

Investigating Practicum Students' Practices and Activities of Affording Learning Opportunities for Second Language Spoken English in Intermediate Classrooms in Saudi Arabia

Submitted by Kawther Gholam Mortada, to the University of Exeter as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Education in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL),

December 2015

This thesis is available for Library use on the understanding that it is copyright material and that no quotation from the thesis may be published without proper acknowledgment.

I certify that all materials in this thesis which is not my own work has been identified and that no material has previously been submitted and approved for the award of a degree by this or any other university.

Signature: _____

Dedication

This doctoral thesis is dedicated to my mother, husband and son whose support made it possible.

Abstract

Foreign language learning depends greatly on the quality of the classroom teaching and the extent of the input, output, and the interactions in which learners engage through responding to instructions, asking and answering questions, and undertaking activities both individually and with peers. The aim of this interpretive study was to gain insights into how trainee teachers' practice activities provided opportunities for learners to speak English as a foreign language at two different public intermediate school classrooms in Saudi Arabia. The study had two types of participants: first, two trainee teachers in their final college year and undertaking their teaching practicum; and second, first-year and third-year students from two different intermediate schools. The aim was explored through research questions guided by the study's theoretical perspectives of input, interaction and output (Long, 1996; Krashen, 1982; Swain, 1985). The qualitative exploratory data were collected using the triangulated methods of semi structured interviews (both before and after the lesson), lesson presentations, and my classroom observation notes, and contextualised data from the teacher's preparation book and the pupil's book were also gathered to situate the analysis and interpretation. The findings suggested that there were many more similarities between these teachers than there were differences. The trainee teachers used the pupil's book as a transcript for classroom activities. They used their first language to explain second language words. The teachers had some basic knowledge about the role of students' participation, working in groups and taking risks in language learning. There were limited opportunities afforded by the teacher-learner interaction, and these mostly emerged from students' spontaneous responses based on real life situations. Indeed, overall, the nature of the speaking opportunities created by teacher-learner interaction in its totality (as a provider of input and as affording situations for output) in the classrooms investigated, was mostly ineffective for developing and enhancing students' ability to speak English. Theoretical implications and recommendations for creating opportunities for students to speak English are provided.

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my gratitude to a number of people for their efforts in bringing this doctoral thesis to fruition.

I gratefully acknowledge the substantial intellectual guidance of my supervisors Dr. Susan Riley and Dr. Shirley Larkin that allowed me to reach my potential and helped me to develop my research skills.

I am grateful to the Deanary of Higher Education, College of Education and Teaching Practicum Office at Girls' University (pseudonym), who gave me permission to conduct this research in their college. I would like to express my gratitude and thank the trainee teachers, their students who welcomed me in their classrooms and the school principals who gave permission for the study to be undertaken in their schools. Without them it would not have been possible to conduct this study.

My thanks are also due to the Languages and Translation Department at GU and to my friends and colleagues for their constant encouragement and support during my study.

I am also grateful to my mother, sisters and brothers for their constant encouragement and prayers.

To my son Nedal, who proofread parts of this work, and my husband Dr. Hassan Thani, with whom so many of the ideas in this thesis have been discussed and debated, I say thank you to both of you for your loving support in this, as in so much else.

Table of Contents

Dedication	2
Abstract	3
Acknowledgement	4
Table of Contents	5
List of Tables	10
List of Abbreviations	11

Chapter: 1 Introduction -----13

1.1 Nature of the Problem	15
1.2 Rationale and Purpose of the Study	19
1.3 Significance of the Study	20
1.4 Contribution to Knowledge	20
1.5 Research Aims	21
1.6 Organisation of the Study	21

Chapter: 2 Context of the Study----- 23

2.1 The Sociocultural Conditions of the City	24
2.2 History of Education in Medina	27
2.3 Education and Schools in the KSA	28
2.4 The Public School System in the KAS	30
2.5 The Importance of Learning English	32
2.6 Girls' Schools in Medina	33
2.7 The Context of Schools and Classrooms	33
2.8 Conditions of the Schools	35
2.9 Teachers' Role	36
2.10 The Study's Participants	37

Chapter: 3 Literature Review-----39

3.1 Second Language Acquisition and Learning Theories	40
3.1.1 The Cognitive Perspective	45
3.1.1.1 The Input Hypothesis	45
3.1.1.2 The Output Hypothesis	48
3.1.1.3 The Interaction Hypothesis	50
3.1.2 The Sociocultural Perspective	52
3.1.2.1 Mediation and L2 Learning	53
3.1.2.2 Zone of Proximal Development	54
3.1.2.3 Scaffolding	55
3.1.2.4 The Relationship between $i+1$, ZPD and Scaffolding	56
3.2 Classroom Interaction & Opportunities for Speaking	57
3.2.1 T-L Interaction in Teacher-centered Classroom	59
3.2.2 L2 Teaching Methodology	60
3.2.3 Teacher's Talk	62
3.2.4 Learner-Learner Interaction	65
3.2.5 Creating Opportunities for Speaking L2	66
3.2.6 Learning Interactional Strategy	67
3.2.7 Scaffolding as a Strategy for L2 Learning	68
3.3 Theoretical Framework	70

Chapter: 4 Methodology ----- 73

4.1 Research Ontology and Epistemology	74
4.2 Research Paradigm	74
4.3 Research Methodology	77
4.4 Research Aims and Questions	78
4.5 Data Collection Methods	79
4.5.1 Interviews	80
4.5.1.1 Design of the Pre-Lesson Interview (Interview I)	82
4.5.1.2 Design of the Post-Lesson Interview (Interview II)	83
4.5.2 Observations	83
4.5.3 Documents	85

4.6 Participants	86
4.6.1 Trainee Teachers	87
4.6.2 Students	88
4.7 Procedures	88
4.7.1 Piloting	88
4.7.2 Data Collection Arrangements	89
4.7.2.1 Initial Meeting with Participants	89
4.7.2.2 Initial School Visits	90
4.7.2.3 School Conditions in the Study	91
4.7.3 Data Collection	92
4.7.3.1 Interview I (pre-lesson)	93
4.7.3.2 Observation	93
4.7.3.3 Interview II (post-lesson)	94
4.8 Description of the Research Context	95
4.9 Data Analysis	96
4.9.1 Transcription and Translation Process	96
4.9.2 Interview Coding Structures	101
4.9.2.1 The First Level Code	102
4.9.2.2 The Second Level Code	103
4.9.2.3 The Third Level Code	104
4.9.2.4 The Fourth Level Code	108
4.9.3 Classroom Observations	108
4.9.3.1 The First Level Code	110
4.9.3.2 The Second Level Code	111
4.9.3.3 The Third Level Code	111
4.9.3.4 Classroom Notes Analysis	112
4.9.5 Pupil's Book Analysis	113
4.9.6 The Final Level Code	114
4.10 Researcher Role	117
4.11 Research Ethics	118
4.12 Limitations of the Study	119

Chapter: 5 Results and Discussion of Data-----121

5.1 Teachers' Views about their Own Practices of Providing Speaking Opportunities in the Classroom	122
5.1.1 Lesson Plans	124
5.1.2 The Use of the Pupil's Book	125
5.1.3 Teachers' Pedagogical Belief	126
5.1.4 Teachers' Language	127
5.1.5 The Role of Physical Artefacts in SLA	128
5.1.6 The Use of the L1	129
5.2 Type of classroom interactions and activities that encourage T-L interaction and L-L interaction	129
5.2.1 Speaking activities in the pupil's book	130
5.2.2 Type of classroom interactions and activities	132
5.2.2.1 Interactions based on questions and answers	134
5.2.2.2 The use of IRE1	137
5.2.2.3 The use of extended IRE2	138
5.2.2.4 Scaffolding Students	139
5.2.2.5 Corrective feedback	139
5.2.2.6 Teaching English as a Subject	140
5.2.2.7 The use of the L1 to learn the L2	141
5.2.2.8 L-L Interaction based on group work	144
5.3 Students' responses to the given opportunities to speak English	147
5.3.1 Students' responses based on the pupil's book	148
5.3.2 Students' spontaneous responses	150

Chapter 6: Discussion of the Findings and Conclusions-----159

6.1 The pupil's book as a transcript for classroom activities	160
6.2 The effect of using the L1 on learning the L2	164
6.3 Possible evidence of using the sociocultural perspective	167
6.3.1 Students' participation and interaction	168
6.3.2 Taking risks in language learning	169
6.3.3 The effect of working in groups	170

6.3.4 Providing speaking opportunities related to students' lives	171
6.4 The application of the theoretical framework to the collected data	172
Chapter 7 Conclusions-----	175
7.1 Summary of Key Findings	176
7.2 Implications and Recommendations	178
7.2.1 Teacher education	179
7.2.2 Sociocultural theory in teacher education	180
7.2.3 Pre-service and in-service teacher education	181
7.2.4 Teacher education and textbooks	182
7.3 Contribution to Knowledge	183
7.4 limitations of the Study	184
7.5 Suggestions for further research	184
7.6 Reflections	185
Appendices-----	194
Appendix A: Sample of Interview I Questions	194
Appendix B: Sample of Interview II Questions	195
Appendix C: Sample of interview I transcript third-year teacher	196
Appendix D: Analysis of interview I transcript	199
Appendix E: Teacher Sarah's data transcript for lesson # 3	202
Appendix F: Sample of interview II for Sarah's lesson # 3	205
Appendix G: Sample of data analysis and discussion of Sarah lesson # 3	207
Appendix H: Sample analysis of pupil's book	210
Appendix I: Sample of an observation note for Lilly's lesson # 2	211
Appendix J: Students' information sheet	213
Appendix K: Interviews and lesson observations' schedules	214
Appendix L: Certificate of ethical research approval	216
Appendix M: Letters to practicum students	221
Appendix N: Letters to school principal	222

Appendix O: Informed consent letters to students and parents	224
--	-----

References-----186

List of Tables and Figures

Table 1: Number of Girls' Schools and Students	33
Table 2: Teacher Sarah's Schedule for Interviews and Lesson Observations	214
Table3: Teacher Lilly's Schedule for Interviews and Les son Observations	215
Table 4: Data sets for answering each research question	80
Table 5: Interview coding, the third level code	104
Table 6: Interviews Categorisation and Coding, the third level code	105
Table 7: Lesson Transcript Coding	109
Table 8: Example of Analysis of a Pupil's Book	114
Table 9: The Final Codes from All Data Sets	115
Table 10: Teachers' Similarities and Differences	116
Table 11: Teachers' Views of the Speaking Opportunities they Provide	123
Table 12: Type of Classroom Interactions Provided Opportunities for Speaking English	133

Figures

Figure 1: A map of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and Neighboring Countries	25
Figure 2: A diagram shows the process of collecting data	92
Figure 3: The Theoretical Framework for the Classroom Interactions and Affording Opportunities for Students to Speak English	103

Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Stands For
1. ALI	American Language Institute
2. AUSTN	Ajman University of Science and Technology
3. ED	English Department
4. EdD	Doctor of Education
5. EFL	English as a Foreign Language
6. ESL	English as a Second Language
7. EU	Exeter University
8. GCE	Girls' College of Education
9. GSt	Group Student
10. GU	Girls' University
11. /+1	The next level along the Natural Order Hypothesis
12. <i>IRE</i>	Initiation, Response, Evaluation
13. <i>IRF2</i>	Initiation, Response, Feedback 2
14. <i>IRF1</i>	Initiation, Response, Follow-Up1
15. L1	First Language
16. L2	Second Language
17. LAD	Language Acquisition Device
18. L-L	Learner-Learner
19. L&TD	Languages and Translation Department
20. SCT	Sociocultural Theory
21. SETT	Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk
22. TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
23. TESOL	Teaching English as a Second Language
24. T-C	Teacher Classroom
25. T-L	Teacher Learner
26. Q&A	Question and Answer
27. RQ	Research Question
28. SLA	Second Language Acquisition

29. UG	Universal Grammar
30. UK	United Kingdom
31. USA	United States of America
32. USC	University of Southern California
33. Q&A	Question and Answer
34. Y1	First Year
35. Y3	Third Year
36. ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

Chapter 1: Introduction

Classroom practices play a significant role in learning a second or foreign language. Classroom second language input is believed to have a positive effect on the development of learners' language proficiency (Krashen, 1985, 1995; Tang, 2011). Foreign language classroom practices are all the more crucial for developing learners' language because in many contexts there is limited exposure to the target language outside the classroom, as is the case in Saudi intermediate girls' schools, the subject of this thesis. Therefore, foreign language learning depends greatly on the classroom quality and quantity of input, output, and the interactions that learners engage in through responding to instructions, asking and answering questions, and the activities they undertake, both individually and with peers.

The important role of input, output, and interaction has been the subject of much research in the English as a foreign language (EFL) and English as a second language (ESL) field for the last 30 years. Krashen (1985) originally argued that comprehensible input or understanding messages is the only way that second language learners acquire the target language while their affective filter is down. Taking this further, Swain (1985) argued that, whilst comprehensible input maybe important for second language acquisition, learners cannot achieve high levels of grammatical and sociolinguistic competence through comprehensible input alone. Learners can, she claimed, improve their second language acquisition through being pushed to produce output. That is to say, the output provides the students with opportunities to use the target language in meaningful ways. In developing these theories further, Long (1996) points out that it is in the interaction process that acquisition occurs. Second language learners acquire the target language through negotiation of meaning and becoming aware of gaps in their target language knowledge. A number of studies have observed and investigated learners' output inside the classroom (e.g. Rahimi & Tahmasebi, 2010; Wang & Castro, 2010). Learners' output allows them to be in control of their speaking and writing, so that they are able to stretch and develop their interlanguage to achieve communicative goals. Students' meaningful output therefore has an important role in language development (Lantolf, 2000; Swain, 1985, 2000).

1.1 Nature of the Problem

Second language researchers have distinguished between effects on learning when learners focus on learning linguistic knowledge of the target language and when they try to learn to communicate with it. During second language classroom practices which provide language input, some learners are active recipients, participating and taking part in their second language learning or acquisition while other learners receive the instructions passively and rely on memorisation of linguistic knowledge of the target language. However, a lack of skills development in using the target language while learning it can lead to problems in comprehension. From my personal experience, my inability to speak English in everyday real life situations caused the following misunderstanding.

The following incident happened to me in 1983 in the cafeteria at the University of Southern California (USC), in the United States of America (USA). At that time, I was a newcomer to US culture and a novice student in learning English as a second language at the American Language Institute (ALI) at the UCS. I had studied English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabian public school for six years, and my English grades were between A and B+ throughout my six years of learning English at intermediate and secondary schools, which means that I was a “good language learner” or that my English language level was “good” in terms of knowing the subject knowledge and obtaining high marks (Ellis, 2008). But in practice my English proficiency was low. During the first few days of arriving in the USA, my so-called “good” English abilities were put to a practical test. During the lunch break in the USC cafeteria one day, I was standing in a queue in front of a food display, holding my empty tray ready to point to (not order) my choice of food items along with other students, when a young male student whom I did not know asked me something which I did not understand, but I pretended I understood and replied: “No, thank you”. At once, another young female-student who was standing on the other side of him took a bowl of pudding from a dessert display and put it on his empty tray. On seeing this, I immediately understood and worked out what his question must have been. At the same time, I realized that he could not take the pudding bowl from the dessert display himself because his hand was in a cast. I was very

embarrassed and unhappy because I had not been able to say a word, unable even to apologize for what appeared to be rude behaviour when in fact it was due to my lack of comprehension and lack of ability to speak in English.

I was linguistically silent but psychologically active (Iddings & Jang, 2008; Krashen, 1995). On the one hand, I was linguistically silent because I could not express myself in English. I could not compose a meaningful sentence even though I had “learned” English for six years, which nevertheless resulted in an inability to interact with others and to negotiate meaning (van Lier, 2000). On the other hand, I was psychologically active interpreting the signs rather than the words (the empty tray, the hand in the cast, the girl’s action, etc) which in the end made a meaningful picture out of the verbal and non-verbal signs in the situation I encountered (Ellis, 2008).

The lunch break finished and I went back to my English class at the ALI with an empty stomach and a head full of confusion and questions such as: Why was I unable to speak English after studying it for six years? How was it that I had received high marks but could not speak English? Was I not a fast English learner? Was there a secret or special way of learning to speak English which I was not aware of? But most of all: Would I succeed in America, or would I go back home as a failure? However, I was highly determined, even more so than before my arrival in the USA, to continue learning English.

My determination to succeed in speaking English, supported by the English language classes which I was receiving at the ALI, greatly motivated me to learn and to become consciously aware of the difference in approaches to learning English that I had received back home in Saudi Arabia and that I was experiencing at the ALI at the USC. However, I discovered that the “linguistic” kind of learning English which I had known at intermediate and secondary schools and which focused more on memorizing grammatical rules and individual words, and on translation-based instruction rather than on language use, was not completely useless. In fact, it considerably facilitated, accelerated and contributed to my acquisition of “social” speaking English skills at the ALI (Ellis, 2008). Within just a few months of practising and using the language, I

was able to communicate verbally in English, not only inside the classroom, but also outside the classroom, in the real world.

The above cafeteria incident illustrates my inability to use English as a communicative skill in an authentic everyday conversation despite spending six years learning English as a foreign language in intermediate and secondary schools. However, when the linguistic-based English learning was complemented with the social participation in using the language, it made a difference in developing my English speaking skills (Ellis, 2008). This led me to reflect on the necessity of providing our students with opportunities for practicing real communication in their language classrooms.

The inability to communicate adequately in English after studying it for many years is still an important issue (Abu-Ghararah, 1992; Al-Nakli, 2003; Sharaf, 1993). Currently, in my work as an English instructor in the Languages and Translation Department (L&TD) at Girls' University (GU) (pseudonym), (formerly the Girls' College of Education GCE, the English Department ED), I see this phenomenon among the secondary school female graduates whom I teach on different English language courses such as conversation, reading and writing. However, although the situation has not changed since my days at school, my knowledge and perception about it has greatly changed, deepened and developed. I have developed an understanding of the important role of classroom input, output and interactions that help students to develop oral communicative skills. Therefore, I plan to research the practicum students' practices and activities that could create opportunities for their students to speak English in intermediate classrooms.

At GU, besides teaching on a range of English language courses, I have other roles in my dealings with students and trainee teachers which have influenced my choice of the area of this doctoral thesis. As an examiner, I have interviewed many female high school graduates from different secondary schools across Medina city in Saudi Arabia over the last decade in order to evaluate their level of English proficiency for admission to the GCE. Most of the interview questions were general, open-ended and non-academic and should have been within the level of the language proficiency of the interviewees. I noticed, though, from

most of the students' responses that they could not speak in complete sentences using correct grammatical structures, such as tenses but rather that they responded in single words or phrases. Moreover, even their level of comprehension of most of the interview questions was low.

The other role which helped in developing the focus for this thesis is that at GU I have to supervise and to examine the students for four weeks on their teaching practicum during their third year of study and/ or during their fourth year also for four weeks. Supervising the students during their pre-service practicum has inspired me to carry out this current research as it has permitted me to observe many educational issues. Those that are relevant to this thesis are the practicum students' inadequate English proficiency level and its effect on their ability to create opportunities for their students to speak English, especially in view of the fact that most public schools greatly depend on them to teach English as a subject.

Thus, through the two roles I have gained some experience of the practices of learning English in classroom environments through interviewing some of the high school graduates and then teaching those who studied in the English department. This has allowed me to interact with them and to notice closely how they lack the verbal ability to use English to express their ideas, needs, dreams, desires and opinions during classrooms discussions on certain local or international issues, or simply to give reasons why they joined the English department.

The following example from an interview with a secondary school graduate illustrates this:

T: What did you do on the Summer Vacation?

S: Travel[ed] to Jeddah. Watch[ed] TV. Visiting[ed] friends. Pray [ed].

T: What do you want to be in the future?

S: Teacher.

T: What kind of teacher do you want to be in the future?

S: *[Pause]* ...They did not teach us this at school. *[in Arabic]*.

This extract, for example, has influenced me to research students' inability to speak English after studying it for six years. In addition to this, through supervising and evaluating the practicum students I have gained some insights into the practices of learning English in a classroom environment from observing and noticing various foreign language learning practices and usages in public intermediate and secondary school classrooms. These experiences have allowed me to look at the process of learning English from a wider perspective in the two main institutions for learning English, the public intermediate and secondary schools and Girls' University. This has encouraged me to further investigate practice of learning and teaching English as a foreign language in public intermediate girls' school classrooms.

1.2 Rationale and Purpose of the Study

The Saudi Minister of Education is committing huge human, financial, and time resources for learning English as a foreign language at both the public intermediate and secondary school levels and the university level. However, the English learning outcomes are still below expected standards, so as a means of enhancing English learning practices, the Ministry of Education has called for more years of English learning by incorporating it in elementary schools, at grade six and in the Preparatory Year at university level. However, I believe that the problem of the low level of English is not an issue of quantity and that neither spending more money nor adding more years of learning English is going to solve this problem. Rather, the heart of the matter lies in the quality of English learning in intermediate classrooms, and what students need is the opportunity to learn the language adequately at the intermediate level.

Therefore, the purpose of this thesis is to investigate the learning of English in dynamic foreign language classrooms by exploring what kinds of opportunities for speaking English are afforded to female students in two different public intermediate school classrooms. I wish to explore what kind of oral communicative skills the students could learn as a result of their interaction with the practicum students' (trainee teachers') practices, questions, and activities in the classrooms.

1.3 Significance of the Study

Learning English as a subject or a foreign language is compulsory at all Saudi intermediate and high school levels and a great number of teachers and pupils are involved in the English teaching and learning process in these two stages of formal education. The ultimate concern of the country's educational policies and one of its main goals is to enable its citizens to learn the English language at these levels in preparation for their later higher academic education (Ministry of Education of EFL Curriculum, 1988). Learning English up to university level will allow the students a wider choice of work opportunities especially in this period of time of increasing unemployment among Saudi youth. Unemployment particularly affects women and they are the primary concern of this study. Therefore, learning how to "speak" foreign language English effectively in intermediate girls' school classrooms is of considerable importance.

1.4 Contribution to Knowledge

The contribution of this study to knowledge is that it could provide unique insights into English learning practices inside real classrooms with practicum students (studying at GU) and intermediate school learners (potential applicants to GU). In addition to this, this thesis could provide useful knowledge about the learning of spoken English in intermediate school classrooms to educators and researchers both in and outside Saudi Arabia, who face similar situations. This step is highly significant because if the students learn how to speak effectively through studying English for six years at public school, then they should be proficient in English (to a certain extent) when attending college and should be able to express themselves and their ideas about the subjects they are studying. They will be able to engage in real dialogue in conversation, poetry, drama or writing classes so as to enjoy these subjects, to taste the beauty behind their explicit and implicit meanings, and to play with English words, to construct their own knowledge from their experiences rather than relying on memorisation and to go beyond a focus on learning English mainly to pass exams.

1.5 Research Aims

The aim of this thesis is to investigate how the practicum students' classroom instructions, questions and practices create situations for girls at intermediate school to learn to speak English as a foreign language according to the input, interaction and output hypotheses (Krashen, 1985; Long, 1996; Swain, 1985). I will address this broad aim by exploring the following specific areas:

1. The trainee teachers' perspective on their own practices for providing speaking opportunities in their classroom at two different public intermediate schools in Medina.
2. The type of activities provided by the trainee teachers in order to encourage teacher-learner interaction and learner-learner interaction.
3. Learners' responses to the opportunities provided by the trainee teachers to speak in teacher-learner and learner-learner interactions in the classroom.

The design of this research is based upon collecting qualitative exploratory data within an interpretive paradigm using semi structured interviews, semi structured observations and contextualized data from the trainee teachers' preparation note books and pupil's books to investigate their classroom practices.

1.6 Organization of the Study

In the following chapter, Chapter 2, the study is put into context by providing descriptive information about the historical-cultural background of the city where the study takes place and also about the Saudi system of public school education. Chapter 3, the literature review, begins by giving an overview of current perceptions of second language acquisition and learning and a review of the literature on classroom input, interaction and output. The chapter ends by explaining the theoretical framework of the study. Chapter 4 explains the design of the research by describing the study's ontology and epistemology, methodology, methods and procedures adopted to investigate the research. In Chapter 5 I present and analyze the study's results for each research questions,

then draw together the similarities and differences between the teachers. Chapter 6 discusses of the findings related to the three research questions. Finally, chapter 7 provides a conclusion, theoretical implications of the research, contribution to knowledge, suggestions of further study and final reflections I had on completion of the thesis.

Chapter 2 - Context of the Study

This chapter puts the study into context by providing mostly descriptive information about the historical-cultural background of the city where the study takes place. The purpose is to show how the social environment of Medina is highly relevant to the rationale for the study, which is that the students at the intermediate school level need to learn to speak English well. In addition, the chapter presents general information about the Saudi system of public school education, the culture of learning within the system of education and the possible impact of the educational curricula on the learners' learning and behaviour. The chapter presents an overview of some schools and classroom conditions and of the teachers' main roles in the schools. This chapter concludes by providing the educational background of the study's two groups of participants. This will help the reader to understand the social and educational culture of the study, and the participants, the situation in which the participants are learners or trainee teachers and the learners' need to learn spoken English effectively.

2.1 The Sociocultural Conditions of the City

The kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) is a large country with an area of 830,000 square kilometres and a population of 30,770,375 which in 2014 included 10,067,839 non-Saudis (expatriates), (Department of Statistics, 2014). Its neighbours are Kuwait, Iraq, and Jordan to the north, Yemen and Oman to the south, the United Arab Emirates and Qatar to the east, and the Red Sea to the west. The study took place in Medina city, which is also known as Al-Medina al-Munawwarah or Taibah. Medina is located in the Hejaz region in the west of Saudi Arabia (400 kilometres distant from Jeddah, a city on the Red Sea). It has a continental climate which is hot and dry in the summer and plus ten centigrade degrees in the winter, with little rains. The spring and autumn seasons are rarely noticed because the summer season prevails throughout most of the year. This hot and dry climate has long made Medina famous for palm trees and for producing the finest dates in the Gulf region. Medina is a city with an area of 173,000 square kilometres and a population of 1,300,000 and most importantly is the second holy city of Islam after Mecca (Makkah, the birth place of the prophet Muhammad), because in the early 7th century the prophet Muhammad, peace be upon him, lived there. The city contains his mosque and

his tomb, which is a shrine, and there are also many historical Islamic places there such as many grand mosques, the tombs of the prophet Muhammad's wives and friends and the mountains where some of the prophet's battles took place. Consequently, due to Medina's historical and holy background, an estimated 3 million Muslims make a pilgrimage annually to Mecca, where the prophet Abraham and his son built the first grand mosque, and visit Medina city (Al-Anssari, 1993; Almanac, 2012). The map below (Figure 1) showing Saudi Arabia and Medina was taken from 3rbe.com.



Figure 1 A map of the kingdom of Saudi Arabia and neighbouring countries

This importance of Medina through its religious history is significant for two major consequences it has for the people in the city. First, there is a clear need for the local inhabitants to learn spoken English effectively, so that they can communicate with the international annual pilgrims and the visitors who come throughout the year to the prophet's mosque and his tomb and the historical sacred places. The learners may have either temporary or permanent jobs working with the pilgrims (religious tourism). Most of the religious preachers, tourist guides and owners of shops, markets, hotels and hospitals in downtown Medina (where the prophet's mosque is located) prefer employees who speak English, in order to communicate with these international pilgrims and visitors

who speak different languages but might also speak English with different levels of proficiency.

Secondly, Medina has long been a place of great and rich diversity in its population due to its people's various origins; besides those with a nomadic background from the Arabian Peninsula, there are inhabitants with Arabic, Turkish, Pakistani, African, and Russian backgrounds. In other words, the Saudis in the Hejaz region are mostly immigrants from Arab and non-Arab countries. They immigrated before the establishment of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia on September 24, 1932 by King Abdul Aziz bin Sa'ud. In fact, migration to Medina had been continuing since 622. During the lifetime of the prophet Muhammad most of those immigrants came to Medina to support the prophet and to be with him after the people of Mecca turned against him and his Islamic beliefs and forced him to leave his birthplace. But after the prophet's death the number of Muslim scholars and non-scholars increased; they came to Medina in order to visit and to pray in the prophet Muhammad's mosque and to learn more about the Islamic rules from his wives and friends, but then most of them stayed in Medina, got married to local people, had children and did not go back to their original countries. In time they moved and spread throughout the Hejaz region.

Nowadays, migration continues into Medina but under a different name. A small number of the pilgrims, visitors to the prophet's mosque and individuals on work contracts prefer to stay legally in Medina and Mecca after performing their religious rituals or finishing their work contracts, but being unable to meet the requirements of the migration's policy they stay undocumented, and the government cannot control this illegal migration issue.

2.2 History of Education in Medina

The purpose of this section is to give some historical background to education in Medina in order to show the fundamental richness and diversity of Medina's local inhabitants. Also, I will stress the need of the local people to learn effective spoken English.

During the time of the prophet in the early 7th century, people gathered to pray in the prophet's mosque five times every day. These five prayers were performed at specific times during the day: the first prayer starts at around 5:30 am and the last one is at night at around 8:00 pm. After the prophet's death it became a custom that, after each prayer, scholars and their pupils with their diverse religious and non-religious knowledge and backgrounds sat down as a group in a circle. They read and memorized the holy Qur'an and interpreted its words to find out the Islamic rules and laws in order to practise them in their daily lives, They also read and wrote in Arabic, learned maths and learned the Turkish and Persian languages in order to translate, from these and other languages, knowledge that could benefit them, and they discussed their daily lives. This tradition of teaching and learning at the prophet's mosque is still alive, but it is limited to the teaching and learning of the state's views on the Islamic religion, alongside the Islamic University. The Islamic University in Medina has students of many different ethnic and cultural backgrounds, who come from all over the world to study the Islamic religion and to enjoy the spiritual blessings of Medina, where the prophet Muhammad lived (Al-Anssari, 1993).

Thus the prophet's mosque has long played a major role in attracting different races and nationalities, with their diverse cultures and languages, to immigrate to Medina and has made it a tolerant place. Although these immigrants have different ethnic and linguistic backgrounds, they have one common feature: their wish to learn more about Islam and the life and behaviour of the prophet. As a consequence of the long history of Medina in being open to different cultural backgrounds, different languages, and different learning and teaching styles about the Islamic religion, and in order to encourage this position. In 2013, Medina was chosen to be the capital of Islamic culture by the

Organization of Islamic Cooperation in Baku, the capital of the Republic of Azerbaijan.

Although it would seem that a city like Medina, with this diversity of races, cultures and languages, would be an open and cosmopolitan place, the reality is that it is closed in on itself. This is a result of the tightly hierarchal dominant system in most aspects of life, particularly in religion, culture and all areas of education- schools, classrooms, curricula, textbooks and schools' examination policy (Shaw, 2006). Medina remains a developing city but, by being closed in on itself and swallowing its diverse and rich culture, its hegemony might appear to give it "... consensual social practices, social forms, and social structures produced in specific sites such as the [mosque], the state, the school, the mass media..."(McLaren, 1998, in Slattery, 2006, p. 38) or as Freire (1970) calls it, "culture silence". Further, the centralized political system has greatly affected the educational policy and practice of the city, in terms of normalizing people's minds to the state's views, by not fully taking into account the standard educational needs of each school and each student in each city of the country (Al-Essa, 2009). This background could lead to the conclusion that Medina's need to provide its people with an effective learning approach to spoken English is greater than that of other cities in the state, except for Mecca, because of its unique sacred history.

2.3 Education and Schools in the KSA

This section identifies the objectives of the Saudi education system, which reflect the kind of social change sought by this educational policy.

Freire, (1970, p. 1) argues that "literacy is a weapon for social change". It is obvious that most, if not all, countries around the world have established a system of education which hopes for social change through changing individuals' minds. But the fundamental questions that should be asked when constructing an educational policy are: What kind of personal change is the system of education looking for? Whose change or ideology should be implemented and why? Is the social or educational change merely a theoretical or also a practical one? Is the policy based on shaping students' behaviours

towards certain philosophies, such as idealism or pragmatism or both? Are there continuous and rigorous plans for the implementation of educational reform that will allow students to make good progress in a given subject? Is there a vision for the emancipation of students, so that they can express, explain, reflect and discover themselves and their purpose in life, in order to play an active role in their personal/social development? The objectives of the Saudi educational system may provide answers to the above questions, and through explaining these objectives the kinds of social change the country is seeking to bring about, through changing its individuals' minds, will become clearer. This may not, however, be the main factor that contributes to changing students' attitudes and behaviour. The objectives of Saudi educational policies are based on theology, through developing the behaviour and attitude of individuals in three main ways: absolute belief in one God and his last prophet, Muhammad, true loyalty towards the country and obedience to figures of authority (Al-Sumbole, Al-Kateep, Mutwalee & Al-Jawad, 1998). However, Al-Essa (2009) argues that the effects of religious and moral values on our (Saudi) students are weak because our faith and moral-based education focus more on the "dos and don'ts" rather than on the deep meaning of faith that leads to connection to God, forgiveness, and respect for oneself and others.

Furthermore, there are other major goals that the education system has for students through the schools' curricula: it wishes to enable them to gain spiritual knowledge of the universe, with God as its only creator, to learn more about the world and their community in order to participate in their development, to have the theoretical and practical skills which develop their logical thinking abilities, to develop well spiritually, physically and mentally, to learn about their great Islamic heritage, and to learn a second language in order to be informed about other cultures and sciences and to spread Islam and its values to non-Islamic countries (Al-Essa, 2009; Al-Sumbole et al., 1998; Saudi Policy of Education, 1998,1995).

2.4 The Public School System in the KSA

In order to achieve the educational objectives listed above, the Ministry of Education has established a centralized public system of education which is not egalitarian (there are different curricula and schools for boys and girls). This educational system is divided into three main school levels: elementary, intermediate and secondary schools. Saudi students start in elementary school at the age of six, and this stage lasts for six years. When they reach the age of 13 and pass the exams, they can attend an intermediate school for three years. After passing the final exams in all subjects they attend secondary school, which also lasts for three years. The language of instruction is Arabic except when English is being taught. Students learn many subjects in their public schools, such as: Islamic religion, Arabic, English, maths, sciences, history, geography, psychology, sociology, arts (mostly drawing and sewing for girls), and economics. Physical education is only for boys, but a few private girls' schools incorporate it. Music and philosophy are banned for both genders.

Philosophy is not knowledge transmission but the questioning of what usually goes unquestioned (Pring, 2004); it is inquiry based on logical reasoning; it is the love and pursuit of wisdom (Beyer, 1990:55). On the other hand, critical thinking enables students to think critically about the criteria and standards of thinking and to apply these standards to judge thinking and its products. Philosophy encourages thinking and reasoning; this can be achieved in education by establishing curricula which enables students to argue, recognise, analyse, synthesise, judge, and formulate valid arguments (Beyer, 1990; McBurney, 1996; Slattery, 2006). Not incorporating concepts of philosophy that will improve students' thinking, thus their learning, into education means that education is more likely to be based on rote learning and an examination-oriented approach.

Students have to pass a final exam in each subject in order to move up to the next level. Students who fail the exam in some subjects are required to re-sit the exam; if they still cannot pass, they have to repeat the level the next year, and this will place them with younger students. Therefore, teachers place more emphasis on teaching the required curricula, for the sake of helping pupils to

pass the final exams, than on teaching other skills such as critical thinking, autonomous learning, and the ability to be creative and to engage in oral and written discussions. Although public schools in most Saudi cities are free, are located in each neighbourhood and are segregated by sex, with different schools for girls and boys, attendance at school is not compulsory, and it is up to parents whether to send their children to school or not, even in this high-tech century. Moreover, parents have no voice in their children's education because it is tax free and is dominated by the state (Al-Essa, 2009; Al-Sloome, 1991; Al-Sumbole et al., 1998).

The duplication of schools and facilities for the segregated system is highly expensive and affects the quality of schools. For example, in the same street it is common to find an intermediate school for girls and another separate one for boys. This large number of different segregated schools (elementary, intermediate and high) costs the state a great deal of money (Shaw, 2006), which in the end affects the quality of the schools in terms of infrastructure, equipment, finance, curricula and employees' professional quality. Wealthier communities have better schools than poorer ones, particularly for English lessons.

The Saudi Ministry of Education has succeeded in providing each community with governmental public schools where even the books are free of charge, and also employs local teachers and administrators. In other words, all public schools are run by Saudi employees (Al-Sumbole et al., 1998; Shaw, 2006). However, there is a big shortage of official school buildings because there has been an increase in population that the school system cannot keep up with, and because of spending priorities (Al-Essa, 2009). In order to overcome this problem, the government rents residential buildings (houses and flats), and turns them into schools. This means that, for example, a building which should have a maximum capacity of 40 people can have a minimum of 100 individuals as a school. The use of residential buildings for schools has implications for the conditions of study that are explored further in section 2.7 below.

2.5 The Importance of Learning English

In order to understand the importance of learning adequate English in public schools, it would be better to explain how it is learned within the historical, sociocultural, political, and economic contexts, because these factors affect learning English as a second, foreign, or additional language in any context (Mahboob & Tilakaratna, 2012). Looking briefly at the history of how learning English was established as a subject to be taught in Saudi intermediate and secondary schools over six years, it appears to have required a great deal of resources: human, financial, and time. Learning English is compulsory in all Saudi intermediate and secondary schools and a great number of teachers and pupils are involved in the English teaching and learning process at the two stages of formal education where the growth of students is most rapid. Students at both intermediate and secondary school levels take English classes four times a week, and each class lasts for 45 minutes. Even though students study English for six years at school, there is recognition that outcomes are low, and for this reason the Saudi Minister of Education has called for more English learning and has incorporated learning English into elementary schools at the fourth grade. However, most private elementary schools teach English from the first grade, and this gives an advantage to students from a wealthy background who can attend such schools.

The official approach to teaching English shows the ultimate concern of the country's educational policies and main goal in enabling its citizens to learn English at school levels in preparation for their later higher academic education, travelling to English-speaking countries such as the USA and the UK to pursue their postgraduate studies, particularly in sciences and medicines, and becoming fluent in English in order to spread Islam all over the world (Ministry of Education of EFL Curriculum, 1988; Statistics of Ministry of Education, 2007).

Learning appropriate English at intermediate school level provides learners with a good English foundation for their later English university level, which will allow them a wider choice of work opportunities, especially in this period of increasing unemployment among young Saudis (Al-Essa, 2009). Therefore, most Saudi

students dream of mastering the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing in English, although they struggle to learn them.

2.6 Girls' Schools in Medina

The number of governmental public girls' schools in Medina city is large, as Table 1 shows. The public schools are named by numbers, with names such as The First Elementary School or The Fiftieth Intermediate School. All girl students are required to wear uniform and shoes to school. Students at elementary schools wear long grey dresses, at intermediate schools they wear long dark blue dresses and at secondary schools they wear long brown dresses.

Girls' School	Number of schools	Saudi students	Non-Saudi students	Total Students
Elementary	304	44,827	8,873	53,700
Intermediate	165	25,764	4,142	29,906
Secondary	104	22,539	3,166	25,705

Table 1

Number of girls' schools and students (Ministry of Education, 2012/13).

2.7 The Context of Schools and Classrooms

Girls spend a total of twelve years of their educational life in public schools. Most of the girls' resident-building schools are buildings of three or four storeys with six or eight flats, and without a yard for students to have their break or breakfast. Although it is a sunny country, the students spend their day inside without seeing the daylight, because the windows are shaded and closed so that the girls are not seen by males from outside.

This study took place in Medina where I am a lecturer in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESOL) at Girls' University and a supervisor for practicum students. In my role as supervisor, I visited seven different girls' intermediate schools across Medina city. Two of those schools were designed as official

school buildings, but the other five schools were in residential buildings. The two purpose-built schools are bigger and brighter than the residential ones. They are brighter because the sunlight enters the school and its classrooms. The capacity of the classrooms in the purpose-built schools is between 40 and 50 whereas in the schools using residential buildings it is between 20 and 25. There is a small reading room in some of the schools which contains mostly educational, academic and religious books (there is a belief that books like magazines, stories and novels distract students' attention from learning). There are no books for extra reading in the classrooms, and the classroom windows are closed; some allow the sunlight to enter and others are shaded (which means that the lights have to be on in the daytime). There is a room equipped with a projector and a computer, but there is no amplifier to allow the sound to be heard by all the learners in the classroom. Moreover, the computer room is for the whole school, and any teacher who wishes to use the technology in order to deliver her lesson has to arrange in advance to do so.

However, the classrooms in both types of schools are the same in terms of the teacher's performance and the classroom equipment. Classes are teacher-centred. Students' classroom participation is limited and the teacher relies on a white board and the students' books for delivering the lesson. Inside the classrooms, there are no educational written language tools or posters on the walls to mediate students' learning in Arabic let alone in English. However, some of the trainee teachers make their own posters or download lessons from the Saudi English website in order to help with teaching their lessons to the pupils. Desks are set out in rows and the students sit facing the board and the teacher in front of them, who teaches the lesson mostly to the whole class. Classroom practice seems to encourage recitation and dependence on the teacher.

2.8 The Conditions of the schools

The conditions of the schools and the schools' culture had an impact on the students' behaviour (Toohey, 2003). Looking at the conditions and culture of the schools in the study will help to understand some of the artefacts that might shape the students' learning process. Looking (from outside) at a purpose-built school or one in a residential building, one will notice that the gate is always closed as a measure to protect the girls from intruders and from being seen by male individuals from outside the school. The guard (doorman) opens the gate for anyone who wants to get into or out of school.

However, looking at each school's culture from inside, it seems to show that the principal of each school tries her best to keep the school neat, clean and organized. The schools are decorated with posters and/or pictures (in the students' first language) that emphasize educational knowledge, Islamic morals and ethics, the Islamic dress code, and aesthetic scenes. Most of these posters are created by artists, not by the students, and are hung in the school's halls, not in the classrooms where the students could learn from them. The posters are usually to encourage and/or discourage certain behaviour; this also reveals the country's culture and ideology. The posters have messages such as "Learning is from the cradle to the grave", "No to drugs", "God always watches you" (which means God knows everything you do in public or in private), or "Wear the legitimized hejab" (which means always cover your face and whole body when you are outside).

The students in these intermediate schools begin their school day at 7:15 am. They study sixteen different subjects each term, which are: Qur'an (reading and memorization of some verses), Qur'an interpretation, jurisprudence, prophet's sayings, Arabic grammar, Arabic literature, English, maths, science, computing, drawing, economics, geography or history. The school week runs from Sunday to Thursday, with Friday and Saturday the weekend. Each day students study for seven periods and on one day they add an eighth for extracurricular activities.

During their break time, the students in the purpose-built schools have their break and breakfast in the yard, but in the schools in residential buildings, students have their break in their classrooms and in the halls of the flat(s). The times for the break vary; some schools have 15 minutes and others have 20 minutes. The students usually have their breakfast after they finish period 3 at 9: 30 am, and after that they have four more periods and then the school day finishes at around 1:00 pm.

2.9 Teachers' Role

The regular teachers in the schools must follow the curriculum objectives of the subjects they teach, which are assigned by the Ministry of Education. The principal of the school and a supervisor (from the Educational Guidance Office) attend one or more lessons for each teacher at least twice each term in order to guide her teaching performance and to evaluate the quality of her lessons. However, whether teachers perform well or badly they all receive the same salary and there is annual promotion for all teachers. A teacher should prepare a lesson using the book assigned to the class (teacher's book). The principal of the school should check the lesson preparations once a week, write her comments, sign and write the date she checked them. Students stay in their assigned classrooms and teachers move from class to class. Although for drawing, economics and computing only, the students go to special rooms. The teacher delivers the lesson using the board and the students' books and sometimes educational posters. During the 45 minutes of the lesson most of the focus is on teaching the information in the students' books. Each month the students memorize rather than learn the information in their books and reproduce it in the monthly and then the final exams of each term.

The teacher evaluates the student's classroom participation, corrects the students' notebooks and marks the monthly exams. However the final and mid-term exam in each subject is corrected by a group of teachers for that specific subject. Most of the teachers have other roles besides teaching, evaluating their students' progress and correcting their students' notebooks. They may be responsible for a specific class, have to participate in the extracurricular

activities, write the students' certificates and stay late at school at least once a week until the last student leaves.

2.10 The Study's Participants

This study has two groups of student participants: first, students learning English who are referred to as "students" from now on and second, students who are learning to teach who are referred to as the "practicum students" or "trainee teachers" later on in the methodology and data analysis sections. The students and trainee teachers in this context are learning English in an environment where the exposure to English outside the classrooms is very limited and where the system of education is based on rote learning and is teacher-centred and examination-oriented (Al-Essa, 2009; Al-Sumbole et al., 1998).

Practicum Students' Educational Background

Most of the Saudi female students who are enrolled in the Languages and Translation Department (L&TD) at Girls' University (GU) in Medina must have an A grade point average (GPA) in their secondary schools diploma with greater emphasis on English. These students are hoping to join the teaching profession, teaching English as a subject at a public school or to have a job (in a bank or a hospital) that requires a mastery of the English language. These female students are required to study for four or five years, according to the new policy of GU, in order to graduate with a bachelor degree majoring in English. The college students do their pre-service practicum (trainee teachers) in their final year for a term, in public schools. Usually, they are divided into groups, with each group consisting of three or four students, sometimes more or less, depending on the public school's capacity in terms of size and need. Once the practicum students have been assigned a school, they are required to teach English as part of the schools' subject curriculum, after watching the regular teachers' performance in class. Moreover, supervisors, examiners and the public schools (intermediate or secondary) are assigned to the practicum students by the College of Education, Teaching Practicum Office, GU.

In chapter three I will review the relevant literature and previous studies on classroom interactions that have developed learners' second language acquisition.

Chapter 3 - Literature Review

Introduction

The concept which underlies the main focus of this study is that of the interaction between classroom input and output and the learner and its importance in language development. Section 3.1 presents an overview of current perceptions of second language acquisition and learning and a review of the literature on how classroom interactions have been shown to have a facilitative impact on second language learning.

Then, section 3.2 reviews and discusses various theories and previous research in the field in relation to the main focus of my study, which is how opportunities for learning spoken English as a foreign or second language are offered in classrooms. The section outlines some of the general and specific approaches, characteristics, and strategies that may involve benefits in the development of learners' oral language skills and that contribute to individuals' language development during classroom interaction.

Finally, section 3.3 brings together these two threads by explaining the theoretical framework of this study, which is premised on the need for integration of the cognitive perspective and the sociocultural perspective in order to investigate opportunities for learning foreign/second language oral English in classroom settings.

3.1. Second Language Acquisition and Learning Theories

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) was first established as a field of enquiry in the 1960s, based on knowledge from cognitive sciences, neuroscience, and social sciences. This mixture of backgrounds resulted in a number of debates and controversies about learning, learning a language and acquiring a language that are still current. As a result the second language acquisition field contains many perspectives, theories and research methodologies (Hulstijn, Young and Ortega, 2014; Atkinson, 2011b; Ellis, 2008, and Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). The theoretical framework of this thesis argues that this multiplicity and diversity of approaches for handling enquiry and debate enriches the field of SLA rather than weakening it (Hulstijn et al., 2014; Ellis, 2008; Zuengler & Miller, 2006).

The contrasting views on the major role of the mind in learning and language learning on the one hand, and on the other hand, the role of language in mediating language learning and cognition and the development of learners are the main bases for the theoretical framework of this dissertation. Thus, the following sections will present some discussion of the general concepts of learning and learning a language.

Learning Theories

Behaviourist Theories

Conditioning theories (behaviourist family) and interactionist theories (cognitive family) are the dominant broad theories of the twentieth century about learning. A major researcher in behaviourist theory was Skinner, whose theory positioned learning as an operant conditioning process concerned with a response to a stimulus. In operant conditioning theory the behaviour that is reinforced continues, while behaviour that is punished or not rewarded is finally stopped. When applied to education, the theory deemed that learners require an environment which gives them opportunities to respond properly to stimuli through the modeling of good behaviour for learning and the rewarding of positive responses that contribute to changing learners' behaviour. It is argued that all behaviour is learned (Skinner, 1953). That is to say, in an L2 classroom, a student's correct behaviour requires continual reinforcement to maintain it. For example, a teacher shows a picture of a house to the students and asks: 'What is this?' (stimulus). The student says: 'This is a house' (response). The teacher reinforces the behaviour by saying: 'Good'.

According to the behaviourist perspective, "language learning is just another branch of learning. ...the mind grasps grammatical forms in the same way it draws generalizations from all experience. Correct speech habits must therefore be developed in the same way as other behavioural patterns, through imitation and reinforcement (Crawford, 1995, p. 120)". Skinner argues that children acquire language or internalize a finite set of linguistic responses for all stimuli they will receive in life. In contrast, Chomsky, a highly influential theoretical linguist in our field, whose theories are briefly explained below, argues that the number of sentences in all languages is infinite. Thus, children master complex

syntactic structures in their first language rather than merely repeating limited set grammatical rules (Pinker, 1994; Crawford, 1995 and Atkinson, 2011a).

Cognitive Theories

The other dominant set of learning theories in the twentieth century is cognitive (rather than behaviorist) theories, which attempt to understand human behaviour by understanding the thought process through which we form our own sense of the world (Ellis, 2008). These theories place action, attention, and problem-solving at the centre of learning, view learning as a mental process and involve using the known to attain the unknown. Cognitivists view learners as computational systems and learning as information processing (Kinchin, 2007 and Atkinson, 2011 a). Thus behaviourist theories focus on individual behaviour and cognitive theories focus on individuals' thoughts. When these two theories are blended the perspective they follow is called cognitive-behaviourism. With the recent rapid development and growth of technology scientists can study and explore how human brains process memory, attention, emotion, patterning, care, and challenges. While learners are performing a learning task, this kind of technique will improve the learning efficiency inside the classroom by allowing teachers and learners to understand the brain process and the behavioural response toward the phenomena being studied. Research indicates that learners remember new information when they link it to what they already know and even make it meaningful. Also, the brain is designed to work-well in a challenged and competitive environment but is inhibited in stressful and threatening ones. Thus learning is increased by challenges and decreased in stressful situations

(Christison, 1999; Ellis, 2008).

Therefore it appears that cognitive theory puts more emphasis on active learners who discover their answers and solutions to a given problem by themselves through using their prior knowledge to attain to new knowledge, in order to make learning new information memorable and meaningful. When the task is relevant to their experience, learning should take place, because the task is meaningful to the learners.

Social theories

The section above stresses the role of the mind in learning processes and how important it is for learners to be active in their learning because learning takes place via interaction (Atkinson, 2011b). The social and mental roles of learning according to sociocultural theory (SCT) are equally important. SCT views learning not as development but as being socially constructed by what people say or do. Furthermore, properly organized and guided learning results in the kind of mental development process that cannot happen without learning. (Vygotsky, 1978). That is to say, Vygotsky places more emphasis on the learner and others (teacher/peer(s) working together as in cooperative dialogue for promoting cognitive development. Learning is also viewed by Vygotsky (1962 in Kinchin, 2007; Bruner, 1966 in Kinchin, 2007) as a process of gaining or changing insights (in the mind) and views by making meaning out of previously-learned facts. In other words, learners construct knowledge by connecting incoming facts to previously-acquired knowledge, and through this, learners make meaning.

Thus, brain-based teaching and learning helps us to understand how the brain learns best and helps language teachers understand how to help second language learners learn a second language quickly and efficiently (Christison, 1999). According to Christison and others, (Schmidt, 1990) this is important as language teachers need to pay attention to the cognitive elements of learning like attention, noticing, and memory as well as the affective side of learning with regards to emotions. Emotion plays an essential role in both attention and learning.

By examining learning according to the behaviourist, cognitive and sociocultural theories, particularly learning a second language in a classroom setting, one might infer that a learning process can be observed and studied externally through behaviour and internally in terms of mental process. In fact they are connected because the mental factors drive the behaviour. Therefore, when learning takes place it changes both the learners' behaviour and leads to their mental development. Both the behavioural changes and the higher mental developments need interaction with people and time to flourish and become manifest. L2 learning does not occur naturally, although part of it may relate to

innate ability. Learning a second language according to cognitive theory is possible because of the innate language mechanism that humans possess. According to Chomsky, 1990, all human languages are similar to one another and share a common set of grammatical principles. Chomsky identifies this as Universal Grammar (UG). The UG theory attributes the differences among languages to different vocabularies and the parametric settings of each language.

Despite what has been said about learning and education, there are some barriers that prevent learning competence manifestation. Thus in a language classroom it is important to create a natural situation for interaction that has a positive emotional experience in order to help students remember certain information, because we remember events when they have an emotional hook. Students may demonstrate different learning and personality styles in the way they remember information and build their new learning knowledge according to their previous knowledge and experience. They also need to be aware of and learn how to manage their emotions, such as motivation, need, anxiety, fear, violence and shyness, and the effect of such emotions on their L2 learning development when working alone or working with others (Christison, 1999; Ellis, 2008).

The above general understanding of the concepts of learning and language learning has provided the motivation for the investigation in this thesis of the practicality of applying the views of these learning theories to real classroom practices. Although many second language researchers do not agree on the specific approach needed for teaching a second language, many researchers and scholars on second language acquisition provide considerable evidence of the possibility, success, and sometimes the failure of learning a second language (Ellis, 2008; Zuengler & Miller, 2006). Learning English as a second or a foreign language from the different views of cognitive interactionist as the Krashen's input, Long's interaction, and Swain's output hypotheses, will be discussed next, but with primary concern for the interaction hypothesis, the emphasis of this thesis. I will explore this initially from a cognitive perspective and secondly from a sociocultural perspective.

3.1.1 The Cognitive Perspective

The term cognition or knowing refers to mental functions and mental processes. These processes include attention, memory, noticing, producing and understanding language and solving problems. Many disciplines such as psychology, sociology, linguistics, philosophy, and science have studied cognition. Leaving other possible disciplines aside, this current thesis highlights the cognitive perspective in learning, language learning, and learners' language development through discussing second language theories and research into classroom input, interaction, and output (Ellis, 2008; Kinchin, 2007; Lantolf, 2000).

3.1.1.1 The Input Hypothesis

In the early part of the twentieth century, the behaviourist theory views of language learning relied heavily on the input provided to learners. The important role of this input has not decreased over the years but it certainly has been developed (Gass, 2003). Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis emerged from the inadequacy of behaviourist models to account for the complexity involved in second language learning (Crawford, 1995). The input hypothesis claims that we acquire language in only one way - by understanding messages, or by receiving comprehensible input. We move from i , which stands for our current level, to $i+1$, which stands for the next level along the natural order by understanding input containing $i+1$. The Natural Order hypothesis claims that students subconsciously acquire rather than consciously learn the grammatical rules of a language in a predictable order; which means that some grammatical structures are acquired early and others later on. The input hypothesis stresses that the input for acquisition should not only focus on $i+1$ but needs to contain it. (Krashen, 1985, 1992, 1995). Moreover, the input hypothesis has two corollaries (Krashen, 1985, p. 2):

1. "Speaking is a result of acquisition and not its cause. Speech cannot be taught directly but emerges on its own as result of building competence via comprehensible input.
2. If input is understood, and there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided".

In these two corollaries Krashen places much emphasis on the brain acquiring a second language. His work is based on Chomsky's theory which views the brain as containing a Language Acquisition Device (LAD) that operates in the same way in all human beings and states that we as humans have an innate cognitive capacity for language that enables us to formulate linguistic rules from the verbal sounds we hear (Krashen, 1985; Crawford, 1995). Thus, according to Krashen's two corollaries, when L2 learners receive understandable messages contained in structures which are beyond their current language level $i+1$, whether in a vocabulary lesson or a reading lesson, their brain allows them to acquire rather than learn the language. Thus L2 teachers should focus on providing learners with understandable messages rather than grammar rules. Consequently, the learners' ability to speak in English as a foreign/ second language will emerge on its own over time as a result of building on understandable messages they received from the target language. Therefore, taking this to a logical conclusion, there is no need to learn/ teach how to speak in the target language. Moreover, the learners' brain automatically acquires the grammatical rules which are embedded in the comprehensible input in their natural order. This means that these learners do not need to learn the grammar rules or teachers do not need to teach those grammar rules directly in their natural order. Thus, teachers should expect that students' early speech will not be grammatically correct, because language takes time to emerge.

Although comprehensible input is necessary for language acquisition, it is not sufficient if the learners' affective filter is high. According to Krashen (1985, p.3) the affective filter is a metaphorical term "for a mental block that prevents acquirers from fully utilizing comprehensible input they receive for language acquisition. When it is up the acquirer may understand what he hears and reads, but the input will not reach their LAD. This occurs when the acquirer is unmotivated, lacking in self-confidence, or anxious." That is to say, L2 learners not only need to receive understandable language messages from their lesson input but also need to have a low affective filter, in order to acquire the target language.

By examining the concept of Krashen's input, the two corollaries and the low affective filter, one realizes it is focused on three elements-comprehensible input, the right quantity of input, the learner's openness to the input. These are the primary conditions under which learners can acquire language. That is to say, according to Krashen, highly motivated learners in a friendly classroom environment who are exposed to the right amount of comprehensible input containing $i+1$ will succeed in acquiring a second language. However the issue in classroom practice is not as simple as this. The direct questions which arise from this claim are how students' differences in learning and background knowledge, and their different personalities, and degree of motivation affect their second language acquisition/learning. In fact, Krashen acknowledges the differences and variations in humans in acquiring a second language, and suggests that these are differences on the surface but not deep down in the mental device for language acquisition which operates the same way in everybody (Chomsky, 1975 in Krashen, 1985). In addition, in the process of learning, teachers and learners acknowledge that practice is a key factor in enhancing productive skills to become fluent abilities in any learning activities such as driving a car, playing tennis and even acquiring language (Apple, 2006). That is to say, learners need to *use* language in order to master it, not only to be provided with comprehensible input.

A number of researchers (e.g. Gan, 2012; Limiting, 1990) have conducted studies based on classroom practices or real life events which present evidence that shows there is a limitation to these comprehensible input claims. It is known that language input (listening comprehension, reading, visual and image input) is essential for second language acquisition and has a positive effect on improving language proficiency, but this is not enough to promote acquisition of grammatical knowledge and most importantly the ability to speak English. Gan (2012) conducted a study to investigate perceived English speaking problems among students in their final year of a 4-year bachelor of education English language programme in a teacher training institution in Hong Kong. The results indicated that all the participants mentioned grammar (including inadequate learning of vocabulary, pronunciation, and intonation) as a stumbling block to their spoken English. They also mentioned having inadequate opportunities to

speak English in class. This point leads to the focus of this thesis which is speaking opportunities.

3.1.1.2 The Output Hypothesis

As it has been noted from the above discussion, the input hypothesis has limitations and it has been criticized by some scholars, mainly because although comprehensible input may play an important role in second language acquisition, comprehensible input is not in itself enough to ensure native-like performance. That is because understanding is not quite the same as acquiring (Swain, 1985). Swain, the originator of the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis is among those people who have developed and extended the comprehensible input hypothesis. Swain's (1985) very well-known research is based on observational studies of native and immersion speakers of English who were learning French as a second language. The focus of her research was finding relationships between input and output at the level of language proficiency by examining the grammatical, discourse and sociolinguistic competence. The data was collected from participants' oral productions by means of structured interviews and in written productions through tests. Swain found that although the immersion students had seven years of comprehensible input, they were weaker in their speaking and writing production than in their reading and listening comprehension. The student's grammatical performance was not equivalent to that of native-speaker performance.

However, the immersion students performed similarly to native speakers on language features which do not rely heavily on grammar realization, particularly those categories of sociolinguistic performance where formulaic politeness terms were used in daily classroom interaction. Swain argued that the immersion students did not demonstrate native-speaker oral production not because they have had limited comprehensible input but because their comprehensible output was limited. Also, the French that the immersion students used in class included little extended discourse and few opportunities for speaking, because the teachers did not push the students beyond their current level of interlanguage during their classroom interactions. The term

interlanguage refers to the systematic knowledge of an L2 which is separated from the learner's L1 and L2 (Ellis, 2008).

Thus, Swain stresses the importance of being pushed to express oneself, not just to be understood but beyond, to deliver a message "precisely, coherently and appropriately". Swain's idea of being pushed into output is a concept parallel to Krashen's $i+1$ of comprehensible input. Consequently, Swain developed her output hypothesis, arguing that comprehensible input is not a sufficient condition for second language acquisition and that it is only when input becomes intake that acquisition takes place. The term intake refers to the amount of input that learners notice and therefore take into short or long term memory (Ellis, 2008; Krashen, 1985; Swain 1985). Swain's idea being pushed into output may represent the cognitive claim that challenge enhances learning in a sense of allowing learners to go beyond their present level by being active in their learning process .

The output hypothesis claims that pushing students to produce output, whether through speaking, writing or using the target language in meaningful ways helps learners to improve their L2 language acquisition. Language production enables learners to move from semantic use of language to syntactic use. This is the trigger that forces learners to pay attention to notice their linguistic deficiencies (Schmidt, 1990) and to discover what they can and cannot do in their target language and this happens because their current message has not been understood. Therefore the output permits the learners to deliver their message correctly, coherently and appropriately, to be in control of their learning and take responsibility for solving their linguistic problems in a way that is appropriate in a given context by using their prior linguistic knowledge or stretching for new information (Swain, 2000, 1993, 1985). Also, noticing a problem can push learners into modifying their output or production in order to fill the gap between their own interlanguage and the target language. Thus, the output makes the learner notice, triggering a mental process that leads to a modified output (Swain & Lapkin, 1995).

The idea of comprehensible output faces some challenges with regard to its claim that output plays a role in developing second language learning. Krashen

(1998) argues that there is no direct evidence that comprehensible output leads to language acquisition and also that students do not enjoy being “pushed” to speak. Krashen (1994) found that second language learners can develop high levels of language and literacy competence without a need for output.

In addition a focus on output may not work well with some L2/FL learners, particularly beginners or less motivated students, because of fear and anxiety many learners do not like to perform in a foreign or second language, and when they are asked to perform, their responses may contain grammatical mistakes or they prefer not to respond at all. Ohata (2005) found that teacher’s efforts to ease students’ anxiety might not always converge with the students’ actual perceptions of fear and anxiety. In Saudi Arabia, it seems that many learners have high affective filter and out of shyness, embarrassment and or making mistakes they prefer not to speak English.

3.1.1.3 The Interaction Hypothesis

In the interaction hypothesis (Allwright, 1984) argues that classroom interaction might contribute to language development through the notion of negotiation and its relationship to the notion of interaction. Allwright points out that not all forms of classroom interaction promote language development. In fact, interaction should be seriously meaningful, about matters of serious concern to the learners, so that it leads to a serious attempt to communicate and negotiate meaning. This kind of interaction and negotiation does not only work to develop language learning but is also conducive to learner development. This could help learners learn how to learn, to manage their own learning and to create learning opportunities that fulfill their needs as a group, as well as their individual needs. This is what second language classroom interaction should achieve.

A learner’s output mainly occurs through teacher and learner(s) (T-L) or learner-to-learner interaction (L-L). For the last two decades SLA research has stressed the importance of L2 learning conversational interaction through interactional tasks during classroom activities among the students themselves, as well as group work, and role playing, as part of classroom input and output (Apple, 2006). Long’s Interaction Hypothesis (1996) stresses the role of comprehensible

input but also proposes that interactional adjustments can lead to comprehension. During negotiated interaction or negotiation for meaning where a more competent interlocutor provides more comprehensible input and when the learner's conscious focus is on the input received and on noticing the gap in his/her output, this process promotes acquisition. Learners acquire the target language through the negotiation of meaning and/ or through becoming aware of gaps in their knowledge of their target language. In this way, the interaction hypothesis views conversation not only as a medium of practice, but also as a means by which second language learning occurs. That is to say, the interaction between learners themselves and or teacher and learner(s) helps the learners to develop and to advance their target language input and output through modification checks.

There are many different types of interaction modification checks that can occur during authentic conversation, and these support learners in developing their second language learning. Examples of these are *confirmation checks*, where the learner immediately reacts to a sentence uttered by the other speaker and uses the target language to confirm that they have understood correctly; *comprehension checks*, when the learner asks a question of the other person during the conversation to affirm that they have understood the meaning of the other learner's sentence(s); and *clarification requests*, where the learner spots a word that he or she is unfamiliar with and asks for clarification or repetition of the word (s) or sentence (s) (Pica, 1989; Long, 1996). Furthermore, Long argues that while not every interaction promotes language acquisition, interaction which involves meaning negotiation and modification can only facilitate acquisition, and that simplified input and context and extra linguistic clues can make input comprehensible. Thus, comprehensible input allows learners to understand a message but not to acquire it while negotiation, modification, attention and noticing are the essential ingredients of interaction required for language acquisition to take place. (Swain, 1985; Long, 1983 in Ellis, 2008).

Interaction as a means of enhancing the learning of a second language is also supported by sociocultural theory. van Lier (2000) argues that an ecological approach to language learning sees language and learning as relationships

among learners and between learners and the environment. Interaction cannot be examined appropriately by separating its components into providers of input and those situations that include output. Instead, interaction should be studied in its totality by investigating learners' participation (as a whole) in their classroom in order to show the emergence of second language learning (Ellis, 2008; van Lier, 2000) and extended to outside classrooms in the real world with friends, restaurants (Atkinson, 2011b). In this thesis I investigate classroom interactions as a whole. The sociocultural perspective on second language acquisition and learning will be discussed next.

3.1.2 The Sociocultural Perspective

Sociocultural theory (SCT) originated in Vygotsky's work and that of his colleagues, and stresses the role of social interaction in learning and in the development of the cognition (Vygotsky, 1978). There are several reasons why it is appropriate to examine classroom learning by using a sociocultural perspective. Firstly, it focuses on the role of social interaction between learners in developing thought and learning. Secondly, the human mind is mediated, so that the teacher uses language as a symbolic tool to mediate language learning. Thirdly, the theory considers the social, cultural and historical context of the learners in the learning process (Ellis, 2008; Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

This is essential when considering foreign language learners, since there is limited exposure to linguistic input outside the classroom. Learners need more interaction with teachers or peers to use their L2 language in the classroom. Classroom interactional negotiation about meaning or form should start with the learners' current language level, and consider the learners' prior language knowledge in order to facilitate the acquisition of the new or unknown language knowledge through using the available physical and cultural artefacts. Physical materials such as textbooks, pictures, or computer and cultural artefacts require the ability (to use the target language) to ask question, to predict, to imagine or to memorize (Long, 1996; Lantolf, 2000).

There are a number of key factors that are related to learning and second language learning, on which sociocultural theory is based. The next 3 sections discuss the main principles that relate directly to this thesis: mediation, the zone of proximal development and scaffolding.

3.1.2.1 Mediation and L2 Learning

Mediation is a fundamental concept in Vygotskian sociocultural theory which argues that the human mind is mediated. That affects those humans who rely on various tools and activities in order to interact with the world and with other people, which indirectly causes the world to change (Lantolf, 2000, Vygotsky, 1987 in Ellis, 2008). Sociocultural theory argues that “human mental functioning is fundamentally a mediated process that is organized by cultural artefacts, activities, and concepts” (Ratner, 2002 in Lantolf, 2006; Lantolf 2011). Moreover, through these artefacts the culture influences the development of its own people. The three main cultural factors by which human psychological process are organized are: 1) activities which include education, medical systems, aesthetic creation, etc, 2) physical artefacts such as books, pens, hammers, computers and related technology, etc, and symbolic tools such as language, numbers, pictures, music and art, and 3) concepts which represent the understandings that societies or communities construct about the personal, physical, social and mental worlds, religion, etc. These cultural factors function as a unified system, and once they are appropriated by an individual, they mediate the relationships between individuals and between individuals and their physical and mental worlds (Ellis, 2008; Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

Sociocultural theory views language as a means of mediation or as a tool of the mind that contributes to cognitive development and is constitutive of thought. In L2 learning particularly, this view sees language as a mediator “buffer” between learners and their environment or their outside world. Language used as a mediator plays a major role in mediating meaning making and knowledge building (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Meaning making is not merely linguistic - it is also semiotic in this sense, in that it allows the L2 learners to use “words, gestures, and expressions of empathy to indicate appreciation, understanding, or the need for more elaboration” (van Lier, 2000, p. 252).

Mediation is a concept that is related to the term intersubjectivity which refers to a shared understanding among individuals (Wertsch, 1985 in Lantolf, 2006). Intersubjectivity is a major step in the process of internalization of concepts through negotiating meaning. Lantolf (2000) stated that intersubjectivity can be achieved when partners are equally committed in a conversation. This means when they understand each other communicative intentions are embedded in linguistic or nonlinguistic signs (Iddings & Jang, 2008). This may occur, for example, when a teacher shows pictures of a house and a flat to students. Then the teacher asks “Where do you live?” The student responds “In a house”. The teacher asks “Can you describe your house?” The student says “Four bed rooms, kitchen”. The teacher (repeats): In your house there are four bed rooms and a kitchen ... and asks: “In the future, what kind of a house would you like to live in?” The student answers: “Near the sea...” This means that both the teacher and the student have attained a level of intersubjectivity by creating a common understanding of the word “house” by using symbolic tools (pictures/ language) and cultural tools (prediction/question as to what kind of house) to mediate language learning. That is to say, in a language classroom intersubjectivity can be maintained between a teacher and learner(s) through interaction where learners learn to use linguistic symbols with regard to the teacher in the same way that the teacher intended to use them. Using this concept of intersubjectivity as a tool to mediate language acquisition or internalization does not happen at once or overnight but needs time, participation and others’ support to emerge in L2 classrooms. In this thesis I will explore how language mediates learning spoken English in FL classrooms.

3.1.2.2 Zone of Proximal Development

The second key concept in sociocultural theory that is essential to learning is Vygotsky’s zone of proximal development (ZPD). This concept refers to the limit to which a student can learn new knowledge with the assistance of an expert. This expert might be a teacher, or a peer(s) at the same level or a slightly higher level of competence than student. This expert acts as a mediator between the student and the (second/ foreign language) information s/he is trying to learn or acquire and helps the student to reach goals not attainable by

her/himself alone (Apple, 2006). Vygotsky's ZPD metaphor characterizes the student as an individual who has two levels of learning potential: the first potential is reachable by the student alone without the help and guidance of others and (is known as the intramental plane). The second potential that is reachable when it is supported and facilitated by the more competent others (the intermental plane) (Apple, 2006; Vygotsky, 1978). Thus, according to Vygotsky's views "learning creates the ZPD [while the ZPD is determined by the support of others]. Learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in cooperation with his peers. Once these processes are internalized, they become part of the child's independent developmental achievement" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 90). That is to say, in learning generally and in L2 learning particularly the emphasis should be on helping students reach their ZPD potential. The word potential, here, means existing in possibility not in actuality. According to sociocultural theory this can be achieved through talking or conducting dialogues with learners, especially through collaborative dialogue, where language learning is carried out through interaction by using input and pushed output (Swain, 2000).

3.1.2.3 Scaffolding

From the above discussion one can note that sociocultural theory stresses the roles played by others in learning in order to assist learners in bringing out their potential talents to the surface and reaching their higher levels of L2 development. This can only be achieved through the assistance of more expert others. Those others (a teacher or peer(s)) act as mediators to scaffold and support learners to participate, to use and to construct, from their shared knowledge, their own understanding of information through their second language learning process.

The concept of scaffolding, that is assisted performance where participants reflect on their own language output as they negotiate meaning, was first introduced in the late 1950s by Bruner. He used the term to describe young children's oral language acquisition. When children first start learning to speak, parents provide them with an instinctive structure for learning the language.

This occurs, when parents read bed-time stories aloud to their children. In the context of sociocultural theory, scaffolding, is seen in Vygotsky's work as being a zone of proximal development which emphasizes learning through talking or dialoguing with learners and through observing and imitating the words and expressions of peers (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Swain, 2000), although the term scaffolding was never actually used by Vygotsky. According to the SCT, scaffolding is a concept which refers to the support or assistance provided to learners to enable them to perform a task which is beyond their ability. In this respect it is related to the ZPD. In addition, it refers to a situation when the interaction occurs within a closed discourse between an expert and a novice as in Initiation, Response, Follow-up (IRF) or Initiation, Response, Evaluation (IRE) and in knowledge building. For example, this is a typical structure of dialogue when the learners and the teacher ask questions for confirmation checks, comprehension checks or clarification requests. This is done in order to move the learners from an assisted performance to an independent performance. Thus, L2 learners develop and construct new forms of understanding by elaborating on their prior or previous knowledge and experiences through mediated scaffolding dialogue with others who are more capable to reaching their ZPD level (Apple, 2006; Lantolf & Thorne 2006; Swain, 2000; Yu, 2004).

3.1.2.4 The Relationship between $i + 1$, ZPD and Scaffolding

It is worth mentioning that although the ZPD, scaffolding and Krashen's term $i+1$, share some common features, they do not mean the same thing. However, some researchers still treat them as the same (Ellis, 2008; Kinginger, 2002). The term metaphorical scaffolding refers to any support (such as teaching aids, pictures, drawings, Power Points presentations) given during an interactional-task performance by an expert to a novice with the aim of helping them comprehend and finish the task and when the teacher controls the student(s) participation (Kinger, 2002). This is not, however, what ZPD is about. The ZPD goal in an assistance performance or through a dialogic performance between an expert and a novice is to move the novice toward greater self-regulation and develop his or her possible potential through providing learners with interactive opportunities to use L2. The teacher or the mediator needs to recognise or discover the abilities that are in the ZPD of students, because for

example, as Lantolf phrases it, if a student “has no ZPD for the object of study, then the mediation is useless” (Lantolf, 2011, p. 31). This means that the teacher cannot expect a student who has limited speaking English skill to apply a given grammar rule immediately in his/ her speech regardless of how much negotiated mediation he/ she receives, because the student has not yet developed the speaking skill that enables him / her to utilize the target given grammar rule and generalize it to new more complex speaking events. Thus, it is important for the teacher to be aware of the student’s ZPD on the basis of the student’s responsiveness to mediation to move him / her to use it independently without the teacher’s assistance. But this does not indicate that the student will never apply the target grammar form in their future speech, perhaps later when the student’s speaking proficiency level progressed or when the student has ZPD for the object of study. The ZPD helps to achieve through collaborative mediation what a learner cannot yet achieve alone and the student can extend his or her comprehension ability to a higher level (Swain, 2000; Lantolf, 2011). Krashen’s term *i+1* focuses on a language acquisition device (LAD). This mental LAD operates in the same way among all learners; however SCT believes that the environment plays a major part in learner’s development thus, it challenges the existence of a natural syllabus. Therefore the *i+1* does not place much emphasis on learners’ ZPD differences in development within a task performance, but differences do exist among students. In contrast, SCT argues that development in the ZPD differs for different learners depending on the student’s ZPD and quality and quantity of external mediation negotiated with others (Lantolf, 2011).

3.2 Classroom Interaction & Opportunities for Speaking

This thesis investigates the opportunities provided to learners when they are learning to speak English in a classroom- in terms of input, output and interaction. It is clear from the discussion of a number of theories of language learning above that interaction plays an important role in the learning process of speaking in classrooms. The term “spoken English” in this thesis means using oral language rather than written language to mediate learning spoken English in L2/FL classrooms. It includes using oral English during classroom interaction, practice, participation, sharing information, exchanging of information and the

negotiation of meaning/form between a teacher and a learner (T-L) and or learner to learner (L-L) (Gass, 2003; Long, 1996). The term interaction is very commonly used within the field of second language acquisition and both the cognitive and the sociocultural perspectives acknowledge its major role in giving learners opportunities to participate in and to negotiate meaning in order to restructure current linguistic knowledge in a way that leads to learning a second language and developing the cognitive skills that are very necessary in learning. However, from the cognitive perspective the learner's interaction has separate components of input and output, while sociocultural theory views interaction as a whole as being necessary to examine students' participation in a classroom effectively as in the ZPD. This thesis also focuses more on the interaction concept in its totality in its investigation, because classroom interaction usually involves both input and output among T-L and L-L.

As has already been clarified, the interaction hypothesis argues that it is in the interactional modification or adjustment process that the second language emerges or acquisition takes place. This means that if the interaction process does not include gaps of knowledge or understanding which allow the learner to ask for clarification and the teacher then to modify the learner's utterance, the conditions for acquisition are not present. Also, not all forms of classroom interaction promote language development (Allwright, 1984). The interaction pattern implies that conducive learning should be meaningful, with a serious attempt to communicate and to negotiate meaning. (Allwright, 1984, 1985; Krashen, 1985; Long, 1996; Swain, 1985; van Lier, 2000).

The main focus of this study, then, is on exploring what kind of classroom interactions enhance or limit opportunities for learning L2 language. This section therefore reviews the literature on the life of classrooms and examines what is going in them in the sense of teacher-learner interaction in teacher-centered classrooms and learner-learner interaction in the learner-centered classroom.

3.2.1 T-L Interaction in Teacher-centered Classroom

Second/foreign classroom language learning usually takes place as face-to-face interaction in the form of T-L and L-L interactions together, but for the sake of emphasis they have been divided. Classroom interaction between a teacher and a student, where the teacher asks a question, a student responds and the teacher evaluates or follows up the student's response, is called Initiation, Response, Evaluation (IRE). This kind of interaction limits the learner's interaction to one turn and may reduce the opportunities for more learning. In contrast, the Initiation, Response, Follow-up 1 (IRF1) or Initiation, Response, Feedback 2 (IRF2) whether the feedback is positive, so there is no linguistic modification or negative, leading to negotiation and modification) are the kinds of interactions that extend the length of an interaction and permit learners to have more turns. In fact IRE, IRF1 and IRF2 create dynamic situations for language learning, facilitate learners' language acquisition and contribute to the construction of meaning/form through practice and "noticing" the gaps in the target language and repairing them. Their success or failure depends on the situation, content, and age of students and their levels of language proficiency. These factors have been explored in a number of studies of classroom interaction and language learning (Ellis, 2008; Philp & Tognini, 2009; Gass, 2003; Toohey, 2003, & Wong-Fillmore, 1985). Tognini (2007) for example, observed the T-L interaction in foreign language Italian and French classroom in primary and secondary schools in Australia. Tognini found that the IRF interaction between teacher and students involved non-corrective repetition, drilling and reinforcement. This type of interaction restricted students' output to one turn and reduced the communicative content of the interaction. In the following two sections I further discuss teacher learner interactions in terms of teacher's methodology and teacher's talk.

3.2.2 L2 Teaching Methodology

In traditional classrooms, L2 teachers were at the centre of the classroom and held most of the responsibilities, particularly when the teacher was the only one who spoke the target language in the classroom. In teacher-centered classrooms, teachers were busy each day covering the new materials and explaining assignments to students, leaving few opportunities for students to use the L2 in the classroom (Wong-Fillmore, 1985) teachers often planned and prepared a lesson in advance according to what to teach and how to teach and then created the environment and the artefacts (materials) that helped them to carry out their previously prepared lesson plans or syllabus. Those lesson plans had certain objectives such as ensuring that by the end of the lesson students would be able to understand certain discrete elements of vocabulary; (e.g. take, make, and break) or pronounce them through repetition, pattern drills and questioning IRF1/IRE. Then, students were asked to perform exercises such as filling-in, matching, true-false and multiple-choice inside the classroom or as homework assignments. That kind of lesson planning, which exists today in Saudi Arabia and elsewhere, is based on the assumption that, if some of the students seemed to know the meanings of the target vocabulary and were able to pronounce them, then the lesson would have been considered successful. Some teachers still have their lesson objective “set in cement” which means that those teachers stick to their lesson’s objectives literally, focus on lesson content and rules of grammar rather than language and ignore any opportunities for informal or nonacademic interactional conversation that might happen accidentally (Ellis, 2008; Brown, 1995; Swain & Lapkin, 1989).

This kind of teaching methodology meant that many teachers taught a language lesson in terms of subject content. Teachers focused on content embedded in the language-lesson and gave information rather than embodying the structure of the language. For example, a teacher’s main goal might be that by the end of the lesson, students had learned the date of the King’s death from a reading passage.

Teacher: When did the King die?

Student: 1949.

Thus, the answer appeared short and limited but correct from a content point of view and that of gaining information. In this case the teacher would never know whether the student could answer accurately by using the past tense such as by saying “The king died in 1949”.

In Saudi Arabia, most teaching methods reflect the previous points. Sharaf (1993) argues that the English language curriculum in Saudi secondary schools did not have activities that developed speaking skills but instead only emphasized the teaching of syntax and grammar. Therefore, the assessment of English emphasized students’ competence in dealing with language aspects rather than their performance in manipulating its skills (Al-Subahi, 1992).

Later, the above mentioned tradition of teaching and learning a L2 as subject shifted its goal to using the language for communication. Throughout the 1980s the communicative language teaching approach began to dominate teaching methodology, coursebooks and classrooms worldwide. This communicative language teaching aims mostly to develop communicative competence through constructing the objective of language teaching and to developing procedures for teaching listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Also, the communicative approach has shifted its focus from “learning to use the English to using English to learn it” (Howatt, 1984: p279 in Richards & Rogers, 1994). This means that within the communicative approach there is interaction between teacher and learners when using English to mediate their second language learning. Thus, the teacher’s talk plays a crucial role in determining the effectiveness of classroom interaction.

Teaching and learning an L2 or FL depends on preplanning a language lesson based on certain methods (e.g. the Oral Approach, The Audio lingual Method, Communicative Approach, Total physical Response, Suggestopedia). Methods provide different ways of teaching and learning; however there is considerable overlap in their theory and practice in language classrooms. Searching for the best method that can be used all the time is far from practical and removed from the reality of classrooms (Kumaravadivelu, 2005). Teaching and learning methods need to be able to cope with unpredictable situations and to meet the challenges and complexities that teachers confront in their everyday teaching

practices. Language teachers should teach according to their students' needs rather than focusing on valuable methods. Therefore, the concept of method has lost its significance as an effective construct in language teaching and learning because it discourages teachers from developing their own methods based on their everyday teaching practices. Thus, there is a need for post-method teacher education that helps them to develop the knowledge, skills and autonomy to understand how their teaching can lead to the desired learning (Kumaravadivelu, 2005; Kinchin, 2007).

3.2.3 Teacher's Talk

Classroom content as input plays a major role in learning a second or additional language. Classroom second language input is believed to have a positive effect on the development of learners' language proficiency (Duff & Polio, 1990; Ellis, 2008; Philp & Tognini, 2009; Krashen, 1985, 1995). The role of classroom language as input is particularly important in foreign language classroom contexts because there is usually limited or no exposure to the target language outside the classroom, leaving the classroom as the only place where learners encounter the L2. This is the case in the context of the present study, which deals with learning English in Saudi Arabia, a country which is not primarily English-speaking. Therefore, this point is a key factor in the importance of providing quality and quantity in the content of a foreign language classroom interaction. A number of researchers (Duff & Polio, 1990; Tang, 2011; Shamsipour & Allami, 2012) and others have studied classroom input in terms of the teacher's language, the amount of the input and the output being produced by second language learners, and the kind of interaction that such learners are given in the classroom.

Recent study has shown teacher's talk has a limited effect on L2 classroom interaction and it is not always the quantity or the "ratio" of teacher's talk that is the most important factor in enabling learners to comprehend input or to increase it. Teacher's richness of language differs considerably. Some teachers might have a high proficiency level but others have a low one. Some repeat the use of patterns while others do not and this may reflect their lesson organization

and instructions, training, beliefs, and pedagogy orientation (Philp & Toning, 2009).

Tang (2011) studied the lexical variation ratio of the speech of non-native (Chinese) teacher's talk and the percentage of words teachers used in different classroom contexts to determine the lexical richness in a foreign language classroom. She found that "the teacher's talk could not provide a rich lexical environment for incidental vocabulary acquisition in the foreign language classroom" (Tang, 2011, p. 52).

Teacher's talk through lesson instruction can be improved if teachers are trained to understand the important role of interactional adjustment in T-L and L-L interaction. Thus they can pay more attention to their teaching aims and pedagogic purposes in order to allow students to use the L2/FL learning environment. Shamsipour & Allami, (2012) investigated the ways in which teachers' talk can create opportunities for students to use English as a foreign language in class rooms and how the teacher's talk can lead to more students' involvement in an English foreign language context. Shamsipour and Allami chose three expert Iranian teachers with their students in three different classrooms to conduct their study. The participants were aged between 18 to 26, the level of English was intermediate and they had similar reasons for learning English. The study's focus was on increasing oral fluency. The study data were analyzed based on the interactional features within a proposed Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT) framework. The findings supported the importance of teacher's talk in the classroom in relation to their awareness of teaching aims and whether teachers should improve their talk to optimize learner's contributions to the FL classroom. In this thesis I will explore the teacher's talk in T-L and T-C interactions.

The above mentioned traditional view on preplanning a language lesson which would then be delivered to passive students has been viewed differently by Allwright (2005) who proposed abandoning the notion of teaching points that focused on lesson planned, mainly according to the teacher's point of view. Allwright's proposal calls for planning for learning opportunities, for richness of experience and for understanding of life in the classroom. He argues that a

lesson can be constructed jointly through the interaction among teacher and learners rather than being deliberately pre-planned by the teacher, which may not necessarily satisfy the learners' unique experience and their individual learning needs. In examining Allwright's (2005) idea of creating learning opportunities instead of teaching points by understanding of life in the classroom it may seem that his main focus in the process of learning is the focus on learners and their experience, which is also similar to the views addressed by the cognitive and sociocultural perspectives which were discussed earlier in terms of focusing on learners' experience, their current and prior knowledge, and pushing them in dialogue in order to involve them in their learning process by giving them the opportunities to discover their own meaning in learning for themselves. Rogers (1961, p: 276) states that: " I have come to feel that the only learning which significantly influences behaviour is self-discovered, self-appropriated learning... truth that has been personally appropriated and assimilated in experience, cannot be directly communicated to another".

Allwright (2005) argues that abandoning teaching points may be partially feasible or difficult to apply in second language classrooms, especially those with the following characteristics. First, in most language classrooms the curriculum is imposed on teachers to be delivered at a specific time, which makes it difficult to respond to learners' individual questions and different experiences. Secondly, learners may not possess the skills of asking questions, reflecting or thinking critically. Even if they do, they do not necessarily like to speak or argue in a second language, which makes it harder for the inexperienced teacher to engage learners in oral task participation. Thirdly, some teachers are not language teachers or are ill-prepared in the target language or learning theories to answer questions unrelated to their preplanned syllabus. This does not, however, suggest that Allwright's call for learning opportunities proposal should be abandoned. In Saudi Arabia, English teachers often planned and prepare a lesson in advance according to the pupil's book contents. This thesis will investigate whether the trainee teachers' teaching methodology focused on providing opportunities for students to speak English or focused on lesson content of gaining information in T-C, T-L and L-L classroom interactions.

3.2.4 Learner-Learner Interaction

Allwright's (2005) proposal for learning opportunities where teachers and learners create their learning together might be similar to learner-centered classrooms where the focus is on the learners rather than on the teachers (Ellis, 2008; Anton, 1999). The goal of a learner-centered classroom is to scaffold learning according to the learner's individual needs in order to connect his or her past, present and future knowledge and experience. The teacher's role in a learner-centered classroom is as a facilitator or negotiator in the interactive learning process. It is also the teacher's responsibility to create opportunities that are likely to promote using the target language, where the learner's role is to be a communicator and a negotiator. Students and teachers are thus actively engaged in negotiation of meaning and form as they have the opportunities to participate, express themselves and be responsible for their L2 learning development. Thus individualized instruction is most effective where students work in small groups as pairs or group under the teacher's guidance so that their progress can be checked within the ZPD (Apple, 2006; Cazden, 1998 in Toohey, 2003).

There has been much research into the areas of differences in quality of interaction. For example, Anton (1999) investigated learner-centered and teacher-centered language interaction by providing opportunities for negotiation and scaffolding within the ZPD in L2 classroom learning. He found that learner-centered discourse provided opportunities for negotiation of form, content and classroom rules of behaviour through negotiation moves such as guided questions, repetition and nonverbal devices such as pauses and gesturing. Shamsipour & Allami's (2012) findings are also in agreement with Anton's (1999) findings. As expected, these findings illuminate the differences between their findings and the traditional teacher-centered discourse which provided rare opportunities for negotiation and scaffolding within the ZPD.

3.2.5 Creating Opportunities for Speaking L2

Research reviewed in the previous section (Anton 1999; Shamsipour & Allami, 2012) along with Tognini (2007) reveal the significant role of interaction in learner-centered classrooms through the use of verbal language in learning a second language that was based on the role of negotiation and scaffolding in affording opportunities for learning a second or foreign language, according to the cognitive and sociocultural perspectives that are directly related to the investigation in the present study.

As has been noted earlier, learning occurs not only within the mind of the learner according to the cognitive perspective, but as the result of social interaction with teachers and classmates according to a sociocultural perspective. Thus, learning a language occurs through interaction with others. The traditional subject-content way of teaching language places more emphasis on memorizing vocabulary and grammar rules and less on learners using the language for negotiation through connecting prior language knowledge experience and current knowledge, particularly for foreign language context where learners do not have adequate exposure for practicing their FL. Therefore, cooperative learning techniques have been used in second classrooms to foster L2 learning through social interaction between learners working together with each other (Apple, 2006; Tognini, 2007; Anton, 1999).

The literature shows many features of effective scaffolding techniques which help language learners to produce the target language appropriately. For example, cooperative learning in L2 classroom activities requires that each student within a group has equal opportunities for learning, specific roles to play in a given task, and responsibilities during the group work (Apple, 2006). Moreover, these six features of scaffolding can be applied within a task in order to allow the students to pay attention to the task requirements within his or her ZPD:

1. Recruiting the learner's interest in the task.
2. Simplifying the task.
3. Maintaining the pursuit of the goal.

4. Establishing critical features and discrepancies between what has been produced and the ideal solution.
5. Controlling frustration during problem solving.
6. Demonstrating an idealized version of the act to be performed (Wood, Bruner and Ross, 1976 in Naashia, 2006).

Anton's (1999) study demonstrated that when learners and their teachers were engaged in negotiation of meaning and form using these six scaffolding behaviours, learners progressed in the ZPD.

3.2.6 Learning Interactional Strategy

It is not sufficient, however, just to place learners in small groups and ask them to speak in the target language, as this does not promote effective L2 learning nor develop the higher cognitive process that emerges as a result of interaction (Apple, 2006; Lantolf, 2000). When interaction breakdown happens during language tasks, learners in a monolingual context who share an L1 (as in this study where Arabic is the students' first language) do not ask for clarification or confirmation but instead rely on their L1 strategy or the translation from L1 to L2 to repair the misunderstandings or indeed ignore the misunderstanding to save face (Naughton, 2006).

Therefore, learners need to learn strategies for using oral language for communication and negotiation during task interactional performance where language use is more essential than language acquisition according to the sociocultural theory. (Apple, 2006; Swain 2000). Naughton (2006) carried out a study which focused on the effect of a cooperative strategy training programme on the patterns of interaction in a small group of students participating in an oral discussion task. The findings of the pre-test showed that students failed to engage in interaction patterns where negotiation moves have been identified as being important for acquisition. However, the post-test revealed, that the strategy training programme was largely successful in encouraging students to engage in interactional sequences and in negotiating situations in which breakdown arises during communication. Also, some learners in second/foreign language classrooms, especially in developing countries such as Saudi Arabia, do not possess the skill for negotiated interaction that promotes

language learning. This thesis will investigate whether students (in school) have the skills to negotiate and to engage in extended interactional communication.

3.2.7 Scaffolding as a Strategy for L2 Learning

Research reviewed in the previous section discussed that students need to learn strategy training to engage in negotiated interaction. Scaffolding as strategy is another technique that supports students to further develop their interaction when breakdown occurs. Second or foreign language teachers can scaffold their learners' language learning by applying guided instructions. According to Donato's definition of scaffolding (Donato, 1994 in Yu, 2004, p.8) there is a need to establish "a situation where a knowledgeable participant can create supportive conditions in which the novice can participate, and extend his or her current skills and knowledge to higher levels of competence". Moreover, L2 learning should be "dynamic, interactive, and a reciprocal ongoing progression in and beyond the classroom (Yu, 2004, p.10)".

Different studies (Swain, 2000; Liu & Zhao, 2004;) have reported the significant role of sociocultural theory perspectives on learning and second language learning through social interaction, mediation, scaffolding, and collaborative dialogue. Moreover, sociocultural theory stresses that learners learn a second language when it is mediated by others in the context of language learning, which is a prerequisite for internalizing language and understanding that language develops thinking (Ellis, 2008; Lantolf, 2000). For example, Lee (2008) examined how corrective feedback was negotiated through expert-to-novice collaborative efforts and scaffolding with thirty participants working on three different tasks. The tasks consisted of Jigsaw, spot-the difference and open-ended questions. The findings revealed that text chats supported the focus-on form procedure through collaborative engagement. The collaborative scaffolding within the zone of proximal development (ZPD) during the feedback negotiation was effective. There was little evidence that open-ended questions promoted L2 use in the scaffolding process, whereas the spot-the- differences promoted the use of the L1 for grammar explanations.

Also it has been observed that classroom L-L interaction using a rote-learned formula occurs in many foreign language classrooms in order to familiarize the

beginner FL learners with the structures of the new language. Developing many repertoires of formulaic politeness expressions such as phrases, statement or questions, and providing the opportunity for students to perform them for communicative purposes may lead to language development (Swain 1985; Wong-fillmore 1985). Tognini (2007) found that learner-learner tasks focusing on memorization and performance, such as model dialogues and role plays, were common in her study of primary and secondary foreign language classes. This result also has been found by Wray, 2002 in Philp & Tognini (2009).

Formulaic expressions are useful in formal lesson instruction in large group FL students. However, collaborative dialogue, whether in large group or individualized classroom instruction, can create opportunities for speaking in the L2 or FL. Collaborative dialogue is a “knowledge-building dialogue... It is where language use and language learning can co-occur. It is language use mediating language learning. It is cognitive activity and it is social activity” (Swain, 2000, p. 97). Among the many ways to learn, comprehensible classroom input through collaborative dialogue mediates joint language meaning making and knowledge building. This means that students’ collaborative dialogue through T-L and L-L interaction creates opportunities for using the target language orally through engaging with those others in knowledge building through negotiated and modified meaningful classroom discussions. Thus, those others (as speakers and hearers) scaffold or assist the students in mediating their second language learning by using the ZPD as a concept tool in order to reach goals which are not likely to be accomplished by the students alone. This has resulted in an emergence of the target language through output or what Swain (2000) calls a “collaborative dialogue.”

This thesis will investigate classroom learning practices by applying cognitive and sociocultural learning theories in order to find out how T-L and L-L interaction afford opportunities for learning to speak English as a foreign language in girls’ intermediate classrooms.

3.3 Theoretical Framework

The rationale for choosing the cognitive and sociocultural perspectives in SLA for this current thesis investigation is that: a) most of the educational learning syllabuses in Saudi Arabia are based upon the cognitive approach where great emphasis is put on learning by memorizing and little attention is given to learning through social interaction, problem-solving, content analysis and critical thinking (Al-Salem, 2009).; and b) the sociocultural perspective which places greater emphasis on the role of language in the development of the human mind through learners' interaction with their social and material environments is long known to SLA (Ellis, 2008; Lantolf, 2000; Zuengler & Miller, 2006), but its application is relatively new in Saudi education.

The effectiveness of integrating the cognitive and sociocultural perspectives in second language field has been debated and discussed in the literature. The following paragraphs will give a summary of this debate.

The field of second language acquisition has been dominated by cognitive views for a long time through their focus on the individual and the internalization of the mental process in second language learning (Ellis, 2008). In addition, Zuengler & Miller (2006) have pointed out that the important research which describes and explains the process of second language acquisition and which emerged in SLA from 1970-1990 and which was discussed by Larsen-Freeman in her article published in 1991, was cognitively based. Other researchers, such as Guiora (Guiora, 2005 in Zuengler & Miller, 2006) and Long and Doughty (2003 in Zuengler & Miller, 2006) stress that the future of second language acquisition lies in cognitive science and neuroscience, as a result of new technologies which make it possible to observe the explicit and the implicit functions of language learning even during performance. This view will bring more understanding of language acquisition with regard to the relationship between observed behaviour and their neurobiological functions. Others support the future of second language acquisition based on sociocultural theory in the SLA field (Lantolf, 2000; Swain, 1985; Toohey, 2003; van Lier, 2000).

However, the debates and discussions between the cognitive and the sociocultural perspectives in second language acquisition come from the different ontologies (which asks basic questions about the nature of reality) established by each paradigm. The cognitive perspective places emphasis on the individual, and on the implicit mental process of language acquisition/learning and development. In contrast, the sociocultural perspective places greater emphasis on the social world, learners' interaction, participation, and negotiation of meaning, and the effect of these on learning and language use as a product and process of learning. These ontological differences between cognitive and the sociocultural paradigms will persist because they arise from ontology and not only from concepts (Crotty, 1998; Ziegler & Miller, 2006). The second language acquisition field is criticized by Firth and Wagner (1997) for being heavily cognitive-oriented. In contrast, others (Hulstijn et al., 2014; Ellis, 2014) have supported the diversity and multidisciplinary of the second language acquisition field, and say that each perspective "tells half of a good story" (Zuengler & Miller, 2006; Dekeyser, 2014 and Lantolf, 2014).

Thus, as I have explained in the above discussion, I acknowledge the controversial nature of the cognitive and the sociocultural perspectives in the field of second language learning. This thesis investigates the opportunities that are afforded for learning English as a spoken foreign language in intermediate school classrooms. In spite of the controversies about the two perspectives, I have adopted them as a theoretical framework for my thesis for the following reasons: 1) It seems that there is no gap between the cognitive and the sociocultural perspectives in L2 learning and teaching as language learning is social and all learning is cognitive (Hulstijn et al., 2014). They are similar in emphasizing the importance of cognition in developing thought, learning, and language learning. Language learning is a change in an individual's internal mental state in the same way that learning is a change in behaviour. 2) Both perspectives use the mind in order to understand language acquisition and development. 3) The two perspectives are similar in that they see interaction with others as facilitating learning, and that language learning, and particularly speaking, depends on an individual's interactional motivations to take social risks to develop independent learning skills. 4) However, the perspectives are different in how much emphasis is given to the individual alone, or to the

individual and others, in the learning process. The two perspectives are different in the use of terms as acquisitions where emphasis is placed on the students' minds in memorizing and internalizing information in L2 and in participation where students interact actively in using the language with others. (Apple, 2006; Ellis, 2008; Kinchin, 2007; Lantolf, 2000; Zuengler & Miller, 2006).

Thus, the integration of sociocultural theory into the field of second language acquisition research, with the cognitive perspective, will enrich and enhance the learning of spoken English and also the development of the learners. Bridging methodological approaches can make research stronger and their findings more grounded (Bigelow, 2014). Having said all of this, the classroom as the social context of this thesis is a better environment for exploring and examining the effectiveness of the integration of these two perspectives.

In chapter four I will explain the study's ontology and epistemology, methodology, methods and procedures adopted to investigate speaking opportunities that are provided in classrooms.

Chapter 4 – Methodology

The purpose of this study is to investigate learning English in dynamic foreign language classrooms by exploring the types of opportunities for speaking English that are afforded to learners in public intermediate classrooms. This chapter will first elucidate my ontological and epistemological understandings that guide the approach for this research investigation. Second, this chapter will illustrate how I established my research questions within the interpretive paradigm and the methodology designed to explore the topic. Third, I will describe and justify the three research methods used to collect the data for answering the research questions, explain the procedures of gathering the data and the methods of analysing them. Finally, ethical issues and limitations of the research are discussed.

4.1 Research Ontology and Epistemology

Ontology is the science or study of being and it is concerned with what reality is and with the structure and nature of our beliefs about reality. Epistemology deals with the nature of knowledge, how we know what we know. Thus our beliefs about the meaning of reality or truth not only affect our research but also other aspects of our lives (Crotty, 1998; Richards, 2003). The best way to understand our own belief positions and to convince others about them is by conducting research that demonstrates their value and worth (Richards, 2003). In order for a researcher(s) to conduct research he or she has to commit himself or herself explicitly to a particular paradigm. Working within a paradigm increases the reality of the research's knowledge claims (Sandberg, 2005).

4.2 Research Paradigm

In educational research textbooks, the term paradigm has a range of definitions, but it is generally understood to represent a world view of beliefs, knowledge, and assumptions that function as a research framework. In educational research there are three major distinctive paradigms. The positivist or postpositivist paradigm aims at finding the absolute knowledge about an objective reality. It seeks to generalise or approximate its findings. The interpretive or constructivist paradigm seeks to understand the researched phenomena from a subjective reality. Finally, the transformative or critical

paradigm seeks to emancipate and reform the pre-existing system of knowledge in certain societies or cultures. Each paradigm has its own assumptions of ontology, epistemology, methodology and methods. However, some educational researchers combine particular types of design, methods of data collection and analysis by drawing on more than one paradigm (as the interpretive and critical paradigms), thus hoping to provide a better understanding of a phenomenon under investigation (Richards, 2003; Ellis & Barkuizen, 2005; Cohen et al., 2007).

The research paradigm that guides this study reflects my ontological view of what reality is and my epistemological view of how knowledge is created. In the context of this research, I believe that the world has many realities and that as human beings we create our knowledge from our interaction with the social world around us. Thus, there are as many different realities as there are individuals. Therefore, meaning is created subjectively, differently and uniquely according to each individual's prior knowledge and experience within his or her culture and environment. Crotty (1998) refers to this knowledge as that which exists within our mind rather than existing apart from our consciousness. Knowledge is culturally derived and historically situated. All of this reveals how I am working under the interpretive paradigm that holds the view that reality is subjective and differs from one person to another. Reality emerges when consciousness engages with objects 'that are already pregnant with meaning' (Crotty, 1998). The interpretive paradigm is concerned with understanding the constructed knowledge through the lived experience of reality rather than discovering the objective knowable reality beyond the human mind and generalising its outcomes, as proposed by the positivist paradigm (Sandberg, 2005; Denzin, Lincoln & Giardina, 2006).

In second language (L2) learning, I view a classroom as an environment or a social setting where interactions with others (a teacher and student(s)) play a major role in constructing and developing L2 teaching/ learning experiences and social realities that are constantly changing according to second language acquisition theories (SLA), shaped by the policy of the curriculum and by teachers' or students' own language teaching/learning experiences. I adopt a mix of two theoretical frameworks to support the producing of knowledge in this

study. The first is, the cognitive interactionist perspective and the second one is the sociocultural perspective as discussed in section 3.3. These perspectives and my own beliefs state that learners learn best when constructing knowledge by connecting incoming or new facts to previously acquired knowledge and experiences, and by using a second or foreign language as a means of interacting with each other and with the world around them; it is through these experiences that learners make meaning of their learning resulting in their L2 language growth. Thus, this research framework is informed by constructionism. Individuals create their own meaning of reality through their interaction with the world (Crotty, 1998; Kinchin, 2007; Ellis, 2008).

In the context of this study's paradigm my aim is to achieve research knowledge or findings through the investigation of classroom practices. In order to understand and explore the lived experience of the phenomenon of how classroom interactions and trainee teachers' practices and activities afford opportunities for students to speak English, I rely upon the trainee teachers' perceptions and views of meaning making through their individual communicative and practical experiences of providing students with opportunities to enable them to speak English. The participants' perspectives and the interpretation of data collected from classroom practices contribute to the construction of knowledge for this study. Thus, the findings of this research are based on the subjective reality and subjective epistemology, methodology and methods of the interpretive approach.

My intention for this research is to offer well-informed knowledge through my understanding and interpretations of classrooms' interaction in a particular context. Therefore, the interpretive paradigm is appropriate for my research because it allows me to observe and explore the classroom as a social setting. It also allows me to talk with the participants in an effort to understand how the language classroom interaction practices offer opportunities for learners to speak English in these particular intermediate foreign language classrooms, with these particular trainee teachers and their students, and within their particular classrooms.

4.3 Research Methodology

Methodology is “the strategy, plan of action process or design lying behind the choice and use of particular methods and linking the choice and the use of methods to the desired outcomes” (Crotty, 1998, p. 3). In this study I applied an exploratory methodology within an interpretive paradigm using three complementary methods for data collection and analysis. Using multiple methods for collecting and analysing data helped me to interpret the data from different perspectives. This increases the reliability of findings and decreases its subjectivity. Moreover, it means that I do not have a theory to confirm but, rather, I am open to exploring what was happening in the classrooms. I am interested in how the classroom practices and activities encourage students to learn to speak English. The exploratory methodology allows me to work within the study’s interpretative paradigm. The investigation is guided by the broad research questions and literature framework that I have developed for this research but is not limited to them. The choice of methods within the interpretative approach allows me to elicit the trainee teachers’ opinions on their practices and activities in order to support my exploratory methodology. It enables me to observe and describe the students’ interaction with their trainee teacher in their classrooms. It allows me to examine the participants’ textbooks and lesson preparation notebooks to understand their impact on the participants’ teaching and learning L2.

My decision to use a variety of methods is in order to gain multiple perspectives on the phenomena and to eliminate the limitations that one single method might have. In addition, using a combination of methods allows me to share my experience with the participants as part of the process of knowledge construction rather than only submitting my personal views. Finally, the subjective construction of knowledge that represents my ontological and epistemological stances, the design of the exploratory methodology, and the choice of different methods for qualitative data collection are aligned with this study’s interpretive paradigm. This approach will help me to better understand particular classroom lesson practices, the interactions that provide opportunities for students to learn to speak English and to provide well-informed findings.

4.4 Research Aims and Questions

The aim of this research was to explore the language classroom interaction practices at different intermediate schools, in order to investigate opportunities for learners to speak English, the target language in this study. The research questions were broad in an effort to aid data collection and explore the classroom as a social learning environment based on Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis, Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis, and Swain's (1985) output hypothesis.

1. What do the trainee teachers say about their own practices for providing speaking opportunities in their classroom at two different public intermediate schools in Medina?
2. What activities do the trainee teachers provide in order to encourage teacher-learner interaction and learner-learner interaction?
3. How do learners respond to the opportunities provided by the trainee teachers to speak in teacher-learner and learner-learner interactions in the classroom?

4.5 Data collection methods

Methods are the techniques or procedures used to gather and analyse data related to particular research questions or to describing phenomena. (Crotty, 1998; Cohen et al., 2007). This research was informed by an interpretive approach that depended on the trainee teachers' points of view and the data from classroom observations, the interpretation of which focused on understanding the classroom practices and activities that offered opportunities for students to learn to speak English.

The design of this research is based upon collecting qualitative exploratory data about classroom interactions and activities using semi structured interviews, semi structured observations (appendix I) and analysis of some parts of pupil's book and teacher's preparation notebook as follows:

1. Pre-lesson interview I
2. Observation of the lesson
3. Post-lesson interview II
4. Document analysis of teachers' lesson plans and pupils' book

The methods mentioned above were chosen because they complement each other in the collection of data aimed at answering the study's three different, yet related, research questions. Also, the observation and interview methods allow me to answer the same research questions using three different methods to provide different perspectives, leading to good, robust, reliable data and greater depth of interpretation.

The first research question was answered using the three sources of data. First, the pre-and post-interviews were designed to elicit data from each trainee teacher on her perspectives on her lesson plans and their focus. Second, the observation allowed me to see what was supposed to be going on in the lesson from the teacher's perspective and what actually happened (two perspectives). Third, the teacher's preparation book and the pupil's book provided contextualised data from which to situate the analysis and interpretation of physical artefacts that mediate L2 learning. These books enabled me to see if they encouraged or reinforced interaction and dialogue and provided opportunities for speaking English or whether they constrained the trainee

teacher's lesson performance. Observation of the lessons helped me to answer research questions two and three. Therefore, the data collection methods complemented each other yet differed in the type of data collected and in the focus on generating data, both during the data collection stage and the analysis stage as shown next in table 4.

Data Collection Sets	Research Questions
Pre-and post-interviews	RQ1
Observation of the lessons	RQ1,RQ2 and RQ3
Documents (pupil's books, trainee teachers' notes, and field notes).	RQ1, RQ2, and RQ3

Table 4 Data sets for answering each research question

4.5.1 Interviews

The first method for gathering data was by interview. Interviews are part of our lives and a research interview is one among many types. In qualitative research interviews are not a matter of collecting facts but rather of seeking understandings of complex phenomena through establishing relationships with participants that enable a researcher to share in their perceptions of the world (Richards, 2003). Interpretive research depends on the intersubjective meaning and understanding where knowledge is viewed as socially constructed between people. As a tool for collecting data, the interview enables the interviewer and the interviewee to discuss their interpretations of the world in which they live and to express their views on certain issues and events. Interviews allow the interviewer to collect data on what he or she seeks to understand in the research by asking about the participants' perceptions of a specific subject and events from different angles: verbal responses, non-verbal, spoken and heard and facial expressions etc. A research interview is different from everyday conversations: it has a specific purpose, situation and is often question-based (Richards, 2003; Fred & Perry, 2005; Cohen et al., 2007).

Interview techniques can range from highly or tightly-structured to semi-structured or open structured. Tightly-structured interviews require only a predetermined set of questions and these are rarely used in qualitative research. The semi-structured interview has a set of predetermined questions but the interviewer is flexible and can add additional questions as needed. The open structured interview has a general plan and is not tied to predetermined questions (Richards, 2003 and Fred & Perry, 2005). In order to expand and deepen my understanding of classroom practices, focuses and interactions that provide opportunities for students to speak English, I used semi structured and open ended questions (exploratory interview) to collect data from the trainee teachers both before and after the observed lesson. A semi structured interview is usually used for a specific purpose and its procedure is often designed in advance. On the one hand, this means that the research purpose and questions govern the interviewer's questions and the interviewees' responses. On the other hand, the open ended questions allowed me to flexibly probe and to ask more in depth questions, to clear up some information, to ask for further questions or to allow the trainee teachers to reflect on their previous lesson practices and on their current teaching practicum. As this research is informed by constructionism, this process, particularly in interview II, allowed me and the trainee teachers to construct our knowledge of lesson interaction intersubjectively in order to identify the opportunities for students to learn to speak English.

I used the interview in conjunction with the observation method to obtain deeper responses and multiple data from different sources (Cohen et al., 2007). The difference between semi structured observation and semi structured interviews is that in the former, data are collected as they occur without probing questions but allow the researcher to be personally involved with the data collection, whereas in the latter, these are personal interactions, in this case with trainee teachers commenting on the interviewer's classroom observations. An interview allowed me to have respondent validation (member validation) which means going back to the trainee teachers and asking them if I had missed anything or if I needed more clarification or verification (Cohen et al., 2007). Thus, the interview allowed me to generate knowledge and elicit information from the trainee teachers by interacting with them as a means of giving them the

opportunities to express and to reflect upon their opinions about their lesson plans and classroom activities (Richards, 2003 and Fred & Perry, 2005). The interview method allowed me to collect data to answer the first research question.

The interview responses were tape recorded to enable me to repeatedly review the data for different analyses, to avoid bias, and to prevent the loss of data (Fred & Perry, 2005). However, further to the above discussion of the strengths of the interview method, it also has some limitations. Interviewing is time consuming for both the researcher and the participants, it requires great attention and focus on the issue under investigation, and it does not offer anonymity for participants as a questionnaire may do. Thus some participants avoid conducting interviews (Richards, 2003 and Cohen et al., 2007).

4.5.1.1 Design of the pre-lesson interview (interview I)

I arranged to collect data from the trainee teachers in interviews prior to the observation of a lesson. This was done to allow the trainee teachers to express their own point of view on foreign language teaching and learning and on delivering their language lesson. In addition, the interview allowed me to ask each teacher about their lesson plans, objectives, focuses, how they would teach, what they would teach and why (see appendix A for the questions). I developed the questions to be broad and open-ended to enable me to explore and for flexibility. This procedure of eliciting information from each trainee teacher helped me during the lesson observation to better understand the lesson process/organisation from the teacher points of view and to compare that with what actually happened during classroom interaction.

4.5.1.2 Design of the post-lesson interview (interview II)

The purpose of interview, I conducted after each lesson performance, was to reflect on interview I and on the lesson performance, to identify parts which needed further exploration, to clarify segments from the lesson that I did not understand, to give the teachers a chance to reflect on their own presentation and interpretations of the lesson and to express their opinions about their teaching practicum, physical artefacts and their perception of how classroom interactions encourage learning to speak English (see Appendix B for a full list of questions).

4.5.2 Observations

Observation was the second tool that was used for collecting the study data. Observation as an instrument for collecting data is widely used in both qualitative and quantitative research. Classroom observations can provide live, intriguing insights into the nature of language lesson practices and activities for understanding L2 learning more clearly than simply identifying them with abstract theories, rules or principles (Cohen et al., 2007). Lesson observations enabled me to gather data on learning how to speak English as it happens in a real and natural learning environment.

In terms of the ability to vary from highly structured to unstructured observations, different types of observation methods have almost the same characteristics as the interview methods mentioned earlier (Cohen et al, 2007). I chose the semi structured observation which means I observed the trainee teachers' lessons with the research questions in mind and recording the data from the participants in their natural classroom settings using pencil and paper to take notes. The lessons were also audio recorded. The semi structured observation allowed me to focus on events related to the purpose of my study and its questions yet gave me flexibility for understanding the teaching and learning practices and any unexpected events that emerged. The semi structured observation enabled me to observe lesson practices, to describe pedagogical situations, to write down the classroom interactions, to reflect on the classroom interactions, and to offer an illuminative analysis on the kinds of lesson organisation, instructions, questions and activities that were given to

Saudi female students to encourage them to speak English (Richards, 2003; Fred & Perry, 2005).

Data were collected from the observations and recording of eight complete lessons. The observation of eight lessons was sufficient for this study and allowed me to look at the classroom foreign language practices as extended discourse rather than discrete isolated instances of spoken English (Patton, 1999). The semi structured observation in these dynamic foreign language classrooms enabled me to explore and focus on the specific kinds of data needed to answer a particular research question, what types of activities and interactions afforded opportunities for learners to learn to speak English, and the interactions between teacher and learner(s) or between learner and learner. Thus, the semi-structured observation allowed me to mainly answer the second research question. I observed the lesson practices to find out how the activities encourage students to speak English. The activities allow students to speak English, when they are connected to the core lesson objectives, lesson plans, and textbooks exercises or when they are connected to the students' social experiences, interest, spontaneous responses, and scaffolded questions whether from the teacher or from peers. I observed this through teacher-learner interaction and learner- learner interaction. According to the literature (Swain, 1985; Long, 1996), the kinds of practices that would create opportunities for learning to speak English would be through students' engagement in interactional tasks, interactional adjustment, and collaborative dialogue (which involves negotiated interaction, confirmation checks, modification checks and teacher scaffolding students). Within the literature framework of this research it might also be possible to find other opportunities.

In addition, the observation guided me in answering the first research question by focusing on the trainee teacher's lesson plans, observing what actually happened in the classroom, how this related to what the trainee teacher said (during the earlier interview) before the lesson observation, and how it relates to L2 learning and acquisition theories.

In order to transcribe and analyse the observations, all eight lesson observations were tape recorded and included some of the students' responses during their classroom interaction and participation. This made it possible to ascertain the types of students' responses to the trainee teachers' instructions, questions and during teacher-classroom interaction, teacher-learner interaction, learner-learner interaction and group interaction. These types of responses included, but were not limited to, interactional negotiation about meaning/form, interactional modification, or adjustment processes, limited interaction, opened/closed responses (Krashen, 1985; Swain, 1985 and Long, 1996). These data recorded during the lesson observation of students responses, were transcribed and used to answer the third research question. The observation of the students when responding to their trainee teachers questions together with their responses strengthened and provided a fuller picture for the analysis of the specific types and characteristics of the students' responses within the study's framework of language learning/ acquisition theories. This was undertaken to deepen my understanding of each response within the whole lesson process.

4.5.3 Documents

The third source for data was by using each trainee teacher's preparation notebook and pupil's book (only for the observed lessons) as physical artefacts that mediate L2 learning. I analysed these documents to gather contextualised data from them. These documents enabled me to see how the lesson objectives and how the coursebooks' content reinforced teacher-learner interactions, dialogue and provided opportunities for speaking English and how they put constraints on the trainee teacher's lesson performance and students' responses during classroom interactions.

The three sources of data collection were appropriate for this study because they fall within the study's interpretative paradigm and they complement each other in eliciting divergent accounts of the whole picture of the study's investigation.

4.6 Participants

The first step for selecting participants for this study began when I visited the Denary of Higher Education at Girls' University (GU) (pseudonym) and obtained an official consent letter addressed to the College of Education at GU, to facilitate my thesis work. This allowed me access to information regarding the teaching practicum. Once I had completed the Ethical Approval Forms (see Appendix L) for Exeter University and obtained permission from the School's Ethics Committee to start collecting data, I revisited the College of Education, Teaching Practicum Office at GU, in order for them to provide me with the names of the practicum students and the names of their school for the spring-second term of the academic year of 2013-2014. I also obtained the official date of the teaching practicum which started on Sunday, 16 February, 2014 and ended on Saturday, 10 May, 2014.

The process for selecting study participants began when I sent a message through two of the practicum students from a list provided to announce that I needed study participants who were taking their practicum teaching and who I would not be teaching during that term. I received five responses. I chose two participants for these two reasons. The first reason was that they met the first main requirement of the study in that they were undertaking their teaching practicum during the second term of the academic year of 2013-2014 and they were in their final year of studying. The second reason was that I had not previously taught them. This was important because I wanted my relationship with them to be strictly that between a researcher and a participant without any of the pressure of marks, evaluation or instructor's authority. I wanted them to be at ease in performing the lessons and to feel free to express themselves about their lesson plans and teaching pedagogy.

There were also two secondary reasons for selecting these two participants. These were the location of the schools and the type of school to which the participants had been assigned for their teaching practicum. The schools' location mattered to me because I wanted them to be in residential buildings in the central area of Medina in order to have students from a variety of backgrounds: rich, middle, poor, Saudi and non-Saudi. The type of the school was also important because I wanted to record the lesson presentations and to

be assured that the classroom observations would be carried out as smoothly as possible. I therefore needed a school with small classrooms, so the choice of residential-building schools was better for my study than purpose-built schools because the latter usually have large classrooms with many students that might affect the sound quality of recordings.

4.6.1 Trainee teachers

The teacher participants were two trainee teachers from GU, Department of Languages and Translation in their final Spring term of their college study and Arabic was their first language. Data from the eight interviews revealed the following personal information.

Sarah (pseudonym) is a 23 year old Saudi woman. She is married and has two children: a nine month old and a four-year old. She lives with her mother because her husband works outside Medina. After her expected graduation, this term, she will join him. Living with her mother makes it easier for her to continue her education whilst being married, particularly during this term when she is studying for 21 hours each week including her teaching practicum. She told me that the university permits her to have 21 hours as a special case, because she is expected to graduate and according to the university's regulations students are not allowed to take more than 19 hours per term. In her teaching practicum, the school principal assigned her to teach three different classes from first year level. The first year classroom that I observed for this current study was good in terms of participation, as Sarah had suggested.

Lilly (pseudonym) is a twenty five-year old Saudi woman, who is married with two children. She leaves her children with her mother when she attends her college classes and teaching practicum. During the data collection term she was undertaking fourteen hours of study including her teaching practicum. In her teaching practicum, she was assigned to teach two classes from the third year level and she considered the class which I observed for this study as a weak class in terms of students' participation. However, she wanted me to observe it in order that I, as a representative for GU, could see the real teaching of English in a school and could help to solve this problem of weak students.

4.6.2 Students

The students were from two different intermediate schools in Medina city. The total number of students from the first year (seventh grade) class was 11 and for the third year it was 17. From the questions addressed to students (appendix J), their answers revealed that ten first year students were aged 13 and one was 12 years old. In the third year (ninth grade), 9 students were 15 years old, 5 students were 16 years old, 2 students were 17 years old and one student was 18 years old. All students had studied English for one year in sixth grade in elementary school. This means that at the time of the study, the first year students were studying English for a second academic year whereas the third year students were studying English for a fourth academic year. Both the first year students and the third year students were taking English as a compulsory subject four times each week; each class lasts for 45 minutes and they had a compulsory Pupil's Book and a work book assigned by the Ministry of Education. The majority of the students were Saudis but there were also Syrian and Mauritian students, and all the students spoke Arabic as their first language.

4.7 Procedures

My approach to data collection was guided by the study interpretive paradigm and by the research questions. The procedures for data collection were as described below. First, I describe the piloting of the instruments, then explain the data collection procedures.

4.7.1 Piloting

In order for the data collection instrument of the study to be effective and reliable, I piloted the observation and the interview to help me to understand what each method could accomplish in real life language classroom observations, in terms of eliciting information from participants and their strengths and limitations. For the pilot study, I observed and interviewed seven trainee teachers.

As a supervisor, I was assigned to supervise three groups which consisted of seven students in their teaching practicum. Self-observational data gathering made me aware of several factors, such as who was speaking to who, the trainee teacher's verbal or written language displayed, and the students' facial expressions and gestures while learning English, producing English words or responding to a given question(s). Using this process, I was able to make immediate interpretations whilst continuing to note the data. In addition, I interviewed the same practicum students using the semi structured interview. I asked them about their perceptions of their teaching practicum experience.

Piloting this study's methods, allowed me to identify and overcome the limitations of the unrecorded classroom observations and interviews. From this I learned that in order to obtain rigorous and large data sets, I needed to audio record lesson presentations and interviews to obtain rich authentic data that I can review at any time.

4.7.2 Data collection arrangements

After receiving Ethical Approval Forms and official consent from the Higher Education Office to proceed with the data collection, I telephoned the two trainee teachers, one of them on Friday, 7th March 2014 and the second on Sunday, 9th March 2014. During these telephone calls I introduced myself and arranged for the initial meeting.

4.7.2.1 Initial Meeting with the Participants

The purpose of the initial meeting with the two types of participants was to gather preliminary information and to give them the consent letters to sign. First, I arranged to meet the trainee teachers to review and discuss the data collection process using interviews and lesson observations. I wanted to gather background information about the nature of the trainee teachers teaching practicum (at what grade level they taught, how did the methodology course prepare them for teaching, and when did they take the methodology subject?), and also to agree the kind of lessons that would to be observed. Second, I wanted to arrange with the trainee teachers to meet the students to tell them about the research, to collect information about their age, when they first

learned English and to give them a consent letter to review with their parents that was to be signed if they agree to participate in the research.

4.7.2.2 Initial school visits

On Tuesday, 11 March 2014 at 10 am I visited the first trainee teacher at the Third (pseudonym) intermediate school (Saudi girls' schools are named by numbers). I met the school principal and I gave her the consent letter from the Higher Education Office to prove that I was from GU together with the letter from Exeter University (see Appendix L) which explained my research purpose and the confidentiality of the gathered data.

I asked the principal about the status of English teaching in the school. The principal informed me that the school was in urgent need of the trainee teachers to teach English because one of the school's regular teachers was ill and continually absent and the other was pregnant. She said: "that she asked the Ministry of Education to provide her with regular teachers but they had denied her request and told her that they would send trainee teachers instead." Thus the trainee teachers were assigned the full responsibility for the second-year (eighth grade) and the third-year levels but the first-year level (seventh grade) would be taught by the regular school teachers because as the principal said: the regular school teacher wants to teach all the first-year level in order to establish a good basic foundation of English for the students to be in the same level of proficiency when they go to the second-year level. This problem was caused because some of the students were introduced at fourth grade and others at sixth grade.

I was unable to meet the trainee teacher although the principal phoned her and sent for her but no one was able to reach her. On Friday, 14 March, I telephoned her again to arrange for another meeting. We arranged to meet at GU on Sunday, March 16 at 12:30 pm. We met and discussed the purpose of the research, the classes she taught and matters such as the recording of the interviews and the lesson presentations. I gave her the consent letter to read and to return along with the given form of the questions (Appendix M & J) for

gathering information about the students' ages and level of school they were had first studied English.

On March 11, I visited the First school (pseudonym) at 12: 05 pm. The principal was absent and I met the deputy and gave her the GU and EU consent letters for the principal to sign.

I then met the second trainee teacher and gave her the ethics and consent letters to read and sign. I asked for her permission to record the interviews and the lessons. She initially, refused for religious and cultural reasons (a woman's voice should not be heard by non-relative males). I then assured her that no one would hear her voice except me and that it would only be used for the research purposes. She then agreed. I also gave her the consent letters (Appendix M) for her students to give them to their parents and to sign before beginning the classroom observation.

4.7.2.3 School Conditions in the study

When I first visited both schools I was given a tour at my request. Both schools were in residential buildings of four stories, the First school has four flats (one on each floor) and the Third school has eight flats (two on each floor). Most of the classrooms were empty of any educational posters but the halls and the stairs had educational posters similar to others schools in the state, (see 2.8 for more details). The total number of students in each school was: the First School had two hundred and twelve students and the Third School had two hundred and twenty nine students. Both schools were ill equipped; they did not have libraries in the real sense with only a few mainly religious books in one corner of the study-room. All the teachers shared one computer for lesson presentations. I visited some of classes to gain an ideas of where to sit for the classroom observations in order to familiarise myself with each classroom layout, classroom organisation and how to use the tape-recorder. A more detailed description of the each classroom that I observed will be provided after the section on Post-interview II (4.7.10) in order to get an overall picture of the classroom description and lesson presentation environment.

After I collected the consent letters from the principals, trainee teachers and their students, I formally began my interviews and observations on 18 March, 2014. However, with the trainee teacher at the Third School, we agreed to delay her classroom observations until the end of the March, mid-term holiday, because she said: “I need more time to practice teaching the students”. I respected her wishes.

4.7.3 Data collection

The combined data collection methods represent the study’s interpretive approach. I planned the data collection process with several sets of interview-observation-interview for each trainee teacher. The total number of interviews was eight and for observations was four for each teacher. In addition, I planned to use documents (pupil’s book, trainee teacher’s preparation notebook and field notes) to gather contextualised data from them as shown in the following diagram.

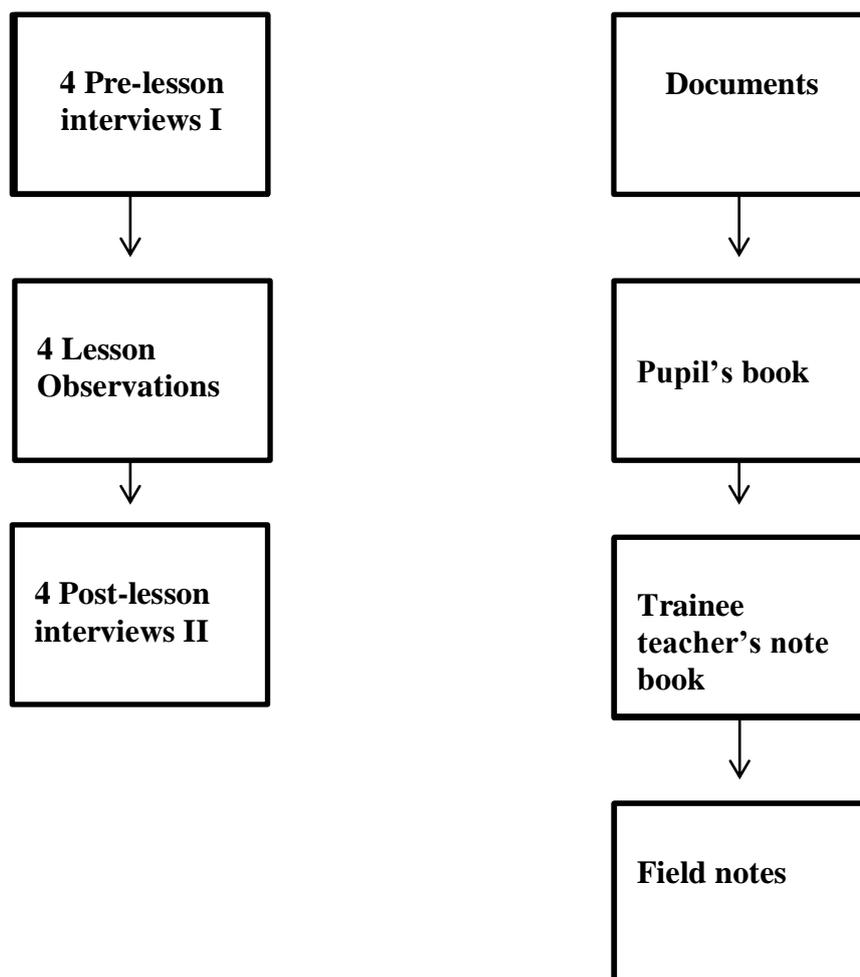


Figure 2, shows the process used for data collection.

4.7.3.1 Interview I: pre-lesson

I interviewed each teacher and recorded the interviews before the lesson presentation using any available space in the schools (such as the principal's office, practicum students' room, economics room, and in a hall). The interviews were conducted in Arabic and English but mostly in Arabic. The interviews lasted for about 8 to 10 minutes. The total number of interviews at this stage was eight, four for each teacher. During the interviews I had the pupil's book and the teacher's lesson preparation notes with me in order to focus and to follow the teachers' lesson plan. During these interviews, I mostly asked the teacher about the lesson that she would teach after the interview. I asked the trainee teachers about lesson plans, lesson objectives, their goals, their main points of lesson teaching, and about activities that would help students to speak English.

4.7.3.2 Observation

Following these interviews, I observed and recorded each teacher in her classroom with each observation lasting for 45 minutes. There were 4 rounds of interview-observation, resulting in a total of 8 observations. I observed what the teacher and students said and did in teacher-learner interaction (T-L) and learner-learner interaction (L-L), and practices and activities at two different intermediate levels: the first year and the third year.

The classroom observations began on 18 March, 2014 and ended on 27 April, 2014. All the observations took place in the morning at the regular school time. I chose Tuesday for observation in the First School and Sunday for observation in the Third School as shown in the tables in appendix I.

After each interview and before the lesson began, I entered the classroom immediately after each trainee teacher. I greeted the whole class and, sat at the back of the room where I could clearly see and hear the teacher and the students in order to observe classroom interactions and record the lesson presentation from beginning to end. The small size of the classrooms was an advantage for me in that it made it possible for the small tape recorder to record whatever the teacher said and asked, as well the students' responses. During and after each interview and lesson presentation I checked the recorder to

make sure it was recording and when I returned home I downloaded the recorded material onto two computers. Recording the eight lesson presentations allowed me to focus more on the observation of classroom interactions and on the utterances produced by the teacher and her students during the lesson instruction and activities. I observed and wrote down notes on what the teachers wrote on the board as well as some of the students' responses, particularly during group work where I put the recorder in one group and also observed another group's interaction, (see Appendix I) for a sample observation sheet. At the end of each lesson, I thanked the teacher and the students for giving me the opportunities to observe their class.

During each lesson observation I wrote a descriptive note and at the end of observation and wrote a reflective note for more details (see section 4.8.4). After each school visit, I added more emphasis to my descriptive and reflective notes and prepared follow-up interview questions as I reviewed the recorded data from lesson presentations, teachers' interviews and classroom observations. All of this enabled me to collect deep, rich data that helped me to interpret how and what kind of classroom interactions, practices and activities allowed or hindered students to speak English.

4.7.3.3 Interview II: post-lesson

After each lesson I interviewed each teacher outside the classroom for about 30-45 minutes and discussed her performance. Most of these interviews were conducted mostly in Arabic but contained English vocabulary and expressions. This mixture of L1 and L2 was related to the participants' preferences in order to allow them the freedom to express themselves in the most comfortable possible way. After each lesson I asked each teacher to reflect on her practice and to explain her teaching points. Such as, how did she view her lesson performance and the students' interactions?, (appendix A). We discussed what activities had helped the students to participate and to speak English. We also discussed the reason for giving an activity and the reason for omitting some of the lesson segments, which they had planned to do and had told me, in interview I, that they were doing.

4.8 Description of the research context

A) First-year classroom description

The classroom that I observed, once a week for four times was the first-year (seven-grade) students. The students take all subjects in this class including English, except for drawing and economics. This first-year class is located on the third floor with twelve students in a room 3. 60 x 4. 40= 15.84 sq m. There is a small window with no curtain but the glass blocks the outside yet allows the sun's rays and day light to enter the classroom. There is a window air conditioner located in the corner on the same wall as the window. The air conditioner cools the classroom and its sound is relatively low permitting the students to hear the teacher's voice clearly. There are twelve desks and chairs, divided into two desks in each row; six desks are on the left side of the classroom and the other six desks on the right rendering the middle of the classroom empty allowing for movement for both the students to get in and out and for the teacher to check or support the student's work. The students sit facing the white board. The colour of the classroom is white and the walls are empty without any educational posters, except for a small picture size A3 hanging next to the white board. The picture is about health and environment and appeared to be from the students' work.

B) Third-year class description

The class of the third year (grade nine) is not much different from the first year despite the fact that it is located in another intermediate school in a different neighbourhood. This residential intermediate school is located in the centre of Medina. The third-year class is located in the entrance of the flat in the third floor in a space is 3. 91x 4.20= 16. 422 sq m. There are eighteen desks and chairs divided into two rows on the right and left side of the classroom leaving the middle vacant for easy movement. The classroom walls are empty from any educational posters except for a very small poster hanging on the wall over the top-middle of the white board, written with different adjectives that represent some of God's names such as: the Forgiveness, the Merciful. The classroom has a small shaded window that blocks the outside view and the sun's light but not its heat. The window air conditioner does not cool the classroom. One day during my lesson observation the weather was so hot, even though it was not

summer yet, that Lilly turned on the ceiling fan but because of its loud noise and vibration, which made it seem as though it would fall from the ceiling, she turned it off, preferring to conduct the lesson in the heat rather than to put on the fan. This, in my view, affected the teaching conditions in a negative way. The third-year students take most of their subjects and all four of the English periods throughout the week in this class.

4.9 Data Analysis

The analysis of the data collected reflects the design of the study's exploratory methodology; mixed methods of qualitative data collection and analysis are aligned together to fit this study's interpretive paradigm. The analysis of the recorded data from the trainee teachers' interviews I and II, lesson presentations, my classroom observation notes, and the pupils lesson book contents, is explained as follows.

4.9.1 Transcription and Translation Processes

Talk is designed to be heard, not read, therefore one should listen carefully and repeatedly to recorded data before transcribing and translating them (Richards, 2003; Fersch, 2013).

I listened to the recorded interviews data repeatedly for a long time before starting the transcription and translation processes. I listened to the recorded data after each interview to check if the recorder had recorded the whole interview effectively. Then, I downloaded each interview and lesson presentation from the recorder to two different laptops and I listened to check whether the sound was clear or not. Also, during the time of collecting the data and checking process, I listened to the recorded data to get a sense of the whole interviews and sometimes for no clear purpose in my mind other than the joy of hearing the conversation and the lesson presentations.

a) Transcription

When the time of transcription came, I was already familiar with the content of the recorded data of interviews and lesson presentations and had a sense of the most important and interesting data that might be interesting for analysis. I began to transcribe the data manually, first the interviews data and then the lesson presentations. The recorded data were a mixture of Arabic and English. I transcribed my questions and the teacher responses verbatim as I heard them in Arabic or in English and then I translated them (Appendix C, a translation of interview I). At the beginning of transcription, I focused on transcribing the content of the conversation; words and sentences more than punctuation marks, participants' laughter and pauses, high and low intonations. Then, at a later stage of analysis, I realised that I needed to pay more attention to the tone of voice; where to put a period, a comma, a question mark and to add details or explanation to the transcribed data. This means that I added nonverbal communication signs in order to bring life to the written words or transcripts (Cohen et al., 2007).

I came across some challenges while transcribing the recorded data, interviews and lesson presentations. Transcribing words without the dynamic of the situations or nonverbal communication signs such as the facial expressions, tone of the voice or atmosphere of the place certainly affects the interpretation and reading the transcription of data. However, I overcame this challenge by adding descriptions or explanations later to the transcripts where I felt they needed the nonverbal communications. For example, when Lilly presented the grammar lesson entitled Reported Speech, the recorded data transcription as I transcribed it first did not seem to capture the whole picture because it did not include the nonverbal signs of the original data as it happened at that original time. The following two transcripts of Lilly's same talk illustrate how adding punctuation can make a difference in reading and interpreting transcripts.

Transcription A without symbols

441 T: The last one number four
442 St1: She wants to know
443 T: If
444 St1: If you if I
445 T: No no you changes to what
446 St1: If I hear clearly
447 T: If I hear and me changes to her or him ok thank you

Transcription B with punctuations

441 T: The last one, number four.
442 St1: She wants to know
443 T: If
444 St1: If you, [pauses] if I
445 T: No, no, **you** changes to what?
446 St1: If I hear [pauses] clearly.
447 T: If I hear, and **me** changes to **her** or **him**. Ok, thank you.

Adding the right punctuation such as a comma and a period in line 441 would describe that the teacher Lilly was identifying and making sure what sentence the student should solve. The pauses in lines 444 and 446 showed that the student was hesitant to answer or did not know the right answer. In line 445 the commas show that Lilly was trying to elicit the correct answer from the student by scaffolding her to arrive to it on her own. Thus, transcription symbols help us to read and understand who is speaking to whom and what the relationships are between each turn and the whole excerpt.

This other example is from the first year teacher. Sarah said: “Yesterday” addressing the whole class. Without adding a question mark the transcribed word “Yesterday” could have an ambiguous interpretation but adding the question mark; “Yesterday?” shows ,that it was a question using intonation, clearly that Sarah was asking the students what day was yesterday. Thus, the way of transcribing the same recorded data can differ from person to person; even the same person transcribing the same data but at a different time may affect the understanding and interpretation of the data.

b) Translation

In cross-language research, researchers need to be aware that language differences may promote loss of meanings in translation. Translation is an act of interpretation of meanings. Qualitative research seeks to study meanings in subjective experiences. This ensures interpretation of meaning and translation are core process of qualitative research (van Nes, Abma, Jonsson & Deeg, 2010).

I translated the Arabic transcripts of the recorded interview data into English while listening in the first phase of collecting data and after listening, in a later phase of analysis, I was aware that I should keep the translated transcripts close to the original words in the source language, as recommended in the literature (van Nes et al., 2010; Fersch, 2013). I listened to the recorded interview data eight to ten times checking for preciseness in writing down the transcripts. I read the transcripts repeatedly to get an overall sense of the data and some general ideas of what the teachers were saying. This process made me aware of how to translate each word and sentence without losing the meanings that the teachers expressed in the interviews. I think the translation of the interviews did not affect the original meaning that the teachers wanted to address for many reasons. First, I read about conducting interviews and writing down transcripts in SLA. I am aware that words in transcripts are abstracted from time and space and from the dynamics of the interviews and situations therefore they are not necessarily an exact representation as they were in the social setting of the interview. (Richards, 2003; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2008). However, since I was the one who conducted the interviews and observed the lessons, this gave me considerable insight into the lesson objectives and the words that the teachers use to deliver the lessons and to express themselves. Thus, the translated transcript process was not difficult in terms of comprehending the concepts and the contexts of the data translation. This means that I had established fore-meanings about the translated transcripts according to the hermeneutic approach (Fersch, 2013). The hermeneutic method means interpretation and understanding. The hermeneutic approach in cross-language interviews, acknowledges that the researcher brings his or her own experiences and fore-meanings to the interpretation process (Crotty, 1998; Fersch, 2013).

I simplified the questions and asked them in English and followed in Arabic to ensure the teachers' comprehension of each question. Third, during the first and the second interviews I had the pupil's book with me and used it as a reference to check their initial intentions such as when I asked the third-year teacher: 'Do the students know how to say this in English?' "the line is busy" while pointing to the sentence in the pupil's book. Finally, sometimes, I provided the English word (s) to the teachers to ensure their understanding of it in English either during the ongoing interview or during the following interview after I listened to and thought about the previous interview at home and I did not understand or was not sure how to translate a concept the way the teacher's meant it. An example of this process is with the words *participation* and *interaction*. These teachers used the word participation to explain the students' being active in the class and to answer the teacher's questions. When I asked them: "How do you encourage students' interaction in the class?" while listening to the recorded data I realised that I needed to ask the teachers again in order to find out what they understood by the words participation and interaction. This, enabled me to notice that the teachers' intention was participation and that they were unaware of the meaning of the words interaction or negotiation for meaning as it is used in the field of learning English. This process of translating a word in the first interpretation phase and changing to a more appropriate one in the later interpretation phase of analysis after *thinking and reflecting* on it, is similar to the challenges of translation process that are discussed in van Nes et al., (2010). Van Nes and others, gave an example from a study with ageing couples to discuss the challenges that may arise when translating to English in qualitative research. The given example illustrated how the multi-national team discussed the challenges they faced during early translation. They translated the Dutch *wandelen* to walking according to several dictionaries. But later during the final phase of analysis, they realised that the activity *wandelen* includes the intrinsic enjoyment of the activity and enjoying nature. Therefore, they changed the translation of *wandelen* to going for a walk because it seemed more appropriate to present the meaning expressed by the couple in their study. Similarly in my study I first translated the word participation as interaction before realising that the teachers were actually referring to participation. So I changed the translation to participation and not interaction.

Moreover, in this study, the teachers used mostly the Arabic language to express themselves, particularly during the second interviews. However, they used some English during the first interview, which was mostly about the linguistic content of each lesson presentation, when they provided the new vocabulary of each lesson. From all of this, I believe that translating the interview data according to the hermeneutical approach to multi-language research was an effective process because it gave me the chance to think and reflect on words and concepts and provide rich descriptions of meanings which are considered to contribute to trustworthiness in my qualitative study as suggested by (Richards, (2003) and Braun and Clarke,(2006).

4.9.2 Interview Coding Structures

The analysis of teachers' interview transcripts sought to identify their beliefs about interaction, helping students to speak English, lesson plan objectives and their views about specific events and issues of interaction that occurred in their classes. I examined each trainee teacher's interview transcripts more than eight times. I coded and categorised each trainee teacher's discourse about the concept and type of interaction and the opportunities for speaking English. Then I explored the connections between their discourses, their lesson transcripts and the study framework in order to help me to create a more complete picture of the investigated classes. The following describes the interview coding structures.

4.9.2.1 The First Level Code

The first phase of data analysis started when I listened to each trainee teacher's recorded interviews before and after each lesson presentation repeatedly in order to transcribe them manually, to check the accuracy of the translation of the typed scripts and to get more insight into and more understanding of how the original meaning expressed by the teachers transferred into transcripts. Sometimes I just listened to the interviews and followed the transcripts for more understanding. Then I broadly coded the transcripts that I felt held information for analysis. The first coding was into two major categories: demographic data and teacher perception data. The first of these was the data that held personal information such as age, hours of studying, children and educational and teaching training challenges. The second category of data gave information about the teacher's perception on teaching and learning English and providing opportunities to encourage students to speak English, interaction, participation, using L1, group work and educational information.

4.9.2.2 The Second Level Code

In the second phase I narrowed my selections of coding transcripts which held information for analysis to my research framework as shown in figure 2, which is based on the cognitive and the sociocultural perspectives exploring input, interaction and output; (as reviewed in chapter 3.3). At this point, I decided to add the nonverbal communication signs to the typed transcripts, and more explanations and read them repeatedly to check their accuracy; this process was not linear but rather was circular.

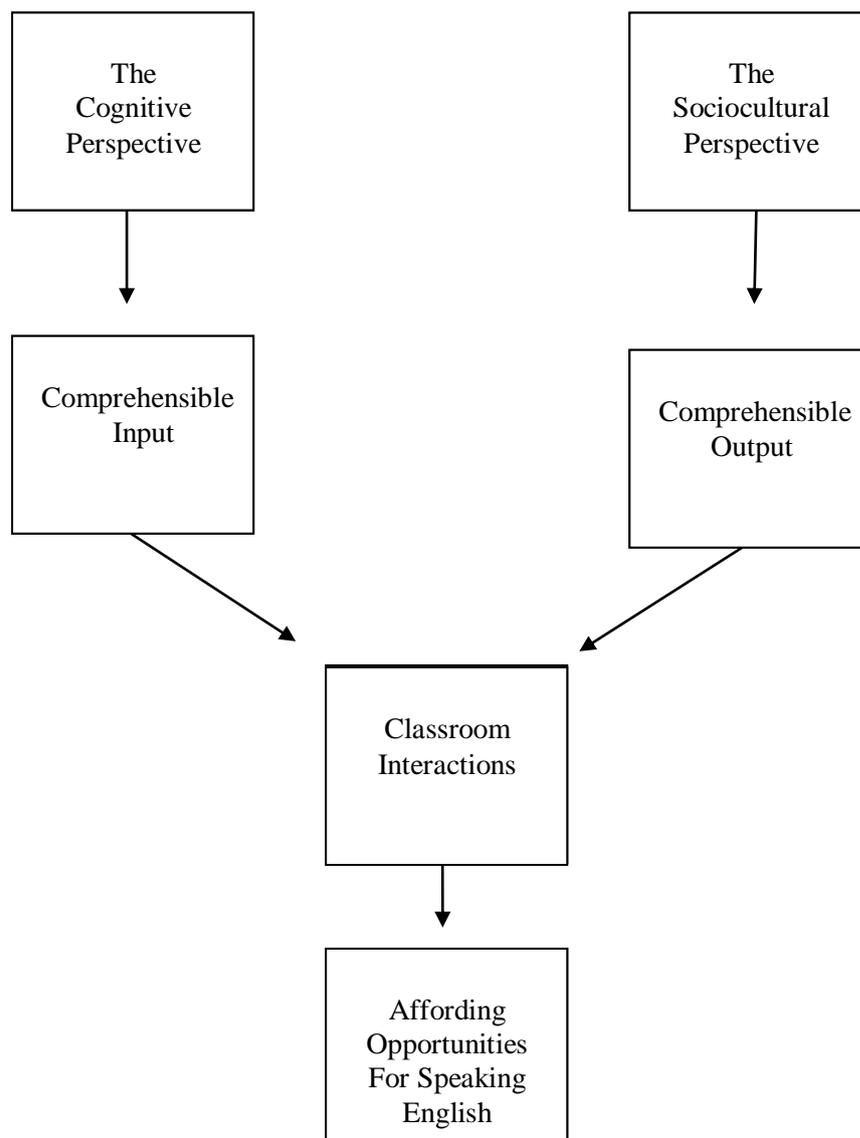


Figure 3, the theoretical framework for the classroom interactions and affording opportunities for students to speak English

4.9.2.3 The Third Level Code

At this level I used axial coding and discourse analysis (Richards, 2003; Fred & Perry, 2005; Cohen et al., 2007). This level was the longest one because I went back to the recorded data and manual transcripts in order to check for accuracy and whether to include more or exclude data for analysis. After I typed the manually transcribed interview data, I read them carefully, sentence by sentence. Then, based on discourse analysis (Richards, 2003) I started the initial coding analysis by analysing sentences and paragraphs that contained responses to the main questions that presented the teachers' points of view and decided to manually code them under headings related but not limited to the research questions and research framework of input, interaction and output. For example, I coded all the answers for each question and gave them headings as shown next in Table 5.

Example of Interview II transcripts from Sarah	Coding
<p><i>How to help students to speak English?</i> ...Students should collect a lot of words. It is not necessarily that students speak in English...</p> <p><i>How do you encourage students' interaction in the class?</i> Asking students questions help them to participate and get involved in the lesson.</p> <p><i>Why did you explain parts of the lesson in English and Arabic?</i> I use Arabic so that students can understand...</p> <p><i>How do you think the students learn to speak English?</i> Group work helps students to understand from each other.</p>	<p>Emphasis given to 'words collection' / not speaking</p> <p>Providing opportunities to students to speak English through Q&A</p> <p>Using the L1</p> <p>Educational information</p> <p>L-L interaction, learning from others</p>

Table 5 Interview Initial Coding, third level code

After the initial coding of interviews I and II data of each teacher, I grouped all the answers together for a particular question by cutting and pasting in order to collect all the different approaches which presented each teacher's points of view and perception to help the students to speak English. I had a completely new organisation for the data that differed from the raw data as a result of relating and interpreting them to theories of my research framework. I looked at this new organization and regrouped and recoded them under headings guided by the research questions and research framework input, interaction and output in order to understand the types of classroom interactions that provide opportunities for students to speak English. For example, I re-grouped together all the teacher discourses about participation, group work, one word sentences, teacher's facing challenges, activities based / not based on the pupil's book, teacher's method of teaching and teacher's acknowledging students' needs, and sometimes I modified the headings and commented on them. The following Table 6 Interviews Categorisation and Coding illustrates how.

Teacher's perceptions on teaching and learning English were grouped together under one question and a heading

<p>What are the lesson objectives? I want to focus on the days of the week and what students do in these days of the week. Students listen and repeat the days of the week. I will focus on healthy food and unhealthy food. On grammar: always, usually, sometimes, never, cup, glasses, water.. I will focus on these words: language, nationality, capital. These words are important in students' life. (Sarah, Interview I)</p> <p><i>How do you think the students learn to speak English?</i> By group work because it helps students to work and to know if her answer is wrong or correct from the group. Participation helps students to build sentences in English because students learn better from each other than from the teacher; they can explain amongst themselves what the task is about. (Sarah, Interview II)</p> <p>Why did you explain parts of the lesson in English and Arabic? I translate to Arabic so that the students could</p>	<p>Learning English through words collection</p> <p>Group work and participation</p> <p>Learning English from each other</p> <p>The use of L1 for</p>
---	---

<p>understand.</p> <p>How did the methodology course help you in teaching? I do not have a specific approach to follow. I teach according to the pupil's book. I plan the lesson according to the pupil's book. No teacher's book.</p> <p>Do you think speaking English in the classroom helps students to learn to speak in English? The students are afraid to make mistakes. The students don't mind you being there just they are afraid that if they make mistake and you record them.</p> <p>But we learn from our mistakes. I enjoy teaching the students the time by using a real clock because they participate and interact with each other, one asks and the other answers. (Sarah, Interview II)</p> <p><i>What do you want them to know in English as an English language?</i></p> <p>Healthy eating and unhealthy eating. Another things I want her to know the name of the words in the food pyramid, carps, protein and calcium. As carps gives us energy. Calcium gives us strong pones. (Lilly, Interview I)</p> <p>What are the lesson's objectives? This lesson[# 3] is an old one, they should not put it in the unit. There is nothing to teach about it. I gave it to another class and it finished in ten minutes. It is not that important to teach the students how to make a phone call, to call in order to check the time; now we can check the time from our cell phones. This lesson is meaningless. Teaching students how to make and what to say in a phone call is as to teach them how to greet. This is nonsense.</p> <p>Do you think the students can make a phone call in English? Say the line is busy or there is no reply...</p>	<p>comprehension Teacher's dependence on the pupil's book</p> <p>Fear of making mistakes</p> <p>Learning from making mistakes Physical artefacts enhance learning</p> <p>Learning English through words and phrases</p> <p>Teaching English as a subject matter and not as a language Providing information</p>
--	---

<p>No, these are difficult vocabulary for the students to learn.</p> <p>Do you think the students know the content of the lesson in English?</p> <p>No, they don't know it in English... I like myself as a teacher but not as an English teacher. I get confused, I speak a lot of Arabic and I get mad at myself. I do not like this. But frankly, in this way I see students understand much better.... I explained the lesson in English and repeated it many times and the students understood it in English. But mentally I got tired of explaining it in English. It's easier to explain in Arabic. (Lilly, Interview II)</p> <p>I always connect the grammar to the Arabic grammar by this, I feel students learn better. I love to teach grammar, it gives me opportunities to give examples from real life.</p> <p><i>Do you ask the students personal questions to help them to speak in English?</i></p> <p>Yes, yes but the students say they do not know how to speak in English. Me too my English is not that much. I just teach according to the strategy, the most important is to present the lesson topic but the students understanding is not that important... I do not ask the students revision questions about the previous lessons because they do not study and they waste time...</p> <p>I do not ask reading comprehension questions because the reading passage will not be on the exam.</p> <p>The regular teacher told me not to focus on the reading passage.</p> <p>Once I taught a student how to say mix-fruit and the</p>	<p>Using the L1 to learn the L2</p> <p>Facing difficulties in teaching and learning English</p> <p>Learning by using English to express oneself, spontaneous self- expression</p> <p>Not focusing on building on previous knowledge Focusing on exam</p> <p>Teacher</p>
---	---

<p>student was so happy and excited to learn that. The student said: I will use mix-fruit next time I go to a restaurant. Lilly said; such incident satisfies my ego, I feel proud to help students to speak English. (Lilly, Interview II)</p>	<p>acknowledges the students' needs</p> <p>Providing a speaking opportunity</p>
---	---

Table 6 interviews Categorisation and coding, the third level code

4.9.2.4 The Fourth Level Code

In the fourth level of coding I looked for relationships between each group of headings and tried to connect these findings with the lesson transcripts and classroom observations results in order to understand and to find new information to provide a holistic perspective from the teachers' discourse that enabled or constrained students' ability to speak English. There is a final level of coding in section 4.9.6. But next I will present how I analysed the classroom observations.

4.9.3 Classroom Observations

I listened to each trainee teachers audio recorded lessons repeatedly in order to be able to transcribe them, which familiarized me with the whole data. The digital recorder has a good-quality sound system, which provided a clear production of the teachers' and the students' responses. The small size of the classes was an advantage at this point of the recording. The limitation I had with this recording was during group work. The recorder only recorded the group voice where the recorder was placed on their desks. For the other groups I could not record their voices while performing the activity but their responses out loud to the whole class was recorded. I chose to transcribe the lesson parts that were conducted mainly in English and described the parts that were conducted in Arabic because of their limited use for my research questions and analysis that aimed at offering opportunities for students to speak in English (see appendix E) for a whole lesson transcript. Out of the eight lessons observed, the audio recordings of each lesson were individually transcribed in

their chronological order as occurred in class with headings on their topics and type of activities: reading comprehension, comprehension questions, grammar section and vocabulary section that occurred during each trainee teacher's lesson presentation.

Once I had transcribed all the data for the eight lesson presentations, I analysed, coded and grouped them by themes using the study's framework (Figure 2) guided by the research questions, the trainee teachers' transcribed discourse and the pupil's book contents. The categories teacher-learner interaction and learner-learner interaction for analysis in the framework were drawn from the existing literature.

Lesson transcripts	Interaction types
<p>169 T: Who is this?, From Space Toon. What's his name? 170 Sts: Yes teacher. [shouting many times with excitement] 171 St: Popeye and Pluto. 172 T: What is he eating? Pluto. 173 St: Burger. 174 T: Who is this? 175 St: Popeye 176 T: What is he eating? 177 St: Spinach [in Arabic]. 178 T: In English. 179 St: Spinach. 180 T: Spinach. 181 T: Who[what] is the best Burger or Spinach? 182 St: Because it has many benefits.[in Arabic]. 183 T: In English. 184 St: Teacher I do not know.[in Arabic]. 185 T: It contains vitamins, iron. Okay, thank you. (Lilly, Lesson # 1)</p>	<p>Teacher presents the lesson to the whole class. T-C interaction. Teaching from outside the pupil's book. Spontaneous use of the language, lines 169- 185. T-C interaction using Q/A, 174- 180.</p> <p>Using L1, 182. Elicits a response in L2 or L1,182-183.</p> <p>Scaffolding student, 181-185.</p>
<p>54 T: S plural. 55 Sts: [an] egg singular, eggs plural. (Sarah, lesson # 2)</p>	<p>T-C interaction using IRE, 191-193.</p>
<p>191 T: What's this? 192 St: Cake. 193 T: Okay. Thank you. 194 T: Are they[a] healthy food? Why no[not]? 195 Sts: No response. 196 T: Try, please. 197 T: Why is it not healthy food? 198 Sts: No answer. [no one responds to the teacher] 199 T: In Arabic it is no problem.</p>	<p>Interaction based on form,54-55. Interaction based on one word,191-192.</p> <p>Reinforcement/ evaluation, 193.</p>

<p>200 St: ...Because it causes disease [in Arabic]. 201 T: Can you try to say that in English? 202 Sts: No response.</p> <p>203 T: The definition of unhealthy food, is food like cake for example, [contains] a lot of sugar, a lot of fats, repeats. When we eat this food we have not [no] power in our bodies.....</p> <p>205 T: [Reads aloud the vocabulary of the lesson by pointing at the food pyramid picture]. Here is carbs, here is vegetables, here is milk, protein, fat.</p> <p>206 Sts: Repeat after the teacher Carbs, protein</p> <p>(Lilly, Lesson #3)</p> <p>Group work The teacher passes a work sheet around for each group and says[in Arabic]: Write the name of the food. Then automatically, the leader of the group writes down the name of the food while the other members in the group tell her what to write.</p> <p>222 T: What's the meaning of empty stomach? 223 St3: [Translates empty stomach into Arabic]. 278 Sts: As a pair read aloud the conversation.</p> <p>279 T: Corrects student's mispronunciation of words such as; sandwiches, mayonnaise, croissants, canteen, hate to tell.</p> <p>(Lilly, Lesson # 1)</p>	<p>Interaction based on L1. Students can't speak English, 190-202. Focusing on the lesson's content,201-203.</p> <p>Interaction based on phrases, repetition and substitution. Choral repetition of words.</p> <p>L-L interaction based on providing names of the food, not in full sentences.</p> <p>Translate L2 word into L1.</p> <p>Corrective feedback</p>
--	---

Table 7 lesson transcript coding

4.9.3.1 The First Level Code

The analysis of the transcript from the eight recorded lesson presentations, lesson observations, my notes about my reflection on each lesson, the trainee teachers' interviews before and after lesson performances and the pupil's book was guided by the research questions, theories and related literature. They indicated that each teacher presented the lesson topic to the whole class while expecting attention and participation from the students. Then the teacher chose a student to respond to her question and finally an activity was given as an

evaluation of students' comprehension. This is coded and referred to as teacher-class interaction (T-C). This T-C included teacher-learner interaction (T-L) when the teacher worked with one learner. L-L interaction is when students worked together. When students worked in a group, this is coded as group student (GSt).

4.9.3.2 The Second Level Code

The second level of analysis was when I read carefully through the type of interactions in English based on the study's framework that appeared to be between T-C and T-L. These were Initiative, Response, Evaluation (IRE), question and answer (Q/A) type of eliciting/ giving information, corrective feedback and scaffolding technique (see appendix B for the definition of each term). After coding each segment of each lesson manually I then cut and pasted part of the lesson that represented each heading, such as corrective feedback, and provided a quote from different lessons.

4.9.3.3 The Third Level Code

After the above process I connected them to the other data sets and looked for relationships between the classroom observation, lesson transcripts, the interviews and the pupil's book which will be discussed next, but I put it here in order to have a complete picture of the combined data sets. For example, Sarah the first year teacher used corrective feedback as a type of interaction when students read and mispronounced some words in the sentences in exercise A in order to describe Huda's daily routine and match the pictures with the sentences. This exercise seemed to facilitate input through drawing the time on pictures illustrating Huda's routine, and the students figured out which sentence went with which picture. When I asked the teacher after the lesson performance, "What part of the lesson did you like the most and why?" Sarah said: "the exercise with the pictures [Huda's daily routine], because the students understood it better". According to my observation notice, the participation of the students during that exercise was high. I think it was due to the comprehensible input received by the written sentence and pictures. However, the written words and pictures seemed to increase students' comprehension but eliminated the opportunities for T-L and L-L interaction to speak English by

questioning each other or engaging in a collaborative dialogue. Thus I coded it as pictures facilitated students' input but limited students' output.

The categories for data analysis that emerged from the study's data collected during T-L and L-L interactions appeared during group work and reading conversation. Question and answer (Q/A) type of interactions was based on content from the pupil's book and spontaneous Q/A interactions were based on authentic and real-life situations, and translating the L2 words and sentences into L1.

4.9.4 Classroom Notes Analysis

When I observed each teacher lesson I wrote down field notes, these notes were written in two parts: descriptive notes and reflective notes:

a) Descriptive Notes

The notes taken during the lesson presentation were brief descriptive notes that gave a summary of the observed lesson. Thus, they were very similar to the recorded lesson transcripts. Therefore, I did not analyse them. Nevertheless, the descriptive notes worked as a camera for bringing life to the recorded teachers' and students' voices. When I listened to the recorded lessons while at the same time looking at the notes it brought back the classroom memories of situations that I captured in the descriptive notes. For example, I copied down what was written on the board, lesson topics, grammar examples and questions. These descriptive notes helped me when I typed the lesson transcripts to give emphasis and detail to some of the lesson excerpts. In addition, there were some descriptions that were useful in the discussion part that the recorder could not provide. For example, during the comprehension questions I wrote the question, "How can we use the telephone wisely?" There were five students who stood up consecutively but did not know the answer to this question. Also, there were four students out of seventeen who raised their hands to answer this question: "When and where can people use the phone?" At another point I stated that the students appeared confused because there was a lot of information about reported speech. Therefore, I decided to use the

field notes supplementary detail and as comments on the lesson transcript findings due to their complementary features.

b) Reflective Notes

The second part was the reflective notes that I wrote at the end of each lesson. They were comments or reflections about the lesson and learning English in general. These reflective notes I analysed by first copying them again into a separate notebook for each teacher. Then I read and coded them. Then I combined the two teachers' notes together to examine the relationships and similarities and differences between them. The coding theme had the same headings as the ones in the lesson transcript findings. For example, T-L interaction based on one word or form, C-L interaction based on giving the name of a food and focus on grammar by changing I to You and not on sentence meaning. I used the reflective notes' and the descriptive notes' to help me code the lesson transcripts findings.

4.9.5 Pupil's Book Analysis

I analysed the pupil's book (the assigned textbook entitled; Third Year Intermediate **Pupil's Book** Term 2, used as a name for the textbook throughout this thesis) lesson linguistic contents by applying the same heading themes that I used in the lessons' transcripts analysis, such as interaction based on one word, on form and on full sentence. The effectiveness of the textbook linguistic contents and thematic contents only appears in how they are being used according to the teacher's lesson plan objectives and how well they develop the students' learning English skills as a foreign language. Thus, I only analysed the pupil's book materials that were used by the teachers during lesson presentations. I analysed the pupil's book's linguistic content, topics and activities in relation to the teacher's lesson goals and the study's main focus on the interaction of input and output between teacher and students and its importance in enabling the students to speak English. I applied this to both the First Year Pupil's Book and to the Third Year Pupil's Book.

Pupil's Book activities	Analysis
<p>99 T: Reads cup. What is cup? 100 Sts: translate it into Arabic.[it is facilitated by pictures]. 101 T: piece [She pronounces it as base] cake. 102 Sts: translates it into Arabic. [teacher repeats this step with pot, glass, bottle, water]. (Sarah, Lesson # 4)</p>	<p>T-C interaction. One-word The pupil's book facilitated the words meaning by pictures.</p>
<p>135 T: What is the capital British? [What is the capital city of Britain?] 136 Sts: London. (Sarah, Lesson # 4)</p>	<p>One-word input Pupil's book as a symbolic and physical artefacts.</p>
<p>285 T: Is the food in the canteen unhealthy? 286 St1: No. 287 T: No, the food in the canteen is unhealthy? 288 Sts: yes. [Some students answer voluntarily]. 289 T: Look at the picture, mayonnaise, not fresh juice. 290 St1: not healthy. 292 St1: No. 293 T: un, un, unhealthy. 294 St1: yes. 295 T: Why? 296 St1: Because the sandwiches have a lot of mayonnaise, the juice is not fresh... (Lilly, Lesson # 2)</p>	<p>T-L interaction based on scaffolding.</p> <p>Students' responses based on reading from the textbook shows the student ability to read but not the ability to use their own language or respond spontaneously.</p>

Table 8 example of analysis of a pupil's book

4.9.6 The Final Level Code

When I had analysed and discussed the data for each trainee teacher interviews and lessons transcripts, my classroom observation notes, and the pupils lesson book contents, I combined them together, went through them many times in order to find the final set of themes that helped me to structure the finding and discussion chapters. Table 8 shows the final themes that I identified from all of the data sets. There are 7 codes and 5 themes.

<p>Final data Codes</p> <p>1. Teachers' pedagogical beliefs</p> <p>2. Teaching English as a subject and not as a language</p> <p>3. Teachers' focusing on correct answers and on exam but not focusing on building on previous knowledge</p> <p>4. Dependence on the pupil's book : Corrective feedback Question and answer based on one word and on form Learning through vocabulary approach Mechanical reading</p> <p>5. The use of the L1 on T-C, T-L and L-L interactions</p> <p>6. Type of interactions and activities affecting students to speak English</p> <p>7. T-L interaction based on: Scaffolding students The use of IRE2 Clarification for a word meaning Modification and readjustment of students' answers Students' spontaneous responses Students' fear of making mistake</p>	<p>Themes for discussion</p> <p>1. Teacher's pedagogical beliefs and classroom practices</p> <p>2. Teacher-centered classrooms</p> <p>3. The pupil's book as a transcript for classroom activities facilitated students' input Limited students' output</p> <p>4. The effect of using the L1 on learning the L2 Provided speaking opportunities Hindered speaking opportunities</p> <p>5. The integration of comprehensible input and comprehensible output</p>
---	---

Table 9 the final codes from all data sets

The following table presents a comparison between Sarah's and Lilly's perceptions and practices on teaching and learning English based on the three

research questions findings. This was done in order to link the teachers' similarities and differences back to the literature to show my research contribution to SLA.

<p>Similarities and differences between the two teachers</p> <p>“Pupil’s book helps students to collect many words.” (Sarah, Interview I)</p> <p>“I love to teach grammar, it gives me opportunities to give examples from real life.” (Lilly, Interview II)</p> <p>254 T: When you visit the food area the cake did not come.</p> <p>255 Sts: No response.</p> <p>256 T: What are you going to do? What you should do?</p> <p>257 T: Are you going to do, sit passively or[in Arabic].</p> <p>258 St1: I will call the responsible. [in Arabic]</p> <p>259 T: Say it in English.</p> <p>260 St1: Talk to the ... how we say it in English?</p> <p>2.61 T: Responsible</p> <p>262 St1: I will call the [one] responsible.</p> <p>263 T: This is how to make [a] complaint. (Lilly, Lesson # 2)</p> <p>Both teachers used these interactions: IRE, corrective feedback, translating a L2 words into L1, interaction focused on forms and words. See the given examples on table 3, lesson transcripts.</p> <p>41 T: What’s your favourite food / drink? [a question on the pupil’s book, p,53].</p> <p>42 St: Ice-cream</p> <p>43 St: Juice.</p> <p>44 T: Excellent. (Sarah, Lesson # 2)</p>	<p>Analysis</p> <p>Teachers teach according to their ideological and pedagogical beliefs.</p> <p>Spontaneous use of the language</p> <p>Clarification for a word. Providing the right word.</p> <p>Type of interactions</p> <p>Teacher’s language based on one word</p> <p>Lesson plans based on pupil’s book</p>
---	--

Table 10 teachers’ similarities and differences

4.10 Researcher Role

A researcher may have more than one role to play when conducting research (Cohen, et al., 2007; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). For the purpose of this study, I had two main distinctive roles to play. First, I was a non-participant researcher using audio taped semi structured interview methods and secondly, I observed classroom interactions as a means of gathering data for my qualitative exploratory research. Before conducting the interviews with participants and observing classrooms, I read about conducting and handling interviews and classroom observations. I was aware that during lesson observations my presence in a classroom, and taking notes, would affect teachers and students may not act normally. Although I acknowledge that having another person in a class disrupts the normal flow of activity, I think my presence during the classroom observation did not unduly interrupt the teaching environment for the following reasons. First, I always requested that the teachers asked the students and (themselves) to act normally during the lesson observations so that I could collect natural data from authentic situations of classroom learning that would greatly contribute to the data analysis. Second, the teachers and students were familiar with visitors (such as the school principal, supervisor, examiner or trainee teachers) in their English subject as well as in other subject classes. I am not suggesting that the teachers and students acted completely normal but at least my presence appeared to be normal and did not hinder the flow of the teaching and learning to any obvious degree. Third, I decided to use a small recorder with good quality for recording in order not to attract teachers' and students' attention and distract them from focusing on their lesson activities. The small-size of the tape-recorder did not seem to attract the attention of most of the students because they could not see it, however, when I put it on a desk during group work, those students would notice its presence. Furthermore, I did not make direct eye contact with the teachers or the students. I did not write any notes at the beginning of the English lesson but waited until the teacher and students were involved in the teaching and learning process, when I then started to note down my observations. More comments were added when I left the classroom, as suggested by Richards (2003).

Piloting the interview method and the classroom observations helped me to practice not to draw attention to my presence (as discussed in section 4.7.1). My role was different in interviews and classroom observations. In the former I was mentally and linguistically active with the teachers, whereas in the latter I was linguistically passive but mentally active. I interviewed the trainee teachers before and after each lesson and during the interviews, so I believe that I established a good relationship with both teachers, perhaps because the teachers were interested in finding solutions to the difficulties of speaking English. I felt their acceptance of my presence in their classrooms and their willingness to share their experiences with me. Thus, I collected a considerable amount of authentic data for analysis through listening carefully to their point of views about providing opportunities for students to speak English, their present experience of teaching English, their reflection on their own and their students' learning to speak English and the difficulties they faced during their teaching practicum. As a non-participant observer (Richards, 2003), during classroom observations I did not interfere with the classroom learning environment. I observed and recorded each of the trainee teachers' lesson performance and interactions with their students. During the lesson observations I did not communicate with the teachers or with the students; I watched them and wrote down my observations about what happened in each classroom interaction without disrupting the learning environment.

4.11 Research Ethics

In order to conduct my research at their schools and in their classrooms I gave the formal written consent permission from GU and the ethical research approval forms from the University of Exeter to the principals of the schools and to the two practicum students to sign. I asked the students and their parents' permission by signing a consent form. The trainee teachers were given the option to withdraw from the study at any time but they did not. The real names of the participants and the names of the schools have been kept anonymous in order to protect the identities of the participants. When I asked the trainee teachers' permission to record the interviews, one of them rejected the idea of recording her voice, as I was expected, but when I assured her no one would listen to the recorded data except me, she then agreed. Moreover, I assured all the participants of full confidentiality and anonymity regarding the information

that was gathered from the observation of their classrooms, the interviews, the data analysis and its publication. In order to respect the participants' conservative culture and religion regarding women's voices, when I listened to the recorded data of interviews and lesson presentations, I made sure that no one would hear the voices of the trainee teachers. Further, I did not include extracts from the audio recordings of the interviews and lesson presentations in the appendices of this study.

4.12 Limitations of the study

As with any research, there are a number of limitations of this study. First, the study has a small number of participants. Constraints to do with time and practicality meant that it was not possible to do the study with more than these two teachers. The longitudinal design meant that several sets of interview-observation-interview process were planned, and this was very time-consuming as well as being quite difficult to arrange. More teachers would have offered a wider picture of classroom interactions that provide opportunities for speaking English. A second limitation is that there is no data on students' perceptions of their own learning abilities to speak English. I think it would deepen my understanding if I heard the students' points of views about their study habits and the ways in which they felt encouraged or discouraged in speaking English. During my data analysis, these questions were came to mind: Do the students really want to speak in English or even learn English? What are the types of teachers' practices that may encourage them to speak English? What are the factors that may prevent them from speaking English? How can they help themselves to speak English? What do they find difficult to speak in English? What is their English study routine? Interviews or a questionnaire for students could have provided considerable data to explore these issues.

Thirdly, it would have been useful to record on video camera the teachers and the students during classroom interactions, to include their facial expressions and to be able to watch again some of the classroom events with the teachers and to allow them to comment on points needing more feedback. Video recording the classroom environments may give other researchers a chance to provide another interpretation of the data, because the same data can be interpreted differently depending on the researcher's paradigm (Kuhn, 1996).

Unfortunately, these methods are not allowed in Saudi female schools due to the participants' conservative culture.

In chapter five I will present the study's findings for each teacher from the different data sets.

Chapter 5 - Results and discussion of data

In this chapter I present the findings of this interpretive study which investigated the types of opportunities for speaking English that are provided to learners in two different public intermediate school classrooms. The aim of the study was explored through three research questions which are used to organize the chapter. Within each section the main themes that were derived from the data sources are presented and discussed. The data sources are interview transcripts, lesson transcripts, my classroom observations notes, teachers' lesson plans and the pupils lesson book contents. By using axial coding and discourse analysis (Richards, 2003; Fred & Perry, 2005; Cohen et al., 2007) I have obtained main themes and sub-themes that have been organized in a number of sections. All sources of data guided by the study's theoretical perspectives of input, interaction, and output and by the research questions are aligned together to deepen my understanding of the opportunities afforded for students. Finally the findings for each research question is first presented and analysed in sections 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3.

5.1 Teachers' Views about their Own Practices of Providing Speaking Opportunities in the Classroom

This section addresses the first research question which was designed to understand the trainee teachers' points of view about their practices that provide opportunities for students to speak English. In order to find out about this, both teachers were interviewed before and after each of four lessons. The pre-lesson interviews asked for the teacher's focus of each lesson plan and the post-interviews gave the teachers opportunities to give their own interpretations of the lessons' presentations and their opinions on teaching and the approaches they used that help students to speak English. Table 10 presents the main themes collected from interviews I and II to answer RQ1.

NO	Themes	Example: Sarah	Example: Lilly
1	Teachers' lesson plans	"I plan the lesson according to the pupil's book."	"I spent two to three hours to select the appropriate lesson plan for my own lesson."
2	The use of the student's book	"Today's lesson is 1 from unit 15...I teach according to the pupils' book."	"Today I will teach lesson 2 from unit 14."
3	Teachers' pedagogical beliefs	"By working in group...asking questions"	"Group work encourages and enthuses students to participate and collect points."
4	Teachers' language	"Our learning is bad they did not teach us how to speak in sentences only words."	"Yes, yes but the students say they do not know how to speak in English. Me too my English is not that much."
5	The role of Physical artefacts in SLA and technological aids	"I enjoy teaching the students the time by using a real clock because they participate and interact with each other, one asks and the other answers."	"Today's lesson presentation is going to delivered on Power Points."
6	The use of the L1	"I use Arabic so the students can understand."	"I speak a lot of Arabic and I get mad at myself. I do not like this. But frankly, in this way I see students understand much better."

Table11: Teachers' views of the speaking opportunities they provide

5.1.1 Lesson Plans

The findings of interviews I and II (see appendix K) revealed that the teachers' lesson plans were down loaded from the Saudi Website for helping regular teachers to make their lesson plans. Lilly said: "I spent two to three hours to select my lesson plan from the internet." This indicates that she did not write her lesson plan according to her beliefs or students' needs but rather selected it from the many available lesson plans.

The findings revealed that both the first-year and the third-year lesson plans for Sarah and Lilly were just another copy of the pupils' book. In fact, most of the website posted lesson plans were the exact copy of the reading passages, conversations and the exercises in the pupils' book. However, while delivering the lessons Sarah and Lilly excluded some parts of the pupil's book exercises, mostly the exercises that encourage the use of the English language that reflects the students' social experiences, interests and spontaneous responses. For example, during interview I before delivering the lessons Sarah planned the following communicative questions:

"What do students do in the days of the week? They should know what to make from vegetables... like we make ice-cream from banana... I will let them ask each other about their nationalities." However, when she performed the lessons she did not ask the students the questions she had designed.

Another example of excluding some exercises that encourage students to speak English is from the third-year, pupil's book, p. 43, exercise B. The question is: Do you eat whenever you feel like or do you follow the Prophet's advice? Why?

Such open ended questions that provide students with opportunities to speak English were not included in the lesson plans or when they were included the teachers omitted them during the lessons. When I asked both teachers why they did not give such exercises although they were in their written lesson plans, they replied that there was not enough time.

5.1.2 The Use of the Pupil's Book

As mentioned above, the interview data revealed that the teachers' lesson's plans were based entirely on the pupil's book. Also, there were two major functions of the pupils' book: first, that the content of each lesson aimed at teaching new English words and concepts to the students, and second, that students' comprehension was evaluated through questions requiring answers based more on the pupil's book and less from students' experience. In this comment, Sarah shows how she will ensure the lesson focus is linked to the book: "I will focus on healthy food and unhealthy food. Students should differentiate between healthy and unhealthy food, listen, repeat the lesson vocabulary and spell them."

Lilly too explained that she just uses the lesson plan to teach and does not even ask review questions on the previous lessons. She focuses on content and on preparing students for the exam. The findings indicated that she concentrated on materials and content that would be in the exam rather than on usage of language.

However, the findings of the interviews revealed that Lilly did not depend completely on the pupil's book to present the lessons to her students. As a supplement to the original lessons' contents she also created situations based on real life to present the lessons to the students. These situations were not from the pupil's book, but they were generally relevant to the pupil's book topics and based on the students' culture, as the two examples show below.

"I will use examples from the students' life... when you [the researcher] told me that students need to practice using the language, I thought about making examples from their lives but I 'm not expecting much... I asked the regular teacher of the class and she advised me to use a wedding party as an example for introducing how to make a complaint and I will begin with it."

Lilly's idea to use a cartoon character shows how she thinks about the needs of the students and chooses something appropriate to their age: "I want to bring something related to their age... the character Popeye is a loveable character for children, especially for these students' age group."

5.1.3 Teachers' Pedagogical Belief

The findings indicated that both teachers taught according to their ideological and pedagogical beliefs. Their pedagogical beliefs were demonstrated when Sarah stated that "The lesson plan was to enable students to listen and repeat the new words in the given topic and to collect many words, that will help students to speak in English."

The implication from this extract is that Sarah believed that one can learn English through knowing the meaning of vocabulary rather than practicing using the target words in sentences. Also, she believed that pupil's book exercises and activities encourage the students to speak English:

"Because it [pupil's book] constantly provides the students with new vocabulary as well as being required to finish the assigned units of the curriculum during this term... I expect that when the students collect more vocabulary they will be able to speak English..."

This concept was emphasized to her by an expert teacher. Sarah said that the regular school teacher told her: "It is unnecessarily thing that the students speak in English, but rather the most important thing is to focus on your lesson plan and that the students collect a lot of words." The pedagogical beliefs expressed by Sarah in this example are influenced by the other expert teacher, but do not seem to reflect current theory of language learning.

The two teachers showed pedagogical knowledge of the importance of group work by acknowledging the role of participation and students working together. Group work helps students to learn from each other without pressure from the teacher or being under the spotlight where all the students' eyes are on them. Other students explaining L2 new words or concepts and repeating them, and correcting students' mistakes make the teachers' responsibilities easier.

Moreover, the findings indicate that the teachers believe working in a group will help students to feel confident about their answers, as explained by Sarah:

“The students are afraid that their answers will be wrong and it will be marked wrong [as participation mark] ... working in a group helps the students to work and when she knows her answer is correct from the group then she will participate.”

5.1.4 Teachers' Language

During the interviews, both teachers acknowledged their limited English proficiency level, as trainee teachers performing their teaching practicum and as college students. The data revealed that both teachers did not have a good basis in the English language. This point was explained by Lilly:

“I like myself as a teacher but not as an English teacher. I get confused, I speak a lot of Arabic. The students say they do not know how to speak in English. Me too my English is not that much.”

This finding indicated that Lilly is confident about her ability as a teacher but her limited English language did not allow her to show her real potential in delivering lessons to her class.

Moreover, during the teaching practicum Sarah was not seen to teach according to her belief, that collecting a lot of words helped her to speak English. She acknowledged that practicing using the English words during her teaching experience is more effective than memorizing them passively during her college course process of learning. The following excerpt shows that Sarah in her own English learning experience is aware of the important role the comprehensible output in SLA plays but unaware of applying it to her class during her own teaching practice due to her limited English proficiency level.

“... when I prepare for lessons I feel that I understand, the teaching practice helps me to be fluent in English, to collect a lot of words. When I teach a lesson in one class, I teach it better in the other class and I learn

from my mistakes when I do them [noticing theory]. And when I correct my mistakes the right answers stick in my mind... teaching practice is unlike learning in the university where I memorise and take exams. But in the teaching practicum there is practice for using words, there were words that I took [acquired] in the past and I forgot them and now I remember them.”

5.1.5 The Role of Physical Artefacts in SLA

The findings revealed that the teachers identified the role of artefacts in helping their students to learn English. In response to a question about which part of the lesson she liked the most, and why, Sarah said:

“the exercise with the pictures [Huda’s daily routine], because the students understood it better... the pictures helped students to understand... real materials makes students active and excited to participate.”

This excerpt indicated that the pupils’ book pictures as physical and cultural artefacts provided students with comprehensible input for a full sentence (s). I will explain this point more in relation to the students’ responses in Research question 3 and then discussed it in relation to SLA literature in chapter 6.

Moreover, Sarah believed that students learn better when they are given the opportunities to role play. She said:

“Once I brought a clock to the class to teach the students the time and the students were so excited to tell the time... and ask each other what time is it? ... even once while I was walking down the hall, I overheard a student asking in English another student what time is it?”

5.1.6 The Use of the L1

The teachers acknowledged the need for using English in their classrooms theoretically, but for practical reasons and students' needs they used Arabic to translate and explain English vocabulary and concepts. They attributed using Arabic to their limited fluency in English which made it difficult to explain in English as mentioned in the teachers' language, section 5.1.4. This is shown by Lilly and Sarah respectively in the quotes below.

“I told them it is supposed to be in English [the lesson]. I gave the lesson in English and repeated it many times and the students understand it in English. But mentally I got tired of explaining it in English. It's easier to explain in Arabic.”

“Our learning is bad they did not teach us how to speak in sentences only words... At the university we only listen to instructors.”

Also, the teachers said that the students do not understand unless the target words or concepts are first introduced to them in their L1. In the next two sections I present different excerpts from T-C and T-L interactions to illustrate this finding of both teachers and students used their L1 in order to understand English words.

5.2 Type of classroom interactions and activities that encourage T-L interaction and L-L interaction

This section addresses the second research question: what activities do the trainee teachers provide to encourage teacher-learner interaction and learner-learner interaction? I start this section by describing a selection of the activities in the pupils' books that have a focus on speaking. This was done to understand the ways in which the pupil's books are designed to encourage or discourage speaking opportunities afforded to the students. The second section then presents the findings from the lesson observation recordings, which were analysed to explore the type of interactions that afforded or hindered opportunities for students to learn to speak English. In addition, I used field notes taken during my classroom observations to add to the description and

support my interpretation of what happened in the classes. Excerpts from lesson dialogues, my own classroom explanations and data from my field notes, are presented here in italics and in square brackets to distinguish them from teachers' and students' actual words. Through the data analysis I hope to deepen my understanding of the teachers' classroom practices of input, interaction, and output as a whole in providing opportunities to students to speak English.

To gain a sense of the learning setting, a description of each classroom as a natural L2 learning environment and the First Year (Y1) Pupil's Book and the Third Year (Y3) Pupil's Book as physical and symbolic artefacts have been provided in Chapter four, sections 4.7.8 and 4.9.5.

5.2.1 Speaking activities in the pupil's book

I have chosen to present the pupil's books lesson contents as used by the teachers in presenting each lesson to students, because the textbook's linguistic and thematic content can be looked at and examined in different ways. Their effectiveness can only be judged by how they are used as visual elements and symbolic artefacts according to the teachers' lesson plan objectives and how well they help to develop the students' skill in learning English as a foreign language. The following sections present both the Y1 and the Y3 pupil's book findings.

The data revealed the important role of visual elements in enhancing classroom learning of English. For example, unit 13 in the Y3 pupil's book is about Healthy Eating. This unit presents the different groups of the food pyramid in colourful pictures accompanied by the vocabulary in context in complete sentences or questions to present the topic and linguistic content. Looking at the pictures made it easier for students to comprehend the concept of the food pyramid. It also made the teacher's job easier to facilitate the input of the new word *pyramid* and the concept of the portion of each food group in the food pyramid by pointing at the pictures. It helped the teacher to elicit the name of the food in the food pyramid as in this example from Lilly's class, lesson # 1:

- 188 T: Our unit today is Healthy Eating. *[Lilly writes it on the board].*
207 T: *[Explains how an individual plate should be divided according to the pyramid portion, [in Arabic].*
208 T: Here in Carbs what do you see?
209 St: Bread, grain. *She reads aloud the name of the food in the food pyramid.*
210 T: *[Repeats this step with vegetable, fruit, fat and milk].*

The speaking section

The Y1pupil's book and the Y3 pupil's book both have a speaking activity in each lesson, mostly in the form of a question/ answer interaction to help students practice speaking English, although not all activities are based on communicative approaches. The speaking section is positioned at the end of each unit and the communicative exercise at the end of a lesson. This has a great impact on its importance for the students, because by the time the teacher reaches the speaking section, the session usually ends and there is not enough time to enable students to practice speaking English. The following exercises from Y3 have communicative approach activities. Exercise B: "Do you eat whenever you feel like it or do you follow the prophet's advice? Why?" This is positioned at the end of unit 13, Healthy Eating, lesson one. Second, exercise B from the same unit but from lesson three says: "In pairs: Take turns, making the above complaints, but give your own excuses. Use the proper expressions." Third, unit 14, On the Phone, lesson one, exercise B: "Why is it important to speak politely on the phone?" And from the same unit, lesson two, exercise C: "In pairs: Make up a phone conversation (asking for someone, making a doctor's appointment, an invitation, a hotel or a plane reservation)." Fourth, from lesson three, exercise B: "In groups of three: Report a telephone message. Student A: Call a friend and leave a message. Student B: Take the message and report it to student C. Exchange roles."

The findings from the observation revealed that all these communicative exercises were omitted from the lesson, even though they were written in the teacher's lesson plans.

The most important question about a course book that emerged from the findings of the pupil's books analysis is how the teachers implement their goals and the textbook linguistic content, in a classroom. Other important questions directly related to this study are: does the pupil's book encourage or discourage opportunities for students to speak English? Do the teachers have adequate English to comprehend the pupil's book linguistic content and to be able to explain it to the students? These sub-questions emerged from the lesson transcript analyses and will be discussed and answered in the discussion section in relation to the three research questions. Next, I present the findings of the observations from the recorded lessons, from which the lesson transcripts were analysed.

5.2.2 Type of classroom interactions and activities

The data analysis of the transcripts from the eight recorded lessons and lesson observations were coded and grouped into themes adopted from Tognini (2007). The findings revealed that the main types of classroom interactions found in both classes are those referred to as teacher-class (T-C) interactions, when the teacher addressed the whole class. This T-C interaction included teacher-learner interaction (T-L) when the teacher worked with one learner. L-L interaction is when students worked together. When students worked in a group, this is referred to as group student (GSt).

The findings revealed that the main pattern of interaction was the teachers presenting the lesson topic mainly from the pupil's book, addressing the whole class while expecting students' attention and participation, followed by the teachers choosing a student to respond to their question. Finally an activity was given as an evaluation for students' comprehension.

In terms of the teachers' use of questions, the findings showed that the teachers asked questions and students answered them, or the teachers explained something and elicited information from students' responses. The teachers used questions to provide knowledge, and to check students' understanding about the given specific target structure of L2 usage during each lesson's topic. The choice of interaction type appeared to be guided by the activities in the

pupil's book. Each lesson has different language skill parts to be delivered to the students: introducing new vocabulary, reading a passage or conversation followed by comprehension questions, grammar, writing and finally an evaluative exercise.

Overall, the type of activities that encourage interactions from teachers' lessons using the T-C and T-L interactions were Questions and Answers (Q/A). Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) 1 and 2, corrective feedback, translating the L2 words and sentences into L1, and L-L interaction through group work. An overview of the main type of classroom interactions and their sub-themes identified during analysis are shown in Table 11.

No	Main Type of Interactions	Sub-themes
1	Interaction based on Question and Answer	Q/A based on pupil's book Spontaneous Q/A
2	The use of IRE 1	
3	The use of extended IRE 2	Scaffolding students
4	Corrective feedback	
5	The use of L1 to learn L2	
6	Interaction based on group work	

Table 12

Type of classroom interactions provided opportunities for speaking English

The findings revealed that both teachers' practices mostly provided the students with opportunities to speak English as a foreign language, revealed during T-C interaction and T-L interaction and less through L-L interaction by asking students questions and allowing them to answer.

5.2.2.1 Interaction based on question and answer

The data revealed that activities encouraging T-C interaction and T-L interaction were mostly Q/A interactions. These questions and answers were categorized into two major types. The first is the Q/A interaction during lesson content. This was based on and required answers using the pupil's book, whether during a grammar lesson that focused on form or the lesson topic, or comprehension questions eliciting information from reading passages and conversations. When the teachers elicited information from the students' answers that were based on the pupil's book, these T-C or T-L interactions appeared to provide few opportunities for the learners to speak English. When they did speak, the students, with the teachers' guidance, used the pupil's book to read the words or answers with the help of pictures illustrating the lesson topic, as shown in the following excerpts.

Excerpts from Sarah's lessons # 2 and #4 respectively

36 T: What is [picture] number 1?
37 St: mangoes.
38 T: spelling
39 St: m a n g o e s
40 T: *[Writes it on the board. Mangoes].*
41 T: Excellent.

130 T: What? *[Pointing at the picture in pupil's book, p. 63].*
131 Sts: British.
132 T: British, excellent.

In these excerpts, the T-L and T-C interactions in the exchanges of students' answers were based on one word and focused on providing the spelling of the given word. Sarah and her students applied the same techniques with the other eleven pictures of food and drink and with many pictures from different lessons. Students looked at the pictures in their pupil's book, read the food name or name of the countries written under each picture or presented on a map and spelled it for the teacher who wrote it on the board for the whole class. However, when the pupils' books did not provide pictures to help the students' understanding, from my observation, they found it difficult to answer the teacher's questions, as the following excerpt from Lilly's lesson # 4 shows:

Excerpt from Lilly's lesson # 4

- 419 T: What is the question that [the] receptionist ask Mr. Fayeze?
420 Sts: *[No response from all students, field notes].*
421 St: If he wants to leave a message.
422 T: What is the thing that Mr. Fayeze wants to know?
423 Sts: *[Only two raise their hands, field notes].*
424 T: *[Explains the question in Arabic].*
425 St: He wants to know if he can have his phone number.
426 T: Excellent.
427 St: Teacher, is it to register for an English course?
428 T: Yes.
429 T: Why is it important to give a clear message? *[Exercise B in pupil's book].*
430 Sts: *[No response from all students, field notes].*
431 T: *[Explains the question in Arabic].*
432 T: What's to understand the message?
433 T: To avoid misunderstanding. What is misunderstanding, avoid? I explained these before.
434 Sts: *[No response from all students, field notes].*
435 T: What's understand?
436 St: *[Gives the Arabic translation].*
437 T: What's mis?
438 St: *[Gives the Arabic translation of Miss not mis].*
439 T: *[No response. Teacher moves to the next part].*
440 T: Okay, grammar.

In this excerpt from Lilly's lesson # 4, the T-L interaction during the conversation involved mechanical reading from the pupil's book followed by the teacher and a few students providing information and translating the L2 question into L1. From my observation and notes, this did not help students to understand the meaning of the conversation's content. Examining the data on the Q/A interaction from the eight lessons on reading passages and conversations, these comprehension question sections revealed that, after the conversation was read many times silently and aloud, few students raised their hands to answer the given question. Most students were unable to answer the question asked by the teacher in lines 419, and lines 430-434 until it was translated for them into their L1. The findings revealed that without understandable messages, and comprehensible input, students could not produce output. This point will be discussed in detail in section 6.2.

The second type of activity that the trainee teachers applied more effectively to encourage students to speak in English was the spontaneous Q/A interactions based on authentic and real life situations. Students' spontaneous answers mean an unpredictable response that was not based on the pupils' book but rather constructed by students with or without teachers' support. These appeared mostly in Lilly's four lessons, discussed in section 5.3.2. This is an example from Lilly's lesson # 2:

- 251 T: I want you to imagine you are at your sister's wedding party.
252 T: What's imagine?
253 St3: [*Translates it into Arabic*]. [*This St 3 is the one who most of the times translates L2 into L1*].
254 T: When you visited the food area the cake did not come.
255 Sts: [*No response*].
256 T: What are you going to do? What you should [you] do?
257 T: Are you going to do, sit passively or [*in Arabic*]?
258 St1: I will call the responsible. [*in Arabic*]
25 T: Say it in English.
260 St1: Talk to the ... how we say it in English?
261 T: Responsible.
262 St1: I will call the [one] responsible.
263 T: This is how to make [a] complaint.

In this excerpt from lesson two, the data showed that Lilly created a real learning situation from outside the pupil's book to present the lesson. She elicited information from the students by asking questions and created a situation for T-C and T-L interactions that afforded opportunities for some students to imagine, to think about the given problem, to speak English and Arabic, to make mistakes, and to correct them. Making mistakes allowed them to notice their L2 gaps and for the other students to hear and learn their L2 from what was going on. For example, when St1 asked the teacher for the word for "responsible" in her L1 and the teacher provided the word in L2, St1 used it and modified her response: "I will call the[one] responsible." Here the student did not repeat the L2 word but rather used it in a full sentence to express her own idea. This T-L interaction in an authentic conversation enabled the student to modify the L1 word and express her idea in a full L2 sentence which could help her develop her ability to speak more in English.

5.2.2.2 The use of IRE 1

The findings revealed that the use of IRE1 as a type of T-L interaction was the most common for both teachers, but particularly for Sarah. This type of interaction is limited to only one turn and does not provide opportunities for negotiation, clarification or extend the interaction further (Long, 1996; Tognini, 2007). This example illustrates the discourse pattern:

Excerpt from Sarah's lesson # 2

- 41 T: What's your favourite food/drink? [*a question on the pupil's book, p.53*].
42 St: Ice-cream
43 St: Juice.
44 T: Excellent.

Excerpt from Lilly's lesson # 1

- 189 T: What do you see in the pictures?
190 St: Hot dog, burger, fruit, ..
191 T: [*Moves to the next picture without evaluating the previous response*]. What's this?
192 St: Cake.
193 T: Okay. Thank you.

In these excerpts, the data analysis showed that the teachers' input was mostly content-based, single word or questions requiring quite simple use of L2 such as fruit name identification. Here, the teachers did not push the students to express themselves more to allow opportunities for L2 meaning negotiation or word modification, as in the case of the extended form of interactions, IRE2, described next.

5.2.2.3 The use of extended IRE2

The data revealed that both teachers used the extended interaction type IRE2, which consists of four or more turns, less often than the IRE 1 interaction type.

Excerpt from Sarah's lesson # 3

- 94 T: What do you [have for] lunch?
95 St: Fish, rice.
96 T: Healthy or not healthy?
97 Sts: Healthy.
98 T: Okay.

In this exchange, Sarah addressed the question to the whole class and then chose a student to answer. Sarah used the student's answer to extend further the response by allowing the whole class to answer "healthy" then she confirmed her satisfaction with their response, by saying "Okay". Here, the T-L interaction was not limited to one turn and allowed the students to pay attention and listen to each other's utterances which might develop their speaking skill. However, this extended form of IRE2 was limited in Sarah's data.

Excerpt from Lilly's lesson # 1

- 239 T: What is the most important meal of the day? Choose? Breakfast, lunch, dinner.
240 St1: Egg.
241 T: No. The most important meal of the day?
242 St1: Teacher should I choose a picture? [*Says it in Arabic*]
243 T: No. [*Passed to another student, field notes*].
244 St2: Breakfast.
245 T: [*Writes the word 'breakfast' on the board*].

This shows an extended use of the IRE2 in T-L interaction during the conversation part, particularly in the first comprehension question which appeared longer and the students' answers contained more than short, one-word responses, such as: chocolate and soda. However, students could not answer the comprehension questions unless they were translated into their L1 either by a student or the teacher. This type of interaction does not allow the students to think in L2, or to negotiate meaning in L2, to use English to mediate more English. Consequently, the ability to speak English was hindered by translating the L2 words into L1. As can be seen in the extract above, when the

teacher asked: “What is the most important meal of the day?” and St1 answered “egg”, the teacher gave negative feedback by saying “No”. When the same student requested clarification in her L1, however, the teacher ignored her, thus breaking the communication’s continuity and stopping the interaction. For this particular student, the opportunities for speaking in English were hindered by the teacher moving the question to someone who knew the right answer. Thus, the focus of the teacher here appeared to be on accuracy and giving information rather than the opportunity to learn through noticing one’s own mistake, which could extend the turn of interaction and develop the student’s ability to speak more in English. However, there was some evidence of situations when the teacher did develop the interaction further by scaffolding students, as shown in the next section.

5.2.2.4 Scaffolding Students

The findings revealed that the use of scaffolding as a T-L type interaction enabled the teacher and the student to further their interaction. This type of interaction occurred mostly in Lilly’s four lessons. The next excerpt illustrates this.

Excerpt from lesson # 3

329 T: What is the meaning of avoid?
330 Sts: *[Guessing its meaning, advice, respect, observation, all in Arabic]*
331 T: It’s like keep away.
332 St: *[Gives the Arabic translation of the word keep away].*
333 T: Excellent.

In this excerpt, the teacher gave a clue to the students in line 331, “It’s like keep away”, to enable the students to arrive at the answer by themselves.

5.2.2.5 Corrective feedback

Both teachers used corrective feedback as a type of interaction during T-L interaction, particularly when students read and mispronounced some words when reading aloud conversations and passages. Also, the teachers used corrective feedback when they elicited information and students gave wrong answers. The findings revealed that the teachers appeared to use immediate and explicit corrections, as in this example:

Excerpt from Sarah's lesson # 1

- 21 T: How [Who] can read picture number 1? Huda gets up at half past five every morning.
22 St1: Reads. *[Teacher corrects mispronunciation as half, past five].*

Excerpt from Lilly's lesson # 1

- 214 St: *[Two students read aloud the conversation in their pupil's book.*
215 T: *Corrects students' mispronunciation while they are reading. Such as already, had, stomach, rich, kelija Saudi sweet].*

In these exchanges of T-L interaction, Sarah corrected the mispronunciation as half and past five and Lilly corrected stomach, rich and kelija.

5.2.2.6 Teaching English as a subject

The findings revealed that the teachers seemed to approach teaching English as if they were teaching a subject. The teachers' immediate and explicit corrective feedback was concerned with an accurate answer, so did not give the students opportunities to readjust or negotiate their mistakes. However, from the observation the data also showed that during T-C interaction that contained L-L interaction, the teacher frequently ignored the students' mistakes, as in the excerpt from Lilly's lesson below, lines 338, 341-343. However, sometimes the teacher asked a student to repair a mistake made by another student, as in lines 66-69 and 351-352 in the following excerpts.

Excerpt from Sarah's lesson # 3

- 64 T: How [Who] can read the conversation? *[She nominates two students by their names to read].*
65 Sts: *[As a pair, the nominated students stand up in their places and read aloud the following conversation script from their pupil's book, p. 57, with poor pronunciation. This step is repeated with another pair of students].*
66. T: How many persons?
67 Sts: *[No one raised their hand. field notes].*
68 T: How many persons in conversation? *[Sarah calls St 1 by her name to answer].*
69 St1: Teacher, two waiter and Mr. Mehdi.

Excerpt from Lilly's lesson # 3

After individual students completed reading aloud the passage entitled Who's In Control? from the pupil's book, p. 56, the teacher asked the following comprehension questions. This lengthy extract also shows examples of L1 use by the teacher.

- 334 T: *[Writes on the board and reads aloud]*, when and where the people can use the phone?
- 335 Sts: *[Four students raise their hands to answer the question, field notes]*.
- 336 T: *[Picks a student]*.
- 337 St1: *[Gives wrong answer]*.
- 338 T: No. *[Passes to another student]*.
- 339 St2: *[Reads aloud the answer from the pupil's book]*. People can use them almost anytime and anywhere. They can be used in the house, the car, the office and even on the street.
- 340 T: Excellent.
- 341 T: What's [what are] the difference [different] ways to use the phone?
- 342 St3: *[Reads aloud the wrong answer]*.
- 343 T: No. *[Passes to another student]*.
- 344 St4: *[Reads aloud the wrong answer]*.
- 345 T: *[Translates the question into Arabic]*.
- 346 St5: Today, telephones do not only allow voice communication.
- 347 T: Yes complete.
- 348 St5: They are also important for emails, messages, web browsing and more.
- 349 T: How can we use the telephone wisely?
- 350 St6: *[Reads the answer]*, use the phone only when there is a need. Keep in mind that phones are not for entertainment. *[Poor pronunciation]*
- 351 T: Can we make it shorter?
- 352 T: Use the phone only when there is a need. *[Paraphrases the answers]*
Okay. Thank you.

5.2.2.7 The use of L1 to learn L 2

The findings from the analysis of lesson transcripts showing teachers' language choices revealed a mix of L2 and L1 in T-C, T-L, and L-L interactions. Mostly, the teachers and students used Arabic to translate and explain English vocabulary, sentences, and concepts. The teachers used L1 to explain word meanings and to give instructions, which clearly limited the opportunities for students to hear or learn from teachers' L2 input.

The following exchanges, and many others in the data, show that the teachers depended heavily on the use of Arabic to explain the meaning of unfamiliar English words. This appeared to be related to the teachers' and students' limited proficiency level of English. Translating L2 words into L1 deprived the students of opportunities to construct their own points of view in English and to produce modified output. In the example below, Sarah resolves the confusion between "fresh" and "fish" through translating, instead of using it as an opportunity for students to think about the similar sounds of the two words and develop their own understanding.

Excerpt from Sarah's lesson # 3

- 70 T: What is the meaning [of] fresh?
 71 St: *[Gives the Arabic translation of the word fish].*
 72 T: Fresh not fish!
 73 T: *[Gives the meanings of fresh and fish in Arabic].*
 74 T: What is the meaning of fresh?
 75 Sts: *[Translate it into Arabic].*
 76 T: Fish?
 77 Sts: *[Translate it into Arabic].*

Excerpt from Lilly's lesson # 2

- 264 T: What is complaint?
 265 St3: *[Gives the Arabic translation of the word complaint].*
 266 T: Right.
 267 T: *Writes on the board some of the sentences as they appeared in the pupil's book such as,*

Complaint	Apology	Excuse
I hate to tell you...	I'm sorry to hear that.	But our sandwiches are freshly made.

- 273 T: What is the meaning of polite?
 274 Sts: *[Give the translation of the word polite in Arabic].*
 275 T: *Reinforces the answers in Arabic].*

However, the findings revealed that in T-L interaction both teachers, but particularly Lilly, used the L2 as chunks of formulaic language and phrases to help students speak in English, which was more effective than translating L2 words into L1. They used English to mediate learning English as in the above

excerpt, line 267, when Lilly wrote on the board: “I hate to tell you, I’m sorry to hear.. “Learning chunks of formulaic language and phrases can be beneficial in learning L2 when students use them to construct their own ideas with the teacher’s help. However, Lilly’s limited proficiency did not help the student to benefit from the fixed phrase and teacher’s assistance to modify fully her own response. In the following excerpts, Lilly asked the students to create a situation and an excuse for it. She nominated two students by name to role play the situation with her assistance. It went like this:

Excerpt from Lilly’s lesson # 2

312 St1: The class is so bad.
313 T: No, not bad. They are not bad but noisy.
314 St2: I’m sorry to hear noisy [noise].
315 T: Excellent.

Excerpt from Sarah’s lesson # 3

From the Vocabulary section

99 T: *[Reads] cup. What is cup?*
100 Sts: *[Translate it into Arabic]. [It is facilitated by pictures in pupil’s book, p. 57]*
101 T: *Piece [She pronounces it as base] cake.*
102 Sts: *[Translates it into Arabic]. [Teacher repeats this step with pot, glass, bottle, water].*

The above excerpt occurred during the new vocabulary section, in which Sarah introduced the vocabulary as single words, such as: pot, glass. However, the book introduced those new words as phrases illustrated with pictures such as: a cup of tea, a piece of cake, a glass of juice, and a bottle of water. Sarah changed this though and thus limited the interaction to one word, allowing no room for further development of students’ output as language practice that would have allowed them to use phrases or chunks of formulaic language or pictures, that could have developed their one-word output further and helped them to speak in English.

Furthermore, during an activity where the students had to say which words go together the lesson observation showed that although the pictures played a scaffolding role in helping students understand the meaning of written words by

matching them with the pictures, the students were confused because, for example, the word water could go with more than one picture (bottle, glass or cup). This confusion could have been eliminated if the students had been given opportunities to use the words in chunks of formulaic language, such as “bottle of water”, which is what the pupil’s book illustrated, or if they had practised complete sentences instead of single word utterances. This indicated that the pupil’s book materials, when mediated by the teacher, can be used to meet the teacher’s lesson plan objectives and beliefs instead of the textbook’s own goals. Sarah’s focus here was not on using the words in chunks of formulaic language nor on accuracy, rather, in giving single words that also showed her limited English proficiency, as in mispronouncing the word “piece” in line 101.

5.2.2.8 L-L interaction based on group work

The findings from the teachers’ lesson transcripts revealed that L-L interaction usually occurred at the end of a lesson to evaluate students’ understanding. The students worked in pairs, groups, or as individuals, to answer the pupil’s book exercises. If the exercises were not directly from the pupil’s book, they related to the lesson topic. Both the Y1 and Y3 pupil’s books instructed the students to work more as individuals and in pairs than in groups. Lilly gave the students opportunities to work in groups and to solve language problems more frequently than Sarah, as shown in the next excerpt from Lilly’s lesson # 4:

[The following is a transcript from one group that contains four students. A student is writing and the others are helping. They are supposed to rewrite this question “Is Ahlam coming [to the party]?” as reported speech].

- 392 GSt1: Is Ahlam coming to the party? [She reads it aloud].
 393 GSt2: Change you to I.
 394 GSt1: No. This is yes / no question, we do not change the end.
 We change in WH.
 395 GSt2: We call it WH question. *[The group laughs].*
 Teacher do we change in yes/no question *[said in Arabic].* Teacher responds: yes.
 396 GSt1: See I told you. *[She continues writing and reading out loud this sentence].*
 She wants to know if I can
 397 GSt2: No, Ahlam *[not I].*
 398 GSt1: She wants to know if Ahlam is coming to the party.

[When the whole class finishes this exercise, they read their answers out loud individually to the rest of the students with the teacher correcting their individual mistakes].

In this excerpt, the L-L interaction appeared to be focused on forms (reported speech) and showed some students establishing a common ground of understanding how the rules of reported speech are to be applied in the given exercises, and what part of the sentences need to be changed. However, this L-L interaction was facilitated by the pupil's book content and did not allow the students to create sentences or examples on their own.

Other findings on L-L interaction showed that during the group work in both classes, one student from the group wrote the names of the food, drinks or countries, or matched pictures to the sentences, and the others participated less. In addition, students used the L1 and L2 to carry out the given activities as shown next.

Excerpt from Sarah's lesson # 4

[Sarah writes, nationality, language, capital and country. Not from the pupil's book, addressing the whole class. This is a description of what happened during the group work activity from field notes].

The students communicated only in their L1, except for the country names which were spoken in English. Each group told the leader and she wrote in the country name and its language in her notebook. Group one did ten countries. Group two did two countries and group three did one country, because they did not know how to spell the country's name; they asked for the teacher's help to spell Qatar. The teacher told them to write it the way it sounds and later she would correct it. A student in group one told the leader to write Mauritania, but the leader said: "no maybe it's going to be wrong". The student asked a second time to write Mauritania, but she received the same answer. The leader of group one read aloud the group's answers for the whole class mostly names, such as Jordan, Amman, Jordanian, Arabic.

The findings of L-L interaction in the group work showed that students used their L1 to communicate. When they used English, they used it as single words mixed with their L1. Most importantly, it revealed that the students seemed

afraid to make mistakes; group one's leader did not want to write Mauritania because she did not want to write it incorrectly. This could indicate that the students were afraid of being judged and evaluated by teacher and classmates. Culturally, if a student responds incorrectly to the given question that means losing face in front of her classmates and perhaps losing her class participation marks. On the other hand, groups two and three did not write much because they did not know how to write the country names that were not already written in their pupil's book, since their teacher, Sarah, had instructed them to write countries from outside their textbook; this is a good practice as it encourages students to use their previous knowledge and to rely less on their pupil's book. However, it did not work well in this case as the students just avoided it. Avoiding risk-taking by students not answering spontaneously or voluntarily limited their ability to speak much English.

Excerpt from Lilly's lesson # 3

- 353 T: Do exercise C [*says it in Arabic.*] Exercise C Paraphrase the main ideas.
- 354 Sts: [*As groups work together.*]
- 355 T: [*Walks around and watches students answering the given exercise.*]
- 356 T: Why aren't you working? [*In Arabic*]
- 357 St: Teacher we tell her the answer and she writes down. [*in Arabic*].
- 358 Gsts: [*The leader reads aloud while writing*]; Use the phone only when there is a need. [*Correct pronunciation*].
- 359 Gst: Finish it, finish it [*in Arabic*].
- 360 Gst: "The leader," no there is no place". Then asked the teacher: "should we write the whole sentence". [*In Arabic*]
- 361 T: No.
- 362 Gsts Don't answer the phone while munching. [*The leader copied the sentence from the pupil's book while reading it out loud, and when she reads munching she and her group laughed*].

[The rest of the communication between teacher and students was in Arabic].

In this excerpt, the findings indicate that L-L interaction during group work seemed ineffective in providing opportunities for students to speak English and learn from each other for the following reasons. First, the examination of data suggested that students did not understand what to do or what role to play. The four students were grouped together only because they happened to sit next to

one another. Second, and most importantly, one student in the group wrote the sentence and led the group, as line 357 suggested. The leader of the group “paraphrased” the sentence “use the phone when there is a need.” The other student asked her to “finish it” repeatedly in her L1. The leader’s response using good English was: “No, there is no place”. Then, the leader asked, in L1, for the teacher to confirm her decision not to write the whole sentence. This point shows that the leader’s English level was appropriate, for these reasons. First, the leader understood the word “paraphrase” in the question, unlike the other student in the group who asked about writing the full sentence. The reader read the sentence aloud with correct pronunciation. Second, the leader uses the pronoun “we” instead of “I” in line 360, which shows her sense of working as a team when asking on behalf of the group not herself, although she used L1. All this indicates that some students did not understand exercise C’s instructions or the word “paraphrase” and most of the conversation was in Arabic. For an effective L-L interaction to occur, the students should, first, be instructed what to do such that everyone in the group knows exactly what to do or what role to play (Brooks & Donato, 1994).

5.3 Students’ responses to the given opportunities to speak English

In this section I present the findings for Research Question 3: How do learners respond to the opportunities provided by the trainee teachers to speak in teacher-learner and learner-learner interactions in the classroom? This part investigates and explores the students’ responses to the teachers’ activity questions in L-C, T-L, and L-L interactions. As this study investigates classroom interactions as a whole, focusing on input, interaction, and output, I present the findings as a continuation of the types of interaction presented in section 5.2, but with more emphasis on the type of students’ responses. This was done to deepen my understanding of the features of students’ responses.

The findings of the eight lesson transcripts revealed two main types of students’ responses during classroom interactions; those based on questions that required answers from the pupil’s book, and students’ spontaneous responses that required their own use of English.

5.3.1 Students' responses based on the pupil's book

The T-C interaction from all excerpts of the teachers' lesson transcripts and observed lessons showed clearly that the content of each lesson was based on the pupil's book. As a warm up procedure, both teachers addressed the whole class and elicited some information from the students, as in "what is the date? Unit? Lesson? Then, they began the day's lesson topic with question and answer (Q/A) as a form of interaction. These T-C and T-L interactions took place throughout the lesson from the beginning to the end but the L-L interaction only occurred at the end of the lesson. The findings revealed that in most interaction exchanges the students' responses were very limited in both quantity and quality, usually restricted to a short one-word response. However, in a few interactions the students' responses were expanded to a full sentence response based on reading passages. The following excerpts exemplify the students' specific one-word responses:

Excerpt from Sarah's lesson # 4

120 T: What [is] today?
121 Sts: 15/ 6/ 1435 [*Corresponds with 15 April, 2014*].
122 T: Unit?
123 Sts: 15
124 T: Lesson?
125 Sts: 1
126 T: Topic?
127 Sts: Countries.
128 T: Spelling.
129 St: C o u n t r i e s.

Excerpt from Lilly's lesson # 3

316 T: [*Addressing the whole class*], what [is] the date today?
317 Sts: 20, 6, 1435 [*Corresponds to 20 April, 2014*].
318 Sts: [*Answer together and the teacher writes on the board*].
319 T: What is the unit?
320 Sts: 14.
321 T: What is the lesson number?
322 Sts: Two.

In these excerpts and many others, the T-L interaction appeared to hinder the development of the ability to speak in English, since learning to say the concept

of the Arabic date (Islamic calendar) using English numbers does not help the students to learn the concept of the Western (Gregorian) calendar.

Moreover, the T-C and T-L interactions during every English period, four times a week, based on the teacher asking about the date, seemed a missed opportunity to learn how to say the day, month and year in English. The teacher does not need to teach it, just use it and the concept of the Western calendar will be acquired through daily practice.

The findings revealed the useful role played by the pupil's books, illustrated with pictures that were very helpful as cultural artefacts in providing comprehensible input for the students, enabling them to learn the language and, mostly, to comprehend the lesson content and listen both to the teacher's language and each other, in English. For example, from Sarah's transcript lesson # 2, Sarah and the students use the pupil's book to read aloud and identify the names of food and drink. The L-T interactions were mainly single words. The teacher's closed questions were based on one word answers: "What is [picture] number 1? The students learned the *name* of the food in the new vocabulary lesson and their spelling. It went like this:

36 T: What is [picture] number 5?

37 St: Dates.

38 T: Spelling

39 St: d a t e s.

40 T: *[Writes it on the board] Dates.*

41 T: Excellent.

[T & Sts do the same techniques with the other eleven pictures: mangoes, cola, apples, meat, oranges, chicken, onions, ice-cream, juice, milk, tomatoes. Students look at the pictures in their pupil's book, read the food name written under each picture, and spell it for the teacher who writes it on the board for the whole class].

The above technique using pictures from the pupil's book, was also used to provide comprehensible input for full sentence(s). this, then developed into writing a paragraph, as in Huda's daily routine, in Sarah's transcript lesson #1, Writing activities, in pupil's book, p. 48. The teacher did not need to explain much. The students did not speak much either because the pictures and the written words helped their comprehension and listening skills.

The students' responses, based on the reading comprehension questions, indicated that they provided the correct answers using their own structures, but also might give a false indication of the students' ability to respond in a real situation using such good English. This extract from an earlier section shows a student's response to a question about phones was: "People can use them almost anytime and anywhere. They can be used in the house, the car...". It was not obvious from this kind of response and elsewhere in the data that students were just reading from the coursebook, but not necessarily with understanding, as shown when they were unable to answer comprehension questions unless the L2 questions were first translated into L1. This finding showed that the students understood the question in their L1 not in L2. Knowledge of the L1 translation word does not indicate acquisition of the new word in English. Therefore, when the students were supposed to provide their own understanding of reading materials, using their own words, their responses that were simply reading from the pupil's book may have prevented them from speaking their own English but also from comprehending content in L2.

5.3.2 Students' spontaneous responses

The findings revealed that the students' spontaneous responses or unpredictable responses requiring their own use of English, whether based on the pupil's book or not, were very helpful and provided students with more opportunities to speak English, make mistakes, negotiate meaning, and develop their English learning. These kinds of responses occurred mostly in Lilly's lessons.

The data from the four lesson transcripts revealed that Lilly created a situation as a supplementary introduction to introduce a lesson to the students in an interesting way. These situations were not from the pupil's book, but they were generally relevant to the pupil's book topics and based on the students' culture, age, needs, and life.

One of the main study findings is using English spontaneously or using English to mediate language learning by focusing on form is shown in this lengthy example from Lilly's lesson # 4. I have used this long extract to show the classroom interaction as a whole: input, interaction, and output. Also, it shows

that after students received comprehensible input, they were able to produce comprehensible output. The lesson began in the following order:

- 363 T: *[Writes on the board, field notes]:*
I was, past *[tense]*
I'm, present *[tense]*
She asked me a question. Why you was *[were]* absent yesterday?
I was sick.
If Hajer asked Nada what she told you?
She told me she was sick.
- 364 St: She told me she was sick. *[Read what's written on the board].*
- 365 T: Today's lesson topic is *[said in Arabic]* reported speech *[Said in English].*
- 366 Sts: Speech, speech. *[Some students whispered, they were talking to themselves aloud].*
- 367 T: Reported Speech three kinds. Sentences, questions and requests. *[Writes them on the board].*
There is *[are]* two types of questions *[Requesting the students to answer].*
- 368 Sts: WH question
- 369 T: Excellent and?
- 370 Sts: Yes and No questions.
- 371 T: Excellent.
- 372 T: Helping verbs?
- 373 T & Sts: Can, shall, should.
- 374 T: Auxiliary verbs.
- 375 T & Sts: Are, is, will.
- 376 T: *[Draws a diagram like the following on the board while eliciting answers from the students].*



- 377 T: Today we begin with Yes / No questions.
- 378 T: I ask you do you have homework?
- 379 T: I asked you if you have homework.
- 380 T: We change I →you.
- 381 T: Are you absent last day?
- 382 T: T& Sts: She wants to know if I was absent last day.
- 383 T: *[Explains]* the letter s in wants is singular.
- 384 T: What's singular?
- 385 Sts: *[No one responded].*
- 386 T: Singular, singular, she, he, it.

- 387 T: S does not come with plural. What's plural?
 388 Sts: You, we, they.
- 389 T: *[Copies from her notes and writes on the left corner of the board the following]:*
 I → you
 We → they
 Adj
 My → her / his
 Your → my
 Own → their
- Obj / Pro
 We → her / their
 You → we
 Us → them
- 390 T: *[Are you seeing these beautiful words, memorise them by heart, says it in Arabic].* This is reported speech number one. We have number two and three for next time.

The above excerpt indicated that teacher Lilly introduced her lesson by asking questions and eliciting the answers from the students keeping the interaction between them alive. The T-C interaction was based on using L2 in functional language practice that required students to use chunks of language, focusing on form, accuracy, and on giving full sentences as opposed to single one-words, because it was a grammar lesson. The teacher created a situation based on the classroom environment (not from the pupil's book) when she said: "why [were] you was absent yesterday? The answer was; "I was sick." Also, the real classroom example when she said: "If Hajer asked Nada what she told you?" "She told me she was sick". This kind of T-C interaction and T-L interaction helps students to learn L2 through authentic conversation by providing comprehensible input and output by both teacher and students.

Also, the data revealed that T-C interaction was also based on content, eliciting previous information through single one-word or words Q/A interaction using English to mediate learning English and activate mental memory. Therefore, the students' responses appeared as short, specific points, similar to Swain and Lapkin's (1989) finding. This can be seen in the extract above, when the teacher addressed the whole class: "There is [are] two types of questions." And some students answered: "WH question... Yes and No questions."

In addition, the teacher's language input during the T-C interaction seemed not to be enough to create conditions for learning. According to Krashen (1982), we acquire language in only one way by receiving comprehensible input, for example, when the teacher said the letter s indicates singular. However, the students did not respond to her question "what's singular?" Also, in line 378 "s does not come with plural". The students, at this stage, cannot differentiate between third person singular s, as in she wants, or the plural for noun s, as in books or eggs. Input consisting of single words or incomplete sentences appeared partially incomprehensible, limited, and insufficient. Therefore, it limited the IRE interaction to one turn and gave the students no chance to notice the gap between L2 and L1 in their outputs. Thus, the students' output appeared unproductive, as exemplified in the following excerpt from group work in the same above lesson, while St1 reads her answer addressing the whole class:

- 401 T: What does she like as a gift?
 402 St1: She.
 40 T: What is our question? forget everything.
 Consider tomorrow is the exam. What is our rule *[In Arabic]*?
 404 St1: She wants to know.
 405 T: Yes, complete.
 406 St1: She wants to know.
 407 T: Drop does.
 408 St1: She wants to know what she like [s] as a gift.
 409 T: Excellent.
 410 T: Why are you sleeping? *[Addressed to the whole class]*.
 411 T: *[Draws students' attention to bring the work sheet she gave them so they can continue the rest of the exercises. Then the students answer exercise A in their pupil's book, p. 57 which is: Read these statements, then report them. There are four statements illustrated with pictures. This is the transcription of statement number four]:* Do you hear me clearly?

During the group work the data showed that there were T-L interactions that gave opportunities to speak in English and develop L2 learning such as when the teacher scaffolded St1 during her group work answer, addressing the whole class as in "what does she like as gift?" and allowed St1 to adjust her output by saying: "she wants to know what she like[s] as a gift."

An examination of the students' outputs or responses during group work on the grammar rule for reported speech and the comprehension questions based on understanding the content of the interaction, indicated that the students' responses when talking about the grammar rule were much better than their comprehension question responses. That could be because the students received comprehensible input as opposed to the rule being presented to them. The examples used to introduce the rules for reported speech were taken from real classroom life. Students were encouraged to elicit and participate along with the teacher in working out the rule. Even when there were breakdowns in the T-C, T-L, and L-L interactions, the teacher scaffolded the student or the students scaffolded each other to pay attention and notice the gap in their English and then repair the gap.

The data from interview II after lesson number four, with Lilly, indicated that she was not satisfied with the students' participation: "most of the students did not understand the reported speech's rule." She talked about this at length:

"these grammar rules are so difficult and confusing even for me as a university student... I consulted the regular class teacher, I gave this rule to a previous class... and I went back home and explained it again to myself and I still cannot teach it unless I put the list of pronouns on the board to help and remind me during the pronoun changes... this rule is difficult for students ... but I believe we should teach grammar so students learn how to speak correctly."

Although Lilly was not satisfied with the students' participation, the data revealed that the most effective participation and interaction providing students with opportunities to speak in English occurred during the lesson on reported speech, in presenting the rule or the given exercises. Lilly's feeling of dissatisfaction may have arisen from having lots of breakdowns in the students' responses that led the teacher to scaffold them to repair their mistakes in English. This requires a lot of effort, energy, fluency in English, and spontaneity in the teacher's answers to pay attention and be precise when a breakdown happens that needs repair. The teacher depended on examples from outside the textbook, as the book provided little help. Nor did she depend on the book in

the conversation reading where the students' responses were based on the textbook and facilitated by pictures, as shown in the next extract from Lilly's lesson # 2. Here, two pairs of students read aloud the conversation and the teacher asked some questions to evaluate reading comprehension.

285 T: Is the food in the canteen unhealthy?
286 St1: No.
287 T: No, the food in the canteen is unhealthy?
288 Sts: Yes. [Some students answer voluntarily].
289 T: Look at the picture, mayonnaise, not fresh juice.
290 St1: Not healthy.
291 T: Is the food in the canteen unhealthy?
292 St1: No.
293 T: Un, un, unhealthy.
294 St1: Yes.
295 T: Why?
296 St1: Because the sandwiches have a lot of mayonnaise, the juice is not fresh...

The above excerpt indicated that the interaction was a mixture of form and meaning between the T-L when the T asked: "Is the food in the canteen unhealthy? St: Not healthy or No". The student's responses created a breakdown in the interaction because of the confused use of a double negative in the question-answer interaction. However, the teacher scaffolded the student to pay attention to the prefixes when she said: "un, un, unhealthy?" "Yes", was the appropriate response and the student confirmed her understanding by providing more details "because the sandwiches have a lot of mayonnaise". These exchanges between teacher and student showed the effectiveness of the teacher's scaffolding, enabling the student to arrive at the answer by herself and to modify her response. This was done by drawing her attention, using language to mediate L2 learning, not by translating L2 words into L1, as in most cases. Thus, the extended turn of IRE2 instead of the one-turn IRE1, allowed the teacher and the student to further the interaction to reach a common intersubjective ground where both understood one another's intention by using L2.

In the following example, I present the students' responses in T-C and T-L interactions are based on single words with the use of the L1. As shown in the next excerpt from Sarah's lesson # 3, writing section.

This exercise A on pupil's book, p. 58. Answer the following five questions:

1. When do you always have dinner? [Teacher reads aloud the question but no response from the students except for St 1 when she gives the meaning in Arabic and then the other students give the name of the food and write the answers in their pupil's book. This procedure is repeated with the other four questions, pupil's book p. 58]:

2. Where do you usually have it?
3. What do you often eat?
4. What do you sometimes have for dessert?
5. What do you never have at night?

Analysis of the above excerpt from the writing section that required different oral responses according to each student's answer showed the T-L or T-C interaction was mostly single English words negotiated by meaning with the use of L1. For example, in answering question three, What do you often eat?, students' responses were short or one-word answers, such as rice, green salad... However, when the teacher extended the interaction, as in "What is green salad?", students translated it into Arabic. In this way, the students did not practice speaking in English. Their language production showed little or no interactional clarification, adjustment or modification that could provide them with opportunities to speak more in English. The teacher focused the students' attention on what to answer rather than on how they should answer by using complete sentences such as: I often eat rice for dinner. This expansion would have given the students a chance to hear their short response provided in full form (Wong-Fillmore, 1985).

Sometimes, during T-L interaction an error correction made by teacher to a student, did not allow the student to readjust her own answer yet it helped other students not to make the same mistake, as the following excerpt shows from Sarah's lesson # 2. After a pair of students read aloud the conversation to the class, Sarah asked:

- 50 T: What the like food breakfast? [*What kind of food do you like for breakfast? Pupil's book, p. 54.*]
- 51 St: Milk, Juice, Cola.
- 52 T: No, no the food in the breakfast, Cola. [*No, no cola for breakfast.*]
- 53 T: What the like food breakfast? [*Translates the question into Arabic, so students who don't understand it can answer. Teacher then*

repeats twice the word “breakfast” and chooses another student to answer].

In this excerpt the T-L interaction was based on the pupil’s book but required students to give unprepared answers. Also, the teacher’s question and correction in lines 50 and 52 respectively showed her limited English proficiency, and most importantly, the teacher’s intonation and tone of voice. Her stress on the words “No, no the food in the breakfast cola” was full of emotion; care, surprise and rejection of having cola in the morning. After line 53, the teacher asked three different students to answer the same question, and none of their answers contained the word “cola”. From my class observation, the young students learned, from using a double negative that it is not only unhealthy, but not acceptable to have cola for breakfast. This might help them to develop their English to express rejection or dissatisfaction.

Excerpt from Lilly’s lesson # 1

- 194 T: Are they [a] healthy food? Why no[not]?
- 195 Sts: *[No response].*
- 196 T: Try, please.
- 197 T: Why is it not healthy food?
- 198 Sts: *[No answer. No one responds to the teacher].*
- 199 T: In Arabic it is no problem.
- 200 St: ... Because it causes disease *[in Arabic].*
- 201 T: Can you try to say that in English?
- 202 Sts: *[No response].*
- 203 T: The definition of unhealthy food, is food like cake for example, [contains] a lot of sugar, a lot of fats, repeats. When we eat this food we have not [no] power in our bodies.....
- 204 T: This is a pyramid. Here is the division of the pyramid.
- 205 T: Reads aloud the vocabulary of the lesson by pointing at the food pyramid picture. Here is carbs, here is vegetables, here is milk, protein, fat.
- 206 Sts: *[Repeat after the teacher]. Carbs, vegetables*

In the above excerpt, the T-L interaction appeared to focus on giving only correct information, as when the student did not know how to say in English: “*because it causes disease*”. Even though the teacher encouraged the whole class, only one responded to her encouragement “try, please”. The students did not try to respond in English, perhaps because they had to construct the answer

on their own. It was a spontaneous or unprepared response and not something written in the pupil's book that they could read aloud, nor could they get clues from the pictures to help their L2 output. However, after her encouragement failed to help the students to respond in English, the teacher turned to L1 as an earlier strategy to check students' understanding; by this, she was giving the students permission to express themselves in Arabic: "In Arabic it is no problem". The teacher, then, appeared to be satisfied with the student's response in Arabic and did not scaffold her to reconstruct her output in English. The teacher just continued the lesson and moved to another point without trying to extend the interaction to teach the student how to reconstruct her Arabic response in English. From this evidence, it seems that the student cannot express herself in English, despite the fact that she knows the answer in her L1. The teacher focused on what to answer, and on correct information (teaching English as subject), rather than on how the student should answer using English. Thus, another missed opportunity. Moreover, this shows that the students understood the question but did not know how to respond in English. In other words, the students' ability to understand English was higher than their ability to speak it. At the end of the above excerpt, in line 206, the teacher asked for choral repetition of vocabulary by the whole class. Thus, the students practiced producing individual words that helped their pronunciation and allowed them the opportunities to listen to each other's utterances and to hear and learn from others' utterances.

In chapter six I will draw together the similarities and differences between the two teachers and link them back to the literature to show my research contribution to the field of language learning and providing opportunities for speaking English.

Chapter 6 - Discussion of the Findings and Conclusions

In this chapter, the findings of the three research questions regarding teachers' perceptions of their practices for creating opportunities for girls at intermediate schools to learn to speak English, the classroom activities delivered through T-C, T-L and L-L interactions and the students' responses in the two classrooms will be discussed under this study's two theoretical framework perspectives. I found that both the teachers' pedagogical approaches and practices as revealed through the analysis of the classroom activities and interactions demonstrated that learning English as a foreign language was heavily based on a cognitive perspective and less according to the sociocultural perspective.

This discussion will be divided into two major parts. First, classroom practices that were primarily based on the cognitive perspective will be discussed in two sections. In section 6.1 I discuss the impact of teachers' reliance on the pupil's book and how it encourages or discourages the opportunities for students to speak English. In section 6.2 I discuss the effect of using the L1 on learning the L2 and its impact on students' opportunities to speak English. In section 6.3, the sociocultural perspective, which provides possible evidence for using sociocultural theory in the study's two classrooms, is presented in four-sub sections. Section 6.3.1, discusses students' participations and interactions; section 6.3.2, addresses the importance of taking risks in learning a language. In section 6.3.3 I will discuss the effect of students working in groups and learning from each other. In section 6.3.4 I will discuss providing opportunities for speaking English related to students' life.

6.1 The pupil's book as a transcript for classroom activities

The overall aim of this study was to explore the language classroom interaction practices at two different intermediate schools, in order to investigate opportunities for learners to speak English. The presentation of the analysed findings from Sarah's and Lilly's interviews before and after the observed lessons, along with lesson transcripts, and pupil's book contents all guided by the study's theories and research questions, revealed that there were many more similarities between these two teachers than there were differences. The findings indicated that both teachers shared many qualities which emerged during their teaching and learning process maybe because their social-cultural

background instructed them to follow the same syllabus of the educational system. The teacher-centered education background created teacher-fronted classroom that relied heavily on the pupil's book and L1 to deliver their lesson.

In this section I will discuss the major role that the pupils' books played in classroom interactions and also attempt to provide answers to the sub questions, presented earlier in section 5.2.1.2. One of the questions to be addressed is whether the pupils' books encourage students to speak English or in fact discourage this. The second interesting question concerns the teachers' language proficiency and whether they have adequate English themselves not only to understand the linguistic content of the books, but also to then explain it to the students.

Findings from the interviews and classroom observations indicated that the teachers believed that the pupil's book was an adequate tool for learning English. Classroom observations showed that teachers and students relied heavily on the pupils' books. This is also suggested by Shaw, (2006) who found that in the Middle East, teaching is dependent on following the textbook and is strongly influenced by annual examinations. It was clear from this study that, to a great extent, teachers' beliefs about the pupil's book as a source of input shaped their classroom practices and activities in teaching English and providing opportunities for students to speak English.

Even when teachers downloaded lesson plans from the Internet, they used the website designed to help teachers with lesson plans and in fact the plans were just another copy of the pupil's books. This means that neither teacher wrote a creative lesson plan based on their own knowledge of students' needs and experience. This approach to planning a lesson is in contrast to one suggested by Allwright (2005) who proposed abandoning the notion of teaching points that focused on preplanning a lesson merely from the teachers' view, in favour of learning points that focused on providing opportunities for learning that are not based on predictable L2 target items. This point raises two issues about the study findings. The first issue is that Allwright (2005) argued that the teacher and learners should construct their language lessons: the L2 lessons should be jointly managed between teacher and learners rather than the teacher being in

full control of everything. Secondly, Allwright believed that the syllabus emerges from the process of classroom interactions and negotiation even when the teacher provides a precise lesson plan. In the current study, the lesson plans posted by the Saudi website were almost an exact copy of the reading passages and exercises in the pupil's books, with only minor changes. Furthermore, the teachers omitted some parts of the pupil's book exercises, mostly those exercises that encouraged the use of the English language to reflect the students' social experiences, interests and spontaneous responses. Such open ended questions would have provided students with opportunities to speak English that were not included in the lesson plans; moreover, even when they were included in the lesson plans, the teachers omitted them during lesson presentations, due to time constraints, they explained. However, another possible reason for excluding such activities could be that the teachers' proficiency level did not enable them to ask such open ended questions, thus, they avoided them.

As a result of depending on textbooks, the teachers' focus in the lesson was more on content and subject material than on language. The teachers' main goal was to cover the required lessons according to the curriculum, which put time constraints on them to finish within a certain scheduled time. They did not have enough time to provide their students with opportunities to express their own ideas to help them develop their speaking ability. This would be much more time consuming and would have to be cut from total class time. The teachers took a long time to correct students' mistakes; or perhaps they did not know how to correct these mistakes nor how to extend teacher-learner (T-L) interactions due to their limited English proficiency. The teachers often told me that their English proficiency was not very good. They did not believe they were proficient in English and that they had received adequate training. This finding is in line with Gan (2012) whose study identified problems with ESL students' oral English skills at a tertiary teacher training institution in Hong Kong, as discussed in section 3.1. I find Gan (2012) study similar to mine in that both participants in both studies were in their final year of a four year bachelor programme in teacher training, yet they still had poorly-developed speaking skills. Both studies' participants had had inadequate opportunities to speak English in class and outside, in real life situations.

Al-Mekhlafi's (2007) study also found that inadequate TEFL training, affected language teaching. Al-Mekhlafi (2007) carried out a survey study of 143 prospective EFL teachers to investigate their perceptions on the necessary specialised competencies they had acquired during their TEFL programme at Ajman University of Science and Technology (AUSTN). He found that the prospective teachers did not acquire adequate higher language skills, culture and literature and linguistic skills during their pre-service TEFL programme that would enable them to carry out their teaching duties in the classroom effectively. Thus, the study's findings suggested a need for rigorous revision of pre-service TEFL programmes in the region, particularly the need to develop communication skills.

Thus, Al-Mekhlafi (2007), Gan (2012), and this study are similar in suggesting that non-native English speaking practicum students need continual target language practice even after they graduate. I found that allowing English teachers to graduate with limited L2 proficiency not only disadvantaged them in their teaching careers, but may also considerably affect their students' L2 learning.

One of the most important findings of the current classroom investigation was the role the pupils' books played as a transcript for classroom activities and a tool that the teachers rely on in their lesson plans. This is in contrast to abandoning the notion of teaching points that focused on planning a lesson from the teachers' view Allwright (2005). The textbook played two major roles in the English learning environment of the two classrooms. First, the textbook facilitated input, and second it hindered output. I found that the pupil's books were both a physical and a symbolic artefact which, along with the teachers' explanations, enhanced the input for the students from the written words, sentences and pictures in the books. However, while the written words, pictures and teachers' explanations seemed to increase students' comprehension of the lesson content, they eliminated opportunities for teacher-learner (T-L) and learner-learner (L-L) interactions e.g. by allowing students to speak English by questioning each other or engaging in a collaborative dialogue.

The heavy reliance on textbooks and the teachers' lack of proficiency shaped the nature of classroom interactions and activities that resulted in teacher-fronted classrooms, with the main classroom interactions through T-C interaction and T-L interaction and less through L-L interaction. Most of the time, the teachers explained a lesson addressing the whole class rather than focusing on individual language needs as proposed by Allwright (2005). Teachers taught a language lesson as a subject by focusing on content and information rather than on the ability to use the language. Therefore, the students' responses, as we saw earlier, were specific, short and limited. The teachers followed the book exercises, and few activities aimed at providing speaking opportunities for students. This finding supports Tang (2011); in a study that explored the lexical variation ratio of non-native teacher talk, she found that classroom interaction was heavily teacher-led and learner talk was limited. The learners not only had limited exposure to English outside the classroom, they also had limited exposure to the target language inside the classroom. Tang (2011) attributed this learners' limited output to the teachers' lack of proficiency, and a reliance on L1 to explain vocabulary in English. This latter point also played a major role in the current study, which leads to the next discussion.

6.2 The effect of using the L1 on learning the L2

The second major result related to the cognitive perspective is using the L1 as a symbolic tool to mediate and facilitate L2 learning (Lantolf, 2000; Ellis, 2008). I found that the question and answer activities that required T-C interaction and T-L interaction, and the use of mother tongue did little to facilitate the input however limited, and hindered the students' opportunities to speak English. Both teachers used L1 primarily to explain some unfamiliar words and to translate the meaning of new words in the lesson and to give instructions. This action deprived students of hearing teachers' limited language input through their responses. However, they used both L1 and L2 to explain grammar rules. This finding supports other studies that investigated teachers' and students' attitudes towards using L1 in EFL and L2 classrooms, and found it to be positive in facilitating L2 vocabulary meaning and increasing learners' comprehension (Al-Nofaie, 2010; Alshammari, 2011; Machaal, 2012; Nazary, 2008; Tognini,

2007).Tang (2011) found that in Chinese classrooms the teachers relied quite heavily on using L1 for explaining vocabulary items and learners had no opportunities for output to negotiate meaning (Long 1996); the teachers focused on helping learners acquire the glossed words in the textbooks within the limited class time through L1.

This current study is in line with the above mentioned studies; both teachers explained in their interviews that they used Arabic to explain grammar rules and new words so that the students would understand. This confirms the findings of AL-Nofaie's (2010) study that examined the attitude of Saudi teachers and students in a Saudi intermediate school for females towards using L1. Al-Nofaie (2010) found that the teachers used Arabic to teach grammar rules because students found it difficult to understand linguistic terms in English, to explain the meaning of abstract words, and to explain unfamiliar words in Arabic for some of the weaker learners to prevent them lagging behind their peers.

However, I found that teachers used the students' L1 to translate the meaning of new L2 words during reading passages and conversations. This was an ineffective strategy, as the earlier excerpts in section 5.2.2.1 showed: even after reading the passages many times, students were still unable to provide the correct answers during the reading comprehension sections when they were just given the translation of the new words. This may be due to the fact that the students did not understand the entirety of the linguistic information (semantic and grammatical) of the message in the reading passages, so they were unable to use the target language(English) to answer. Comprehension of a message is different from production of the target language. Using L1 helps students to understand but does not assist in their ability to speak full sentences in English.

This finding confirms what Swain and Lapkin (1989) and Krashen (1985) argued: that it is possible to comprehend input without a syntactic or morphological analysis of input. Thus, producing L2 may be the trigger that forces learners to pay attention to their own language production more than to merely understand the message. This is similar to what I observed in the two classrooms; it appeared that the messages were generally comprehended using L1 and L2, but this comprehension of input did not allow the students to

speak English to answer the given comprehension questions. This supports findings by Liming (1990) and Gan (2012) where the learners' comprehensible input or high proficiency language level was not sufficient to enable them to speak English in real life situations, a point that has also been argued by Long (1996). Krashen (1995) suggested that there is a need to build students' conversational competence to use it beyond the classroom, though he did not refer to output.

At other times in this study, the teachers used only L1 to provide input, I found this hindered opportunities to speak English, though it appeared to develop learning in general but not L2 learning. During T-L interaction a whole exchange was undertaken using L1, thus, it helped L1 learning but not L2 learning. When a student said: "make [bake] a cake," here and in many places, the T-L interaction occurred in L1, the teacher did not fill the gap in the student's language nor did she assist the student to readjust her answer in English. It is possible that because of time constraints and the dynamic of the classroom, the teacher moved to other students and heard responses that provided her with the intended answer that related to the lesson's content point: how to make a complaint.

The student's answer in her native language was a legitimate one that might develop her cognitive ability to think, as proposed by Vygotsky (1987) when he argued that language mediates thinking. However, and most importantly, it hindered the opportunity to speak in English since she missed the opportunity to reconstruct or readjust her L1 response into L2. Thus, I found that using L1 did not provide the student with opportunities to learn to speak in the English lessons, despite the fact that many studies (Alshammari, 2011; Machaal, 2012; Nazary, 2008) demonstrate that a balanced use of L1 is positive; this also raised the question of what is a balanced use of L1 in an EFL class?

From the above discussion I came to the conclusion, as is well understood in the field of second language acquisition, that comprehensible input, or understanding the given message, is not sufficient to learn L2. This is because both the textbooks and the L1 employed as a means of comprehensible input did not help students understand most of the semantics and the syntax of the

message, nor did it give them opportunities to pay attention, to modify or readjust their own usage of the target L2 during T-L or L-L interactions as argued in Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis. Therefore, comprehensible output through negotiated interaction is needed to complete the SLA and speaking opportunities identified in this study. This leads to my second discussion point, the sociocultural perspective.

6.3 Possible evidence of using the sociocultural perspective

Findings related to teachers' perceptions and practices for the three research questions suggested that there was evidence that the teachers had some basic knowledge about the sociocultural theory (SCT) concept of the role of social interaction in learning and the development of cognition (Vygotsky, 1978). Sociocultural theory argues that the human mind is mediated and organised by cultural artefacts, activities and concepts (Ranter, 2002 in Lantolf, 2006). Teachers acknowledged the important role of students' participation in a classroom in learning English, of students learning from each other in pairs or groups and in games, and the importance of the role of visual materials, symbolic and concept artefacts in the learning and development of students' thinking. Not only that, but teachers applied some classroom activities and practices that were encouraged by the sociocultural perspective as in T-C and T-L interactions based on the following ideas: question and answer, scaffolded assistance, language as a mediation during interaction based on the use of the extended IRE, and students working in pairs or groups. Unfortunately, teaching aids such as the pupil's book, Power Points and clock; and teachers' understanding of concepts such as prediction, imagination, and asking questions that help to develop learners' critical thinking skills, and classroom practices, provided very limited opportunities for students to speak in English. It is likely that this is because of the lack of strategies to apply them and insufficient educational knowledge about these teaching aids and their effectiveness in developing students' L2 learning. The next sections will explain this point.

6.3.1 Students' participation and interaction

In chapter 3, literature reviewed on teachers' question-asking showed that asking students questions that required specific limited answers does not promote effective L2 learning; nor does a higher cognitive process emerge as a result of such interactions (Long, 1996; Apple, 2006; Lantolf, 2000). However, in the current study, the teachers appeared to believe that active student participation through a short, limited response during T-L interactions has the same meaning and effect on students' L2 learning and language development as do interactions based on meaning negotiation and extended language dialogue. This indicates that their understanding of L2 communicative interaction development is limited. Findings showed that most of the T-L or L-L interactions did not allow students to learn how to request clarification, how to negotiate meaning, to check comprehension or to engage in dialogue. This might be because the teachers have not been taught to extend the continuity of interactions to develop the T-L interaction beyond receiving and producing limited information, which therefore resulted in students producing short limited responses in T-L interactions. It is also important to acknowledge the fact that neither teachers nor their students had been trained to engage in oral interactions or ask follow-up questions to encourage each other to develop an interaction not only in L2 but even in their native language. The Saudi educational curriculum, mostly based on theology, believes in the absolute truth, thus encouraging memorisation of the textbook information to reproduce it in the exam (Shaw, 2006; Al-Essa, 2009) rather than helping students' minds to grow through language and social interactions (Vygotsky, 1978). Thus, the culture has a strong hidden power on the educational system, which sometimes tries to include social learning in its curricula but at the same time fails to emphasise learning through students' interactions with each other, or sharing social experiences in learning and then learning from each other, which is a major tenet of SLA theory (Lantolf, 2000; Apple, 2006).

This current study's finding of students' limited ability to engage in negotiated meaning interaction supports Naughton's (2006) study as both students were unable to manage and extend oral interactions to develop their students' English. Naughton's (2006) study focused on the effect of a cooperative strategy training programme for 45 Spanish students of EFL who participated in

an oral discussion activity. The findings suggested that the pre-test showed that students failed to engage in interaction patterns where negotiation exchanges had been identified as important for language acquisition. However, the post-test revealed that the strategy training programme succeeded in encouraging students to engage in interactional sequences and in negotiating situations when breakdowns occurred in conversations. This suggests that also the students in this current study might need to learn strategies to develop their interactional negotiation skills to enable them to express themselves in English.

6.3.2 Taking risks in language learning

In this study, the teachers expressed an understanding of the role of taking risks and making mistakes in language learning, but this theoretical belief was not supported in practice during students' classroom interactions. When a student made a mistake, the teacher usually moved the question to someone who was willing to provide the correct answer, because the focus is on a lesson's content and not on developing language skills. Thus, the opportunity to speak and negotiate to solve a mistake was lost. There are possible reasons why the teachers avoided asking open-ended questions and the students avoided taking risks to respond to such questions. Krashen (1995) argued that error correction puts the student on the defensive and thus makes them avoid mistakes or disrupts the entire interaction exchange.

One source of the fear of making mistakes revealed by both the teachers and their students could be cultural expectations. Culturally, a teacher who makes a mistake (linguistically) in a classroom is considered by a supervisor, a principal or a student, to have shown a weakness in their ability to teach. In the same way when a student makes a mistake in the classroom, she loses face in front of her classmates and may lose some class participation marks. Consequently, both teachers and students avoided spontaneous questions and answers about which they were uncertain. This finding supports Alshammari (2011) study which investigated the use of the native language in EFL classes at two Saudi technical colleges. Thirteen teachers responded to a questionnaire and 95 students responded to a different questionnaire designed for them. The study found that both teachers and students stated that the use of Arabic was

essential to clarify difficult concepts, to explain new vocabulary and grammar points, as mentioned earlier in section 6.2. But most importantly, one of the study's results relevant to this discussion is how the students indicated that the use of Arabic helped them to feel comfortable and less stressed. One of the points to emerge from the study was that students overused their L1 to stay in their comfort zone. The study suggested that English teachers needed to create an environment where students will not feel shy about making mistakes when speaking English.

6.3.3 The effect of working in groups

The sociocultural perspectives stresses that learning occurs not only within the mind of the learner but also as the result of social interaction with teachers and classmates (Apple, 2006). The teachers in the current study explained that they knew students could learn English working in groups. However, findings revealed that during L-L interactions the students did not have a specific role to play; this simply enabled the fluent students to speak more and the others seldom participated, thus they were given few or no opportunities to practice using English. In addition, the students turned to their shared L1 to express their views and to interact with each other rather than using English. Thus, group work appeared to mostly take the burden off the teacher's shoulder of explaining the meanings of new words in English, rather than encouraging students to learn from each other by using the target language. This shows that although students learn from each other, placing learners in groups without providing them with a specific role does not promote effective L2 learning (Lantolf, 2000; Apple, 2006).

Furthermore, one of the most interesting findings from the classroom observations is that during T-C interactions and T-L interactions there seemed to be a designated student in these classes who helped the teachers to explain the lessons. I found that primarily St 1 in the first year and St 3 in the third year provided the translation of an English word to the rest of the students. I observed that, at times, some students did not seem to take the initiative to answer the teacher's questions until the "good" student in each class had given them a hint about what would be the correct answer. This action seemed to be employed as a scaffolding strategy (Yu, 2004), whether it was the translation of

an English word into Arabic, or the pronunciation of a word, appeared to provide immediate comprehensible input for those who did not understand the meanings in English, thus, they did not fall behind their classmates and were motivated to participate. This was observed to happen whether these particular “good” students were being asked directly by the teacher to provide the meaning of an L2 word or phrase in L1, were voluntarily programmed to provide answers for the rest of the class, or, as explained by Sarah in interview II when asked why St1 gave the answers or a translation most of the times, “the St1 automatically answered and the other students learned from her.”

6.3.4 Providing speaking opportunities related to students’ lives

While the classroom input, output and interaction as a whole appeared to provide students with only limited opportunities to speak English, findings indicated that students’ spontaneous responses to the teachers’ questions created unpredictable usage of the target language, whereby the students and their teachers were pushed to use their previously acquired English words which the teachers thought had been forgotten. This enabled the students to make mistakes and gave the teachers the opportunity to scaffold the students to correct their own mistakes through the use of chunks of formulaic language, clarification of word meanings, modification and readjustment of their responses. For example, I found that Lilly’s four supplementary introductory lessons provided the most effective teaching points that created learning opportunities. Lilly showed, in her post-lesson interviews, a belief in teaching through bringing her experiences into the classroom and sharing them with her students, in order to make a lesson more interesting and age related as, for example, in the supplementary lesson 1 based on Popeye and Pluto. In this way, the students were motivated to participate but, most importantly, to use their prior knowledge and to build on it. This act gave Lilly the opportunity to speak English by providing real examples related to the students’ lives. For example, during grammar lessons she created a situation based on the classroom environment and enabled students to apply the reported speech rule to themselves. Therefore, Lilly provided the students with authentic opportunities to express themselves spontaneously, to construct their own responses and to develop their minds in L2 learning through social interaction

(Swain, 2000) and language use to mediate language learning and thinking (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

I found that Swain's (1985) idea to push students to express themselves in the target language, not just to be understood but beyond to deliver a message appropriately and coherently, was reflected in Lilly's supplementary introduction lesson. Lilly pushed the students' learning beyond traditional classroom learning and their current language level. Her act of giving the students opportunities to imagine, for instance, a wedding party without a cake, provided the students with an opportunity to visualise and to think in English, to find solutions to a given problem to make mistakes and to speak English. It appeared that Lilly taught the students to take their learning outside the classroom and maybe beyond. In addition, this supports Allwright's (2005) proposal of abandoning the preplanning lessons for creating opportunities for learning. Lilly abandoned a lesson plan, even though for a short time, and created spontaneous opportunities for speaking English related to students' lives.

6.4 The application of the theoretical framework to the collected data

The theoretical framework of inquiry that I deployed for this study was based on integrating cognitive and sociocultural perspectives during an investigation of trainee teachers' teaching practices of affording opportunities to their students to speak English. As a researcher this combining of the two perspectives has deepened my understanding of how they are related and observable in real classroom practices and the need to be aware of this when researching second language learning and teaching. In addition, and most importantly, the absence of one perspective at the expense of the other can severely hinder L2 learning as the data from the current study showed. The data analysis showed that the overall teaching practices and English learning observed in the classrooms were based on cognitive more than sociocultural perspectives. The data from Sarah's and Lilly's teaching practices revealed that Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis was more prevalent than Long's (1996) interaction and Swain's (1985) output hypotheses. During T-C interaction the trainee teachers focused more on conscious learning- by providing linguistic information- than on language use (output hypothesis). They provided students,

during T-C interaction, with sufficient understandable input (to a certain extent) within current knowledge language level, and a little beyond (Krashen's *i+1*). By using visual materials such as pupil books, Power Point presentations and teaching aids, the trainee teachers acknowledged the important role of scaffolding techniques in facilitating students' comprehension, more than developing their thinking.

In contrast, the data analysis revealed limited practices associated with sociocultural perspectives as in the interaction and output hypotheses. For example, the trainee teachers used language as mediators to scaffold students during T-L interactions. In interactions based on Q/A, they applied more of the Initiation, Response, Evaluation¹ (IRE¹) procedure than the extended Initiation, Response, Follow-up² (IRF²) procedure. There were limited uses of English as in clarification requests and negotiated meanings to express themselves through the output hypothesis. Furthermore, there were more data showing scaffolding instructions (one word questions and answers) than scaffolded dialogue (where the communication assists students to speak more English). Language concepts such as prediction, imagination, and scaffolded assistance for students working in pairs or groups were seldom identified in the data analysis. Language which served as a symbolic artifact to facilitate learning was used more via students' L1 than in English as a FL. These applications of sociocultural concepts or elements were limited in the data, probably reflecting a lack of knowledge and training in such areas.

In addition, the data did not show any practices indicating that either Sarah or Lilly applied or had knowledge of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). The data analysis of T-C, T-L and L-L interactions did not reveal any supporting evidence that the teachers were aware of the role of ZPD in developing students' individual competence in speaking English via clear and systematic mediated negotiated meanings.

Thus, my choice of integrating cognitive and sociocultural perspectives revealed a more comprehensive picture of the nature of English teaching and learning in these classrooms than would have been possible if only one of the perspectives had been investigated. This is because all learning takes place in cognition and

learning a second language is social; therefore, for effective L2 learning, researchers and classroom practices need to take both into account (Dekeyser, 2014; Ellis, 2014; Hulstijn et al., 2014 and Lantolf, 2014).

In the next final chapter I will present a summary of the key findings, study's implications, recommendations, and a contribution to knowledge, limitations and my reflections as I worked on this thesis.

Chapter 7-Conclusions

In this chapter, I will first present some thoughts about my interpretation of the study's results through a summary of the key findings. Then I will provide two implications and recommendations for teacher education practice based on the findings of the study, followed by an explanation of the study's contribution to knowledge. The study's limitations will be addressed and areas for further research suggested. Finally, I end with my reflections on professional development as I worked on this thesis.

7.1 Summary of key findings

The aim of this interpretive study was to investigate how the practicum students' practice activities provide opportunities for learners to speak English in two different public intermediate school classrooms. This aim was explored through three research questions, guided by the study's theoretical perspectives of input, output and interaction (Krashen, 1982; Swain, 1985; Long, 1996). The findings suggest that the teachers provided students with many limited opportunities to speak English. However, overall, the nature of the speaking opportunities created in the classrooms investigated by interaction in its totality (that is to say, as a context for providing input and as affording situations for output) was mostly ineffective for developing and enhancing students' ability to speak English. This probably resulted from two main causes: the classroom learning environment being affected largely by the social-cultural background education of the teachers, and the fact that the teachers had little knowledge about second language acquisition theory related to interaction and providing opportunities to speak English.

The teacher-centred education background created traditional teachers. The classroom observations indicated that classes were teacher-fronted; furthermore, the teachers relied heavily on the textbook and avoided the spontaneous use of the L2 and instead resorted to the L1. The teachers relied on the "good" students to provide a translation of L2 words during the T-L interaction, when it was in front of the whole class, rather than explaining the meaning of new vocabulary. The teachers' lesson plans focused on teaching the lesson as content rather than English as a language of use. The findings indicated that the teachers were unaware of the important role of negotiated

interaction (Long, 1996) in developing L2 learning and did not seem to understand that teaching a language is different from teaching subject matter. Therefore, they missed a lot of opportunities to help students to speak in English, make mistakes and develop their language skills.

Almost all of the time in the observed classes, the teachers were interacting with and speaking to the students, from the beginning of the English period until the end. There were many exchanges of T-C and T-L interactions, but their effectiveness in helping students to speak English were limited to one word or short specific responses, for the following reasons. First, the T-C and L-L interactions were mostly based on lesson content. Swain and Lapkin (1989) found in their observations in immersion classes that instruction based on lesson content produced limited opportunities for students to speak in the L2. Secondly, the question/ answer activity used to elicit information from students appeared to be ineffective in eliciting enhanced extended output. Thirdly, the T-C, T-L and L-L interactions did not provide opportunities for negotiations of meaning, clarification requests, confirmation checks (Long, 1996; Tang, 2011) and creating authentic life situations, which are the most effective ways of pushing students to produce output (Swain, 1985; 2000) that develops their ability to speak English.

However, on occasions, the T-L interaction created a few speaking opportunities, mostly from students' spontaneous responses based on real life situations that developed students' interactions and extended the turns in exchanges, as in initiation, response, follow-up2 (IRF2). This type of T-L interaction pushed the students to make mistakes and the teachers to scaffold them to modify their output and extend the opportunities to speak in English in the classroom (Long, 1996; Swain, 1985; Swain, 2000), the most available place for them to practise speaking English.

7.2 Implications and Recommendations

The findings of the current study suggest that perhaps if these teachers are typical, as comparisons with other studies have suggested (e.g. Tang, 2011; Alshammari, 2011), then some changes to teacher training programmes for language teachers may be necessary. Results in this study lead to some recommendations for trainee language teachers, as suggested by, for example, (Al-Mekhlafi, (2007) and; Gan, (2012) which could assist them in their future professional teaching careers. Findings suggest that a significant problem that came from the current study investigation lies in the teachers' limited English proficiency, which resulted in their heavy dependence on the pupil's books and the students' L1, and which therefore limited the opportunities for students to speak English. This outcome seems to be caused by two factors.

First, it seems that working on a research project gave the trainee teachers an understanding of how students' interaction and participation in specific situations to a certain degree assists students in speaking English. The teachers realised that their teacher training programme did not provide them with the skills needed to be English teachers and that would help them to perform their classroom teaching in an effective or a professional way. The teachers were aware that learning a language through input is not sufficient to enable them to use the L2 in their teaching practice. Thus, they recognised the importance of comprehensible output in learning the L2. This is illustrated by Lilly: "I used to say that I need more training to speak English, but now I say practising English is what I need." The teachers found that their limited English proficiency level made it difficult to use English spontaneously during the teacher-student interactions.

In addition, participating in this study, also helped the teachers to reflect on their teaching experience and the learning of English through their course of studying at a university. This reflection on experience gave them the opportunities to notice the gap in their teacher training programme that should provide them with the right language skills and teaching experience, regarding mastering the ability to speak English spontaneously in classrooms.

This understanding of low proficiency indicates that novice teachers could learn strategies to educate themselves in order to develop professionally, through recording their own lessons in order to have critical reflection on their classroom teachings, engaging in a discussion with expert colleagues, and even going beyond that by conducting action research, as suggested by Grundy (2006).

Secondly, it appeared that the social-cultural back ground of the teachers' education and the way they are trained still focuses on the traditional way of learning (Al-Essa, 2009). The traditional educational system seems to favour a teacher-centred classroom, aimed at the final outcome of learning rather than the learning process itself. Teaching follows the textbook very closely and prepares students for the annual examinations (Shaw, 2006). To overcome this traditional and controlled way of learning, the trainee teachers need to be provided with updated knowledge about their discipline based on current research findings on learning English as a second or a foreign language. SLA highlights the role of social learning and the importance of students' output in L2 learning. Thus, the practicum teachers need to be introduced to current research findings on classroom activities that best provide learners with speaking opportunities based on an effective strategy and professional knowledge. They need to focus more on a student-centred classroom rather than the traditional way of learning an L2. Social learning focuses on learning by interacting with others in real life situations that require self-expression and the spontaneous use of language more than reproducing information based on the textbook or depending on the textbook and the L1 to explain L2 vocabulary and concepts.

7.2.1 Teacher education

As a consequence of the current study's findings, an important question has been raised: how can such limited teaching and learning outcomes, particularly in GU be improved? Although the question is too complicated to be answered in depth here as the data is based on the practice of two trainee teachers, improving teacher education programmes at GU seems to be a general starting point. Al-Domyatty (2010) found that the main academic problem facing female GU students was poor learning achievement. AlDomyatty (2010) suggested the

necessity of establishing a comprehensible strategy for finding solutions to the academic problems faced by females in different colleges of GU. This might mean that teacher education needs reform and improvement; however, I am aware that reform is not easy to bring about and cannot be achieved quickly. It takes time for teaching and learning reforms to emerge, particularly in Saudi Arabia where educational policy is predetermined and prescribed from the top-down. However, it is possible for GU to reform teacher education because: (1) GU is the main if not the only, university in Medina city providing most of the teachers in different majors to the public schools; (2) every term GU supervisors and examiners go with trainee teachers to different intermediate and high schools across Medina to supervise their training or practicums; (3) these supervisors and examiners have easy access to schools, principals, school teachers and students learning English and other disciplines. Therefore, GU needs to build bridges among all these curricula components or participants and evaluate their outcomes through research every year.

7.2.2 Sociocultural theory in teacher education

This current study may contribute to the building of these bridges as it studies trainee teachers (from GU) and their students (in schools). The study's findings revealed that the trainee teachers' pedagogical beliefs, their low levels of English proficiency and their lack of knowledge about sociocultural perspectives relating to the fundamental role of social interaction in L2 learning affected their affordance of effective speaking opportunities to their students during T-C, T-L and L-L classroom interactions. My focus was on students' input, interaction and output.

When I examined my study's findings in relation to other studies (Al-Nkhli, 2003; Al-Nfaie, 2010; Alshmmari, 2011; Machaal, 2012) of teaching and learning English in classrooms in Saudi Arabia, I found that the other studies share a common body of knowledge concerning how to teach grammar rules and new vocabulary through the use of L1. Furthermore, the main difference between my study and the others is based on the framework focus. The other studies appeared to focus on cognitive perspectives, such as how the use of L1 in translating L2 vocabulary enhances students' comprehension of the given

messages during the input process; however, I found that this limited students' English output. Therefore, this study suggests the necessity of including sociocultural theory that acknowledges that learning occurs through social or cultural interaction embedded experiences (Vygotsky, 1978; Lantolf, 2000) in Saudi Arabian teacher education. This will contribute to the empowerment of teacher education training programmes by allowing English teachers to engage in face-to-face discussion in English, to be aware of and to understand the role of sociocultural perspectives to develop L2 learning and to incorporate this in their classroom teaching. The findings of this study may provide legitimate reasons for strengthening the inclusion of sociocultural perspectives twinned with improved discourse strategies in foreign language classrooms. This can be achieved in both pre-service and in-service teacher training in order to help English teachers to master their English communication skills that enable them to assist their students to speak fluent English.

7.2.3 Pre-service and in-service teacher education

Teacher education should enable novice and expert teachers to look at teaching practicums not as the end of their teaching training but rather at the beginning of their teacher education (Kinchin, 2007).

Interviews with the trainee teachers and observation of their classroom practices indicated that some of their pedagogical beliefs and teaching approaches were based more on guidance from expert teachers, pupils' books, curricula and their own learning experiences rather than on theory and research. As a result their practices in T-L and L-L interactions indicated a lack of knowledge of sociocultural perspectives about L2 learning; this was, even evident among the regular school teachers, whose lesson performances the trainee teachers watched and observed before starting their teaching practices. Thus, in-service teachers (regular school teachers) should be encouraged to educate themselves in order to develop professionally. Kumaravadivelu (2005) pointed out that a post- method teacher is an autonomous teacher who self-directs, self-develops, and self-explores. In teacher education there is a need for evidence based policy, where teaching becomes an evidence based profession; that is to say, in-service teachers should be helped to explore,

evaluate and reflect on their teaching practices (Kumaravadivelu, 2005; Kinchin, 2007). This could be achieved when teacher education regards language teachers as active researchers, training them to see themselves as enthusiastic learners who explore knowledge by constantly asking questions about what works and why and what does not and why in their classroom practices, and by conducting their own research based on their classrooms practices. This might help them to theorise about teaching practice (Kumaravadivelu, 2005) and thus to make contribution to the research community (Kinchin, 2007).

7.2.4 Teacher education and textbooks

Teacher education should not merely pass on a body of knowledge, but should be dialogically constructed by participants who think and act critically (Kumaravadivelu, 2005). One way to achieve this is for teacher education trainers to have a dialogue with language textbook designers and inform them of the need for textbooks that respond to current research findings and to integrate discourse strategies that allow teachers and students to communicate efficiently in a variety of contexts. This is because many teachers received an inadequate teachers training and or have limited access to resources to knowledge about language learning theory. As a result of this, they rely on textbooks for structures (Mahboob and Tilakaratna, 2012). From this study's findings the pupils' books did not provide appropriate pictures and linguistic knowledge to develop students' English language proficiency particularly for those students who primarily depended upon them to learn how to speak English. The quality of the textbooks often determines the extent to which teachers and students receive effective structures for teaching and learning English language proficiency (Mahboob and Tilakaratna, 2012). I think L2 textbooks would be more useful if their designers were to co-construct them with L2 researchers and focus more on how language mediates language learning rather than on preplanning a language lesson based on certain traditional grammar or vocabulary methods. Language teachers should teach according to their students' needs. Therefore, there is a need for post-method teacher education that helps teachers to develop the knowledge, skills and autonomy to understand how their teaching can cope with unpredictable

situations and challenges in their everyday teaching practices (Kumaravadivelu, 2005; Kinchin, 2007).

The outcome of the above discussion suggests that there is a need for GU to re-evaluate its teacher education curriculum as effective methods of teaching English as L2 or EFL will produce skillful language learners. Thus, if trainee teachers are well trained they will apply their acquired skills in teaching and learning English to their students. Those students (future applicants to GU) would enter GU empowered with English language proficiency enabling them to succeed in their university learning. It is like a circular motion: effective English teaching (training programme) approaches will produce effective public school English teachers. And the opposite can also be said as the study's findings showed poor English teaching methods produced English trainee teachers who provided limited speaking opportunities to their students (students who may apply to GU and might suffer or fail in their quest to learn English). This circular motion will go on and on unless it is stopped; teacher education, as found in this study to be the core problem, needs to be re-evaluated.

7.3 Contribution to Knowledge

This study has three main contributions to knowledge. One is the unique insights that it provides into English learning practices inside real Saudi female classrooms with those practicum students (studying at GU) and their students (potential applicants to GU). It gives insights into understanding the circumstances under which these teachers provided mainly limited opportunities to students to speak English. Secondly, the study provides a deeper understanding of the construct of negotiated and modified T-L interactions that extend the exchanges between a teacher and a student. A third contribution is that the study provides useful knowledge about the teaching and learning of spoken English in these classrooms to educators and researchers both inside and outside Saudi Arabia, who are investigating or searching for possible answers to help ESL/EFL students to develop their spoken English. This would enable them to engage in real dialogue in terms of conversation, poetry, and drama so as to enjoy these subjects, and to taste the beauty behind their current meanings and to encourage them to go beyond the superficial of learning about the language. This can only be achieved through the use of

language: language mediates language learning and thinking (Vygotsky, 1978; Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

7.4 Limitations of the Study

There are a number of limitations to this study. One is the limited number of trainee teacher participants, since more teachers would have provided a wider picture of classroom interactions that provide opportunities for speaking English. Secondly, the study would have benefited from interviews with students to explore their perceptions of their own learning opportunities and abilities to speak English. I think it would deepen my understanding had I heard the students' points of view about their study habits and the ways in which they were encouraged or discouraged in speaking English. Time constraints as well as practicalities in the context accounted for the number of participants, along with the feasibility of data collection methods.

A third limitation was the restriction on collecting video data: it would have been useful to record on video camera the teachers and the students during classroom interactions, to include their facial expressions and to be able to review the classroom events with the teachers and to allow them to reflect on points needing more feedback. Recording the classroom environments using video may have given other researchers a chance to provide another interpretation of the data, because the same data can be interpreted differently depending on the researcher's background and experience (Kuhn, 1996).

7.5 Suggestions for future research

A suggestion for future research might be to investigate further second language learning speaking opportunities through combining the cognitive and sociocultural perspectives. The current study could be replicated with consideration of the above limitations and recommendations, including more teachers and interviewing students in order to gain more understanding of the research questions. In addition, more research is needed to find out about regular schools' teachers or expert teachers, not only the trainee teachers, to hear their perceptions of students' L2 speaking skills. Also, for more understanding of classroom interactions and opportunities for speaking English,

it would be useful to conduct a study in a boy's schools where a video camera is allowed. This would enable us to see whether or not these study findings are similar in a context with male teachers and students.

7.6 Reflection

The process of doing this EdD and the research described in this thesis reflects a quite long journey filled with the joy of learning, professional development and enlightenment. Completing this study has strengthened and developed my research skills and my understanding of classroom types of interactions that provided students with opportunities to speak English. I became aware of myself regarding my ontological stance and how to construct my epistemology from my experience and from the realities of the world around me, and this makes me more tolerant to acknowledge and understand others' different interpretations. From the academic point of view, I have developed confidence in how to research a phenomenon. I developed the ability to handle a large amount of knowledge, to analyse data, and to understand how data can be interpreted in different ways according to each individual's ontology and epistemology. I learned the important role of research in changing and transforming one's belief, reforming current ineffective practices and convincing others about one's points of view. Thus, a researcher should take his or her research seriously and conduct it for the sake of emancipating humans.

Most importantly, this study allowed me to witness and experience how theories are reflected in classroom practices. It gave me the opportunities to understand how researchers can use theories and how these theories can be interpreted differently depending on the perspective and emphasis of each person. How each one looks at the phenomena with the knowledge he or she possesses. Seeing theories in practice has deepened my understanding of effective classroom types of interactions that promoted or hindered providing students with opportunities to speak English.

References

- Abu-Ghararah, H. (1992). EFL speaking inability: Its causes and remedies. *Journal of King Abdul Aziz University*,5,53-56.
- Al-Anssari, N. (1993). *Education in Al-Medina al-Munawwarah: A historic, descriptive and an analytic study*, (1st ed.). Cairo: Dar Al-Manar.
- Al-Domyatty, S. (2010). The relationship between academic problems and the level of achievement for female at Taibah University: A field study. *Symposium female higher education: Trends & perspectives* (95-134).
- Al-Essa, A. (2009). *Educational reform in Saudi among the absence of political vision, the fear of cultural religion and the deficiency of educational management*. (1st edition). Lebanon: Dar Al-Sakey.
- Allwright, D. (1984). *Interaction and negotiation in the language classroom: Their role in learner development*. Available at www.lmg.lance.ac.uk/groups/crile/docs/crile50allright.pdf
- Allwright, D. (2005). From teaching points to learning opportunities and beyond. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39 (1), 9-31.
- Al-Mekhlafi, A. (2007). The development of prospective EFL teachers' specialist language competencies in UAE Universities. *Journal for Shari'a Sciences & Humanities*, 4(1).
- Al-Nkhli, M.(2003). Content analysis of the English language textbooks for third grade of the secondary schools regarding the activities of language skills. (Doctoral dissertation). Makkah: Umm Al-Qura University.
- Al-Nofaie, H. (2010).The attitude of teachers and students towards using Arabic in EFL classrooms in Saudi public schools- A case study. *Novitas Royal Research on Youth and Language*, 4 (1), 64-95.
- Al-Shammari, M. (2011). The use of the mother tongue in Saudi EFL classrooms. *Journal of International Education Research*, 7(4).
- Al-Salem, A. (2009). Evaluation of female Arabic language teachers' performance in teaching Arabic literature at intermediate schools: In the light of real teaching standards. (Master degree). Emam Muhammad ben Saud Islamic University.
- Al-Sloome, H. (1991). *History of the educational movement in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: The development of administration in educational regions: Part II*. Washington: Graphics International.
- Al-Subahi, A. (1992). Students' assessment in English language in Saudi Arabian schools: Present status and suggested improvement. *Journal of King Abdul-Aziz University*,5.

- Al-Sumbole, A., Al-Kateep, M. Mutwalee, M. & Al-Jawad, N. (1998). *The system of education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*, (6th ed.). Riyadh: Al-Kerigee.
- Anton, M. (1999). The discourse of a learner-centered classroom: Sociocultural perspectives on teacher-learner interaction in the second-language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*. Retrieved May 11, 2013, from <http://www.jstor.org>
- Apple, M. (2006). Language learning theories and cooperative learning techniques in the EFL classroom. Retrieved August 8th, 2011 from www.sendaiedu.com/pairgroupbm.doc
- Atkinson, D. (2011a). *Alternative approaches to second language acquisition*. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Atkinson, D. (2011b). A sociocognitive approach to second language acquisition: How mind, body, and world work together in learning additional languages. In D. Atkinson (Ed.), *Alternative approaches to second language acquisition* (143-166). Abingdon: Routledge.
- Beyer, B. (1990). What philosophy offers to the teaching of thinking: What does philosophy have to do with teaching thinking? In a word, everything. *Educational Leadership*, 47, (5), 55-60.
- Bigelow, M. (2014). Blending social and cognitive research traditions in language learning and teaching a matter of mentoring and modeling. In J.H. Hulstijn, R. F. Young, & L. Ortega. *Bridging the gap: Cognitive and social approaches to research in second language learning and teaching*. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 36 (402-407).
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3, 77-101.
- Brooks, F. & Donato, R. (1994). *Vygotskyan approaches to understanding foreign language learner discourse during communicative tasks*, 77 (2), 262-274. Retrieved May 11, 2013, from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/344508>
- Brown, J. (1995). *The elements of language curriculum: A systematic approach to program development*. New York: Newbury House.
- Central department of statistics & information in KSA. (2014). Available at www.cdsi.gov.sa
- Christison, M. (1999). Applications of brain-based research to second language teaching and learning: Part I. *TESOL Matters*, 9(2), 1 & 8.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison. (2007). *Research methods in education*, (6th ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Crawford, J. (1995). *Bilingual education: History, politics, theory and practice*, (3rd ed.). Los Angeles: Bilingual Education Services, INC.

- Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research meaning and perspective in the research process*. London: Sage Publications.
- Denzin, N., Lincoln, Y. & Giardina, M. (2006). Disciplining qualitative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 19(6), 769-782.
- Dekeyser, R. (2014). The philosophy of science and the social-cognitive dichotomy in research in language learning and teaching. In J.H. Hulstijn, R.F. Young, & L. Ortega (Ed.), *Bridging the gap: Cognitive and social approaches to research in second language learning and teaching*. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 36 (365-368).
- Donato, R. (2000). Sociocultural contributions to understanding the foreign and second language classroom. In J. P. Lantolf, (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning (27-50)*. Oxford, New York: Oxford University Press.
- Duff, P., & Polio, C. (1990). How much foreign language is there in the foreign language classroom? *The Modern Language Journal*, 74 (2), 154-166.
- Ellis, N. (2014). Cognitive and social language usage. In J.H. Hulstijn, R. F. Young, & L. Ortega (ed.), *Bridging the gap: cognitive and social approaches to research in second language learning and teaching*. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 36, (397--402).
- Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition*, (2nd ed.). Oxford, New York: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. & Barkhuizen, G. (2005). *Analysing learner language*. Oxford, New York: Oxford University Press.
- Fersch, B. (2013). Meaning: lost, found or 'made' in translation? A hermeneutical approach to cross-language interview research. *Qualitative Studies*, 4(2), 86-99.
- Firth, A. & Wanger, J. (1997). On discourse, communication, and (some) fundamental concepts in SLA research. *The Modern Language Journal*, 81(3), 285-300.
- Fred, L. & Perry, Jr. (2005). *Research in applied linguistics: Becoming a discerning consumer*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Freire, P. (1970). (OL), *Pedagogy of the oppressed*.
- Galea, S., & Nair, P. (2008). The use of scaffolding strategies among ESL learners in the comprehension of literacy texts. *Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching*, 4(2), 140-150.

- Gan, Z. (2012). Understanding L2 speaking problems: Implications for ESL curriculum development in a teacher training institution in Hong Kong, *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(1), Article 3. Available at <http://ro.ecu.edu.au/ajte/vol37/iss1/3>
- Gass, S. (2003). *Input, interaction and the second language learner*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Iddings, A. & Jang, E. (2008). The mediational role of classroom practices during the silent period: A new-immigrant student learning the English language in a mainstream classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 42(4), 567-590.
- Hulstijn, J. H., Young, R. F., & Ortega, L. (2014). Bridging the gap: Cognitive and social approaches to research in second language learning and teaching. *Studies in second language acquisition*, 36 (361-421).
- Kinchin, G. (2007). Understanding learning. In V. Ellis (Ed.), *Achieving QTS meeting the professional standards framework: Learning and teaching in secondary schools*, (3rd ed.). (30-43). Exeter: Learning Matters Ltd.
- Kinginger, C. (2002). Defining the zone of proximal development in US foreign language education. *Applied Linguistics*, 23(2), 240-261.
- Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. United States of America: Laredo Publishing, Inc.
- Krashen, S. (1992). *Fundamentals of language education*. United States of America: Laredo Publishing, Inc.
- Krashen, S. (1994). Bilingual education and second language acquisition theory. In C. Leyba. (1994). *Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework*, (2nd ed.). Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center.
- Krashen, S. (1995). *Principles and practices in second language acquisition*. London: Phoenix Elt.
- Krashen, S. (1998). Comprehensible output. 26(2), 175-182. Available at [file:///C:/Documents and Settings/Administrator/My Documents/Downloads/Comprehensible Output.htm](file:///C:/Documents%20and%20Settings/Administrator/My%20Documents/Downloads/Comprehensible%20Output.htm)
- Kuhn, T. (1996). *The structure of scientific revolutions*, (3rd ed.). Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2005). *Understanding language teaching: From method to postmethod*. New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Lantolf, J. (2006). Sociocultural theory and L2 state of the art. Cambridge University Press SSLA, 28, 97-109.
- Lantolf, J. (2000). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning*. Oxford, New York: Oxford University Press.

- Lantolf, J. & Thorne, S. (2006). *Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lantolf, J. (2011). The sociocultural approaches to second language acquisition: Sociocultural theory, second language acquisition, and artificial L2 development. In D. Atkinson (Ed.), *Alternative approaches to second language acquisition (24-47)*. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Lantolf, J. (2014). A bridge not needed: The sociocultural perspective. In J.H. Hulstijn, R. F. Young, & L. Ortega, (Ed.), *Bridging the gap: Cognitive and social approaches to research in second language learning and teaching*. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 36 (368-374).
- Lee, L. (2008). Focus-on-form through collaborative scaffolding in expert-to-novice on line interactive. *Language Learning & Technology*, 12(3), 53-72.
- Liming, Y. (1990). The comprehensible output hypothesis and self-directed learning: A learner's perspective. *TESL Canada Journal*, 8(1), 9-25.
- Liu, X. & Zhao, G. (2004). Classroom negotiation and learner participation. *The Journal of ASIA TEFL*, 1(1), 213-241.
- Long, M. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W.C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition (413-468)*. New York: Academic Press.
- Machaal, B. (2012). Assessing the role of Arabic in Saudi EFL classes. In Amri, W., Noor, H., & McGee, I. (Eds.), *Saudi preparatory year English program: The future and beyond students, teacher, pedagogy and curricular issues (54-85)*. Riyadh Press.
- Mahboob, A., & Tilakaratna, N. (2012). A principles-based approach for English language teaching policies and practices. *TESOL International Association*, 1-20.
- McBurney, D. (1996). *How to think like a psychologist: Critical thinking in psychology*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Ministry of education, (1988). Curriculum of EFL education. Riyadh: Ministry of education.
- Ministry of education, (1998). Saudi policy of education. Riyadh: Ministry of education.
- Ministry of education, (2007). Statistics of schools in the KSA. Riyadh: Ministry of education.
- Ministry of education, (2012/2013). Statistics of schools in the KSA. Riyadh: Ministry of education.

- Naashia, M. (2006). Do learners collaborate during task performance? *Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching*, 2(10). Retrieved April 25, 2013, from <http://www.jstor.org>
- Nazary, M. (2008). The role of L1 in L2 acquisition: Attitudes of Iranian university students. *Novitas-Royal*, 2(2), 138-153.
- Naughton, D. (2006). Cooperative strategy training and oral interaction: Enhancing small group communication in the language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 90(2), 169-184.
- Ohata, K. (2005). Language anxiety from the teacher's perspective: Interviews with seven experienced ESL/EFL teachers. *Journal of language and Learning*, 3(1), 1740-4983.
- Patton, M. (1999). Enhancing the quality and credibility of qualitative analysis. *Health Services Research*, 34(5), part 2.
- Philp, J., & Tognini, R. (2009). Language acquisition in foreign language contexts and the differential benefits of interaction. *IRAL*, 47, 245-266.
- Pica, T et al. (1989). Comprehensible output as an outcome of linguistic demands on the learner. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 11, 63-90.
- Pinker, S. (1994). *The language instinct: How the mind creates language*. New York: Harper Perennial.
- Pring, R. (2004). *Philosophy of education aims, theory, common sense and research*. London: Continuum.
- Rahimi, A., & Tahmasebi, S. (2010). Mediating Iranian EFL learners: Private speech and scaffolding in reading comprehension. *Libri. Linguistic and Literacy Broad Research and Innovation*, 1(2).
- Richards, J., & Rodgers, T. (1994). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*, (10th ed.). Cambridge: University Press.
- Richards, K. (2003). *Qualitative inquiry in TESOL*. Great Britain: Palgrave Macmillam.
- Rogers, C. (1961). *On becoming a person: A distinguished psychologist's guide to personal growth and creativity*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Sandberg, J. (2005). How do we justify knowledge produced within interpretive approaches? *Organizational Research Methods*, 8(1), 41-68.
- Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics* 11, 206-266.

- Shamsipour, A. & Allami, H. (2012). Teacher talk and learner involvement in EFL classroom: The case of Iranian setting. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(11), 2262-2268.
- Shank, G. & Brown, L. (2007). *Exploring educational research literacy*. New York: Routledge.
- Sharaf, I. (1993). Speaking skill activities. (Unpublished Master's Degree): Umm Al-Qura University. Makkah, Saudi Arabia.
- Shaw, K. (2006). Muslim education in the Gulf States and Saudi Arabia: Selected issues. In Griffin, R. (Ed.). *Education in the Muslim world: Different perspectives (41-54)*. Oxford: Symposium Books.
- Skinner, B. F. (1953). *Science and human behaviour*. New York: Macmillan.
- Slattery, P. (2006). *Curriculum development in the postmodern era*, (2nd ed.). New York: Rutledge.
- Stuyf, R. (2002). Scaffolding as a teaching strategy. *Adolescent Learning and Development Sec.0500A*, 2-13.
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition (235-253)*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Swain, M. & Lapkin, S. (1989). Canadian Immersion and adults second language teaching: What's the connection? *The Modern Language Journal*, 73(2), 150-159. Available at <http://www.jstor.org>
- Swain, M. (1993). The output hypothesis: Just speaking and writing aren't enough. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 50(1), 158-164.
- Swain, M. & Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in output and the cognitive processes they generate: A step towards second language learning. *Applied Linguistic*, 16(3), 371-391.
- Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In J.P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning (97-114)*. Oxford University Press.
- Tang, E. (2011). Non-native teacher talk as lexical input in the foreign language classroom. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(1), 45-54.
- The world almanac and book of facts, (2012). USA, Donnelly, Crawfordsville, IN.
- T.L.R.P. (Teaching Learning Research Program) *Neuroscience and education: Issues and opportunities*. Available at web: www.tlrp.org

- Tognini, R. (2007). (OL), Interaction in languages other than English classes in Western Australian primary and secondary schools: Theory, practice and perception. (Doctoral dissertation). Edith Cowan University.
- Toohey, K. (2003). *Learning English at school identity, social relations and classroom practice*. Great Britain: Multilingual Matters.
- Van Lier, L. (2000). From input to affordance: Social-interactive learning from an ecological perspective. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (245-259). Oxford University Press.
- Van Nes, F., Abma, T., Jonsson, H., & Deeg, D. (2010). Language differences in qualitative research: Is meaning lost in translation? *Eur J Ageing* 7, 313-316. Available at Springerlink.com
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological process*. In M. Cole, V. Steiner, & E. Souberman, (Eds.), Cambridge, MH: Harvard University Press.
- Wong-Fillmore, L. (1985). When does teacher talk work as input? In S. Gass & C. Madden (Ed.), *Input in second language acquisition* (17-50). Cambridge: Newbury House.
- Yu, Guoxing. (2004). Perception, practice and progress- significant of scaffolding and zone of proximal development for second or foreign language teachers. *Asian EFL Journal*, 6, 3-24.
- Zuengler, J., & Miller, E. (2006). Cognitive and sociocultural perspectives: Two parallel SLA worlds? *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1), 35-58.
- Zhao, R., & Orey, M. (1999). *The scaffolding process: Concepts, features, and empirical studies*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Georgia.

Appendix A: Sample Interview I Questions

1. What are the lesson objectives?
2. Could you please walk me through your lesson plan/procedures?
3. What content do you want the students to learn from today's lesson?
4. What does interaction mean in a classroom?
5. Do you always teach according to your lesson plan?
6. Do you put your lesson plan a side and respond to what is happening in the class?
7. Can you give an example that demonstrates sticking to or abandoning the lesson plan in order to meet students' needs, nonacademic questions or interest?

Appendix B: Sample Interview II Questions

1. How did you apply your lesson plan?
2. How did you achieve your lesson objectives?
3. How do you evaluate your lesson?
4. How can students work together in class to complete the given activities, exercises, homework?
5. What activities did you provide to encourage students to interact together?
6. What activities did you do to help students talk in the class?
8. Who should do most of the work in the classroom the teacher or the students? Why?
9. Why should the students talk or not talk during the lesson?
10. How do you see your role in helping students to work together?
11. Can you explain how the teacher's book encourages/discourages you to teach your lesson objectives or provide opportunities for students to speak English?
12. Can you explain how the pupils' book exercises and activities encourage/discourage the students to speak English?
13. Can you explain if the teacher's book and the pupil's book help you to be creative with the teaching strategies?
14. What did you learn from your teaching practicum/ training?
15. How do you think the students learn to speak English?
16. From your short experience how do you think students learn to speak English better?
17. What are the activities that you think provide opportunities for students to speak English in the classroom?
18. You are a trainee teacher and a student getting your bachelor's degree in English, how do you think teaching to speak English is different from learning it?
19. As a practicum student what helped you the most to speak English during your course of learning English as a foreign language?

Appendix C: Sample of Interview I Transcript Third-Year Teacher

- R: Can you tell me about your lesson plans. What are the lesson objectives?
- T: I'm going to focus on what the students should know about healthy and unhealthy food. **The most important thing is that by the end of the lesson the student should be able to differentiate between healthy and unhealthy food and know the order of the food pyramid and its order on her plate.**
- R: What do you mean by the food pyramid?
- T: **The amount of carbs, protein and calcium that must be in her daily dish and meal, whether it is in her breakfast, lunch or dinner.**
- R: What do you want them to know in English as an English language lesson?
- T: Healthy eating and unhealthy eating. Other **things I want her to know are the names of the words in the food pyramid; carbs, protein and calcium. Carbs give us energy. Calcium gives us strong bones.**
- R: Today, what are you going to focus on, the students' talking or students' reading or what?
- T: **I'm going to focus on the students' participation.**
- T: Today's lesson presentation is going to be delivered on Power Point. but **they (the school) didn't provide us with the Data Show projector, therefore I have to hold the laptop and walk around the students. Unfortunately, I do not have another solution.**
- R: Why? Doesn't the school have a Data Show projector?
- T: Yes, there is one, but it belongs to the (original) teachers. I don't like the idea of taking it only if I have asked for permission. The supervisor told us its okay to hold up the laptop or the iPad.
- R: Can't you try to ask the Principal and she would give you permission to use it [the Data Show projector]?
- T: It belongs to the teachers.
- T: Literally, as they told us that they bought it with their own money. We said it's okay, we did not want to cause a problem.
- R: Okay. Can't they collaborate with you?
- T: Yes some of them are very, very cooperative and the others are afraid that we would break it or would damage it. They said: What are you going to do if it gets damaged with you? We told them that we will make it up to them. We didn't want to cause a problem. The school has limited equipment.
- R: Could you just try again and ask them?
- T: I wish. Even the original teacher told me she will look into this matter, but she did not get back to me and I didn't raise it again. Yesterday I gave this lesson and the students were quite pleased [by the lesson performance]. I did not like the lesson This was the first time I used the Power Point and I didn't like how I gave my lesson, but the students liked it and they said: It was quite wonderful.

- R: Which students? Your students?
- T: My students in the other class. Yesterday I [explained] gave the lesson to one class and today to another class. **The students like it very much. I made games for them.** Thank God.
- R: Good. Thank God.
- R: What do you think, what is the thing that makes students speak in English especially in your lesson today, or generally?
- T: Here is a little problem if we want to talk frankly. **We as teachers, do not have a good grounding in the English language, neither from school or university.** Some of us worked on ourselves, travelled abroad, took some training. There is one girl who likes to watch [English] movies. I do not want to talk about the other girls [trainee teachers]. **I would prefer to talk about myself. I like [value] myself as a teacher but not as an English teacher. I get confused, I speak a lot of Arabic and I get cross with myself. I do not like this. But frankly, I see students understand much better this way [in Arabic]. Today I talked a lot in English. I gave this lesson before to another class, and I explained it all in English many times and repeated it until they understood. Thank God this was in front of my supervisor. When I got outside the class, the students told me the lesson was quite good, but asked me, Teacher, why were you all the time explaining in English? We understood and we knew you were repeating it, but it's better to explain in Arabic as usual. I told them it is supposed to be in English [the lesson]. I gave the lesson in English and repeated it many times and the students understand it in English. But I psychologically [mentally] got tired of explaining it in English. It's easier to explain in Arabic.**
- R: Of course, it's easy in Arabic. But in the end are the students going to remember it in English or in Arabic?
- T: Both. I connect both ways especially in grammar and I feel that in this way it [the lesson] sticks in their heads. I always connect the grammar to the Arabic grammar in this way, and I feel students learn better.
- R: It's okay to use a little bit of Arabic but the focus should be in English.
- T: Yes. It's supposed to be like this, but unfortunately 3/4 or 1/2 of the period is in Arabic. You will see for yourself.
- R: It's okay.
- R: So for your lesson today, what are you going to teach first? And what will you teach second?
- T: **First I will present a Power Point for them as a discussion. I will let them deduct the introduction of the lesson. I will show them a Power Point of Popeye and Pluto. I will ask them, Who is this? And who is that? I will ask them to predict who is the strongest. Sure, they will tell me Popeye because they know that.** The second Power Point shows Popeye hitting Pluto. Then I will tell them. Did you see Popeye hitting Pluto because he eats spinach. The students then deduct that whoever eats spinach is the strongest.
- R: Why did you choose a cartoon character like Popeye to present your lesson?
- T: To be realistic. They [the students] are born in this cartoon age. When we were young we liked the character Popeye and we know that whoever eats spinach is the strongest. So, from my own background

knowledge, **I want to bring something related to their age.** Even now when I see my younger sisters all of them like the character Popeye. He is a loveable character for children, especially for these students' age group.

R: Okay. Do you think students learn English better as an individual or working in a group?

T: As a group.

R: Why?

T: **I have begun a new experiment. I divided the students into four groups. I have a box of [coloured] buttons that I have called points. When I gave out the worksheet, I told them, if you finish first, I will give you 2 points and whoever finishes second I will give them one point. I told them: If you do not participate, I will cut points from the group. I felt that all the students participated and they all were excited to participate. I have learned it is a good approach to divide the students into groups. Even the students who are lazy participate, and the ones who don't understand they understood that time in order to participate.** Students participate because of the points. If they don't participate or do the homework I will cut points from the group. I liked how, in this way, the students were active, especially in front of my supervisor.

R: Okay. Good. Why do you think students learn better in groups? What is the secret to students participating more when they work in a group?

T: **I expect it is because of the individual differences. In each group I put a leader who is the best in her group. I expect this leader to understand my explanation the first or second time. And I do not have to explain for the third or fourth time which is not what usually happens. So the students who usually understand from the seventh time, will understand from the leader. If one student from the group does not understand, she receives the information from someone else in her age group and in a simple way and in a better way. This is better than explaining a word more than once.**

The [English] period was so exciting because of the group work and collecting points. Collecting points encourages and enthralls the students to participate.

R: How did you know about this approach? Did you read about it? Did your supervisor tell you about it? Or is it from the text book? Or did you discover it from your own experience?

T: **My colleague from the teaching practicum began it. She has a book which is called 101 Games, may-be or something else, I am frankly not sure. But I liked the idea and got enthusiastic about it, and I told her to give me more ideas about it. She began teaching with this approach and I did also, but the girls [other trainee teachers] liked my way because my students were better than hers at participating and being so active in class when usually they were sleepy. Like today when I asked the students to hand me a tissue to clean the board. The student [who gave me the tissue] said: Teacher, give [me] points! I replied: No, not for this! [laughs]. They are competing with each other to**

please me. I told the students there will be a prize for collecting more points as a motivation.

R: Is your colleague who gave you this idea from this school or from another school?

T: From this school.

R: Do you sit together and discuss how you are going to teach?

T: We work together. Some of us are weak and we help each other, we try to empower each other. In this way, we will all do well, God willing.

R: Do all of you teach the same level?

T: No. My colleague [name] who gave me the idea teaches the second year. We [the other two practicum students] teach the third year.

R: You teach the third year.

T: Yes.

Appendix D: Analysis of the above interview I transcript

Coding	Themes
<p>The most important thing is that by the end of the lesson the student should be able to differentiate between healthy and unhealthy food.</p>	<p>Teacher's approach to differentiate between healthy and unhealthy food</p>
<p>know the order of the food pyramid and its order on her plate.</p>	<p>Focus on information in pupil's book</p>
<p>I want her to know are the names of the words in the food pyramid; carbs, protein and calcium. Carbs give us energy. Calcium gives us strong bones.</p>	<p>Teaching English through words and phrases</p>
<p>focus on the students' participation.</p>	<p>Acknowledge students' participations</p>
<p>Today's lesson presentation is going to be delivered on Power Point.</p>	<p>The use of physical artefacts, Teaching aids</p>
<p>but they (the school) didn't provide us with the Data Show projector, therefore I have to hold the laptop and walk around the students</p>	<p>Poor equipment</p>
<p>The students like it very much. I made games for them.</p>	<p>Pedagogical knowledge of using games</p>

<p>We as teachers, do not have a good grounding in the English language, neither from school or university.</p>	<p>Limited English proficiency Level</p>
<p>I would prefer to talk about myself. I like [value] myself as a teacher but not as an English teacher. I get confused, I speak a lot of Arabic and I get cross with myself. I do not like this. But frankly, I see students understand much better this way [in Arabic]. Today I talked a lot in English. I gave this lesson before to another class, and I explained it all in English many times and repeated it until they understood. Thank God this was in front of my supervisor. When I got outside the class, the students told me the lesson was quite good, but asked me, Teacher, why were you all the time explaining in English? We understood and we knew you were repeating it, but it's better to explain in Arabic as usual. I told them it is supposed to be in English [the lesson]. I gave the lesson in English and repeated it many times and the students understand it in English. But I psychologically [mentally] got tired of explaining it in English. It's easier to explain in Arabic.</p>	<p>Recognizing her ability/identity as a teacher</p> <p>The use of L1</p> <p>The use of L2 needs more explanations</p> <p>Teaching according to students' needs and expectations</p> <p>Facing difficulty in teaching and speaking in English</p>
<p>I always connect the grammar to the Arabic grammar in this way, and I feel students learn better.</p>	<p>Positive belief in using L1</p>
<p>Yes. It's supposed to be like this, unfortunately 3/4 or 1/2 of the period is in Arabic. You will see for yourself.</p>	<p>Recognising the importance use of L2</p>
<p>I will present a Power Point for them as a discussion. I will let them deduct the introduction of the lesson. I will show them a Power Point of Popeye and Pluto. I will ask them, Who is this? And who is that? I will ask them to predict who is the strongest. Sure, they will tell me Popeye because they know that. The second Power Point shows Popeye hitting Pluto. Then I will tell them. Did you see Popeye hitting Pluto because he eats</p>	<p>The use of teaching aids Focus on students</p> <p>Pedagogical knowledge of using Q/A, eliciting information</p> <p>Teaching from outside the pupil's book Spontaneous use of</p>

<p>spinach. The students then deduct that whoever eats spinach is the strongest.</p> <p>I want to bring something related to their age.</p> <p>I have begun a new experiment. I divided the students into four groups. I have a box of [coloured] buttons that I have called points. When I gave out the worksheet, I told them, if you finish first, I will give you 2 points and whoever finishes second I will give them one point. I told them: If you do not participate, I will cut points from the group.</p> <p>I expect it is because of the individual differences. In each group I put a leader who is the best in her group. I expect this leader to understand my explanation the first or second time. And I do not have to explain for the third or fourth time which is not what usually happens. So the students who usually understand from the seventh time, will understand from the leader. If one student from the group does not understand, she receives the information from someone else in her age group and in a simple way and in a better way. This is better than explaining a word more than once.</p> <p>The [English] period was so exciting because of the group work and collecting points. Collecting points encourages and entuses the students to participate.</p> <p>My colleague from the teaching practicum began it. She has a book which is called 101 Games, may-be or something else, I am frankly not sure. But I liked the idea and got enthusiastic about it, and I told her to give me more ideas about it. She began teaching with this approach and I did also, but the girls [other trainee teachers] liked my way because my students were better than hers at participating and being so active in class when usually they were sleepy.</p>	<p>English</p> <p>Acknowledging students age</p> <p>Acknowledging of group work, Motivation, Encouragement</p> <p>Recognising students' differences</p> <p>Leader helps teacher to explain the words</p> <p>Students learn from each other</p> <p>Pedagogical knowledge for encouraging students' participations</p> <p>Practicum students learn from each other</p> <p>Acknowledge the role of games in learning L2</p>
--	---

Appendix E: Teacher Sarah's data transcript for lesson # 3

The data from the interview before the lesson performance, teacher Sarah said: "My focuses will be on grammar: always, usually, sometimes, never. Vocabulary such as; base, cup, pot, glasses, water... conversation, students will read and listen. I ask questions like, How many persons? Do you think lunch[is] healthy or not healthy?...The writing part, if there is enough time we will do it. Students give examples from their lives by using always, usually..."

There were ten students during the presentation of lesson number three.

- 56 T: What's the date?
57 St: 8/6/1435 [Correspond with 8 April, 2014].
58 T: Unit?
59 Sts: 14.
60 T: Lesson?
61 Sts: 3.
62 T: Topic?
63 Sts: Food.
64 T: How[Who] can read the conversation? [She nominates two students to read].
65 Sts: [As a pair, the nominated students stand up in their places and read aloud the following conversation script from their P.B., p. 57, with poor pronunciation. This step is repeated with another pair of students].
- Mr. Mehdi : May I have the menu, please?
Waiter: Here you are, sir. What would you like to order?
Mr. Mehdi: Well, I always start with your garden fresh salad.
Then I'd like chicken curry with rice.
Waiter: Would you like something to drink?
Mr. Mehdi: I usually have mineral water; a small bottle, please.
Waiter: How about some dessert?
Mr. Mehdi: I never take dessert, but I wouldn't mind a cup of tea.

5.5.1 Comprehension Questions

- 66 T: How many persons?
67 Sts: No answer.
68 T: How many persons in conversation?
69 St1: Teacher, 2 waiter and Mr. Mehdi.
70 T: What is the meaning[of] fresh?
71 St: Gives the Arabic translation of the word Fish.
72 T: Fresh not fish!
73 T: Gives the meanings of fresh and fish in Arabic.
74 T: What is the meaning of fresh?
75 Sts: Translate it into Arabic.
76 T: Fish?

- 77 Sts: Translate it into Arabic.
 78 T: Usually?
 79 St1: Translate it into Arabic.
 80 T: Never?
 81 St1: Translate it into Arabic.
 82 T: Do you think Mr. Mehdi['s] lunch is healthy?[a question in the P.B. ,p. 57.]
 83 Sts: No response.
 84 T: Mr. Mehdi lunch, healthy or not health? Lunch, rice, salad,
 85 St1: Chicken, water.
 86 T: Chicken and water.
 87 T: Do you think Mr. Mehdi ['s] lunch healthy[is] or not healthy? Lunch?
 88 St1: Healthy.
 89 T: What is healthy? [teacher repeats this step with lunch].
 90 St1: Translates the word healthy into Arabic.
 91 T: Fresh salad, healthy or not healthy?
 92 Sts: Healthy.[reluctant, not sure].
 93 T: Yes, healthy?[teacher confirms the students' hesitation, doubt]
 94 T: What do you [have for] lunch?
 95 St: Fish, rice.
 96 T: Healthy or not healthy?
 97 Sts: Healthy.
 98 T: Okay.

5.5.2 New Vocabulary

- 99 T: Reads cup. What is cup?
 100 Sts: translate it into Arabic.[it is facilitated by pictures in B. P.]
 101 T: piece [She pronounces it as base] cake.
 102 Sts: translates it into Arabic. [teacher repeats this step with pot, glass, bottle, water].

5.5.3 Activities

The teacher and the students do exercise B on pupil's book, P. 57.

B. Which words go together? Tick the chart.

- 103 T: Water.
 104 Sts: Bottle.
 105 T: Excellent. [the whole exercise goes like this teacher reads a Word: coffee, bread and cheese and the students say the word that goes together with it: pot, glass, cup and piece].
 106 T: What time do you get up at [for] school?
 107 St1: Six O'clock
 108 T: Always, sometimes?
 109 St1: Always.
 110 T: What [is the meaning of] always?
 111 St1: Gives the Arabic meaning.[the teacher and the students do this with usually, often, sometimes, never]
 112 T: [Reads aloud sentences addressing the whole class] Sami usually plays tennis. What's the meaning of plays? Tennis?

- 1113 St1: translates play into Arabic.
114 T: Reads: Huda sometimes plays at home. What is the meaning of at home?
115 St1: gives the meaning in Arabic.
116 T: Huda never plays in the street. [The teacher and student 1 translates the sentences and the rest of the students listen to them.]

The teacher and the students particularly student1 complete exercise A in the pupil's book : Complete the sentences with suitable frequency adverbs, as:

- 117 T: 1. I _____ have milk and eggs for breakfast.
118 St1: always.
119 T: Writes it on the board.
[This exercise contains five sentences and the other students participate by giving the answers.]

2. At school, I _____ eat a sandwich.
3. I _____ have rice for lunch.
4. I _____ have dessert at night.
5. I _____ brush my teeth before going to sleep.

5.5.4 Writing

There are two exercises A and B in this part on pupil's book P. 58.

A. Answer the questions. There are five questions.

1. When do you always have dinner? [teacher reads aloud the question but no response from the students except for st1 when she gives the meaning in Arabic and then the other students give the name of the food and write the answers in their P.B. This procedure is repeated with the other following four questions.
2. Where do you usually have it?
3. What do you often eat?
4. What do you sometimes have for dessert?
5. What do you never have at night?

B. Use the answers to write a paragraph in your workbook. [The teacher assigned it as homework]. The teacher and st1 mostly explained very briefly in Arabic with some English words to the other students the steps of how to write a paragraph starting with a capital letter. Put a full stop at the end of a sentence.

Appendix F: Sample of Interview II Transcript for Sarah's Lesson # 3

First-Year Teacher

R: How did you feel about your lesson performance?

T: My lesson performance **was not that good. I did not plan the lesson well:** I was busy. I expect in the next class it will be better, because I will **understand it better.** I feel that **some students did not understand me. I should have given them some sentences.**

R: So if you planned it, would it be better?

T: Yes. I should give them **some sentences with “often”, “sometimes”.**
Give them examples.

R: But this is your lesson plan [show her a copy of her lesson plan]. Didn't you pre-plan it?

T: Yes I planned it. **I made the students understand the lesson.** I read the lesson plan, but I didn't understand it well. **I did not create something new.**

R: Why?

T: This is my first performance in this class. Thus, I did not deliver it well.

R: How many classes do you teach?

T: Four classes. **When I teach a lesson in one class, I understand it better and perform better for the next class.**

R: So this is your first performance. When you teach a lesson in one class, you will teach it better in the other one. How?

T: Yes.

R: How? Can you explain to me, give me an example?

T: I create new ways to teach grammar, **give students sentences** or by drawing. Today, I gave the lesson **without pictures.** I should bring pictures, tell the students to close their pupils' books, then I show them the pictures. For example, I show them a picture of a cup and written under it a cup. Thus the word sticks in their heads.

R: In the previous interview I, you told me that in the teaching methodology, you took new approaches to teaching. What are these approaches? Did you apply them in today's lesson?

T: Today **I did not use them.** They taught me **to bring more pictures, flash cards to change the class to make students active, let them**

play, deliver the lesson in the form of a game. Change the class environment.

R: The pupil's book has pictures. Weren't they enough?

T: Yes, **they are good. But I did not make my own.**

R: Did you take these approaches in your curriculum?

T: They teach us how to deal with ill-behaved students. Number of students in a class; small size is better than larger and I saw this here [*the school*] I have a class with 11 students which is better than the one with 15 students.

R: Do you take your methodology and curriculum classes in Arabic or English?

T: In English.

R: Are these subjects the same or separate?

T: They are separate. Two different doctors taught them [*mentioned their names*].

R: In your teaching methodology class, what did she teach you?

T: How to deal with students and **how to prepare a lesson. I showed the doctor a lesson plan and she approved it.**

R: Which approach helped you to be a teacher more than just classroom management?

What approaches did you find directly helped you to teach speaking English better?

T: The clock lesson. I felt the students understood it better. I felt the **students were enthusiastic to tell the time.** The students need to work and move. If today I had brought **pictures**, it would have been better to **help the students understand the lesson.**

R: Okay. You said in interview I that you will allow the students to give examples from their lives, but you did not.

T: **There was not enough time.** They told us we have to prepare everything, but **we do not have to deliver it all.**

R: How much did you accomplish from the lesson?

T: **60 percent.**

R: What would you do to accomplish at least 80 percent?

T: I felt they **did not understand "often" and "sometimes"**.

R: You said in interview I that you will allow the students **to work in groups to help each other**, but you did not. That's okay I just want to understand your way of teaching.

T: **There was not enough time.**

R: Would you like to add something?

T: No. Thank you.

R: Thank you.

Appendix G: Sample of Data Analysis and discussion of Sarah's Lesson Transcript #3

The data analysis after the lesson performance appeared to be compatible with Sarah's plans for the lesson to a certain extent, in terms of what she said would do. Moreover, teacher Sarah's input and the students' responses were generally mostly words which hindered and limited the T-C interaction, T-L interaction and L-L interaction to one turn which did not allow for expanding the exchanges that might further develop the conversational adjustment thus promoting speaking more English.

The data showed that the types of T-C and T-L interactions were mixed with IRE, translating L2 words into L1 and corrective feedback.

The L-L interaction appeared when the students were reading the conversation and writing activities. The **reading of the conversation, line 64**, appeared mostly mechanical, without students as interlocutors fully comprehending most of the reading content or the linguistic cues. Therefore, the joint-L-L interaction from the lesson observation and recording data revealed, no real learning was occurring except for corrective feedback of mis-pronunciation with quite limited comprehension. In this T-L interaction, the students readjusted their mis-pronunciation of some words but did not negotiate the linguistic meaning considered to be a key for language acquisition (Long, 1996; Swain, 2000) For example, during the **comprehension questions part, line 66**, after reading the conversation by many pairs, the students could not respond to the teacher's questions. The St1 was the only one who responded to the teacher and then the other students participated along with the help of translating the L2 words into L1, a strategy used to facilitate the input. This, means that the students

read the conversation without comprehending its total content meaning therefore they were unable to respond to the teacher's comprehension questions. The T-C interaction appeared mostly with the St1 because she seemed to be the most proficient student in the class or the one who has the initiative to take the risk to be the first one to respond to the teacher questions or to the other students' incorrect responses. The other students were seldom called on and thus they were given little opportunities to practice using English or to think in order to find the answer for themselves. The rest of the class being passive depended a lot on St1 to first find the answer and then to follow or imitate her. This way of learning the second language does not enable students to get much practice in speaking the new language (Wong-Fillmore, 1985).

During the **New Vocabulary part**, teacher Sarah introduced them as single words such as : pot, glass. However, the book introduced these new words as phrases illustrated with pictures as: a cup of tea, a piece of cake, a glass of juice and a bottle of water. From this, teacher Sarah limited the interaction to one word and gave no room for further development of students' output as a language practice allowing them to use phrases or chunks of formulaic language along with the pictures that could develop their one-word language output further and help them to speak in English.

On **exercise B on pupil's book, P. 57**, when students answered which words go together, the data from the lesson observation showed that although the pictures scaffolded the students to facilitate the meaning of the written words with the pictures, the students were confused because the word water can go with the pictures of "bottle, glass or cup". This, confusion could be eliminated if the students were given opportunities to express themselves by using the words in chunks of formulaic language or complete sentences instead of single word utterances. This indicated that the focus of teacher Sarah was not merely on accuracy. Tognini, (2008) found that in LOTE classes the students learned their L2 through the use of chunks of formulaic language.

The data analysis from the **Speaking Writing part** appeared that the T-L or T-C interaction was mostly single English words negotiated by meaning with the use of the L1. For example, in **question number 3, What do you often eat?**, students' responses were short one-word answers such as rice, green salad... Teacher asked "**What is green salad?**" Students translated it into Arabic. In

this way, the students did not practice speaking much in English. Their language production appeared to be free of interactional clarification , adjustment or modification that could provide students with opportunities to speak more in English. The teacher focused the students' attention on what to answer rather than on how they should answer by using full sentences such as: I often eat rice for dinner. This expansions gives the students a chance to hear their short response provided in full form (Wong-Fillmore,1985).

Appendix H: Sample Analysis of a Pupils' Book

Pupil's Book Activities	Analysis
<p>T: What's your favourite food/ drink? St: Chicken. T: Excellent. (Sarah, lesson # 2)</p>	<p>Pupil's book as symbolic and physical artefacts. T-L interaction The pupil's book facilitated the words meaning by pictures.</p>
<p>Why is learning other languages important? (Exercise B, pupil's book, p. 63) (Sarah, lesson # 4)</p>	<p>The position of this communicative question is at the end of a lesson, not enough time to speak.</p>
<p>Use the phone only when there is a need. Keep in mind that phones are not for entertainment. [Reading passage entitled Who's In Control?] (Lilly, Lesson # 3)</p>	<p>T-L interaction was mostly corrective feedback.</p>
<p>Do you spend much time on the phone? (Exercise A, pupil's book, p. 56). (Lilly's lesson # 3)</p>	<p>The pupil's book provides opportunities for speaking English.</p>

Appendix I: A Sample of Observation Note, Lilly's Lesson # 2

Date: 6 April, 2014

Time: 7: 45

Class: 3/2

Students Number: 16

Unit: 13

Lesson: 3

T: checks the homework, pupil's work book, p. 20. 7 students did not do the homework.

T: Give me reasons.

Sts: No respond.

T: asks about the date, unit, lesson.

Sts: answer

T: introduces the lesson. Imagine you are at your sisters' wedding party.

Sts: are excited. Give answer in Arabic. T-L interaction in Arabic & English.

Translation: imagine, complaint, responsible, miss, no English explanation.

T: writes on the board the students answers: T-L interaction was in English.

Chunks of formulaic language and phrases help students to speak English.

Examples are not from the pupil's book.

Complaint

Apology

Excuse

I hate to tell You.

The order is not Finish.

The cake is late.

The care is late.

Excuse me

I'm sorry but...

I'm afraid

Students read the conversation in groups of 2, 2, 2, 4, 3, 2. Mechanical reading.

No new words explanations.

T: helps students to speak English.

St: This is my place. Can I stand.

The groups next to me from wright and left. I observed them following the reading conversation by looking at the words being read to them and pointing at the words.

Appendix J: Students' Information Sheet

Dear Student,

Please answer the following questions precisely for the sake of the research.

1. How old are you? -----

2. Did you study the English language in the fourth grade?
(Yes) (No)

3. Did you study the English language in the sixth grade?
(Yes) (No)

Thank you very much.

Researcher
Kawther Mortada

Appendix K: Interviews' and Lesson observations' schedules

Table 2

Teacher Sarah's schedule for interviews and lesson observations

NO.	Pre-interview	Lesson Observation	Time	Post-interview	Date
1	Interview 1 Based on lesson # 3 objectives	Day by Day, unit 13, lesson 3	7: 45 – 8: 30 am	Interview 2 Based on lesson # 3 performance	18March 2014
2	Interview 1 Based on lesson # 1 objectives	Food, unit 14, lesson 1	7: 45 – 8: 30 am	Interview 2 Based on lesson # 1 performance	1 April, 2014
3	Interview 1 Based on lesson # 3 objectives	Food, unit 14, lesson 3	7: 45 – 8: 30 am	Interview 2 Based on lesson # 3 performance	8 April, 2014
4	Interview 1 Based on lesson # 1 objectives	Countries, unit, 15, lesson 1	7: 45 – 8: 30 am	Interview 2 Based on lesson # 1 performance	15April, 2014

Table 3

Teacher Lilly's schedule for interviews and lesson observations

NO.	Pre-interview	Lesson Observation	Time	Post-interview	Date
1	Interview 1 Based on lesson # 1 objectives	Health Eating, unit 13, lesson 1	10: 30 – 11: 15 am	Interview 2 Based on lesson # 1 performance	1April, 2014
2	Interview 1 Based on lesson # 3 objectives	Conversation & Grammar Unit 13, lesson 3	7: 45 – 8: 30 am	Interview 2 Based on lesson # 3 performance	6April, 2014
3	Interview 1 Based on lesson # 2 objectives	Reading, unit 14, lesson 2	7: 45 – 8: 30 am	Interview 2 Based on lesson # 2 performance	20April, 2014
4	Interview 1 Based on lesson # 3 objectives	Conversation & Grammar, unit, 14, lesson 3	7: 45 – 8: 30 am	Interview 2 Based on lesson # 3 performance	27April, 2014

Appendix L: Ethical Approval Forms

MSc, PhD, EdD & DEdPsych theses.



Graduate School of Education

Certificate of ethical research approval

MSc, PhD, EdD & DEdPsych theses

To activate this certificate you need to first sign it yourself, and then have it signed by your supervisor and finally by the Chair of the School's Ethics Committee.

For further information on ethical educational research access the guidelines on the BERA web site: <http://www.bera.ac.uk/publications> and view the School's Policy online.

READ THIS FORM CAREFULLY AND THEN COMPLETE IT ON YOUR COMPUTER (the form will expand to contain the text you enter). **DO NOT COMPLETE BY HAND**

Your name: Kawther Mortada

Your student no: 580045009

Return address for this certificate: P.O. Box # 42383 Madina 41541 Saudi Arabia

Degree/Programme of Study: EdD in TESOL

Project Supervisor(s): First: Dr. Susan Riley. Second: Dr. Shirley Larkin

Your email address: km316@exeter.ac.uk

Tel: 966503343442

I hereby certify that I will abide by the details given overleaf and that I undertake in my thesis to respect the dignity and privacy of those participating in this research.

I confirm that if my research should change radically, I will complete a further form.

Signed: Kawther Mortada.....date: November/ 20 / 2013

Certificate of ethical research approval

TITLE OF YOUR PROJECT:

Investigating Practicum Students' Practices and Activities of Affording Learning Opportunities for L2 Spoken English in Intermediate Classrooms in Saudi Arabia

1. Brief description of your research project:

Classroom practices play a significant role in learning a second or foreign language. Foreign language classroom practices are important for developing learners' language because there is limited exposure to the target language outside the classroom, in the context of the study, Saudi Arabia. I intend to investigate the learning of English as a foreign language in dynamic language classrooms in Saudi intermediate girls' schools by exploring what kinds of opportunities for speaking English are afforded to learners in public intermediate classrooms. This can be investigated through exploring what kind of oral English skills the students could learn as a result of their interaction with the trainee teachers' practices, questions, and activities in the classroom. I intend to explore the trainee teachers' perspectives on their lessons, what they want to teach and how they intend to teach it. I want to explore the trainee teachers' perceptions about their teaching practicum experience.

2. Give details of the participants in this research (giving ages of any children and/or young people involved):

This study has two groups of female student participants: first. Students learning English in Saudi public girls' schools who are referred to as students aged 13-15 and second, students who are learning to teach who are referred to as trainee teachers aged 21-22. There will be two trainee teachers with their students in their classrooms at two different schools. Each classroom may consist of 25 to 40 student, it depends on the size of the classroom if it is in an official school building or in a residential building. The students and trainee teachers are learning English as a foreign language in an environment where the exposure to English outside the classrooms is very limited.

Give details (with special reference to any children or those with special needs) regarding the ethical issues of:

I will follow the code of Ethics and conduct. Issues regarding respect, informed consent and confidentiality will be carefully considered.

3. Informed consent: Where children in schools are involved this includes both head teachers and parents). Copy(ies) of your consent form(s) you will be using must accompany this document. Each consent form MUST be personalised with your contact details.

All participants in the study will be informed about the research's purpose. I will respect the participants' conservative culture, religion, activities, practices that I will be observing in their classrooms.

The school principals, practicum students, students and their parents will receive information letters and consent letters explaining to them the research's aims, data collection methods and asking them formally to participate in the study. All participants will be informed that they have the right to withdraw from the research at any time they wish.

4. anonymity and confidentiality

This study will ensure the confidentiality of the participants' students and the trainee teachers and the school(s) by the use of pseudonyms. These will be used in any written account of this study, so that participants and institutions will not be identifiable. The data collected through classroom observations, interviews, field notes, and any information from the schools and classrooms will be treated with confidentiality and only for the use of this research's purpose. No information of the data collected will be disclosed to third parties such as teachers, other personnel from the school or from outside the school.

5. Give details of the methods to be used for data collection and analysis and how you would ensure they do not cause any harm, detriment or unreasonable stress:

This study is exploratory, descriptive and qualitative in nature. I will collect data using two methods. The first is: a structured observation method that involves using the pencil-and-paper method to write down the targeted data. The classroom observations will be conducted by the researcher, but without intervening in the research setting or the participants. No video recording will be used. The second method is the use of semi-structured interviews with the trainee teachers. This is in order to find out their perspectives and aims about planning their lessons, their views on classroom interaction and their perceptions about what they learned from their teaching training experience, but not limited to only these. Permission will be sought from the trainee teachers to use audio recording to record the interviews.

Data will be analysed by using thematic analysis and discourse analysis methods of the qualitative approach in relation to the research questions within cognitive and the sociocultural perspectives.

6. Give details of any other ethical issues which may arise from this project - e.g. secure storage of videos/recorded interviews/photos/completed questionnaires, or

During the data collection, notes and data from classroom observations and interviews, will be stored in a locked drawer in the researcher's home office. I will make sure that the collected information is destroyed when it is no longer required. In order to respect the participants' rights the researcher will not use videos or cameras as methods of gathering data because such methods are not allowed in females' schools in Saudi Arabia. Any audio data will be downloaded from recording devices at the earliest possible opportunity, and then deleted immediately from those devices. All digital data will be stored in my password-protected account on the University of Exeter U-drive.

7. special arrangements made for participants with special needs etc.

The researcher will interview the trainee teachers according to their preferences of language, English or Arabic. The researcher will observe the classrooms' practices without intervening in the research setting or the students. Therefore, any special arrangements for the students with special needs will be taken care of by schools.

8. Give details of any exceptional factors, which may raise ethical issues (e.g. potential political or ideological conflicts which may pose danger or harm to participants):

The nature of this research does not raise any political or ethical issues which may cause danger to participants. However, during classroom observations and interviews if such issues were raised, I will ensure confidentiality of the participants by the use of pseudonyms. The transcribed interviews will be returned to the trainee teachers for verification prior to using the data.

This form should now be printed out, signed by you on the first page and sent to your supervisor to sign. Your supervisor will forward this document to the School's Research Support Office for the

Chair of the School's Ethics Committee to countersign. A unique approval reference will be added and this certificate will be returned to you to be included at the back of your dissertation/thesis.

N.B. You should not start the fieldwork part of the project until you have the signature of your supervisor

This project has been approved for the period: *March 1st 2014* **until:** *September 1st 2014*

By (above mentioned supervisor's signature): *S.M. Riley* **date:** *26th Feb. 2014*

N.B. To Supervisor: Please ensure that ethical issues are addressed annually in your report and if any changes in the research occur a further form is completed.

GSE unique approval reference: *D.13/14/18*

Signed: *P.L.D.* **date:** *13/13/14*
Chair of the School's Ethics Committee



GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Title of Research Project: Investigating Practicum Students' Practices and Activities of Affording Learning Opportunities for L2 Spoken English in Intermediate Classrooms in Saudi Arabia

CONSENT FORM

I have been fully informed about the aims and purposes of the project.

I understand that:

there is no compulsion for me to participate in this research project and, if I do choose to participate, I may at any stage withdraw my participation and may also request that my data be destroyed

I have the right to refuse permission for the publication of any information about me

any information which I give will be used solely for the purposes of this research project, which may include publications or academic conference or seminar presentations

all information I give will be treated as confidential

the researcher(s) will make every effort to preserve my anonymity

.....
(Signature of participant)

.....
(Date)

.....
(Printed name of participant)

One copy of this form will be kept by the participant; a second copy will be kept by the researcher(s)

Contact phone number of researcher(s):0503343442. My e-mail address: km316@exeter.ac.uk

If you have any concerns about the project that you would like to discuss, please contact My first supervisor Dr. Susan Riley. Her e-mail address: S.M.Riley@exeter.ac.uk

OR

My second supervisor Dr. Shirley Larkin. Her e-mail address: S.Larkin@exeter.ac.uk

when research takes place in a school, the right to withdraw from the research does NOT usually mean that pupils or students may withdraw from lessons in which the research takes place

Data Protection Act: The University of Exeter is a data collector and is registered with the Office of the Data Protection Commissioner as required to do under the Data Protection Act 1998. The information you provide will be used for research purposes and will be processed in accordance with the University's registration and current data protection legislation. Data will be confidential to the researcher(s) and will not be disclosed to any unauthorised third parties without further agreement by the participant. Reports based on the data will be in anonymised form.

Appendix M: Letter to practicum students

Researcher's address

Dear (practicum student's first name)

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in my research. In this letter, I would like to give you information about my research. I am currently a doctoral student studying for an EdD in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESOL) at Exeter University in the UK. My research topic is: Investigating Practicum Students' Practices and Activities of Affording Learning Opportunities for L2 Spoken English in Intermediate Classrooms in Saudi Arabia.

I am interested in this topic for a number of reasons. Speaking in English is an important skill in learning English at this intermediate school level. One of the main goals of teaching English in Saudi Arabia is to enable students to speak in English in preparation for their later higher academic education. Therefore, I would like to explore classroom practices that could provide opportunities for learners to speak in English. In addition, I would like to interview you and record it to find out your perspectives in planning your lessons, their aims and how the students interact with them. This information will be of value to language researchers, English teachers, curriculum and policy makers.

Classroom observation

In order to answer these questions I plan to observe your practices, activities, questions and interactions with your students in their classroom for research purpose only and not for evaluation. I need to observe 3 to 4 lessons in your class. I will not intervene in the classroom setting or with the students. I will make sure that classroom observations are carried out as smoothly as possible.

Protecting your privacy

I will not use your or your students' real names in any written account of this research. Made up names will be used so that you and your students will not be able to be identified. The information collected from the class will be stored in a locked drawer in my home office. You can ask me to find out about this information.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

If you would like to ask any question of this research, please contact me on 0503343442. My e-mail address: km316@exeter.ac.uk

Yours sincerely
Kawther Mortada
Date

Appendix N: Letter to school principal

Researcher's Address

Title: Principal
Name of school

Dear—

My name is Kawther Mortada and I am currently a doctoral student studying an EdD in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESOL) at Exeter University in the UK. I am writing to you to request permission to undertake research in your school. My research topic is: Investigating Practicum Students' Practices and Activities of Affording Learning Opportunities for L2 Spoken English in Intermediate Classrooms in Saudi Arabia.

I am interested in this topic for a number of reasons. Speaking in English is an important skill in learning English at this intermediate school level. One of the main goals of teaching English in Saudi Arabia is to enable students to speak in English in preparation for their later higher academic education. Therefore, I would like to explore classroom practices that could provide opportunities for students to learn to speak in English.

This research could provide unique insights into English learning practices inside real classrooms with practicum students (studying at Girls' University GU) and intermediate school students (potential applicants to GU). This information will be of value to language researchers, English teachers, curriculum and policy makers.

In order to answer the research questions, I need to interview the practicum students and audiorecord the interviews. I plan to observe the practicum students' practices, activities, questions and interactions with their students in their classrooms. I need to observe several English lessons in year 1, 2 or year3.

Before the classroom observation, I will firstly, informally meet with the English practicum student(s) in your school to ask her whether she would be interested in participating in this research with her students. Secondly, if I receive a positive response from her, I will give her a formal letter explaining the aims of the research. In addition, I will discuss the data collection process with her and will gather background information about her students and lessons to be observed. This meeting will be conducted out of class time, inside school building, at a time convenient to the practicum student and school.

The actual classroom observation will be carried out by me. I plan to observe 3 to 4 lessons in each year 1, 2, or year 3. I will observe types of interactions afford opportunities for students to learn to speak English, interactions between teacher and students or student to student. I will not intervene in the classroom setting or with the students. This process will be managed to ensure that is carried out as smoothly as possible.

Ethical Issues

I will do the following measurements to protect the confidentiality and privacy of students, practicum students and school:

- Not using real names in any written account of this research. Pseudonyms will be used so that the students, practicum students and school will not be able to
- Data from classrooms observation will be stored in a locked drawer in my home office.
- No parts of the collected data will be shown to third parties from your school or from other departments.
- All information relevant to the students or practicum students will be made available to them or you, on request.

If you give permission for the research to be carried out in your school, formal consent to participants in the project will be obtained from the researcher herself, the students and their parents will be fully informed about all aspects of the research and have the opportunities to ask questions about the research. They will also be informed that they may withdraw from the project at any time. A copy of the consent form to be used for this purpose is attached.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

If you would like to ask any question of this research, please contact me on 0503343442. My e-mail address: km316@exeter.ac.uk

Yours sincerely
Kawther Mortada
Date

Appendix O: Informed Consent Letters to Students and Parents

Researcher's Address

Dear student

My name is Kawther Mortada. I'm currently a doctoral student in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESOL) at Exeter University in the UK. I would like to carry out my research in your English period in your school. My research topic is: Investigating Practicum Students' Practices and Activities of Affording Learning Opportunities for L2 Spoken English in Intermediate Classrooms in Saudi Arabia.

I would like to visit your classroom to find out about learning practices that could provide opportunities for learning to speak in English.

Classroom observation

In order to answer the research questions, I will observe your English lesson 3 or 4 times and also take notes. You should participate as you usually do in your English class with your teacher and your classmates. I will make sure that classroom observation is carried out as smoothly as it can be.

Protecting your privacy

I will not use your or your trainee teacher's real names in any written account of this research. Made up names will be used so that you and your teacher will not be able to be identified. The information collected from your class will be stored in a locked drawer in my home office. You can ask me to find out about this information.

Consent

The school and your trainee teacher have agreed to be involved in this research project. I also need your consent and your parents to carry it out. Please take this letter to your parents and ask them to read it carefully and discuss it with you. If you and your parents agreed to participate in this research, please sign the **Consent Form** and return it to your English teacher within the next week.

Consent Form

Research Title

Investigating Practicum Students' Practices and Activities of Affording Learning Opportunities for L2 Spoken English in Intermediate Classrooms in Saudi Arabia

Student

I, _____, have been informed about all aspects of the above research. I agree to participate in this research, realizing that I may withdraw at any time. I agree that the research data collected for this research may be published provided I am not identifiable.

Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Parent

I, _____, I have been informed about all aspects of the above research. I agree for my daughter to participate in this research, realizing that she may withdraw at any time. I agree that the research data collected for this study may be published provided she is not identifiable.

Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Investigator's Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

If you or your parents do not want you to participate in this research you can withdraw at any time. If you would like to ask any question of this research please contact me on 0503343442. My e-mail address: km316@exeter.ac.uk

Yours sincerely

Kawther Mortada

Date

