficult to change than others' (p.111). The lack of long-term impact of teacher education on teacher classroom practice can, in part, be accounted for through investigation into teachers' beliefs when considered in comparison to their practices – and the strength of influence the former has on the latter.

2.5.1 Teachers' conflicting beliefs and practices

Despite being a deeply 'complex and context-sensitive' issue, and one that is inextricably linked to a range of variable phenomena, differing from teacher to teacher (Kubanyiova and Feryok 2015, p.438), tensions between teachers' stated beliefs and their recorded classroom practices have emerged as a strand of research in the last two decades, originating with a range of studies into teachers' perception of communicative approaches and their adherence to this approach (e.g. Kumaravadivelu 1993; Burns 1990). These studies found that despite teachers professing to follow a communicative approach, they are in fact following more traditional approaches. This disparity between beliefs and practices can be attributed to the strength of the teachers' pre-existing and

tightly held beliefs around teaching, which are the product of years of professional experience, prejudice and their own learning experience. The introduction of a new theory or concept, therefore, may be accepted by teachers at surface level but is unable to penetrate the teachers' subconscious and somewhat immutable set of beliefs about teaching (Karavas-Doukas 1996; Kubanyiova 2012). If adherence to a certain pedagogical approach or externally imposed curriculum conflicted with their own set of beliefs, teachers are more likely to adapt the curriculum or the approach rather than adapt their teaching (Wagner 1991).

A study of teacher conflict with their administratively prescribed content (Karavas-Doukas 1993) explored the attitudes of language teachers towards communicative curricula being used in Greek public secondary EFL classrooms. The result of the comparison between the participants' responses and observations of their classes highlighted that, in reality, an eclectic approach that incorporated traditional and communicative methods was the norm, rather than the strictly communicative approach reported by the teachers themselves. This was attributed, on further analysis, to be the result of a lack of understanding of the principles of the communicative approach, and a lack of awareness of how to apply them in teaching. Lack of understanding or awareness of the pedagogical concepts imposed on teachers is one factor, but such discrepancies have also been found to be caused by teachers' 'inability to apply the new ideas within the existing parameters of syllabus, examinations, and other practical constraints' (Lamb 1995, p.75).

As well as the discrepancy between teachers' individual practices and the pedagogical approach they profess to practice studied by Karavas-Doukas, the contextual impact has

been found to be significant on teachers' classroom practice. Context refers both to the broader local educational context and the school or institute level at which the teachers are operating. In the case of the former Sato and Kleinsasser (2004) found that, in the context of a Japanese high school, teachers adhered strictly to a traditional, grammar-translation method in order to manage learner behaviour and keep pace with other teachers – inside and outside the school – in test scores. These practices were endorsed at an institutional level but were considered reflective of the Japanese approach to education more generally. Li and Walsh (2011), in their study of ELT teachers in two large Chinese secondary schools, suggested that there is no 'single, straightforward and linear relationship' (p.52) between teachers' expressed beliefs and their classroom practices, and that contextual factors, as well as personal beliefs, are a key element in uncovering discrepancies between the two.

One of the most significant catalysts for conflict is the area of explicit grammar teaching. In their 2009 study, Phipps and Borg examined teacher beliefs and practices about grammar teaching, the researchers found four 'tensions' between what teachers believe and what they practice in the classroom:

I believe in X but my students expect me to do Y.

I believe in X but my students learn better through Y.

I believe in X but the curriculum requires me to do Y.

I believe in X but my learners are motivated by Y.

(Phipps and Borg 2009, p.387)

In this study, Phipps and Borg found that the teachers' stated beliefs about the teaching of grammar tended to reflect theories espoused in the communicative approach, such as

group work, contextualised grammar work and an inductive approach to grammatical form. Through classroom observation, however, teachers were found to be delivering lessons in a traditional, teacher-led, deductive manner. When this was queried with teachers using stimulated recall, the reasons provided formed part of the four tensions listed above. Teachers were found to consciously teach using approaches that contradicted their personal beliefs in order to meet learner expectations and external requirements such as the curriculum, and taking into consideration effectiveness of the contrasting approach, as well as learner motivation.

Similarly, Aksoy (2015), whose study focused on teachers' beliefs about classroom management, found that while teachers may have very strong stated beliefs about what they believe to be problem-causing behaviour in the classroom, their actions in response to this behaviour does not reflect their beliefs. In this instance, teachers' stated beliefs suggested a strict and authoritative approach to dealing with problematic learner behaviour, while analysis of observed classroom data found that such behaviour was often overlooked by the teacher and not responded to directly. When this was explored through stimulated recall, the teacher in question justified this by attributing her reactions to the behaviour to the individual students involved, stating that she would normally use a strict approach with other students, but not the one in question, or the recorded lesson was not representative of her normal responses. This finding raises an issue regarding comparison of teachers' stated beliefs and their recorded practices.

Research into the former has found that teachers' expressed beliefs tend to be 'theoretical or idealistic – beliefs about what *should* be' (Phipps and Borg 2009, p.382). When these are contrasted with what *is*, in terms of their actual classroom practice, the discrepancy between theory and practice becomes evident. Rather than starting from this

position of conflict, in order to catch teachers out by comparing their stated beliefs to their practices, it is suggested that practices are examined first, with beliefs collected through a method such as stimulated recall. In so doing, a more realistic understanding of the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices will emerge (Phipps and Borg 2009).

2.5.2 Teacher agency, identity, and classroom roles

The area of teacher agency will now be examined – a relatively new concept in studies of language-teacher cognition, although it has been a focus of research interest since the 1970s, grouped with concepts such as 'learner autonomy, initiative or intrinsic motivation' (Kajala *et al.* 2015 p.14). Research into teacher agency is largely homogenous in nature, and strongly influenced by sociocultural theories – situated as 'the interplay between the individual and the social' (Kajala *et al.* 2015 p.15). Taking a Vygotskyian view, agency is not 'merely about voluntary control over one's behaviour but is essentially a relationship that is co-constructed and co-negotiated with others in a social setting' (Lantolf and Thorne 2006). The Vygotskian approaches to teacher agency can be categorised under three main theoretical frameworks: activity theory (e.g. Johnson 2009; Feryok 2012; Kubanyiova and Feryok 2015), the Bahktinian dialogical framework (e.g. Ruohotie-Lyhty and Moate 2014), and complexity theory (e.g. Larsen-Freeman 2002; Kramsch 2009). Research under these frameworks has sought to eliminate the dichotomy between the individual and the social and can be grouped under the heading of non-individualistic theorisations. In this way, the concept of teacher agency can be understood as contextually and environmentally bound, and teacher beliefs and teacher agency are not exclusive, but rather mutually informing concepts.

The notion of agency is therefore inherently linked with the role the teacher assumes in the classroom, and how these role interplays with those of the learners.

When considering the interrelated roles of the teachers and learners, using metaphor analysis as a framework, Wan *et al.* (2011) found discrepancies between how teachers viewed their own roles in the classroom (co-worker, interest-arouser) and how the learners viewed the teachers' role (authority, culture-transmitter, instructor). When presented with the conflicting views, teachers disagreed with the learners' perceptions of them as authority figures – arguing that they developed individual, interpersonal relationships rather than maintaining an authoritative atmosphere. They did, however, acknowledge the importance of providing cultural content to learners, and stated that they would consider how to implement more of it. This discrepancy is illuminating, as the teachers' negative reaction was to a perception that challenged their belief of themselves as people, believing themselves to be nurturing and encouraging rather than authority figures. When presented with a conflict that only reflected the content of their lessons, they were much more accepting of it.

Conflict between teachers' beliefs of what is correct and appropriate in the classroom and their perceived beliefs of the learners (Mak 2011) was explored in a longitudinal study that documented the change in and conflict between one teacher's beliefs over the course of a teaching qualification programme. Mak found that one of the most significant areas of conflict for the teacher was between what learners were perceived to want and what and how she was expected to teach. Learners' perceived preferences were closely linked to interactivity and boredom, which the teacher associated with 'traditional' teaching approaches.

2.5.3 The relationship between teacher experience, beliefs, and classroom practices

Research into the relationship between teachers' experience and training and their beliefs and classroom practices has indicated that experienced teachers were more likely to favour more training and in-service teacher education as an important part of their teaching, while inexperienced teachers believe that their own personal teaching philosophy was the most important factor (Richards *et al.* 1992). Numerous studies of cognitions of language teachers at different stages of proficiency in the areas of decision-making and practical knowledge have been undertaken, but two that bear significance to the present study are those of Gatbonton (1999) and Nunan (1992). Gatbonton discovered that the most common pedagogical focus of the experienced ESL teachers in his study was language management, namely a focus on meaning-based instruction. Nunan, to the contrary, found that inexperienced teachers in particular did not express a significant concern for language, but were more concerned with administrative features of the class such as timing and task completion, as well as expressing concern about the proportion of their teacher talk and the effectiveness of their instructions.

Having presented the theoretical foundations underpinning the study of teacher expertise, teacher cognition and beliefs, we will now turn to focus on the learner. The following section will provide an overview of the field of SLA and its research foci, followed by consideration of an area of specific relevance to the present study : Sociocultural Theory.

2.6 Second Language Acquisition – Key Theories

The history of Second Language Acquisition research is comparatively short, generally agreed to have begun with the work of Corder (1967) and Selinker (1969, 1972) on learner errors, interlanguage and language transfer respectively. These papers challenged the view at the time that language learning was equivalent to picking up any other skill – just a matter of habit formation (Ellis, 2010).

Prior to the 1990s, SLA research could be divided into two main eras – the first was influenced by behaviourism, arguably made famous by the work of B.F Skinner (1957) and structural linguistics. Behaviourism is, as the name suggests, a theory which suggests that all human behaviour can be explained through environmental factors, rather than internal processes. The behaviourist view of language learning is based on the notions of conditioning and frequency – conditioning refers to positive or negative associations resulting from an action, while frequency refers to the strengthening of associations through repeated action or exposure. As such, language learning is considered in the same way as the development of any other habit or behaviour – through the learners responses' to external stimuli. Output is considered essential in this theory owing to the importance placed on positive or negative reinforcement, the idea being that if the learner receives positive reinforcement for an utterance they will continue to produce such utterances, while the inverse will be the case for negative responses. Teacher input is also vital in the behaviourist approach as models of the target language.

Behaviourism was closely linked to structural linguistics, which posits that language is based on a “finite set of predictable patterns”, and was presented in the analogy of

building blocks, which when put together in the correct way would form coherent utterances. Learner errors within the behaviourist-structuralist model were attributed to the issue of ‘transfer’, the phenomenon in which learner L1 impacted their acquisition of the target language. Thus, constant and consistent feedback, modelling of the target language, and learner repetition and imitation became engrained in the psyche of the language teaching profession.

The presence or absence of acquisition under this model were attributed to two main factors – L1 influence, and environmental influence. In the case of the former, learners with L1s which were structurally similar to the target language were expected to be more successful, or at least to experience less difficulty, than learners whose L1 differed significantly from the target language. The latter environmental factor in successful or unsuccessful language learning was linked to exposure and input of the target language that the learners experienced.

However, after empirical studies conducted into the behaviourist approach of SLA in the 1970s were found not to support these claims, research began to move towards other methods. The role of mental processes, lack of inclusion of which had been a foundation of behaviourist-structuralist SLA research, now came to the fore, with researchers conducting further investigation into L1 acquisition as a model for how L2s are acquired. Research into how children learn and produce language highlighted the improbability of input and environmental factors being significant elements of L1 acquisition.

Insights such as the above led to the development of the Creative Construction Hypothesis (Dulay and Burt 1972), which maintained that learners formulate hypotheses around language unconsciously, prompted by input. The processing of the input is controlled by mechanisms similar to those in use during L1 acquisition.

2.6.1 Sociocultural Theory

The impact of stressors on learners, and the importance of fostering learner self-confidence in order to facilitate learner, lead us to the next theoretical element underlying the present research. Socio-cultural theory is rooted in the concept that learning happens through social interaction, with the “most important forms of human cognitive activity develop(ing) through interaction with social and material environments” (Lantolf and Thorne 2006 p201). This is closely linked to language learning through the “tightly interwoven” (Spada and Lightbown 2006 p. 47) connection between speaking and thinking – the internalisation of the interaction in progress mediates the speaker’s next turn. In the case of language learning, the process of preparing to produce spoken language, in a manner appropriate and relevant to the interaction taking place requires a greater level of language processing than completing a gap fill activity, for example. Collaborative dialogue, therefore, allows for the co-occurrence of language use and language learning, with the language learning being constantly mediated by the language use (Swain 2000).

In addition to the vital importance of active learner participation, another central tenet of socio-cultural theory is the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) which is the gap between a learner’s ability to achieve an objective when working independently, and the

potential development of that ability when in collaboration with peers and more capable users of the language (Vygotsky 1978 p.86). The ZPD is the place where knowledge can be co-constructed, through the negotiation of meaning, with the assumption that eventually the learners will be able to achieve alone what they achieved with their peer (Lightbown and Spada 2006).

The dominant contemporary model of English language teaching, CLT, incorporates high levels of learner-learner interaction through pair and small-group activities which encourage production and co-construction of meaning. Teachers operating within a CLT context are therefore, consciously or otherwise, applying elements of socio-cultural theory to their classroom practice.

2.7 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented two of the three theoretical frameworks being applied in the present study: expert–novice theory and teacher cognition, and presented a brief introduction to a key theory of SLA – Sociocultural theory. The following chapter will turn to the area of classroom discourse, and research into teacher initiation and feedback will be given particular attention with regard to teacher discourse during these moves.

Chapter 3: Teacher classroom discourse – what is it and how is it studied?

'I talk constantly. I can't stop myself and nor do I want to.'

[T14]

3.1 Introduction

Having examined the theoretical background of the study of teacher classroom talk, in this chapter we will turn to focus on an examination of how the talk is used by teachers in the language classroom. The following section will explore key areas of research in classroom discourse analysis relevant to the present study – the initiation–response–feedback sequence, conversation analysis (CA), discourse analysis (DA) and corpus linguistics (CL) approaches to classroom discourse.

3.2 Research into teacher classroom discourse – an evolving discipline

Classroom discourse (CD) is the language used by teachers and learners to communicate with each other in pursuit of a common goal of language acquisition (Cazden 1988; Nunan 1993; Yang and Walsh 2014). This is a form of institutional discourse, the study of which has revealed similar characteristics in spoken interaction over a variety of institutional settings, such as prisons, hospitals, the armed forces, and educational contexts. While these contexts vary in terms of their interactional goals, all share a common feature – the unequal distribution of power and control between participants in the discourse used in order to achieve this goal (Mayr 2008). It is this asymmetrical relationship that, as we will see, forms the foundation of most interactions between

teachers and learners, and the study of how these interactions are managed provides valuable insights into the complex relationship between interaction and learning (Yang and Walsh 2014).

3.2.1 The IRF/E

Although research had taken place in the area of CD since the 1960s (Cazden 1988), the first landmark study into classroom interaction was undoubtedly that of Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), who shaped the field through their research into the interaction–response–feedback/evaluation (IRF/E) structure, or triadic discourse structure. Their model of classroom discourse, which built on Halliday's 1961 rank scale of grammar and was developed as a tool for analysing tightly structured institutional talk, clearly highlights the imbalance of discourse distribution in the classroom setting – this ‘triadic’ discourse model is dominated by the teacher, who is responsible for the majority of the interaction in the exchange. The IRF/E model breaks down classroom interaction into a five-tiered ranking system: lesson, transaction, exchange, move and act, in which the teacher ‘orchestrates the interaction’ (Breen 1998, p.119) and is always in the position of initiator – without the teacher’s participation the structure cannot be completed. The teacher also has the power to interrupt, change the topic, and end the conversation. The learners, therefore, are responsible for only one aspect of this structure: the response turn. A natural consequence of the teacher’s dominance of the interaction is that the teacher will speak more than the learners do, but the teacher must be cognisant of the potential limitation of learner production and how they can counter it by ‘moving the classroom into dialogic modes, [which] requires both skill and perseverance’ (Nystrand *et al.* 2003, p.141).

Opinion on the usefulness of the IRF/E exchange has varied, with some researchers comparing classroom discourse to courtroom discourse in its intentional minimisation of audience participation, upholding a teacher-dominant classroom norm (Drew and Heritage 1992; Nystrand 1997). Others (e.g. Maybin *et al.* 1992, Mercer 1995; Newman *et al.* 1997; Wells 1999; Temple Adger and Wright 2008) consider the IRF/E structure to be a useful facilitator that can guide groups of students towards a common goal – dialogic learning. The recognition of the importance of interaction in SLA and the value of learner participation has developed over the last three decades (van Lier 1988; Kumaravadivelu 1993, 1999; Seedhouse 2004; Walsh 2006, 2013; Sert 2015, 2017).

While the IRF/E model remains a useful tool for examining classroom interaction in terms of patterns and turn organisation, the model itself does not take into account the importance of the social aspect of learning, which is now considered under the sociocultural view of language learning a key factor in SLA (Hall and Walsh 2002). Despite its shortcomings, ‘an understanding of the IRF sequence enables us to model spoken language in the world outside the classroom, suggesting ways of constructing dialogues for teaching, role-plays for practising conversation, etc.’ (Walsh 2011, p.20).

Another perspective on the study of the IRF/E sequence and classroom discourse is that of monologicality versus dialogicality. Wells classified display questions, or known answer questions, as inherently dialogic, while referential, or negotiatory questions, are indicators of dialogicality. Although the IRF/E pattern of discourse inherently leans towards monologicality, teachers were seen to make space in the pattern for dialogic discourse. Wells (2007) gave the example of a Mathematics teacher beginning an interaction with a display, or ‘known-answer’, question, which was followed by the learner response. Rather than close the exchange through the use of a feedback move,

the teacher responded with another question, seeking expansion from the learner about their initial response. In the exchange in question, this pattern repeated more than four times without any feedback move from the teacher, which Wells interprets as an attempt by the teacher to foster an ‘inquiry approach’, in an effort to make the interaction more dialogic. Although the modern EFL classroom is not intended to be monologic in nature, Wells found that monologic interaction persisted, despite teachers’ best efforts to promote dialogic discourse (Wells 2007). This has been attributed to the reliance on the IRF/E sequence within the English language classroom – the teacher generally poses a ‘known-answer’ or display question, which is responded to by the learner(s), and then evaluated by the teacher according to the prescribed text or material, which is not intended to be challenged by the learners. The correct or desired response having been achieved, the teacher moves on to initiate a new sequence. Although dialogue is taking place in the most fundamental of terms – teachers and learners are interacting, and the interaction is not entirely one-sided – this process has been characterised as ‘a teacher lecture enacted in the form of a teacher–student dialogue’ (Nassaji and Wells 2000, p.11). According to Molinari and Mameli (2010, pp. 3857–3858), ‘the dominance in classrooms of the teacher’s voice at the expense of the pupils’ own meaning-making voices constitutes one of the main barriers to the implementation of genuine dialogic teaching’. Regardless, attempts are being made to integrate a more genuine dialogicality into classroom discourse through teacher management of the third turn of the IRF/E sequence – the teacher feedback or evaluation turn – through the implementation of follow-up questions, encouragement of peer-response, and elaboration on learner turns (e.g. Cullen 2002; Hall 2002; Hall and Walsh 2002; Gutiérrez 2008).

3.2.2 Conversation analysis in classroom discourse

Although conversation analysis (CA) is often associated with applied linguistics, it originated in the field of sociology and began as a means of examining conversation as social action. In CA, interaction is examined in relation to meaning and context, and the sequence of actions or utterances are a central factor. Heritage (1997, p.162) stated that ‘the meaning of an action is heavily shaped by the sequence of previous actions from which it emerges, and that social context is a dynamically created thing that is expressed in and through the sequential organisation of interaction’. Heritage referred to interaction as both context-shaped and context-renewing – contributions are dependent on the previous ones, and subsequent contributions shape those that are to come later (Heritage 1997, p.163). Given that the majority of tasks and goals in institutional settings, such as classrooms, are conducted through talk-in-interaction (Drew and Heritage 1992), which is essentially conversation, the use of CA in these settings can account for the way in which context is created for and by the participants in relation to the activity they are engaged in. Specific features commonly examined in relation to institutional talk are organisation of turns, design of turns, sequence organisation, lexical choice and asymmetry of roles (Heritage 1997). The language classroom is, therefore, a clear example of an institutional setting with asymmetrical roles, goal-oriented activities, and context that is constantly being created for and by participants through the classroom interaction.

While the discourse of L2 classrooms does not have – and perhaps should not be interpreted as having – any resemblance to non-institutionally situated conversation, there are nonetheless good reasons for using a CA methodology:

The point is not that classroom talk ‘should’ resemble conversation, since most of the time for practical purposes it cannot, but that institutionalised talk [...] shows a heightened use of procedures which have their ‘base’ in ordinary conversation and are more clearly understood through comparison with it.

(Edwards and Westgate 1994, p.116)

The relevance of CA methodology to the second language classroom is clear – classroom talk involves multiple participants and turn-taking, often with clearly defined goals in each interaction. A 1997 study by Firth and Wagner suggested that language teachers should move their focus from linguistic matters such as ‘input, innate knowledge, cognitive factors, linguistic processing, mental representations of L2 grammars, and mechanisms and processes in interlanguage change, where it is now, to a “more balanced” treatment of cognitive and (largely unspecified) social factors’ (Long 1997, p.141). The publication of this article was a shot across the bows in a years-long debate that had been simmering amongst SLA researchers about where the focus of research should be (Gass *et al.* 2007), leading to an in-group/out-group mentality among many in the field. Firth and Wagner had not been recognised as SLA scholars (Gass *et al.* 2007, p.791) and their views were therefore considered as an attack from outsiders. Although the idea that SLA researchers should give up their ‘preoccupation with what goes on in the learner’s mind’ (Long 2007, p.141) was not accepted, it was acknowledged that how and when learners use language is a contributing factor to eventual acquisition (Larsen-Freeman 2002). Since this period of debate, prompted largely by Firth and Wagner, more emphasis has been placed on contextual and interactional aspects of classroom talk-in-interaction, with less focus on cognitive processes and more on individual participants. This led to the field known as

conversation analysis for second language acquisition (CA-SLA), which focuses on micro-details of recorded interaction, to document ‘micro-moments’ of learning and understanding by drawing on participants’ understanding of the interaction. Analysis by the observer of vocal and non-vocal resources, such as words and grammar, pace, body language, etc., reveal this perspective.

Research into the use of CA for studies of classroom interaction was pioneered by Seedhouse (2004), who established that within the core institutional goal of the interaction – that the teacher will teach the learners the L2 – there exist three interactional properties that are directly derived from the core goal. These properties are rooted in the notion that institutional discourse is essentially context-free, in that, regardless of the learner profile or educational context, the core goal will remain the same. This is unaltered by the teaching approach, with the structure of classroom discourse remaining essentially the same even if the teacher follows an approach that is more learner-centred. Although each institute may have its own interactional ‘fingerprint’ (Drew and Heritage 1992, p.19), the baseline of interaction will be unchanged.

The three properties identified by Seedhouse, which are constant and context-independent, are:

1. Language is both the vehicle and object of instruction.
2. There is a reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction and interactants constantly display their analyses of the evolving relationship between pedagogy and interaction.
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 2009, p.2)

The first property is one that adds a layer of complexity to all analyses of L2 classroom interaction – while in other contexts language is only the vehicle of teaching (e.g. in a Geography lesson), in the second language classroom the language is also the object of teaching – both the process and product of the interaction (Long 1983). As a result of this there is a reflexive relationship between teaching and interaction – the language of the teacher not only structures and organises the discourse but plays a pedagogical role as a model of the language. Lastly, the evaluation and feedback that take place in L2 interaction, either positive or corrective, are ‘central to the process of language learning’ (van Lier 1988, p.32) and are inescapable in L2 institutional discourse.

With these properties in mind, and considering the core goal of L2 classroom interaction, Seedhouse posited a basic sequence organisation, which begins with the introduction of a pedagogical focus (normally by the teacher); the pedagogical focus is oriented by some interaction in the L2 by a minimum of two interactants; and the pedagogical focus is analysed and evaluated by the participants in turns. The pedagogical focus is explicitly linked to the participants’ interactions, with their turns moulding and shaping the sequence as it develops.

We will now turn to discourse analysis to examine how input is studied in the classroom. The following section will outline the field of discourse analysis, including the research areas of classroom discourse analysis and interaction analysis.

3.3 Discourse analysis

Classroom discourse analysis is a field of study that developed from the broader area of discourse analysis, which examines the use of language at multiple levels of communication: written, spoken (monologue, dialogue or group conversation), and in a variety of settings. Discourse analysis is ‘the study of how meanings are produced, and of which meanings prevail in society’ (Iedema 2007, p.389). Cunliffe (2008, p.81) goes further and suggests that ‘Discourse analysts study the structures of meaning, expressions, themes, routine ways of talking, and rhetorical devices used in constructing reality’. The aim of discourse analysis is not only to analyse communication at sentence level, but also to look at authentically occurring communication in use in natural contexts, for its internal and external structure and logic (McCarthy 1992; Gee 2005).

Discourse analysis is employed in a variety of arenas, particularly legal, political and medical, and in schools and universities. The study of classroom discourse has been conducted under a variety of research methodologies, most commonly through the lens of pragmatics and conversation analysis. Pragmatics is the study of language in context, and the difference between the speaker’s intended meaning (illocutionary force) and their literal meaning (locutionary force). This is evidently relevant to the study of classroom discourse, and in particular the effective use of teacher classroom talk, as the gap between intended meaning on the part of the teacher and meaning inferred by learners can result in misunderstanding at best and reinforce incorrect or inadequate production at worst. In all realms of human communication effective conveyance of meaning is crucial, but even more so when meaning is obscured by the involvement of a second language. Context also plays a part in pragmatics, which has also been defined as meaning in interaction, as well as language in context.

The dynamic and variable nature of meaning, with some utterances conveying several meanings depending on context, is an element of second language teaching that teachers are rarely instructed in. Assumed knowledge on behalf of the learner can often stem from a teacher's lack of awareness of the learners' first language or their abilities according to their stage of the CEFR. It is unreasonable to put the responsibility of learning these contextual peculiarities on the learner, as it is considered one of the most challenging aspects of SLA for learners (Hymes 1972, 1996), and it is something that teachers need to be aware of in relation to their own classroom talk.

3.4 Approaches to classroom discourse analysis

The following section will discuss several approaches to classroom discourse analysis; including classroom interaction analysis, classroom interactional competence, and communicative interaction.

3.4.1 Classroom interaction analysis

Classroom interaction analysis involves the use of predetermined categories during observation, which describe spoken interaction between teacher and learners. These or similar categories are commonly encountered during observations of teachers during teacher training, or by managers of in-service teachers, and tend to include areas such as rapport, feedback and elicitation. The origin of such observation procedure was undoubtedly the Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories (1970), which codified teacher–learner interaction into ten numerical categories. This framework was adapted for use in numerous observation schemes over the following several decades (Chaudron

1998). In practice, this analysis framework would quantify interaction between the teacher and learners and could be used to highlight the quantity and proportion of teacher talk, learner talk, confusion, and positive and negative reinforcement. Because this system results in purely quantitative data, there is no exploration or consideration of the depth of interaction taking place, as the observer is merely labelling the action according to a predetermined scheme. What is actually being said by the teacher and the learner is not noted, and the value of this type of classroom observation is in its exposure of patterns and ratios of classroom interaction according to a given set of standards (van Lier 1988).

Allen, Frohlich and Spada's Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) observation scheme (1984) was a development of classroom interaction analysis that aimed to capture differences between different aspects of communicative instruction (e.g. deductive and inductive) and contained 73 categories of interaction. All categories are binary distinctions and include the learner response as well as the teacher turn, allowing for a more detailed, communicatively focused form of interaction analysis. The COLT observation scheme was praised for its capacity to highlight those interactions in which instruction is predominantly communicatively oriented, and those in which it is not. The scheme, however, still had some of the same limitations as previous iterations of classroom interaction analysis, in that it is intended to produce quantitative results only and does not provide the full picture of the reality of the classroom. Spada and Frohlich (1995, p.10) themselves recommended supplementation of the COLT scheme with qualitative, 'detailed discourse analysis of the conversational interactions between teachers and students'.

3.4.2 Classroom discourse analysis

The integration of discourse analytical approaches into second language observation studies began to develop to a significant degree in the 1980s, with Allwright's 1980 study on participation patterns – motivated by the intention of broadening the study of classroom discourse to beyond mere observations of teacher effectiveness (Allwright 1988, p.171). This study differed from previous schemes of classroom interaction observation, as it viewed patterns of participation that emerged from the data rather than assigning *a priori* categories. This study also attempted to describe the individual behaviour of learners, as well as teachers, rather than considering learner behaviour to be homogenous. The interpretation of data was largely qualitative, with some quantitative elements, but following an ethnographic framework. Van Lier (1988, p.24) also used an ethnographic approach to the study of classroom interaction, emphasising the importance of 'the social context in which language development takes place'. These studies by van Lier and Allwright, along with Kumaravadivelu (1991, 1993), highlighted the value of multiple perspectives in classroom discourse analysis – the teacher, the learner, and the observer. In conducting pre- and post-observation interviews with teachers following a video-recorded class, Kumaravadivelu (1991) was able to identify sources of 'mismatch' between the teacher's intention and the observer's interpretation of classroom behaviours.

Carter and McCarthy (1994, p.38) describe discourse analysis for language teaching as requiring consideration of 'the higher-order operations of language at the interface of cultural and ideological meanings and returning to the lower-order forms of language which are often crucial to the patterning of such meanings'. In this way, they highlight

the importance of sociocultural factors when conducting a discourse analytical study.

According to Kumaravadivelu (1999, p.473), classroom discourse analysis attempts ‘to describe the processes internal to classroom aims and events in order to inform teachers of the limitations facing them as teachers, information they can use to further their self-development’. Classroom discourse analysis therefore has an informative function, unlike the normative function of classroom interaction analysis.

3.4.3 Classroom interactional competence

A relevant construct to the study of classroom discourse, and teacher talk in particular, is that of ‘classroom interactional competence’ (CIC), which refers to ‘teachers’ and learners’ ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning’ (Walsh 2006, p.158). CIC derives from the concept of ‘interactional competence’ (Kramsch 1986; Markee 2008). Given that in the English as a second language classroom English is both the means of instruction and the goal (Walsh 2006), teachers must modify their speech in order to match the level of understanding and linguistic awareness of the learners (Chaudron and Richards 1986). This occurs not just in delivery of instructions, but also in presentation of language content. Teachers modify and manage their speech to prevent learners from ‘getting lost’ (Breen 1998), as, logically, learners will not be able to acquire the target language and progress if they cannot understand the teacher. Long and Sato (1983) suggest that expansion and question strategies are the most frequently used in teacher language modification with teachers often simplifying the grammar being used, using a limited range of tenses and fewer modal verbs, with less idiomatic or regional vocabulary. Teachers use strategies such as CCQs and ICQs (comprehension checking and instruction checking questions) to confirm that their

speech is being understood by learners, and confirmation checks such as asking for clarification, reformulating and recasting (Weber and Tardiff 1991). These features are examples of CIC in use, as teachers shape learners' contributions to enhance language development and facilitate the learning process (Walsh 2013, p.32). Elicitation techniques are used by teachers to extract responses or utterances from learners. These generally take the form of questions, and are the teachers' means of controlling the discourse. This aspect of classroom discourse, along with repair in the form of corrective feedback, will be addressed in detail in later chapters.

3.4.4 Communicative interaction

Lastly in this section, the notion of communicativeness in teacher talk will be examined. Teacher classroom discourse has been described in relation to its lack of similarity to non-institutional talk, particularly in regard to the lack of opportunities created by teachers for communicative interaction to take place (Thornbury 1996). For teacher talk to be truly communicative in nature, Thornbury argues, it should replicate features of conversation taking place outside the classroom, such as speech modification, referential questions, negotiation of meaning through clarification requests, and content feedback. Cullen (1998, p.182) noted several features of teacher talk that are 'non-communicative':

- i. overuse of display questions;
- ii. form-focused feedback, i.e. feedback which emphasizes language correctness rather than the content;
- iii. echoing or rephrasing of students' responses, when the teacher repeats or reformulates what a learner has just said for the benefit of the whole class

- iv. sequences of predictable IRF discourse patterns. These are the Initiate-Response and Follow-up moves described by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), in which the teacher initiates the sequence (by typically asking a question), a student responds, and the teacher provides feedback before initiating another IRF sequence;
- v. teacher-initiated and dominated talk.

These features are deemed non-communicative by Cullen for their rarity in conversational interaction taking place outside the classroom, but he acknowledges that the context and goals of the classroom itself must be considered with a view to integrating communicative elements into the teachers' discourse.

The following section will discuss the role of corpus linguistics research into the study of teacher input in classroom interaction, as well as corpus linguistics studies of teacher discourse outside the classroom.

3.5 Corpus linguistics in classroom discourse studies

A corpus has been defined as a substantial collection of texts (Biber *et al.* 1998) that are 'representative of a particular variety of language, and which can be stored and manipulated using a computer' (McEnery and Wilson 1996, p.59). Francis (1982, p.7) further determined a corpus as 'a collection of texts assumed to be representative of a given language, dialect, or other subset of a language'. Corpus linguistics deals, in the main, with 'large, principled databases of naturally occurring language' (Conrad 2000, p.548), which are generally categorised into spoken or written databases, known as corpora. As well as being a valuable tool in the study of language itself, CL

methodology has in recent decades been applied to how the language is being used in a variety of discourse settings.

While CL was commonly used from the 1960s in the field of lexicography (Tognini-Bonelli and Sinclair 2006), there was a widespread lack of interest in using corpora for the purposes of language education, which has been attributed to a disregard for the importance of everyday language in the study of language form and structure (Sinclair 2007). This viewpoint gradually altered, owing to the realisation that CL could provide valuable information on lexical and phraseological structure, thereby contributing to the teaching of such forms (McEnery and Wilson 1996; Sinclair 2004). Since the widespread acceptance of the significance of CL to language teaching, broadly acknowledged to have been in the early 1990s (McEnery and Wilson 1996), the availability of CL tools and published research has made the integration of CL methods into language education research far more accessible (Leech 1997; Bernadini 2004; Tognini-Bonelli and Sinclair 2006).

This accessibility has been facilitated by the often free and open access to corpora online. The British National Corpus (BNC), the Cambridge English Corpus and the Cambridge Learner Corpus, the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and the British Academic Spoken English (BASE) corpus are all, at the time of writing, available online, and are generally user-friendly in design. These examples refer only to standard English language corpora, but it goes without saying that large and small corpora exist for numerous languages and dialects – an example relevant to the discourse context of the present study is the Limerick Corpus of Irish English (L-CIE), which has yielded some interesting research in the field of corpus linguistics and corpus

pragmatics in particular (Barker and O’Keeffe 1999; Clancy and Vaughan 2013). The relatively recent expansion of CL into a more diverse range of contexts can possibly be accounted for by a combination of ease of access and accessibility of corpora themselves, the availability of free CL software, and a growth in digital literacy more generally in the past two decades. These factors have resulted in a proliferation of CL studies that collect data directly from language classrooms (Mukherjee and Rohrbach 2006). As well as the seminal research of Biber, Conrad and Reppen (1994, 1998, 2002) into corpus-based classroom research, the recent work of researchers such as Nicaise (2015) and Farrell (2019) has provided valuable insights into both learner language and the practices of teachers. In addition, CL research focusing on the discourse of teachers outside the classroom (e.g. Farr 2005, 2008, 2011; O’Keeffe and Farr 2019; Vaughan 2008, 2009; Morton and Gray 2010; Riordan 2018) has provided an insight into the beliefs and cognitions of ELT teachers, both pre- and in-service.

3.5.1 Corpus-based studies of classroom discourse

Large-scale studies into classroom discourse that focus on teacher talk, of speakers of English both as L1 and L2, have hitherto been primarily concentrated in the university context. These studies have focused on areas such as discourse organisation, lexical chunking, discourse markers and reflexive language use among teachers and lecturers (Chaudron and Richards 1986; Cazden 1988; Flowerdew 1994; Mauranen 2001; Biber *et al.* 2002). In the context of the EFL classroom, Walsh (2006) developed three corpora pertaining to EFL classroom talk – a 100,000-word corpus of classroom recordings in a British university, a 65,000-word corpus of reflective feedback interviews, and a 50,000-word corpus of stimulated-recall interviews with the same group of teachers, which was

used in the development of the Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT) framework. More recently, Nicaise (2015) developed a 180,000-word corpus of native and non-native EFL teacher classroom discourse in the Belgian post-primary context, with the aim of identifying teacher talk as a distinct genre, as well as identifying features of native speaker classroom talk that could be adopted by non-native speaking teachers to improve comprehensibility and effectiveness. Farrell (2019) built a 60,000-word corpus of classroom talk of trainees during the practicum of an MA TESOL programme, with data from experienced and novice teachers, which focused on the use of standard and non-standard English among the trainees. These studies provide valuable data into the classroom talk of English language teachers at various stages in their careers and in differing contexts.

The above-mentioned corpus studies deal with teacher talk inside the classroom, while the following examples deal with the discourse of teachers outside the classroom. These studies cover a range of contexts – from lesson-planning, to staff meetings, to post-observation feedback sessions. In the case of the former context, Morton and Gray (2010) developed a corpus of teacher discourse during lesson planning conferences, between teacher educators and student teachers. The Post-Observation Trainer Trainee Interaction (POTTI) corpus (Farr 2005), an 80,000-word sub-corpus (McEnery *et al.* 2006, p.350) of the Limerick Corpus of Irish English (L-CIE) (Farr *et al.* 2002) was developed using face-to-face trainer-trainee interactions after observed teaching practice sessions. Riordan (2018), following the framework set out by Farr, developed the 82,000-word Teacher Education Corpus of Student Teacher and Peer Tutor Interactions (TEC-SPI), which deals with online modes of trainer-trainee interaction as well as face-to-face. The last of these corpus-based studies of teacher discourse deals with teacher

discourse outside the classroom and, unlike the other examples mentioned, outside the context of interaction with a trainer, focusing on the discourse of teachers during staff meetings (Vaughan 2009). The Corpus of Meetings of English Language Teachers (C-MELT) was compiled in two professional settings – the English language department of a Mexican public university, and a private language school in Ireland – examining the nature of professional ‘backstage talk’ (Goffman 1971) among EFL teachers.

The above-mentioned studies have all yielded valuable findings regarding the discourse of English language teachers through the use of corpus linguistics methodology, but in most cases could not be considered as *pure* CL studies, with researchers often employing additional approaches in concert with CL tools. Although CL is a valuable methodological tool in the study of classroom discourse, it has its limitations when the broader context beyond word or phrase level requires consideration (Walsh *et al.* 2011). In order to mitigate this limitation researchers have combined traditional CL approaches with other methods, such as conversation analysis (CL/CA) and corpus-assisted discourse studies (CADS), which will be examined in detail in the following chapter.

Finally, before presenting the features under focus in the present study – teacher initiation and feedback – we will first consider the contexts within which the turns and their relevant features take place, using Walsh’s (2006) SETT model as a framework.

3.5.2 Classroom modes

A key element of the SETT framework is the four classroom ‘micro-contexts’, referred to as ‘modes’ (McCarthy and Walsh 2003), into which teacher discourse can be categorised. The modes are:

Skills and systems mode (main focus is on particular language items, vocabulary or a specific skill)

Managerial mode (main focus is on setting up an activity)

Classroom context mode (main focus is on eliciting feelings, attitudes and emotions of learners)

Materials mode (main focus is on the use of text, tape or other materials).

(McCarthy and Walsh 2003, p.126)

Managerial mode is used to ‘locate the lesson, either temporally or pedagogically’ (Walsh 2003, p.113) in that it functions to situate the task within the context of the lesson as a whole, or in terms of how it relates to previous or future lessons, and also to establish the ‘why’ for learners. This mode usually occurs at the beginning of lessons, or lesson stages, or during transitions between stages, and functions as a support to other modes. Teachers use managerial mode to manage learner interaction with the teacher and other students, to signal changing the pace and purpose of the lesson, and to differentiate between different types of learning. Discourse markers are often used here as a means of verbal punctuation of the lesson to facilitate cohesion and to provide a roadmap for learners. Walsh characterises managerial mode as one long teacher turn with a lack of learner involvement until the teacher invites it.

Materials mode often co-occurs with systems and skills mode (introduced below) in that the pedagogic goals and target language are based on the material being used by the teacher and learners. Interactions in materials mode tend to see the IRF/E pattern matching closely with the materials being used, such as gap-fill activity, open cloze, reading comprehension or otherwise; the teacher will generally use this material as the framework for interaction. In this mode ‘teacher and learner turns are mirrored by the material [...] with each teacher turn functioning as both an evaluation of a learner’s contribution and initiation of another one’ (Walsh 2003). This mode necessarily limits the scope for interaction, as the objective is the checking and practice of target language, based on the material in use. The teacher’s management of learner interaction is often restricted to nomination – the elicitation of responses from specific learners or the group at large - and the focus tends to be on accuracy of form rather than fluency or meaning.

Skills and systems mode involves more interactional support from the teacher than in previous modes, with an emphasis on scaffolding, repair and creating opportunities for noticing patterns and structures forming the basis of the teacher’s objectives in this mode. Learners are encouraged to co-construct meaning, and teacher elicitation is a significant feature in this mode, and it is in skills and systems mode that we can expect to encounter explicit correction and extended teacher turns. In classroom context mode the focus is on genuine communication, with the teacher playing less of a role in turn organisation, and learners managing the interaction themselves. The predominant features of classroom context mode are the shift from focus on form to focus on content and the comparative lack of teacher input.

Although each of the modes has its own distinct features and functions, Walsh acknowledges that clear demarcation of the modes is often difficult, and multiple modes can often occur simultaneously. In most cases, however, a primary and secondary (and occasionally tertiary) mode will be evident. Walsh gives the example of a classroom context mode interaction between learners who are discussing cryogenics, which briefly shifts into skills and systems mode when one of the learners is struggling to produce the correct lexical item for the conversation topic. The two learners attempt to come up with an appropriate word together before returning to the conversational focus. Walsh refers to this phenomenon as a ‘mode side sequence’ (p.133) wherein the primary mode is defined as the mode within which the main objective of the task is situated, and the secondary mode is ancillary to this objective but does not detract from it.

The mode descriptions and examples provided in the SETT framework were used in the present study as a point of reference when applying pragmatic codes to the DUBCOTT Corpus, a process that will be further detailed in Chapter 4.

With the above in mind, we will now examine key features of classroom discourse relevant to this study – namely teacher initiation and feedback turns, both positive and corrective.

3.6 Features of teacher classroom discourse

A key factor of classroom discourse in the language classroom is the fact that the language being used is both ‘the vehicle and the object of study’ (Long 1983, p.37) As conversation, contrived or otherwise, is the primary means of establishing and achieving

goals, a level of complexity is added by the fact that the interactants must navigate layers of meaning in the language they are learning.

3.6.1 The teacher turn

A pervading issue in the study of classroom discourse, and one of its most significant features, relates to the asymmetrical nature of classroom discourse – the teacher's control of the interaction. In the language classroom, the teacher controls the interactions through their position of power, particularly in the context of turns. Owing to this imbalance of power, the teacher is 'institutionally the most powerful person in the class' (O'Connor and Michaels 2007, p.277).

3.6.2 Initiation

Questions and their responses are the most dominant form of interaction in conversational settings and are used as a method of elicitation in the English language classroom (Long 1981; Farr 2003; O'Keeffe and Farr 2003). In triadic discourse, as described above, questions are the most common form of initiation, the first turn in the exchange. From empirical research into classroom discourse it was determined that in the formal classroom setting the majority of questions asked by teachers were display questions – questions that 'ask the respondent to provide, or to display knowledge of, information already known by the questioner' (Brock 1986, p.48). During informal conversation settings, however, referential questioning comprised 76% of the speakers' questions in this study (Brock 1986). Referential questions are ones to which the questioner does not already know the answer, and it is logical that these would occur in

more conversational and less academic dialogues. Questions are given an intellectual or cognitive level, such as those laid out in Bloom's taxonomy (1956), which displays a range of levels, from recall of factual information, which is the lowest cognitive level, to evaluative questions at the other end of the scale.

Bloom's taxonomy of questions is a useful tool for categorising teachers' questioning and the function intended by the teacher. In relation to English language teaching, question types corresponding with each of the stages of Bloom's scale are used at various stages of the lesson and for various tasks. During skills lessons, such as speaking, reading, writing and listening, the three latter elements – evaluation, analysis and synthesis – are more useful for learners. In systems lessons, focusing on grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, we can apply the first three categories of knowledge, application and comprehension to our current examination of the teacher classroom talk.

Display questions, which check information known by both parties, are generally on the lower end of the scale, while referential questions often call for the responder's opinion or judgement, placing them at the higher end. Using Long and Sato (1983) as a framework, we can therefore determine that the majority of questions in the ESL classroom are lower-order questions, by virtue of the high preponderance of display questions in use. Studies conducted by Wilson (1973) and Arnold (1974) established that an increase, however slight, in the mean cognitive level of the teachers' questions resulted in a corresponding increase in the mean cognitive level of the response. Similarly, it has been suggested that the length and syntactic complexity of responses to display questions was less than in the responses to referential questions (Cole and Williams 1973; Smith 1978; Dillon 1981, 1982). Brock (1986) conducted a study to

investigate whether, with coaching, an increase in the number of referential questions asked by ESL teachers, measuring the corresponding learner responses, resulting in a significant increase in learner turn length and syntactic complexity. Brock also found that ‘confirmation-checks’ – questions asked after the response to a display question in order to ensure learner comprehension and allow for further learner output – were used so infrequently as to be unmeasurable, despite having formed part of the experimental group’s instruction. Brock suggests, therefore, that there is a positive link between referential questioning and learner output, which is a key feature of successful second language acquisition (Canale and Swain 1983).

Later researchers (Nunan 1987; Suter 2001; Morell 2007) agreed that the use of referential questions requires learners to exploit far more of their lexico-grammatical resources in order to provide a response, while also employing higher-order reasoning skills. Some authors (Markee 1995; Lee 2006), however, suggest that display questions can potentially be central resources that language teachers and students use to organise language lessons and produce language pedagogy. It has not yet been established which of the question types can be considered the more useful or effective, as each possesses their pros and cons according to the stage of the lesson and the teacher’s needs at that time (Suter 2001).

The following section will outline significant research into feedback – positive and corrective – and examine the theories and pedagogical strategies thereof. Feedback is generally understood to be the teacher’s turn in the IRF/E exchange, defined by Richards and Schmidt (2002, p.199) as ‘comments or other information that learners receive

concerning their success on learning tasks or tests, either from the teacher or other persons'.

3.6.3 Positive feedback

A vast amount of research into corrective feedback (CF) has been produced, providing detailed considerations and analyses of effective and ineffective techniques and producing clear categories and subcategories within the broader area of CF (e.g. Lyster and Ranta 1997; Gass and Mackey 2006; Ranta and Lyster 2007; Long, 2007; Lyster, Saito and Sato 2013); this will be examined in the following section. The same attention has not, however, been paid in the research literature to CF's mirror image – positive feedback. Positive feedback refers to the acknowledgement by a teacher of a correct or preferred utterance produced by a learner (Molloy and Boud 2014), rather than the acknowledgement of an error or dispreferred utterance which prompts a CF act (Lyster and Ranta 1997). The absence of positive feedback in the pantheon of teacher discourse features can be accounted for by the misapprehension of positive feedback as being purely linked to praise (Brophy 1981) and also the teacher's positive feedback turn being perceived as 'ambiguous' during discourse analytical turns (Ellis 2009, p.3). One of the main affordances of the CADS approach in the present study is that such ambiguity is lessened by the researcher's close reading and familiarity with the text and the context within which it was produced.

Although the benefits of corrective feedback have long been argued (Krashen 1981), the importance of praise and positive reinforcement in the classroom is a much less contentious issue (Nunan 1990, 1991). The principal functions of positive feedback are,

first and foremost, to indicate a correct utterance, but also to praise the effort behind the utterance and increase motivation, and positive feedback has been noted to have a perceptible effect on learner behaviour. As with corrective feedback, however, positive feedback should be delivered in an effective way. Brophy (1981) suggests four strategies for the provision of effective positive feedback:

- it should be delivered contingently, specifying the specific reason for the praise;
- it should be spontaneous and varied;
- learners should be encouraged to identify their own problem-solving ability; and
- be recognised for their own efforts and progress.

Ineffective feedback, in contrast, is delivered at random, is too global or non-specific, and indicates a uniformity of response from the teacher, regardless of learner output (Brophy 1981). The automaticity of feedback is something that teachers should be aware of – while corrective feedback has a specific goal of identifying error and prompting correction, the reason for providing positive feedback can seem much more nebulous. Recent studies into positive feedback have highlighted its value in building learner self-esteem, promoting motivation, encouraging participation, and reducing learner anxiety (Black and William 2009; Irving *et al.* 2011; Fagan 2014). The recipient of feedback is also something that teachers must consider, as unconscious – although sometimes conscious – biases for and against certain students can become evident during positive feedback sessions. Failing to praise consistently low achieving or ‘difficult’ students for correct utterances or accomplishments, while praising ‘good’ students for non-exceptional or normal levels of work is an implicit means of indicating disapproval or dislike (Good and Brophy 1987). Reigel (2008) identified that teachers were more likely

to provide praise to learners who were the highest achievers in the class and were on the cusp of progressing to the next level of proficiency in their institute, while Jenks (2013) noted more occurrences of evaluative praise in interactions between L1 and L2 English users, making reference to metalinguistic features, than ‘perfunctory praise’ utterances such as ‘well done’.

The nature of the positive feedback move, which has been categorised into distinct acts in the present study, detailed in the following chapter and in Appendix O, has a direct impact on the opportunities for learner production immediately following the positive feedback move. Wong and Waring (2008) found that learners orient to the positive feedback utterance ‘very good’ as a sequence-closing turn, which did not serve to prompt further learner contribution. Positive feedback can then be seen as an inhibitor of learner production, unlike corrective feedback, which in most cases requires another learner turn before the sequence is closed.

3.6.4 Corrective feedback

As previously noted, extensive research into corrective feedback (CF) has been ongoing since the 1970s, beginning with descriptive studies (Chaudron 1977) and leading to later, experimental research (e.g. Lyster 2004; Ellis *et al.* 2006; Russell and Spada 2006; Li 2010; Lyster and Saito 2010). Although the efficacy of CF has been argued, it has been acknowledged that effect size in laboratory settings can vary greatly from that of classroom settings, with higher effect sizes for both immediate and delayed post-tests in laboratory examples (Li 2010). In classroom settings it is more difficult to control for consistency, as the classroom is by nature more unpredictable than the lab, with more

variables likely to occur. Yet while laboratory studies of CF's value appear to yield more promising results, 'classroom-based studies are most likely to lead to a better understanding about the kind of interaction that occurs in classrooms where the teacher is the only proficient speaker and interacts with a large number of learners' (Lightbown and Spada 2009, p.159).

Although researchers such as Krashen (1981), Nunan (1991), and Truscott (1999) have theorised that positive evidence, or positive feedback, is sufficient for second language learners, and, indeed, that negative evidence in the form of corrective feedback can be detrimental to L2 learners, the research appears to agree on the importance not only of corrective feedback but of how it is conducted. When considering how learners should be corrected, we must first consider whether or not they should be corrected at all. The question of when to correct varies according to the language teaching methodology being applied. Ur (1996, p.243) commented that 'negative assessment is to be avoided as far as possible since it functions as "punishment" and may inhibit or discourage learning'; in humanistic methods 'assessment should be positive or non-judgemental' in order to 'promote a positive self-image of the learner as a person and language learner', while in skill-learning theory 'the learner needs feedback on how well he or she is doing'. Ur, however, questions the usefulness of spending time on correction, when the focus should rather be on ensuring that the errors do not happen. When an error is acceptable is one of the key considerations to take into account when deciding whether or not to correct. Scrivener (2005, p.299) states that in accuracy-focused tasks immediate correction is appropriate and likely to be useful, but if the aim is fluency, then lengthy, immediate correction that diverts from the flow of speaking is less appropriate. During fluency work, both Ur and Scrivener suggest that the teacher either

provide ‘gentle, supportive intervention’ (Ur 1996, p.243) or wait until the activity is ended to provide delayed correction (Scrivener 2005, p.299). Harmer (1983) advises against intervention during fluency work, as it is not a time for teachers to insist on accuracy.

There are arguments for and against delayed correction – an approach in which the teacher would take note of errors happening during communicative or fluency activities and use them in an error-correction activity at a later stage in the lesson. While doing delayed correction can help foster learner confidence when producing language in open class (Hedge 2000), it does not allow the learner to make the direct link between their incorrect utterance and this error in general.

Over-correction of errors is something to be avoided, as learners ‘can only use just so much feedback information: to give too much may simply distract, discourage and actually detract from the value of learning’ (Ur 1996, p.255). Correction itself is, however, something learners want, as well as need. A common instruction in teaching guides is to follow Corder’s (1967) distinction between slips or mistakes and errors. An error is something that the learner has not yet acquired and represents a gap in their knowledge. Errors often occur when a new form is being learned and are a feature of learner interlanguage (Selinker 1972). A mistake is something that the learner has already acquired but has misused. Determining between these two can be challenging for new or poorly trained teachers. The correction of ‘global’ errors (Burt 1975), ones that impede the comprehensibility of the learner utterance, has been advocated.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified six strategies of corrective feedback – explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic comments, repetition, and elicitation:

- a. Explicit correction (i.e. the teacher clearly indicates that what the student said was incorrect and also provides the correct form).
- b. recasts (i.e. the teacher reformulates all or part of student's utterance, replacing the erroneous part with the correct target language form).
- c. Clarification requests (i.e. the teacher indicates that a learner utterance has been misunderstood or is ill-formed in some way).
- d. Metalinguistic comments (i.e. the teacher comments on or questions the wellformedness of the learner's utterance without explicitly providing the correct form).
- e. Elicitation (i.e. the teacher (1) elicits completion of his/her own utterance, (2) uses a question to elicit the correct form, (3) asks a student to reformulate his/her utterance).
- f. Repetition (i.e. the teacher repeats the student's erroneous utterance with or without emphasis on the erroneous part).

These strategies remain very similar to those set out by Hendrickson (1978), but, in more recent years, researchers have added to and adapted this list. Scrivener (2005, p.300) advocates for discussion of the error, for example by writing it on the board for analysis in open class, and refers to explicit correction as 'direct indication'.

In addition to Lyster and Ranta's six strategies, the use of gesture (Hedge 2000) and questioning the learner on whether or not their answer is correct (Harmer 1983) can also be included. The latter appears to be purely rhetorical in nature, as it is very unlikely that this would be asked in response to a correct utterance. Ur (1996) also recommends the use of modelling, in which the teacher provides the utterance in its correct form. Unless this is clearly structured for the learners, however, it may be challenging to distinguish between an echo, a recast and a model. The common thread in the above-mentioned studies is the researchers' concern with the affective nature of corrective feedback. Lyster and Saito (2010) condensed the above list further into three types, each containing sub-features: recasts, explicit correction, and prompts. This categorisation allows for consideration of both explicit and implicit correction, which was not considered in previous research.

Attention to affective factors is believed to contribute to effective language learning because of the contribution of this attention to the 'whole-person development' (Arnold 2011; Ni 2012, p.2) of the learner. As part of this holistic approach to the learner, learner self-confidence is considered to have a profound effect on their learning – the 'self-esteem principle' is thought to play a part in whether or not they will complete the task effectively, with their success attributed, at least partially, to 'their belief that they are indeed fully capable of finishing a task' (Brown 2001, p.23). Experiences or atmospheres that may damage a learner's self-confidence, thereby hindering their belief in their ability to produce the target language, are therefore to be avoided.

Learner anxiety around producing language, particularly in the area of spoken practice, is commonly known to most language teachers, and is known to be a factor in both

formal and informal learning environments (Arnold 2011, p.59). The fearless, enthusiastic learners who have no qualms about speaking in the classroom, regardless of what errors they may be committing, are not afflicted with what Ellis (1994) has referred to as situation-specific anxiety, a common state that is aroused by learners' attempts at spoken production in front of their peers. This anxiety can be provoked by anticipation of a negative response from the teacher, in the form of corrective feedback (Tsai and Li 2012, p.1511). The emphasis is often, therefore, on reducing negative emotion and negative affect among learners rather than promoting positive emotion (Gregersen and MacIntyre 2014). While the majority of research and teacher education regarding affective factors has been focused on negative factors (Bown and White 2010), positive emotion is also a key affective variable, contributing to the motivating phenomenon of foreign language enjoyment (FLE) in the same way that negative affective variables contribute to foreign language anxiety (FLA) (Dewaele and MacIntyre 2014). The imbalance of power in the classroom has also been attributed as the cause of ineffective feedback – Gattegno (1972), creator of the Silent Way, prefers a low-feedback approach in order to avoid learner dependence on teacher approval. When the impetus behind providing utterances is to gain praise or acknowledgement from the teacher, Gattegno argues, the learner's internal assessment of their own language production cannot develop.

The following section will detail the types and sub-types of corrective feedback established through the research literature, which will establish the categories of analysis used in the present study, detailed in Chapter 4.

Explicit and implicit correction

Explicit correction clearly indicates to the learner that what they had said was incorrect, while also providing the correct form (Lyster and Ranta 1997, p.46). Ellis (2012) classified explicit correction in two ways: input-providing and output-prompting. Explicit correction is an input-providing form of corrective feedback, while metalinguistic comments – in which the teacher questions the learner on the correctness of their utterance – and elicitation – in which the teacher attempts to draw out the correct utterance from the learner – are considered to be output-prompting. In implicit correction, although the teacher does not directly state that an error has taken place, or what the error was, it is inferred to the learner that correction needs to take place through repetition, gesture, and questioning. As with explicit correction, implicit correction can also be classified into input-providing and output-prompting. Repetitions and clarification requests fall under the heading of output-prompting, while recasts are classed as input-providing.

Implicit correction – recasts

Recasts, because of their lack of explicit correction of the error, can be considered by their very nature implicit (Long 1996a; Long and Robinson 1998). Depending on the structure of the recast, however – how many elements of the sentence have been reformulated, and the linguistic target of the sentence – they can in some circumstances be considered to be explicit (Sheen 2004; Ellis and Sheen 2006). Lyster (1998) discusses the importance of ‘negative evidence’ in SLA – negative evidence refers to information received by learners about what is and is not acceptable in the target language and is a key feature in the learner’s negotiation of meaning (Long 1996a). Negotiation for meaning has been defined as ‘denser than usual frequencies of semantically contingent

speech', containing various types of reformulation and repetition in addition to input modifications that 'serve to make target forms salient independent of increased frequency' (Long 1996b, p.414). Recasts are utterances that provide learners with negative evidence, through which language development may be facilitated. In a recast, one or more of the sentence components is changed but the central meaning is still evident, and recasts are a frequently occurring feature in L2 classroom interaction. Lyster (1998, p.53) found recasts to be the most widely used form of feedback, with more than 50% of all corrective feedback moves observed involving them. When examining the student turns immediately following the recast, there were no occurrences of student-generated repair. Lyster posited that the recast essentially provided the correct form to the learners and therefore did not allow for negotiation of form, similar to direct repair feedback. Calve (1992) described recasts as a remnant of audio-lingualism, which render the learner a passive participant in their own language learning. Using feedback approaches that provide signals and clues to the correct form could, Lyster suggests, lead to more facilitation of language development.

Negotiation of form is beneficial to learners in two ways. Firstly, providing clues and signals allows learners to revise their assumptions about the target language, often in relation to the target language's relationship to the learner's L1 (Canale and Swain 1993). Additionally, when corrective feedback prompts student-generated repair, as either self- or peer-repair, learners are able to implement their hypotheses and assumptions about the target language, with the structure provided by the awareness of the incorrect element suggested by the teacher. Providing learners with the correct form has been argued by many as ineffective (Chaudron 1988; van Lier 1988; Ellis 1997), as 'simple repetition or modelling of the correct form may be useless if learners cannot

perceive the difference between the model and the erroneous forms they produce’ (Allwright and Bailey 1991, p.104).

Implicit correction – prompts

Prompts, unlike recasts, constitute a variety of correction strategies – including clarification requests, repetition, elicitation, and metalinguistic clues (e.g. Lyster 2004; Ammar and Spada 2006; Yang and Lyster 2010) and comprise a mixture of implicit and explicit correction. It has been suggested (Ellis 2012) that their effectiveness lies not only in their elicitation of self-correction but also in their salience – the errors to be corrected are more evident to the learner. The context of the correction must also be considered, however – is the correction meaning-focused or form-focused? Lyster and Mori (2006) determined that recasts are effective in form-focused instruction, while prompts are better suited to meaning-focused instruction.

Echo

The wide variety of terminology surrounding the field can pose problems when attempting to establish similarities in research – for example what is referred to as ‘repetition’ by researchers such as Zamel (1981) and Ellis (2013) is also referred to as ‘teacher echo’ (Walsh 2006, 2013). Repetition, or echo, can occur in various forms, prosodically positive or negative, to convey acceptance, rejection or querying of the previous utterance, but is most frequently interpreted as indicating ‘defective, hesitant, or disfluent language’ (Blankenship and Kay 1964; Shimanoff and Brunak 1977; Scollon and Scollon 2001) and does not serve to drive the dialogue forward. While echoing often involves a direct repetition of lexical items, it can often be done through non-lexical means such as intonation. This is referred to as prosodic echo – when the

respondent mimics their interlocutor's intonation, but not the exact words they used, as a means of seeking to achieve coherence (Chafe 1988). 'Shadowing' occurs when the interlocutor's utterance is mimicked lexically, with intonation variation suggesting the repeater's affiliation or disaffiliation with the utterance – generally, a mimicked intonation infers the repeater's affiliation (Goffman 1974; Chafe and Tannen 1987; Asher and Simpson 1994). Therefore, the use of contrastive and non-contrastive prosodic echo suggests to the interlocuter that their utterance has either been accepted or not. In the case of the English language classroom, contrastive prosody in teacher echo indicates to the learner-speaker that their utterance was not the desired one and needs to be corrected or adjusted. While the current study does not use acoustic analysis of intonation to determine prosody, the learners' understanding of it is evident in the presence or absence of an additional learner turn in the form of self-correction or correction from a peer.

Echo is one of the most frequently used forms of positive feedback. Although Norrick (1987) described repetition as a neutral and objective way for teachers to ensure comprehension from all students, Sinclair and Brazil (1982) argue that the placement of the repetition in the IRF/E exchange cannot allow it to be anything other than evaluative, either positively or negatively, since 'the systematic use of prosodic cues with these repetitions allows for the co-construction of some kind of assessment of the student response by the teacher' (Hellerman 2003, p.83).

The research into teacher classroom discourse, both from a CL and DA perspective having been examined, the following section will introduce how teacher talk is presented to trainees in private, initial teacher-training programmes in the ELT sector.

3.7 Teacher awareness of teacher talk in classroom discourse

To conclude this chapter, the issue of teachers' exposure to the concept of teacher talk as a part of classroom discourse will be briefly addressed with an examination of teacher awareness of aspects of classroom discourse.

The majority of teacher participants in the present study, despite the length of experience in ELT held by most, had no formal training in TESOL after their initial language teaching qualification. All but three of the participants had completed the Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) course accredited by Cambridge Assessment or the Irish CELT accreditation. Standardised training materials for these courses were examined in order to ascertain to what extent the concept of teacher talk had been presented to trainees. The official CELTA trainer's manual (Thornbury and Watkins 2007) was referenced to provide more insight into this query. The first reference to teacher talk, although not explicit, is in the section dealing with classroom management. The teacher initiation turn (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975) is dealt with in one single paragraph (Thornbury and Watkins 2007, p.19), through examples of effective and ineffective teacher instruction. 'Elicitation' and 'checking understanding' are the only examples of question types in the manual and are presented in the context of grammar lessons only. There is no reference to providing positive feedback in the manual.

The next reference to teacher talk – again, not named as such – occurs when trainees are first introduced to types of error, which are classified as errors of appropriateness, register, word order, meaning-focus and form-focus. Trainees are provided with

examples of these error types, and are then given a range of suggested correction strategies, with corresponding advantages and disadvantages:

Table 3.1 CELTA trainer's manual (Thornbury and Watkins 2007, pp. 44–45)

Correction Strategy	Advantages	Disadvantages
A) Teacher prompts using terminology, e.g. 'grammar', 'tense', 'pronunciation', etc.	Easy to use; indicates the type of error that the learners should be looking for	Learners need to be familiar with the terminology used
B) Teacher repeats the utterance to the point of the error, e.g. yesterday you...	Quick and easy; gives guidance as to where exactly the problem is	Teacher needs to use appropriate intonation, or gesture, to ensure that this is a correction procedure and not part of the communication
C) Finger correction	Gives a clear indication of where the problem is. Quite flexible, can be used to indicate the need to put a word in, take a word out, run words together ('I'm' etc)	Only works with short utterances. Takes practice for most teachers to become confident
D) Teacher uses questions, e.g. do you mean you go every day?	A good way to discover the learner's intended message, and 'repairs' the communication after a breakdown	Questions need to be clear and easy to answer to avoid further confusing the learner
E) Reformulation e.g. you went to the beach	Quick and easy. Doesn't break the flow of communication	Learners may not realise that they are being corrected and it may therefore have little impact
F) Delayed correction	Does not interfere with the flow of communication. The teacher has time to prepare what to say, rather than having to do it immediately	Correction has less impact if 'served cold'.

Table 3.1 is accompanied by a brief section on when to correct. The above table provided an illuminating insight into how correction is being broached in what is widely considered the gold-standard certification in English language teaching. Correction

strategies are presented in terms of their advantages and disadvantages, with the stated advantages mostly focused on facilitating fluency and communication. Disadvantages of the strategies can be categorised in two ways – difficulty level for the teacher and effectiveness. *Reformulation*, *delayed correction* and *questioning* are presented as having more disadvantages than advantages, with all three stated to lack effectiveness or to be challenging for novice teachers. *prompting* is framed in the most positive light, while *finger correction* appears to require its own set of skills to execute properly. In ‘when to correct’, trainees are provided with four situations exemplifying when correction should and should not take place. According to the manual, the only time correction *should* happen is in the case of a complete breakdown in understanding, in which case a questioning approach is suggested. The remaining three scenarios refer to avoiding interrupting learner fluency or correction when a social or interpersonal interaction is taking place.

While this manual is a guideline only and is of course subject to the individual interpretation of the CELTA trainers, there is very little space devoted to how teachers should negotiate the two main interactive turns in classroom discourse – initiation and feedback. While some of the concepts are referred to, such as reformulating, concept checking and elicitation, there is no other use of pedagogical metalanguage in reference to teacher classroom discourse.

3.8 Chapter summary

While Chapter 2 was primarily concerned with research into how teachers think and what they believe, this chapter addressed how teachers talk. The chapter presented a

discussion of discourse analysis and its relevant sub-fields of conversation analysis, classroom discourse analysis, as well as a review of corpus linguistics studies into teacher discourse. Key research into teacher talk in classroom discourse was then examined, followed by discussion of features of teacher talk.

The following chapter will provide a detailed account of the research methods undertaken in the present study.

Chapter 4: Methodology

'So how would you describe this? What is it?' [T9]

4.1 Introduction

This chapter will contextualise the data by outlining the methodological considerations of the research. To do so, the aims of this research will be revisited through the two research questions before examining the methodological framework of the study, corpus-assisted discourse studies (CADS). The ethical considerations of the study and the process of ethical approval are then described. Lastly, the two original corpora developed for this study, the Dublin Corpus of Teacher Talk (DUBCOTT) and the Teacher Interview Corpus (TIC), are introduced along with a brief outline of the participants, before concluding with the data analysis procedures that were followed.

4.2 Research questions and aims

As stated in Chapter 1, the aim of this thesis is to investigate the relationship between teacher experience and teacher talk by examining the classroom discourse, and self-reported beliefs regarding teacher talk, of fifteen English language teachers at the three different career stages introduced in Chapter 1 – newly qualified/novice, developing and proficient/expert, with particular focus on operationalisation of initiation and feedback acts.

In order to achieve this aim, two main research questions will be addressed.

RQ1: How does teacher talk vary at three stages of career development?

- a) How does operationalisation of initiation and feedback moves vary at the three stages?

RQ2: What do teachers at three stages of teacher career development believe about their teacher talk?

- a) What variation, if any, can be found between the teachers' stated beliefs and their observed practices?

These research questions will be investigated through analysis of the two original corpora compiled for the present study, DUBCOTT and TIC. The first research question examines features of teacher classroom talk under the lens of expert–novice theory as a theoretical framework (Dreyfus 1983; Tsui 2003, 2005) to identify characteristics of the participating teachers' talk in the classroom, in particular how they operationalise initiation and feedback moves. This analysis will provide data from authentic EFL classrooms, allowing teachers to examine real situations and interactions similar to those occurring in their own classrooms, which can then be used to answer questions and raise awareness regarding their own practice (O'Keeffe *et al.* 2007). With regard to research question two, exploring the notion of teacher beliefs and cognitions, in particular teacher agency and decision-making, is vital when examining the type of talk being used in classrooms in order to establish relationships between teacher thinking and action (Borg 2003; Phipps and Borg 2009; Feryok 2012; Kubanyiova and Feryok 2015), and, in turn, provides teachers and teacher educators with further information about teacher development and thinking. These research questions are considered along with corresponding sub-questions, which examine how teachers at different stages operationalise initiation and feedback, and to investigate the similarities and differences

between the teachers' reports on their teacher talk and their actual classroom practices.

In the context of teacher development and language teaching pedagogy, examination of the conflict between teachers' espoused beliefs and observed practices presents an opportunity for learning, both for teachers and teacher educators alike (Phipps and Borg 2009).

As teacher discourse and teacher beliefs are at the core of this work, a corpus-based discourse analysis is implemented on the datasets in order to help address the RQs, as is described in the following section.

4.3 The CADS approach: study design and methodological framework

The present research project is exploratory in nature – the intention is to investigate the research questions using qualitative and quantitative measures, and to determine whether patterns or connections can be observed according to the variables laid out in the research questions (Creswell 2014). No hypothesis was to be tested in this research; the aim was to bring to light new information in the field of English language teaching from the dataset being studied. The project is therefore non-experimental (Brown 2004), using a comparative design (Schlegloff 2009) that compares espoused beliefs with the classroom discourse of three groups of teachers at different career stages. This study incorporates both emic and etic perspectives (Harris 1976; Creswell 2014) – the former refers to the use of an ‘insider’ perspective, which in the present study takes the form of the espoused beliefs of the teacher-participants, while the latter refers to the perspective of an ‘outsider’ in the form of the researcher. The position of the researcher in the

present study can, however, be classified as both emic and etic simultaneously, as the researcher is also a member of the ‘insider’ community being studied. As will be expanded upon later in this chapter, rather than being a disadvantage, this dual perspective is one of the affordances of the CADS approach, allowing for a more nuanced understanding of the data than would be possible from a true outside observer. The present study follows the research paradigm of pragmatism. The pragmatic paradigm holds what has been described as ‘intuitive appeal’ (Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998) as it gives the researcher ‘permission to study areas that are of interest, embracing methods that are appropriate and using findings in a positive manner in harmony with the value system held by the researcher’ (Creswell 2014). Given the relatively broad nature of the research questions, requiring the combination of a data-driven corpus linguistics approach, classroom discourse analysis, and the somewhat ephemeral question of how teachers think and feel about their own teaching, the ‘what-works tactic’ (Darlington and Scott 2002) of the pragmatist, mixed-method approach was deemed to best serve the investigation of the research questions.

CADS and the mixed-method research approach

The CADS approach has often been associated with mixed-method approaches (Partington *et al.* 2013) through its use of data-driven CL methodology in concert with the analysis of open-ended, non-numerical data, and its combination of ‘quantitative rigour and descriptive power’ (Taylor and Marchi 2018, p.126). Quantitative and qualitative research are generally presented dichotomously, in conflicting paradigms sometimes referred to as the ‘qual/quant divide’ (Bryson 2014), with quantitative research traditionally equated with the collection of large amounts of data, while qualitative research obtains detailed information from participants in contextualised

settings (Cohen *et al.* 2007; Dornyei 2007; Creswell and Garrett 2008). The mixed-method approach is also associated with the pragmatic paradigm, using strategies that involve collecting data in a simultaneous or sequential manner with methods that are drawn from both quantitative and qualitative traditions in a fashion that best addresses the research questions (Creswell 2014).

Prior to exploring the affordances and suitability of the CADS approach to the present study, and to the study of classroom discourse more broadly, it is necessary to introduce the two symbiotic methodologies that comprise CADS: corpus linguistics and discourse analysis.

4.3.1 Corpus linguistics and specialised corpora

To quote Hunston (2002, p.1), ‘it is no exaggeration to say that corpora, and the study of corpora, have revolutionised the study of language, and of the applications of language, over the last few decades’. Although early work in CL was geared towards creating ‘the largest possible corpora’ (Vaughan and Clancy 2013, p.53), the growing availability and ease of use of CL software has led to a proliferation of studies using smaller, purpose-built corpora. Large corpora such as the Cambridge English Corpus (OpenCLC (v1). 2017) and the Collins COBUILD Corpus (COBUILD 1987) contain billions of words of text between them, and the word ‘large’ was considered a central feature of corpora in most definitions (Biber *et al.* 1998, Sinclair 2001; McCarthy and O’Keeffe 2010; Tognini-Bonelli 2001). Size in relation to corpora, therefore, could be considered subjective, as ‘small’ corpora have been defined as having up to 250,000 words by some (Flowerdew 2004) and up to one million words by others (McCarthy 1998; Sinclair

2001). For example, the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) (Davies 2009) may be considered one of the smaller corpora, given that it contains millions rather than billions of words. By either of these definitions, the classroom corpora compiled for and analysed in this present study can only be considered small and fall under the categorisation of ‘specialised corpora’ (Flowerdew 2006), given their comparatively small size.

Classroom corpora are clearly examples of specialised corpora, dealing with language use in a very specific context (Flowerdew 2006) – the corpora compiled for the present study are specific to the genre of English language teacher discourse, both inside and outside the classroom. The benefit of small corpora such as these in DA studies lies in the ability of the researcher to investigate not only the utterances themselves but the specific contexts in which the utterances were used, allowing for a much more in-depth analysis than is practical with large corpora (Koester 2010). The use of specialised corpora is common in the CADS approach, with CADS researchers often being deeply familiar with the context of the specialised corpus in use, allowing for more insightful and nuanced interpretations of the data (Partington 2008).

4.3.2 Corpus linguistics tools and types

Regardless of the size of the corpus under investigation, CL methodology entails the use of several strategies, or tools, which facilitate the organisation and analysis of the data, such as frequency lists, and keyword and cluster analysis. The following section presents the corpus tools used in the present study and their affordances when used in a corpus-aided discourse study.

Frequency lists

The first stage of a CL analysis is often the generation of a frequency list, or lists, and this step is widely considered to be a core aspect of CL research (e.g. Baker 2006; Evison 2010; Reppen and Simpson-Vlach 2010; Scott 2010). Generating frequency lists through the use of CL software collects and organises the words in the corpus according to their overall frequency and the percentage they comprise of the corpus's total words (Baker 2006; O'Keeffe *et al.* 2007). Frequency lists provide an insight into the context of the corpus, as well as to the genre of the corpus when considered in comparison to the frequency lists of other corpora (Baker 2006; Farr 2007; O'Keeffe *et al.* 2007; Reppen and Simpson-Vlach 2010; Vaughan 2010). The generation of such lists would be impossible without the use of CL software, and O'Keeffe *et al.* (2007, p.46) described the generation of frequency lists as 'one of the most useful tasks a computer can perform in relation to a corpus'. In the present study, frequency lists were used in the analysis of each corpus and sub-corpus to identify emergent linguistic themes, which were then examined in greater detail through concordance lines and discourse extracts.

Keyness

Having identified the most frequently occurring words in a corpus, further insight into the text can be provided through keyword analysis. Keyness is identified through the comparison of word frequency of a given corpus to a reference corpus, from which comparison positive and negative keyness can be generated. Positive keyness refers to unusually high frequency of a word in comparison to some norm, which has been decided through the choice of the reference corpus, with negative keyness referring to unusually low frequency when compared to said norm (Scott 1999). Keyness can thereby lead to an insight into the 'aboutness' of a corpus, when keywords (usually

content words) help to identify a specific genre (Scott 1999; Bondi and Scott 2017). An example of this would be an unusually high frequency of nouns referring to language and grammar, which would suggest prior to further investigation that the corpus being studied is linguistic in nature, which was the case in the present study. The likelihood of high quantities of grammatical metalanguage occurring in the majority of most conversational discourse is inarguably low, therefore the ‘statistical anomaly’ (Scott 2010, p.150) revealed by the keyword analysis would highlight an area that warrants further exploration on the part of the researcher.

Reference corpora

Reference corpora are used as a means of identifying keywords in the focus corpus of a study, through comparison between the focus corpus and the reference corpus (McEnery *et al.* 2006). When choosing an appropriate reference corpus., size is a key criterion to be considered. While Granger and Tribble (1998) consider reference-corpus size to be a minor concern, it has been deemed worthwhile to compare a smaller focus corpus to a much larger reference corpus because it is a useful way of highlighting positive keywords – those which occur more frequently than expected (Baker 2006; Sardinha 2009). The British Academic Spoken English (BASE) corpus, which was compiled from recorded lecture and seminar data at the universities of Reading and Warwick between 2000 and 2005, was used as the reference corpus for analyses of DUBCOTT, as the register of discourse matched the previously noted quasi-monologic nature of ELT classroom interaction (Biber 2006; Nicaise 2014). The spoken subcorpus of the British National Corpus (2014) was used as the reference corpus for TIC, as the conversational nature of the interviews was well matched to the informal discourse represented in the Spoken BNC, as well as meeting the criterion of size.

Sub-corpora

In addition to comparing the focus corpus with other corpora, it is often fruitful to examine how features of note can be compared to the corpus as a whole. This can be done through the compiling of sub-corpora, which are subsets of data within the larger corpus (Baker *et al.* 2006). Sub-corpora were used in the present study to divide the sample into career-stage categories, thereby allowing for examination of features within the sub-corpora, as well as in comparison to the corpus as whole. Further sub-corpora were compiled according to the coding system applied to TIC and DUBCOTT, which facilitated an even closer and more nuanced analysis of the data. These codes are detailed in sections 4.4.7 to 4.7.11.

Concordances

The further exploration of anomalies or features of interest in a corpus is often done using concordances, or key words in context (KWIC). Concordance analysis takes the word or phrase selected by the researcher for analysis and generates a list of all the examples of this word in the context in which it appeared in the corpus. KWIC formatting is recognisable for its vertical list layout, usually with the keyword in question highlighted, but always presented in the centre, with a fixed number of words shown to the left and to the right of the keyword. These metrics can be adjusted by the researcher according to the specificities of their research question but, generally, four or five words are presented on either side (Baker 2006). Concordance lines are extremely useful for identifying patterns of use of the keyword in question and for showing the context that is not visible in keyword lists or frequency lists when taken in isolation. This has proven especially useful in the generation of classroom materials using CL

tools, as the ‘authentic’ use (Rühlemann 2010) of the relevant phrase can be identified and examined.

Collocates and n-grams

CL analysis is extremely useful in identifying patterns of use, such as collocates and n-grams. Collocation refers to “the probability of two words co-occurring frequently next to or near each other” (O’Keeffe *et al.* 2020 p.11) Taking examples from the present study, collocates which emerged from the DUBCOTT classroom corpus were very often grammatical in nature, such as *present perfect* and *passive voice*, while a frequently occurring collocate in the TIC corpus was, perhaps unsurprisingly, *teacher talk*. The examination of collocates is revealing in that it can help determine the ‘aboutness’ of a corpus through frequently occurring collocates that are genre-specific, such as the grammatical terminology emergent in a corpus of classroom discourse (Sinclair 1996, 1998), but can also identify pragmatic clusters that can indicate attitude or stance in the text (Clancy and Vaughan 2013). As with frequency lists and keywords, collocates should be examined in concert with concordance lines to conduct a deeper analysis of the use in context.

In addition to collocates, longer clusters can also be identified and examined using CL tools. It is acknowledged that in the case of n-grams a variety of terminology is currently in use – clusters, bundles, chunks, multi-word units (MWUs) and p-frames, to name but a few (Biber *et al.* 1999; Cortes 2004; Römer 2011; O’Keeffe *et al.* 2007; O’Keeffe *et al.* 2020). Irrespective of the preferred nomenclature, n-grams are frequently occurring groups of words, generally between three and six words long. N-gram analysis can provide a deeper look at how language is being used in the given text and is particularly

useful when studying specific genres, as the formulaic nature of language is highlighted (Farr 2011). An example of this would be the identification of hedges during teacher instruction turns, which will be examined later in the present study. From this summary of the main tools at our disposal in CL, it is clear that such an approach is both ‘evidence-based and computer-mediated’ (Cheng 2012, p.6), and these tools will be put to use in the chapters to follow.

Normalisation

As can be expected when dealing with a system comprising large quantities of data, some statistical knowledge can be beneficial for the researcher, to ensure that data are interpreted as accurately as possible. Possibly the most important consideration is that of normalisation of the corpus. As noted above, corpus linguists often work with corpora of differing sizes, and discrepancies in corpus size mean that results cannot be compared directly, unless the frequency scores have been normalised. This is generally done using a simple calculation, converting each frequency into a value per million words, or per thousand or ten thousand words for smaller corpora (Koester 2010). Given that the corpora compiled for the present study total approximately 250,000 words, frequencies in the present study were normalised to 10,000. Normalised frequency is used in the present study in the analysis of all frequency and key word lists involving comparison of subcorpora, while raw frequency is used when presenting data from a single corpus or subcorpus.

It is important to note the added value of the CADS approach when dealing with corpus data. While a pure CL approach may reveal that a given word is significantly more frequent than another, employing a discourse analytical approach allows the researcher

to examine the word in the context of the utterances within which it was used and uncover ‘non-obvious meaning’ in the text (Cameron 1999; Collins 2019).

Corpus annotation

Corpus designers may choose to add additional information, linguistic or interpretive, to their corpus after or during transcription – this process is defined as ‘annotation’ (Leech, 1997). Two common methods of annotation are *tagging* and *coding*.

Tagging refers to the addition of information to a token in the corpus and this process is commonly used to categorise parts of speech (POS) in a corpus. This process can be arduous, especially in large corpora, but some currently available corpus linguistics software programmes such as Sketch Engine and LancsBox allow for automatic, computerised POS tagging. In addition to POS tagging, annotation can also be conducted on a more granular level through phonetic tagging (Wells *et al.* 1992) when speakers’ pronunciation needs to be presented in the corpus. *Coding* is often used to describe the annotation of pragmatic features, commonly used in discourse analysis (Allen and Core 1997). *Pragmatic coding* involves the annotation of dialogue acts according to their pragmatic features – an example of pragmatic annotation can be found in the work being done on the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE), which has pragmatically coded 25 individual discourse features such as advice, disagreement and feedback (Maynard and Leicher 2007). The coding system used in the present study will be detailed later in this chapter.

4.3.3 Issues with corpus use

Despite the myriad advantages and affordances of CL methodology, it is not without its problems. Firstly, the nature of corpus design and analysis is a field that, if not necessitating, certainly merits training for the researcher in how to properly use all the tools available in order to fruitfully analyse a corpus, and how to design their own corpus if that is the intention (O’Keeffe and Farr 2003). In the case of the latter, it must be remembered that the person who designed the corpus will have inherent beliefs about that corpus’s representativeness and balance (Hunston 1995), but this belief may be skewed by the designer-researcher’s depth of involvement with the corpus and their investment in the results. While this can be considered problematic in a more traditional CL approach, the perspective of the researcher is, as previously noted, an advantage of the CADS approach. Issues of representativeness and balance, as well as availability and suitability, are considered to be key when building and analysing a corpus and should be considered by the researcher at every stage of the process (Biber *et al.* 1998; Baker *et al.* 2006; O’Keeffe *et al.* 2007).

Another potential issue in corpus use is the very element that has made CL so accessible in recent years – corpus linguistics software. While these programmes are crucial to our analysis of the corpus once we have built it, human intervention is often necessary to correct issues generated by the programme itself. An example of this is in the case of part of speech (POS) tagging, a feature that is crucial to the generation of specialised frequency lists. The POS tagging function in most CL software is not (yet) intelligent enough to distinguish between word classes when they are homographic in nature (e.g. bank [n] and bank [v]), which may result in errors during later analysis. It is imperative,

therefore, that any automated tagging or coding is treated with a critical eye and manually checked by the researcher to ensure no errors are treated as findings (McCarthy and O’Keeffe 2010; Biber and Reppen 2015). The small size of the corpora in the present study are again a benefit to the researcher, as familiarity with the corpus allows for identification of such issues during the analysis stage.

Lastly, and related to the previous point, there is the potentially unanticipated amount of manual work that must be done when embarking on a corpus-based study (O’Keeffe *et al.* 2007). If designing a spoken corpus, for example, the spoken texts must be transcribed and diligently checked for accuracy, as any errors in transcription may skew results in later analysis. Again, this is an affordance of using small, specialised corpora, as the lengthy transcription stage gives the corpus designer an insight into the data that is a benefit in the later discourse analytical stage. Another factor to consider is the amount of manual coding and tagging that must be done for specialised corpora – yet again, it can be asserted that proper training in corpus linguistics methodology is therefore essential to ensure results that are as accurate as possible.

4.3.4 Discourse analysis

The field of discourse analysis has been explored in detail in Chapter 3 but will be briefly revisited here in regard to DA as a methodology.

Sinclair and Coulthard’s seminal 1975 study on classroom interaction is considered one of the earliest and most significant DA studies, setting out both theories and linguistic descriptions of interaction happening in that context (Coulthard 1985). In addition to

analysis of classroom discourse, many frameworks of analysis of language fall under the umbrella of DA, such as speech act theory (Austin 1962; Searle 1969), and conversation analysis (Sacks *et al.* 1974; Sacks 1995). The present study is concerned with discourse with a ‘small d’ – the analysis of language in use – rather than the broader concept of Discourse with a ‘big D’ (Gee 2015). The former describes the use of language ‘above sentence level’ (Stubbs 1983, p.1), while the latter refers to Discourse as ‘language reflecting social order but also language shaping social order and shaping individuals’ interaction with society’ (Jaworski and Coupland 1999, p.3). Discourse analysis, therefore, seeks to understand how language is used in particular contexts and social structures, making it a relevant methodology for the study of institutional talk (the language classroom) and to explore the complex issue of teacher cognition.

4.3.5 Corpus-assisted discourse studies

Unlike the purely linguistic interest of CL, or the purely social or interactive interest of DA, CADS seeks to characterise not only ‘a particular language or linguistic variety, but rather a particular situation, purpose or function repeatedly enacted within a speech community’ (Lischinsky 2018, p.61). The approach of a CADS analyst is primarily to collect texts and design corpora with specific research purposes in mind (Partington 2008) and to ‘explore features of a particular discourse after becoming familiar with it both by using concordancing tools and by reading single texts or excerpts’ (Riccio and Venuti 2009, p.137). The combination of CL and DA approaches together allows the researcher to conduct qualitative discourse analysis facilitated by the quantitative data provided by CL (Walsh and O’Keeffe 2007).

Affordances of a CADS approach

The data-driven CL approach allows for the generation of objective sets of data according to the features detailed above (keywords, collocations, etc.), while a DA approach facilitates a more in-depth, qualitative analysis of the findings illuminated by the CL approach. Although large-scale corpus studies have been considered to hold greater representativeness, and allow a greater level of objectivity (Partington 2008), an exclusively top-down approach that does not look into the data in greater detail may result in patterns being mistakenly found (Scott and Tribble 2006).

Another affordance of the CADS approach is its ‘inbuilt use of triangulation’ (Taylor and Marchi 2018, p.127). While triangulation has heretofore been considered to mean the use of one method to test the results obtained using another method (Bryman 2006), the definition has expanded in recent years to include an in-depth understanding of the data rather than validation of results. ‘Tool triangulation’ – the complementary use of multiple software tools, in the case of the present study NVivo and SketchEngine – was used to view the data at a numerical level before ‘zooming in from the numbers to the texts, in order to get a more accurate vision of phenomena’ (Taylor and Marchi 2018, p.282). These tools will be presented in more detail later in this chapter.

Challenges in the CADS approach

In a similar vein to challenges presented by CL tools in that a certain amount of manual work may still need to be done in addition to the computer-generated results, conducting discourse analysis requires a detailed examination of the text in its broader context, which cannot be done by a computer. Additionally, corpus-based discourse analysis relies on language data, with current corpus software lacking a means of accounting for

non-verbal discoursal features, although the growth in multimodal corpus studies may see this changing in the near future (see, for example, Chen *et al.* 2006; Knight *et al.* 2006; Mana *et al.* 2007; Adolphs and Knight 2010; Rösner *et al.* 2012; Brône *et al.* 2017). The present study was faced with challenges both in the compilation of the corpora, given the need for manual transcription of the spoken data, and in the analysis, which was in some cases limited by the omission of visual or acoustic metadata once the corpora had been compiled. Interpretation of certain utterances would undoubtedly have been more nuanced had the multimodal data been available.

4.4 Corpus design and considerations

According to Baker *et al.* (2006), there are five considerations to be taken into account when compiling a corpus: design, planning a storage system, obtaining permissions, text collection and encoding. The first consideration when undertaking this research was whether to use existing corpora of classroom discourse or to produce original corpora. Given the ‘under-developed’ nature of classroom corpora in general (McCarthy 2008, p.572), it was decided that building new corpora to add to the body of research in this field was preferable to using existing data and would better meet the requirements of the research questions and aims. Additionally, although corpora of teacher discourse inside and outside the classroom do exist in the Irish context (Farr 2011; Riordan 2018; Farrell 2019), they are generally focused within the context of teachers in the pre-service, training stage of their career, and often in a third-level setting. Finally, although corpora of spoken English use in Ireland do exist, such as L-CIE, the LIBEL corpus, and the CLAS corpus project, they are limited in number. Despite being currently small in quantity, however, these corpora provide ‘empirical evidence that many of the

established beliefs held by linguists about language use are at variance with what speakers actually do in their everyday linguistic practices' (Farrell 2019, p.7). This is a particularly valuable point regarding the teaching of English language in Ireland, with the target English mandated by pedagogical materials often at odds with the variety being used by the teachers themselves (Farrell 2015). The two corpora built for the present study, which will be analysed in detail in the following two chapters, will therefore build upon the existing corpora of English as it is currently spoken in Ireland.

When preparing to build a corpus, representativeness (Biber 1993; Tognini-Bonelli 2001; Adolphs 2006) is one of the key issues to be considered. Representativeness refers to the inclusion of as wide a range of variability as possible in the population from which the corpus is being compiled (Biber 1993). In the case of the present study, that population refers to teachers of the English language, working in the private ELT sector in Ireland. The representativeness of a corpus depends to a large extent 'on the ease with which the data can be collected' (Clancy and Vaughan 2013). When considering the issues of balance and representativeness in small corpora, it is imperative that, bearing the genre or language variety in mind, the data collected fits the intention as much as feasibly possible (Stubbs 2004). The corpora used in this present study are deemed representative of the Irish ELT context in that all data was recorded from practising ELT teachers working in the private ELT sector in Ireland. Participants are male and female, 'native' and 'non-native' English users with three non-Irish 'native' speaking teachers in the cohort, and range in age from early 20s to late 30s. Although demographic data on ELT teachers in the Irish private context is at best difficult to find and at worst non-existent, the corpora compiled for the present study can undoubtedly be deemed representative of the demographic of an average ELT school staffroom on any given day

(Oireachtas 2019). The corpora are balanced in regard to teacher career stage, with five teachers representing each of the three designated career stages. Owing to the opportunistic nature of the data-collection process, lessons were recorded at different times in the respective schools' academic calendars, resulting in a variety of lesson topics being recorded. Table (4.1) details the lesson topic/theme, learner proficiency level, and teacher career stage of each of the 15 recorded lessons. All lessons lasted for 3 hours in total, with a 15-minute break after 90 minutes.

Table 4.1 Lesson Topic/Theme

Teacher Code	Teacher Career Stage	Learner Level (CEFR)	Lesson Topic/Theme
T1	Stage 1 (Novice)	A2	Grammar: The Second Conditional
T2	Stage 2 (Developing)	C1	Grammar: The Future (Plans)
T3	Stage 3 (Proficient)	B2	Grammar: Linkers - In spite of/despite
T4	Stage 1 (Novice)	A2	Vocabulary: Making Arrangements
T5	Stage 2 (Developing)	B2	Vocabulary: Films and Cinema
T6	Stage 3 (Proficient)	B2	Vocabulary: Adjectives of Personality
T7	Stage 1 (Novice)	B2	Vocabulary: Alternative Medicine
T8	Stage 2 (Developing)	B2	Vocabulary: Advertising
T9	Stage 3 (Proficient)	B2	Vocabulary: Social Issues
T10	Stage 1 (Novice)	A2	Grammar: Modals of Possibility
T11	Stage 2 (Developing)	C1	Grammar: Word Formation
T12	Stage 3 (Proficient)	C1	Vocabulary: Phrasal Verbs
T13	Stage 1 (Novice)	C1	Vocabulary: Homes
T14	Stage 2 (Developing)	B1	Grammar: Past Perfect
T15	Stage 3 (Proficient)	A2	Grammar: Passive Voice

The following section will move to an overview of the ethical considerations and data-collection process of the present study.

The following section will move to an overview of the ethical considerations and data-collection process of the present study.

4.5 Ethical considerations

Prior to commencement of data collection, ethical approval was sought from the Mary Immaculate Research Ethics Committee (MIREC) and was granted following the submission of the required ethics documentation (see Appendices A–E).

4.5.1 Informed consent – teacher participants

Fifteen English language teachers were approached to participate in the study between 2016 and 2017. In order to have an equal distribution of teachers for each of the three career stages under investigation in the study – early career/novice, developing, and expert/proficient, five teachers representing each stage were included. Prior to the commencement of data collection all participants were provided with a detailed information sheet (Appendix A); they were informed that participating in the study would involve the audio-recording of one full lesson, followed by transcription and analysis for the purpose of Ph.D. research, and participation in a short audio-recorded interview. All participants were advised that anonymity would be maintained throughout the research period, and the right to withdraw at any time was conveyed. While classroom data was successfully recorded from all fifteen teachers, three were unable to attend the scheduled interview within the data-collection period.

4.5.2 Informed consent – student participants

Voluntary, informed consent was sought in writing from all participants prior to the commencement of data collection (Dornyei 2007), including all EFL students present during the recorded classes. All participants were issued with information sheets (Appendix B), which detailed, in suitably graded language (Sterling 2018), the objectives of the research, the role of the participants, how the data would be managed, and for what purpose the results and conclusions would be used. With the assistance of the academic management of the three English language schools in which data collection took place, all students were informed of the dates of data collection, were issued the information sheets in advance, and given the option to attend another class during the recording period if they chose not to participate. To ensure full comprehension of the information sheet and consent form, the researcher distributed them in person to address any queries and provide clarification if necessary. Participants were explicitly notified of their right to withdraw from the research for any reason and at any time. Once informed consent had been obtained from all participating students, the recording of the lesson commenced. Regard was given to ensuring strict confidentiality and anonymity. The contact details of the researcher, the MIREC administrator and the research supervisor were given to each participant if any further contact was needed. Participants were encouraged to make contact with questions or to request a copy of the published results.

4.5.3 Storage and use of personal data

Researchers must comply with the legal requirements in relation to the storage and use of personal data as set down by the Data Protection Act (1998), and as such all participants were informed of how and why their personal data was being stored, its use and availability. Data was stored on a password-protected computer, accessible only to the researcher, and on the researcher's password-protected Cloud storage system. Confidential data was not disclosed.

4.6 Participant sample

Nine of the participating teachers in the study were Irish, with the remainder coming from Spain, the Netherlands, Croatia, Australia, Canada, and the USA. Eight were male and seven were female. With the representativeness of the corpora in mind, achieving a relatively equal gender balance was considered when selecting participants, as was the inclusion of L1 and L2 English-speaking teachers from a range of backgrounds (Biber 1993; Baker 2006).

Table 4.2 shows the three career stages, with the participant codes, gender, L1 and nationality.

Table 4.2 Participant sample

Newly qualified	Developing	Proficient
T1 (M, English, Ireland)	T2 (F, English, USA)	T3 (M, English, Ireland)
T4 (M, English, Canada)	T5 (M, English, Ireland)	T6 (M, Croatian, Croatia)
T7 (F, Dutch, Netherlands)	T8 (F, English, Ireland)	T9 (F, English, Ireland)
T10 (F, Catalan, Spain)	T11 (M, English, Ireland)	T12 (F, English, Australia)
T13 (M, English, Ireland)	T14 (F, English, Ireland)	T15 (M, English, Ireland)

All teachers who participated in the study gained their initial TEFL qualification no earlier than 2009 and ranged in age between 23 and 38. One of the participants had recently completed an MPhil. in TESOL without having completed an initial EFL teaching qualification, while another was in the process of completing a Master's in Education. Seven of the fifteen teachers had completed the Cambridge CELTA certificate, six had completed the Irish accreditation CELT (Certificate in English Language Teaching) or its predecessor, the now defunct RELSA certificate (Recognised English Language Schools Association), and one had completed a Postgraduate Certificate in TEFL from the National University of Ireland, Galway. Further participant details can be found in Appendix H. As previously noted, teachers were categorised into the three stages according to length of service alone.

4.6.1 Institutional participation and learner participants

Three English language teaching organisations (ELTOs) participated in the data-collection for the present research. All are located in Dublin, Ireland, and at the time of

data collection catered to adult learners only. All three schools operated on a full-time, year-round basis, with two sessions of lessons each day. Owing to governmental regulation of the ELT sector in Ireland (Oireachtas 2019), lessons are a minimum of three hours each, in two 90-minute sessions. Governmental regulation also requires that ELT teachers have a minimum level of qualification – a primary degree and a recognised ELT certificate. Each ELTO, in its marketing materials and online presence, claims to follow a ‘communicative approach’, with two stating specifically that speaking with correction is the primary focus of the learners’ experience. All student participants were over 18, in accordance with the admission criteria of each organisation. The lowest CEFR level recorded during data collection was Pre-Intermediate (A2) and the highest was Advanced (C1).

To briefly outline the profile of the learners and provide more context for the data to be examined later in the present study, the following information was gleaned from student surveys conducted by the researcher in 2015 as part of research for DELTA Module Three (Appendices F and G). This research was conducted in the largest of the three ELTOs that participated in the present study but is representative of the demographic of all three. In summary, the surveys found that the motivation of students in these classes was mostly extrinsic – the learners were studying English by necessity, for a minimum of 15 hours of English lessons per week, for 25 weeks per visa period, which is a requirement to maintain a student visa in Ireland. While most of the students had studied English for several years at secondary, and occasionally primary level, the majority of learners scored between A2 and B2 during placement tests. Scores in grammar placement tests tended to be higher than scores in the oral placement test, as learners had had very little exposure to English outside the classroom setting. The majority of

learners stated that their English teachers in their home countries had not been ‘native’ English speakers, and the lessons were often taught through the medium of the learners’ first language. Learners reported that they consumed quite a lot of media in English, with the majority watching more English-language TV programmes and films than those of their own language. When asked what they felt they wanted more of in their English lessons the majority of students responded with ‘grammar practice’ and stated that they felt their lessons contained too much speaking practice. Survey results indicated that despite living in an immersive English-language context, and often working outside school hours, a large proportion of the learners did not engage in any language practice outside class hours, and often did not communicate in English at all outside class hours. This suggests that English lessons were, for many of the participating learners, their only exposure to the language (Seely 2015). Once ethical approval was granted and participants were found, data collection could begin, as is discussed next.

4.7. Data collection and storage

The following section will provide detail on the data-collection and data-storage procedures used in the present study.

4.7.1 Classroom audio-recordings

Collecting data from classrooms was a crucial element in answering the first research question, which deals specifically with teacher classroom discourse. In order to further our understanding of teacher behaviour, particularly in regard to teacher classroom talk, it is necessary to collect data through classroom observation, as well as through

qualitative means such as interviews and surveys – while establishing how teachers think and feel about their profession is a vital element, it cannot be fully understood without reference to classroom data. As Borg states:

Can language teacher cognition be usefully studied without reference to what happens in classrooms? Personally, I am sceptical [...] ultimately, though, we are interested in understanding teachers' professional actions, not what or how they think in isolation of what they do.

(Borg 2003, p.105)

Conducting observations in order to determine what teachers do, without external influence, in the classroom presents a difficulty for the researcher. As Labov points out,

the aim of linguistic research in the community must be to find out how people talk when they are not being systematically observed; yet we can only obtain this data by systematic observation

(Labov 1972, p.209)

According to Labov's Observer's Paradox, in attempting to gather data about how certain groups behave in certain situations, we may unintentionally influence their behaviour by virtue of the observation. For example, if a researcher is aiming to gather data about English language teaching through in-class observation, the teacher being observed will undoubtedly attempt to perform to their best ability in order to give a good impression, which may not be an accurate representation of their normal behaviour in class (Nisbett and Wilson 1977; Wilson *et al.* 2014). In order to minimise the observer's paradox, audio-recording using a device unobtrusive enough not to draw the teachers' eye continually and remind them that they are being recorded was chosen as the means of classroom data collection. The researcher was not in attendance during the lessons

being recorded, nor were the lessons video-recorded, as the presence of a physical – or, indeed, digital – ‘watcher’ could impact the naturalistic behaviour of the teachers (Farrell 1998). This decision necessarily limited the nature of analysis that could be done using the recorded data – teacher gesture, stance, monitoring and interaction with individual learners is impossible to ascertain through audio-recorded data alone. The entire duration of the lesson was recorded in order to glean data from various stages of the lesson, and also to not interrupt the teachers’ flow by having to return and collect the device mid-lesson.

After teacher-participants had been approached and confirmed their interest in participating, the schedule of recording was agreed upon. After signing the ethics documents (institutional representative, teacher and all students) immediately prior to the recording, the recording device (Zoom microphone) was placed in the classroom and left recording for the full lesson of three hours. At the end of the lesson, the teacher stopped the recording if they were confident doing so, or the recording device was collected from them. The MP3 sound file was then immediately downloaded from the recording device and saved on various password-protected external drives kept securely in the researcher’s home, as well as digitally saved on the cloud, using both Google Drive and Dropbox services that were only accessible by the researcher. The fifteen recorded lessons comprised more than 2,700 minutes, or just under 46 hours of audio content, which were then transcribed. The transcription process will be detailed in section 4.7.3.

4.7.2 Interviews

In order to begin to answer the second research question ‘What do teachers at three stages of career development believe about their teacher talk?’, it was necessary to gather data on the participating teachers’ beliefs (Cowie 2011). Face-to-face, recorded interviews were chosen in favour of written modes of qualitative data collection. While the use of written modes has the advantage of distancing the participant from the interviewer, potentially allowing for more unfiltered responses from the participants, they do not allow for the further exploration of participant responses afforded by face-to-face interviews. As previously noted, although fifteen teachers agreed to be recorded while teaching, three were unable to attend an interview during the necessary timeframe. Each of the twelve teachers interviewed were spoken to individually, and interviews were recorded using either the ‘voice memos’ feature on the researcher’s password-protected mobile phone or using the same recording device that was used to record the lessons. The interviews took place after the recorded lesson – in most cases on the same day, but sometimes several days later. As the teachers were not being asked specifically about the lesson that had been recorded the timeframe between the recording and the interview was not strict. In order to not inconvenience the teachers after their working day interviews were kept as brief as the teachers were comfortable with – some taking much less time than others if the teachers were not inclined to expand much on their answers.

One significant advantage of using semi-structured interviews, such as those used in the present study, is that the method allows the researcher to focus on what is considered meaningful for the participant, therefore allowing a range of opinions to be expressed

(Kallio *et al.* 2016). Given that the interview questions were focused around themes of teacher beliefs and expressions of their own practice, it was considered crucial by the researcher to facilitate as much opportunity to respond as the participants were willing to take. The benefits of individual, dyadic interviews in qualitative research have been explored by Cohen *et al.* (2007), with one of the key affordances being the opportunity for greater insight into the perceptions and beliefs of the participants. This method has been put to use in the field of ELT research by Tsui (2011) and Farrell (2016), generating rich data in the area of perceptions around classroom practice. As such, the interviews in the present study were loosely structured in order to allow the participants to give as much or as little detail as they chose. All interviews followed the same schedule of questions (Appendix D), which had been determined prior to the data-collection process in accordance with the required ethical-approval process, although divergences from the script occurred on occasion owing to the conversational style of the interviews. The interviews in the present study can be classified as discourse unit (DU) interviews, in which the interviewer limits themselves to minimal responses, with their role primarily in steering the interview through the asking of questions, providing short, supporting contributions, and redirecting the topic (ten Have and Mazeland 1996). For the latter, the nature of the discourse unit-type interview, from which the Teacher Interview Corpus (TIC) is compiled, requires that the interviewer turns serve primarily to prompt and transition the respondent's turns, and the respondent is mostly self-directing their interaction (Houtkoop and Mazeland 1985). The respondent's turns are the primary focus of the interview, with the interviewer providing minimal responses when required. Despite these measures taken to restrict and standardise the interviewer's role, however, there will naturally be some element of spontaneous interaction between the interviewer and the respondent, thus resulting in a collaborative production between

the two interactants (Mann 2011). Whether or not the interviewer's role in this collaboration requires analysis is at the discretion of the researcher (Holstein and Gubrium 1995) and in the case of the present study the interviewer turns were not deemed pertinent to the CL analysis because of the formulaic nature of the schedule of questions used in all twelve interviews, as well as the priority placed on teacher beliefs in the research, rendering the researcher's input less relevant.

The interview questions were divided into two sections, with differing purposes. The first section aimed to gather general data about the cohort: namely, their educational background, length of teaching experience, and their exposure to CPD. This data is presented in the participant profiles (Appendix H) and was not included during the compilation of the corpora, as the data was not directly pertinent to the research questions, but was intended, rather, to gather demographic metadata (McEnery and Xiao 2004). The second section of the interview was focused on the concept of teacher talk specifically, including questions about how the participants were first introduced to the concept of teacher talk and what reactions the phrase provoked in them. Teachers were also asked questions about their own teacher talk, how much teacher talk they believed they were doing, and their personal approach to aspects of teacher talk such as asking questions and providing feedback. These questions aimed to provide teachers with a broad scope through which their beliefs could be expressed without being unduly restricted by the interviewer's questions. Finally, each participant was gently quizzed on some simple terminology around teacher talk. Similar tasks designed to assess teachers' awareness of metalanguage have been used to great effect by researchers such as Woods and Cakir (2011), who asked teachers to do a sentence completion task to ascertain their knowledge of theoretical concepts using standard terminology from relevant literature.

All interviews were conducted in an informal and conversational manner, in order to lessen any anxiety teachers might feel about answering ‘correctly’. All teachers were asked the same questions to ensure consistency of results, and the interviewer explained and elaborated when necessary. The richness of data gleaned from these interviews varied, primarily as a result of differences in participant responsiveness. In some cases, teachers were less communicative and did not offer further information in their answers, while others elaborated extensively on their answers and even asked further questions of the interviewer.

4.7.3 Transcription

Prior to commencing the process of annotation and analysis, all spoken data must be converted to a text format suitable for use in CL software, which is done through transcription of the spoken data. Unlike written texts, spoken data presents the researcher with decisions to be made regarding the level of detail to be included in the transcribed spoken corpus. The inclusion or omission of non-verbal features, such as gesture, or prosodic features such as intonation and pitch, must be considered via their relevance to the aims of the study itself (Gee 2011). This ‘selectivity’ (Duranti 2006) is a practical necessity in transcription, related to the researcher’s theoretical position (Jaffe 2007), and is positioned in the context of the overall objectives of the study itself. While an extremely narrow transcript containing layers of detail may be deemed more valuable by virtue of the quantity alone, a heavily layered transcript can hinder readability, which can render interpretation more difficult. Therefore, the present study takes the view that ‘a more useful transcript is a more selective one’ (Ochs 1979, p.44). As such, the transcription method taken in the present study can be classified as ‘broad transcription’

(Duranti 2006; Gee 2011), which captures ‘the essence of what was said, the words themselves, or even their intended meaning, but ignores the fine details such as a stressed syllable, a pause, a rising intonation, overlapping speech’ (Walsh 2011, p.86). Another key factor in transcribing data is the consideration of how the data is going to be manipulated – this transcription method was deemed the most suitable for the present study to serve the objective of a corpus-led, discourse analysis of teacher classroom talk in the EFL context.

Organisation of the data

During transcription the data were organised according to teacher or learner turns, loosely based on Sinclair and Coulthard’s IRF/E model, rather than learner or teacher utterance. For example, in the following extract there are ten individual teacher utterances in the exchange, but only two of these were obviously turn-transitional, prompting a learner response. Despite including four occurrences of upward intonation, the pauses that followed were too brief to allow a learner turn, and were therefore organised as one, multi-utterance teacher turn.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T9.1487] A Bulmers, ok. You like the cider, do you? [REF.DUBCOTT.S.1487]: Yeah. [REF.DUBCOTT.T9.1488] It's very sweet, isn't it? It's nice. Ok. And what about yourself? What would you normally order if you go into a pub or a café? What would you say [Student Name]? You want to order a drink. So when you go, sometimes you arrive in here with your Starbucks, what do you say in Starbucks?
--

Each teacher was anonymised using a simple convention of T plus a number, by which the teachers are referred consistently throughout the study. The numbers are assigned in increments of 3: Stage 1 teachers are numbered 1,4,7,10,13, Stage 2 teachers are

numbered 2,5,8,11,14, and Stage 3 teachers are 3,6,9,12,15. Numbering within each stage was assigned randomly. All student-participants were anonymised by the substitution of [Student Name] during turns when an identifying name is used by the teachers or by another student, and all individual student turns are labelled with S. If different students take part in the same exchange consecutive numbering is used (S1, S2, etc.). These numbers do not represent individual students – over 200 students were present during the recorded lessons, their names were not taken and there was no attempt made to match voices to speakers during transcription since there is no investigation in this present research into individual learner speech as the focus is on immediate responses to teacher input only. The numbering convention resets after each exchange, therefore ‘S1’ could represent multiple different students in one lesson. Overlapping speech was not transcribed, but pauses and teacher interruptions of learners were included, as these features are often used during teacher elicitation and feedback moves (Walsh 2006; Fagan 2014).

Transcription system (adapted from van Lier 1988)	
T1, T2, etc.	Identified teacher (fixed numbering system)
S1, S2, etc.	Student
,	Breath pause
(...)	Extended pause
/	Teacher interruption of student turn
?	Rising intonation (question)
!	Emphatic speech
.	Falling intonation

Figure 4.1 Transcription system

After transcription was completed, and prior to annotation, a reference was assigned to each line of the corpus, in order to facilitate ease of retrieval by the researcher of full turns during the discourse analysis process. The title for the corpus of classroom data

was designated as DUBCOTT (Dublin Corpus of Teacher Talk). The same was done with the transcribed interview files; the title for this corpus was designated as TIC (Teacher Interview Corpus). All extracts from the two corpora are presented using the same format. Each line code begins with a square bracket, then REF. followed by the corpus code, either TIC or DUBCOTT. This is followed by the teacher code, then the line number itself. The code is closed with a second square bracket. For example:

[REF.TIC.T5.44] On average I teach eighteen hours a week.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T14.6] Ok, you were correct but that's sentence five!

Student turns are coded in a similar manner, with the line number mirroring the line number of the teacher turn being responded to.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T15.2817] Does that make sense? Do you agree? [Student name]? Millions of bars of chocolate are eaten by people every day.

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.2817] Every day millions of bars of chocolate eaten by people.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T15.2818] Eaten. You need the verb to be. Every day millions of bars of chocolate are?

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.2818] Eaten.

After the transcription process was completed, total word counts for both of the corpora were calculated.

Table 4.2 DUBCOTT total token, word, sentence count

DUBCOTT (Dublin Corpus of Teacher Talk)	
Tokens	159,392
Words	129271
Sentences	19059
Lexicon	6536
Type Token Ratio	81.10%

Table 4.3 TIC total token, word, sentence count

TIC (Teacher Interview Corpus)	
Tokens	46,264
Words	38465
Sentences	3410
Lexicon	2598
Type Token Ratio	83.14%

These calculations were made using Sketch Engine's 'Corpus Dashboard' function after compilation of the corpora within the platform.

4.7.4 Manual calculation and analysis

Before any annotation of the corpora took place, the first step of conducting a quantitative analysis of the classroom data was to establish an overall ratio of student to teacher talk in the DUBCOTT corpus.

First, the total number of words in the lesson was noted, incorporating both teacher and learner turns. This provided the 100% figure against which teacher talk and learner talk totals would be compared. The transcription of each lesson was separated into two documents, one containing only the teacher turns, and the other containing only the learner turns. The total words of each were then converted to percentages of the total, thus finding the ratio of talk for the teachers and the learners. Each lesson was labelled by teacher career stage and learner proficiency level as well as each teacher's individual coded pseudonym.

Table 4.4 Teacher codes, levels, total tokens, ratio of teacher talk to student talk

T Code	Stage 1					Stage 2					Stage 3				
	T1	T4	T7	T10	T13	T2	T5	T8	T11	T14	T3	T6	T9	T12	T15
CEFR	A2	A2	B2	A2	C1	C1	B2	B2	C1	B1	B2	B2	B1	C1	A2
TT	6328	5274	5555	7343	6024	6443	7053	7903	4090	8943	5372	9481	11418	7154	9026
ST	3084	2878	2807	2380	9504	3516	1701	3210	3535	3209	3712	3505	8833	1618	2530
TT	67%	64%	66%	75%	38%	64%	81%	71%	53%	74%	59%	74%	56%	82%	78%
ST	33%	36%	34%	25%	62%	36%	19%	29%	47%	26%	41%	26%	44%	18%	22%
TT:ST	59:41					69:31					68:32				

In order to calculate the total occurrences of each node, or thematically tagged utterance, a manual count was conducted for each of the teachers according to each of the teacher turns in the IRF/E. These figures were transferred into a table (Table 4.5) which was the foundation for the creation of all subsequent data-tables according to each of the nodes. In addition to total word counts for all lessons, each of the teachers' initiation, corrective feedback and positive feedback turns within their lesson were counted following the coding process outlined in Sections 4.7.7 to 4.7.11.

Table 4.5 Total and average teacher turns by feature

Teacher	Initiation	Corrective feedback	Positive feedback
T1	143	40	64
T10	66	62	130
T11	60	28	108
T12	109	24	136
T13	78	36	28
T14	121	46	290
T15	118	56	146
T2	75	26	116
T3	108	72	92
T4	134	46	120

T5	111	48	118
T6	77	14	90
T7	59	18	134
T8	113	20	74
T9	63	20	180
Average	96	37	122

The multiple labelling of each of the lessons allowed for clear analysis of the data according to the required variable – teacher career stage. When calculated within a given variable all results were averaged, thus presenting the mean total of each feature rather than raw totals, as the use of averages is key when attempting to establish patterns or norms (Brezina 2018). Having calculated totals per teacher as well as averages, allowed easy identification of any unusual peaks that may skew the average (e.g. a high frequency of referential questioning by T1), thus prompting areas for further investigation.

Learner turns were not included in the CL analysis of DUBCOTT, and interviewer turns were not included in the CL analysis of TIC. In the case of the former, inclusion of learner turns would have skewed the results of frequency list, keyword, and cluster analysis as they would then not represent teacher discourse exclusively. Learner turns were included in corpus extracts when teacher turns were being explored in greater detail.

4.7.5 Corpus annotation

As Section 4.3.2 discussed corpus annotation from a more general perspective, here I describe the type of annotation used on the corpora in this present study. Two forms of CL software were used to annotate the corpora in the present study. The corpora were automatically POS tagged in Sketch Engine (Kilgarriff *et al.* 2014) and pragmatically coded using NVivo (Version 12, 2018).

4.7.6 Annotation using corpus software

Numerous corpus management and analysis programmes are currently available on the market to researchers, such as AntConc, Wordsmith Tools, WMATRIX, and LancsBox, with each programme enabling different types of analysis. Owing to the mixed-method approach of the present study, the data-analysis programmes chosen needed to meet the requirements of the qualitative and quantitative nature of a CADS methodology. The corpora, DUBCOTT and TIC, were therefore analysed using two different software types, to facilitate the mixed-methods approach – Sketch Engine (Kilgarriff *et al.* 2014) and NVivo (Version 12, 2018).

Sketch Engine

The two corpora used in the present study, TIC and DUBCOTT, were compiled using Sketch Engine, which facilitates generation of word frequency lists, keyword lists, concordance lines, and clusters, as well as the compiling and management of sub-corpora. It conducts automatic part of speech tagging, which allows for generation of frequency lists according to specific word class designations. Sketch Engine was used to

generate the above features for the analysis of both TIC and DUBCOTT, which is discussed in the analytical chapters.

NVivo

Prior to being compiled using Sketch Engine, the text files for both DUBCOTT and TIC were uploaded to NVivo for annotation of pragmatic features. While Sketch Engine is primarily quantitative in function, and mostly automated, NVivo is designed for qualitative analysis, with some quantitative functionality, and requires a greater amount of input from the researcher in order to analyse the data, which fits well into the CADS approach taken in the present study. Unlike Sketch Engine's automatic tagging function, data in NVivo must be tagged manually. After uploading the corpus files, the researcher must then create a tag, or 'node' for each of the features they wish to apply to the corpus. In the case of the thematic tagging of TIC, a thematic analysis was conducted, which required reading and rereading each interview in order to find emergent themes, creating a 'node' for that theme, then applying it to each utterance in the corpus that fit appropriately. Thematic analysis is a process that aims to find patterns, or themes, across a dataset. Themes occurring across the dataset are then named and coded, followed by the final stage of writing up, incorporating quotations from the interviewees in addition to a narrative presentation of the responses. Thematic analysis can be productive in relation to interview data (Mann 2016; Richards 2003) and was used in this present study to explore the second research question – 'What do teachers at three stages of career development believe about their teacher talk?' The reasoning behind identifying themes in data is discussed by Gunawan and Aziza (2017, p.415), where the choice of topical theme is thought to be meaningful in portraying attitudes of the speaker. In the present research, themes were identified both deductively, using the interview questions

as a framework, and inductively as themes emerged separately to the questions. This resulted in the generation of seven distinct themes, used to compile thematic sub-corpora, which are detailed below with examples.

4.7.7 TIC sub-corpus codes

This section introduces the seven thematic codes, with an example from the corpus data for each. These codes and their corresponding sub-corpora are explored in detail in Chapter 6.

Personal definition of teacher talk

[REF.TIC.T5.1695] Teacher talk means to me speaking to the students in an effective and communicative manner, making sure that I am understood and that it is appropriate to their level.

Experience of teacher talk in initial teacher training

[REF.TIC.T3.349] Yeah, they gave us a ratio. They said student talk should be about 70% and teacher talk about 30%. That was the ratio they initially gave us.

Metalinguistic awareness

[REF.TIC.T1.1303] So correction, banter, small talk, instructions; course book instructions “Like look at page 142 question B”, grammar instructions, and pronunciation. Yeah...

Quantification of teacher talk

[REF.TIC.T14.1758] I’m not sure I could put an exact number on it, and I would say it definitely depends on the nature of the lesson.

Learner expectations of teacher talk

[REF.TIC.T12.1711] On the whole yes. I think that that's what students expect. More teacher led, more presentation on things like grammar and that's not to say that they react negatively to pair work and group work.

Approach to positive feedback

[REF.TIC.T2.1615] “Brilliant, perfect, yes”.

Approach to corrective feedback

[REF.TIC.T1.1295] I don't tolerate... so if a student doesn't understand something I will explain it to them. If they don't like it I will ask them... I will instruct them to continue and then they will continue.

4.7.8 DUBCOTT sub-corpus codes

DUBCOTT was coded according to the two teacher turns of the IRF exchange, initiation and feedback, with each teacher utterance assigned a node based on the type of that utterance within the overall teacher turn. Turns were identified and categorised using the Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT) framework (Walsh 2006), which provides examples of turn types in context, as a model. Having established the turn-type, either initiation or feedback, each teacher turn was coded using NVivo, according to a model based on Lyster and Ranta's corrective feedback framework (1997), Brophy's positive feedback strategies (1981) and Long and Sato's highly influential 1983 study on ESL teacher questions. More detailed information on these frameworks is found in Chapter 3, and how they were interpreted for the present study is outlined in Appendix Q.

Table 4.6 DUBCOTT sub-corpus codes

Initiation	Positive feedback	Corrective feedback
Display question	Echo	Ignoring
Referential question	Echo with recast	Use of ‘No’
Concept checking question	Echo with feedback	Prompting
Task management/instruction checking question	Strong acknowledgement	Echo
Nomination	Neutral acknowledgement	Turn completion
	Turn continuation	Recast
	Effort-focused feedback	Direct repair
		Informing

Owing to the often-cited challenge of coding data which is multifunctional in nature (Gibbs 2007), in some cases attempts were made to establish ‘new’ categories of feedback and initiation turn when necessary, such as echo with recast and echo with feedback. These nodes were developed after a lengthy process of coding and recoding, in which it was determined that the utterances in question fit in neither to ‘echo’ or ‘recast’ alone, and in many cases blurred the line between positive and corrective feedback.

Assigning the appropriate nodes to all teacher utterances in both corpora allowed for the analysis of the corpus data according to sub-corpora, with each of the individual nodes providing the data for each sub-corpus. These sub-corpora were uploaded to Sketch Engine to facilitate in-depth analysis of specific features when required, using the CL tools described in section 4.3.2, allowing for the generation of corpus analytical tools such as keyword lists according to each individual sub-corpus.

Before moving to a discussion of the data analysis procedures undertaken in the present study, section 4.8 will introduce and provide examples of each of the aforementioned

pragmatic codes assigned to the DUBCOTT corpus. This section will begin to introduce the features in the context of how they are used by teachers of different career stages – which will be further developed in Chapter 5.

4.7.9 Initiation codes

This section will present each of the pragmatic codes used to tag initiation acts in DUBCOTT, with an example from the corpus for each.

Display questions

[REF.DUBCOTT.T1.6587] Is that a defining clause or a non-defining clause?

Concept checking questions

[REF.DUBCOTT.T6.1305] If you are well off, what does that mean?

Referential questions

[REF.DUBCOTT.T11.3828] [Student name] did you spend much time in Italy?

Task management/instruction checking questions

[REF.DUBCOTT.T5.101] Is everybody happy with those?

Nomination

[REF.DUBCOTT.T.11.5279] Ok, fantastic, what about [Student name]?

[REF.DUBCOTT.T11.5280] Beautiful, ok. [Student name]?

[REF.DUBCOTT.T115281] Ok, very good. [Student name]?
--

Teacher pause

[REF.DUBCOTT.T10.15] As I was walking about by the Seine I suddenly....

4.7.10 Positive feedback codes

This section will present each of the pragmatic codes used to tag positive feedback acts in DUBCOTT, with examples from the corpus for each.

Effort-focused feedback

[REF.DUBCOTT.T7.2282] It's a good observation.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T15.425] Alright, fantastic work guys, I'm sure your brains are tired.

Turn continuation

[REF.DUBCOTT.T6.540] But do you know that from my example?

[SS] No.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T6.541] Is it important?

[S] No.

[REF.DUBCOTT.542] It doesn't matter.

Neutral acknowledgement

[REF.DUBCOTT.T8.4318] Yeah, ok.

Strong acknowledgement

[REF.DUBCOTT.T15.2313] Very good, great.

Echo

[REF.DUBCOTT.T8.5235] What was the last thing that she described?

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.5235] Recent studies.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T8.5236] Recent studies. Ok.

Echo with recast

[REF.DUBCOTT.T9.7086] Related, ok. Drug related.

Echo with feedback

[REF.DUBCOTT.T11.3026] Adverb, exactly.

4.7.11 Corrective feedback codes

This section will present each of the thematic codes used to tag corrective feedback acts in DUBCOTT, with an example from the corpus for each.

Ignoring

[REF.DUBCOTT.T15.2734] How are you?

[S1] More or less.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T15.2735] How are you?

[S2] I'm fine thanks.

Use of 'No'

[REF.DUBCOTT.T10.2242] What is this?

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.2242] Make new friends.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T10.2243] No. It made such a difference.

Informing

[REF.DUBCOTT.1207] Be careful, this really should be there, “even though the weather was bad we went to the beach.”

Prompting

[REF.DUBCOTT.T3.1236] Just take out the of...

Echo

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.1319] I went to put the heating on quite high so that the house will warm up quickly
/kɪkli:/

[REF.DUBCOTT.T4.1320] Quickly? /kɪkli:/

[REF.DUBCOTT.S4.1320] Quickly /kwɪkli:/

Turn completion

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.4958] A life that is protected from...

[REF.DUBCOTT.T9.4959] A life that is protected from unpleasant things.

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.4949.] Yeah, unpleasant.

Recast

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.2656] May I come in your house?

[REF.DUBCOTT.T15.2657] May I come into your house?

Direct repair

[S] I did see a video.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T15.2754] You watched a video.

This section has introduced each of the pragmatic codes assigned to the DUBCOTT corpus and provided examples in context. These codes will be revisited in Chapter 5, in the analysis of initiation and feedback moves at each of the three career stages.

4.8 Chapter summary

This chapter began by reviewing the research questions and aims of the present study, followed by an examination of, and the rationale behind, the chosen methodological framework for the study – the CADS approach. The design of the study was then presented, highlighting the mixed-methods nature that is complemented by the CADS approach as a framework. This was followed by an explanation of the design of the corpora used in the study, including considerations taken concerning representativeness and balance. Participants in the study, both the individual teachers and the institutions within which the data was collected were then presented, followed by an outline of ethical considerations and procedures. The data-collection process, transcription process, and compiling of the corpora themselves were discussed, before introducing the system of coding that was used to analyse the data in both corpora.

The following chapter will present an analysis of the DUBCOTT corpus according to the first research question and sub-question of the present study, which asks how teacher talk varies at three stages of career development, and how does operationalisation of Initiation and Feedback moves vary at the three stages?

Chapter 5: Variation of features of teacher talk according to career stage

'Ladies and gentlemen, it's me, the teacher.' [T7]

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will analyse the DUBCOTT corpus of EFL teacher classroom talk in order to answer the first research question of the present study: How does teacher talk vary at three stages of career development? This question is approached from three directions – the quantity, the context, and the purpose of the teacher talk at each stage. The chapter will begin with an analysis of teacher talk quantity, exploring how much talk is taking place at each career stage with consideration of the contextual factors impacting this – namely teacher experience level, learner proficiency level, and variations among individual teachers. Several metrics were used to calculate teacher talk quantity: total words, percentage ratio, total turns, total utterances, and utterance length, all of which will be discussed throughout the chapter.

The focus of the chapter will then turn to nature of the teacher talk itself – exploring how the teacher turn and its associated moves and acts, is put to use among the three career stages. This chapter will conclude with a summary of the findings presented regarding variations across the three stages.

5.2 Teacher talk quantity according to teacher career stage

While the focus of the present study is teacher talk, it does not exist in a vacuum as teacher turns are contextually situated within interactions with a learner or learners.

While the increase in teacher talk between Stage 2 and Stage 3 is less than 2%, there is a marked increase of 6.6% between Stage 1 and Stage 2. Within the stages themselves the individual percentages of teacher talk differ from teacher to teacher.

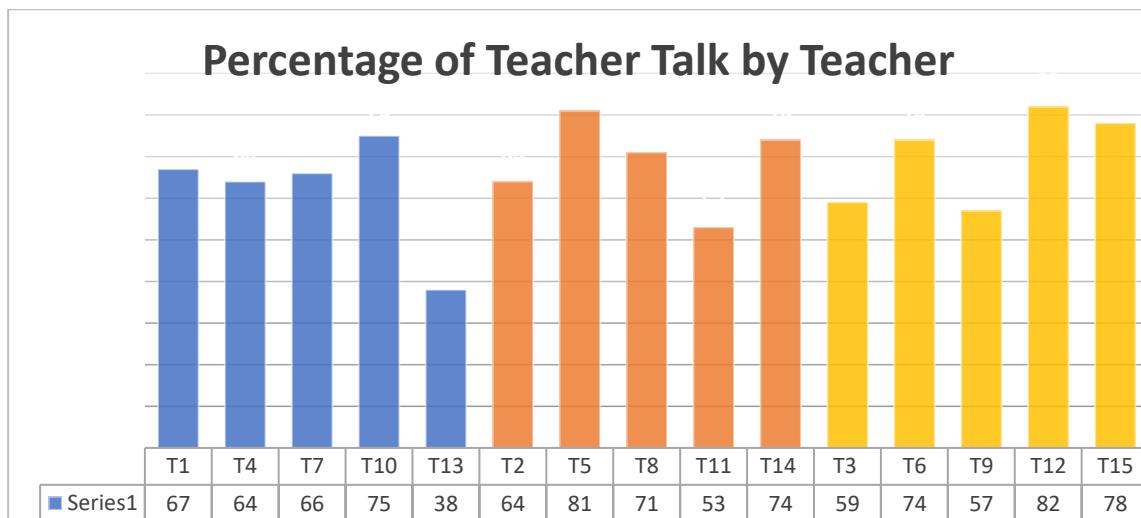


Figure 5.1 Percentage of teacher talk by teacher

As per Figure 5.1, at Stage 1 (in blue) the totals range from 38% to 75%, a margin of 37%. At Stage 2 (in orange) we see a narrower margin of individual teacher talk percentages, between 53% and 81%. Stage 3 (in yellow) shows more consistency between the individual teachers in terms of their teacher talk percentages, while T12 is an outlier with the highest percentage in the group and, indeed, the whole corpus.

In addition to the teachers' experience level and the individual breakdown of teacher to learner talk, the proficiency level of the learners being taught has been accounted for in Table 5.1 in order to inform later analysis.

Table 5.1 Master table – teacher tokens, learner tokens, ratios, codes, learner level

T Code	Stage 1					Stage 2					Stage 3				
	T1	T4	T7	T10	T13	T2	T5	T8	T11	T14	T3	T6	T9	T12	T15
CEFR	A2	A2	B2	A2	C1	C1	B2	B2	C1	B1	B2	B2	B1	C1	A2
TT	6328	5274	5555	7343	6024	6443	7053	7903	4090	8943	5372	9481	11418	7154	9026
ST	3084	2878	2807	2380	9504	3516	1701	3210	3535	3209	3712	3505	8833	1618	2530
TT	67%	64%	66%	75%	38%	64%	81%	71%	53%	74%	59%	74%	56%	82%	78%
ST	33%	36%	34%	25%	62%	36%	19%	29%	47%	26%	41%	26%	44%	18%	22%
TT:ST	59:41					69:31					68:32				

Although there are clear differences in quantity in each of the career-stage groups, there is less of a distinguishable pattern within each stage, with ratios varying considerably teacher by teacher. It must be acknowledged here that teacher career stage cannot be considered the sole factor which determines teacher talk – such variation between teachers as those presented in Table 5.1 may be the result of individual differences, or the teachers' own idiolects;): “an individual way of talking that is normally based on their personal conversational style” (Walsh 2011, p.7). In each case of significantly higher quantities of teacher talk than the corpus or stage average, the quantity can be accounted for by extended, monologic teacher utterances that are unpunctuated by learner contributions. Of these, the longest in the corpus was in T9's (Stage 3) Intermediate lesson, totalling 488 words and comprised of 29 sentences. Four different functions are found in this turn, each of which is colour-coded (Figure 5.2).

[REF.DUBCOTT.T9.1511] Exactly and just can't choose to do nothing, ok. Does that make sense?
 They can't just choose to do nothing. Because obviously it's within their ability to do nothing and just to... it's the same as leaves things as they are. So do nothing and leave things as they are, would be

the same. But from a grammatical point of view it does actually mean something different there. Can't do anything means I can't do anything, it's impossible, my hands are tied. But we can't just do nothing is like they need to do something, they have to do something. And normally would say the two of those things together. They can't do nothing, they have to do something. Think about our little modals the other day; our models of obligation. They have to... they need to do something. Ok, let me see. So a lot of these problems that we have looked at, they are not um... they are not exclusive to urban areas but we talked a little bit... we have a lot of issues there with crime and education and animal rights, and we talked a little bit about the words that we had done on the board, and what I'm going to do now is I am going to just give you a couple of questions about that idea of urban and rural life. We talked a little bit about it yesterday. Everyone is going to get a card with a different question on it and what I need you to do is I'm going to start you off in pairs, I'm going to give you a limited period of time; a couple of minutes; with the person beside you; and then I will swap you to a different person, ok. And all they need to do is try to get the other persons opinion on your question. If you need to make a little note of it that's fine. At the end of it I'm going to get you to think for a minute about how you could summarise the views of the other people in the class, ok. So it's not going to be a personal sort of, you know, [Student Name] thinks this and [Student Name] thinks this. But a general idea of most of the people in the class think something along these lines but there are a couple of people who disagreed and thought something else, ok. So have a look at your question. Everyone's question is different. There you are... and I will get you to start with the person beside you. So we've got like two, two and two. And I will give you two minutes... maybe I guess if you have both got a different question, maybe three minutes with each person. So at three minutes I'm going to swap you, ok. So you are going to talk about each question and we will go with three minutes.

Figure 5.2 Extended teacher utterance, T9 (Stage 3)

The first function performed in this turn, highlighted in red, is the teacher's response to a learner clarification request, which transitions into a reference to a recently covered grammar item. The next sentence, in purple, is T9's use of a 'tying move' (Hall and Smotrova 2013) – a form of teacher self-talk that is used as a non-instructional transition sequence. In this example, T9 appears to be re-orienting herself to her plan after the divergence caused by the learner question, and though the utterance is not directed at the learners, it still serves to keep their attention while she moves on to stage the next task. Highlighted in green, the following two sentences serve to connect the previous activity to the upcoming practice task, while linking the task to broader objectives – in this case the previous day's discussion. Lastly, the passage highlighted in blue shows the

conclusion of the shift, within the one teacher turn, from skills and systems mode to managerial mode (Walsh 2006) as T9 sets up the task by distributing the materials and organising the interaction patterns.

This turn could be said to flout several standards of best practice in teacher talk, in particular that of providing short and explicit instructions, but there is no indication in the following learner turns that there were issues of comprehension or lack of clarity caused by this extensive teacher utterance. Despite having the highest teacher talk in the corpus in terms of total words, T9's lesson had the lowest percentage of teacher talk in the proficient stage, indicating that her extended teacher utterances did not inhibit learner production significantly.

T5 (Stage 2), a developing teacher who was teaching a B2 group at the time of data collection, had a teacher talk percentage of 81, which was the highest of the B2 lessons. Like T9, T5's lesson included several extended teacher utterances, which, although shorter than T9's, were more frequently occurring throughout the lesson. A recurring feature of these extended utterances is the transition from feedback to initiation within the same turn, without ceding the floor to the learners between the two moves.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T5.5720] The best boy; who can be a male or female. So you could have a girl who is a best boy. If you ever watch the movie... the next time you go to the cinema wait until the end and watch the credits go by and you will see grip, key grip, best boy, best boy grip and all that kind of stuff. Now for this exercise make sure your books are closed but you need this sheet. So with the books closed you have to go over the sentences again and underline the language that talks about responsibilities, ok? Underline the line which talks about responsibilities. Most of the language is the phrases you saw in the book two minutes ago. But there are some new words in there too. Look at the first one. It's up to the director to co-ordinate all creative aspects of a film. He or she answers only to blank. Which language talks about responsibility?

This turn shifts from a response move to a clarification request, to staging of the practice task, to a display question – thereby effectively beginning the task with the learners by way of inclusion of the display question.

When total teacher turns and their average lengths were calculated, it was found that Stage 1 teachers on average produced the most turns (376) followed by Stage 2 (346) and Stage 3 (321). When this was compared to average length of turn the results were inverted, with Stage 3 turns the longest (21.6 words), followed by Stage 2 (20.8 words) and Stage 1 (17.7 words).

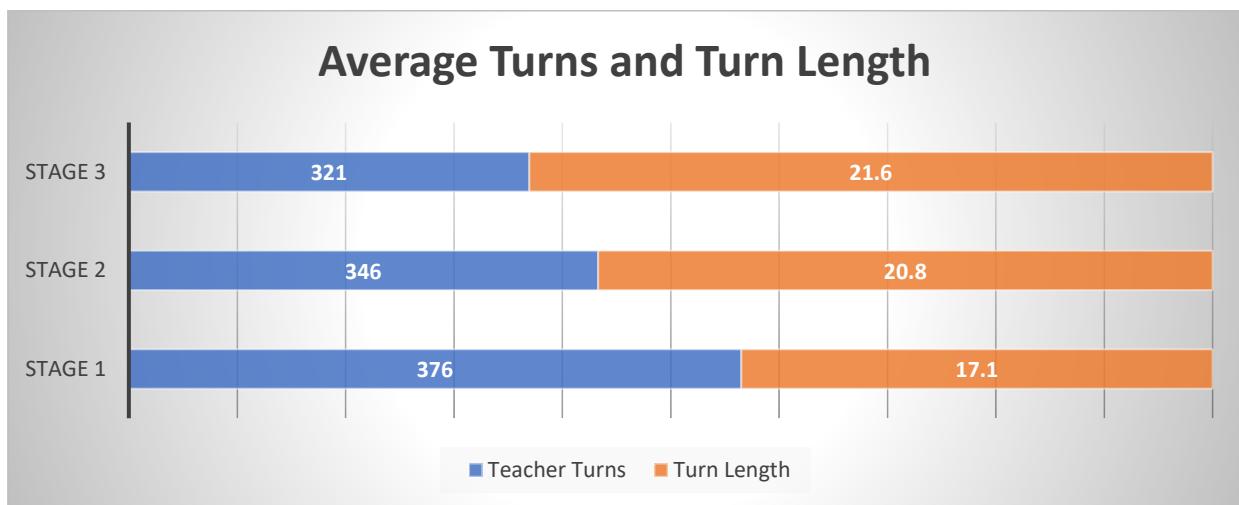


Figure 5.3 Average turns and turn length

This indicates that although novice teachers may contribute more turns than their more experienced peers, the length of turns increases as the teachers progress in experience.

As observed above and highlighted by Figure 4.1, various contributing factors can be considered when quantifying the amount of teacher talk being produced, and learner proficiency level may be one of these factors. Figure 5.4 presents a distinct pattern in the

distribution of teacher talk across the four learner proficiency levels present in the corpus.

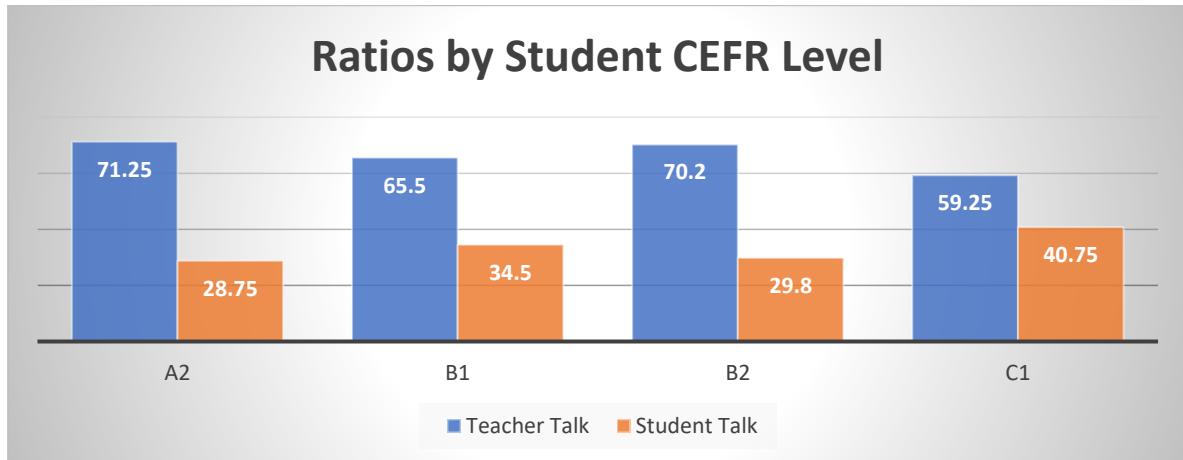


Figure 5.4 Ratios by student CEFR level

Overall, the quantity of teacher talk decreases as the learner level increases, barring a rise in teacher talk between B1 and B2. This rise at B2 appears to be anomalous given the steady increase in learner production across the levels and can be accounted for by reference to the individual teachers' data in Table 5.1 and T5's higher-than-average percentage of teacher talk.

When considering learner CEFR level as the variable, the highest quantity of teacher talk occurred in A2 lessons, followed by B2, B1 and C1 respectively. The A2 lessons each contained teacher talk percentages of between 64% and 79% with a mean of 71.25%, while the B1 lessons showed a broader range of between 57% and 74% with a mean of 65.5%. B2 lessons ranged between 59% and 81% with a mean of 70.2%. The C1 lessons contained both the lowest and the highest quantities of teacher talk, with a low of 38%, a high of 82% and a mean of 59%. It must be noted that the lesson that had more learner talk than teacher talk, the only such result in the corpus, was taught by a

novice teacher, T13. This low quantity of teacher talk was acknowledged and referenced by T13 during his post-observation interview and will be explored further in Chapter 6 which analyses the Teacher Interview Corpus.

Having presented how the quantity of teacher talk varies according to the variables of career stage, individual teacher and learner proficiency level, in the following section we will examine the nature of the teacher talk itself.

5.2.2 Features of teacher talk by teacher career stage

Variable factors in the quantities of teacher talk at different career stages have been established thus far; let us now consider the teacher talk itself. Both teacher turns in the IRF/E sequence are being examined in the present study: initiation, which includes various initiation acts but is primarily comprised of questions, and feedback, which has been separated according to two moves – positive feedback and corrective feedback, both of which are comprised of several different acts.

In order to establish a baseline of how teacher talk is organised in the DUBCOTT corpus, the total quantity of each of the three features was calculated and converted into a percentage of the total classroom talk. As described in Chapter 4, this was achieved by the manual tagging of each teacher turn according to one of the three turn categories (initiation, positive feedback or corrective feedback). These turns were further subcategorised according to their respective acts.

As illustrated by Figure 5.5, positive feedback was the most frequently occurring feature in the entire corpus with 48% of the total turns, followed by initiation at 38%. Corrective feedback occupies the smallest proportion of the three, with only 14% of the total turns.

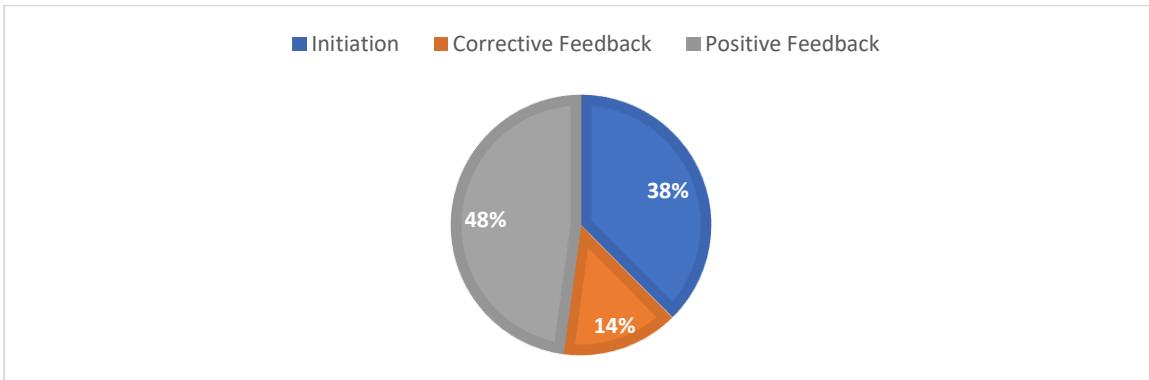


Figure 5.5 Distribution of teacher turns

These data were then broken down across the three teacher career stages – the average total of initiation turns, corrective feedback turns, and positive feedback turns for each of the three career stages is presented in Figure 5.6. For some of the cohort there was a difference of mere months between being categorised as Stage 1 or Stage 2, and yet the difference between the results is notable.

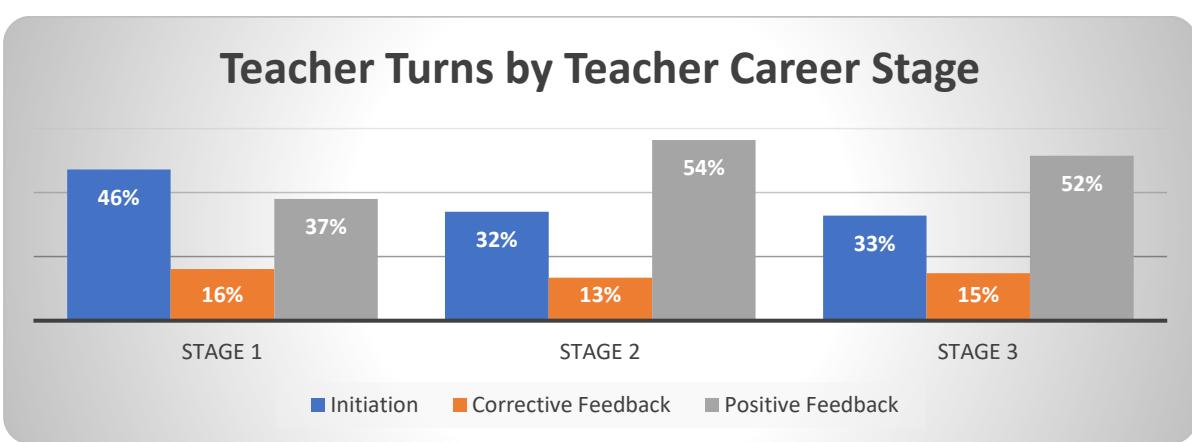


Figure 5.6 Teacher turns by teacher career stage

Corrective feedback remains in third position at all three stages, and Stage 2 and Stage 3 follow the same pattern of distribution as the overall distribution of turns (Figure 5.7) with positive feedback in highest quantity at 54% and 52% respectively, followed by initiation at 32% and 33% respectively. The similarities between Stage 2 and Stage 3 are notable, with a very narrow margin of 1–2% between them in each of the three turns. Stage 1 has inverted this pattern with more initiation turns (46%) than positive feedback turns (37%), and the highest quantity of corrective feedback of the three stages at 16%. Turning now to the quantity of features by each teacher in their respective stages – a distinct lack of consistency is evident within the teacher cohorts, with varying frequency of each of the features.

5.3 Turns by teacher

The following section will examine the teacher talk in use by individual teachers at the three stages, in order to identify patterns or anomalies within each stage. All percentages presented in this section are calculated using each teacher's total turns, as shown in Table 4.5, Section 4.7.4.

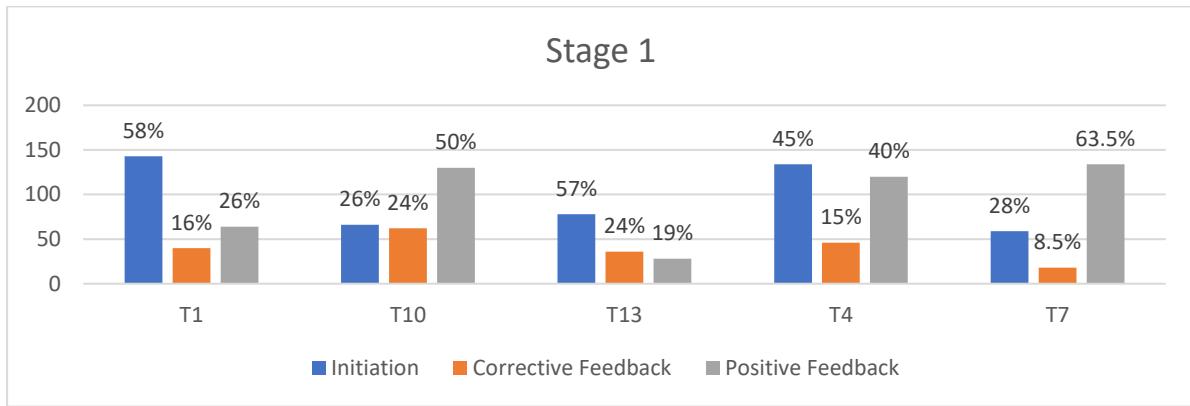


Figure 5.7 Stage 1 teacher turns

Of the Stage 1 teachers (Figure 5.7), the majority of the initiation turns were in the lessons of T1 and T4, both of whom were teaching A2 groups. The amount of initiation cannot be attributed to the level of the learners alone, however, as T10 was also teaching an A2 group and used initiation far less frequently than the other two A2 teachers. The teacher who used this feature the least, T7, was teaching a B2 group. The least corrective feedback in Stage 1 was given by T7, in a B2 group, while the most was given by T10, in an A2 group.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T10.2308] Which one is the adjective, cheap or quickly?

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.2308] Both.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T1.2309] No. Cheap, what's cheap?

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.2309] An adjective.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T10.2310] It's an adjective.

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.2310] And quickly is an adverb.

Positive feedback saw the highest figures across the cohort, with T13 providing the least positive feedback of all the Stage 1 teachers, followed by T1.

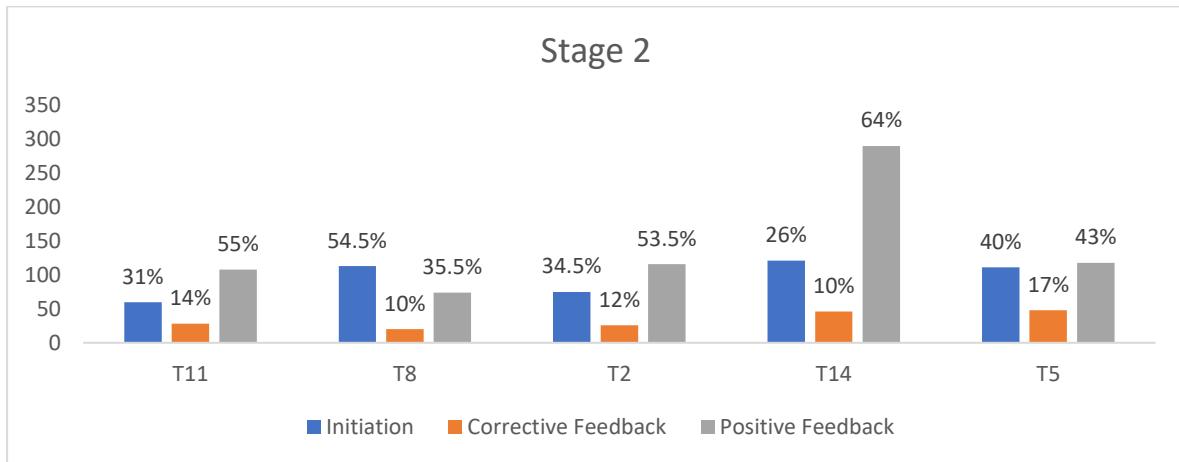


Figure 5.8 Stage 2 teacher turns

Initiation in Stage 2 (figure 5.8) was more stable than in Stage 1, with a low point of 60 initiation turns from T11, and a high of 121 from T14. Corrective feedback turns per teacher were higher than in Stage 1, without substantial differences between the teachers. Positive feedback at this stage was also relatively consistently distributed among the teachers, with the exception of the extreme peak of positive feedback turns from T14.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T14.2] Perfect. So after he had tried on six pairs of shoes he decided he liked the first ones best.
[REF.DUBCOTT.T14.4] Perfect [Student Name]. So when Mary had done all her shopping she took a short walk. Alright, what about sentence three?
[REF.DUBCOTT.T14.11] Perfect. So again either way.
[REF.DUBCOTT.T14.102] No, excellent. Part B then.
[REF.DUBCOTT.T14.218] Must be worn. Alright, excellent guys.

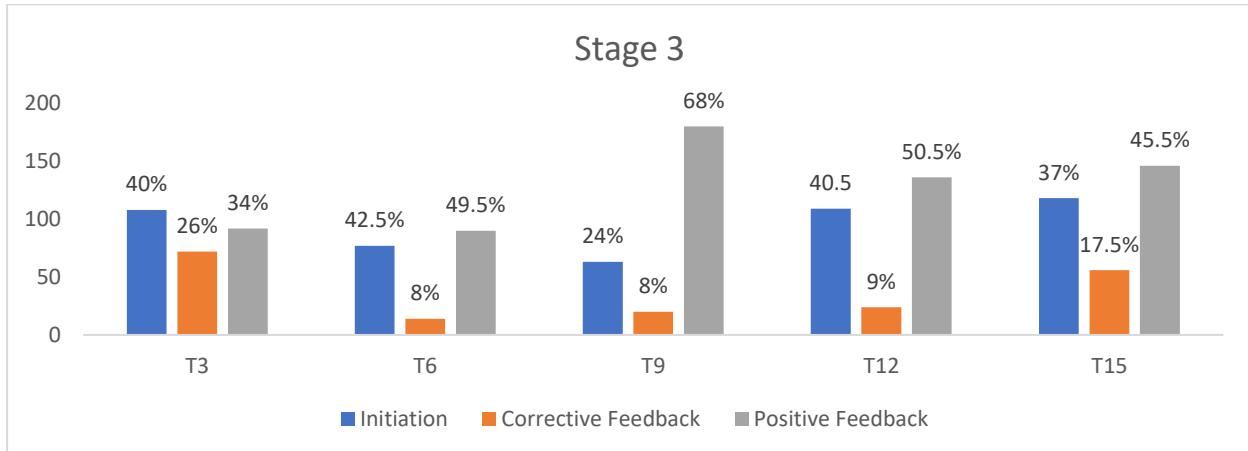


Figure 5.9 Stage 3 teacher turns

Stage 3 (Figure 5.9), in general, bears a closer resemblance to Stage 1 when the breakdown by teacher is considered, despite being more similar to Stage 2 overall. This stage contains the widest variety of learner levels, from A2 to C1, and although the highest totals can be seen from T15, who was teaching an A2 group at the time of recording, similarly high figures are found with T3's B2 group. The most positive feedback in this stage was produced by T9, while the most corrective feedback turns in the entire DUBCOTT corpus were produced by a Stage 3 teacher, T3.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T3.1225] **Good. In spite of, [Student Name]?**
 [REF.DUBCOTT.S.1225] In spite that the weather was bad we went to the beach.
[REF.DUBCOTT.T3.1226] Be careful, it's in spite of.
 [REF.DUBCOTT.S.1226] Of the weather. In spite of the weather...

5.4 Initiation and feedback acts in three career stages

To follow the pattern of the IRF/E framework, we will begin by examining acts within the initiation turn.

5.4.1 Initiation according to teacher career stage

Table 5.2 presents the percentage of each of the six initiation acts (4.6.8) in the DUBCOTT corpus as a whole. Total frequency of each act, and the averages by stage, can be found in Appendices N, O and P.

Table 5.2 Initiation acts across DUBCOTT (all stages)

Initiation act	Total percentage in DUBCOTT (all stages)
Concept checking questions (CCQS)	20%
Display questions	17%
Referential questions	12%
Nomination	22%
Task management/instruction checking	13%
Teacher pause	16%

Nomination is the most frequently used initiation act type in DUBCOTT, followed by CCQs, display questions, teacher pause, task management/instruction checking questions, and referential questions. Having established the baseline of frequency for each of the six initiation act types in DUBCOTT as a whole, we will now look at the acts in detail across stages of career. Figure 5.13 shows the distribution of initiation acts across the three career stages.

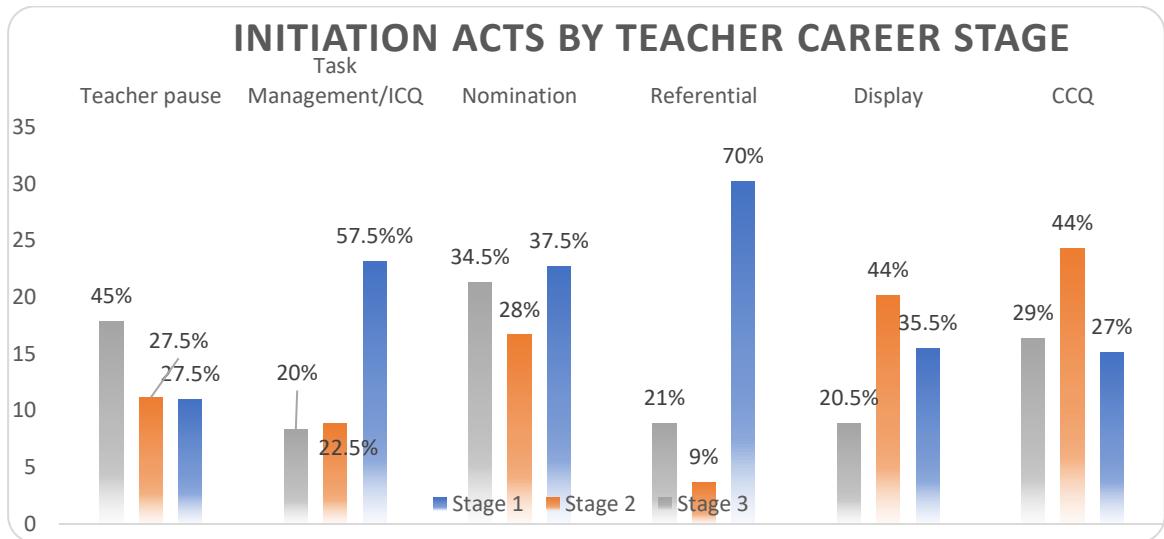


Figure 5.10 Initiation acts by teacher career stage

The breakdown of initiation acts, as shown in Figure 5.10, presents an overview of how the various questions and acts within the initiation turn vary, depending on the career stage of the teacher cohort in question. Referential questions appear to be favoured by Stage 1 teachers, with 70% of all referential questions in DUBCOTT found amongst the Novice cohort. Likewise, task management questions and instruction-checking questions (ICQs) are used significantly more by Stage 1 teachers than their more experienced peers. High points can be found in Stage 2 and Stage 3, with the majority of display and concept checking questions occurring among the Stage 2 cohort, while the most teacher pause in DUBCOTT was used by Stage 3 teachers. Sections 5.4.2 – Section 5.4.5 will examine the initiation acts in more detail, and according to each of the three career stages.

5.4.2 Initiation – Stage 1

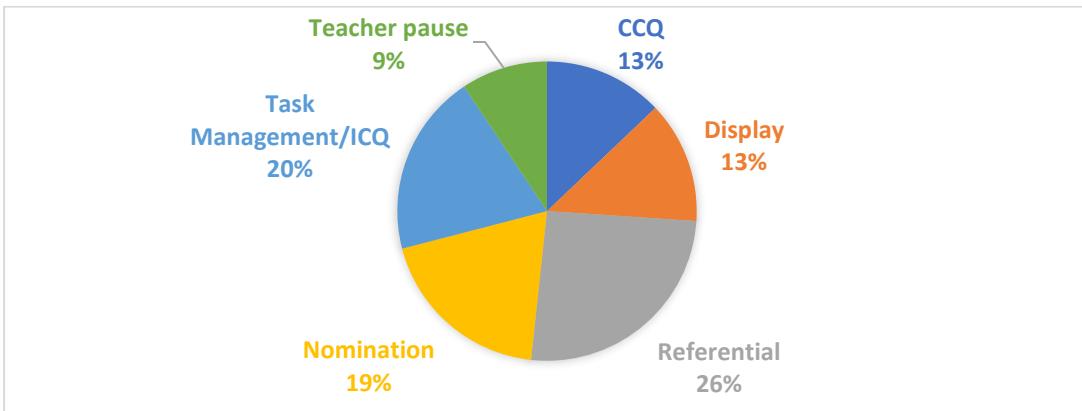


Figure 5.11 Stage 1 initiation acts

A detailed breakdown of initiation acts in Stage 1 shows how greatly the novice teachers differ in their operationalisation of this turn from the average distribution (Table 5.2), with referential questions being used more frequently than the other initiation acts in this stage by a margin of 14% more than the cohort average of 12%. Consultation of the individual teacher turns found this to be the result of an unusually high number of referential questions (so called ‘genuine’ questions to which the teacher does not know the response, or is not seeking a specific response) in T1’s lesson, and is therefore not necessarily representative of the stage as a whole. While referential questions can be used as a means of eliciting target language, which was generally the case among Stage 2 and Stage 3 teachers, T1 appeared to use them conversationally, and often with no clear link to the lesson itself.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T1.6701] How do you say hello in Vietnamese?
[REF.DUBCOTT.T1.6807] You don't like avocado? This weekend I ate four avocados. I love avocados. I just mash, mash, mash them.
[REF.DUBCOTT.T1.7002] And where is the best butter in the world?

Referential questions are followed in frequency by task management/instruction checking questions. This initiation act was used more than twice as frequently by Stage 1 teachers than Stage 2 or Stage 3 (Figure 5.10), and primarily consists of questions related to completion of tasks and time management.

The task Management/ICQ category refers to teachers' use of initiation as a form of classroom management, using questions to ensure learners are completing the task correctly and that they have understood the instructions. This act is the most frequent among the Stage 1 teachers and is primarily used in relation to time management of learner activities – *finished* was one of the most frequently occurring words in this category across all stages.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T1.6811] Guys have you finished A? Are you finished doing this?

[REF.DUBCOTT.10.2239] Good, are you happy? Are you finished?

This categorisation includes the more specific instruction checking questions (ICQs) in which teachers use the initiation turn to establish that learners have grasped the nature of the task they are completing.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T7.432] So in your groups... if your answers are different try to rationalise why you think the answer is correct? Alright?

As in the noun frequency list (Appendix I), *guy* was only used in the plural form as a collective noun used by the teacher to engage all learners in the task, often as *you guys*. This cluster was used to initiate a turn, to check progress or completion of a task, and to give praise for the learners' hard work.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T7.2440] And then we did may, might, might not, could, will... yeah? And we did now... this writing that we did now, this dictation, is here. Yeah, this is what we did as well. So it's in the unit as well. And we did unlikely, likely, more likely... we did loads of things. My god, **you guys** are great.

Nomination – the direct questioning of a learner or a group of learners during the instruction or correction stage of an activity – was the third most frequently used initiation type at this stage.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T7.2109] [Student Name], what do you see?

[REF.DUBCOTT.T13.4952] Does anyone have an answer for number five?

Although there are examples of Stage 1 teachers addressing the room at large in order to elicit a response, the majority of uses of nomination involve the use of the individual learners' names. Nomination was also used in a classroom management function in order to gain the attention of specific learners, or to question their engagement in the task.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T7.4029] One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten. [Student Name], I'm watching you.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T13.5005] [Student Name], just read number six for me please?

Stage 1 teachers, therefore, primarily use initiation turns for organisational means – to manage time, tasks and learners, with less time spent in this turn on form or meaning focused initiation types such as concept checking or display questions.

5.4.3 Initiation – Stage 2

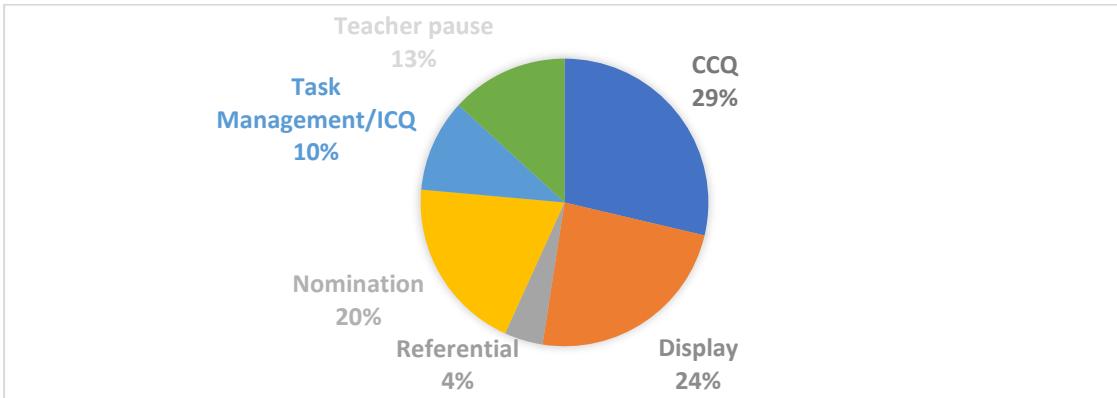


Figure 5.12 Stage 2 initiation acts

In sharp contrast to Stage 1, there was very little use of referential questioning among Stage 2 teachers, with only four examples in the Stage 2 sub-corpus – three of which were from T5’s lesson and of those two occurred during one exchange.

T5 used referential questions to model the target language during the lesson’s lead-in by eliciting example scenarios from his learners.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T5.5684] Has anybody worked in a very bureaucratic job?

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.5684] I was working last year before I came to Ireland for the President of Venezuela and the President of this country is the boss of the country and in Ireland the president is like a figurehead but in Venezuela the president has the power.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T5.5685] [Student Name], who do you answer to in your job?

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.5685] I don’t have a job in Ireland. I went here just two weeks ago but in Brazil I was manager of projects and I see a lot of plans, excel and word, and we have training with GPs.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T5.5686] Yeah, but did you have a boss? Who is one step above you?

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.5686] Yes, I had one co-ordinator. I reported to him.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T5.5687] Yeah, so that’s another way of saying it, you reported to him.

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.5687] Yes.

This shift in usage from conversational to targeted is indicative of the overall shift towards more of a focus on form and language than in Stage 1, which is exemplified by the high

frequency of concept checking questions and display questions among Stage 2 teachers.

As discussed in Chapter 4, although a display question can be categorised as a type of concept checking question, they are presented in DUBCOTT in a very specific format. A concept checking question is open and does not lead the learners to provide a specific answer:

[REF.DUBCOTT.T8.5406] Why is it in the present simple guys?

[REF.DUBCOTT.T5.5700] Ok, so in charge of, what does that mean?

Display questions are presented with options for the learner to choose from, and generally in an ‘either/or’ structure.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T14.6884] Are they about an imagined past, a future past or an imagined future?

Although both CCQs and display questions are used in high proportions at Stage 2, the higher frequency of the former suggests a shift towards a focus on form, and more use of inductive approaches to systems teaching than at Stage 1.

Teacher pause occupies 13% of the Stage 2 initiation turns but was used mostly by T14 during one extensive grammar correction activity.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T14.15] As I was walking about by the Seine I suddenly...

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.15] Saw.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T14.16] Saw a familiar face. It was Najima, the woman I...

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.16] Had...

[REF.DUBCOTT.T14.17] Had shared...I had shared a flat with when I was a student and whose address I...

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.17] Had lost.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T14.18] Had lost. Because did this happen when I was a student or when I arrived in past this time?

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.18] Before.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T14.19] When I was a student. So before I saw her now. I could tell her...

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.19] Hadn't seen.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T14.20] Hadn't seen. Yeah. Ok.

In this open-class exchange, T14 gives the response turn a dual function, using it to provide feedback through the use of echo as well as inviting the next learner response through the use of teacher pause.

The growing focus on form among Stage 2 teachers is highlighted in the increased presence of nouns related to classroom content, either from materials or language systems terminology. Examination of noun frequency lists during initiation turns at all three stages show an increase in usage of nouns related to classroom content, rising from 4 to 6 of the top ten between Stage 1 and Stage 3. The term *guy* is predominantly used in the plural to collectively refer to the students, and the absence of the noun in the top ten list of Stage 3 is notable. Further exploration of the frequency list shows that *guy* does not appear until 18th place at Stage 3, suggesting that Stage 3 teachers may spend more time addressing individual learners than the class as a whole, but also that they spend less time on management of tasks, which often requires use of the collective noun.

The lower frequency of task management questions in Stage 2 than Stage 1 indicates a more confident approach to organisation of tasks, with Stage 2 teachers more likely to transition from one task to the next without consulting with learners first. This may also suggest a more developed sense of learner ability, leading to more effective planning and timing of tasks.

5.4.4 Initiation – Stage 3

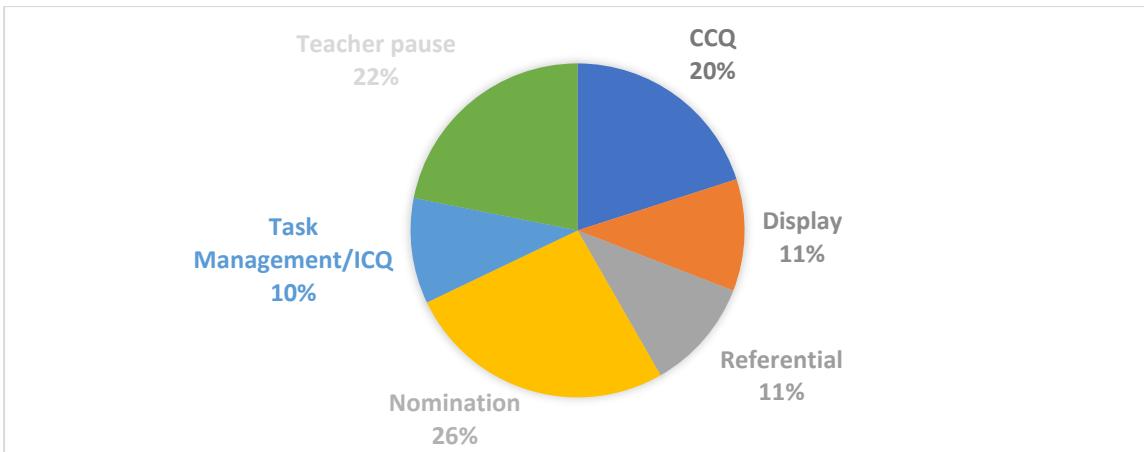


Figure 5.13 Stage 3 initiation acts

The Stage 3 approach to initiation turns is far more varied than the earlier stages, with nomination taking the position of the most frequently occurring initiation act. Learner names are used consistently by four of the five Stage 3 teachers – in each case every individual student in the group was referred to by name at least once. When not using individual names, the preferred option appears to be the use of the collective and relatively gender-neutral *guys*. The following extract from T3's lesson on advertising includes 3 uses of *guys*, with different functions:

[REF.DUBCOTT.T3.1009] Ok guys, so [Student Name] is going to go around to everyone and interview everyone. Everyone else is...Make a little note of who told you what. You've got a fantastic memory but...so just [Student Name]...

[Students talk for 7 minutes]

[REF.DUBCOTT.T3.1010] Ok guys. So [Student Name] did you find anyone you can think of on this misleading trial... or misleading advertising?

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.1010] Yeah, they talk about the anti-...

[REF.DUBCOTT.S2.1010] They talk about the wrinkle product.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T3.1011] The anti-wrinkle products?

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.1011] Anti- wrinkle?

[REF.DUBCOTT.T3.1012] He thinks they are misleading. Ok. They don't work.

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.1012] No.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T3.1013] Do you guys use anti-wrinkle products? You are all too young.
[REF.DUBCOTT.S.1013] Not yet.

The first is used to orient the learners to the new task, and to draw attention to the instruction being given. The second is to bring the learners back to open class from their communicative practice activity, while the final use is to address the group of learners as a whole in a familiar, conversational manner, using the target language while doing so.

As in Stage 2, teacher pause is a frequent feature at Stage 3 but is once again predominantly used by one teacher – in this case in T12's lesson on phrasal verbs.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T12.239] So we ran out of milk, there is no milk, the milk has gone off, you have milk but it's expired and you don't want to drink it. That's disgusting. If you don't succeed at first you should keep...

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.239] On.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T12.240] On trying. Is there any difference between keep on and keep? In this case it means...

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.240] Continue.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T12.241] Yeah, continue. Keep on and keep are exactly the same. Just phrasal verbs are more fun. Alright, I'm looking...

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.241] Forward to...

[REF.DUBCOTT.T12.242] Forward to. So remember after look forward to... after all of these you need a participle or a noun. Looking forward to is what?

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.242] Excitement.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T12.243] Forward. Excitement. So anticipation, excitement, expectation. Exactly, it's all very positive. The meeting was put...

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.243] Off.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T12.244] Off means...

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.244] Postponed.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T12.245] Postponed. Give me another one? Another word for postpone? It starts with D...

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.245] Delayed.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T12.246] Excellent, postponed or delayed. Brian takes...

Although referential questions and display questions were used with almost equally low frequency by Stage 3 teachers, concept checking questions were the third most frequent initiation act at this Stage. The majority of CCQs were found during T9's vocabulary lesson on the topic of urban issues, and were used to elicit the meaning of new lexis found in a reading text.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T9.7381] Ok, what type of word there is racially?
[REF.DUBCOTT.T9.7418] What else do people normally have the right to? Access to what?
[REF.DUBCOTT.T9.7446] If you have got dealers and users... what verb could you get from this?

Task management/ICQs were used with equally low frequency by Stage 3 teachers which further suggests that more experienced teachers have developed more confidence and better judgement of tasks and timings than early career teachers.

Different approaches to management of tasks was also evidenced in how instructions were delivered by teachers across the three stages.

Table 5.4 Initiation clusters by stage

Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3
what animal would you be	So we are going to	we are going to do
I would like you to	You are going to have to	we went to the beach
we are going to do	what we are going to	we are just going to
is not on the board	we are going to look at	at the end of the
a new lease of life	I want you to do	and you are going to
So we are going to	do you pronounce this word	you do n't need to
So I would like you to	I would like you to	that you would like to
you can do with your friends	with the person beside you	and I want you to
noise does this animal make	we are going to go	So we are going to
if it had a garden	by the time you were	I need you to do

Table 5.4 shows the ten most frequent clusters used during initiation turns. In each stage there are two examples of directive or instructional phrases using *I*, with differences apparent in the stages. At Stage 1 *I would like* is the only structure used, while at Stage 2

the teachers use both *I want you to* as well as *I would like you to*. At Stage 3 there is no polite modal incorporated, with teachers using *want* and *need* to deliver instructions.

While Stage 1 teachers generally present instructions in the form of a personal request, using the first-person pronoun *I*, pronoun use varies more widely in Stages 2 and 3. The pronominal choice of *we* by teachers at all stages, particularly in instruction and staging clusters, is significant as it indicates that the teacher is positioning themselves with the learners, rather than as a separate, exclusive figure (Chilton and Schaffner 1997). The use of the person deixis in this case serves a social function, presenting the teacher on an equal footing with the learners in the activity, again redressing the asymmetric power relationship inherent in institutional discourse settings such as this.

We is known for its high frequency in institutional or context-governed discourse contexts such as the language classroom (Rühlemann 2007) and has been linked to the speaker's indexing of their community identity (Clancy 2010). Although the most frequent clusters with *we* in DUBCOTT all relate to classroom tasks (*we are going to*, *we are talking*, *we need to*) in directive speech acts (Dorschel 1989), the speaker, by using *we*, creates a closer relationship with their interlocutors, and establishes a common bond (O'Keeffe 2006).

[REF.DUBCOTT.T9.5240] Alright. So can we try first and then we will listen to check afterwards?

Such uses of *we* have been found in other discourse settings, for example in the context of workplace discourse. In their investigation of Spoken Business English (SBE) in the Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Business English (CANBEC) corpus, McCarthy

and Handford (2004) found *we need to* was used far more frequently than *you need to* – 520 occurrences of the former compared to 212 of the latter. McCarthy and Handford see this as representative of “the high degree of collective goal-stating in SBE, even if this is only a projected or feigned collectiveness” (McCarthy and Handford 2004, p.177). This can be directly equated to the use of *we* clusters in DUBCOTT, in which the use of the collective pronoun in these mitigates the directness of the directive by presenting it in “an indirect form, protecting face and less direct than possibly face-threatening demands or directives” (p.180).

In Stage 2 we see the presence of a complex structure being used by the teachers: *You are going to have to.*

[REF.DUBCOTT.T5.5548] So in a minute or in a second you are going to have to stand up and you are going to have to talk to everybody in the class.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T8.1342] I'm going to put you in groups of two and I'm going to give you different cards and you are going to have to try and use the clauses of contrast and purpose, by giving eight pieces of information to your partner.

The use of the modal of obligation *have to* after the very commonly used ‘going to’ future by two different teachers at this stage is unusual in DUBCOTT, where modals of obligation are not present in any of the top ten frequency lists or keyword lists. When frequency of *have to* was analysed by teacher career stage it was found that Stage 2 teachers use this modal the most frequently of the three stages, with Stage 3 teachers using it the least. The remainder of the clusters at all stages are examples of teacher ‘managerial’ language (Walsh 2006), which is commonly associated with the setting up or staging of an activity, with utterances such as *look at the*, and *go to the* featuring

prominently, as well as clusters intended to guide learners within the task, such as *on the board*, *the first one* and “*the last one*.

A phenomenon of note in the initiation turn data at all stages is the presence of *a little bit* and *a lot of*. Examination of concordance lines for these clusters indicate the teachers use of the quantifier when staging the lesson, or when encouraging continued effort in the task.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T8.179] Let's try a little bit of practice and see how we feel with this.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T1.6770] So we are going to do a little bit of reading.

On the other hand, although most of the uses of *a lot of* are in the context of quantifying nouns for the purpose of a language task (*a lot of money*, *a lot of people*) there are several instances of teachers using the cluster as part of their lesson staging, almost in the form of a warning or caveat to the learners.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T7.4022] So we are going to talk about communication and we are going to have a lot of vocabulary.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T15.2767] And then we had that homework and we had... oh my God, why did I give you so much homework last night? You had a lot of homework.

These examples appear to show the teachers' attempts to display recognition of the difficulty of the tasks, and an acknowledgement of the work being put in by the learners. Coupled with the use of *we* in the above examples, the teacher is enforcing the notion of their being in the same position as the learners as a peer and collaborator rather than a separate actor in the learning process, suggesting an awareness – conscious or otherwise – of a key element of Sociocultural theory; learning taking place through collaboration (Lantolf 1994).

5.4.5 Initiation summary

Variation in initiation act use at the three stages begins to indicate different approaches among the three career stages. While referential questions and task management/instruction checking questions are prominent among the novice cohort, these appear to decline in line with increased experience. Conversely, form-focused questioning in the form of CCQs and display questions appear to peak at Stage 2, and do not increase incrementally with the stage of career, although Stage 3 teachers are found to use marginally more CCQs than Stage 1. This progressive attention to focus on form could indicate teachers' growing awareness of the co-constructed nature of language – another key element of Sociocultural theory of learning (Vygotsky 1978; Lantolf 1994) – and the importance of drawing learners' attention to form as a means of enhancing uptake (Schmidt 1990). A consistent point of note is the use of nomination and similarly equal frequency across all three stages, which may suggest a focus in the cohort overall on prompting learner production.

5.5 Positive feedback according to teacher career stage

Table 5.5 presents the total percentage of use of each of the seven positive feedback acts (see 4.7.10) in the DUBCOTT corpus as a whole.

Table 5.5 Distribution of positive feedback acts – DUBCOTT

Positive feedback act	Total percentage in DUBCOTT (all stages)
Turn continuation	5%
Strong acknowledgement	21%
Neutral acknowledgement	18%
Echo with recast	6%
Effort-focused feedback	3%
Echo	42%

Echo with feedback	5%
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Figure 5.17 presents the breakdown of each of the seven positive feedback acts, according to average occurrence within each stage. Echo is, on average across the corpus, the most frequently used positive feedback act, particularly at Stage 2 and Stage 3, followed by strong acknowledgement and neutral acknowledgement. The remaining features, echo with recast, echo with feedback, and turn continuation are used relatively equally, followed by effort-focused feedback with the lowest frequency.

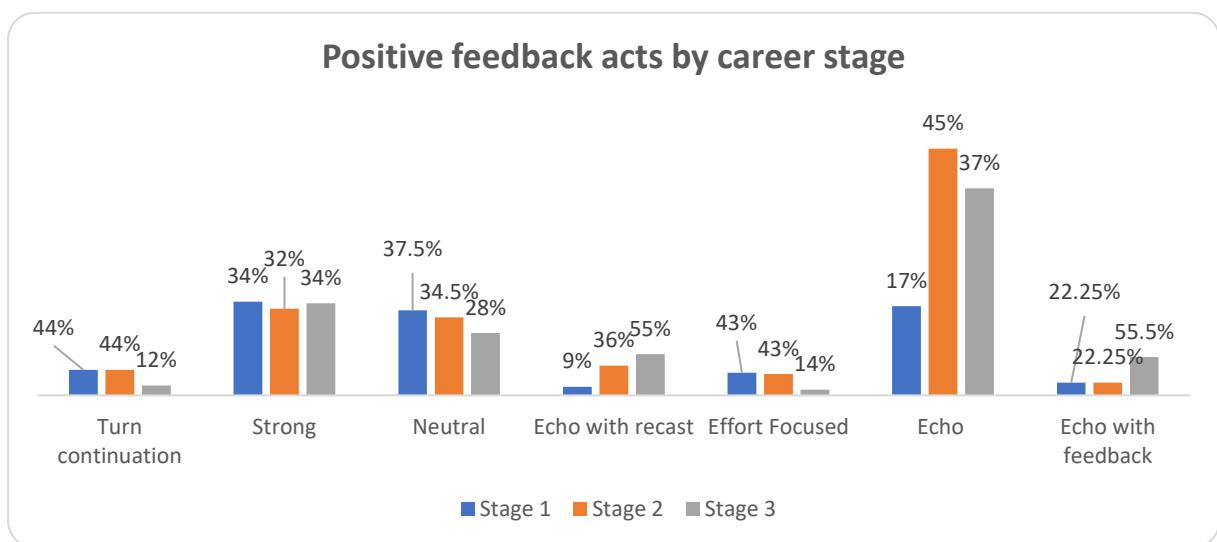


Figure 5.14 Positive feedback acts by career stage

Having established the average use across the corpus of the seven positive feedback acts, their use within each of the three career stages will now be examined.

5.5.1 Positive feedback – Stage 1

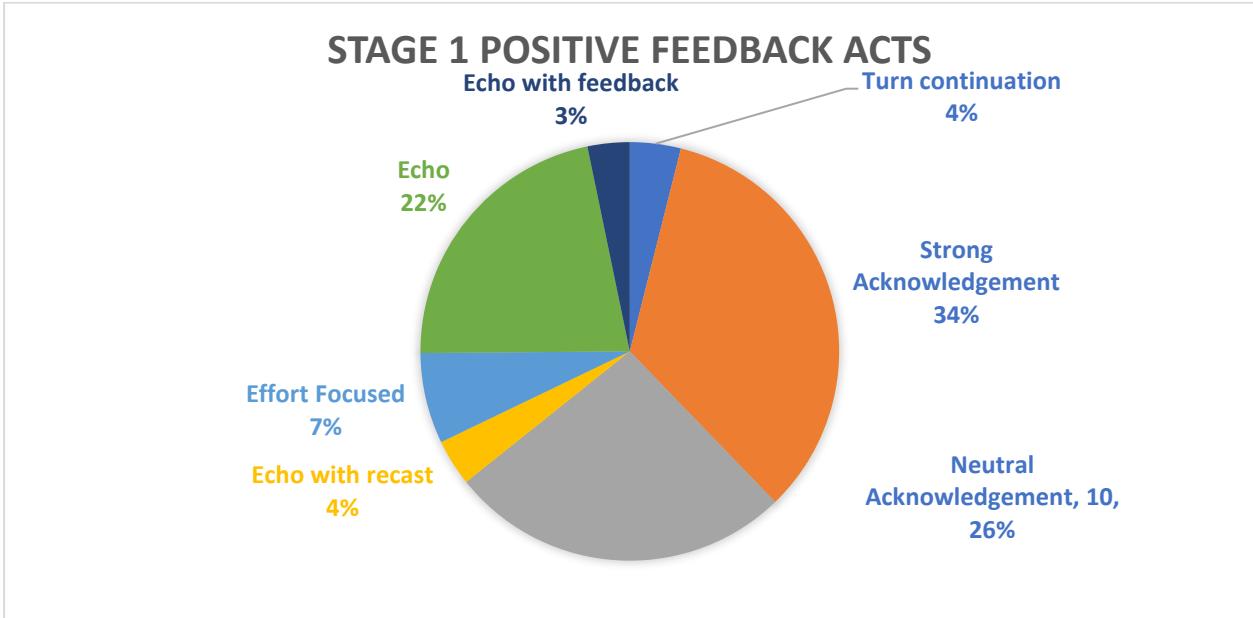


Figure 5.15 Stage 1 positive feedback acts

Amongst the Stage 1 teachers strong acknowledgement was the most frequent positive feedback type – with teachers using overtly positive adjectives and additional comments to acknowledge the correctness of the response.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T7.2249] Yes, very good, [Student Name].

These categories of positive acknowledgement were differentiated by the varying levels of positivity in the adjectives used by the teacher in the feedback turn (e.g. *good* as opposed to *excellent*) (O’Keeffe and Adolphs 2008), while neutral acknowledgement markers were determined as *yeah*, *yes*, *ok*, *alright* and *good*. These serve the purpose of acknowledging to the learner that their response was correct and has been accepted as such without providing addition evaluative feedback or praise. Frequent overlap was observed between neutral acknowledgement and echo, which will be discussed in the next section.

Echo is primarily used as a response to short learner utterances of one or two words, and is the third most frequent positive feedback category amongst Stage 1 teachers, followed by effort-focused feedback.

This category, which has also been referred to as ‘perfunctory praise’(Jenks 2013) was designated as ‘effort-focused’ through the observation that on many occasions, teachers are not positively acknowledging the language being produced, or the accuracy of the utterance, but rather the fact that the student has produced a response. This type can be found both inside and outside the IRF exchange, with teachers using it when addressing both individual learners and the class as a group. This feedback type is characterised by the teachers’ use of encouraging phrases rather than evaluative ones, such as *well done*, *good work* and *good woman*. Comments on the quality of the answer are common features of this feedback type:

[REF.DUBCOTT.T7.2282] It's a good observation.

This feedback act was equally used by Stage 1 and Stage 2 teachers, with Stage 1 teachers using it marginally more. Thanking learners for their response is a common feature of effort-focused feedback at Stage 1 but occurs less frequently at Stage 2 and not at all at Stage 3.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T7.2119] That's it, someone had a fatal disease and they gave them sugar pills and told them it works. Do you think it worked?
[REF.DUBCOTT.S.2119] No.
[REF.DUBCOTT.T7.2120] No. Sometimes you need conventional medicine. Yes, thank you very much.

Echo with recast and turn continuation were among the least frequently used positive feedback types at this stage, with echo with feedback the least frequent of all.

From this data we can infer that Stage 1 teachers appear to favour positive feedback approaches which explicitly acknowledge the correct response, rather than the implicit acknowledgement afforded by feedback types such as turn continuation and echo with recast. The lack of echo with feedback is striking given how highly frequent strong acknowledgment and echo are in this stage, as this type is a combination of the features of both categories.

5.5.2 Positive feedback – Stage 2

Figure 5.16 shows the distribution of positive feedback acts among Stage 2 teachers.

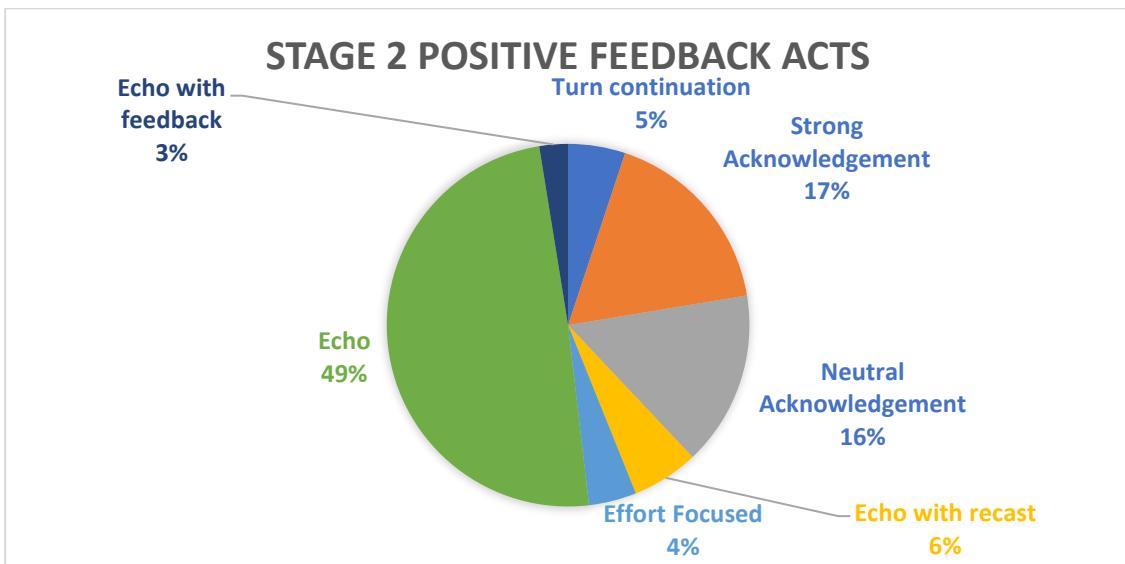


Figure 5.16 Stage 2 positive feedback acts

The results at Stage 2 are almost the inverse of those at Stage 1, with Stage 2 teachers favouring echo as the positive feedback of choice with 49% of all positive feedback at Stage 2 falling into this category, followed by strong and neutral acknowledgement respectively.

Examination of the Echo sub-corpus word frequency list in Stage 2 shows that grammatical metalanguage featured heavily during echo acts, with six of the ten most frequent words referring explicitly to grammatical form.

This attention to form reflects the findings of Stage 2 initiation acts, which also showed a greater attention to grammatical form through the use of CCQs and display questions than in the earlier stage. Examination of the most frequently occurring collocations in DUBCOTT, as shown in Table 5.7, also serve to highlight the use of grammatical metalanguage by teachers at the three stages. In the Stage 1 collocations there are no examples of grammatical metalanguage or language specific to the classroom context in the top ten, with the exception of the phrase *question mark*. Stage 2 shows only one example of explicit grammatical metalanguage (*correct tense*) but does have three examples of classroom-specific language – *main task*, *same rule* and *extra information*.

Stage 3 has the most examples of grammatical metalanguage of the three stages, (*continuous activity*, *continuous form*, *written form*, *plus subject*) but no examples of classroom pedagogy-specific language.

Table 5.7 DUBCOTT collocations – all stages

Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3
social housing	camera operator	cell mate
new lease	focus puller	anything yesterday
living life	correct tense	continuous activity
question mark	old car	continuous form
high rise	good communicator	written form
favourite animal	extra information	plus subject
clean bill	same rule	birth city
gall bladder	main task	phone number
low blood	bagel test	chain store
nice day	good communication	much sugar

The remaining feedback types comprise only 18% of positive feedback at this stage, and all are used with similar frequency, although echo with recast is marginally more frequent than the other three. Echo with recast, as noted in Chapter 4, highlights an overlap between positive and corrective feedback, which becomes more pronounced at Stage 3.

The prevalence of echo over other acts indicates that positive feedback acts which explicitly acknowledge and affirm the learners' correctness, or acknowledge the effort made by the learner, are far less frequently used by teachers at Stage 2 than at Stage 1.

5.5.3 Positive feedback – Stage 3

Figure 5.17 shows the distribution of positive feedback acts among Stage 3 teachers.

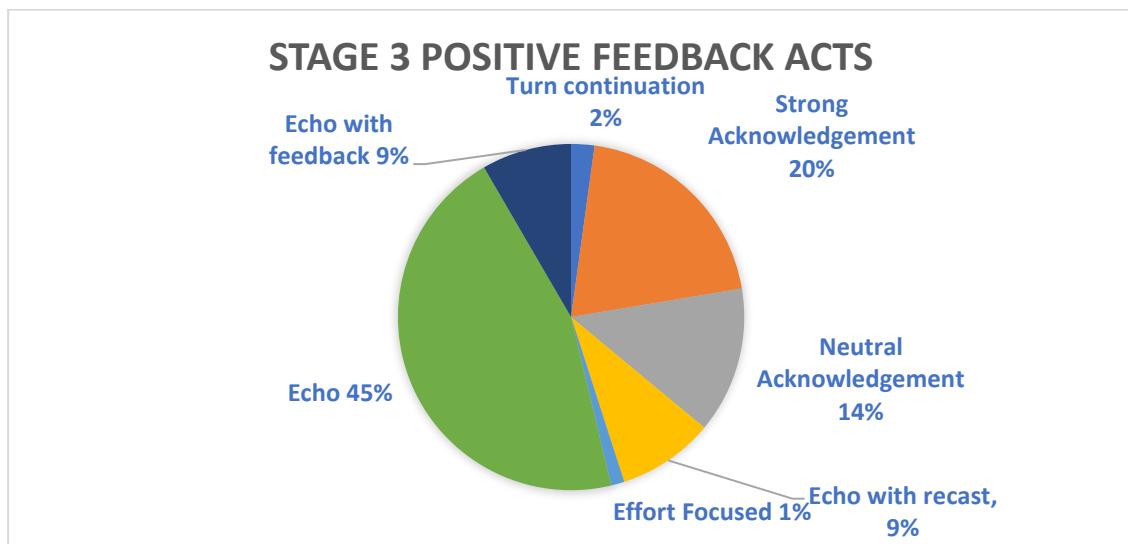


Figure 5.17 Stage 3 positive feedback acts

Echo remains the most frequently used positive feedback type at Stage 3, comprising 45% of the total positive feedback at this stage. This is followed, as with Stage 2, by strong and neutral acknowledgement, although the frequency of strong

acknowledgement is significantly higher than the neutral, at 20% and 16% of the total positive feedback respectively. While strong acknowledgement among Stage 1 and Stage 2 teachers tends to manifest through the use of explicitly positive adjectives such as *excellent* and *perfect*, Stage 3 teachers provide an additional comment on the answer itself.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T15.2483] Yeah, that's true, you are very right.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T9.1648] Yeah, I like that

[REF.DUBCOTT.T12.5912] Oh yeah, definitely.

These comments indicate agreement with or appreciation of the statement or opinion behind the response, rather than just the correctness of the response itself. This is not to be confused with effort-focused feedback, in which the act of responding is being acknowledged rather than the response itself. Effort-focused feedback occurs only once in the Stage 3 data.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T9.7261] Well done. How did you describe this?

It is at this point that the similarity between Stage 2 and Stage 3 ends – Stage 3 teachers use the least effort-focused feedback of the three cohorts and make far more use of echo with feedback and echo with recast. Echo with recast is the least frequent of the echo subcategories but is noteworthy for its mix of form and meaning focus, and both corrective and positive feedback. This category is comprised of the teacher's echo of the learner response, followed by a slightly altered recast of the echo:

[REF.DUBCOTT.T9.7085] A lot of crime in the area is...

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.7085] Drugs related.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T9.7086] Related, ok. Drug related.

Echoes with recast straddle a line between corrective and positive feedback, in that the learner response is not incorrect, but not exactly what the teacher was looking for. It cannot be corrected as such, because it is not wrong, but it can be improved. The most frequent occurrence of this type is in relation to meaning rather than form – when the teacher uses echo with recast, the resulting phrase inevitably sounds more ‘native-like’ than the original response of the learner and is usually lexical rather than grammatical. These findings indicate a significant shift away from explicitly affirmative feedback, including that referring to students’ effort as well as their language, after Stage 1.

5.5.4 Positive feedback summary

The comparative analysis of the three stages has highlighted the wide variation in use of positive feedback acts between the three stages. Echo, despite being the most frequently used act overall, is used the least by Stage 1 teachers, while effort-focused feedback is used the least by teachers at Stage 3.

5.6 Corrective feedback by teacher career stage

Lastly, corrective feedback will be examined according to teacher career stage. corrective feedback was the least frequent of the three teacher turn-types in the present

study, and among the three teacher career stages was the least frequently used by teachers at Stage 2.

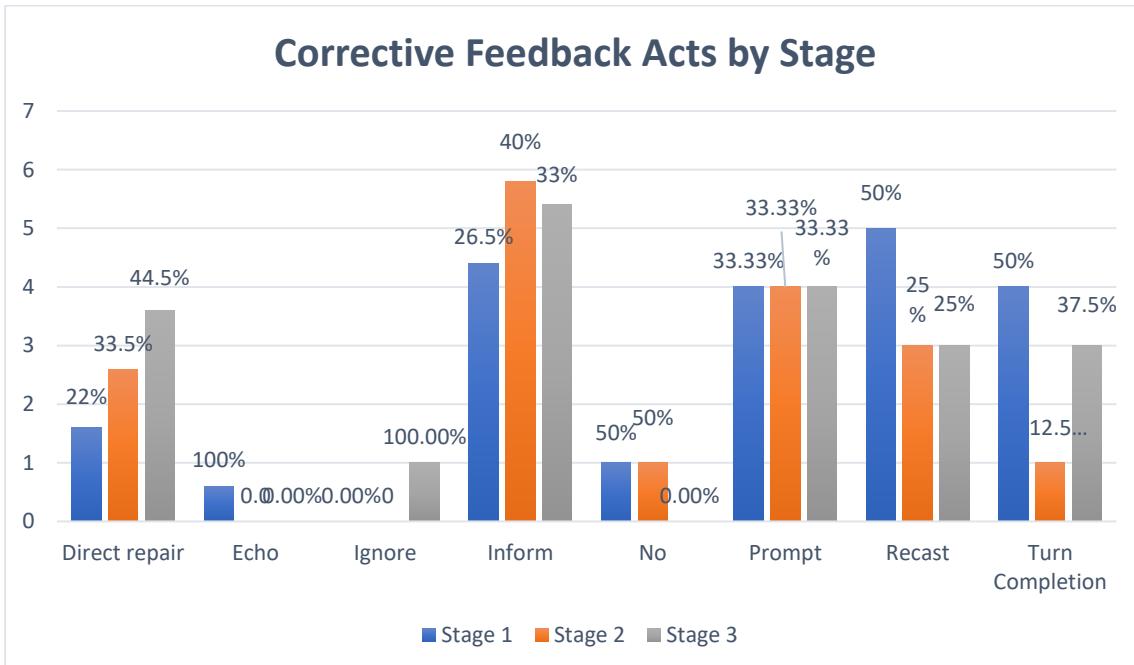


Figure 5.18 Corrective feedback acts by stage

As shown by Figure 5.18, informing is among the most frequently used CF act at all three stages, followed closely by prompting and recast. Direct repair increases in use across the three career stages, while echo as a form of correction is primarily used by Stage 1 teachers only, with use of ‘no’ used equally by Stages 1 and 2 and not at all by Stage 3.

Table 5.8 Average distribution of corrective feedback acts

Corrective feedback act	Total percentage in DUBCOTT (all stages)
Direct repair	16%
Echo	3.25%
Ignoring	3.25%
Informing	26%
Use of ‘no’	5%
Prompting	21%

Recast	15%
Turn completion	10.5%

On average, informing was the most frequently used corrective feedback type, followed by prompting. Informing, as established in Chapter 4, is the teacher's provision of an explanation for why the response was incorrect as part of the correction, and generally refers to form rather than meaning. Use of this CF act does not inherently invite the same learner to correct their utterance, unlike prompting – the second most frequent CF act in the corpus as a whole – which often serves a dual function as feedback and initiation move. Despite recast being widely considered as one of the most used forms of corrective feedback (Lyster and Ranta 1997), in the case of the present study it comprises only 15% of all corrective feedback used. This was followed by direct repair and turn completion, while use of 'no', ignoring and echo occupied the last three positions – with the latter two acts comprising less than 6% of the total average.

5.6.1 Corrective feedback – Stage 1

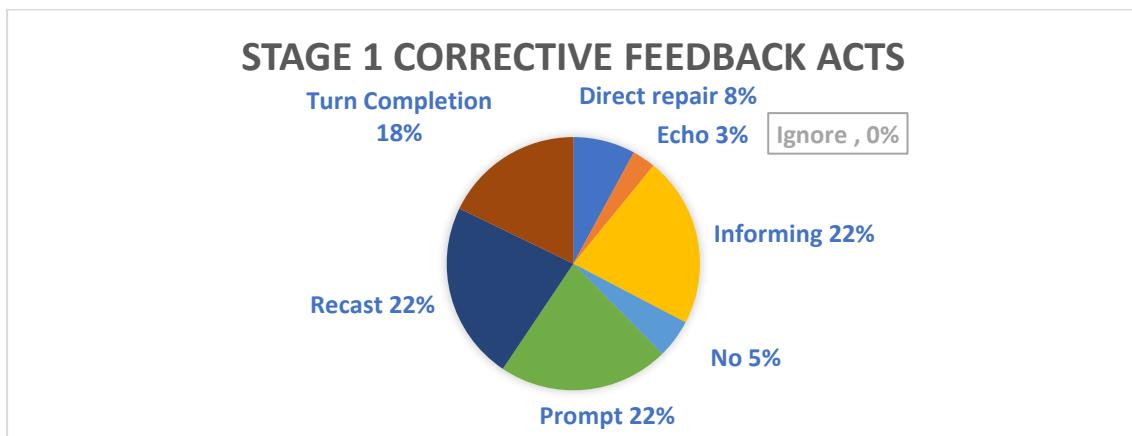


Figure 5.19 Stage 1 corrective feedback acts

In contrast with the average frequency, recast was one of the most frequently used CF acts among teachers at Stage 1, informing and prompting, used with the equal frequency of 22% of the total. The key issue often raised with recast is the potential lack of clarity it affords regarding the error which occurred, an issue which is exemplified in the following extract from T1's lesson.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T1.6989] Alright, [Student Name], could you read your favourite sentence please?
[REF.DUBCOTT.S1.6989] If I was a deer I would lovely.
[REF.DUBCOTT.T1.6990] Yeah, that's very nice. If I were a deer I would be lovely. That's nice. If I were a deer I would be lovely. Very nice. [Student Name], your one.
[REF.DUBCOTT.S2.6990] If I were a cat I would sleep all the time.
[REF.DUBCOTT.T1.6991] If I were a cat I would sleep all the time. Milk, sleep, sleep, some fish, very nice. It would be excellent.

Although correction is provided in the feedback move, with the incorrect utterance repeated twice in the correct form by T1, there was very little opportunity for the learner to identify it as such, as the correction has been sandwiched between three explicitly positive feedback utterances. Furthermore, the error in the second conditional form, which was the systems focus of this lesson, was not acknowledged by the teacher at any stage in his feedback move as the inclusion of the omitted main verb *be* was not emphasised. The positive feedback act used with the next student, in this case echo, could be perceived as almost identical to the utterance of the student, who could well have interpreted her original utterance as having been correct.

There are examples among Stage 1, however, where recast is presented in a very similar way to the previous example, but with a different outcome.

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.2061] The problem is when you use a lot of antibiotics you can... the bacteria can resist.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T7.2062] Yeah, the bacteria can become resistant.

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.2062] Resistant to this kind of antibiotics.

In this exchange between T7 and a learner in her B2 lesson, the recast of the error was acknowledged by the learner, which was evidenced by his self-repair in his response turn. The proficiency level of the learner may be a factor here, with more proficient learners better able to recognise that a correction is taking place, even with the presence of a positive feedback marker such as *yeah*.

The potential lack of clarity presented by recast, especially among less proficient learners, is mitigated somewhat by the relatively high frequency in Stage 1 of informing and prompting – the latter in particular can be said to be particularly effective in identifying errors and facilitating self-repair. There are no examples of teachers using ignoring as a corrective feedback method at this stage, and very little use of *No* without explanation, or echo, comprising 5% and 3% of the total corrective feedback respectively. Direct repair accounts for only 8% of the corrective feedback at this stage.

5.6.2 Corrective feedback – Stage 2

Figure 5.20 shows the distribution of corrective feedback acts among Stage 2 teachers.

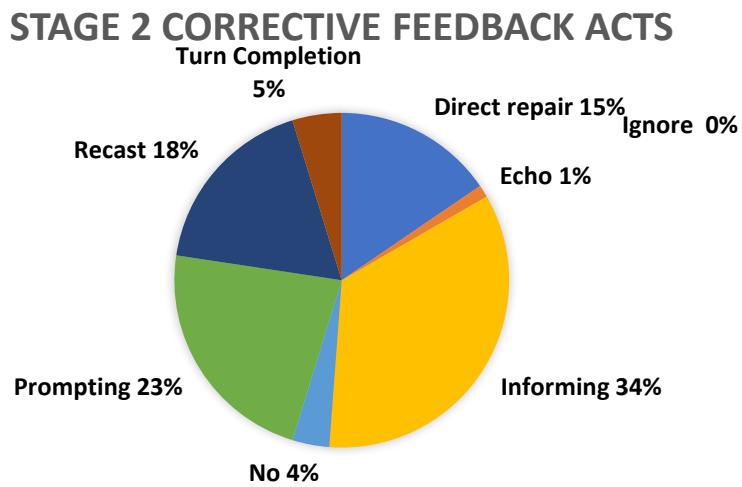


Figure 5.20 Stage 2 corrective feedback acts

The same three acts which held the top positions at Stage 1, informing, prompting and recast, are also the three most frequent at Stage 2 but with differing levels of frequency. Informing is the most frequently used corrective feedback method at Stage 2, with 34% of the total, followed by prompting and recast at 23% and 18% respectively.

At Stage 2 informing shifts from a focus on form to a focus on meaning, with more frequent occurrences of the latter than in the Stage 1 data. In the following extract, T5 is attempting to elicit meaning in the context of a vocabulary lesson on film-making.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T5.5600] So he has to read the screenplay; which is like the book for the movie; understand what it means, and transform... which means what?
 [REF.DUBCOTT.S.5600] Bring to reality.
 [REF.DUBCOTT.T5.5601] Bring to reality. Sometimes, but transform in general means to...
 [REF.DUBCOTT.S.5601] Change.
 [REF.DUBCOTT.T5.5602] Change. A big change or a small change?
 [REF.DUBCOTT.S.5602] Give it style.
 [REF.DUBCOTT.T5.5603] Not always but to transform means to change in a big way.

Inherent in the informing act is the process of explaining why the utterance was incorrect, a goal much more easily achieved with something more concrete than lexical meaning, such as grammatical form or pronunciation. In this extract T5 attempts to elicit the desired meaning of *transform* but encounters two responses which do not provide the

target definition, *bring to reality* and *give it style*. In both cases, he highlights the fluidity and contextuality of lexical meaning through his responses of ‘sometimes’ and ‘not always’, implicitly stating that the responses were not incorrect but not the desired response to his particular question. The exchange ends with T5 providing the definition, and answering his own display question asked in the previous turn. The comparative ease of informing in the context of grammar was highlighted in T11’s lesson, when he succinctly corrects and explains an error of subject verb agreement.

[REF.DUBCOTT.S1.374] He simplify all the problems using logic.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T11.375] Ok, perfect.

[REF.DUBCOTT.S1.375] It’s not true.

[REF.DUBCOTT.S2.375] It’s not true but...

[REF.DUBCOTT.T11.376] All the problems using logic.

[REF.DUBCOTT.S1.376] Yeah.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T11.377] Perfect. But simplify in the third person. Simplifies.

[REF.DUBCOTT.S1.377] Simplifies.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T11.378] Exactly, it’s the third person.

This extract initially appears to suffer from the same issue presented by T1 of the Novice cohort, with an incorrect utterance responded to immediately with a positive reaction from the teacher. In this case however, more is at play. During this lesson T11 is writing the learners’ responses on the board, and the delayed reaction to the error is caused by the time taken to write the sentence. Having finished writing on the board, T11 addresses and explains the agreement error, which is then clearly acknowledged by the learner. The initial response of ‘ok, perfect’ appears to be responding to the example provided and is not an acknowledgement of correctness. Despite the later clarification, it can be suggested that the immediacy of the positive response could be seen by the learners to validate the error, and potentially reinforce it unintentionally.

The frequency of direct repair and turn completion at Stage 2 are almost the inverse of the Stage 1 results, with direct repair being used almost twice as much by Stage 2 teachers when considered as a percentage of total acts within stages, as it is in Stage 1. Again, there are few examples of ‘No’ used alone as corrective feedback at this stage, and echo is barely accounted for with 1% of the total. There are no examples of ignoring as a corrective feedback method among the Stage 2 cohort.

5.6.3 Corrective feedback – Stage 3

Figure 5.21 shows the distribution of corrective feedback acts among Stage 3 teachers.

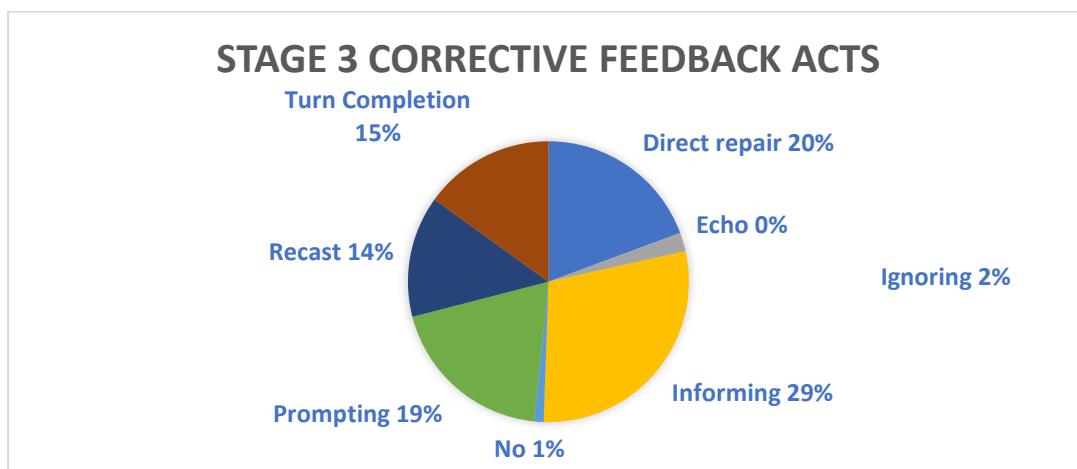


Figure 5.21 Stage 3 corrective feedback acts

On examination of the Stage 3 CF acts, there are noticeable changes between the developing and proficient teachers – namely in the use of explicit approaches to correction. informing is again the most frequently used corrective feedback type, comprising 29% of the total acts. Direct repair has progressed steadily in frequency in line with the teachers’ career stage - as previously noted, direct repair is more frequently used at Stage 3 than at the two earlier stages. Although ostensibly similar, direct repair

can be distinguished from recast and informing from the brevity of the response and the lack of accompanying explanation or evaluative comments.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T15.2752] Did you practice the passive for homework?

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.2752] It's difficult.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T15.2753] It's not easy.

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.2753] I did see a video.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T15.2754] You watched a video.

This extract from T15 illustrates one of the key differences between direct repair and recast. Recast generally mirrors the whole utterance, only changing the incorrect element, while direct repair draws attention to the error – in this example the change from the first-person to second-person pronoun indicates to the learner that an error has taken place.

T3, in an exchange about sheep in the context of Christianity, used direct repair and informing in order to remedy a recurring error in pluralisation.

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.1124] When we say we are sheeps.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T3.1125] You are supposed to be a sheep?

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.1125] It's not exactly about religion about but about precedence. So sheep... it's the meaning of Jesus. He said that we are his sheeps...

[REF.DUBCOTT.T3.1126] His sheep.

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.1126] Yes.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T3.1127] Ok.

[REF.DUBCOTT.S1.1127] Because it follows Jesus. So that's the...

[REF.DUBCOTT.S2.1127] So this is the lamb of Jesus.

[REF.DUBCOTT.S1.1127] The lamb of Jesus, yes.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T3.1128] Ok. So we should be more like sheep, ok. And sheep is the plural as well. One sheep, two sheep... not sheeps.

[REF.DUBCOTT.S.1128] Ok.

Although the first attempt at correction came implicitly in the form of a clarification request, T3 used direct repair after the second occurrence of the error. While the direct repair prompted a response from the learner, there was no indication that the error itself had been acknowledged, leading T3 to reiterate the correction later in the interaction with further information on the irregular plural.

5.6.4 Corrective feedback summary

When considered comparatively, distribution of CF acts among the three stages presents some distinct patterns, the most evident of which are the steady decrease in recast compared to the steady increase in direct repair from Stage 1 to Stage 3. This immediately suggests a shift from implicit to explicit CF as teachers gain experience, although the greater prevalence of use of ‘No’ among Stage 1 teachers appears on initial examination to belie this. This comparative analysis also presents Stage 2 teachers firmly between Stage 1 and Stage 3 in all acts except informing and turn completion.

5.7 Chapter summary

The corpus-aided analysis in this chapter has attempted to characterise the classroom talk of EFL teachers at three career stages, with specific reference to how initiation and feedback moves are operationalised by the teachers at their differing stages. The analysis has revealed distinct differences in both the quantity and nature of teacher talk. At Stage 1, teachers spend the most time of all three stages on initiation turns (Figure 5.2), of which referential questions were the dominant initiation type, occupying 26% of

the total turns for that stage. If we consider the importance of teacher talk as a means of creating opportunities for learner participation, then the high levels of referential questioning from Stage 1 teachers can certainly lay claim to promoting learner production. If we compare this with the dominant initiation turns from Stage 2 and Stage 3 teachers, they are inherently more limited in the scope for learner production allowed by the turn. At Stage 2 CCQs and display questions are the most prominent (Figure 5.15), both of which serve to check or clarify information that the teacher expects the learners to know, and both of which require a certain, limited response (Love 1991; Musumeci 1996). Nomination questions, which we have seen to be a form of display question which includes the name of the learner or specific reference to the lesson materials are the most frequently used initiation type at Stage 3 – these questions by their nature do not allow for learner production as owing to their structural and formulaic nature the learner is guided very strictly into the response that is required of them, thus production is limited.

Although it has been argued that lessons which include large amounts of checking acts, under which category display questions, CCQs and ICQs can be included, maintain a better ‘flow’ of interaction between the teacher and the learners, and are therefore considered more communicative (Musumeci 1996) it cannot be claimed that initiation turns such as these prompt anything other than minimal learner responses. Referential questions can allow for meaning focus, form focus and can result in relatively free learner production depending on the format of the question itself. If positive feedback is considered under the same requirements – to promote learner production or allow for noticing or negotiation of language – then it cannot be said to meet the former, and only facilitates the latter in an extremely limited capacity. Unlike corrective feedback turns,

which are often followed immediately by initiation turn to the same learners to allow the error to be corrected or evaluated, positive feedback turns most often end that IRF sequence completely before moving to a new one for the next utterance. The lower level of initiation turns at Stage 2, combined with the high level of positive feedback turns, indicates that teachers at this stage are not providing opportunities for learner production to the same extent as Stage 1 or Stage 3 teachers. This is enforced by the fact that echo, which does not allow for or prompt any learner response to the teacher's feedback turn whatsoever (Walsh 2003), comprised almost half of all Stage 2 positive feedback turns. corrective feedback provides some opportunity for learner production through prompted self-repair, but its primary function is to promote noticing and allow for negotiation. There is very little difference in quantity overall when examined across the three stages, with Stage 1 teachers having the most average corrective feedback turns by a very narrow margin, followed by Stage 3 and Stage 2 respectively (Figure 5.21).

Having considered how teachers talk, in the following chapter we will move to the second research question of the present study – what do teachers at different career stages believe about their teacher talk?

Chapter 6: Beliefs about teacher talk of teachers at three career stages

'Anyway, so that's my sort of perceptions of it.' [T8]

6.1 Introduction

This chapter will answer the second research question, what do teachers at three different career stages believe about their teacher talk? This will be done through the analysis of the TIC corpus of teacher interviews and its sub-corpora, which were organised through a process of thematic coding (see Section 4.7.1). Under the lens of teacher career stage, a CADS analysis of each of the seven sub-corpora will be presented, using a discourse analytical approach and incorporating CL tools. The use of corpus linguistics tools to analyse interview data in the TESOL context is a distinct feature of the present study, and this approach has yielded salient findings which aided in the illumination of the topic under investigation. It should be noted here that the thematic analysis data is a sub-corpus in itself, as the data presented in Table 6.1 does not include interviewer turns, responses which do not directly correspond to the themes, or the introductory discussion which was used to gather biographical metadata on the participants. This data is included throughout this chapter in extracts when relevant.

6.1.1 TIC thematic sub-corpora by teacher career stage

As detailed in Chapter 4 (Section 4.7.6), thematic coding of the TIC corpus led to the creation of seven distinct themes, each of which were compiled into sub-corpora for CL analysis. These sub-corpora were then further subdivided according to teacher career

stage, resulting in 21 total sub-corpora. Table 6.1 presents each of the sub-corpora and the total words per sub-corpus.

Table 6.1 TIC sub-corpora

	Stage 1 (5 respondents)	Stage 2 (4 respondents)	Stage 3 (3 respondents)
Themes			
Personal definition	165	95	156
Experience of TT in training	236	241	714
Quantification	551	558	287
Learner expectations	298	879	297
Positive feedback	299	368	151
Corrective feedback	789	1,166	690
Metalinguistic awareness	361	257	106
Total number of words	1,394	3,446	2,462

As previously noted, not all fifteen participating teachers were available to be interviewed, and the TIC corpus is therefore comprised of the responses from twelve teachers – five Stage 1, four Stage 2 and three Stage 3.

6.2 Stage 1 – Novice

The following section will present and analyse the responses of each thematic sub-corpus compiled from the Stage 1 cohort of participants.

6.2.1 Personal Definition sub-corpus

Stage 1 teachers primarily define teacher talk in relation to time, with all five Stage 1 participants making reference to *time* in their personal definitions.

[REF.TIC.T7.616] It is the amount of time that the teacher speaks in the class.

[REF.TIC.T13.789] Teacher talking time.

T10 and T13 used the term *teacher talking time* (TTT) as their response, with no further explanation or comment. This phrase was the strongest collocation generated from the entire TIC corpus, with a logdice score of 12.60. T4 and T1 expanded upon this notion, with T4 presenting teacher talk in opposition to student talk through the use of the word *versus* and immediately positioning his response as one of uncertainty through the inclusion of discourse marker *well* (Palmer 1986).

[REF.TIC.T4.460] Well I know about teacher talking time. So how much time versus you were talking to the students. So teacher to student or student to students. So...

Taking a metalingual interpretation of the use of *well* (Maschler and Schriffin 2015 p.194), in this case it appears to indicate a lack of knowledge on the part of the speaker when beginning to respond to the original question ‘what is teacher talk?’, suggesting that T4 is only aware of teacher talk in relation to the concept of TTT, and not necessarily as an area of classroom discourse in its own right.

T1 provided the most detailed response of the cohort on this theme and is the only participant of this stage of career who used personal pronouns in his response, providing examples of how teacher talk is enacted in his own classroom rather than the concept as a whole.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T1.1261] The percentage of the class that the teacher would be talking versus the students. How I correct students. What explanations I give to students. What instructions I give to students. “Guys I want you to work in fours” or “I want you to be the teachers in the group” and I do that all the time and you will hear that when you listen. And that kind of thing. My instructions to the students. My general... and maybe the “banter”. Which I have plenty of.

Like T4, T1 presents teacher talk as an opposing force to student talk using *versus* in his definition. His response shifts from the generic to the personal, as T1 begins with a broad definition and shifts to providing examples from his own teaching.

Although reference to time initially appears to be the most immediate reaction when teachers are providing their personal definitions of teacher talk, examination of the noun-frequency list for this sub-corpus shows that more reference is made to the student than the teacher or other factors.

The higher frequency of *student* than *teacher* in this sub-corpus suggests recognition among the Stage 1 teachers that teacher talk is not produced in a vacuum, but is co-constructed with the learner.

6.2.2 Experience of Teacher Talk in Initial Teacher Training sub-corpus

The focus on time in teacher talk was explained as the Stage 1 teachers reported their experiences of the concept during their initial teacher training, with all five Stage 1 participants reporting that teacher talk was presented to them during their training course as something to be reduced.

T13’s experience was indirect, reporting the experiences of other teachers on his course who had been told to reduce their classroom talk, suggesting that his own experience as a former secondary school teacher exempted him from this feedback.

[REF.TIC.T13.791] I had the experience of teaching secondary school before, so I knew it, but I do remember some of the other teachers on the course who were, not criticised for it, but they were kind of told “Okay you need to stop talking a certain amount”.

Similarly, T4 presented the issue of excessive teacher talk as something presented to the group as a whole rather than him personally, through the use of plural pronouns *us* and *you*.

[REF.TIC.T4.475] Like it was given to us in minor examples but it was mainly towards like having a focus on engaging with students rather than what you were doing. So what you were saying wasn’t the focus. It was more the fact that you wanted the focus to be the student and you did not talk as much.

T10 reported a more direct and personal experience with feedback on the quantity of her teacher talk.

[REF.TIC.T10.935] I did it... I got feedback on it when I did my CELTA, they were just more laughing, and it was like “Oh right, let’s do this” and they were like “Do you know you talk to yourself?” and I was like “No”.

T10 appears to have had a positive interaction during her feedback, reporting the trainers as laughing about her habit of producing self-motivating talk during lessons.

Despite referring to their experiences in training and when working as teachers, Stage 1 teachers never use the collective pronoun *we* to refer to other teachers, instead using *they/them*.

We is commonly used in spoken discourse to refer to a joint enterprise, endeavour or community of practice (Lave and Wenger 1991) and in general denotes ‘a sense of belonging to a group and some level of shared identity’ (Farr, Farrell and Riordan 2019, p.200). Reference to their fellow teachers and trainees as *they/them* suggests a distancing

between the Stage 1 teachers and their peers, rather than the shared identity generally expressed within a corpus of institutional discourse such as TIC.

[REF.TIC.T13.800] They just walk out of a lesson and they don't even remember it, you know, and they get worse and worse and worse and they can't... some people need to be trained to reflect.

This extract from T13 (Stage 1) is a particularly strong example of this, as T13 is referring to certain teachers' lack of reflection leading to a deterioration of their teaching. Further exploration of *we* in the TIC data found no occurrences, at any of the three stages, of *we* as a referent to teaching, or the community of teachers, despite the interviewer repeatedly using the pronoun to index joint membership the teaching community between herself and the participants.

6.2.3 Quantification sub-corpus

When asked if they could estimate the amount of the lesson comprised of teacher talk, four of the five novice teachers presented their answer as a ratio of teacher talk to student talk, or a total percentage.

[REF.TIC.T7.921] It depends on the class. Well I try to speak... with instructions and stuff? Probably 40%. I hope so. Like I have very chatty classes, so I just go into the topic with them...

[REF.TIC.T13.799] 70/30. It does depend on the topic as well. If it's a grammar topic and you are introducing... You would be talking a lot. Again it depends on the level. In this class I don't talk that much.

[REF.TIC.T10549] I don't actually... I haven't thought about that. I would probably say that I do more display questions because I feel like I do a lot of concept checking and I don't do ... well I do a little bit of asking about their day but I don't really have any kind of like really open questions. 80/20.

T4 went into a more detailed breakdown of the quantity of his TT according to learner level and lesson stage:

[REF.TIC.T4.485] Ok. So in my elementary class I try to keep the engagement so I would say it's about 60/40. So sixty me and forty them. Whereas I feel like in my pre-intermediate class I feel like it's a lot more like, I would say 40/60. So me forty and them sixty. Sometimes it verges on 50/50 but I notice myself doing it as corrections when I'm going around rather than actually like talking to them for fifty percent of the class entirely. I try to... yeah. Yeah, fifty percent of all of my talk, yeah.

In this analysis of his teacher talk T4 reports a higher quantity of teacher talk with his A1 learners, in order to 'keep the engagement', while perceiving less need for input with his A2 group. T4's quantification of his teacher talk appears to show a level of ongoing reflection, as he describes himself as 'noticing' when his classroom talk increases, such as during CF when monitoring.

Rather than presenting his teacher talk quantity with a percentage or ratio, T1 quantifies his talk in terms of his classroom management, illustrating the methods through which he encourages learner-to-learner talk, and consequently ensuring that his own teacher talk is not excessive.

[REF.TIC.T1.1283] I think I set up nice clusters of students that talk amongst each other and help each other and move through the different parts of the questions if I'm using a book, for example, and there is question one part A, B, C and D, they guide each other through A, B, C and D or if I put questions on the board for general discussion there are clusters or mini classes in the class and they will talk amongst each other and I will float amongst the different groups. So I think that everyone... at one time there is not only one person talking. At one time in my class there would be at least five or six people talking at the same time amongst each other. So I didn't think I talk too much.

Like T4, T1 reports a high level of awareness of his talk in this response, and appears to make conscious efforts to reduce it.

A common thread in this response theme is that of context and contextual factors which impact teacher talk quantity. The overall n-gram analysis of TIC (Appendix K) identified clusters with ‘depend’ at Stage 1 and Stage 3, and examination of this verb use within the Stage 1 sub-corpora found specific use of the verb in relation to the quantity of their teacher talk. ‘Depend’ itself was used by two of the five teachers, but all five made reference to specific contexts and scenarios which impacted the quantity of their teacher talk, such as learner level or lesson content. These contexts can be seen in the collocations generated for this sub-corpus, as evidenced by the presence of learner proficiency levels (*elementary class; pre-intermediate class*), lesson stage (*general discussion; grammar topic*) and teacher mode (*lot of concept checking*).

6.2.4 Perceived Learner Expectations of Teacher Talk sub-corpus

Over the course of the interviews several teachers attempted to justify or explain the quantity of their teacher talk, unprompted by the interviewer, such as the following statement from T10 when discussing her perception of learners’ expectations in this area:

[REF.TIC.T10.636] Sometimes more maybe because then the things that... when I teach about grammar I never go “This is this, this is this” I always ask them. So maybe sometimes maybe they would... I don’t know if they would like me to leave them be. There may be exceptions or I could explain absolutely everything about the grammar point, but I don’t do it because I want them to discover a little bit. I think if I just vomit everything its not going to be anywhere in their brains. So I really don’t know Jane, maybe they want me to talk about it. I don’t know.

[REF.TIC.J.637] There is no wrong answer, don’t worry.

[REF.TIC.T10.638] Yeah, I know but I’m just trying to think. I am not really sure.

Here T10 is justifying the absence of teacher talk during grammar lessons, stating that she attempts to elicit the form from students through repeated questioning, using a ‘discovery’ approach rather than ‘vomiting’ the grammar content. This topic appeared to prompt some discomfort in T10 as she reflected on this approach, suggesting that she is not entirely confident that her learners are satisfied with her methods, but that she had not questioned it prior to the interview.

Providing less input and attempting more elicitation from learners was also referenced by T4, who reported that this approach was the result of feedback from learners, who had requested less teacher talk and more opportunities for production.

[REF.TIC.T4.491] Yeah, because well with the class that I was recorded in I had been told that they wanted to speak more to each other about what they wanted. So from that class specifically I would say that they... even though there were new students by the time that class was recorded I would say that they wanted me to speak less... I would honestly say that they expect us not to talk.

T13 and T7 both take a contrasting viewpoint, suggesting that learners who are accustomed to a more ‘traditional’ approach have expectations of a higher quantity of teacher talk, particularly during the presentation stage of a grammar lesson.

[REF.TIC.T7.925] I think they often expect the teacher to be talking the whole time because that is what they are used to.

[REF.TIC.T13.806] Again it depends on... like with grammar, certainly when you are introducing a topic you just... before we set out to do an exercise they have that grammar. So during that particular exercise the student would be expecting you to speak quite a bit. They prefer a traditional style.

T1 also made reference to perceptions of certain demographics of learners who are more accustomed to teacher-led approaches, Asian learners in particular, but suggested that

this belief is not widely applicable, as the two Asian learners who joined his class on the day of recording acclimatised quickly to his methodology.

[REF.TIC.T1.1289] I think they quickly adapt... people adapt very quickly to situations. Talking in a small group of people is quite a natural experience. So I don't think that they are taken aback. I had two new students today. They feel at ease and I think that sometimes there is a perception about certain nationalities, like Asians, that would be more used to...to being teacher led. And they took to it very well and they were very receptive to that.

[REF.TIC.J.1290] So you haven't noticed any reaction to your having a more student oriented classroom?

[REF.TIC.T1.1291] Some students are reluctant to be the teacher in the mini group because maybe their own personality... they don't lead a group of people but I don't tolerate objections to things that I think are the right course.

Reluctance to participate in learner-centred activities is attributed to individual learner personalities, rather than language or nationality. This assertion, however, was undermined somewhat by T1's statement that he does not 'tolerate objections' to such approaches, which indicates learner preference may not actually be taken into consideration when his teacher input is involved.

6.2.5 Positive Feedback sub-corpus

The interview question 'what does positive feedback mean to you?' prompted a range of responses within the stage 1 cohort, varying from the phrases teachers usually use to praise a correct or desirable utterance, such as 'perfect' (T4, T10, T13) to the reasoning behind the positive feedback.

[REF.TIC.J.685] Positive feedback. What does that mean to you?

[REF.TIC.T10.686] When I say something like "Very good".

[REF.TIC.J.687] When they say something correct?

[REF.TIC.T10.688] Yeah. But I don't normally do it when they say something correct. When they try and even say something that is not correct but somehow they say something and they will explain and I would kind of go "Not exactly but almost and thank you". I would say "Thank you for the thought" or something like that.

[REF.TIC.J.689] Okay. So you use positive feedback also when they are not correct?

[REF.TIC.T10690] Yeah, but just for the fact that they have tried. So I am not saying "This is correct" but "It's not exactly that but thank you".

The notion of thanking learners for desired utterances and their participation was echoed by T4, who stated that 'they', meaning his trainers, had instructed him to do so:

[REF.TIC.T4.955] I say "Thanks" (...) I thank them if they [give a good answer] Or just... they also told me to thank someone for participating.

In this response sub-corpus, the pronouns *they* and *them*, which had previously been used to describe other teachers, are now being used to describe T4's previous CELTA trainers and his current students. Unlike the other sub-corpora, there are no occurrences of the noun 'student' in the Positive Feedback sub-corpus, with learners exclusively being referred to by the teachers using plural pronouns. Although Stage 1 teachers do not refer to themselves within a broader community of teachers, shared knowledge of the teaching context between the participant and the interviewer is presumed through pronominal reference.

Like T10, T4 also reported incorporating echo in positive feedback as a means of reinforcement for the whole class and as an opportunity for modelling of the correct form:

[REF.TIC.T4.557] Well sometimes I don't, sometimes I will echo the answer when its correct because people will want it repeated. So instead of waiting for... even if it was said clearly, if there were no major pronunciation issues I sometimes echo just because I want them to have a correct second chance to hear it.

The use of echo in positive feedback moves was also referenced by teachers in Stage 2, and was the most commonly used positive feedback act in the entire DUBCOTT corpus, as seen in Chapter 5.

The issue of feedback and learner confidence was raised by T13, who stated that he sometimes provides praise, even with incorrect utterances:

[REF.TIC.T13.830] I say perfect. I mean you still get some basic mistakes. What is the one? There was another mistake there today, a very basic one, and it was like... I feel bad when they are doing it.

The overlap between correction and praise was further highlighted in the discussion of corrective feedback, and teachers' approaches and feelings towards it.

6.2.6 Corrective Feedback sub-corpus

As with positive feedback, corrective feedback was explained by the Stage 1 teachers both as examples of their own espoused corrective feedback utterances, and broad definitions:

[REF.TIC.T1.1335] When you give instruction and correction and if someone mispronounces something and you say, "It's not working".

[REF.TIC.T4.567] I would repeat. I feel like I always echo the answer.

T10 explained her approach to corrective feedback in relation to the direct impact it could have on the learner, indicating a concern with potential negative consequences of explicit correction:

[REF.TIC.T10.704] I say “I see where you are coming from. I understand why you are relating this but it would not be that”.

[REF.TIC.J.705] It wouldn’t be?

[REF.TIC.T10.706] Yeah. I say that. I don’t want to kind of go “No!”.

[REF.TIC.J.707] But why not?

[REF.TIC.T10.708] Sometimes I do that but other times I think that if I think... it depends on the energy. I think it depends on how I see the student and what it means to them to be saying this to me. If they have spoken a lot... if they usually speak a lot I would have no problem with “No”. But if they don’t... Do you know what I mean? You have to feel the energy of the student, because that is the idea.

[REF.TIC.J.709] No, I understand what you mean. So do you think it hurts the student’s feelings if you correct them sometimes?

[REF.TIC.T10.710] No, not that it would hurt their feelings but maybe it would impede them later on from saying something, even though... when they are in doubt about it or something.

In this interaction T10 clearly articulates her decision-making process in relation to correction, which is contingent on the needs of the individual learner, as well as raising the issue of corrective feedback as a form of negative reinforcement; something that hinders rather than promotes production of the target language.

T4 and T7 reported a much more implicit approach to providing corrective feedback, relying on peer feedback, delayed correction, and non-verbal communication methods:

[REF.TIC.T4.597] And that’s the thing because I always make a noise. Like I’m a noise person. Because instead of saying those negative words that I’ve been conditioned not to say; like instead of saying no I will be like “Mmm” and I’ll make sounds like... I definitely make faces. Like yeah, I’m very expressive. I also do the like moving your head side to side and little bits... I will expand when they give part of the answer but not all of it. You will pull your hands together and move them apart or if you want them...

T4 suggests here that his indirect approach to corrective feedback provision was the result of his experience in training, saying that he had been ‘conditioned’ not to say ‘negative words’, and therefore uses gesture and facial expression as a means of adapting his

feedback style to fulfil the instruction. T4 later elaborates on this point, stating that he avoided providing correction because he had received negative feedback on his teacher talk during his teacher training, and only corrected ‘when necessary’.

[REF.TIC.T4.579] Sometimes... I didn't at first and I kind of avoided it because of the direction and the fact that I had too much teacher talking time. So I wouldn't give correction. When I was teaching Intermediate Plus I would not correct them a lot. Like unless it was major issues like “at homey” and they would add in like extra syllables. That's what I would correct because it was necessary at that level but I wouldn't correct them otherwise and I have just started correcting a lot. I mean if it's a pronunciation error sometimes I do ignore it because I'm like its wrong but it's not the worst.

As in the Quantification sub-corpus, contextual factors in teacher decision-making are referenced. Learner proficiency is reported as a factor influencing T4’s decision to correct, but T4 intentionally ignores other pronunciation errors if he does not consider them to be serious. T7’s response indicates a level of discomfort with providing explicit corrective feedback, seemingly preferring to rely on the use of echo and eye contact to confirm acknowledgement of the correction.

[REF.TIC.T7.961] Yeah. So I listen, and I write stuff on the board that I hear.

[REF.TIC.J.962] Do you ever reframe if someone... if a student... they give you the incorrect language, you reframe it correctly?

[REF.TIC.T7.963] I do that the whole time.

[REF.TIC.J.964] So you echo it in the reframed version?

[REF.TIC.T7.965] Yeah.

[REF.TIC.J.966] Do you think they cop on that you have corrected them? Do you think it's an effective way to do it?

[REF.TIC.T7.967] I make eye contact to see if they got it.

T7 refers to lesson stage and aim as a factor which determines whether correction takes place, stating that during fluency-focused tasks she does not interrupt learners by correcting them.

[REF.TIC.T7.959] And if it's a speaking activity and more often fluency than speaking, speaking, speaking...

Here T7 appears to distinguish between a speaking task which has fluency as its objective, rather than speaking for conversational purposes alone.

6.2.7 Metalinguistic awareness subcorpus

In the final stage of the interviews, all teachers were asked to produce as many items of terminology relating to teacher talk that they could. 4 of the 5 Stage 1 teachers expressed hesitation, reluctance or self-doubt in their ability to articulate what their classroom talk consisted of.

[REF.TIC.T1.1299] No, I'm not really au fait with the...

[REF.TIC.T10656] Teacher talking time! I don't know. Um talking... I teach. I don't know.

[REF.TIC.T4.511] Oh it is called modelling?

Despite this apparent lack of confidence, or reticence to attempt to an answer, with support and some prompting all five Stage 1 teachers succeeded in producing a range of metalanguage.

6.2.8 Stage 1 summary

Analysis of the Stage 1 sub-corpus data indicates some clear patterns in what novice teachers believe about their teacher talk. Teacher talk is defined in relation to time and is believed to be something negative for teachers to be aware of. Teachers at Stage 1 generally believe that their quantity of teacher talk is in line with accepted standards of

best practice, but acknowledge that context must be considered as a factor which impacts the quantity. Thanking learners and providing clear positive feedback is important, and correction is something which causes concern for teachers, especially in terms of potential negative impact on learners' confidence and emotional state. Lastly, there was a noticeable pattern throughout the Stage 1 sub-corpora of teachers expressing a lack of confidence in their own knowledge, particularly regarding pedagogical metalanguage and, through their use of pronouns, it seems clear that they do not perceive themselves as embedded within a fully formed teacher-community identity.

6.3 Stage 2 – Developing

The following section will analyse the data from the Stage 2 sub-corpus, following the same sequence as that of Stage 1.

6.3.1 Personal Definition sub-corpus

Like the Stage 1 teachers, all four of the Stage 2 cohort made reference to time in their definition of teacher talk, but with T2 and T8 displaying a more nuanced understanding of what teacher talk comprises.

[REF.TIC.T2.1515] Well what the teacher says in the classroom and so I guess that could be everything from how they present things, the feedback they are getting, how they give instructions, the amount of time they talk, the words they choose.

[REF.TIC.T5.124] Teacher talking time.

[REF.TIC.T8.1446] Teacher talk as far as I understand is literally the proportion of time that the teacher spends instructing, guiding, feeding back... like literally talking. That's my understanding of it.

[REF.TIC.T14.1748] The time that a teacher spends speaking in a classroom.

T5 and T14, despite having the most classroom experience of the cohort, appear to associate teacher talk with time alone, and provide no further examples in their responses.

6.3.2 Experience of Teacher Talk in Initial Teacher Training sub-corpus

The depth of understanding of teacher talk as a concept displayed in their personal definitions may be the result of the Stage 2 teachers' experiences during their training courses. The Stage 2 cohort reported a more pedagogically rooted approach to teacher talk during their training, making reference to learner production, consideration of teacher talk during lesson planning, and the importance of concise instructions. The influence of the training course itself may be a factor here, as 75% of the Stage 2 teachers had completed the same course, the Cambridge CELTA.

[REF.TIC.T2.1521] I mean I guess the explanation that I was given was talk less because we want the students to have as much production time as possible and so if the teacher is talking and the students can't talk... so that was why, and also for instructions they are not going to follow long instructions. But that was really the only reason.

[REF.TIC.T14.1754] Something to be aware of when planning... to really watch. Like to keep it to a minimum so it's more student talking and less teacher talking.

T5 reported that he had also been instructed to reduce his teacher talk during his training but attributed the instruction as unnecessary for teachers who were 'adept' at teaching. The notion of natural aptitude towards teaching was mentioned several times by T5, who referred to himself as having the right 'persona' for teaching.

[REF.TIC.T5.100] My own persona is pretty adept for teaching. I have been told since I was a kid...
[REF.TIC.J.101] You should be a teacher?

[REF.TIC.T5.102] Since I was a teenager that I would make a good teacher. That I seemed like a teacher.

T5 suggests that people naturally adept at teaching will, perhaps instinctively, allow enough time for learner production rather than ‘standing at the top of the class and just talk and talk and talk’.

[REF.TIC.T5.130] There are people who will naturally... or the more naturally adept towards teaching, will leave time for their students to talk and to think and to participate and to act in activities.

T8 reported a personal struggle with teacher talk, resulting from the conflict between feedback given to her both pre- and in-service, and her own personality.

[REF.TIC.T8.1448] That is what is drilled into you. Reduce your teacher talking time. It's always been something that has been fed back to me like from other supervisors, “You need to reduce your teacher talking time...” That's always been something that is kind of highlighted, that's... it's something that I'm not great at because I love talking and I love communicating and... and sparring with the students, provoking them in some ways, like trying to get them to sort of produce as well, and also that kind of fosters a ... I try to foster a relaxed and fun environment.

[REF.TIC.J.1449] That's the rapport.

[REF.TIC.T8.1550] Yeah, which for me... the better the rapport with the class the more productive they tend to me in my opinion.

Despite having had repeated feedback on the subject and acknowledging that she finds it challenging to reduce her teacher talk, T8 maintains that keeping rapport with her learners requires her participation, which in turn leads to more production. Challenging the teachings of their trainers in this way was not a characteristic found among the novices, but is evidenced by three of the four developing teachers throughout their responses. This may suggest the development of teachers' critical evaluation of prescribed methods as they progress in experience.

6.3.3 Quantification sub-corpus

Although all five of the novice teachers applied a percentage or ratio to the quantity of their teacher talk, only two of the developing teachers did so, and both T2 and T14 produced the same ratio of 70/30 student to teacher talk. When T14's reported ratio was explored further, she explained that it was more of an aspirational percentage rather than accurate assessment of her teacher talk quantity.

[REF.TIC.T14.1758] I would hope that it would be at least 70/30; 30 being the teacher talking and 70 being the student talking.

[REF.TIC.J.1759] 70/30. Is that something you had heard before or...?

[REF.TIC.T14.1760] No, that was just me picking a number.

[REF.TIC.J.1761] Really!

[REF.TIC.T14.1762] Well that's what I hope ... I would hope I was getting; or maybe they gave to me in CELTA. I wouldn't have focused on a number in particular, but I would hope that it definitely leans more towards the students.

T8 reported having heard of a 'golden ratio' during her CELTA course, but was unsure where it came from, as it did not appear to be linked to any pedagogical theory:

[REF.TIC.T8.1458] It's like they picked it out of the sky like... "Oh yeah, 70/30, that sounds good".

Like T4 and T13 in the novice cohort, T2 reflected on a specific lesson in order to provide a breakdown of how her teacher talk is distributed, using the example of a writing lesson with an English for Academic Purposes focus.

[REF.TIC.T2.1537] It depends on the class. Its principally what I'm teaching. Like I guess today... I will use today as an example. The first hour and a half we did writing and there was a lot more teacher talk because it was analysing writing and they would discuss their ideas first and then I would tell them what I saw in the text that they were analysing. So in that kind of context when we are doing writing and EAP there

is a lot of teacher talk. I would probably say like 70/30. Its quite a difference. Mainly because a lot more needs to be explained...

In this excerpt the notion of context in relation to how much time is spent on teacher input is once again referenced, something which T8 and T14 relate to the stage of the lesson, and both refer specifically to ‘presentation’ as requiring a heavier teacher talk load than other stages.

[REF.TIC.T8.1647] Ok, I think I do more presentation. My explanation I guess would be more after the exercises. So like I think I would do more presentation because I will write the rules or whatever on the board. I will go through them. If they have questions they will kind of speak up and say why this and why that and then I'll explain. But if they don't kind of speak up then I will say ‘Now, let's try it’ and we do something and then as we go through it I will be like ‘Ok why?’ and then we will really go into depth and then I'll give more examples if there's confusion or something.

[REF.TIC.T14.1758] I would say it definitely depends on the nature of the lesson. Like if it's more of ...for something that is more focused on like grammar or vocabulary kind of explaining to the students, I would say I would have more teacher talking time in it, and then trying... when you are presenting the information so there would be more of a heavy focus on me talking to them first and then trying to focus on the student talking time of the practical things with group work or pair work and things.

Unlike the majority of his peers in Stage 2 and Stage 1, T5 did not consider context to be a factor in the quantity of teacher talk, and provided a definitive response when asked to quantify his own TT, stating:

[REF.TIC.T5.148] I definitely don't talk less than thirty percent.

[REF.TIC.J.149] Do you think that can be applied across all levels? Thirty percent teacher talk in every level?

[REF.TIC.T5.150] Pretty much. I would say pretty close to it.

[REF.TIC.J.151] So this morning in Proficiency versus this afternoon in Elementary?

[REF.TIC.T5.152] That should be the aim. I would agree with that. It should be the aim. If you can get the rules down. If you can get the class functioning in an Elementary class straightaway when you go in there. In Proficiency the teaching is really kind of done. They are supposed to have learnt the

language. They are just kind of practicing and learning little extra bits and stuff like that and should be more collaborative.

Even considering the vastly different needs the of A1 and C2 learners he was teaching at the time of recording, T5 asserts that all classes should ideally contain 30% or less teacher talk. This is in sharp contrast with the responses from Stage 1 and Stage 3, who predominantly referred to learner proficiency as a factor which impacted their teacher talk, whether resulting in an increased or a decreased amount. This was not raised as a contributing factor among the Stage 2 teachers, who instead concentrate on their own actions during various stages of the lesson.

A common theme throughout this response was that of estimation and uncertainty, with cluster analysis showing a high frequency of hedged statements.

The recurrence of *would* hedges, along with the frequent use of the verbs *think*, *try* and *depend* among the Stage 2 teachers suggests not only a hesitation to commit to an exact number in regard to the quantity of their teacher talk but also a desire to establish the importance of context and contributing factors. While the inclusion of *would* in utterances which are normally expressed using the Present Simple is a common feature of Hiberno-English (Hickey 2007) and may therefore be expected in a corpus featuring Irish English users, this feature was also being used by teachers who were not Irish - although it could perhaps be argued that working in Ireland for an extended period may have been an influencing factor in this. It is more probable, however, that these are being used as hedging devices. Hedging - a means of making a statement "fuzzier or less fuzzy" (Lakoff 1972 p. 195) is used for a myriad of pragmatic functions, including "politeness, indirectness, vagueness and understatement" (Farr and O'Keeffe, 2002 p. 26).

When considered at an institutional level, the use of hedging as a face-saving mechanism comes into play. Despite the interview ostensibly being between peers in the case of the present study, the interviewer-interviewee dynamic constructed in TIC could account for the frequent use of hedging by teachers when describing their practice. The interviewer could be seen in this case as the ‘Primary knower’ (Berry 1981), who holds the position of more power in the dyad. The interviewee, therefore, uses *would* “strategically within these institutional conditions on a relational or interpersonal level to redress the asymmetry of the power semantic (...) and to frame the focus of the talk into a safe hypothetical band” (Farr and O’Keeffe, 2002 pp. 15-16). Exposing their personal classroom practices to others through their responses leaves the teacher in a vulnerable position, and the application of the abovementioned ‘hypothetical band’ serves to create distance between the teacher themselves and the actions and practices they are describing.

6.3.4 Perceived Learner Expectations of Teacher Talk sub-corpus

All four Stage 2 teachers reported a belief that learners expected a certain amount of teacher talk, giving examples of resistance to collaborative methods often used under the CLT approach:

[REF.TIC.T2.1561] Like they specifically said “You are the teacher, you need to teach. You need to tell me exactly what I’m supposed to be doing and you need to tell”... like they didn’t want homework or anything like that. They just wanted to listen to the teacher, take notes and do exercises.

T2's experience of this occurred when she was teaching young learners in India prior to gaining her MPhil. qualification, but a very similar response was reported by T14, who had only worked in the context of private ELT schools with adult learners.

[REF.TIC.T2.1551] I think they expect a lot of teacher time. They do expect a lot of explanation when it comes to grammar. So if I were to... which I've done before, like put them into groups and have them come up with the rules and present the rules to the class, the grammar points they have seen often before, that kind of shocks them. They expect the teacher to talk, but they are used to group work, they expect group work and they expect discussion. So I think they expect a balance.

An awareness of meeting learners' needs as well as achieving the aims of the lesson was also referenced by T8, who reported that learners enjoy getting 'one-on-one' speaking time with the teacher, which for the teacher is often unfeasible if not impossible.

[REF.TIC.T8.1472] Some of the things the students always say to me is like you know, they want to talk with you and talking with you requires you to talk back to them and that is one of the things that a lot of them seem to enjoy. They want that one on one with you, which is something that obviously you can't give every one of them one on one time equally. So you just can't do that.

T5 reports a parallel reaction from learners, who expect more teacher input than is recommended, and suggests that learners' expectations are rooted in their flawed knowledge of how teaching is supposed to be; that a teacher who does not speak is not teaching.

[REF.TIC.T5.154] Talking time... students can't learn a language by listening to a teacher. They need to practice it and that's a fact. Teachers shouldn't spend the whole class talking... That's the crux. That's the big thing. You go in and you start people talking. Nobody, as I said, outside of the teaching profession knows the theory behind teaching or that the theory might have changed over the years. They come to a class and they expect a certain... they have expectations of what it should be and if they don't...if the teacher is not talking they are not teaching, in a lot of people's minds. So you know, they are like... it's almost a laziness element, you teach me. So I want to hear you say something.

T5 is adamant in his assertion that learners must produce in order to acquire the target language, and his role as a teacher is therefore to facilitate their production regardless of what the learners may think about it.

6.3.5 Positive Feedback sub-corpus

The Stage 2 Positive Feedback sub-corpus was the largest of the three stage cohorts, with the participants producing detailed examples and rationale for their approach. This sub-corpus also featured the widest variety of adjectives of the three stages. A notable absence from the Stage 2 cohort is *correct*, which was used several times by Stage 1 and Stage 3 teachers. Stage 2 teachers refer, not to the correctness of the utterance, but to their immediate responses (*good; great; excellent; brilliant*), to the quality of the response (*unusual; complex; interesting*) and to their own perceptions of the feedback being provided (*positive; engaging; thick; conscious*).

In the examples of their ‘go-to’ positive feedback response, *great* was mentioned by three of the four teachers, with only T2 reporting use of strong acknowledgement feedback markers.

[REF.TIC.T5.1800] Great probably.

[REF.TIC.T8.1498] Good, great, you know. Yeah or something like that.

[REF.TIC.T14.1802] I think I would end up saying great an awful lot.

[REF.TIC.T2.1615] Brilliant, perfect, yes.

In addition to a brief evaluative response, T8 reported providing additional positive feedback on answers which were deemed to be particularly impressive, or which involved extra effort on the part of the learner.

[REF.TIC.T8.1498] Usually quite short answers but I would generally try and like if they used an unusual piece of language or used a more complex structure or something like that, I would generally go like “Oh that’s excellent” or “Nice word” or something like that or “Excellent piece of vocabulary” or you know... sort of something to like reward them “Yeah that’s good you have gone outside the box, good job” that sort of way.

A similar approach was taken by T5, developed from his experience teaching young learners, using elaborated or targeted positive feedback as a means of engaging the rest of the class.

[REF.TIC.T5.216] Excellent point. Good, that’s very interesting. Get other people to hear what that student just said so that I know they were listening. Hear what [Student Name] has said. That’s especially coming from teaching teenagers and kids.

Making an effort to be very positive with learners, even in response to errors, was expressed by T14, who also emphasised her use of non-verbal cues in conjunction with the verbal feedback.

[REF.TIC.T14.1798] Oh I think I would be very positive. I try to be very engaging in terms of my body language and facial expressions. Like a lot of nodding and smiling and trying to encourage them as they talk and maybe with that again if there was a mistake in it that I would kind of go “Okay, that’s great but...” and make them think about that last word or whatever it was. But yeah, lots of Positive Feedback in terms of body language and telling them “Okay that’s fantastic” or “Really well”.

T14 is somewhat of an outlier in this regard, as the reported use of non-verbal feedback and an overlap between positive and corrective feedback was more prevalent among the Stage 1 cohort than Stage 2. T14 is the only teacher in Stage 2 who reported a blending of positive and corrective utterances during feedback turns, and non-verbal feedback was not mentioned by the other Stage 2 respondents.

T5 did not provide further information on the nature of his approach to positive feedback, but acknowledged that he should provide more positive feedback, although appeared to be attempting to remedy the situation.

[REF.TIC.T5.218] I probably should do it more but if I'm conscious of it I try to do it.

Not providing enough feedback was also referenced by T2, in relation to corrective feedback as well as positive.

[REF.TIC.T2.1619] I actually don't think I do that enough.

6.3.6 Corrective Feedback sub-corpus

As previously noted, the Stage 2 Corrective Feedback sub-corpus was the largest of all the TIC sub-corpora, with the majority of the data produced by T5 and T8. Despite the variation in length of responses, all stage 2 teachers expressed similar attitudes towards corrective feedback; namely that they do not do it enough, and that they do not feel comfortable doing it. T2, when expanding upon her previous statement about not doing enough corrective feedback, explains that she will not correct unless asked to do so by the learners.

[REF.TIC.T2.1637] Like some students will be like How do you say this? How do you say that? Or they will say something with incorrect pronunciation and I will say it and they will notice that I said it differently and then they will be like Oh why did you say it that way rather than? But when they are in groups I mainly just go around and monitor. I don't really give feedback.

The rationale behind her approach to corrective feedback provision was not given, although T2 did express that she had tried other methods of feedback such as delayed correction, but not frequently.

[REF.TIC.T2.1641] Yeah, and I've tried like writing down mistakes that I hear and putting them on the board and having them... but I don't do that often either.

T5 expressed a similar acknowledgement about the quality of his corrective feedback provision. After stating 'I'm not great at it', T5's responses to this theme were the most developed of his peers in the Stage 2 cohort, displaying a considered rationale behind when he chooses to correct or to ignore errors. His rationale can be organised into two categories – the notion of 'needless correction' and his efforts to normalise correction. In the case of 'needless correction', T5 is referring to the correction of errors which are not 'such a big issue', and which he believes 'slow down the pace of the lesson, that damage the student's confidence, then, you know, it's just not helpful and I won't do it'. Conversely, errors which are not corrected and could lead to incorrect uptake by other learners in the class are deemed as necessary, and those errors are corrected by T5.

When attempting to normalise correction by showing learners 'that correction is not the end of the world', T5 uses sarcasm 'for comic effect', but insists that this can only be done after the delicate balance of building rapport and relationships in the class has been achieved, but never at the expense of the learners' confidence.

[REF.TIC.T5.246] There can be a lot of laughs and a bit of sarcasm here and there but no I would definitely try not to damage a student's confidence.

The issue of learner confidence being impacted as a result of correction was the primary concern of T8, stating that she avoids spending too much time attempting to draw a correct answer from 'weaker' students – choosing to move on to another student quickly, or to use an implicit form of feedback such as echo or giving them 'the face'. This approach is

centred in T8's very personalised view of teaching which had been expressed in earlier responses, treating each student individually when possible. Her sensitive approach is relaxed when it comes to students who are 'a bit lazy, and they are like "I don't know"', but are deemed able by T8, who then 'push[es] them a bit more, especially if I know they are well capable of it'.

T8's overall approach to correction appears to stem from her own personal response, putting herself in the learners' place and imagining how she would feel under the same circumstances.

[REF.TIC.T8.1512] I get it. I don't know the answer teacher, please stop pushing me! If someone was kind of just like "No, do it again, try again, try again" and I would be like "No! Now I feel like a thick so please just move on".

Like T8, T14 references echo as her preferred mode of correction, referring to it as 'the mirroring response', but always couching it within positivity and encouragement.

[REF.TIC.T14.1794] If they say something with a wrong tense I would repeat "Oh wow, so you did this?" you know, showing interest but with the correct tense instead. Sometimes if it is focusing in on a word I might just try to repeat exactly what they said and stop at that word and ask them to say it for me again and get them to say the correct word.

Discomfort with correction was commented on by T14, who stated that she did not provide correction 'in that spot', choosing to take notes and do a delayed correction activity at the end of class 'with a few things together up on the board'. The stage of the lesson was considered as a variable, however, with T14 reporting more likelihood of stopping learners to correct during a grammar or vocabulary task, but not during fluency speaking practice.

[REF.TIC.T14.1806] I wouldn't want to trip them up, so I definitely wouldn't stop them then.

Although Stage 2 teachers align their approach to corrective feedback with pedagogical theory, either established or their personal viewpoint, they display the same level of concern and discomfort with providing CF as Stage 1 teachers exhibited, despite their advanced experience.

6.3.7 Metalinguistic awareness subcorpus

As previously noted, the Stage 2 Metalinguistic Awareness subcorpus was smaller than that of Stage 1, but contained more focused language relevant to the topic, with less hedging and fewer expressions of self-doubt or questions to the interviewer. T2 and T5 in particular, both of whom had completed MA programmes in TESOL and Education respectively, were prompt and forthcoming with terminology, requiring no support and exhibiting little self-doubt, compared to the responses of T8 and T14.

[REF.TIC.T14.1770] Oh God. So you would have your kind of presentation of grammar points, no off the top of my head I can't name any others.

[REF.TIC.T8.1480] I'm making these up as I go along...

T8 and T14 both exhibit self-doubt and hesitation when faced with this question, which was not noticeable in their responses at other stages of the interview.

6.3.8 Stage 2 summary

Their greater depth of classroom experience has shaped the beliefs of Stage 2 teachers, particularly in regard to their perceptions of learners' needs and the development of their beliefs around provision of feedback. Stage 2 teachers believe that learners want more

traditional styles of teaching, appearing to be less confident of communicative approaches than Stage 1 after having had more exposure to learners and their feedback in the classroom.

Stage 2 teachers display more awareness of context within the lesson (e.g. learners' collective and individual needs) but are less concerned with extraneous factor (e.g. learner level). Concern about learner anxiety, confidence and emotional state are professed more strongly than in Stage 1, and these issues directly impact their views and decisions regarding positive and corrective feedback. Their personal beliefs and opinions on pedagogy and good practice are more developed and better articulated than at Stage 1, and they appear to engage more in reflection as evidenced by detailed examples from their own classrooms. Lastly, although developing teachers are generally more confident in their production of metalanguage, there were overt expressions of distress when attempting to discuss their practice using pedagogical metalanguage.

6.4 Stage 3 – Proficient

Despite being comprised of fewer participants, the Stage 3 sub-corpus is larger than that of Stage 1, with very few responses provided in the form of short utterances. The Stage 3 teachers provided the longest responses of the three cohorts, mirroring their longer than average turns in the classroom corpus (Figure 5.5) with more rationalisation and examples within their responses. Stage 3 was also the only cohort of the three which did not ask the interviewer for clarification, and the interviews contained fewer interviewer turns than those of Stage 1 and Stage 2.

6.4.1 Personal Definition sub-corpus

The request for a personal definition of teacher talk elicited three quite different responses from Stage 3, defining teacher talk in terms of effectiveness, entertainment value, and quantity. While Stage 2 teachers primarily defined teacher talk in relation to the teacher, both Stage 1 and Stage 3 teachers made more reference to the learners, as evidenced by the frequency of both nouns in the Personal Definition sub-corpora.

Table 6.3 Personal Definition sub-corpus noun frequency, all stages (normalised to 10000)

Stage 1	Freq	Stage 2	Freq	Stage 3	Freq
Student	100.17	teacher	83.47	student	116.86
Teacher	33.39	Time	66.78	teacher	83.47
Time	16.69	classroom	33.39	Talk	50.08

Teacher talk was defined by T3 partially in terms of how it should not be done – the teacher should be talking as part of a communicative or productive objective, and therefore ‘it shouldn’t just be the teacher kind of talking’.

[REF.TIC.T3.347] I suppose it’s you are always... the teacher talk versus student talk. Like how much is the teacher talking in the class and what are they saying? To what end are they talking. Are they talking for instructions to kind of...unless it’s just from the students and the idea that the teacher should be talking but it should be talking to the end of having the students talk. Like they are talking with the goal of having the students participate and having the students being the ones that are producing.

Similar sentiments were produced by teachers in Stage 1 and Stage 2, all expressing negativity towards teachers who tend to dominate the classroom, preferring to ‘have the chats’ and who ‘love the sound of (their) own voice’.

T12 is the only participant to mention learner level in the Personal Definition of Teacher Talk sub-corpus, while T6 is the only one to refer to teacher talk as ‘entertainment’ for learners.

[REF.TIC.T12.1695] Teacher talk means to me speaking to the students in an effective and communicative manner, making sure that I am understood and that it is appropriate to their level.

[REF.TIC.T6.1093] It’s the amount of time that I spend to entertain my students!

While this response was clearly made in jest, T6 later elaborated when discussing his experience of teacher talk in training.

6.4.2 Experience of Teacher Talk in Initial Teacher Training sub-corpus

All three Stage 3 participants reported having had exposure to the concept of teacher talk during their initial training, but only T6 reported having been given specific feedback on the topic.

[REF.TIC.T6.1098] Not necessarily too much but that I should reduce. They told me to be less interested and less entertaining. That silence is ok and they feel comfortable around me and I don’t need to be so friendly. That’s what I’ve been told. That kind of... you are going too far, leave them alone, you are fine, they love you. Its ok.

This feedback, similar to that of T8 in Stage 2, implies the suggestion from trainers that teachers should alter their personality somewhat in order to meet the expectations of teacher input required of them.

The use of pronouns by Stage 3 teachers in this theme is notable, as with the previous two stages, for the absence of the collective pronoun *we* when referring to their experience within a training setting and among other teachers. The recurrence of this

finding prompted further investigation into pronoun use more generally in TIC. The first-person pronoun *I* is the most frequent word overall in TIC, with two other pronouns present in the top twenty words – *you* and *they*, while *them* is present in 27th place (Appendix M). When compared to their equivalents in the reference corpus, the Spoken BNC, *I* is used more frequently in TIC, while *you* is far more frequent in the reference corpus. The high frequency of *I* over *you* in TIC is unsurprising, given that these interviews were eliciting personal opinions and feelings, and for the ubiquity of this pattern in spoken conversation generally (Clancy 2016, p.102) but the presence of *you* in the top ten was striking. As stated in Chapter 4, the interviews conducted to compile the TIC corpus can be classified as discourse unit (DU) interviews, in which the interviewer limits themselves to minimal responses, with their role primarily in steering the interview through the asking of questions, providing short, supporting contributions, and redirecting the topic (Ten Have and Mazeland 1996). As such, the interviewee was not conversing with the interviewer, and there was little exchange of opinion. The *you*, therefore, could not be referring to their collocutor – the interviewer. Examination of concordance lines throughout the corpus revealed that *you* was being used to refer to people in general (Biber *et al.* 1990), but that the interviewee was including themselves in that category.

[REF.TIC.T10.714] But if they don't... it's true, you have to know this stuff.

[REF.TIC.T7.975] I don't want to put them off by... because if you make fun of them for answering a question wrong...

In these examples, the interviewees are simultaneously including themselves in the *you*, which refers to teachers as a group who have to have a level of knowledge, but also distancing themselves. In the second example above, the teacher uses both *I* and *you* in

the same utterance – using *I* to express their feeling on the topic (in this case, giving corrective feedback) and moving to *you* in the hypothetical if-clause, where they are expressing something negative, such as making fun of a learner for making a mistake.

Like T6, T12 also reported a struggle to reduce her teacher talk, not because of her personality but rather because of the nature of communication for ‘native’ speakers of English.

[REF.TIC.T12.1699] I remember an awful lot of it was just very practical feedback. Say in terms of being more direct with the students in way that you might not be with native English speakers. It was always like stop padding out what you are saying with phrases that are really only used to be polite or with structures that students might not necessarily understand. Sort of things like “Oh now if you will please open to page...” They would say “Just say open your books to page 20”, that’s all you need to say, and honestly, I always kind of struggled with that in that it’s a very hard habit to break, speaking that way. And also its just not what we do when we speak English.

The frequent use of hedges in spoken English by L1 users, particularly in instructions and requests (Farr and O’Keeffe 2002), was deemed to be obstructive to clear communication by T12’s trainers – a guideline also referred to by T2 in the Stage 2 data. Despite acknowledging the potential negative impact of hedged language on learners, T12 found it a challenge to adapt to a more concise way of speaking, while also justifying her language choice:

[REF.TIC.T12.1699] We are polite, and we do kind of pad out what we say with these potentially unnecessary polite phrases but that’s the way people are going to interact with them in the street.

T12 was also advised not to repeat or rephrase questions and instructions, and instead to ‘say something once and sort of let the point land and let the students digest it and that

that's the best way for them to understand, rather than rephrasing something if I think they haven't understood it because then that can just confuse them'.

Finally, T3 reported that his experience with teacher talk was as a peripheral focus on his training course, rather than the core concept presented to many of the participating teachers in the present study, and not something that he had direct experience of.

[REF.TIC.T3.349] They gave us a ratio. They said student talk should be about 70% and teacher talk about 30%. That was the ratio they initially gave us.

[REF.TIC.J.350] Did you ever get feedback on your teacher talk in your original TEFL?

[REF.TIC.T3.351] I do know in some feedback sessions it was mentioned to some people, but it wasn't one of the like cornerstones in our TEFL training, no. I can't rem... I know they did it with other people who maybe talked way too much or talked way too little. Their instructions were insufficient. But in my feedback, I really can't remember them mentioning it.

Like T5, T14 (Stage 2) and T13 (Stage 1), teacher talk was reported by T3 as an issue among other trainees, but not him. Once again, a ratio of ideal teacher to student talk quantity was presented, 70/30, but overall teacher talk was not a cornerstone of his training.

Stage 3 teachers overall appeared to have had positive experiences around teacher talk during their training, and the advice they were given on the topic was generally grounded in pedagogy. However, putting the instruction into practice was sometimes easier said than done.

[REF.TIC.T12.1701] Okay, I think it's all perfectly sound advice it was just hard to apply sometimes.

The practicality of the instruction provided during training is highlighted when the most frequent adjectives are considered, with repeated occurrences of *practical*, *helpful*, and *direct* in this sub-corpus.

6.4.3 Quantification sub-corpus

All three proficient teachers refer to context as a contributing factor to the quantity of their teacher talk, with T3 and T12 referencing learner level specifically.

[REF.TIC.T3.1124] Lower levels, I mean you need more teacher input. You need ninety. Today it was me seventy percent, it's never one hundred percent.

[REF.TIC.T12.1705] I try not to keep it too teacher centred at all in general, but it really does depend on the level. If they are fairly independent obviously I would have them do more. In terms of the percentage it tends to differ from class to class.

Both T3 and T12 also refer to the makeup of the class, both in terms of the learners' language background and their personality:

[REF.TIC.T3.359] I mean I think it depends on the class as well. Like if sometimes you are required to talk a little bit more because it could be one of those classes where the students are... they need you to kind of drive them a little bit more and talk a little bit more.

[REF.TIC.T12.1705] If they are not [independent] or if it's a monolingual class I do tend to do a lot more of the talking and probably spend about half the time talking.

Grammar is considered by T6 to be an element of the lesson which demands high levels of teacher talk, a sentiment echoed by T2, T7, T14 and T13 in Stages 1 and 2.

[REF.TIC.T6.1263] Well it depends on what you are teaching definitely. I don't know, if its something complicated like a grammar topic, up to forty minutes maybe. I don't know, I just think it's necessary.

Especially for new grammar. You should not be flying through anything that's important and I think that grammar is important.

This shared belief among the teachers on the importance of sufficient teacher talk being required to present grammar suggests a general departure from the rules of CLT in this cohort, an approach which prioritises inductive approaches to systems teaching.

6.4.4 Perceived Learner Expectations of Teacher Talk sub-corpus

Although all three Proficient teachers report a positive reaction from learners to communicative methods, which generally feature more emphasis on learner production than teacher talk, all three mention the value placed by learners on a teacher-led approach to grammar.

[REF.TIC.T12.1711] On the whole yes. I think that that's what students expect. More teacher led, more presentation on things like grammar and that's not to say that they react negatively to pair work and group work.

T6 and T12 both suggest that communicative methods are generally accepted and enjoyed by learners, but need to be balanced with a ‘structured’ systems focus.

[REF.TIC.J.1152] And how do you think they react to the communicative approach that we do?

[REF.TIC.T6.1153] The reaction is positive but I do know that they prefer well-structured presentations and structured practice of what we have done.

[REF.TIC.J.1154] So they want the PPP?

[REF.TIC.T6.1155] They really do. They don't want constant talking for three hours. Most of them are kind of in their late twenties so they want things on the board, things on paper, they want things to bring home and then study. They tend not to like flexibility that much. Some of them... the ones who actually came here to study they want something proper.

[REF.TIC.J.1156] Do you think your student engagement and retention is better when you do a lesson like that?

[REF.TIC.T6.1157] Yeah. You can see them paying attention. Like you can see them picking up the book and taking out their pen and you are like “Ah, I have reached out”.

The use of deductive methods of instruction such as PPP (present, practice, produce) is deemed by T6 to be more sought after by students who are serious about language learning as it provides them something concrete that they can take away from the lesson. Taking a different view, T3 suggests that communicative methods are generally favoured by students, with only some students, such as those from Asia, preferring ‘a lecture’. Instead, he believes ‘most students do prefer the communicative approach whereby they are the ones that are driven to talk all of the time’. T3 suggests that learners can misinterpret the teacher’s intention during communicative tasks, believing that the teacher is ‘not doing it because they don’t want to do it’.

[REF.TIC.T3.365] Yeah, sometimes I think it’s due to the lack of signposting where the teacher is not talking and the teacher is nearly withdrawn from the class and that is kind of due to the lack of signposting and the students don’t understand that thinking behind the task. The teacher doesn’t signpost it clearly enough.

This misunderstanding of learner-led approaches is attributed by T3 to a lack of signposting by the teacher, who has not explained to the learners the rationale behind the task in question.

6.4.5 Positive Feedback sub-corpus

Collocation analysis shows a stronger focus in Stage 3 on the teacher’s response to a desired utterance, rather than the utterance itself.

Table 6.4 Collocations, all stages (normalised to 10000)

Stage 1	Freq	Stage 2	Freq	Stage 3	Freq
very good	66.88	positive feedback	54.34	positive reinforcement	132.45
pronunciation error	33.44	unusual piece	27.17	positive feedback	132.45
major pronunciation	33.44	complex structure	27.17	good answer	66.22
fellow teacher	33.44	excellent piece	27.17		
good answer	33.44	excellent point	27.17		
second chance	33.44				

Two of the three Stage 3 teachers refer specifically to ‘positive reinforcement’ in their response. While T6 interprets this as encouragement and additional positive feedback following a correct answer, T12 uses positive feedback as a means of fostering self-correction. The use of the phrase ‘this is how you can make it correct’ suggests that, as seen among several teachers in Stage 1 and Stage 2, an overlap is occurring between positive feedback and corrective feedback.

[REF.TIC.T6.381] I like to give positive feedback. I like to kind of... you know, when someone has given a good answer to kind of encourage them. I feel like when people get positive reinforcement it makes them want to answer more in class.

[REF.TIC.T12.1731] Positive feedback is all about positive reinforcement. So not even necessarily positive as in “Yes, good, that’s correct” but positive in the sense that this is what you can do to get to where you want to be. This is how you can make it correct rather than...

T3 presents a somewhat conflicting response, using an ellipted conditional which could potentially refer to either of the interviewer’s questions, but suggests that the learner receiving feedback is a factor in the type of positive feedback provided.

[REF.TIC.J.1200] Would you say you are sparse with your positive feedback or you would get into more the encouragement and the affirmation?

[REF.TIC.T3.1201] Depending on the student, definitely.

[REF.TIC.J.1202] Ok.

[REF.TIC.T3.1203] And then I would rarely stop at “yes” anyway. I would always expand.

[REF.TIC.J.1204] What is your go to word? I say “Perfect”.

[REF.TIC.T3.1205] “That’s great” or something like that.

[REF.TIC.J.1206] Ok. So you would always try to reinforce?

[REF.TIC.T3.1207] Normally yes.

The contingency of feedback, both positive and corrective, on the needs of individual learners has been mentioned by teachers at all stages, in many cases implying that some students require more positive reinforcement than others.

6.4.6 Corrective Feedback sub-corpus

The learner as a contextual factor in corrective feedback is mentioned by all three Stage 3 teachers, with consideration of individual learners within the class dynamic cited as a factor.

[REF.TIC.T3.383] I do... depending on the student but I do like to kind of put it to the class and say, “Can anyone spot an error?” It would be depending on the student because if someone is a bit more sensitive you don’t want to draw their attention to the class. But I think that generally works if you have got a nice rapport.

[REF.TIC.T12.1743] For me it really just a case by case thing, depending on the class and depending on the individual.

[REF.TIC.T6.1231] You need to get to know the people first.

Echo and delayed correction are mentioned by T12, but unlike previous references to delayed correction by Stage 1 and Stage 2 teachers it is not done as a means of avoiding direct or explicit feedback.

[REF.TIC.T121743] I tend to mix that up say with just noting down errors as I hear them and then writing them up for students to correct themselves and encourage them to find their own mistakes and identify their own mistakes and to bring them back to kind of working more independently as well. I just find generally if they see something written and its incorrect they have no problem correcting it. “Oh it’s has, not have” and I am like “Okay I know that you know that but when you speak you don’t say it, so you just need to think about that”.

In another example of teachers espousing their own personal beliefs in regard to pedagogy, T12 states that written correction of a spoken error is more effective, in her experience, than oral feedback in open class.

[REF.TIC.T12.1739] It doesn’t encourage other students to listen to each other, they will only listen to you if you are going to say what everyone else says.

Individual, personalised feedback is believed by T12 more useful for learners and is therefore used more frequently than oral modes.

Finally, T6 expresses an approach to correction which is remarkably similar to that of T5 in Stage 2 – judiciously deciding whether or not the correction is necessary.

[REF.TIC.T6.1209] I could correct more but I do it when I think it’s really necessary and when something appears as an error or a mistake in class more than once or twice. Today I did “ed” endings which was completely irrelevant for the content of the class but I did that today.

In this case, T6 chose to focus on a recurring issue in pronunciation, despite not having factored it into his plan. This is an excellent example of interactive decision-making and the ability to improvise based on the needs of the learners – a characteristic common among proficient/expert teachers.

6.4.7 Metalinguistic awareness subcorpus

When considered by token number alone the Stage 3 Metalinguistic subcorpus is the smallest of all subcorpora, but on examination this is found to be because of more concise answers being given than Stage 1 and 2, with fewer examples provided.

[REF.TIC.T3.375] Elicitation. I suppose as well you are... well just general explanation, presentation, you are talking in order to facilitate, I suppose you are talking as well sometimes just to create a nice atmosphere in the class.

[REF.TIC.T6.1163] Presenting. Asking for feedback. Questioning, drilling. Give examples, present. Me talking about stuff that's going to be covered.

Although T3 and T6 appeared to have no difficulty producing a response when asked to name terminology related to teacher talk, T12 expressed distinct discomfort with her perceived inability to produce an answer, referring to herself as a “terrible professional”.

[REF.TIC.J.1568] Okay. The last one. Pop quiz. Can you name any types of teacher talk? So we have mentioned a couple in the course of our conversation.

[REF.TIC.T12.1569]: No. I can't remember any of the terminology. I actually don't think I can and now I feel terrible. I feel like a terrible professional.

[REF.TIC.J.1570] Okay. We will do it the other way. What do you call it when you are telling the students the grammar rules?

[REF.TIC.T12.1571] Like talking about different methods. Like Test Teach Test, that kind of thing?

[REF.TIC.J.1572] Yeah, what do they come under the umbrella of? What is that?

[REF.TIC.T12.1573] Presentation.

[REF.TIC.J.1574] Yes! Well done.

[REF.TIC.T121575] That seemed a bit too obvious.

Despite being able to produce an example of a pedagogical approach, Test Teach Test, T12 describes the term ‘presentation’ as being “a bit too obvious”.

6.4.8 Stage 3 summary

Stage 3 teachers’ beliefs bear a striking similarity to those of Stage 2, particularly in regard to expression of personal pedagogy and a heightened awareness of what learners want as well as what they need, and are able to produce a much more varied range of metalanguage on the practice of teaching than their less experienced peers. Their focus

is on their actions and the repercussions of their actions on the learners, rather than placing the onus for a successful lesson on the learners themselves.

6.5 Chapter summary

This chapter aimed, through the use of thematic analysis combined with a CADS methodology, to uncover what English languages teachers at three stages of career progression believe about their teacher talk. Despite the differing backgrounds and teaching contexts, analysis of the TIC corpus data has shown tendencies towards similarities in teacher belief and outlook which develop as more experience is gained. A key example of this is the awareness of the actual quantity of their talk – with most teachers presenting their talk quantity, consciously or otherwise, firmly within a known range of acceptability, which in most cases conflicted with the classroom data, as will be discussed in the following chapter (Figure 7.1). This presentation of their talk as sufficient was generally supported by a justification by the teachers, who asserted when and why they took decisions to increase or decrease their talk according to certain contextual factors.

The incorporation of a corpus aided approach was particularly enlightening in the analysis of interview data – when used in conjunction with thematic analysis it allowed for detailed exploration, not only of what was being said, but how it was said. This was exemplified in the emergence of a distinct lack of expression of community of practice among the TIC cohort, through the lack of prominence of the pronoun *we* in frequency list and cluster analysis.

The following chapter will discuss the significance of the findings presented in Chapters 5 and 6 in relation to the two main research questions under investigation in the present study.

Chapter 7: Discussion

'Let's go over and see what we have done. '[T10]

7.1 Introduction

Having presented the findings of the analyses of the DUBCOTT and TIC corpora in Chapters 5 and 6, the two main research questions will now be revisited in light of our existing understanding of teacher talk in relation to teacher career stage, as presented in the review of the relevant literature in Chapter 2.

The research problem of the present study, set out in Chapter 1, sought to establish the relationship between teacher experience and teacher talk – both as classroom practice and in self-reported awareness of teacher talk as a phenomenon. This thesis has revealed that distinct tendencies can be found both in the classroom talk and the reported beliefs of teachers at the three different career stages examined in the present study – novice, developing, and proficient.

The following section will discuss the most salient findings of the first research question: how does teacher talk vary at three stages of teacher career development?

7.2 How does teacher talk vary at three stages of teacher career development?

The aim inherent in this research question was to examine the classroom discourse of English language teachers at three stages of career development – novice, developing,

and proficient – focusing on how initiation and feedback moves and their associated acts are operationalised by teachers at different stages of their career. Analysis of the DUBCOTT data in Chapter 5 identified two main areas in which teacher talk varies according to teacher career stage – in quantity and in content.

7.2.1 Quantity

Quantitative analysis of DUBCOTT shows that the percentage of teacher talk increases as teachers progress through the three career stages, with teacher turns increasing in length in line with experience (see Figure 5.5). These findings suggest, firstly, that reduced teacher talk does not necessarily come hand in hand with increased experience (Krabbe *et al.* 1989), as the results presented in this thesis appear to show the opposite phenomenon. This could be attributed to several factors. Firstly, novice teachers' tendency to adhere closely to their plan and not to deviate into improvised or conversational tasks (Berliner 1994) may result in teacher talk being kept minimal inadvertently. Secondly, the relative recency of their training course, which entrenches the notion of reducing teacher talking time, may be more present in their consciousness than in the consciousness of the developing and proficient teachers. A review conducted by Carillo *et al.* (2014) supports this theory, having found that the long-term impact of pre-service professional development programmes directly correlated with the length of the programmes themselves, with the most sustainable effect coming from longer-term or repeated input. As noted in Chapter 4, fourteen of the fifteen teachers who participated in the present study had completed a one-month initial teacher training programme only, and background data gleaned from their interviews indicated that CPD was not a frequent feature in their school at the time of data

collection. It can be suggested, therefore, that retention of the good practice regarding teacher talk presented during the teacher training programme has a limited lifespan, after which teacher talk begins to increase. Lastly, while novice teachers may speak less than their more experienced counterparts, this can be the result of sticking closely to plans and internalised scripts, providing fewer examples, less repetition, less modification of language, and less elicitation and correction than their peers (Bailey 1996; Richards 1998a). The ability of more experienced teachers to diverge from their planned interactions to focus on emergent issues or to develop points of interest among learners may be the result of a higher quantity of teacher talk, but this divergence could provide more meaningful input for the learners (Walsh 2001, 2002).

The evidenced increase in teacher talk as teachers progress through their career, as well as the high average of teacher talk across the corpus, serves to discredit the apparently pervasive notion among EFL teachers that 30% teacher talk is always feasible, let alone preferable. While a balanced ratio of learner talk to teacher talk is understood to be beneficial for the learner, given the accepted fact that the teacher's input is both the medium and goal of instruction the numerous contextual factors of the EFL classroom as well as the immutable variable of the teachers and learners themselves must be taken into consideration, as must the impact of the teachers' idiolects, or personal conversational style (Walsh, 2011; Sert and Walsh 2012).. The awareness among teachers in the present study of a target percentage of teacher talk in the industry, or general awareness of a need to reduce their teacher talk for the benefit of the learners, did not contribute to decreased teacher talk. The opposite could be said to be the case, with the majority of teachers greatly underestimating the amount of talk they actually produced.

Comparison of the DUBCOTT and TIC corpora finds that teacher awareness of the quantity of their own classroom talk varies in line with their level of experience.

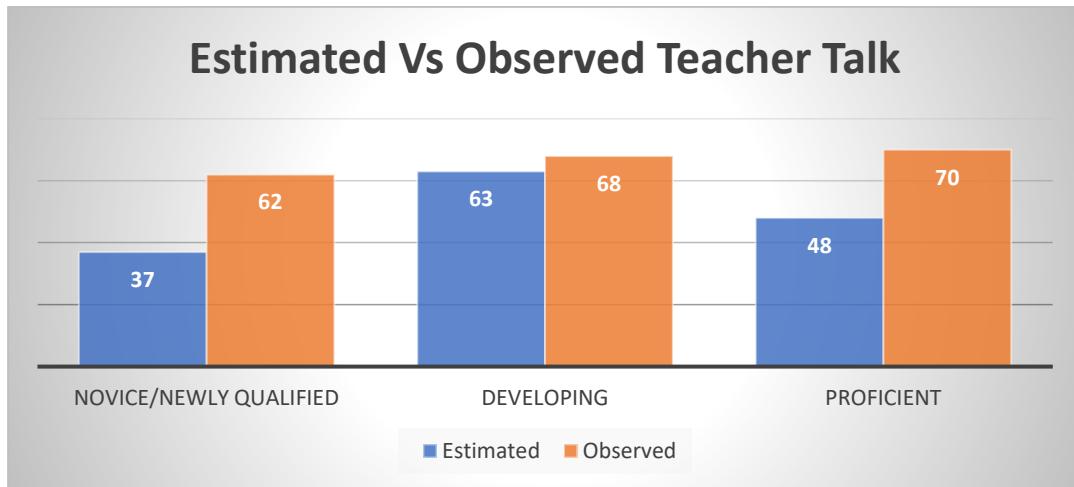


Figure 7.1 Estimated vs observed teacher talk

Although the Novice teachers produced the lowest quantity of teacher talk among the entire cohort, their estimations of how much they spoke in the classroom remain quite removed from the reality. Similarly, although marginally closer to the figures calculated post-observation, Proficient teachers significantly underestimated the quantity of their teacher talk when theirs was in fact the highest in the whole cohort. It was the Developing teachers who produced the most realistic estimates in relation to their classroom talk, with only a small margin of difference between the observed and estimated figures. This possibly indicates a self-consciousness on the part of the Novice cohort and, conversely, an unselfconsciousness in the Proficient cohort of teachers - suggesting the presence of a conscious inner ‘monitor’ voice in the Novice teachers that is very aware of the amount of time they *should* spend talking, while Proficient teachers, with a lot of experience, feel neither conscious nor guilty of talking too much. This may

indicate that the recently trained Novice teachers still perceive the voice of the trainer monitoring their classroom performance as new teachers, and they are therefore still very sensitive to following the rules regarding minimising teacher talk and maximising student talk. The majority of teachers across all cohorts overall produced estimations that were well within what could be considered the ‘ideal’ ratio, referred to as the ‘golden ratio’ by T8, of 70% to 30% student talk to teacher talk. The use of this ratio in estimation of their teacher talk, despite being almost the inverse of previously established quantities of teacher talk in use (e.g. Ur 1996), may be the result of a cognitive bias taking place during the face-to-face interview, with the participants attempting to impress upon the interviewer that they are following what they believe to be best practice in their teaching. This generalisation, however, of their teacher talk quantity within an ‘ideal’ ratio only occurred when teachers were speaking about their teaching in the general sense – when specific lessons or specific situations were being referred to, there was a much more realistic attitude towards the amount of teacher talk taking place.

The discrepancy between perception and reality can potentially be accounted for under consideration of a number of factors. When referring to the quantity of their teacher talk the notion of contextual factors was a recurring feature, with teachers referring to learner level and lesson topic as factors that impact their teacher talk. Despite referring to concept checking as a factor in increased teacher talk, this act only comprised 13% of the Stage 1 teachers’ initiation turns, which accounted for only 4% of their total teacher talk, and is therefore not a significant contributor to their teacher talk overall. When learner proficiency level is considered, although there is one instance of lower than average teacher talk with a higher proficiency group, the ratio of teacher talk to student

talk was similar whether the learners were A2 or B2. The reference to grammar as a factor was also mismatched with the classroom data, but only for Stage 1 teachers. As discussed in Chapter 5 the majority of Stage 1's initiation turns – the turn in which grammar presentation generally takes place – were taken up with nomination and task management/ICQs, neither of which are associated with the presentation of grammar specifically. At Stage 3, however, initiation acts that are linked to the delivery of systems content, such as display and concept checking questions, were among the most frequently occurring acts. This suggests, therefore, that Stage 3 teachers are more aware of the time actually spent on grammar presentation than Stage 1 teachers, resulting from their heightened focus on form than their less experienced peers – a feature of expert or proficient teachers noted by Nunan (1992).

While the exact quantity of their teacher talk was, for the most part, underestimated by teachers, their quantifications were always supported by a rationale or a justification. These primarily referred to adapting to different contextual variables, such as learner level, learner disposition, lesson content, and time. While they may not be planning for their teacher talk in advance, or even conscious of their adaptation while it is happening, an awareness of the appropriate proportion of teacher talk for different situations is evidently being taken into consideration.

As well as clear differences in the quantity of their teacher talk, the present study has highlighted differences in the composition of the talk at the three stages.

7.2.2 Use of metalanguage

Analysis of the use of metalanguage in DUBCOTT, through frequency analysis a high level of pedagogical content knowledge among the teachers, which appears to increase as the teachers progress through the career stages and gain more information or more confidence in using such terminology with learners.

The presence of such a significant proportion of linguistic metalanguage has three implications in terms of characterisation of the teacher talk in this corpus. Firstly, it suggests that teachers in this corpus possess a high level of metalinguistic knowledge, and their ability to effectively express it indicates a similarly high level of pedagogical content knowledge (Carter 1990; Gatbonton 1999), and a form-focused approach. Secondly, we can surmise that the teachers deem explicit use of grammatical metalanguage both comprehensible to and useful for learners, given that the terminology is often used *as* the explanation, rather than requiring an additional explanation. Drawing learners' attention to the metalanguage is considered a potential factor in learners' metalinguistic awareness-raising (Carter 2003). Lastly, avoidance of grammatical metalanguage in the classroom, although a significant element of the CLT approach that the teachers are purportedly using, has been thought to deprive learners of the opportunity to confirm and consolidate the language content in a means with which they are comfortable, particularly those learners who come from a more traditional, grammar-led approach. Integration of the metalanguage therefore 'provide(s) an opportunity for them to confirm or modify the rules they have internalized as a result of their own hypothesis formation and testing' (Hu 2010, p.65). This suggests that teachers

may be operating in conflict to the prescribed CLT approach of their institution by choosing an approach they deem to be more suitable for their learners' needs.

Novice teachers were found to use the least amount of grammatical or pedagogical metalanguage in DUBCOTT, while developing and proficient teachers use equal amounts (Figure 5.2). It is expected for Stage 1 teachers to have a lesser knowledge of their subject-matter than more experienced teachers, and to be less confident in their use of it in the classroom (Andrews 1999a, 1999b; Borg 1999; Cajkler and Hislam 2002; Lock and Tsui 2000). Although a development of metalinguistic knowledge is usual as the teacher gains experience, the lack of defined increase of metalanguage used by Stage 3 teachers compared to Stage 2 does not presuppose a stagnation of knowledge between the stages. The more experienced teachers may be making decisions about what metalanguage is appropriate in their own classroom context, depending on their knowledge about their learners and their abilities (Borg 1999, p.103), and a lack of overt metalanguage use does not necessarily equate to a lack of knowledge (Andrews 1999b).

The relationship between teachers' grammatical metalanguage use and positive outcomes in learner language awareness has long been argued; studies in this area have found that teachers with high levels of PCK can provide effective linguistic intervention in learner written production (Andrews 2005), while teachers with low PCK were 'unable to see language development in the writing and speaking of their own pupils' (Gordon 2005 p.61). Teachers without the explicit pedagogical content knowledge demonstrated by the use of linguistic metalanguage, even if an implicit knowledge is present, appear to be unable to translate their implicit knowledge to the explicit form necessary for effective instruction (Hudson 2004). Myhill (2013) maintains that there is

“a connection maintained between teachers’ grammatical content knowledge and their ability to address learners’ language needs in the classroom”. Given the findings of the present study in relation to the increasing use of grammatical metalanguage as teachers progress from Novice to Developing/Proficient, it can be asserted that more focussed attention on language systems as a core component of initial teacher education programmes such as CELTA would serve only to benefit teachers and learners by providing teachers with a high level of PCK from the pre-service stage onwards.

7.2.3 Presentation of form, instructions, and hedges

A high usage of first-person pronouns was found among Stage 1 teachers throughout DUBCOTT, and the contrasting lack of *I* at Stage 2 and Stage 3 serves to establish approaches to the presentation and explanation of grammar that are unique to novice teachers in the corpus (Table 6.3). Firstly, the novices use themselves as the referent when giving grammatical explanations or examples, presenting grammatical form as personal experience through the use of *I*, while Stage 2 and Stage 3 teachers tend to use second-person deixis (generic or plural) to perform the same function.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T1.4078] Exactly. A speech is just one person talking. A discussion is everybody. So a speech is when I sit at the board and I just spout out grammar to you. A discussion is when I say “Ok, get in your groups” or “Guys let’s talk of the class” and everyone is talking.

[REF.DUBCOTT.T15.3873] When you use so you normally need a complement. Like he was so good, for example. That by itself is an incomplete sentence. I need something to finish it. He was so good that I couldn’t leave. When we have so we normally need a complement with that. In spoken English its fine, it’s just... but in written English you need the complement.

The use of first-person deixis in this case effectively creates distance between the learner and the action being described by the teacher, rendering it more of a hypothetical

situation for the learners than an instruction or an action with real-world results, while the latter usage provides a sense of relevance to the learner by placing them in the centre of the action, as it were. This reflects the development of the teachers' pragmatic knowledge in delivering the subject-matter – novice teachers are more likely to explain content in relation to how they understand it themselves than as fixed and immutable systems (Richards *et al.* 1998) and are less able to put themselves in the place of the learners. The use of *you* by the more experienced teachers, therefore, situates the explanation firmly in the realm of norms and rules, which appear more authoritative and trustworthy to the learner than what could be interpreted as the teacher's personal practice. It could be argued that the novice teachers at first produce examples that are genuinely personal but, over time, become more automatically retrieved during the teaching of familiar language items, and in so doing they become more directive which leads to a move from *I* to *You* – a feature which may be worth exploring in future research.

The development of the teachers' professional identity and increased comfort with the position of authority in the classroom was also reflected in the decrease in hedged instructions as the teachers gained experience. Hedged instructions with *would* such as *I would like + object + infinitive* were not used by Stage 3 teachers, who used *we + going to + infinitive* structures far more frequently, followed in frequency by *I + want + object + infinitive*. On the contrary, Stage 1 teachers were found to use *would* hedges far more frequently, with the overall tone of instruction veering towards extreme politeness far more than their more experienced peers. Given that hedges help to 'soften orders', in particular *would*, which is 'frequently used to hedge assertions which someone might challenge' (Carter and McCarthy 2006, pp.280–281), the distinct lack of *would* hedges

by Stage 3 teachers suggests a greater level of confidence behind the utterance than among less experienced teachers (Table 5.2). A noteworthy developmental period is evident among Stage 2 teachers in relation to hedging; Stage 2 teachers used an almost equal combination of directive phrases and hedged instructions, with more hedges than their Stage 1 counterparts, but a distinct move towards the more direct and linguistically economical instructions of Stage 3 teachers is evident. Stage 3 teachers have far more economy of language in evidence, not using the polite modal structures employed by Stage 1 and Stage 2 teachers, which demonstrates an observable progression in the grading of language as the teacher progresses through the career stages.

7.2.4 Collaborative effort

A focus on the development of community and collective effort in the classroom, which increased progressively through the stages, was also found in the instructional language predominant in initiation turns. Stage 1 teachers showed more uses of *I* and the plural *you* than developing and proficient teachers, who used *we* far more frequently than the first- and second-person pronouns (Table 6.3). The latter use suggests a sense of collective effort is being established by developing and proficient teachers, who are perhaps less concerned with presenting an authoritative or didactic figure than the novices. This is once again an adroit means of redressing the inherent asymmetrical power relationship between the teacher and the learners, with the impact of instructional utterances such as *I want you to* and *I need you to* being all the more impactful when used sparingly in comparison to the frequently used collective instructions such as *we need to*. The use of the person deixis in this case also serves a social function, presenting the teacher on an equal footing with the learners in the activity and again redressing the

asymmetric power relationship inherent in institutional discourse settings such as this. This suggests awareness on the part of the more experienced teachers, conscious or otherwise, of sociocultural theories in education (Vygotsky 1978), which posit that collective effort in the classroom can lead to meaning-making, and therefore language acquisition.

7.2.5 Positive and corrective feedback

The consensus on both types of feedback move, positive and corrective, was consistent amongst the whole TIC cohort – their positive feedback was effusive and affirming, while their corrective feedback was considered and context-dependent.

Teachers in the present study expressed strong beliefs around the quantity and effusiveness of their own positive feedback, which was mirrored in the observed classroom data. Positive feedback moves comprised the majority of all teacher talk in the DUBCOTT corpus, with positive feedback the most populous feature at two of the career stages –developing and proficient. Likewise, the teachers expressed very strong and active engagement with praise and positive feedback during the interviews, detailing use of physical cues, ‘positive reinforcement’, and positive adjectives, which can all can be observed in the positive feedback frequency list compiled from DUBCOTT data (Appendix L). Although there was just one exact match between both lists, *good*, the high frequency of explicitly affirmative adjectives in the DUBCOTT data, such as *exactly, excellent, beautiful, and great*, corresponds with the espoused view of teachers in the present study that their approach to positive feedback is to reaffirm and reinforce correctness, as well as the effort involved.

Overall, when the frequency of use of each individual corrective feedback type is compared across the stages, a clear pattern emerges. Of the eight distinct corrective feedback types identified in use in DUBCOTT, the four that are used in the most significant quantities by all stages are informing, prompting, recast and direct repair, with informing by far the most frequently used feature of all. This suggests that teachers favour explicit feedback types that are less direct, which despite being ‘sensitive’ (Walsh 2002) and time-consuming, shows a focus on form by the teachers and a consistent effort being made to allow learners to identify and repair their errors.

Although a concerted effort to do this was noted by Stage 3 teachers in the TIC data, DUBCOTT data shows that it is being done in the classroom, consciously or otherwise, by teachers at all three stages. Despite ongoing discussion since the onset of studies into error analysis and correction regarding the effectiveness, if any, of corrective feedback (Russell and Spada 2006; Ellis 2009; Sheen 2010; Rassaei 2015), these findings strongly suggest that teachers are attempting to provide corrective feedback in a manner that will be useful to the learner by drawing attention to form as much as possible through informing and prompting.

We will now turn to a discussion of the second research question, which asks what teachers in the present study believe about their teacher talk.

7.3 What do teachers at three stages of career development believe about their teacher talk?

The aim of this research question was to establish, through face-to-face individual interviews, what the participating teachers believed about teacher talk in general, and

their own teacher talk specifically. As well as eliciting the beliefs themselves, this research was interested in how teachers talked about their beliefs. The incorporation of CL approaches facilitated a richer degree of insight - by firstly dividing the data across themes, identified using thematic analysis, the language used to talk about these themes can be further mined, thus revealing patterns of use across themes and within career stage cohorts.

7.3.1 Quantity

The notion of quantity was a consistently occurring issue raised by teachers in the TIC data, and the discrepancy between the actual amount of their talk and their perceived quantity has already been discussed in this chapter. Teachers' beliefs about how much they spoke, however, and their justifications for the quantity of their talk, emerged as a significant finding within the interview corpus.

Quantity of teacher talk was something that had been raised in the initial training course of all but two of the teachers as something to be conscious of and kept as minimal as possible, a phenomenon common in ELT teacher training generally (Walsh 2002). This was not, however, something that teachers expressed overt concern about in their practice at the time of the interview. When asked if they felt they talked too much, the general response was in the negative, with teachers perceiving themselves to speak enough for the requirements of the lesson. Apart from two outlying estimations of 50% and 70%, all the teachers estimated themselves to be within an acceptable range – this was also something conveyed to teachers in their initial training, with guidelines of 30% teacher talk being presented as a target for teachers to aim for, but not exceed. It is

noteworthy, therefore, that the teachers positioned their own teacher talk around this guideline, or not too much above it. These estimations and goals often come into conflict, however, with what teachers perceive the learners to expect of them in their lessons. Although the general consensus was that while they aimed to balance their classroom talk judiciously, teachers in general perceived that they may not be talking enough to meet the expectations of their learners, who may not understand or accept the nature of the CLT classroom, in which the teacher is more of a facilitator than the knowledge-provider. TIC data shows that teachers perceive learners to want high quantities of teacher input, otherwise ‘teaching’ is not happening. While teachers did not state that they increased the quantity of their talk to meet these perceived expectations, by acknowledging that they did not necessarily meet these expectations, they are evidently considering the perspective of the learner in the CLT context.

[REF.TIC.T5.166] I would say they might expect more of a kind of teacher to... me to talk and go to the board to demonstrate for a longer period of time before they actually go and do it, whereas probably I would do a very quick introduction to what it is and say “Go do it” and then find out if they did it and where the problems were and then try and fix those problems. That would be my teaching technique.

Savignon and Wang (2003) found that learner attitudes towards CLT as the methodology being used by their teachers was often neglected, with the majority of studies focussing on the teacher (e.g. Thompson 1996; Sato and Kleinsasser 1999; Li 2001; Pham 2004). Specific reference was made in regard to learners’ perceived expectations of grammar and pronunciation teaching, with teachers’ stated assumptions that learners want more presentation, more board work, more drilling – all in all, more ‘traditional’ language teaching and not just ‘conversation’ for the entire lesson. This is in line with research into teachers’ misconceptions of what CLT actually entails, with the widely held belief among ELT practitioners that CLT neglects grammar, is all pair and

group work, and focuses predominantly on speaking activities (Thompson 1996). It is probable, therefore, that teachers in this present study have transferred their own conceptions and perhaps misgivings about CLT on to the learner, as there is no reference made in the data to learners actually expressing such beliefs.

7.3.2 Acceptability and appropriateness

A strongly present theme among all stages of the interview corpus was that of learner anxiety and self-esteem, and the negative impact of the teacher on the learners' emotional state. Analysis of TIC data revealed that teachers have distinct notions of what they consider to be acceptable and appropriate in regard to their teacher talk, and these all relate directly to the reduction of learner anxiety, and a conscious desire not to provoke negative affect. Creating a positive, nurturing atmosphere in the classroom is generally considered effective in reducing learner anxiety (Myers 2002; Dewaele and MacIntyre 2014), and although the teachers did not all refer specifically to the importance of a positive learning environment, they referred instead to the opposite – actions taken by the teacher that would negatively impact the learners' emotional state. Examples of such actions include ignoring learners and using sarcasm and were not considered acceptable by the teachers for the potential impact these responses could have on learners, and neither was repeatedly questioning or correcting learners if it appeared they could not produce a response. References to this matter were not framed as general opinion or advice, but rather as expressions of personal conviction, with teachers stating *I don't want to* rather than using a modal construction such as *should* or *must*.

[REF.TIC.T8.1504] I don't want to make an example out of them if they are a weaker student.

Personal convictions such as these form part of pre-active decision-making factors categorised, which are comprised of the teachers' personal beliefs, feelings and theories related to teaching (Seidel and Shavelson 2007). Consideration for the learners' abilities and emotional state, both as individuals and collectively, greatly informed teacher decision-making regarding how their learners were spoken to.

In addition to learners' affective state, another factor that emerged in TIC data as determining teacher decision-making around their teacher talk was the perceived impact of contextual factors imposed on the teacher by external elements such as the materials or the institutional framework and administration. The dominant contextual factor referenced in TIC was the prescribed lesson length, which was three hours in all the institutions from which teachers were selected. Lessons of this length, according to TIC data, do not lend themselves to large amounts of learner talk and collaborative work, so the lessons must be balanced with teacher talk. Although this context factor was noted in the data of the present research, it was a less prominent influencing factor than teachers' beliefs regarding how, and how much, content should be given to learners, both in pre-active and interactive decision-making.

Although models of professional expertise (Dreyfus 1986; Mott 2000) suggest that teachers do not begin to consciously adapt their practice, by deciding what does and does not need to be taught, and what should and should not be taught, until they have reached the 'competent' stage, data from TIC indicates that teachers in the novice, or newly qualified, career stage are engaging in such decision-making when it pertains to what they deem appropriate for their learners and context. These decisions are grounded

in teachers' previous experiences, their deeply held beliefs about teaching, as well as cognitive-emotional factors (Day and Leitch 2001) such as guilt or shame about how their actions in the classroom may impact learners.

7.3.3 Corrective feedback

Despite all three stages sharing similar attitudes in regard to the type of corrective feedback they favour, variations are evident at different stages.

When individual quantities of corrective feedback are considered, some correlation can be observed between expressed discomfort with feedback and its quantity in observed lessons. At Stage 1, T7 stated that she was hesitant providing feedback as she did not want learners to think she was making fun of them – T7's corrective feedback quantity was the lowest in the Stage 1 cohort.

[REF.TIC.T7.975] I don't want to put them off by... because if you make fun of them for answering a question wrong...

The same occurred in Stage 2, with T8's total corrective feedback the lowest of her cohort, coinciding with an overt expression of uneasiness with having to correct learners. T5, as well as being the most opinionated participant on the topic of corrective feedback, reported that he was 'not great' at giving correction and 'could do it more'.

This awareness may be linked to an increased effort to correct more frequently, as T5 had the second-highest total of correction in the Stage 2 cohort. In Stage 3, although not as openly uncomfortable with correction, T6 stated that correction was dependent on the relationship with the learners, and that he had to 'get to know them first'. T6's corrective

feedback was jointly the lowest in his Stage 3 cohort, along with T9, who was unavailable for interview.

Conversely, teachers who expressed less outward concern with correction tended to have a higher quantity of it, for example in the cases of T10 (Stage 1), T13 (Stage 1) and T3 (Stage 3). These exceptions aside, there remains a high degree of consistency between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practice where corrective feedback is concerned. Although teachers display a clear and distinct set of beliefs about corrective feedback, which are reflected very evidently in the data of both the TIC and DUBCOTT corpora, corrective feedback makes up only 14% of the total teacher talk on average. This is also in line with teachers' stated beliefs on the subject, with the majority of teachers stating that they did not correct enough, owing to personal discomfort or lack of confidence in the act.

7.4 Metalanguage – subject knowledge and communities of practice

7.4.1 Subject knowledge

The significance of the use of metalanguage in TIC is twofold. Firstly, teachers' use of metalanguage specific to the field of language teaching highlights both their subject-matter knowledge, and their pedagogical-content knowledge. As discussed in Chapter 2, subject-matter knowledge refers to teachers' knowledge of their subject, which in this case is the English language. Pedagogical-content knowledge refers to teachers' ability to transform their subject-matter knowledge into a form suitable for their learners and

the learning context (Shulman 1986). The latter requires an in-depth knowledge of the former, as well as an understanding of the theory and methodology required to apply the knowledge to the classroom. It also requires more interactive decision-making and critical judgement on the part of the teacher in order to determine what is suitable, appropriate and effective for their particular context. A key issue that emerged from the TIC data was teachers' apparent lack of knowledge of pedagogical metalanguage, which in the majority of respondents was declared as being insufficient. As noted in Chapter 6, this lack of declarative knowledge of the terminology of their profession was perceived negatively by the teachers, with some teachers expressing that they felt like a lesser professional because of this. Although the range of terminology expressed during the section of the interview which dealt specifically with metalanguage was relatively minimal, teachers at all stages produced numerous and varied metalinguistic items throughout the interview. In TIC, teachers displayed a lack of confidence in their pedagogical-content knowledge, while simultaneously using subject-matter metalanguage unprompted and consistently. A comparative keyword analysis (Appendix J) using the Spoken BNC as a reference corpus, revealed that teachers possess a greater amount of metalanguage than they appear to be aware of and are able to clearly articulate their actions without using pedagogical terminology.

[REF.TIC.T1.1355] Well I suppose the first thing that would spring to mind would be demonstrating or giving examples of grammar. I would write a formula and I would write some rules and I would talk the students through things. I would present before I would get them to practice.

[REF.TIC.T14/1774] Okay, you would have your one of mirroring for any kind of mistakes that they might make that you would kind of talk back or give them the correct response, or maybe if they are working on particular vocabulary that you might give them a fuller sentence or something like that to incorporate it in.

While it is by no means essential for all teachers to have a detailed, theoretical awareness of every aspect of their practice, the lack of ability to identify, without

support or prompting, the different elements of their teaching was striking. The only teacher who produced a large amount of relevant terminology was in the process of a Master's in Education, and, as noted in Chapter 1, none of the teachers had any further training in teaching after the completion of their initial training course. CPD was deemed inconsistent and sporadic by the participants, and was more focused on 'tips and tricks' than methodology and theory. There was no distinct difference across the three stages in their ability to produce terminology to describe their classroom talk, which suggests this is not a feature that develops through experience alone. It must, however, be considered that the *production* of metalanguage outside the context of explicit pedagogical function, such as during the interviews for TIC, is distinct from the *use* of metalanguage. It is in this distinction where the extent of teacher knowledge can better be ascertained. The 'articulation' of metalanguage (Freeman 2016) refers to the partial, inappropriate or incorrect use, while 'expression' refers to correct and 'expert' use of the metalanguage (Farr *et al.* 2019, p.114). Although the Stage 1 teachers produced more items of metalanguage, the references made by the Stage 2 and Stage 3 teachers referred to pedagogical functions rather than terminology or theories, making reference to collaborative work, learner autonomy and self-correction. Although Stage 1 teachers display a surface-level awareness of metalanguage relating to pedagogy and theory, evidence of their understanding of how the terminology relates to practice is lacking when compared to their more experienced colleagues.

Therefore, although teachers in TIC appeared to struggle with production of metalanguage relevant to the profession when requested to do so, their continuous, fluent and automatic use of metalanguage throughout the interviews suggests that their level of knowledge is much higher than they believed. This is mirrored by the use of

metalanguage in the classroom, which the above data has shown appears to be developmental – increasing apace with the teachers' own experience.

7.4.2 Community of practice

In addition to its relationship with subject knowledge, the use of metalanguage to implicitly indicate membership of a professional group or community of practice is evident from the TIC data. There is recurring evidence of a community of practice among these teachers through the use of metalanguage specific to language teaching (Farr 2007; Hedgcock 2002; Wenger 1998). This evidence is implicit, however, and is the only reference to or acknowledgement of professional identity in TIC. As noted in Chapter 6, there is a notable absence of collective pronouns such as *we* and *us* in the corpus in reference to teachers, pronouns which are commonly used ‘to both refer to and establish an interactional group’ (Wortham 1996, p.332).

The importance of *we* has been established as an indicator of inclusion or exclusion within a defined group (Wortham 1996, p.331). Recent corpus-based studies of professional interactions between English language teachers, both pre-service trainees and practicing in-service professionals, have shown consistent use of *we* with multiple functionalities – representing professional identity in general, as well as identity as a novice or experienced teacher (Vaughan 2010; Riordan 2013; Farr *et al.* 2019). The lack of such references in TIC is striking, not only because the interview content dealt with perceptions and discussions about teaching, and the opinions of the teachers about their practice, but also because the interviewer in TIC is part of the professional community of English language teachers. The absence is especially notable if TIC is compared to another corpus of teacher discourse outside the classroom, the Teacher Education

Corpus (TEC) (Riordan 2018). As described in Chapter Three, TEC is a corpus of face-to-face and online interactions between teacher educators and trainee teachers on an MA TESOL programme. In TEC, *we* is used 11,640 times (normalised per million words) by the participants, novice and experienced trainees, in reference to their membership of a community of practice of teachers (Farr, Farrell and Riordan, 2019 p.203). This is in sharp contrast to the TIC corpus, which contains data from in-service teachers only, and makes no reference to membership of a professional community or community of practice through the use of this pronoun. Rather, of the 40 occurrences of *we* in the TIC corpus 37 are referring to the teacher and their students as a group.

[REF.TIC.T14.1792] I want them to get that answer before *we* can do something else.

[REF.TIC.T2.1577] *We* are just having the chats.

Distancing through pronoun choice was also evident in TIC (Section 6.4.2), with the variation between first-person *I* and the ‘generic you’ (Tao 1998; Biber 1999; Vaughan 2010) depending on the teachers’ feeling about the act being discussed. As noted in Chapter 5, when teachers were expressing elements of practice that were acceptable to them, or examples of good practice, *I* was used, but they shifted to *you* when describing elements of perceived poor practice or distasteful activities. This use of the generic *you* is common when describing norms, but is incongruent as a response to a question about personal opinion and practice, as occurred frequently in TIC. This has been posited as a means of psychological distancing between the speaker and their actions (Orvell *et al.* 2018), and it is therefore significant that teachers can be seen to use this structure when describing elements of their own teaching that they perhaps recognise are not best practice, such as being sarcastic or making fun of learners.

7.4.3 Approach to feedback

Concern with learner affect in the area of providing corrective feedback is evident, particularly at Stage 1 and Stage 2, with teachers expressing discomfort, reluctance, and, at times, outright refusal to correct learners. This attitude is not homogenous, however, as evidenced by the numerous references to different contexts in which teachers will or will not give correction. While Stage 3 teachers do not exhibit such a clear hesitance regarding providing correction, their approaches are much more evidently focused on promoting learner autonomy and facilitating self-correction, which are not apparent in Stage 1 and Stage 2. Positive feedback is not associated with any negativity or hesitancy among the teachers, with no context-dependent decision-making referred to in the interview corpus. This suggests a more homogenous attitude to positive feedback, which is in sharp contrast to the level of variation and concern exhibited regarding delivery of corrective feedback. Although variation is present in positive feedback types, this was not acknowledged by teachers in the TIC data, apart from in the distinction between providing effort-focused feedback and more general positive feedback.

These findings are in line with research into expert and novice practitioners, as discussed in Chapter 2. Novice practitioners are found to be more concerned with themselves than the learners and do not yet possess more than a surface-level understanding of pedagogical theory and how it can be applied in practice (Richards *et al.* 1998). The overt concern from novice teachers in TIC with error and mistakes is in sharp contrast to the Stage 3 teachers, who employ terminology related to theories in second language acquisition. Stage 2 and 3 teachers' use of correction types that promote autonomy and self-repair are clearly linked to an awareness, albeit not explicitly stated, of other

theories in SLA such as the Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky 1978) and the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt 1990). It is worth reminding ourselves here that, apart from the one teacher who was pursuing a Master's in Education at the time of the interview, and the teacher who had recently completed a Master's in TESOL, the majority of the participating teachers had not undertaken any further training in ELT or Applied Linguistics, and the sparse continuous professional development sessions attended by some of the teachers did not furnish the kind of theoretical awareness being exhibited by the experienced teachers. This supports the idea, therefore, of a synergy between practical knowledge, which is 'personal and situational' (Carter 1990, p.306) and developed over years of experience, and pedagogical content knowledge, which is described as 'the collective wisdom of the profession' (*ibid.*).

7.5 Chapter summary

This chapter has aimed to highlight the salience of the research findings presented in the preceding two chapters, in light of their relationship to existing literature in the area of expert–novice research. The following final chapter will conclude the present study by reviewing the thesis content and presenting the limitations encountered and considerations for further research in areas identified.

Chapter 8: Conclusion

'Alright, fantastic work guys, I'm sure your brains are tired. Well done!' [T14]

8.1 Introduction

This final chapter will revisit the aims of the thesis, followed by a discussion of the limitations encountered in the course of the present study, and will also address the contribution to the study to our understanding of teacher talk before concluding with pedagogical considerations and suggestions for further research in key areas identified.

This thesis aimed to examine the teacher talk of English language teachers at three stages of career development. A mixed-method research design was used, incorporating corpus-linguistic and discourse-analytical methodology through the use of the corpus-assisted discourse studies (CADS) approach. The use of this approach, particularly in the analysis of face-to-face interview data, yielded revealing insights into what teachers believe, as well as how they speak, in the EFL classroom.

Before considering the contributions and limitations of the study, a review of the thesis content will first be presented.

8.2 Review of the thesis

Chapter 1 situated the present study in regard to the gap in existing literature on the impact of career stage on the nature of EFL teacher talk. This study has addressed that

gap, exploring and shedding light on the career stage-dependent variations in teacher talk and teacher cognitions through the building and analysis of two original corpora, DUBCOTT and TIC. Chapter 1 proceeded to set out the research problem and the research questions before concluding with an outline of the organisational structure of the thesis.

Chapters 2 and 3 reviewed the relevant literature in the areas pertinent to the theoretical framework of the present study – expert–novice theory, teacher cognition, and classroom discourse – while Chapter 4 detailed the methodological considerations of data collection and analysis undertaken in the study, in particular the use of the CADS approach. Having established the groundwork for corpus analysis, Chapters 5 and 6 presented detailed analyses of the corpus data. Chapter 7 revisited and critically discussed the findings of the two research questions of the thesis, while the present chapter concludes the thesis by addressing limitations encountered in the research, followed by pedagogical considerations and suggestions for further research in key areas identified.

8.3 Contributions of this study

This research has endeavoured to explore EFL teacher discourse and beliefs at different stages of professional experience, both inside and outside the classroom setting. In addition to the insights which this study brings to our understanding of the main research questions, as discussed in detail in Chapters 5, 6 and 7, let us now consider the contributions of the study more generally. First of all, the focus of this study moves away from teacher talk and classroom discourse as something monolithic. While the

data amounts to collections of teachers talking about teaching and teachers talking with students in the classroom, this study has shown through its mixed methods approach that teacher talk and classroom discourse have a longitudinal and developmental dimension that should not be overlooked. As is well recognised, teachers who undertake a training programme do not emerge as fully-formed confident teachers with a strong sense of teacher identity, fluent and assured in their professional practice (Barcelos *et al.* 2014). As is the case in all professions, identities and professional practices evolve over time and become reinforced (Urzúa and Vásquez 2008). Reflecting on this study at a broader level, it points strongly to the importance of research into teachers' use of language (either in relation to how they talk about themselves and their professional practice or in terms of their actual classroom talk). It also points to the importance of sensitivity to the variable of stage of career in this kind of research. How we talk *about* our profession and how we talk *in* our profession changes over time, moving from being self-conscious and sometimes self-deprecating to ultimately, with experience, to being assured and more confident, with a stronger and more established professional identity, as has been demonstrated throughout the present study.

Although there have been several corpus-assisted studies in the fields of classroom discourse and teacher cognition (e.g. Vaughan 2007; Riccop and Venuti 2009; Farr 2011; Farrell 2019), no study to date – to the best of my knowledge – has used the CADS approach to elicit tendencies in teacher talk aligned to the career stage of the teacher. Methodologically, this study offers something new; as well as using both CL and DA methods in the analysis of the classroom corpus, the use of the CADS approach in a corpus of teacher interviews was particularly unique to the present study. While research involving teacher narratives is extremely valuable in itself, the mixed-method

nature of the CADS approach provided the robustness of quantitative analysis by using corpus tools to extract patterns and tendencies of belief at each of the three career stages.

This study also includes a third element – qualitative thematic analysis, which works iteratively with corpus linguistics, corpus-assisted discourse studies (CADS). The iteration between these components is important -for example, through thematic analysis of the interview data, theme-based sub-corpora could be formed across the variables of stage of career and in turn, thematic analysis was aided by corpus linguistics tools. The method and research design in this study shows the benefit of taking this digitally enhanced approach – while this study might have been possible without corpus tools by using them, it allowed for the processing of much larger amounts of data. In other words, the scale of the comparison would not have been possible without corpus tools. Another important dimension to this study's research design was the importance placed on contextual variables. Corpus metadata was essential in this study, and the protocols set up for the design of DUBCOTT and TIC mean that it can be added to in coming years. It can also be used by others in replications-type studies.

Of specific note, the corpus design, across stages of career, offers perhaps a new model for longitudinal study of teacher talk. While in reality, this is a pseudo-longitudinal corpus – in that the same teachers are not recorded talking at the three different career stages – it illustrates how staging points according to established, fixed periods of career development, such as those outlined in the present study, were robust in the design and can be used in other parallel studies.

8.4 Limitations

As is the case with all research, the present study was not without its limitations.

Despite the salience of the findings in regard to noticeable patterns and developments in teacher talk across career stages, and the established value in researching teacher beliefs, the data collected and analysed for this study is representative only of a specific demographic of the English language teaching population, namely teachers of adults in the private EFL sector in Ireland, and the findings are therefore not necessarily generalisable to all EFL teachers in all contexts. These findings are, however, clear starting points to develop research in other contexts of EFL teaching and to influence future classroom practices.

Secondly, the inability of some participants in the research to participate in the interview process resulted in Stage 1 being better represented than Stages 2 and 3. Although the data of twelve participants resulted in salient findings, pointing towards tendencies towards certain beliefs in each stage, a greater interview sample size could have yielded even richer data than that which was produced.

The third limitation was presented by the size of the corpora compiled in the course of this research. Although specialised corpora are useful for pursuing in-depth research in a given discourse area such as that of the present study, their comparatively small size inherently limits their ability to present generalisable data on a larger scale. The potential disadvantages of smaller corpora can, however, be weighed against the affordances thereof, particularly when they are used within a CADS methodology.

Lastly, the limitations of the single mode of data collection used in this study – audio recording only – were such that prosodic features, gesture, facial expression, and body language (Adolphs *et al.* 2013), all of which undoubtedly contribute to the teachers' communication with learners in the classroom, were not available for analysis. This potential disadvantage was weighed against the more pressing issue of participant comfort during the data-collection process, and the potential of video-recording to deter teachers and institutions from participating in the study. Nevertheless, it was not found during analysis that a multimodal approach would have yielded significantly more or richer data than the unimodal approach that was followed.

8.5 Future directions

The research conducted during the present study has both drawn on and added to existing research in the fields of teacher cognition, in particular the area of teacher beliefs, teacher discourse, and expert–novice studies of language teachers. In addition to established domains of research, areas that merit further attention in the research literature have arisen from the findings of this thesis and will be presented here.

8.5.1 The ‘Developing’ teacher

Given the essentially dichotomous and binary nature of the field of expert–novice research, teachers who are neither one nor the other can be lost amidst the breadth of research devoted to expert and novice teachers. This thesis posits, therefore, that the developing teacher, who displays characteristics of the expert and the novice but cannot

be exclusively designated as either one, should be considered a rich seam of research that can bring further knowledge on the nature of expertise in language teaching to light.

8.5.2 Positive feedback

Although corrective feedback has produced a significant amount of research over the last several decades, positive feedback in the language classroom has not received such attention in the research literature, and the findings of the present study have highlighted how significant a proportion of the EFL class – an average of 48% in the case of the DUBCOTT data – is comprised of it. Although this topic has been the subject of extensive research in primary and secondary educational contexts, its prevalence in the language classroom, and indeed in Higher Education (HE) teaching and learning contexts more generally, merits equal attention to its corrective counterpart. Raising educators' awareness of such features of teacher discourse is all the more significant given the current and steady increase in English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI), wherein teaching and learning takes place through English only, and is taught by and to L2 English users (Ducker 2020).

8.5.3 The impact of learner proficiency level

Although the quantity of teacher talk in DUBCOTT was found to increase with the teachers' experience, there was also a notable variation according to the learner proficiency level being taught. A necessarily high level of teacher talk with lower-proficiency learners was specifically mentioned in TIC, as was the low level of teacher talk with C1 groups. For the lower-proficiency learners a high quantity of teacher talk

was referred to as necessary, with the inverse the case with more proficient learners.

This suggests that at lower levels teacher input is considered to be more significant than at higher levels, where learners do not need the same quantity of teacher input in order for the lesson's objectives to be successfully met. A closer examination of the nature of talk taking place between teachers and learners at all proficiency levels can lead to increased awareness about its effectiveness in relation to learners' needs and can thereby be applied in teacher education and development programmes.

8.5.4 Limitations of Experience over Expertise

The present study has highlighted that, although determining teachers' expertise according to their length of experience is a useful organisational tool, it is by no means the best indicator of the levels of proficiency or the aptitudes possessed by teachers within each of the stages – some of which cannot be accounted for by length of experience alone. Likewise, mitigating factors such as individual teacher differences and contextual factors must be taken into account when matters of proficiency are under consideration, as this study has aimed to highlight the range and nuance of teacher talk among teachers over a wide range of experience levels.

A shift away from measuring teacher expertise by length of experience alone, therefore, would serve to turn the focus of teachers, and indeed their employers, to measuring their aptitudes rather than their 'time served'.

8.6 Concluding remarks

This research has indicated, in line with existing studies in this currently developing area of research, that teacher talk is extremely nuanced, context-dependent and closely linked to teachers' beliefs. As the present study has endeavoured to highlight, each feature of teacher talk and each of the sub-features has its own function, with strengths and weaknesses afforded to it. In order to form beliefs and make decisions about what their teacher talk entails, therefore, there needs to be meaningful links presented to teachers between their talk, their beliefs, and the corresponding impact on the learner.

Although some synergistic elements were revealed, in particular teachers' in-depth awareness of their provision of corrective feedback, gaps were present between the teachers' beliefs and their observed practices. Given the strength of the connection between beliefs about and use of corrective feedback, building teachers' awareness of the rest of their teacher talk could help to strengthen their awareness of their classroom discourse practices. And, given the lasting impact of teachers' own education on their cognitions, attempting to shape or frame teachers' beliefs and practices post-hoc should work in concert with practical, data-driven input into teacher classroom discourse in the pre-service stage. This research has shown that teachers lack, if not knowledge of, then at the very least the confidence to express their knowledge of their own profession. This extends to expression of professional identity, with teachers aligning themselves implicitly with the learners, rather than with teachers as a professional community.

While focus on pedagogy is, and should remain, fundamental to the effective training of language teachers, a solid knowledge of the meta-discourse surrounding their everyday work could only serve to enhance their teaching experience. Through the use of ad-hoc methods of reflection (Mann and Walsh 2017) such as the development of small

purpose-built corpora that perhaps incorporate multi-modal analysis, teachers can engage in data-driven reflective practice. Teacher-oriented approaches to reflective practice such as these can allow for closer attention to be paid to aspects of teaching not widely addressed in pre- and in-service professional development, such as features of teacher discourse.

The findings presented in this thesis have identified differing but equally valid competencies of teachers at all three stages, with clearly shifting perspectives and priorities as teachers gain experience. The mix of ‘quantitative rigour and descriptive power’ (Taylor and Marchi 2018, p.126) provided by the combination of statistical analysis, the use of corpus tools such as keyword and frequency lists, and the close reading of discourse extracts have painted a detailed picture of how teachers at different career stages talk during and about their teaching.

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Appendices

Appendix A – Institute consent form



Dear Academic Manager,

My name is Jane Seely and I am a student at Mary Immaculate College University of Limerick, studying for a Structured PhD in Applied Linguistics. I am preparing my research project for my thesis on Teacher Talk. My supervisors for this thesis are Dr Tom Morton (Email: tommorton@gmail.com) and Dr Joan O’Sullivan (Email: joan.osullivan@mic.ul.ie). My research aim is to study a number of EFL teachers at different stages in their career development. You will be provided with the participant information sheet and with details of the nature of the interview and questionnaire questions. If you are happy to allow your teachers to participate in this research project, please read the following statements and give your consent by signing this form below.

- I have read and understood the participant information sheet and do not object to members of my teaching staff being approached to participate or participating in this study on a voluntary basis.
- I understand what the project is about, and what the results will be used for.

Name (PRINTED):

Name (Signature):

Date:

Appendix B – Participant information sheet



Title of project

Variations in Teacher Talk over Three Stages of Teacher Career Development

What is the project about?

This thesis is about how teachers speak in class (Teacher Talk) and how teacher talk varies over time and with experience

Who is undertaking it?

My name is Jane Seely and I am a Postgraduate student attending Mary Immaculate College. I am presently completing a Structured PhD in Applied Linguistics in the Department of English Language and Literature under the supervision of Dr Tom Morton and Dr Joan O'Sullivan. The current study will form part of my PhD thesis.

Why is it being undertaken?

The project is being undertaken to build and develop a corpus (collection of spoken material) of teacher talk from English Language Teaching organisations in Ireland, with a view to analysing how teacher talk is used and how it impacts student language learning.

Exactly what is involved for the participant? (time, location, etc)

The teacher and students will be audio recorded in-class for the duration of the class. Each teacher will be asked to complete a short questionnaire before the first recording, detailing their level of experience, levels taught etc. The teacher will also participate in 3 loosely structured interviews throughout the research period, which will take place before and after the recorded lessons. The interviews will take place in a location convenient for the teacher, and will take approximately 15 – 30 minutes.

What are the benefits of the research?

The long-term objective of developing this corpus is to allow further research to take place into how teacher talk is used; this can then be used in teacher training and development.

Right to withdraw/not answer questions.

Participants' anonymity is assured and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason and without consequence.

How will the information will be used / disseminated?

The data will be combined with that of the other participants in this study and analysed as part of my PhD thesis.

How will confidentiality be kept?

All information gathered will remain confidential and will not be released to any third party. A random ID number will be generated for each teacher participant and it is this number rather than the participant's name which will be held with their data to maintain their anonymity. Each student will also be given a randomly generated ID number to maintain their anonymity during transcription.

What will happen to recordings, transcriptions, after research has been completed?

The data will be stored for potential use in future for diachronic discourse analysis but in all cases the data will be securely held and the identities of the participants protected.

Contact details for the Project Investigator(s)

If at any time you have any queries/issues with regard to this study my contact details are as follows:

Name: Jane Seely

Email: brennaja@tcd.ie

Phone: 0857192185

If you have concerns about this study and wish to contact someone independent, you may contact:

MIREC Administrator

Mary Immaculate College

South Circular Road

Limerick

061-204980

mirec@mic.ul.ie

Appendix C – Informed consent declaration



Dear Participant,

The participant information sheet should be read fully and carefully before consenting to take part in the research. Your anonymity is assured and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time. All information gathered will remain confidential and will not be released to any third party. The data will be stored for potential use in future for diachronic discourse analysis but in all cases the data will be securely held and the identities of the participants protected.

Please read the following statements before signing the consent form.

- I have read and understood the participant information sheet.
- I understand what the project is about, and what the recording will be used for.
- I understand that I am being audio-recorded, and the recording will be transcribed
- I am fully aware of all of the procedures involving myself, and of any risks and benefits associated with the study.
- I know that my participation is voluntary and that I can withdraw from the project at any stage without giving any reason.
- I am aware that my results will be kept confidential

Name (PRINTED):

Name (SIGNATURE) :

Date:

Signature of Project Investigator:

Appendix D – Interview questions



This is a loosely structured interview which will be guided by the following questions:

- How long have you been teaching?
- What was your initial TEFL qualification?
- On average, how many hours a week do you teach?
- What level(s) are you currently teaching?
- Which level do you feel most comfortable teaching?
- Have you participated in any CPD (continuous professional development) this year?
- Have you thought about doing further TEFL qualifications?
- Have you observed other teachers since your initial TEFL qualification?
- Do you ever reflect on your teaching?
- What does the term ‘teacher talk’ mean to you?
- Does it have positive or negative connotations?
- How much teacher talk do you think you use during your lessons?
- What do you think learners expect in terms of teacher talk and interaction?
- Can you name any types of teacher talk?
- What categories do you think your teacher talk falls under in the highest proportion:

(Examples might be needed)

- Narration
- Questioning: display
- Questioning: referential
- Feedback: positive
- Feedback: corrective
- Presentation/explanation

Appendix E – MIREC approval

 COLÁISTE MHUIRE GAN SMÁL OLLSCOIL LUIMNIGH MARY IMMACULATE COLLEGE <small>UNIVERSITY OF LIMERICK</small>	<i>For Office Use Only</i> Application Reference Number: A16-039
Mary Immaculate College Research Ethics Committee	
MIREC-4: MIREC Chair Decision Form	

1 Title of Research Project	
Variations in teacher talk over three Stages of teacher career development	

2	
Applicant	
Name	Jane Seely
Department / Centre / Other	English Language and Literature
Position	Postgraduate Student

3 Decision of MIREC Chair	
<input type="checkbox"/> Ethical clearance through MIREC is required	
<input type="checkbox"/> Ethical clearance through MIREC is not required and therefore the researcher need take no further action in this regard	
<input type="checkbox"/>	Ethical clearance is required and granted. Referral to MIREC is not necessary
<input type="checkbox"/> Ethical clearance is required but the full MIREC process is not. Ethical clearance is therefore granted if required for external	

	funding applications and the researcher need take no further action in this regard.
	Insufficient information provided by applicant / Amendments required

4	Reason(s) for Decision
I believe this application meets with MIREC requirements	
5	Declaration
Name (Print)	Áine Lawlor
	MIREC Chair
Signature	
	MIREC Chair
Date	28 th October 2016

Appendix F – Student survey

1. Did you study English in your country? If yes, Tick ONLY ONE of the following options:
 - Primary school
 - Secondary School
 - University
 - Private Academy

2. If you attended a private academy, how many hours per week did you study?

3. Was the teacher a native English speaker?
 - Yes
 - No

4. What did the classes focus the most on? Tick ONLY ONE of the following options:
 - Grammar
 - Vocabulary
 - Writing
 - Pronunciation
 - Reading
 - Listening
 - Speaking

5. Before you arrived in Dublin, how did you consider your level of English? Tick ONLY ONE of the following options:
 - Very low
 - Low
 - OK

- Good
 - Very good
 - Excellent
6. How do you feel about your level of English now? Tick ONLY ONE of the following options
- Very low
 - Low
 - OK
 - Good
 - Very good
 - Excellent
7. What do you think you are weakest at in English?
- Grammar
 - Pronunciation
 - Vocabulary
 - Reading
 - Writing
 - Listening
 - Speaking
8. What classroom activities would you like to do more of to help you improve?
- Grammar exercises
 - Vocabulary lists
 - Speaking practice
 - Listening activities
 - Writing practice
9. Do you study English outside class? (Not including homework)

10. If you answered no, why not?

11. If you answered yes, how many hours per day do you study outside class? (Not including homework)

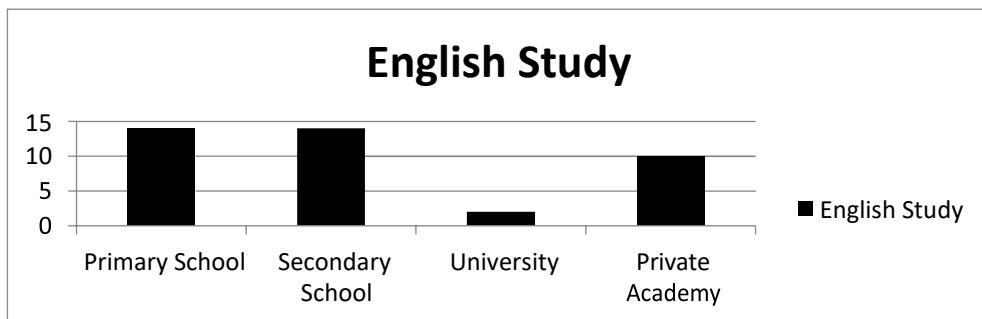
12. What is your favourite way to study English at home? Tick ONLY ONE of the following options:

- With a grammar book
- With class notes
- Reading books in English
- Practicing writing in English
- Watching movies/TV shows in English (with or without subtitles)
- Listening to the radio/podcasts in English
- Websites for learning English

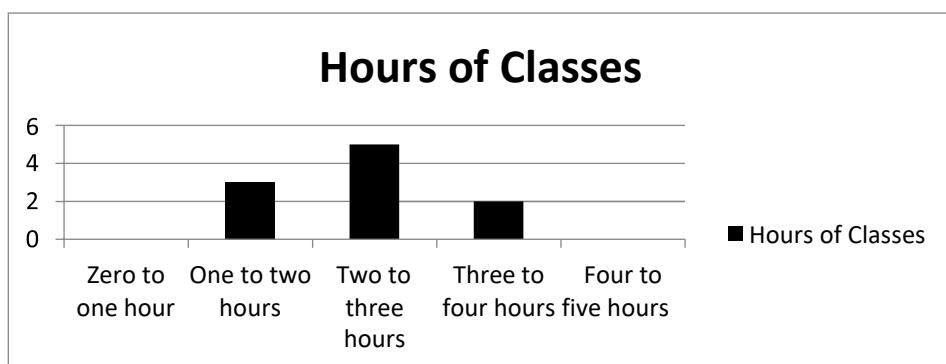
13. Do you speak English outside class? If yes, to whom? If not, why not?

Appendix G – Student survey results

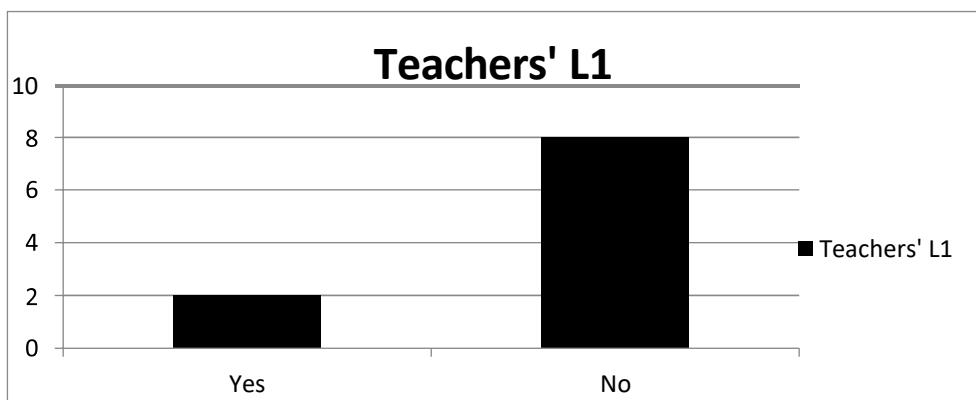
14. Did you study English in your country? (All answered yes)



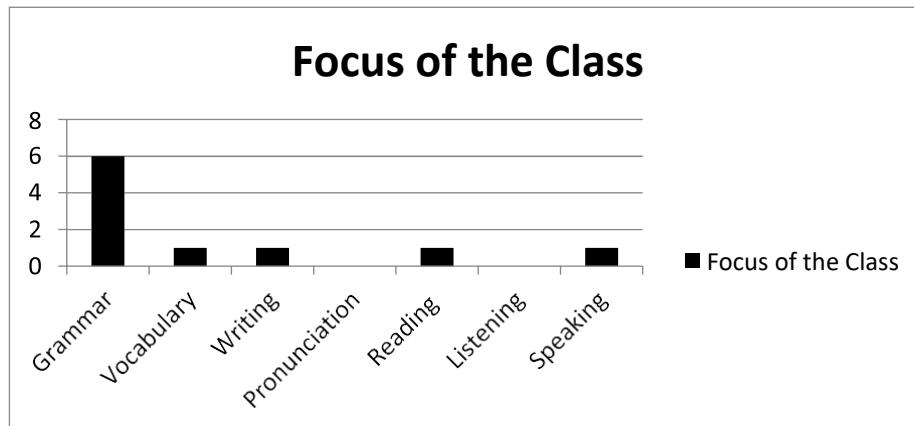
15. If you attended a private academy, how many hours per week did you study?



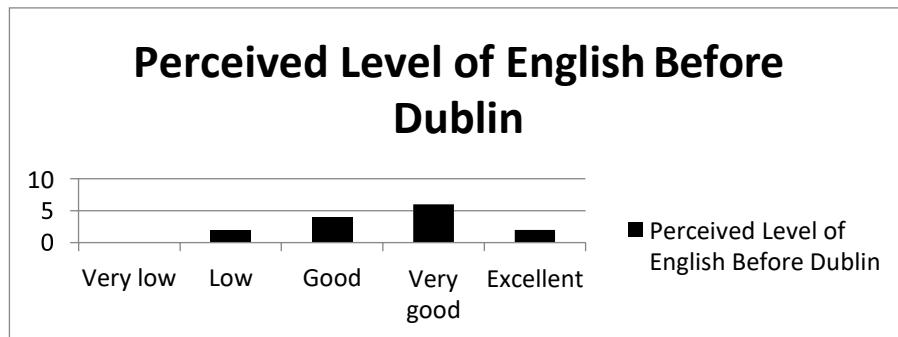
16. Was the teacher a native English speaker?



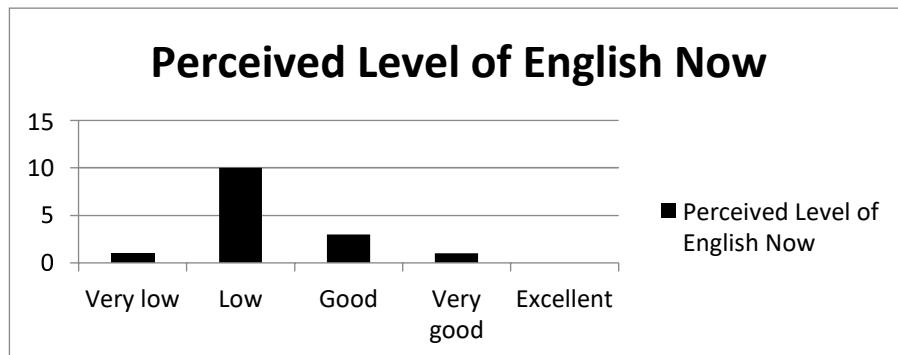
17. What did the classes focus the most on?



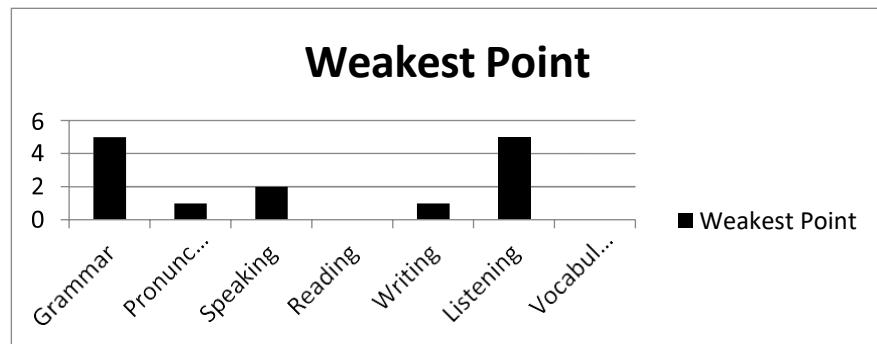
18. Before you arrived in Dublin, how did you consider your level of English?



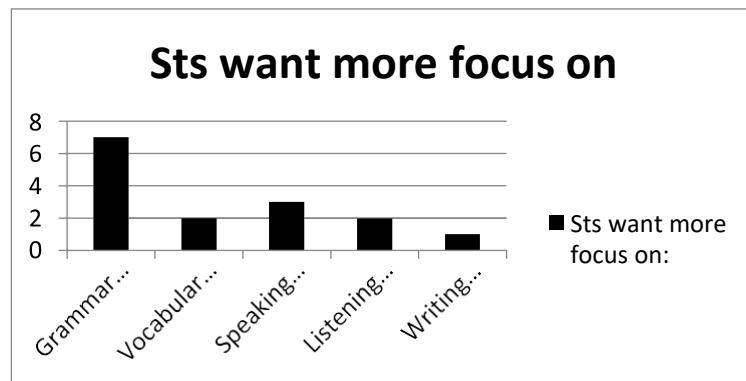
19. How do you feel about your level of English now?



20. What do you think you are weakest at in English?



21. What classroom activities would you like to do more of to help you improve?



Appendix H – Participant profiles

Stage 1 teachers (0–2 years' experience)
T1 is a 30-year-old Irish man from Meath, who graduated from a UK university with a degree in Screenwriting from Film and TV. He had been teaching for 9 months at the time of data-collection. He was working full-time (30 contact hours per week) at a private ELTO in Dublin city. He completed the CELT qualification and began teaching the week after finishing his course.
T4 is a 24-year-old Canadian man with dual Italian citizenship. He graduated with a BA in English Literature and Screenwriting. He moved to Ireland in December of 2016 and worked in retail for several months before taking a CELTA course. He chose the CELTA course because he wanted the opportunity to travel in Europe and teach, which is more difficult with CELT, and he had heard that CELTA was a more well-regarded qualification. He wanted to become an EFL teacher because he was interested in languages, and his mother had taught EFL in Italy when she was in university. He had not worked in any other ELTO prior to the research project.
T7 is a 24-year-old woman from the Netherlands. She completed a degree in Psychology and completed the Cambridge CELTA in Edinburgh in early 2016. She moved to Dublin specifically to work in ELT. She chose the CELTA because of its reputation and international recognition as a qualification.
T10 is a 32-year-old Catalan woman who had been living in Dublin since early 2016. She completed a degree in Hospitality Management in the Netherlands, but decided to make a career change, completing the CELT qualification. She began working in ELT one month after completing the CELT course, and had never worked in teaching previously.

T13 is a 29-year-old Irish man from Clare, who completed his qualification as a secondary school teacher after a BA in Arts from the University of Limerick, but never worked in the secondary school sector. He completed the CELT qualification for reasons of price and equivalence to CELTA. At the time the data from his class was collected he had been working in ELT for 1 year.

Stage 2 teachers (2–6 years)

T2 is a 26-year-old American woman who did a short, non-accredited course in EFL at a small school in Kerry in 2013 before going to teach in India for two years. Upon returning to Ireland in 2015 she completed an MPhil. in TESOL, before beginning to work in mainly in English for Academic Purposes. During her MPhil. she was observed extensively but did not participate in peer observation.

T5 is a 30-year-old Irish man who completed the CELTA course in 2011 in Dublin. He has a degree in History. He completed his initial teacher training to facilitate travelling and working abroad, and began teaching in Vietnam two weeks after completing the course. He spent 2 years teaching YLs in Vietnam before moving to Turkey, where he taught after-school programmes in private academies. He returned to Ireland in 2016 to begin a Master's in Education, and at the time of recording had been working in Dublin for 6 months. T8 is a 34-year-old Northern Irish woman from Belfast, with a degree in Biology from Queen's University. She worked in that field for several years before deciding to spend some time travelling. She completed the CELTA course in 2013 after having done a short, unaccredited TEFL course online. She taught in South Korea for two years before returning to Ireland, where she worked in a number of private ELTOs. Prior to the data collection T8 had taught A1–B1 to young learners and adults.

T11 is a 27-year-old Irish man from Mayo, who made a career change to English language teaching after several years working as a social worker, and completed the CELTA

qualification Prior to data collection he had worked in one school only, and had taught a limited range of learner proficiency levels.

T14 is a 29-year-old Irish woman who completed the CELTA qualification in 2013 and began working full time in ELT in January 2014. She chose CELTA because of its strong international reputation. She decided to become an EFL teacher as she was interested in languages and had previously taught Latin 1–1. T14 has a joint honours degree in Classics and French, and an MPhil. in Classics.

Stage 3 teachers (6+ years)

T3 is a 30-year-old Irish man from Cavan, who returned to Ireland in 2016 after teaching ELT in Spain since 2010. He completed the Postgraduate Certificate in TEFL qualification with National University of Ireland, Galway after completing his BA in International Relations. T3 was experienced with all levels of proficiency, but for the majority of his career had taught primarily monolingual groups of learners.

T6 is a Croatian man in his mid-thirties who had been teaching English, formerly in Croatia and from 2014 in Ireland, for approximately 12 years at the time of data collection. He completed the CELT qualification upon arrival in Ireland.

T9 is a 34-year-old Irish woman from Wicklow, who had been working in ELT in Dublin since 2006. She had completed the now defunct RELSA qualification, which was later accredited by ACELS/QQI as equivalent to CELT.

T12 is a 29-year-old Australian woman, with dual Irish-Australian citizenship. After completing the CELTA qualification in 2012 she spent three years teaching English in various parts of Spain, before moving to Dublin to teach in 2015.T15 is a Northern Irish man in his late thirties from Derry, who had been working in ELT for approximately 15 years at the time of data collection. He had completed the now defunct RELSA qualification, which was later accredited by ACELS/QQI as equivalent to CELT.

Appendix I – Noun frequency list (normalised to 10000)

Stage 1	Freq	Stage 2	Freq	Stage 3	Freq
number	11.92	Number	9.78	People	7.34
time	8.25	Guy	8.56	Example	7.03
question	7.03	Sentence	8.25	Word	7.03
house	5.2	time	5.81	Thing	5.5
animal	5.2	thing	5.81	Question	5.2
word	4.89	verb	5.81	Person	5.2
people	4.89	person	5.5	Talent	3.67
life	4.28	question	5.5	Today	3.67
sentence	0.31	word	0.31	Number	0.31
guy	0.31	people	0.31	Verb	0.31

Appendix J – TIC comparative keyword analysis

Keywords Stage 1	Keywords Stage 2	Keywords Stage 3
mispronounce	Yesterday	Week
Side	Store	Twice
preposition	Somebody	Sensitive
Noise	Push	Purpose
Later	Damage	Provide
Hand	Confidence	Mishear
direction	Variety	Learning
Until	Uncomfortable	Intention
Tolerate	Trip	Individually
Syllable	Test	Individual
Roll	Such	Independently
Relate	Slow	Identify
Pull	Partner	Freak
prepositioning	Pace	Formulate
Plus	Needless	Ending
Offence	Monitor	Editor
Month	Middle	Draw
lightbulb	Maximum	Content
Impede	Lazy	Clarify

Appendix K – TIC n-grams by career stage (normalised to 10000)

Stage 1		Stage 2		Stage 3	
Item	Freq	Item	Freq	Item	Freq
I do n't	64.56	something like that	23.22	to kind of	24.37
I would say	35.87	a lot of	23.22	little bit more	20.31
the fact that	21.52	or something like	20.31	a little bit	20.31
say that they	21.52	I would be	20.31	a little bit more	20.31
it depends on	21.52	I do n't	20.31	the class and	16.25
and they will	21.52	or something like that	20.31	depending on the	16.25
a different answer	21.52	I would say	17.41	but I do	16.25
I would n't	21.52	would be like	14.51	are going to	16.25
you are like	14.35	think I do	14.51	you want to	12.19
would say that	14.35	on the board	14.51	you do n't	12.19

Appendix L – Positive feedback frequency lists (normalised to 10000)

Positive feedback frequency list – espoused	Freq.	Positive feedback frequency list – observed	Freq.
Good	14.79	Yeah	296.89
Facial	29.59	One	273.37
Basic	14.79	Good	170.86
Unusual	14.79	Yes	115.24
Fellow	14.79	Alright	93.79
Somehow	14.79	Perfect	58.28
Reward	73.96	Right	45.71
Very	14.79	Exactly	43.49
Reinforce	14.79	Nice	21.01
Hey	29.59	Great	15.68
Thank	14.79	Purpose	15.68
Smile	14.79	Excellent	13.17
Nod	14.79	Beautiful	10.65
Ahead	14.79	Fine	9.91
Expression	29.59	Company	7.40
Oh	14.79		
Nice	14.79		
Piece	14.79		
Reinforcement	14.79		
Thought	73.96		

Appendix M – TIC overall frequency list (top 30)

Item	Freq.
I	22
A	19
You	18
The	17
To	14
That	14
And	13
It	12
Of	10
Do	9
They	8
Like	7
So	7
Would	7
In	6
Are	6
Is	6
n't	5
Have	5
But	5
Or	4
If	4
Say	4
Be	4
What	4
Yeah	4
Them	4
Not	4
Was	4
Just	3

Appendix N – Corrective feedback acts, totals

	Direct repair	Echo	Ignore	Inform	No	Prompt	Recast	Turn Completion
T1	0	0	0	5	0	4	9	2
T4	3	0	0	4	0	5	2	9
T7	1	0	0	0	0	3	4	1
T10	4	1	0	9	3	9	2	3
T13	0	2	0	4	2	1	6	3
	Direct repair	Echo	Ignore	Inform	No	Prompt	Recast	Turn Completion
Stage 1	2	1	0	4	1	4	5	4

	Direct repair	Echo	Ignore	Inform	No	Prompt	Recast	Turn Completion
T2	0	0	0	6	1	4	0	2
T5	2	0	0	5	0	6	10	1
T8	2	1	0	4	0	0	2	1
T11	3	0	0	6	0	5	0	0
T14	6	0	0	8	2	4	3	0
	Direct repair	Echo	Ignore	Inform	No	Prompt	Recast	Turn Completion
Stage 2	3	0	0	6	1	4	3	1

	Direct repair	Echo	Ignore	Inform	No	Prompt	Recast	Turn Completion
T3	6	0	0	17	0	8	2	3
T6	4	0	0	2	0	1	0	0
T9	2	0	0	1	0	1	1	5
T12	3	0	1	5	1	1	1	0
T15	3	0	1	2	0	7	9	6
	Direct repair	Echo	Ignore	Inform	No	Prompt	Recast	Turn Completion
Stage 3	4	0	0	5	0	4	3	3

Appendix O – Positive feedback acts, totals and averages

S1	Turn continuation	Strong	Neutral	Echo with recast	Effort-focused	Echo	Echo with feedback
T1		2	4	7	0	2	15
T4		0	12	18	3	4	19
T7		15	14	16	0	5	16
T10		1	35	14	0	5	8
T13		0	1	5	3	0	5
		3.6	13	12	11	3	13

S2	Turn continuation	Strong	Neutral	Echo with recast	Effort-focused	Echo	Echo with feedback
T5	0	6	4	12	0	36	1
T2	0	9	12	6	0	29	2
T8	3	12	10	0	2	8	2
T11	3	9	19	1	5	15	2
T14	12	25	10	2	8	86	2
	4	12	11	4	3	35	2

S3	Turn continuation	Strong	Neutral	Echo with recast	Effort-focused	Echo	Echo with feedback
T15	4	17	9	5	0	26	12
T12	1	19	4	6	4	30	4
T9	0	16	10	10	0	46	8
T6	2	3	6	3	0	28	3
T3	0	10	15	5	0	16	0
	1	13	9	6	1	29	5

Appendix P – Initiation acts: teacher, totals, and averages

	CCQ	Display	Referential	Turn management	Task management/ICQ	Teacher pause
T1	14	3	66	17	42	1
T2	32	17	1	7	3	6
T3	10	4	3	28	5	10
T4	3	41	2	9	22	32
T5	19	10	5	23	17	4
T6	29	29	15	31	11	6
T7	15	11	29	26	7	30
T8	19	14	0	22	13	7
T9	23	5	20	20	11	29
T10	32	33	4	45	18	2
T11	26	41	12	19	4	9
T12	18	11	7	2	5	34
T13	13	2	14	22	8	0
T14	18	22	3	22	13	35
T15	8	0	5	19	13	18
Average	19	16	12	21	13	15

Appendix Q – DUBCOTT codes classification

INITIATION	
Display questions	Display questions, or 'known-answer questions' have been determined as those which serve to check learner understanding of the language concept, but which generally do not allow learners to express or negotiate the language owing to the limitations imposed by the question itself. The main focus of display questions is on form, and they are often structured to allow only one possible response, or by highlighting the correct response.
Referential questions	Referential questions are perhaps the opposite of the previous category, as they are questions to which the teacher does not already know the answer, or to which a specific response is not required.
Concept checking questions (CCQs)	While concept checking questions (CCQs) are a form of display question in the sense that the teacher already knows the answer and is anticipating a certain response, there is a clear differentiation between the two categories. They are questions which allow much more learner input than display questions, are generally focused on broader linguistic concepts, and elicit meaning and function rather than form.
Nomination	This category often overlaps with task management in terms of its function,

	although it primarily serves a turn-transitional function in the IRF as teachers often used learners' names as a means of drawing their focus back to the task.
Task management/instruction-checking questions	This category refers to teachers' use of initiation as a form of classroom management, using questions to ensure learners are completing the task correctly and that they have understood the instructions.
Teacher pause	This technique involves the teacher allowing a lengthy pause, prompting learners to complete the utterance.

POSITIVE FEEDBACK	
Neutral and strong acknowledgement	These two distinct categories were differentiated by the varying levels of positivity in the adjectives used by the teacher in the feedback turn (e.g. <i>good</i> as opposed to <i>excellent</i>) (O’Keeffe and Adolphs 2008), but also prompted some investigation into what motivated teachers to give a strong or neutral acknowledgement of learners’ responses. Neutral acknowledgement markers were determined as <i>yeah</i> , <i>yes</i> , <i>ok</i> , <i>alright</i> , and <i>good</i> .
Echo, echo with feedback and echo with recast	<p>Although these three categories share one unifying feature, the element of teacher echo, they have been categorised separately as each has a differentiating characteristic. Echo was designated as the category for teacher turns which echoed the learner’s correct response, with no additions on behalf of the teacher. Although echo is the most commonly used type, teachers frequently add to it, in some cases modifying the echo.</p> <p>Echo with recast is noteworthy for its mix of form and meaning focus, and both corrective and positive feedback. This category is comprised of the teacher echo of the learner response, followed by a slightly altered recast of the echo. Echoes with recast straddle a line between corrective and positive feedback, in that the learner response is not incorrect, but not exactly what the teacher was looking for. It cannot be corrected as such, because it is not wrong, but it can be improved. The most frequent occurrence of this type is in relation to meaning rather than form – when the teacher uses echo with recast, the resulting phrase inevitably sounds more ‘native-like’ than the original response of the learner and is usually lexical rather than grammatical.</p> <p>Echo with feedback refers to any instance in which the teacher added a pragmatic marker in the form of a positive adjective or adverb to their echo, but otherwise repeated the learner response</p>

	exactly. The position of the feedback marker in this category is generally in the clause-terminal position, and the teacher often uses an additional discourse marker as a turn-transition device.
Turn continuation	This feedback type was developed through noticing patterns in the corpus of types of feedback which did not obviously fit into any of the pre-existing categories. Turn continuation, not to be confused with turn completion, refers to the implicit acceptance of the response by the teacher through their continuation of the activity, without explicitly accepting or acknowledging the response.
Effort-focused feedback	This category was designated as ‘effort-focused’ through the observation that on many occasions, teachers are not positively acknowledging the language being produced, or the accuracy of the utterance, but rather the fact that the student has produced a response. This type can be found both inside and outside the IRF exchange, with teachers using it when addressing both individual learners and the class as a group. This feedback type is characterised by the teachers’ use of encouraging phrases rather than evaluative ones, such as <i>well done</i> , <i>good work</i> and <i>good woman</i> . Comments on the quality of the answer are common features of this feedback type.

CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK	
Ignoring	This categorisation was used when the teacher provided no direct response to the learner utterance, instead repeating the utterance to the class at large or turning to another learner.
Use of ‘No’	This act is categorised by the use of <i>no</i> as correction, without any further information provided in the teacher turn.
Informing	This corrective feedback type is defined by the teachers' explanation of why the error took place, and generally involves a bottom up approach in which the teacher points out metalinguistic features to the learners. Highly frequent words in this category are primarily grammatical, mostly referring to word classes, but also show an element of formulaic language with the use of 'plus'. This correction type is encouraging learners to experiment with and negotiate the language, and often prompts them to think back to previous lessons or examples.
Prompting	This feature is similar to informing but does not include explanations of why the utterance was incorrect, the teacher instead highlights the missing element of the response, or the most significant part of the error, thus inviting another attempt at the response.
Echo	Echo for correction in DUBCOTT is manifested by repeating exactly what the learner has said, but in the form of a question. This serves to identify that the utterance is incorrect and prompts another attempt by the learner.
Turn completion	This corrective feedback type is the last of what could be considered as the 'indirect' forms of correction. Turn completion in the DUBCOTT corpus occurs when the teacher either completes the sentence for the learner, or fills in a word or phrase on their behalf. This is generally prompted by a learner pause, but sometimes by the learner stating explicitly that they do not know the word or cannot remember how to say it.
Recast	Recast is a form of corrective feedback in which the teacher echoes the learner's utterance in a corrected form, but without highlighting explicitly that the original utterance was incorrect. In addition to recasts which focus on form, there are numerous instances of recasts which focus on meaning –

	in these recasts the teacher is generally substituting one lexical item for another to more closely reflect the perceived intention of the learner.
Direct repair	While learner repair is the desired result of the majority of the correction types which have been examined here, direct repair removes the learner's need to repair their own utterance as the teacher has done so for them in correction. In DUBCOTT, direct repair is generally limited to grammatical correction, and as in the example above, it is not unusual for teachers to accompany a direct repair turn with 'no'. It also often contains some elements of informing, as teachers will sometimes explain why they have corrected the error.