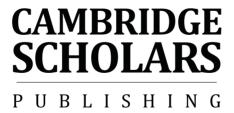# Methodological Developments in Teaching Spanish as a Second and Foreign Language

Methodological Developments in Teaching Spanish as a Second and Foreign Language

Edited by

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**CAMBRIDGE
SCHOLARS**

P U B L I S H I N G

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Part Two: Grammar

FOREWORD

GUADALUPE RUIZ FAJARDO

This book on applied linguistics presents new trends and improvements on the teaching of Spanish. It deals with two major scopes in the field of linguistics that have a crucial role in the development of language teaching in general and of the teaching of Spanish in particular: Interaction and Grammar.

The topics chosen coincide with the areas in which the communicative approach to language teaching dominant in European and American colleges and universities since the 1970s and 80s has been the object of most revision. On the first hand, the communicative approach has failed in fostering the development of communicative competence in students, for its intention to generate language output in the classroom has not appropriately taken into account the pragmatic component of language, the specific characteristics of interaction in Spanish and its explicit instruction. The book appeals both to pragmatics and to discourse analysis to research the specifics of classroom **discourse and classroom interaction**, as well as the differences between interactions among Spanish native speakers and interaction among non natives, in order to develop methodologies for the effective reincorporation of these aspects to the Spanish language classroom, such as tasks to teach interaction or techniques to implement learner-centered interactive class dynamics and cooperative learning.

On the other hand, the communicative approach's emphasis on interaction generated the large-scale relegation of explicit instruction on forms, especially **grammar**, to a secondary plane in the teaching of foreign languages. Although the Focus on Form approach has tried to rescue grammar from its exile, among teachers of Spanish it is still a platitude that "grammar is to be studied at home" rather than addressed in the classroom. When learning a language with such as complicated grammar as Spanish, this is not a minor problem. Its exclusion from the language class has prompted periodical waves of research, the last one drawing from advances in cognitive linguistics and meaningful learning. This book

reviews the pedagogical advantages of language description based on Cognitive Grammar theory and explains different aspects of the Spanish grammar. The main purpose of our contribution is to show how taking into account different dimensions of construal and perspective in linguistic representations helps teachers to elucidate idiosyncratic and subtle contrasts of Spanish structure that other views and approaches cannot clarify on a meaningful base, such as the aspectual opposition between preterits or the modal opposition between indicative and subjunctive, both of high importance for the English speaking student.

The work selected for this book, done by experts from Columbia University and from several universities in Spain, represents the most current lines of inquiry in this "post-communicative" approach as applied specifically to the teaching of Spanish. Because they are all active teachers of the language and teacher trainers as well as theoretical researchers, their findings are explicitly geared to an immediate practical application to the classroom, a fact that makes them of utmost usefulness to our intended audience, which consists of teachers of Spanish as a second and foreign language at all levels of instruction (primary, secondary and college education), future teachers of Spanish, currently in Masters and other teaching-oriented degree programs, and graduate students of Latin American and Spanish Studies. Spanish is the most studied foreign language in the United States, the second in Europe, and continues to grow. This book seeks to be a "must-read" for present and future. It tackles unexplored territory, for journals and applied linguistics collections have mainly addressed these problems in relation to English language and instruction.

Every chapter has been designed to deal with theoretical issues as well as practical applications to the Spanish language classroom. It is the way applied linguistics should be, it is its essence.

The title of this book corresponds to the title of an ongoing series of workshops I have been organizing since 2008. These events have been sponsored by the Institute of Latin American Studies at Columbia University (ILAS) and supported by Columbia's Department of Latin American and Iberian Cultures, as well as the Department of Spanish and Latin American Cultures at Barnard College. The Education Office of the Consulate of Spain in New York has also contributed to their realization. To all of them, my gratitude and the gratitude of many teachers of Spanish who have the opportunity of gathering physically and intellectually every

year in the comfortable halls of Barnard College, to listen and talk about works in progress in our field. I am confident that the future will bring more events and more volumes that reflect the broad interest in researching the teaching and learning of Spanish as a second and foreign language.

PART ONE: INTERACTION

CHAPTER ONE

CLASSROOM DISCOURSE AND TEACHER TRAINING: ONE MORE WINDOW

LOURDES DÍAZ RODRÍGUEZ

0. Introduction

One may argue that *discourse* as a *tool* may be a minor topic, relevant only to certain subjects taught. To the contrary, in the last ten years literature has frequently addressed this issue and claimed for its centrality. The core issues however remain: what is the real dimension of this discourse *knowledge* and its *bridging power,* when dealing with foreign *language teachers*? and if this approach is so relevant, how can we specifically address discourse's role in a foreign language teacher training program?

In any L2/FL context, *language* is a plus in classroom managing and content focusing, since all interaction is carried out *in* the target L2, which implies an added difficulty.

Difficulties increase, needless to say, when you are a non- expert or a non-experienced teacher, a non-native student or when your competence in a particular a foreign language is less than perfect. In such context, language quality, language functionality, and interaction verisimilitude become of absolute relevance in order to make class room communication and performance possible.

Managing difficulties in *interaction* means the managing of all the dimensions underlying the concept of *discourse*. Nevertheless, this is not just a matter of *knowledge* or *expertise* that can be covered by a couple of subjects (such as *Methodology* and *Discourse analysis*) in a university program, nor by a practical seminar for in-service teacher-training.

In spite of this, not much attention has been devoted so far to *how to manage classroom discourse* in teacher training. In a quick survey conducted over 12 M.A programs on Spanish L2 teacher training in Spain[1], only 2 of them have over 15% of *ects* credits[2] on this issue (either through subjects as "Classroom observation", "Classroom discourse", "Practicum on Teaching Spanish" or " Developing a Professional profile". The Instituto Cervantes and the Universidad Internacional Menéndez Pelayo joint master program (MELE UIMP-IC) remains an exception, being so far the only one is Spain devoting 33% of its credits to address this issue. The outcome has resulted in a higher rate of employment of its students.

0.1. Why analyse discourse in teacher training?

Becoming aware of how discourse flows in the classroom is crucial in teacher training. Knowing how to improve message delivery, interaction and comprehension will help teachers to develop awareness of classroom discourse. Knowing one's routines, identifying strengths and weaknesses and their degree of effectiveness will have a positive impact on the teacher's performance. This is the reason for promoting classroom observation in teacher training.

It helps us to bridge the gap between the students´ expectations and what we in fact deliver. Such analytic task is an endeavour which demands certain strength. Sometimes the task is more demanding than expected, especially for non-expert trainees. Sometimes the picture we get from our practice does not fit in our intended goals. Having a colleague observing us may become uneasy sometimes. Then again, learning to share views does have a positive impact on teachers' empowerment.

1. How to become curious about the backstage of teaching

Classroom is the meeting point for at least two people to learn. There, one participant plays the role of teacher and the rest the role of learners. Teachers, irrespectively of their training, know to a greater or lesser degree their role, and how to play it. This perception may vary according

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[1] Namely: UCM, USal, UPF, ULPGC, U. Nebrija, UC, UJ, UB, UBV, UNED, UIMP, UEX . (Information obtained from their webpages).
[2] *Ects* stands for European Credit Transfer System.

to cultures and disciplines, but also according to time and experience. Indeed, becoming aware of all this is not easy.

Writing diaries or journals does reveal the teacher's view across practice and training. This is tool frequently used in classroom discourse analyses and teacher training. We will start this section with an excerpt from Tsui (1995), whose *Classroom interaction* has a revealing opening most relevant to our point. Notice the way this teacher presents his view about his task:

> *…I felt… that I spoke too much in the classroom, and that my students did not participate enough. I am now more aware of* why *this was so: subconsciously, I felt that as I am the teacher, I should dominate the lesson; in fact, I didn't trust the students' ability to think for themselves…*

This teacher is a good example of how sometimes we follow our own script. We believe that our role is to conduct, to control discourse, to guide interaction. Most times these are not original believes. They are imprinted on us by our own community by way of culture. Their origin may be an observed, or a passively learnt routine. Irrespective of our willingness to learn these roles or attitudes, they will act modelling our view of learning scenarios in the future. They may even affect the way we ask questions, the way we approach students (depending on gender or age), the amount of talk, interaction, etc.

1.1. How do we analyse discourse in teacher training?

Among the goals of any *teacher training* program -namely motivating students, making things interesting, transmitting and negotiating contents- insight on *language at work* is required. In their everyday activity, teachers get involved in *talking*: be it by asking questions, answering questions, explaining, giving feedback, assessing, illustrating, reinforcing, etc. This explains why *language* is an important issue in foreign language teacher training. Each of the above mentioned *–ings* counts in a classroom. And this is so, irrespective of our being aware of them, of their being well formed, adequate, adjusted to student's comprehension or familiarity, etc.[3]

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[3] Example borrowed from Aymerich, M. and Díaz, L. (1990). "El discurso del profesor: repeticiones y reformulaciones en el discurso del profesor" Madrid: Cable 3. Reprinted in Marco ELE (2007); and Díaz, L. (1989) "Discurso de profesor", Las Navas del Marqués, Ministerio de Educación (also reprinted in *MarcoELE, Monográficos*).

Being able to convey a simple message like an *instruction* may be difficult
enough for inexperienced teachers, as can be seen in (1a) and (1b) below.
Examples show differences in the use of *strategies* such as redundancy,
repetition, and simplification, all present in expert L2 teachers and fully
functional, but scarce in a large variety in non-experts[4]. Null functionality
on repetition (echolalia) or lack of assistance to non-natives under an array
of forms[5] arises on the side of non–experts. Inside or outside classrooms
input facilitation or *input negotiation* is not evenly achieved by native
speakers by means of interaction in spontaneous discourse. Classroom
discourse is not an exception. It is a subset of the continuum found in the
real world. Teacher training improves the skilled assistance expected of
teachers. Implementing the right strategies and tactics, modelling turns,
sequences, exchanges or moves make interaction to be 100% meaningful.

As a way of illustrating this, we propose to the reader a short task: try to
identify the expert teacher in the two examples provided next. In both
situations students are Anglophones, and the teacher is a Spanish native
speaker[6].

(1.a)
Teacher A[7]: teaches Spanish L2 to a *beginner* group at the university in
Barcelona. She *proposes an activity* to the group: they have to relate
information from two lists by drawing an arrow.
 (Propone un ejercicio. Hay que relacionar información de dos columnas
trazando una flecha).

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[4] Misunderstanding due to lack of skills can be found in street casual encounters,
public services, post offices, etc.
[5] For instance: low or no paraphrase, low or lack of simplification, no expansion,
or just recast or correction without responding.
[6] In our workshop presentations, we produce trainees a "clean" version of
classroom interactions. Later, we provide them with several grids to capture and
categorize "acts" according to pedagogical purposes of communication (Fanselow
1977, 1985, etc.) or according to the FL*INT* system (G. Moskowitz 1978).
[7] A is an inexperienced teacher. She takes for granted that students are familiar
with techniques of questioning and instructions. The experienced teachers draw an
arrow while illustrating its parts and function, using two codes at once (linguistic
and iconic).

Teacher: Vamos a hacer el ejercicio 3 [ACT: Structure / solicit]
Teacher: Relaciona con una flecha. Hay que unir (gesto señalando las dos columnas del libro) las palabras relacionadas de cada columna con una flecha, ¿sí? [ACT: Amplificate /solicit]
Student 1: What is "flecha"?
Teacher: ¿Flecha? Esto [dibuja en la pizarra]. ¡Flecha! ¿Sí? [ACT: Respond /React / illustrate/ change of code]
Student 1: Arrow?
Teacher: "Arrow", sí. Venga.

(1.b.)
Teacher B[8]: teaches Spanish FL to a *beginner* group at a Professional School in Johannesburg.   He sets up a new task: after listening-comprehension exercise (CD), focusing sentence-completion, the teacher asks students to listen again in order to fill in blanks.
(Tras hacer un ejercicio de comprensión auditiva (CD), pide que vuelvan a escuchar el audio y completen la información que falta).

Student: ….rubio ["*blond"*] [ACT:Respond]
Teacher: Muy bien. ["Very good"] [ACT: Evaluate / Assess] Color rubio [ACT: assess- complete/ expand]
Teacher: ¿sí? [ACT: check all group]
Teacher: Vale. [ACT: confirm]
Teacher: Escuchamos, escuchamos otra vez. Repito. Escucha el CD. Repito, ¿sí? Escucha otra vez. Y atención. Atención. [Gestos para "oír" y para "otra vez"] [ACT: giving instructions. Repeat. Warning].

The reason for inexperienced teachers to react in the way (1.A) may correspond to the teaching view described in Tsui's (1995) opening example in *section 3* above.

Chunking what happens together with the *words said* is the first step for getting to know *why* some exchanges are felicitous and when does input *facilitation* work.   Next step is *labelling* sequences and functions, always keeping in mind context, and paying attention to each act's *purpose*. This task allows for identifying dysfunctional acts, and opens subsequent "editing" work.

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[8] B is an experienced teacher. He takes nothing for granted. His video recording shows overlapping of codes (mimics, language).

Most inexperienced teachers confronted with a discourse sequence (just observed or tape-recorded) fail to grasp its structure, or to describe it in detail. Most times, they are even unable to assess its functionality. Many can provide some isolate details, often biased by criticism, but most tend to fail in providing correctly *edited* versions. These are *skills* that come with practice.

Needless to say that teaching context of interactions (Spanish immersion vs. Spanish Foreign Language context) does make a difference in classroom discourse. Factors such as lexical complexity and speech delivery rate may affect comprehension differently, being immersion an enriched context that increases foreigner student's comprehension[9]. By the same token, the amount of experience of the trainee is also a variable when assessing discourse in classroom observation.

As a piece of evidence, I will take our observations at the UIMP-ICE MELE students' samples. In a random sample of registrations collected from expert and inexpert teachers in Santander, sequences containing different kind of input modulation where 60% higher in experienced teachers than in trainees. Being aware of the importance of input facilitation is not enough[10].

The role-play conducted at the workshop we held at Columbia University was also a good example of the role these variables play in teachers discourse. Since the workshop was attended by mixed-profile participants -native and non-native, language experts and content-teachers-, different approaches to discourse strategies were put forward. Diverse opinions came up on assessing self- and others-observation. Comments on adequacy or un-adequacy of supplied, or lacking, forms were extremely illustrative of differing perspectives. Considering that *strategies*, *tactics* or mixed categories (Long 1990) constitute the backbone of *input facilitation* and *negotiation* expected in any didactic exchange (caregiver talk, teacher talk, etc.) relevance of task and need for a methodology for analysis became out of question.

Reflect on transcripts and "editing" the samples from observation tasks are complex and comprehensive training-tasks resulting in *awareness*. Providing repair and assessing options, according to the context variables,

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[9] This is the rationale behind examples (1.a) and (1.b). The degree of difficulty does not equate both situations, as teachers facilitation show.

[10] Díaz, L. (Data from ongoing research).

are powerful tools to make us aware of the difficulties linked to rephrasing, restructuring, or providing similar strategies. These strategies do not occur, nor derive spontaneously from observation, but require intensive *training*.

When confronted with spontaneous speech, skill differences in classroom become evident -planning being a key feature. This can be seen in the next example on "giving directions / instructions".

Ex. 1 Native speaker in the street, answering a request for directions: Where is Plaza del Sol[11]?

Ex1
mmmm. Podéis ir hacia abajo y encontraréis... // lo más que podáis y…y…y antes de Travesera hay una calle que se llama Ros de Olano, la seguís hacia la derecha y enton/…, veréis una calle que se llama Virtud y hacia abajo y ya está ahí, ahí...

Ex.2 (ídem)
*Eeeeemmmmmmmm, ((   )) Sí, a ver, ((   )) esta calle de ahí, bajas (5")
hummm creo que son dos o tres calles y giras a la derecha y ahí te encontrarás con la plaza, bajando un par de calles o tres a la derecha.*

Ex.3 A non- expert teacher in a language classroom, giving instructions before reviewing a grammar point (clitic "se"):

P- Voy a explicaros los usos del pronombre SE. Algunos ya los habéis visto. Algunos ya los sabéis. El libro en la página 86, en este cuadro. Voy aexplicaros algunos casos…En el caso del 1, vamos a ver algo que ya habéis visto con Piedad, lo visteis ayer con Piedad. Es cuando SE sustituye a lo, les, cuando aparece junto a lo, la, los, las. Tenéis aquí un ejemplo. "SE lo he dado".
Se lo he dado ¿de dónde puede venir?¿Podemos sustituir le y lo? ¿Podéis poner un ejemplo?
A- A él, a ella; también a ellos. A las niñas, los niños…eh también.… también a mi madre, a mi padre…
P- Muy bien..Y también al coche. Ja, ja…

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[11] Samples extracted from a set of 5 interviews to adult native speakers in Barcelona. The question asked in Spanish was:" Por favor, ¿para ir a la Plaza del Sol?. *Plaza del Sol* is a small square in Gràcia district, Barcelona.

Ex.4. Experienced teacher delivering instructions to students after a vocabulary retrieving activity (university group in Spain)

A.: "Sciencia Ficción".
P.: Ajá. Es lo que llamamos películas de Ciencia ficción. También las llamamos cine, cine fantástico. Son las que están ambientadas un poquito en el futuro ¿sí?
Estos son los tipos más habituales. ¿Recordáis que los habíamos visto en aquella fotocopia que os había entregado? ¿Sí? ¿Recordáis un poquito la fotocopia aquella? ¿no recordáis la fotocopia? ¿Os acordáis? ¿Sí? Bueno…. No, pero ahora no la saquéis…
Os voy a pedir, os voy a dar… [la profesora cuenta: 2, 4, 6, 7]
Os voy a pedir que os pongáis, que os agrupéis en grupos de 4-5 personas… Nos ponemos en grupitos de tres personas. [Ruido de sillas que se mueven para agruparse] [Ruido de carpetas que caen al suelo] Guardamos las cosas, no necesitamos nada….y aquí os paso doce definiciones de aquel vocabulario que habíamos visto en la fotocopia. Tres aquí, 3 más aquí, 3 aquí…¿vale?[REPARTE FOTOCOPIAS mientras habla]
Aquí tenemos estas 12 definiciones y tenemos dos minutos para ver qué palabra es la que están definiendo, dos minutos ¿vale? Si no, os paso yo la definición. Es para ver si recordamos ¿vale?

As can be seen, planning and use of repetition, paraphrase, synonyms, etc. do make a difference in discourse. It is not just a matter of the native *vs.* non-native asymmetry. Some coincidences may be found (Chaudron 1988:55).

Isolating and observing features on functional chunks, like those above, need some training. Becoming familiar with some *basic instruments* (observation *grids* for assessing trainees of in-service teachers) helps to *actively follow* what happens in a short classroom sequence, and is key to provide a personal assessment (including self-assessment).

The above mentioned and illustrated *acts*, language acts[12], do *bridge* language activity and knowledge from both parties -students and teachers-in an unequal, *asymmetrical* way. Each participant co-constructs discourse (and knowledge) in a *process* that aims at narrowing this asymmetry due

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[12] See: Searle, J. Speech Acts, (1969), and for Spanish L2 and FL catalogue of speech acts: *Plan Curricular del Instituto Cervantes* (2006) and Díaz, Martínez, Redó (2011).

to role and language proficiency as well[13]. Learning to see any of these *acts* as discrete *units* does help to track functional failures, to reflect on their nature and on the ways to improve them. The critical approach provides insight and empowers users in the long run. Learning to use grids as a classroom compass makes it possible for trainees to grasp *moves*, *acts*, etc. and analyse their degree of functionality or felicity, nurturing insight before and during practice.

2. Bridging and *facilitating*: towards "step 1"

We have mentioned *asymmetry* as one of the characteristics of classroom discourse in a language course. In L1 acquisition it has been postulated the existence of a simplified discourse adapted to child: the *caregiver talk* or *caregiver dialect*. Facilitating, *tuning* (Ellis 1985) or interactively *adapting* discourse to the actual needs or expectation of children helps them in the task of language comprehension and language acquisition. *Facilitating* is not a simple process though (Feez 1995:9, Gibbons 2006:19). Tuning, in turn, is not as widely accepted in L2 (adult) acquisition as *interaction* (namely *interactional adjustments*).   For the later, Long (1981), Pica (1988) and Pienemann (1988), provide wide evidence, pointing out that native /non-native interaction favours situations where repetitions, corrections and recalling provide students with PAS (potentially acquisitional sequences). Initially proposed by De Pietro, Matthey and Py

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[13]   Wilkinson (1975), Britton (1970), Barnes (1976), and Tough (1977, 1979) brought to attention the role of spoken language across all areas of the curriculum, which until then had prestiged almost exclusively the written form. Attitudes to student talk changed,and talking was encouraged at all costs. From the socio-cognitive side came also some broadening of perspective on classroom discourse. Developing Vygotsky's views, the role of language as a cultural tool in social interaction, and the use of language as a psychological tool providing the resources for individual thinking was stressed (Cazden 1988; Edwards and Mercer 1987; Hammond and Gibbons 2005; Hall 1998; Mercer 1995; Wells 1999, 2000; Wells and Claxton 2002). Learning is seen as situated within certain forms of social co-participation. Learners acquire *skills* and *knowledge* from engaging and participating in these "socially embedded" practices with an *expert* (the teacher). Student´s participation is initially limited, increases responsibility as she/he becomes more proficient. In Vygotsky's framework, development, and in particular the learning of a second language, results from specific interactions within a particular sociocultural setting. Facilitation plays an important role. Teacher's main job is to foster a spirit of enquiry and to provide the right materials to create an environment which stimulates learners' curiosity and interest (Feez 1995).

(1989), PAS are structuring instances (self or hetero-structuring) which involve extra work on output (output repair) and are of interest since they are evidence of linguistic or metalinguistic work or activity in the ZPD (zone of proximal development) . Cambra (2002:132) reflects it as follows:

Movimiento (move)	Función interactiva	Forma lingüística
Movim. inicial	"First turn", establece una dependencia condicional	Pregunta, provocación, etc.
Petición de "bis"	Señala globalmente la incapacidad de contestar	Silencio, petición de repetición, etc.
Bis	2ª versión del movimiento inicial	Reformulación del movimiento inicial
Respuesta	"2nd turn"actividad que satisface la dependencia condicional	Respuesta, toma de posición, etc.

(Adaptado de Cambra, 2003:132)

In adult language classroom context, teachers do use also input *facilitation*. In this case, multiple purposes and fields can be addressed by means of strategies, tactics and tactic-strategies (Long 1983:19).

3.   Categorising discourse sequences: "step 2"

We have used so far labels such as "sequence", "language act". We may be also familiar with some others: "adjacent pairs", "moves", "cycles". These are different attempts to capture the *structured nature* of classroom discourse and classroom practices. Experts from ethnography and ethnomethodology approached conversational analysis and provided new units of analyses since late 60s: "speech events" (as *greeting*s, *story-time*, *sharing-time*, etc.), "moves" (*soliciting, responding, reacting, structuring, evaluation*). They all show that practice is subject to routines and patterns, with visible marks. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) made their best known contribution: the *IRF move*. Linking ethnography and linguistics, they captured a minimal, fully functional pattern. IRF stands for: Initiation, Response, Feedback. Later refined by Mehan (1979) in IRE (Initiation, Response, Evaluation move), it still remains a classic, being *contingency* and/or *responsiveness,* more than *adjacency*, the core feature.

(I) Teacher: What time is it?
(R)Student: It's ten o'clock.
(E)Teacher: Ok.

It has been argued by researchers both in first and second language learning that *responsiveness* to the particular needs of the learner and the meanings they are attempting to construct is also a particular quality of *interaction* (Hatch 1978; Ellis and Wells 1980; Snow 1986; van Lier 1996, 2001; Wells 1986). Wells has termed this quality "contingent responsiveness", while Snow refers to it as "semantically contingent speech". Van Lier characterizes it as "speech which typically has links to previous utterances and to the shared world of the participants so that inter-subjectivity is maintained". Whenever the expert participant (teacher) takes part in an interaction, this speech becomes asymmetrical and opens responsibilities. Expert, then, checks that she has understood non-experts correctly. Misunderstandings are *negotiated* when relevant. Input characteristics do vary favouring certain adjustment strategies to appear: expansions, acknowledgements and recasts (Ellis and Wells 1980). Following Ellis (1994) *comprehensible input* is not simply the result of a list of adjustments made by competent speakers, but the result of the interactions *themselves*. Both learner and native speaker adjust their speech *in the light of feedback* that they give each other. This is contingency's power and the nurture of interaction.

Therefore, simply noting native speaker adjustments does not provide a full picture of how input is made comprehensible or how language develops. Nor how do participants negotiate meaning. *Discourse*, then, appears as the frame where organising, structuring and understanding experience takes place. Using grids helps to spot and describe common efforts made, and to assess them.

3.1 Beyond IRE

In a language classroom teacher is focusing on both content and language. Therefore, a more specific range of feedback strategies is required. Explicit focus applies on the *negotiation* of *form*, rather than simply on meaning. Strategies such as: elicitation (*how do we say this in Spanish*?), metalinguistic clues (*we don't say it that way*); clarification requests (*I do not follow*) and recasts or reformulations/repairs are frequent[14].

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[14] Ellis (1994) and Long (1996:434) have noted the importance of *recast*: utterances that rephrase student's utterance by changing one or more components while still referring to its central meanings". Their role is concerned with negative evidence, that is, information given explicitly or implicitly to the learner about what is incorrect in a language (be it on the grammatical domain or on the contextually appropriateness'). See also Lyster and Ranta (1997), Lyster (1998).

As we have mentioned above, in a sample of trainees' production of classroom discourse, differences in the use of strategies relevant to input facilitation and meaning negotiation were found. The amount of echolalia (empty repetition) among inexpert teachers was 20% of their feedback while recasts were really rare. Experienced teachers, in turn, used at least 30% of recasts whereas no instances of echolalia were found. Functionality in input modelling increases with practice.

It may be the same concerning setting frames or macrostructures, introducing concepts or entities in a context, linking new information to old information. Important enough are also recalling information, introducing meta-language, back channelling, focusing, confirmation questions, self-repetition, repetition, etc. All of them may be difficult to manage for inexperienced teachers, and deserve research and attention when training. We will approach all this through real examples.

In excerpts under (1) we will see two instances of *eliciting sequences* around a functional objective: "buying". Inexpert teachers conduct a session with university students of Spanish L2 in Barcelona. Observation is carried out at their first semester of professional practice. She agreed on (audio) recording.

In all examples, **P** stands for Profesor (Teacher); **A** stands for Alumno (Student).

(1)
1.1. Centrar el tema de clase. Objetivo funcional: comprar

P.- ¿Y si compráis verdura, patatas ¿cómo las pedís?
A.- ¿Verdura?
P.- ¿Verdura? ¿Qué es verdura?
A.- ¿Vegetables?
P.- Ajá. Verdura. Zanahorias, las acelgas, las espinacas. Lo verde ¿sí?
P.- ¿Cómo lo pedís?
A.- What are you saying by "cómo"?
P.- How do you ask for them?
A.- How do you ask for vegetables?// Oh, Oh!!! Medio quilo.
P.- Ajá. Medio quilo. Un quilo... ¿Y si es menos?..¿Tú te comes un quilo de patatas?
A.- ¿?
P._ Sí, lo compras un quilo. Pero, las acelgas... ¡puedes pedir menos!

A.- Un cuarto.
P.- Un cuarto de quilo.
A.- Un bolsa pequeña.… Y números.
P.- Los números. ¿Cómo lo haces? (escribe) 200 gramos de…jamón dulce, o jamón salado.
No pido un quilo de jamón salado. Es muy caro.
A.- Ja, ja, ja.
P.- Nunca me comería un quilo entero ¿sí? Pido cien gramos, ciento cincuenta gramos….

1.2. Centrar el tema de clase. Objetivo funcional: Comprar
P.- … sabíais comprar pan ¿sí? ¿Más o menos?
¿Cómo lo pides?¿Cómo pides el pan?
¿Has ido a comprar pan? ¿Qué me dices? Yo te vendo el pan.
¿Qué me dices?
A..- Asking for bread! ¡Ah! ¡Oh!
P.- Ajá. Ajá. Venga.
A.- Ja, ja. ¿Tienes pan, por favor?
P.- Sí, ¿Cuánto quiere?
A.- Ah. Uh. ¿Cuánto?....// ¿Cómo se llama?...Una barra.
P.- Ajá. Una barra. ¿De cuánto?
¿De medio? ¿De cuarto? (Escribe 1/2 y 1/4 en la pizarra).
A.- Ah, Oh….
(…)
A. You cannot say small, big…?
P.- (nada)
A.- Pequeña, grande.
P.- También puedes decir: quiero una barra pequeña, una barra pequeña,
Pero normalmente están por peso ¿eh?
Peso,
Barras de medio quilo, de quilo, o de un cuarto de quilo.
Entonces pedimos una barra.
O…tú has dicho un paquete.
Se puede decir.
Aquí hay un pan de molde ¿eh? Pan cuadrado.
Se vende en paquete. Entonces puedo decir… una bolsa de….
Normalmente, es pan comercializado con marcas: es "pan Bimbo", (…).

Example (2) illustrates comparison, a grammar point (same context, different teacher).

2. Conseguir centrar el tema del día anterior. Objetivo gramatical:
comparativas.

P.- Bueno, recordamos. Acabamos el viernes. El último día. No sé.
A.- Miércoles.
P.- Sí, exacto, miércoles. Estábamos haciendo los comparativos. ¿Sí?
¿Estábamos haciendo los comparativos?
¿Eh?¿Tú no estabas?¿no? Bien. Pues vamos a seguir haciendo
comparaciones.
¿Sí? Vamos a practicar. Que también os servirá. El libro de ejercicios.
Coged el libro de ejercicios en la página 82.
Bueno, recordad los esquemas. Cuando es para "más" o "menos"
…"que"; y con"como"…Esto sí que lo habéis hecho ¿sí? El martes
hicimos esto ¿no?¿sí o no?
A.- (…)
P.- ¿no? Bueno, vamos a ver qué pasa con el ejercicio. Si lo habéis hecho
bien es que sí lo habéis hecho. Si no, malo….En un momento, llenadlo y
después veremos qué pasa.
A.- ¿Llenarlo?
P.- Llenar. (Gesto) Entre el espacio en blanco (gesto) hay que poner la
solución.
A.- ¿??
P.- To fill in.
A.- Aaah.
P.- Usando "más" o bien "menos que" o bien "tanto como". El ejemplo
dice: "en Sevilla llueve poco. Hay que relacionar estas dos frases con la
comparación. ¿Verdad que sí que lo hicimos?
A.- Sí.
P.- Ajá.
A.- (pregunta algo sobre "relacionar")
P.- ¿Flecha? Es esta flecha (dibuja).
(Silencio. Hacen los ejercicios)
A.- ¿Pesa…tan…? ¿tan?
P.- Pesa es un verbo.
A.- Sí, but, "pesa"….
P.- ¿El adjetivo? Es "pesado"….
(Sigue la clase)
P.- Rafa y Antonio….
A.- Peso.
P.- ¿Peso? Es el nombre para "pesar". ¿Sí?
A.- Rafa es más peso que Antonio.

P.- ¿¿¿¿Más???? 56 quilos y 56 quilos. It is the same weight. Rafa y Antonio, so… Venga.
A.- ¿no?
P.- No. Tienes que emplear un adjetivo.
A. "Rafa es tan pesado como Antonio".

What happens when the teacher is an expert? The following examples (3) and (4) are somehow different. In (3) we will see a code- switching case in a Spanish L3/FL class in a bilingual context in Ottawa conducted by an expert teacher highly proficient in English and French. He taught Translation too. He agreed on being observed and recorded for research purposes in 1990 (as a control subject). Although he is an expert, the sequence he is involved in is the only not allowing for negotiation to occur.

(3) Meaning -difference across structures. Using code-switching strategy in a French-English bilingual-context (Canada)

A. - ¿Qué es la diferencia entre "tener prisa" y "darse prisa"?
P.- La diferencia entre tener prisa y darse prisa: tener prisa, -yo tengo prisa- je suis pressé.
I am in a hurry; me doy prisa, je me dépéche, I hurry up.
A.- OK.

Example (4) was produced by an expert native teacher in Zaragoza, Spain, and non- linguistic (miming /onomatopoeic) strategy applies[15]:

(4) Student's attendance control. En clase se pregunta por un alumno ausente (Spain)

P: John no está, ¿alguien sabe si le ha pasado algo?
A: Yo creo que es enfermo en casa, hoy no va en clase…
P: ¿catarro?
A: No sé "catarro".
P: (El profesor estornuda) ¿Tiene catarro?
A: Sí, sí, catarro.
P: Bueno, esperemos que pueda venir mañana.

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[15] Example supplied by Alicia Clavel (2006), personal communication.

Now, let us practice labelling and functional analyses where the above mentioned concepts apply. A short description of context and functional objectives of examples follows. In *Section 4* above, we did provide an example of move-based analysis (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975). Example (6) below supplies a detailed analysis based on (5), a model by (Fanselow 1977, 1985).

(5)
Model of analysis proposed by Fanselow (1977)

1. **Quién** comunica	2. **Cuál** es la función pedagógica de la comunicación	3. Qué **medio** se usa para la comunica-ción	4. **Cómo** se usan los medios para comunicar los contenidos	5. Qué áreas de **contenidos** se comunican
profesor	Estructurar	Lingüístico Auditivo Visual	Atender Caracterizar Diferenciar Evaluar	Sistema lingüístico Contextual Gramatical
estudiante	Solicitar	Ideogramas Transcrito Escrito Otros	Ilustrar Etiquetar Presentar Palabras-clave Cambio de medio	Literario Significado
Un grupo de estudiantes	Responder	No lingüístico Esquemático	Preguntar Afirmar Relacionar Explicar Interpretar Re-presentar	Mecanismos Escritura Sonidos o rasgos Suprasegmen-tales
Toda la clase	Reaccionar	Simbólico real	Combinar Imitar Parafrasear Reconstruir con cambios	producción oral no clasificado vida

				Transformar	fórmulas imaginati-vas personales/ público
					temas sociales administra-ción propio de una asignatura Comporta-miento social
					Procedi-miento social

Figura 1
(De FANSELOW 34-35)

(6) Implementing Fanselow's model to a sequence observed
From Díaz (1990:345)

A) *A partir de los análisis, podemos detectar "fallos (en la negociación, por parte del profesor)/ After analysing classroom-discourse, teacher's failures can be better approached to improve performance*

QUIÉN	FIN	MEDIO	USO	CONTE-NIDO	FINALIDAD	TRANSCRIP-CIÓN
Profe sor	Estructu rar, solicitar	oral	preguntar	vida		¿Y…si compráis verdura-patatas-cómo los pedís?
Apren diz		"		"		¿Verdura?

Profe sor	Solicitar	"	Preguntar Sub & change	"	Repeti-ción parcial de la pregunta, Aislando el elemento descono-cido (foco) Se devuelve la pregunta del aprendiz	¿Verdura? ¿Qué es "verdura"?
Apren diz		"		"		Vegetables ?
Profe sor	Respon der	"	2.2. Evaluar	"	"	Ajá, verdura.
		"			Expan-sión ilustrati-va con exposi-ción de elemen-tos del ámbito (hipóni-mos)	Zanahorias, las acelgas, las espinacas, lo verde ¿sí?
	Solicitar	"	3.3. Preguntar	Lingüís-tico	Repeti-ción retrospec-tiva, idéntica, de la pregunta - consigna	¿Cómo lo pedís?