Grappling with the oral skills:

The learning and teaching of the low-literate adult second language learner

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Preface

When I started teaching Dutch as a second language in 1993 to immigrants from Turkey and Morocco, the school of adult education where I taught was very active in training its teachers on the cultural differences of our learners and their learning difficulties. As I knew little of the target group and even less about their learning, all this new information enthralled me, particularly works by Geert Hofstede of 1991 (*Allemaal andersdenkenden: Omgaan met cultuurverschillen* [All kinds of thinkers: Dealing with cultural differences]*)*, Sanneke Bolhuis, 1995 (*Leren en veranderen bij volwassenen: Een nieuwe benadering*, [Learning and changing in adults: A new approach], 1995) about the influences of cultural differences on learning, and in the field of learning to read the somewhat controversial book by Frank Smith of 1985, *Reading*. These were exciting times. Materials development was at its beginning stages and government policies to promote learning were just emerging. Soon I was given the opportunity to develop a Dutch as a second language course for the low-educated learner (*Het Begin: Een introductie-cursus Nederlands als tweede taal voor gealfabetiseerde beginners* [The beginning: An introduction course Dutch as a second language for literate beginners], 1999.) The new immigration law of 1998 was on its way and the urgency to learn Dutch was becoming a fact. Not long after the publication of *Het begin*, my fellow literacy colleagues were also requesting a communicative and functionally based course book for their students. In 1998 *Van Start* [At the start] was completed.

National developments continued in the field of Dutch as a second language. In spite of the fact that government regulations were prescribing course contents, and would continue to do so in an even more stringent fashion in the future, teaching of Dutch as a second language was not officially recognized as a profession with legal rights and privileges, as was teaching of English or French in the secondary schools. A puzzling stand to take when hundreds, even thousands of immigrants were, and would be, required by law to learn Dutch. To bridge this gap in government policy an association for the profession of teachers of Dutch as a second language was created in 2004. Within this organization several committees were established, each with specific tasks. Seeing that literacy was strongly neglected in policy, I soon set up the second language literacy committee within the association. Yearly or bi-yearly study days were organized to fulfil teachers' hunger for information and knowledge. The themes of these study days transformed from a positive attitude of 'sorely needed' to one of

‘dropping in or dropping out’ and then “a search for justification’ and finally, with the hope of still being able to answer to the requirements of the government ‘making the best of it’. The law of 2007 with new additions in 2013 has made it virtually impossible for non-literates to attain a recognized level in Dutch as a second language. It was during these last years that I was encouraged to commence on a journey into the learning of the non-literate in the classroom. That journey now has culminated in the dissertation before you. As some have said, perhaps a step too late. Perhaps for these students and teachers it was, but nevertheless I hope worthwhile insights have been gained. These insights can contribute to knowledge about second language learning in general and in particular that of the non-literate learner. Another encouraging development that took place shortly after the founding of the second language teachers association was the founding of LESLLA, an international network of all those who are professionally interested in Low-Educated and Second Language and Literacy Acquisition. The goal of the LESLLA is to share research findings and teaching experiences on second language and literacy acquisition of the low-literate and low-educated adult population. This exchange in information will in turn hopefully provide guidance for the development of a sound educational policy in all those countries in which these immigrants settle. Within this organization, meeting yearly alternately in Europe and outside of Europe, I was able to vent my ideas regarding my classroom research.

A project such as this would never have been possible without the knowledge, support, understanding, and friendship of many around me. In the first place I must thank Ineke van de Craats. It was Ineke who installed in me the very idea of doing a doctoral research project. Without her belief in my capabilities and scholarship I would never even have considered it. Then, returning to my alma mater, Radboud University, it was Roeland van Hout who steered me through to the end. His acute perception of the subject matter, patience, and above all, support in guiding me have been tremendous. I have thoroughly enjoyed, though sometimes at my wits’ end, our regular (almost every six weeks) tripartite sessions. I am grateful to have been given this opportunity.

This research project would never have started if I had no classes to study. The students followed their literacy trajectory at departments for adult education located in schools for secondary vocational education, in Dutch the ROCs. It was in these schools that this research project unfolded. The various schools I have visited and the many teachers I have exchanged ideas with were most stimulating. I was very fortunate to have been welcomed into numerous literacy classes and in particular the final six selected classes. I particularly admire these teachers for their far reaching enthusiasm and interest in teaching their literacy students. Even in view of obstacles as

mixed level classes, continuous registration, stringent regulations, and insufficient educational support, these teachers continued to adapt, construct, and again reconstruct a positive learning environment. In sharing with me their insights, teaching objectives, and concerns my knowledge and understanding of these students have grown enormously. Thank you so much Stance Beelen, Khadjia Bekkali, Loes van den Bergh, Liesbeth Blokker, Martha Heinrichs, and Bette Kaspers. This thank you is also extended to all the students who have without reserve participated in the assessments and have allowed me to sit in during the lessons to listen and observe classroom happenings. At the same time I extend my thanks to the schools of adult education where all of this took place. They were most hospitable in allowing me to approach the teachers for this research and giving me access to administrative records of the students enrolled. Thank you ROC Amsterdam, ROC de Leijgraaf, ROC Midden Nederland, ROC Nova College, and ROC Rijn IJssel. Now, at the close of this research in 2014, literacy courses might even move to the open market, as has been the case for the literate L2 students. Schooling for the low-literate adult L2 learner has become a commercial commodity. Nevertheless, teachers still have to teach and learners still have to learn.

I was fortunate to have been admitted to the LOT publications. Their guidance has relieved me of a lot of hassle connected with publication. Nevertheless, I am especially indebted to Carolus Grütters for the making of the index and creating the lay-out as well as to my son, Derk Venema, for his advice and encouraging words.

As every researcher will say, research means investing time, a lot of time. This time cannot be invested if the home front is not there to give the necessary support – support in the mundane, as well as in the spiritual. A mere thank you is not enough. I had to cut corners when there was a need for a helping hand. And even at Christmas time when a pork roast had to substitute the traditional turkey, I was forgiven. A special thank you is extended to my two paranymphs Marjolijn Venema and Marja Venema-Walraven. Both have contributed by performing as proof readers for the Dutch text, a B&B, and as a sounding board for all my silly ideas. These additions have enriched my journey to completion. And last, but certainly not least there is my husband Dick. He is the one who was stuck with most of the cooking and grocery shopping these past few years, and he even found time to proofread the whole dissertation. He has been my pillar of support.

Leiden, June 2014

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Abbreviations and transcription codes

	Dutch	*English*
A1		CEFR level Breakthrough
A2		CEFR level Waystage
ABCD-model		model for sequencing of classroom practices
CALL		Computer-Assisted Language Learning
CEFR		Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CLT		Communicative Language Teaching
COLT		Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching
DSL		Dutch as a second language
ENV	En nu verder	And now further
ESOL		English for Speakers of Other Languages
HBO	Hoger Beroepsonderwijs	Higher Professional Education
IAV	Instaptoets Anderstalige Volwassenen	Entry test for speakers of other languages
ICE	Bureau Interculturele Evaluatie	Bureau Intercultural Evaluation
IRF		initiation-response-feedback
L1		first language
L2		second or foreign language
LESLLA		Low-educated Second Language and Literacy Acquisition for Adults
LOR		length of residence
LSK		life skills knowledge
MBO	Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs	Secondary Vocational Education
NCB	Nederlands Centrum Buitenlanders	Dutch Center for Foreigners

	Dutch	*English*
NT2	Nederlands als Tweede Taal	Dutch as a second language
PCA		Principal Component Analysis
OGO	Portfolio Opvoeding, Gezondheid, Onderwijs	Portfolio Childcare, Health, Education
OLC		open learning center
RD		restricted discourse
ROC	Regionaal Opleidingscentrum	Regional [educational] Training Center
SA	Spreek actief!	Speak actively!
SLA		Second Language Acquisition
TPR		Total Physical Response
UNESCO		United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
URD		unrestricted discourse
VUT	Vooruitkijken, Uitvoeren, Terugkijken	Looking ahead, Practicing, Looking back
WI	Wet Inburgering	Civic Integration Act
WIB	Wet Inburgering Buitenland	Civics Act Abroad
WIN	Wet Inburgering Nieuwkomers	Civics Integration Act for Newcomers
WRR	Wetenschappelijke Raad voor het Regeringsbeleid	Scientific Council for Government Policy

CHAT transcription codes

+...	trailing off
+..?	trailing off of a question
+/.	interruption
+/?	interruption of a question
+//.	self-interruption
+//?	self-interruption of a question
[/]	repetition
[/-]	false start without repetition
INF	infinitive
1SG	first person singular
3SG	third person singular

Chapter 1
Setting the scene

This book concerns the learning and teaching of the oral skills in Dutch as a second language (DSL). The learners involved are low-literate and non-educated adults in the Netherlands. Many of these adults were immigrants who came in the early years of the 1960s, and are now long-term residents[1]. Others, having entered not more than five years previous to this study, are recent arrivals. Some of these learners are already grandparents while others are young adults. What all of these learners have in common is their lack of schooling. Most of them have never been to school before entering the Netherlands. This means that they have not learned to read and write in their mother tongue. Normally, this would not affect their daily lives, were it not that in their new country of residence literacy is a normal phenomenon. For a learner with little or no formal education and no literacy skills in the L1, becoming literate in an L2 context is not a task to be taken lightly. The same applies to the teachers of such learners. The learning problems they encounter are numerous. In this sense, both parties grapple with either the learning or teaching of the L2. It is on this group of learners and teachers that the study presented in this book focuses.

Before continuing, a clarification of terminology is necessary. Foremost stand the terms illiterate, non-literate, low-literate, and low-educated. Although this study does not concern learning to read and write in the L2, being illiterate in the L1 does function as a key factor. In the proceedings of the LESLLA (Low-Educated Second Language and Literacy Acquisition for Adults) inaugural symposium of 2005, these terms are defined as follows:

> Non-literate (or illiterate): an adult who never went to school and cannot read and write, neither in his/her first language, the standard language of the country of origin or the second language. Low-literate: an adult who has attended school, but who has a reading level below the average primary school level. Low-educated: an adult who has at most ten years of education in the country of origin. For many adult immigrants and refugees, this means at most primary education.
> (Van de Craats, Kurvers, and Young-Scholten, 2006, p. 8)

1 According to the European Union a long-term resident status is after five years of continuous legal residence**.** (http://europa.eu).

In the present study, these definitions are followed and, in referring to these learners, the acronym 'LESLLA' is used.

The second group of terms includes oracy and oral skills. Since this study focuses on oracy and the oral skills, a clarification of these terms is essential. Tarone, Bigelow, and Hansen (2009, p.7) define oracy as "the individual's ability to use a set of oral language processing and production skills in communication." In the present study, oracy is the ability to perform while the oral skills are the expression of that ability.

1.1 Defining the problem

In studies on the learning of the LESLLA learner in the classroom, the importance of the oral skills has been underfocused, but not undervalued. For these learners, arriving in the Netherlands with only an L1 oracy, the written word is not only unavailable as a support in their learning, but their command of the L2 oral skills is often very restricted. This means that their vocabulary and the intrinsic knowledge of sounds, words, and sentences are hardly adequate. Consequently, literacy students have a double handicap: learning to read and write while at the same time working on the oral skills in the same target language. Research, as well as teachers' observations, has shown that, for the development of literacy skills, the oral skills must also be advanced (Lesaux & Geva, 2006). Bigelow, Delmas, Hansen, and Tarone (2006) asserted, "Lack of L1 literacy may affect not just the acquisition of L2 literacy, but also the use and acquisition of L2 oral skills" (p. 666). Kurvers and Van der Zouw (1990) stressed in their study on the development of literacy skills in intensive and non-intensive classes the importance of a strong oral language base for developing literacy skills. In a situation where the target language and the medium of instruction are the same, as in the Netherlands, a basic knowledge of the L2 is essential for two reasons. The first reason is to be able to comprehend classroom instruction and learning goals. With an inadequate knowledge of the language, giving instructions for exercises, and explaining vocabulary and grammar can be easily misconstrued or even not comprehended at all (Van de Craats, 2000). The second reason, particularly in the beginning stages, is the necessity of a basic lexicon to support learning to read and write. A limited vocabulary, in view of an understanding of the letter-to-sound correspondences, can function as a learning-retardant (Kurvers & Van der Zouw, 1990; Kurvers, 1996, 2003). At a later stage of literacy learning, limited vocabulary co-occurring with a restricted knowledge of the world, continues to hamper L2 development, as Geva (2006) confirms in her overview of L2 oral proficiency and L2 literacy studies, "oral language proficiency is consistently implicated when larger chunks of text are involved, whether in

reading comprehension or writing" (p. 139). Van de Craats, et al. (2006) argue that the oral skills form the basis for the learning of the written skills, in which vocabulary as well as syntax forms the primary determinants for successful literacy education – a stand also endorsed by Young-Scholten and Strom (2006). Van de Craats, et al. (2006) conclude that "low-educated learners have, for instance, more troubles in attaining a reasonable level of oral proficiency in L2 classes, their learning process is much slower and they seem to run the risk of fossilizing at an earlier stage of development" (p. 10). Simpson (2007) asserts that progress for literacy students with "no skills to transfer" (p. 209) is much slower than for students with literacy skills.

Such views were also voiced by literacy teachers. In the Dutch journal for literacy teachers, *ALFA-nieuws*, Van de Guchte (1997) [2] expressed the necessity of an intensive focus on the oral skills that runs parallel to the written skills program from the beginning (p. 9). The literacy teacher Van der Loop, Mi. (1998), endorsing the necessity of an oral skills base, explains that, with continuous enrollment, a program is needed with which the teacher can differentiate. When students are added to the class at irregular intervals, a learning gap in skill levels occurs. To compensate for this gap, her classes began with oral exercises based on the TPR[3] concept. She comments that even with oral skills support, the learning process of these students in the oral as well as the literacy skills are noticeably slow. Veth (2002) reports that Moroccan illiterate mothers of elementary school children in a special language program have a great desire to learn to speak Dutch, but their progression is slow. In response to a similar situation in Antwerp, Belgium, a special program was also developed for non-literate migrant mothers in which extra consideration was given for the learners' very slow progress (Schuurmans, 2002). In 2004, a project group on stagnating learners published a report advocating that to enhance learning, more material geared toward low-literates for practising the oral and literacy skills is needed (Breed, 2004).

These observations show that the orals skills are not undervalued. Indeed, even materials developers have not underfocused the oral skills in their textbooks. In one of the first handbooks for teachers of L2 Dutch, the authors (Coumou, Jansen, & Oosterling, 1980) strongly advocated a focus on the oral skills in literacy courses, explaining that this is essential for forming a basis on which literacy training can be built, and moreover, for building

2 Van de Guchte (1996) is author of the popular reader for adolescent literacy students *Lezen doe je overal* [Reading you do everywhere].

3 TPR (Total Physical Response) practice became known in the Netherlands through the publication of De Ru (1991) *Nederlandse taal in actie: TPR werkboek* [Dutch language in action: TPR workbook]. Her book was based on Asher's work on total physical response (Asher, 1977).

basic communication skills, the latter being essential for social and economic integration. Soon the first comprehensive literacy course for the learning of the literacy skills was developed by the NCB.[4] In this course, the oral skills form an integral part. The course opens with an oral skills module, *Een zekere woordenschat* (A certain vocabulary) laying a foundation of 700 words for the literacy course to follow. This first module of oral skills, is followed by a second one named *De kop erop* (Heads on) which runs thematically parallel to the literacy course. Nevertheless, the oral skills part of the course did not get the focus it deserved. In an interview with Tholen (1996), chief editor of the above material, she expressed that literacy education as she had experienced, was distressing – partly due to incomplete implementation of the comprehensive literacy material. She noticed that in the classroom, the literacy and the orals skills were practiced separately, not complementary. Her criticism was not unjustified. As Kurvers (1996, 2003) says, if a foundation in the orals skills is not sufficiently laid, it can delay literacy skills development. Reports show that in practice, the comprehensive literacy course did not cater well to mixed level classes, and, in addition, the oral skills module focused insufficiently on the communicative skills (cf. Van der Loop, Ma. & Strube, 1998). In response to this problem, the first communicative based oral skills course was produced, *Van start: Een beginners cursus voor de mondelinge vaardigheden in de alfabetisering* [At the start: A beginners program for the oral skills in a literacy trajectory] (Van der Loop, Ma. and Strube, 1998). A few years later, 2004, two more oral skills courses entered the market: *Spreek actief!* (Speak actively!) and *En nu verder* (And now further). The latter was a continuation of the *Van start* course. The comprehensive literacy course is still frequently used, but from the survey for this present research (discussed in chapter 3) it appears that the choice for an integrated approach using the NCB literacy material occurs much less often than the separate use of the oral and literacy skills materials of that course.

These research and educational stands advocating oral skills practice are reasons enough for a research focusing on the oral skills practice in the classroom, but not the only reasons. Another reason is the requirements of the national integration examination in the Netherlands. In January 2007, the

4 This material became known as the "literacy method for non-literate speakers of other languages", published by the NCB, *Nederlands Centrum Buitenlanders* [Dutch Center for Foreigners]. It comprises two oral skills manuals for the teacher, one as a preparation for the literacy skills and the second to expand oral skills; seven student workbooks for the literacy skills, and three student workbooks for the low-literate reader. This material is often referred to as the NCB literacy material, after the name of the publisher.

Civic Integration Act[5] was enacted. This law stipulated that newcomers to the Netherlands are required to take a language test. A CEFR[6] level A2 for the oral and written skills must be attained within three and a half years, with a possible extension of two and a half years for non-literates. As of January 2013 the integration period has been shortened to three years with a possible extension of two years for non-literates. In a later study on learning load and success factors, Kurvers and Stockmann (2009) indicated that learning to read is a time-consuming process. Literacy trajectories are long and often not successful. For a small group of students (5%) literacy can be attained within 800 hours (equal to two years schooling, based on an average class meeting of ten hours per week and a school year of 40 weeks). Most seem to need at least 1000 hours (two and a half years). At this point, the student has mastered the decoding and encoding skills in reading, but does not have the fluency of his[7] literate and school educated counterparts. The question that subsequently arises is if a CEFR A2 level is a realistic demand for LESLLA learners, particularly if so little is known about their learning processes.

To conclude, literature on the LESLLA learner makes clear that the educational process for these non-literates is long and time-consuming. The oral skills are fundamental to learning to read and write, and for communication. In the LESLLA classroom, the target language and the medium of instruction are the same, compromising understanding and learning. In spite of this, for many of these LESLLA learners, classroom education is their main source for developing the necessary oral and literacy skills, and if, for whatever reason, their access to the L2 is restricted, the classroom is their only source. Consequently, knowing how teaching and learning practices are expressed in the LESLLA classroom is of the utmost importance. It is essential to understand how these practices are realized during the teaching of the oral skills. These considerations have led to the following research questions.

5 This is a translation of the Dutch: *Wet Inburgering.*

6 CEFR is the abbreviation for the Common European Framework of References for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001).There are three main CEFR levels, each subdivided into two sublevels: A=Basic user (A1=Breakthrough and A2= Waystage); B=Independent user (B1=Threshold and B2= Vantage); C=Proficient user (C1= Effective Operational Proficiency and C2= Mastery).

7 In this book “he” and “his” are used as gender neutral pronouns, except in those cases that the pronoun refers to a specific male person. In the description of the research project the gender specific “she” or “her” are used for the teachers and the students if they were female.

Research question 1

1a. How is education in the LESLLA classroom organized for the oral skills?

1b. What is the relationship between types of organization, learner characteristics, and learning achievement?

In order to understand the learning of the LESLLA learner during the practice of the oral skills, it is necessary to explore the educational situation in which this learning occurs. First, this may concern external factors such as governmental and/or municipal rules and regulations, as well as internal ones imposed by the school. Although the teacher, in forming his educational program, often has no control over such factors, they do form a framework within which he has to teach. Thus, it is crucial to see if such a framework exists, and if so, what constraints are put on the LESLLA classroom by this framework. Secondly, the classroom organization itself must be investigated. This involves identifying types of classroom organization during the practice of the oral skills as well as time management during classroom practice. Thirdly, in order to be able to determine if there is a relationship between classroom organization and learning achievement, it is necessary to ascertain learner progress during the observation period of the research project. This leads to the following research questions:

Research question 2

2a. How is interaction structured in the LESLLA classroom during the practice of the oral skills?

2b. What is the relationship between types of classroom interaction, learner characteristics, and learning achievement?

In order to develop an understanding of the events in a classroom, it is necessary to observe them in progress. Only then can an attempt be made to answer questions concerning if, and which classroom events facilitate or even hamper language learning. Even though research has indicated that instructed language learning does not alter the route or developmental stages of acquisition, it does have a positive effect on vocabulary learning, the rate of learning, and to some extent, the accuracy of production (e.g., Chaudron, 1988; Ellis, 1990; Mackey, 2007). In addition, second language acquisition research has shown that classroom interaction contributes to language learning (e.g., Adams, 2007; Chaudron, 1988; Doughty, 2003; Gass, 1997; Long, 1996; Pica, 1994). Certain kinds of interaction promote comprehension, such as real and natural communication and topic control by the learner (e.g. Ellis, 1990, 1999; Van Lier, 1988). If this is so, then language learning in the classroom should be characterized by ample

interaction. To discover if this is also the case in the LESLLA classroom, it is necessary to know what types of classroom interaction occur in the LESLLA classroom and how they are expressed. Finally, in order to be able to determine if there is a relationship between interaction and learning achievement, it is also necessary to ascertain the learner's progress during the observation period of the research project.

1.2 Outline of the study

This research project involved data from two main areas: on the one hand learner achievement and on the other hand the role of classroom organization and interaction through observation. Learner achievement was determined by an oral assessment, administered at the beginning and at the end of the observation period. The data for classroom organization and interaction was collected by using observation schemes: one for classroom organization and two for classroom interaction (one focusing on the structure of interaction and the other on corrective feedback). Subsequently, a relationship was sought between learner achievement and classroom organization on the one hand, and learner achievement and classroom interaction on the other. Figure 1:1 visualizes the components and steps taken in the present study.

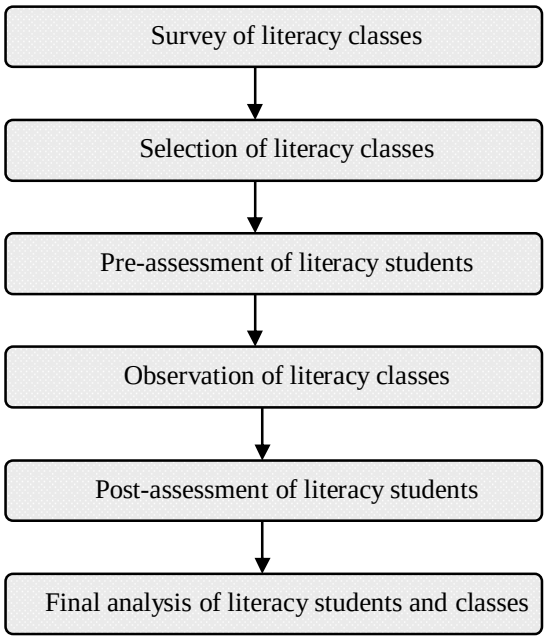

Figure 1:1 Components and steps of the present research project.

Chapter 2 presents a historical and theoretical framework around which this study is constructed. The chapter presents a sketch of past events that have led up to the present situation of L2 illiterates, focusing on educational developments. The chapter continues with a look at research on the LESLLA learner. Since research in this area is relatively limited, knowledge from various perspectives is essential. Therefore, this chapter deals with LESLLA research investigating the classroom as well as experimental research. It also involves areas in second language research that pertain to classroom observation and classroom interaction, in particular corrective feedback. These areas were of importance for two reasons: (1) the observation schemes that were developed for classroom and L2 learning formed a base for the development of the observation schemes applied in this study, and (2) such research forms a knowledge base with which the LESLLA classroom learning could be compared, in particular that concerning interaction. The chapter closes with a look into pedagogical practices which were prominent in L2 teacher training in the Netherlands. In order to understand the teaching structure used in the observed classes, it is necessary to know which pedagogical practices played a prominent role.

Chapter 3 describes the selection process of the six classrooms observed in the present study. This selection was based on a survey of literacy programs in departments of adult education at schools for secondary vocational education in the Netherlands. The aim of the survey was: (1) to map out the external characteristics of the literacy programs such as location, size, and enrollment criteria; and (2) to map out the internal factors of organization such as curriculum, testing, resources, and teacher characteristics; and finally (3) to function as a database for the selection criteria. The chapter closes with a description of the six selected classes in terms of the selection criteria.

The six selected classes for this research project are described in chapter 4. The chapter gives a characterization of each class from three perspectives: physical factors (setting and resources), educational factors (curriculum, placement, and materials), and classroom specific factors (student composition and teacher qualities). The chapter closes with an overall description of the classes. From this description an overview of elements of similarities and differences is derived.

Chapter 5 describes the data collected from the classrooms and the observation procedures that were involved. The classroom data was compiled from direct observation and audio recordings of teacher-student interactions in the six classrooms. To facilitate the analysis of the classroom organization and interaction, three observation schemes were constructed: observation schemes A, B, and C. For each scheme, a selection of lessons from each class was coded. This selection, the coding criteria, and coding

procedures are described. In addition, the approach used in transcribing the lessons as well as in the translation of examples of the interactions is explained.

Chapter 6 focuses on the learner data. Learner data is operationalized by the results on the pre- and post-assessments. The aim of the pre- and post-assessments was to get a better understanding of the spoken language achievement of the LESLLA learners during the observation period. The chapter begins with a description of the development process of the assessment and the testing procedure. The assessment focused on three components: vocabulary, morphosyntax, and relevance and coherence in discourse. The evaluation criteria are described for each of the three components of the assessment.

In chapter 7, the results from the classroom data are presented and interpreted. For each of the three observation schemes discussed in chapter 5, the results are presented. These results are then compared with related factors from second language learning. In addition, the chapter also investigates the pedagogical practices in the classes.

The results on the learner data as seen through the pre- and post-assessments are presented in chapter 8. For each of the three assessment components (vocabulary, morphosyntax, and relevance and coherence in discourse), the results are presented and described. In the final section, patterns of similarity and difference between the classes that resulted from the assessments are examined.

In chapter 9 we return to the research questions and investigate if answers were obtained to these questions, and consider what might be learned from the results for classroom learning as well as for policy making.

Chapter 2
Historical and theoretical framework

Second language acquisition research is largely based on literate learners, either adults or children. The low-literate L2 adult was not an isolated factor of concern for a long time. Only recently did SLA research view literacy as a factor which should be taken seriously (Dörnyei, 2005, 2006; Sparks & Ganschow, 1991, 2001; Tarone, Bigelow, & Hansen, 2009; Van de Craats, et al., 2006; Warren & Young, 2013). An important development in bringing the low-literate L2 learner into the spotlight was with the establishment of LESLLA (Low-Educated Second Language and Literacy Acquisition), an interdisciplinary and international forum of researchers and practitioners, in 2005 (www.leslla.org). Since the publication of the first proceedings in 2006, studies on the LESLLA learner have proliferated (Warren & Young, 2013). In reviewing the contributions in the proceedings from 2006 to 2013, it is clear that the majority of these studies focus on the factor L2 literacy. Few are focused on the classroom practice of the oral skills. Of the 23 studies Warren and Young (2013) investigated, six were classroom studies. The following sections report on those historical and theoretical aspects that form a framework for this study. Section 2.1 takes a look into the past of the LESLLA learner from the beginning years as an immigrant, and shows how he had to cope in his new L2 environment and how L2 teachers responded to his need. Section 2.2 highlights valuable developments in the LESLLA field of education in the Netherlands. Section 2.3 describes relevant classroom and experimental LESLLA research. The observation schemes developed for this study are based on research in classroom observation and on relevant second language interaction research. Those aspects of classroom research on which this study is based are explained in section 2.4. Section 2.5 takes a look at those pedagogical practices which were prominent in L2 teacher training in the Netherlands during the time of this research. The chapter closes with a short summary in section 2.6.

2.1 A look into the past

Since the arrival of the first migrant workers in the 1960s the teaching of DSL has taken enormous strides. It has progressed from a situation of "kitchen table" education with socially motivated volunteers to one with

professionally organised programs and trained teachers. Educational materials have had a comparable development. Insights into language learning were more often used in teaching and the syllabi focused on more functional and communicative language use. Aspects such as realistic tasks and practical language practice outside the classroom became more common. Nationally developed tests for DSL entered the scene. Soon scales for five levels of competence for each of the four skills were defined. On an international European level, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, commonly known as the CEFR levels, was introduced (Council of Europe, 2001). In the Netherlands, since literacy was an assumed skill in the CEFR, literacy levels were added a few years later.

A large number of these migrant workers who came to the Netherlands in the 1960s were non-literate or had had very little education. For them the development of appropriate programs for learning the written as well as the oral skills lagged behind those for literates. Programs that were set up for non-literates often took advantage of the materials designed for literates (Coumou, Fontein, & Van Soest, 1976). Much of that material assumed a certain level of literacy on the part of its learners. The early programs for literacy were often on either reading or speaking. Other learning difficulties, such as a lack of basic (school) learning skills, were overlooked. Eventually, more professional learning materials were developed. Later, just as for the literate learner of DSL, a national test for was constructed for the non-literate learner, but only for the written skills.

The stand of the Dutch government toward the position of the migrant worker within Dutch society has also evolved over the years. It has adjusted its policy to one of "laissez faire" in the beginning years to one with strict immigration regulations. These increasingly stringent measures have resulted from an ever increasing disappointment with the effect of previously undertaken steps for enhancing integration. The learning of the Dutch language was seen to be the key step to integration. But even the increasing knowledge of DSL and the multitude of improved language programs did not result in the level of integration and participation that was hoped for. The conclusion was drawn that the current legislation was not realistic and repeatedly new legislation was made. The first was the Newcomers Integration Act of 1998, followed by the requirement of a language entrance exam, the WIB[8], in the country of origin in 2006. These steps culminated in the *Wet Inburgering* (Integration Act) of 2007 – just at the time this research project was getting underway. Looking back, it can be seen that progress has been made in the field of teaching DSL. The government has also become more concerned and involved in the integration process of the immigrant in

8 WIB is the acronym for *Wet Inburgering Buitenland* (Civics Act Abroad).

Dutch society. Nevertheless, integration and language learning remain problematic. The recurring theme in research is the slow progress in language proficiency of the non-literate immigrant. A look into the past puts these developments into perspective.

Developments 1945 – 1960

World War II had left the Netherlands in shambles. Factories had been dismantled, the infrastructure was heavily damaged and housing shortage through destruction was acute. Nevertheless, with the financial injection of the Marshall Plan, economic recovery was developing successfully. In the postwar period of 1945 to 1960 the focus was primarily on reconstruction. All efforts were geared to using all available Dutch manpower in the reconstruction industry, predominately the steel, mining and textile industry. It did not take long to realize that in order to keep the factories running the available labor in the Netherlands would not be sufficient and additional laborers from abroad would be necessary.

In 1949 the Dutch government made its first agreement with a European country to recruit laborers. This was with Italy. The country, ravaged by the war, had high unemployment and Italian workers swarmed to neighboring countries for work. These workers were specifically recruited for the coal mines in the province of Limburg and for the steel industry of Hoogovens IJmuiden near Amsterdam. At that time the Italians received working permits valid for only a period of two years. The selections were strict and based on personal characteristics such as being single, in the age group 19-30 years, literate, politically trustworthy and medically sound (Tinnemans, 1994, p. 17). During this period any type of assistance for housing or arbitration in employment disputes was nonexistent. Because the workers were admitted on a temporary basis, these matters were thought to be the responsibility of the employers and not of the government (Krijnen, 1997, p. 9).

In this early period of migration, the learning and the teaching of DSL did not concern policy makers and was left to individual initiatives. Moreover, the migrant worker was seen as a temporary phenomenon. The Dutch-Indonesians from the former Dutch East Indies normally spoke excellent Dutch and were already schooled in reading and writing. Their assimilation process into Dutch society normally did not attract much attention. On the other hand the Moluccan population, still aspiring for a free Moluccas and consequently upholding a strong group identity, held firmly to the use of their mother tongue. Many of the older generation who came in the fifties had only had elementary schooling and spoke little Dutch. Of these 80% was non-literate or semi-literate (Veringa & Roesingh, 1979, p. 18, 22).

Developments 1960 – 1975

From 1960 to 1975 the trend started in the previous decade continued. The Netherlands was transforming from a nation with migrant workers to one with immigrants. In the 1960s the Dutch government actively recruited laborers from several Mediterranean countries – Italy, Spain, Portugal, Turkey, Malta, Greece, Morocco, Yugoslavia, and Tunisia (Krijnen, 1997, p. 10). The recruitment selection was again based on aspects of health, suitability, skill, and age. At first, the influx of migrant workers was sparse. The WRR report 17 (1979a),[9] *Ethnic minorities*, mentions that, in 1960, 719 foreigners were registered with a residence permit, the majority coming from Greece and Spain. In 1961, 1623 workers were recruited from the so-called *wervingslanden* (recruitment countries) Spain, Portugal, Greece, Turkey, Morocco and Yugoslavia. Fourteen years later, in the last year of official recruitment (1975), the number of recruited laborers had decreased to 920. In that same year, 153,120 (men, women and children) were legally registered with a residence permit, particularly from Turkey and Morocco (WRR, 1979a, p. 95). The apparent inconsistency shows that recruitment was not the only means of coming. Van der Staay (1971) reports only a minority of Turkish and Moroccan workers, 33% and 2% respectively were recruited. Most came with the help of family and friends who were already in the Netherlands (p. 142). This informal network often helped the compatriot in finding work. A working permit, and eventually a residence permit, was then easily obtained (Tinnemans, 1994, p. 95).

Van der Staay (1971) reports that in 1971 that 88% of the Turkish workers and 13% of the Moroccans came as unskilled laborers. Of these, 74% of the Turks and 68% Moroccans also worked in unskilled jobs, mostly as factory workers, 88% and 76% respectively (Van der Staay, 1971, p. 152). In comparing these statistics with the level of literacy in the country of origin it is not surprising that such a high number of migrated laborers were unskilled. Table 2:1 shows the illiteracy levels in Turkey and Morocco in 1971.

9 WRR is the acronym for *Wetenschappelijke Raad voor het Regeringsbeleid* (Scientific Council for Government Policy). This council is an independent advisory body for the Dutch government (www.wrr.nl).

Table 2:1 Illiteracy in Turkey and Morocco in 1971(in percentages)[a]

Country	Average	Men	Women
Turkey	48.7	30.9	66.4
Morocco	78.6	66.4	90.2

[a] These statistics are taken from a Unesco publication of 1971 and reported in Veringa & Roesingh (1979, p. 65).

At first, the migrant workers were mostly male and single. But soon, wives with their children reunited with their husbands. This reunification process, although not overtly stimulated, was supported by the Dutch government in their recruitment contracts which stated that workers had the right to stay, and after a period of two years, could be legally reunited in the Netherlands with their families (Stads, Spapens, & Doremalen, 2004, p. 92). This was even shortened to one year with the stipulation of having obtained suitable housing. Many workers took advantage of this lawful possibility. As early as the end of the 1960s, the temporary character of migrant workers was evolving into one of immigrant workers who stayed (Krijnen, 1997, p. 14). Even though these developments were taking place, the government still emphasized in the policy document on immigrant workers (*Nota Buitenlandse Werknemers*) of January 1970 that the Netherlands was not an immigration country saying:

Nederland is beslist geen immigratieland. Met alle begrip voor de menselijke aspecten, kan men niet anders dan vaststellen, dat ons land behoefte heeft aan nieuwe arbeidskrachten en niet aan nieuwe gezinsvestigingen vanuit het buitenland. (quoted in Tinnemans, 1994, p. 100)

The Netherlands is definitely not an immigration country. With all due respect for the human aspects, one can only ascertain that our country is in need of new labor and not the settling of new families from abroad.
(translation mine)

Even though the government initially did not foresee the impact that such large numbers of foreigners could have within Dutch society, Entzinger (1984, pp. 79-80) notes that the government could have discouraged further settlement of foreign workers through strict enforcement of the recruitment contracts, but social pressure was great. Various organisations had committed themselves to improving the welfare of migrant workers and industry was thriving with this foreign labor. With the oil crisis at the end of 1973, there was a short economic recession directly affecting employment. As jobs were momentarily scarcer, the migrant worker, now a more permanent phenomenon, became a competitor for the Dutch workers. The

initial economic stimulus to earn a lot (and fast) was past. The migrant worker was staying. In 1975, when active recruitment was discontinued, the Turkish population had grown from less than 100 in 1960 to 62,600 in 1975. In the Moroccan sector there was a comparative increase, from 100 in 1960 to 33,200 in 1975.[10] The immigration from these two countries would remain the largest to the present day. Moreover, it was from Turkey and Morocco that most of the non-literates came.

Although the migrant worker was still seen as a temporary phenomenon during this period, and education, particularly that of the Dutch language, was still not a concern for policy makers, many initiatives for the learning of DSL were launched. In the 1970s, community centers and organizations for ethnic minority groups were beginning to organize language classes for adults. Many interest groups were locally active in organizing these classes (Krijnen, 1997; Stads et al., 2004; Tinnemans, 1994). Initially, they were mainly for women – the men were, after all, at work. The schooling process often began in a neighborly fashion – assisting with visits to the doctor, going to the supermarket or helping to fill in official forms. Teachers were mainly volunteers working at home (kitchen table education) or at community centers or club houses. The materials were self-constructed or taken from elementary school course materials. These lessons were often just a few hours per week.

In her study of the Rotterdam area, Krijnen (1997) sketches how lessons for the non-literate came into being. Around 1971 language lessons, especially for the non-literate, were set up for various language groups (Krijnen, 1997, p. 35). In the beginning the focus was on migrant women. At first, it was problematic for them to get their husband's permission. At registration, the husband would talk for his wife, with the excuse that she doesn't know the language and is too dumb to understand what she has to do (Van der Erve, et al., 1981, p. 44). In order to gain the husband's approval, arguments were brought up such as not having to accompany the wife for all kind of errands if she can speak a little Dutch, and, if the lessons would take place in the home, the wife doesn't even have to leave the premises. Classes were often initiated under the pretext of sewing lessons. During these lessons certain skills, such as using a measuring tape, was used as a link to literacy and language learning (Krijnen, 1997, p. 111). These classes usually took place during the day. Soon, the men were also requesting language lessons, and evening classes were organized. When sewing lessons for Turkish women were set up in 1974, within a year there were approximately 500 women enrolled. Moroccan women followed suit in 1979. At the end of the seventies, numerous organizations were active in teaching Dutch. Literacy

10 Central Bureau for Statistics, Voorburg/Heerlen 04-24-2005.

and DSL were quickly put on the educational agenda. In the 1980s this process was professionalizing, and special materials were being developed.

Although many sources mention the existence of languages courses, little was said about the materials and the actual teaching practices. One of the earliest inventories was made in 1970, and expanded in 1976 by Coumou, Fontein, & Van Soest, 1976. Although no publishing dates were given in this survey, it can be assumed that the materials were in use in the second half of the 1970s and some even earlier. The purpose of the survey, as Coumou, et al. (1976, p. 4) state in the introduction, was to assist the language teacher of DSL in choosing the most suitable classroom materials. For each of the materials cited a short description is given of the course aims or objectives, target group, and approach. The materials are categorized in four groups: language courses, grammar books, exercise books and language guide books for tourists. The category language courses is subdivided in general courses (mainly for literate learners with more than basic education) and courses for the migrant worker (including literacy materials). Putting the literacy materials in the category 'courses for the migrant worker', Coumou, et al. (1976) presuppose that this target group foremost encompasses the non-literates. Looking at the statistics, this was most probably the case. Fourteen titles are listed in this category. Most of these were the cooperative endeavour of local organizations supporting the migrant worker. A few were products of individuals or non-profit organizations. According to Coumou, et al. (1976) the quality of the materials varies greatly – from worthwhile to almost useless. Almost half of the materials have no teacher's manual or suggestions, putting a heavy reliance on the expertise of the teacher who, in the beginning years, was often untrained.

Another inventory was published by the Dutch Society for Applied Linguistics in 1978 (Van Egmond-Van Helten, Hulstijn, & Janssen-van Dieten, 1978). In this survey, the authors also concluded that immigration was not a temporary phenomenon, and that eventually education for non-native speakers would have a permanent position within the educational system (p. 5). The study recommended that for the non-literate learner special attention be given to the cultural background and the L1. This would mean forming separate classes for men and women (Van Egmond-Van Helten, et al., 1978, p. 8). The report ends with the recommendation that teaching materials of good quality should be developed, and that teachers should be specially trained in literacy education.

Developments 1975 – 1990

In the next period of fifteen years, the focus on the minority population intensified. A diversity of studies surfaced. On the one hand, there were studies concerning their social and economic mobility and participation in society, and on the other hand, research took place centering on second language acquisition, teaching, and learning. In 1965, on the initiative of UNESCO, the first world congress for the eradication of illiteracy took place in Tehran (www.unesco.org). Viewing literacy as eminent for a country's economic development and essential for "the unshackling of men's minds," UNESCO wanted to respond to the problem of literacy on a worldwide scale. In this initiative, countries with a high percentage of illiteracy (then world wide 44%) were assisted in setting up literacy programs. Many years later in 1977, an extensive analysis of adult L1 literacy was published in the Netherlands, putting literacy in the spotlight (Hammink & Kohlen, 1977). Even though this report concerned L1 literacy, it also caused attention to be focused on the social and economic problems of non-literates among the non-Dutch (Hammink & Kohlen, 1977, p. 6). As local activities increased, the government remained slow in taking a stand on immigration. Ultimately the WRR (1979) came out with the report *Ethnic Minorities*, declaring that immigration is indeed no longer a temporary phenomenon. What had been predicted in earlier studies (Krijnen, 1997; Tinnemans, 1994; Van der Staay, 1971; Van Egmond-Van Helten, 1978) was now openly recognized by the government. The statistics showed for permanent working permits an increase of 67% in the migrant population from 46,200 in 1975 to 77,000 in 1977 and in temporary permits a decrease of almost 50% from 54,700 to 28,300. The 1979 WRR report recognized that language is a vital entity for integration. Without the ability to communicate, the migrant is not, or only marginally, able to participate economically or socially. The WRR report confirmed that the government had been lax in forming a policy on education, saying:

> There has been next to no official activity with regard to language instruction, schooling and training for adult foreigners beyond school-age, although a great many people, including research workers, have pointed to the need for such efforts. Language instruction for adults is completely left to private initiative . . . (WRR, 1979b, p. 138)

The document further stipulates that education is essential, for men as well as for women. It even advises employers to grant the worker paid leave to learn Dutch. For newcomers the document advises orientation courses on the Dutch society (WRR, 1979). Leave for language learning through governmental regulation was realized on a limited scale, but was not further expanded. The advised courses in the orientation on Dutch society would

become a required component, some twenty years later in the Newcomers Integration Act of 1998.

In the following years several more studies on literacy and literacy teaching emerge. In a study by Veringa and Roesingh (1979) *Alfabetisering van volwassenen en verder* (Adult literacy and further) the authors postulate that if a child has a right to education, and it is made compulsory and regulated by law, then it should also be a prerogative right for the adult. A strong plea is made for the regulation of a basic education program for adults, particularly concerning literacy education for native and non-native speakers of Dutch. Veringa and Roesingh also emphasize that in order to facilitate social and economic integration, learning in schools of basic education should not be limited to learning to read and write, but be extended to other subjects such as numeracy (Veringa, & Roesingh1979, pp. 40-50). In addition, teachers should be properly trained to ensure the desired educational standards. These recommendations eventually materialized in 1987 with the *Rijksregeling Basiseducatie* (State Regulation for Basic Education) (Broekema, 1987) in which standards were set and funding on a larger scale was made possible. One of the major steps was the regulation of a recognized qualification for teachers. Designated schools of higher education would be responsible for the training. Basic education was meant for the low-educated with a maximum of ten years of schooling in country of origin. In curricula the objectives were not formulated, but were put in terms of study duration (a maximum of 1000 hours or 5 years). The specific learning content was to be determined by the educator, but the focus was primarily on Dutch for L1 and L2 learners, L1 and L2 literacy, English, social skills, and arithmetic. Soon computer skills were added. In the basic education courses, 42% of the learners were immigrants, of which 80% were in language classes, and of that percentage, 56% were in classes DSL. The percentage of literacy courses is unknown (Broekema, 1987). The general objective of basic education scheme was to promote coherence and coordination of adult education. In 1998, the enactment of the WIN [11]also meant the end of the institutes for basic education. At the end of this period the WRR report 36 (1989), *Allochtonenbeleid* (Immigrant Policy), was published. In this document the government again recognized the fact that immigration was definitely a permanent phenomenon in the Netherlands, which would have consequences for future policy making. The tone emphasized reducing the social-economic gap, while at the same time stimulating participation. Nevertheless, this meant that education for

11 WIN is the acronym for *Wet Inburgering Nieuwkomers* (Civic Integration Act for Newcomers) of 1998.

children as well as adults would have to reckon with these new circumstances.

Professionalism in the field of DSL as well as in literacy was becoming evident. One pioneer in this field, currently still active, is the NCB. In the mid-seventies the NCB was already organizing Dutch language courses, initially working with volunteers. At the same time, the NCB was also making a modest start in training teachers (Van Egmond-Van Helten, et al., 1979, p. 15). Initially (around 1989), the NCB was strongly in favour of learning to read and write in the mother tongue first. There were many practical objections, of which the most outstanding concerned the Moroccans. Many were not literate in the L1 and did not speak Arabic or the Moroccan variety, but a Berber language. Until relatively recent these Berber languages did not have a writing system. Moreover, if the learner was Arabic script literate, this script differs greatly from the Roman script, which makes acquiring the Roman script even more cumbersome. This is not the case for Turkish, which uses the Roman alphabet. If a Turkish speaker is L1 literate, then the step to L2 literacy is relatively small. Secondly, there were too few Turkish and Moroccan teachers, and training would take too long (Tubbing, 1990, p. 139). In spite of these warnings, priority was given in 1990 to training Turks and Moroccans as L1 literacy teachers in basic education. The NCB is presently widely known for its comprehensive literacy course, first published in the mid-1980s. Another milestone in DSL development was a test battery for the four skills: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. This was the first step in measuring L2 proficiency. Each skill was divided into five levels. These tests are known as the IAV tests, *Instaptoets Anderstalige Volwassenen* (Entry test for speakers of other languages). Eventually these levels would function as a basis for later L2 scales. Literacy scales and tests were to follow.

Developments 1990 – 2007

The number of immigrants continued to grow; the call for a more stringent and active policy in the direction of integration also. This was not only directed toward the recent arrivals, but to the long-term residents as well. In accordance with the WRR recommendations of 1989, the focus was now directed toward the stimulation of education, work, and integration. The motto became "active citizenship." At the same time, attention on a worldwide scale was again put on literacy – the general assembly of the United Nations adopted a resolution pronouncing 1990 the "International literacy year."[12] Since the first step in 1964 toward a worldwide fight against illiteracy by the UNESCO, a great step toward literacy has been taken. In

12 Retrieved 01-17-2014 from www.unesco.org

1964, 44% was given as illiterate; in 2011 a literacy rate of 84.1% is given, or 15.9% illiteracy.[13] Table 2:2 reveals a formidable increase in literacy for 1971 (transposed from Table 2:1) and 2011.

Table 2:2 Literacy rates in the country of origin in 1971 and 2011[a]

Country	Average		Men		Women	
	1971	2011	1971	2011	1971	2011
Turkey	51.3	94.1	69.1	97.9	33.6	90.3
Morocco	21.7	66.9	33.6	76.1	9.8	57.6

[a] Retrieved 01-17-2014 from https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/

Developments effecting literacy education were quickly unfolding. The WRR report 36, *Immigrant Policy* (1989) set the stage for education for newcomers, *Opvang Nieuwkomers* (Reception Newcomers). Numerous publications emerged advising, analyzing, and criticizing the steps taken in the formation of an integral plan including finances, goals, obligations, sanctions, enrollment procedures, and educational programs. The educational programs were to include modules on DSL, civic and social orientation, and job orientation. An experimental period began, with Tilburg and The Hague as the first two municipalities to explore possibilities and develop instruments and materials (Abbenhuis, Doets, Huisman, De Jonge, & Simmelink, 1995). Others soon followed. At the same time (end 1989, beginning 1990) a whole series of publications emerged with goals and objectives covering the courses in basic education: L1 Dutch, L2 Dutch and literacy, English, Turkish and Arabic (both as a support for literacy), social skills, and arithmetic. These publications, which became known as the *Doelenboeken* (Targets Books), were soon distributed to institutes for basic education where they formed a fundament for program development. The "Dutch as a second language target book" (based on the IAV tests) specified four learning levels, and three levels for literacy were added. The literacy levels expressed in the Targets Books were predecessors of the Dutch created CEFR literacy levels. Literacy education was transferred from institutions for basic education to the ROCs (Regional Training Centers[14]) in the department of adult education. Ten years after its establishment, the separate institutions for basic education were terminated. The purpose for this change was to promote the flow from lower to higher education (Bohnenn, Ceulemans, Van de Guchte, Kurvers, & Van Tendeloo, 2004).

In 1998 the *Wet Inburgering Nieuwkomers* (Civics Integration Act for Newcomers) was a fact. Two years later it was evaluated. The

13 Retrieved 01-17-2014 from www.uis.unesco.org/literacy/

14 ROC is an acronym for *Regionaal Opleidingscentrum* (Regional [educational]Training Center).

conclusions were disappointing: a large number of candidates did not reach the expected end level; no educational underpinnings to prove that trajectories of 600 hours are insufficient for reaching the target level; and finally, because there were no systematic analyses of the test results, no evaluation of the quality and effect of the education programs could be made.[15] Nevertheless, the impetus to develop new material was installed, and therefore, continued with unrelenting enthusiasm. Of these the most influential was the development of the *Raamwerk NT2* (the Framework of Dutch as a Second Language) and the ensuing *Blokkendoos* (Building blocks). Both of these products were continuations of the previously developed *Doelenboeken*.[16]

The period 2000 to 2003 was colored by critical observations and political hysteria. The so-called warnings of a "mass migration" from the Islamic countries were all manipulation of the popular view, and, according to Lucassen and Lucassen (2011) unfounded by statistics. The number of immigrants was declining, particularly the low-educated. This is not surprising, since WIB was being implemented. This law stipulated that a language test and a test on aspects of the Dutch society had to be taken in the country of origin. Since 2006, a CEFR level of A1 became mandatory for immigrants. Finally these events culminated in the Civics Integration Law 2007 (the WI, *Wet Inburgering*). This new legislation was a drastic change from the previous law of 1998. Not only were there governmental cuts in expenditures for integration education, the move was also from governmental control to open market forces. The previously course-directed sector was replaced with flexible demand-oriented integration and re-integration programs. In the beginning, the move to the private sector for schooling did not effect literacy education. These courses remained with the ROCs, but changes were in view. The most radical change was the installation of central integration examinations, testing all four skills. In 2011 a new test was added to the WIB, a literacy test, deterring non-literates on language grounds from immigration (see Kurvers, Van de Craats, & Boon, 2013 for a detailed review of these events). Table 2:3 gives a concise overview of the three integration acts.

15 Retrieved on 01-17-2014 from http://www.rekenkamer.nl/Publicaties/Onderzoeksrapporten/Introducties/2000/08/Inburgering_en_taalonderwijs_allochtonen

16 Retrieved on 10-25-2005 from http://www.blokkendoos.slo.nl/toelichting/nt2toelichting.php

Table 2:3 The three integrations acts compared.

	WIN 1998	WI 2007	WI 2013
Target group	Newcomers (max. 5 years residency)	Newcomers and long-term residents	Newcomers
Costs	Government	Government	Newcomer
Penalties	Fine	Fine and no permanent residence permit	Fine and repeal of residence permit
L2 target level	DSL level 2	Newcomers all skills CEFR A2 Long-term residents written at CEFR A1	CEFR A2 for all candidates
Term	500 – 600 hours	3½ + 2½ years extra for non-literates	3 + 2 years extra for non-literates
Implementation and execution	Municipality	Municipality	DUO (*Dienst Uitvoering Onderwijs*)[17]
Examination	Profile literacy examination	KNS (Knowledge of Dutch society) TGN (Test Spoken Dutch) Electronic practical exam based on profiles. Portfolio and practical examination	KNS (computer test) TGN (telephone test) Reading (computer test) Listening (computer test) Writing (paper test)
Responsibility	Municipality	Municipality	Newcomer

2.2 Highlights in literacy development

The ever increasing entrance restrictions for the non-literate have decimated the number of non-literate immigrants entering the Netherlands (Kurvers, Van de Craats, & Boon, 2013). Only a number of asylum seekers and long-term residents are now non- or low-literate. Nevertheless, literacy education is still necessary, albeit in a broader context. In the Netherlands approximately10% of the population is low-literate, meaning that one is

17 This governmental office regulates financial educational assistance, information about education, and the organization of national examinations.

insufficiently literate to use daily technology for communication and information processing (http://lezenenschrijven.nl). Of this ten percent, at least 35% are from non-western countries.[18] Developments are still continuing. In January 2013, the European Commission in the context of "Life Long Learning" program subsidized an inter-European research project called the "Digital Literacy Instructor." The goal of the project is to develop a computer program for non- and low-literates learning an L2 with automatic speech recognition through which feedback can be given on words read aloud. It is expected that through the use of such programs learning to read can be intensified.

Developments such as this, is a step further along the line of technological advancement, but knowledge and products produced in the preceding decennia have laid the groundwork. Of these, the development of the CEFR levels was a driving force for the realization of the DSL levels expressed in publications of the *Raamwerk NT2* (the Framework of Dutch as a Second Language) and the *Blokkendoos* (Building blocks), to the latter the three literacy levels were added. From this the *Raamwerk Alfabetisering NT2* (the Literacy Framework of Dutch as a Second Language) and the *Portfolio alfabetisering NT2* (Dutch Literacy Portfolio) were developed in which the literacy levels were made more explicit with literacy and functional goals in a literacy portfolio (Stockmann & Dalderop, 2005). Based on this literacy framework, tests were developed making learning steps transparent.

Learning materials in the classroom have not been less striking. The NCB comprehensive literacy course turned out to be (and still is) the most influential. The material has been expanded with extra reading material and computer-based activities. The development of the oral skills within literacy learning lagged behind. In spite of a stress in teacher manuals and training programs on the importance of a strong focus on the oral skills, no specific learning levels have, as yet, been developed. Nevertheless, two basic programs were produced. These were *Van start: Een beginners cursus voor de mondelinge vaardigheden in de alfabetisering* (At the start: A beginners program for the oral skills in a literacy trajectory) and the ensuing *En nu verder* (And now further), and secondly, *Spreek actief!* (Speak actively!).[19] Still, participation of the LESLLA student remains problematic. After having completed literacy training and an oral skills program, it is presumed that the student can participate in L2 classes with literate students, but according to literacy teachers, their fluency, tempo, study skills, general knowledge, and

18 Retrieved on 01-20-2014 from: http://lezenenschrijven.nl/algemeen/wp-content/uploads/2013/12/LS_literatuurstudie_170x240_def.pdf

19 For convenience, these titles are shortened to respectively *SA* for *Spreek Actief!* and *ENV* for *En nu verder*..

vocabulary still need extra attention.[20] Perhaps programs such as the "Digital Literacy Instructor" are the answer to overcoming this hurdle in further learning.

2.3 LESLLA research

In the past, many second language classrooms have been observed (Allwright, 1988; Chaudron, 1988; Ellis, 1990; Van Lier, 1988). Most of these were concerned with literate learners of English as a second language and few with non-literate learners and classroom observation. In the United States there have been, to my knowledge, three extensive national projects which did focus (or marginally focus) on the low-literate L2 learner through classroom observation. The first one was in 1975 *Last Gamble on Education* (Mezirow, Darkenwald, & Knox, 1975).[21] This project was concerned with classroom behavior in the adult literacy classroom. Through classroom observation of basic literacy and ESOL[22] classes, fifty-nine classes in five different cities were studied. It focused on forms of information exchange, binding of groups, and modes of instruction. The researchers noted that because of classroom diversity, binding through sharing of experience and peer learning was limited. Mixed-level classes and continuous enrollment were common. The mode of instruction was mainly teacher-centered and marked by routine type exercises such as drills and recitation.

The second national study, *Classroom Dynamics in Adult Literacy Education*, was carried out from October 1997 to April 1999 by Beder and Medina (2001). The literacy classes in this study included L1 as well as L2 learners. Twenty different classes in eight states took part in the project. The classes were selected on basis of location, class size, type of school/provider, type of program and type of instruction. More than 200 students were involved. Each class was observed twice, the second observation occurring a week after the first. The focus was on content and organization of classroom instruction, social processes that characterize the interactions of teachers and learners, and forces outside the classroom that shape classroom behavior. The findings demonstrated a strong teacher-centered teaching with a focus on the exchange of concrete, factual information. All the observed lessons were of the IRE form of instruction: Initiation – Response – Evaluation. Learner-centered activities were only manifested in the social interactions between teacher and student. Free-flowing discussion, viewed to be important for the development of the oral literacy skills, was rarely observed.

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20 Taken from the minutes of the Committee for Dutch L2 literacy, November 22, 2008.

21 This report was mentioned in Beder and Medina (2001).

22 ESOL is the acronym for English for Speakers of Other Languages.

Continuous enrollment and mixed-level classes had, as was also seen in the Last Gamble project, a negative impact on classroom behavior. Funding and the limited possibilities for professional development were seen to add to this effect.

The most recent project in the United States was the extensive *What Works* project of Condelli, Wrigley, Yoon, Cronen and Seburn (2003). The objective of this project was to identify through qualitative and quantitative research which instructional activities help to develop and improve literacy and communicative skills in English. As in the Classroom Dynamics study, the classes were selected on a broad basis. Thirty-eight classes from thirteen different locations with a total of 495 students were involved. Within the domains of instructional practices, program practices and student factors, the study showed that several features are related to student learning. Three instructional practices emerged as being most influential for positive language development. These were the bringing of the outside world into the classroom, use of the L1 for clarification, and varied practice with a focus on communication. For the student factors, the most outstanding were regular attendance, prior education, and age.

In 2007, a similar project was also undertaken in Great Britain, entitled *ESOL effective teaching and learning* by Baynham, Roberts, Cooke, Simpson, Ananiadou, Callaghan, McGoldrick, and Wallace (2007). The study results were expressed in terms of progress on a speaking test in which grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and interactive communication were globally assessed. The main findings of this project indicated that the teaching strategies "balance and variety" as well as "planning and explicitness" were more significant than "a collaborative learning environment" and "connecting the classroom with learners' outside lives." In support of whole class work, the Baynham, et al. (2007) study observed that it has an important cohesive function within the class, "Talk is work in the ESOL classroom, but talk is also the means of creating social solidarity: '*The whole class activities are to keep the atmosphere going as much as anything.*' " (2007, p. 55).

In the Netherlands, Kurvers and Van der Zouw (1990) studied the literacy processes in intensive (fifteen hours per week) and non-intensive classes (between one and a half to six hours per week). The study showed that better literacy results were obtained in the intensive groups. Although the oral skills and vocabulary development were not the focus of this study, it did show the importance of a strong language base in developing literacy skills.

Next to these few classroom studies, experimental research is also essential for forming an understanding of the LESLLA learner. A recent experimental study took a closer look at the effect of literacy in second

language oral production (Bigelow, Delmas, Hansen & Tarone, 2006; Tarone, Bigelow & Hansen, 2007, 2009). The data for this study was gathered from low- and moderately literate Somali immigrants. The subjects performed three second language tasks: repetition of a recast, elicited imitation and the production of an oral narrative. The results of this experiment show that for recasts literacy definitely does have an influence on the oral production of a second language. For the recasts this meant: the higher the literacy level the better the recall (correct or modified) on a recast. In another study, (Kurvers, 2002; Kurvers, Van Hout, & Vallen, 2006) differences in metalinguistic awareness were examined. The study focused on children, adult non-literates and literates, all with similar ethnic and social backgrounds. The researchers found that literacy had an effect on how one perceives language. In sentence segmentation tasks, for example, non-literates segmented on content, while in general, literates segmented along word boundaries. Non-literates have particular difficulty reflecting on formal linguistic features, which makes oral repair on grammatical errors all the more difficult. For this reason if an uptake takes place, a lexical repair is expected to be most prevalent. These results coincide with the findings in quite another study by Castro-Caldes and Reis (2003) concerning brain functions and literacy. They found that in pseudo-word repetition tasks the brain of a non-literate was remarkably less active than that of a literate. The conclusion that subsequently was drawn is that literacy enhances the possibility to manipulate language units with no semantic meaning. Most fascinating for this present research are Kurvers' (2002b) findings on a picture story task, in which she ascertained how texts are produced and interpreted. Concerning text coherence Kurvers found that 45% of the stories told by the non-literate adults were coherent, while for the pre-schoolers this was 73.7% and for the literate adults 100%. Similar differences were found by Scribner and Cole (1981) between monolingual literate and non-literate adults in a story telling task. For students who have had no formal education nor experience in 'reading' pictures such a task can be overwhelming. Literacy and schooling is more than learning print. New ways of information processing and conveying meaning are involved, which need to be learned in combination with and parallel to learning a new language and the principles of the alphabet.

2.4 Classroom research

This research project focused on the LESLLA classroom by looking at how classroom education is organized for the oral skills and how classroom interaction is structured during the practice of the oral skills. Since there has been little LESLLA research in these areas, it is necessary to refer to

research in SLA. The following section will describe and discuss those developments, which have formed a basis for this study.

Long (1980) defined classroom research as "*research on second language learning and teaching, all or part of whose data are derived from observation or measurement of the classroom performance of teachers and students*" (p. 3). This definition still stands today. Within the field of (second) language teaching and learning, a multitude of observation schemes has been produced, as numerous studies report (e.g., Allen, 1989; Allwright, 1988; Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Chaudron, 1988, 2003; Ellis, 1990; Kumaravadivelu, 1999; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Long, 1980; Simon & Boyer, 1970a, 1970b; Spada, 1994). The study of language classrooms through the use of observation schemes was at its peak in the 1980s, when the focus on the communicative skills was becoming increasingly important. Before then, in the 1960s and 1970s, the focus of classroom research was primarily on the cognitive outcomes, teacher or pupil behaviour, and method comparisons (particularly audio-lingual and grammar translation approaches). Results were often inconclusive, research turned to classroom processes by observing the actual practices and procedures in the classroom (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995). In the following three sections the main developments underlying the construction of schemes used for observing classroom interaction are highlighted. The extensive historical overviews given by Allwright (1988), Allwright & Bailey (1991), and Chaudron (1988) clearly show how complex (second) language classrooms processes are and how problematic it is to categorize these processes in a scheme.

2.4.1 Classroom observation

One of the first publications documenting and describing observation schemes was by Simon and Boyer in 1970a, 1970b, *Mirrors for behavior: An anthology of observational instruments*. All 79 observation schemes in this anthology deal with forms of communication. Although not all of them focus on the classroom, they do have an educational purpose. As Simon and Boyer wrote in their introduction, "it is hoped that strategies for inducing learning, deduced from these 'non-educational' systems, will provide a source for new behaviors for teachers in the classroom" (1970a, p. 3). Of the listed 79 systems, 67 were developed in the field of education for classroom observation. The term classroom is not explicitly defined, but from the discussion and descriptions of the observation systems, the majority of the systems for classroom observation were probably executed within the school system, i.e. elementary through high school. Of these 67, the anthology cites two systems that specifically focus on the foreign (second) language classroom: one by Moskowitz and the other by Wragg. Other systems listed

in this anthology have also been widely used for observation in the second language classroom (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Chaudron, 1988). They include the work of Flanders and Bellack. Particularly the scheme developed by Flanders has been highly influential in the development of other schemes. In the intervening years since the Simon and Boyer anthology, the number of schemes intended for classroom observation proliferated. Ten years later, Long (1980) complied a new list of observation schemes. He mentioned that there were over 200 focusing on classroom behaviors of teachers and students. In the field of second language learning there were at least 20. Not all of these schemes were equally successful, and only a few seemed to have had influence on later developments. Of these, the work of Fanselow (1977) will be dealt with at the end of this section. A few years later Chaudron (1988) added three more products to the Long inventory list. Of interest for this discussion is the COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) observation scheme by Allen, Fröhlich, and Spada (1984).

The influential observation scheme of Flanders (1970), focusing chiefly on behavioural aspects of the teacher and the student in the classroom, gave insight as to how classroom processes develop. He named his observation scheme: The Flanders System of Interaction Analysis (FSIA). Flanders had two purposes in mind for his observation scheme: (1) to describe teacher-student verbal behaviors, and (2) to make teachers aware of their classroom teaching behavior. As a result, the scheme was widely used in in-service teacher training. The second FSIA scheme he developed was an expanded version of the first. Distinctive of the second scheme is the role of the teacher versus that of the student during classroom interaction. This approach reflects the view of language teaching popular at that time. Allwright and Bailey (1991) state, “The powerful idea was that teaching was more or less effective depending on how ‘directly’ and ‘indirectly’ teachers influenced student behaviour” (p. 10). In the Flanders scheme, the roles of the teacher and student were classified as two distinct categories. Each category contained behaviors presumed to be characteristic of the teacher or student during classroom interaction. Teacher talk was categorized as having either “indirect influence” or “direct influence.” Indirect influence primarily dealt with affective features of the interaction such as accepting feelings, praising or encouraging, accepting or using ideas of the student, or asking questions about content or procedure. Direct influence mostly covered cognitive components such as lecturing, giving directions, and criticizing or justifying authority. Student talk was divided into three categories: “(predictable) response to the teacher”, “initiation or unpredictable statements”, and “silence or confusion.” The second FSIA system provided more detail for the given categories. For example, the category “teacher asking questions” was divided into narrow and broad questions. Narrow

questions included the wh-questions (who, what, where, when, why, and how) requiring fixed and often predictable answers. Broad questions were open-ended questions that did not require a predetermined answer. These terms are also to be found in the later constructed COLT observation scheme. Along this line of narrow and broad questions, the student categories were also expanded. The previous category of predictable responses was extended to two sub-features: "making a statement" and "asking a question according to a set format." The student category "initiation or unpredictable statements" was subdivided into two categories: "showing initiative by responding" and "asking questions showing freedom of expression." The final category for student talk, silence or confusion, was changed to "non-constructive use of time" and "constructive use of time."

A matrix format was used to code the classroom interactions (also characteristic of the later COLT systems). On each axis the categories were identically marked. The interactions were coded in moves of two, forming a pair. The vertical axis represented the first move of an interaction and the horizontal the second. Each pair of moves was marked using a tally system. From the number of tallies in a box of the matrix the behavior of the teacher and the student could be counted. From this relatively simple procedure, the types of utterances in terms of behavior could be quantified. This approach did not take into account linguistic nor semantic components. The Flanders system of classroom interaction prompted a number of other researchers into producing schemes based on his initial concepts.

In the late 1960s, Moskowitz took Flanders' approach a step further by adapting it to the L2 classroom. She named her system FLint, meaning Foreign Language Interaction. In line with Flanders, Moskowitz also applied her observation scheme for teacher training. By using her observation scheme, Moskowitz argued that teacher autonomy through self-evaluation would also induce teacher awareness of classroom processes – a necessary step for improving teaching techniques (Moskowitz, 1971). In order to make Flanders' scheme applicable to the L2 classroom, Moskowitz included categories that were thought to be characteristic of the L2 classroom. Under the category "indirect influence" two features were added: "intentional jokes" and "repetition of student utterances." Under the category "direct influence," "explicit correction" and "pattern drills" were added. These last two features were especially characteristic of the audio-lingual method widely applied at that time. In the area of student talk, Moskowitz added the use of the L1. Moskowitz applied the same coding system used by Flanders, only she inserted three "hanging columns" (Moskowitz, 1971, p. 215). One was for coding non-verbal behavior, one for the use of the L1, and one for the use of the L2. By adding these three features of verbal behaviour, the

dimension of language spoken in classroom interaction could be more fully characterized.

Around the same time, Bellack also studied classroom interaction, but from a social angle with a pedagogical purpose (Bellack, Kliebard, Hyman, & Smith, 1966). Taking a broader perspective than Flanders, Bellack wanted "to understand how the classroom worked as a learning environment, by studying how language was used to structure that environment" (Allwright, 1988, p. 126). Bellack's approach to analyzing classroom interaction was a major step toward describing entire processes in the classroom. Not only did Bellack analyze the individual moves or pairs of moves as did Flanders and Moskowitz, but Bellack also oversaw the whole system of interaction. Within this structure he identified four basic verbal actions or pedagogical moves that characterize and are central to classroom language: "structuring" (setting the scene, focusing attention on the topic); "soliciting"(eliciting a verbal response, asking questions); "responding" (replying to a solicitation, answering a question); and "reacting" (modifying a previous move, clarifying, expanding).[23] These pedagogical moves were combined in interaction to form patterns. These patterns Bellack termed as the "teaching cycle." In contrast to the Flanders system, where the roles of the teacher and the student were fixed as to the types of moves they were allowed to make, in Bellack's system these roles were not predetermined. The first step in Bellack's system was to specify the speaker. This could be the teacher, a pupil, or an audio-visual device, which implied that the pedagogical moves could be uttered by any one of these three sources. This important change was applied in later schemes such as the COLT scheme.

Bellack found that the teaching moves or acts form a set pattern in the classroom. Of the 15 classes studied with 4,592 teaching moves, 84.5% were teacher initiated moves (Bellack, et al., 1966, p. 232). Of these, 18.4% were structuring (for example explaining) rather than soliciting moves (for example asking questions). Of the soliciting moves, approximately 60% were of a substantive nature (the subject matter and cognitive processes) and approximately 40% were of an instructional nature (procedures and didactic processes). Bellack called these patterns in the classroom "the teaching game" (1966, p. 237).[24] Even though there was flexibility in pattern formation, the game was, as Bellack called it, "overarching" (1966, p. 247). If a sequence of moves was instigated, then the following moves, even in consideration of the possible variations of occurrence, were almost self

23 The description of the Bellack system is taken from Bellack, et al., 1966.

24 Bellack's notion of a *language game* was derived from Wittgenstein (Bellack, et al.,1966, p. 15). Stern (2004) cites from Wittgenstein the formulation of the language game as follows, "I shall call the whole, consisting of language and the actions into which it is woven, a 'language-game' " (p. 89).

evident. If, for example, the teacher solicits, then he must allow for a response from the student and react to that response in return. He reported that the chance that a teacher-initiated cycle would be followed by another teacher–initiated cycle was about 90% (1966, p. 248). The same was true for student-initiated cycles. In such cases there was a possibility of 40% that it would be followed by another student-initiated cycle (1966, p. 248).

Up until now, most research concerning classroom observation had been concentrated in the United States. In 1970, Wragg was one of the first in Europe (in Britain) to take up this line of research on the secondary school level (Allwright, 1988, p. 105). He, as did Moskowitz, also adapted the Flanders system to the L2 classroom, but from a different angle. By duplicating the ten original categories noted by Flanders and applying that to the foreign language component, interaction in both the L1 and L2 could be observed (Wragg, 1970). Despite the criticism given on the use of the FSIA and FLint systems, Wragg's research revealed important characterizations of the language classroom. Concerning the amount of talk in the L1 and L2, Wragg found that teacher talk was the most dominant. Teacher talk encompassed 71% of the total classroom time, while student talk occurred in 29% of the time. Of the total classroom time, the L2 was spoken 59% of the time and the L1 during 41% of the time. When the L1 was used, the teacher spoke most of the time (81%) and the students only for 19%. When the L2 was used, the students spoke more than during L1 time (36%) and the teacher spoke somewhat less, 64%. The relationship between the L1 and L2 for the categories "student responding to teacher-solicitation" and "student-initiation" stood in sharp contrast. Wragg discovered that these categories were equally balanced for the L1, but not for the L2. By counting the moves made in the L2, there were 685 moves marked for "student responding to teacher-solicitations" and only 10 moves for "student-initiation."

In the late 1970s, development in observation schemes moved away from the strict fixed role observation schemes (such as that of Flanders) to a more open system (such as that of Bellack). No longer would classroom interaction be analyzed by means of schemes with predetermined roles and concomitant categories, but through analysis of transcriptions of actual recorded whole discourse (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). Fanselow (1977) followed in the footsteps of Bellack, by analyzing the whole process of interaction. In fact, his approach was a major step toward discourse analysis which would characterize later developments. He adapted his system to the L2 classroom and named it FOCUS, meaning Foci for Communications Used in Settings. The system was not based on tallies as that of Flanders and Moskowitz, for such an analysis could obscure the underlying intended meaning of an utterance. Instead, following Bellack, Fanselow embraced the whole event of discourse by looking at the pedagogical moves as a cycle

forming patterns of interaction. Wanting to lay bare the mental processes involved, he avoided terms such as meaningful or mechanical, and the problem of multiple interpretations (Fanselow, 1977, p. 27). Fanselow's FOCUS lists five characteristics of communications:

(1) Who communicates? (teacher, one student, group of students or whole class);
(2) What is the pedagogical purpose? (structure, solicit, respond or react)
(3) What mediums are used (linguistic, non-linguistic or para-linguistic)
(4) How are the mediums used? (attend, characterize, present, relate or re-present); and
(5) What areas of content are communicated? (language, life, procedure, or subject matter).

The four pedagogical purposes in this list were borrowed from Bellack's system.[25]

2.4.2 The IRF exchange structure

The study by Bellack, et al. (1966) opened the door to classroom discourse analysis. With his focus on the pedagogical moves and the teaching cycle, the study of interaction in the classroom, first viewed through the moves between the teacher and the student, evolved to a detailed analysis of the whole interaction process. Building on the interaction moves initially described by Bellack, Sinclair and Coulthard were one of the first to advance an approach for systematic analysis of classroom interaction through discourse analysis. They wanted to analyze real examples of performance through which the intent of the speaker in a particular context could be explained. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) created a hierarchically structured model of interaction built up out of four ranks, each rank narrowing the units of the previous rank. Ranks reflect size, not importance within the structure. Of particular importance for this research project was Rank III, labeled "Exchange (teaching)." This rank involved the IRF teaching-exchange or the initiation-response-feedback cycle. This IRF structure replaced the labels for the pedagogical moves introduced by Bellack. Example (2.1) illustrates the difference between social interaction and an IRF exchange:

25 FOCUS is reproduced and illustrated in Allwright and Bailey (1991, p. 207-212).

(2.1) *Social and classroom interaction sequence*

Social interaction	*Classroom interaction*	
A: What day is it today?	Teacher: What day is it today?	(initiation)
B: Friday.	Student: Friday.	(response)
A: Ah, thank you.	Teacher: Yes, very good.	(feedback)

In social as well as in classroom interaction, both the question and the response to that question are the same. The difference lies in the final response. In social interaction, where the question is genuine, the final response is one of gratitude. In classroom interaction, the teacher is testing the student's knowledge, and in the final response, he gives his evaluation of the student's answer to his question. Consequently, the interaction has an instructional overtone; the teacher is expecting a predetermined answer. In classroom interaction it is most often the teacher who initiates the interaction by asking for or giving information. In turn, it is most often the student who responds to the teacher. Finally, it is again the teacher who may respond in various ways to the student with feedback. This pattern is the IRF exchange structure. Instructional interaction, as illustrated in (2.1) distinguishes itself from real conversation in that it is more concerned about *how* something is said than *what* is being said.

As previously shown by Bellack, the teaching cycle, now termed IRF exchange,[26] plays a dominant role in classroom interaction and particularly in teacher-centered or teacher-fronted type of classrooms where the teacher controls all the classroom events from topic choice to activity and interaction structure (e.g. Cazden, 1988; Ellis, 1990, 1999; Johnson, 1995; Mehan, 1979; Van Lier, 1996, 2001). In such interactions the relationship between the participants, the teacher and the students, is usually not one of equality. The teacher is, as a rule, the central figure. Around him pivot all the events. He is the one who initially decides what is to be done, when it is done, where it is done, how it is done, with whom it is done and even why it is done (Ellis, 1990; Johnson, 1995; Van Lier, 2001). In 1974 Cazden and Mehan collaborated in an educational venture, which culminated in two publications (Cazden, 1988; Mehan, 1979). Mehan found that more than 58% of the exchanges were IRF structures. In comparison, Bellack found that 85.5% of classroom interaction was teacher initiated and of these moves, 67% were soliciting-response moves. Extending these statistics to the Mehan study, this means that 57.3% were IRF exchanges. Cazden remarked that such a high percentage is not surprising as teachers are "doing what comes naturally" (1988, p. 53).

26 Mehan (1979) refers to these three steps of interaction as the IRE structure: initiation, response, and evaluation. IRF and IRE structures are the same. In this present study the letters IRF will be used.

There has also been considerable criticism on a too frequent reliance on the use of the IRF structure in the language classroom as it does not allow for student variation or experimentation. The IRF exchange pattern does not leave room for asking questions, expanding on requests, self-correcting, or even initiating an exchange outside the requested response. In other words, the student is limited in his responses (Ellis, 1999; Long, 1980; Long, Adams, McLean, Castaños, 1976; Mercer, 2001; Sinclair & Brazil, 1982; Van Lier, 2001). Long postulates that the IRF structure, also referred to as lockstep teaching, hampers language development. Instead classroom group work should be stimulated for it enhances real interaction and language learning (Long, et al., 1976).

In spite of all these drawbacks IRF is not necessarily static. Hewings (1992, p. 185) mentions that each move in an IRF exchange can be expressed in various ways. An initiation move can be a question, but also it can give information. A response can be an answer to that question, or another question can be asked, or more information can be given. The feedback to the response can be an acknowledgement of that response, another statement, or a repetition of the response using the same or other words. Similarly, Van Lier (1996, 2001) argued that the IRF exchange can be a valued pedagogical tool with different pedagogical purposes. Depending on the type of questions asked, the student can be requested to produce learned material, explain usage or even display understanding. If viewed from this angle the IRF exchange structure becomes an important didactic tool in classroom interaction. It is now not a question if this pattern occurs, but rather, as Van Lier explained, how it is manipulated.

2.4.3 Communicative competence and the COLT observation scheme

Meanwhile on the other side of the Atlantic, the communicative language teaching (CLT) was becoming the dominant approach in language teaching. The concept of communicative competence, initially expounded by Hymes in 1972 in reaction to Chomsky's view (1965) on the study of language, formed the underlying principles of CLT. According to Hymes (1972, pp. 284-286) in a theoretical framework of communicative competence four basic questions must be answered concerning language performance before it can be deemed effective: Is it (formally or linguistically) possible? Is it feasible (can be implemented)? Is it appropriate (adequate for the situation)? Is it performed (is it actually done)? These ideas were later expanded by Canale and Swain (1980). In their article, they identified three main areas central to a framework of communicative competence: linguistic or grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Later in 1983, Canale extended this to include discourse

competence. Discourse competence, in the meaning to communicate effectively, overarches the other three competences. If a text, either oral or written, cannot be interpreted or understood in a logical manner, even if it is grammatically correct, communication is either difficult or unfeasible. While on the other hand an ungrammatical utterance can be a coherent one.[27]

This concept of communicative competence had an enormous impact on second language teaching. Under influence of these developments, the COLT observation scheme was produced. The COLT scheme was based on the premises of communicative competence (Spada, 1987, p.140): "*grammatical competence* (knowledge of the formal systems of lexis, morphology, syntax, and phonology); *discourse competence* (knowledge of the ways in which sentences combine in meaningful sequences); and *sociolinguistic competence* (knowledge of the ways in which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in social contexts)."

Savignon (1972, 1991, 2007) was one of the first to experiment in an L2 classroom with the ability to convey meaning, in other words, to achieve communicative competence. Her approach was a distinct departure from the previous focus on dialog recitation, characteristic of the audio-lingual methods, and discrete-point grammar knowledge of the grammar translation approaches. The outcomes of Savignon's experiment of 1972 showed that in order to attain communicative competence the practicing of real conversation is essential. In her experiment she found that students who had practiced such skills performed significantly better on an oral test than those who had not.

The COLT observation scheme was developed at a time when CLT was at its peak (Allen, Fröhlich & Spada, 1984). In the beginning of the 1980s a five-year project, Development of Bilingual Proficiency, at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education in Toronto, set out to examine the effects of classroom instruction on second language acquisition. Four points were of concern: "the nature of communicative competence, the influence of social context on its development, the effects of instructional variables on L2 learning and the influence of individual learner characteristics" (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995, p. 2). In order to be able to analyze these features characterizing language classroom processes an observation scheme was developed. The result was the COLT observation scheme. The core purpose of this scheme was "to identify those features of instruction which communicative theorists and L2 researchers consistently referred to as contributors to successful learning" (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995, p. 6).

The COLT scheme is divided into two parts: Part A and Part B (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995). Part A concerns features of pedagogy: the types

27 See chapter 6 for a discussion on relevance and coherence.

of activities, organization of the participants, content and lesson focus, content control, student modality[28] and types of materials used. Part B concerns the communicative features within the verbal interactions between teacher and student: use of target language, predictability and realistic use of language, extent of sustained speech, reaction to form or message,[29] ways of reacting to preceding utterances, discourse initiation by student and relative restriction of linguistic form imposed upon the student. In Part B of the scheme the categories under "information gap" are reminiscent of the dichotomy given in Flanders' system. In the Flanders system, factual questions that emphasize recall are termed in the COLT as "predictable" and "pseudo-requests." Those questions termed in Flanders as broad, open-ended questions that "permit choice of response" and "ask opinion" are in the COLT scheme "unpredictable" and "genuine."

Although the use of observation schemes has aided the understanding of interaction in the language classroom, there were also reservations about placing too much value on the outcomes. Van Lier (1988) forewarns researchers not to rely too heavily on the compiled data by stating:

> When observing an L2 classroom in action it is clear that no direct link can be made between observable behaviour and language development. Learning is not generally directly and immediately observable. In the first place, it is characterized by improved performance or increased knowledge, and manifested by the learner's behaviour at some time (unspecified) after the learning has occurred. Secondly, the learning itself may not be produced by one specifical1y identifiable event, but rather by the cumulative effect of a number of events. (p. 91)

Other critical sounds also caution that observation schemes do not reveal the complete picture of classroom interaction that occurs. Kumaravadivelu (1999) alerts researchers that observation schemes "can produce only a fragmented picture of classroom reality" (p. 456). This, he states, can conceal important personal and interpersonal relations and goals in teaching and learning during the interaction processes. Keeping these admonitions in mind, classroom observation and the use of schemes are nevertheless valuable instruments for obtaining an initial understanding of classroom interaction, even if it is only partial.

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28 The four modalities in language learning are reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Student skills are an expression of a modality.

29 The terms *meaning*, *message*, and *language use* all refer to what is communicated in an utterance and are used interchangeably.

2.4.4 Corrective feedback

Error correction has a long history with a multitude of publications based on experimental and non-experimental research, often trying to find the cause of errors and how to avert or correct them (e.g. Doughty & Long, 2003; Larson-Freeman & Long, 1991; Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Mackey, 2006, 2007; Mitchell & Myles, 2004). At first, studies on error correction were mainly concerned with the teaching process, focusing on questions such as: Who should correct? Who should be corrected? What should be corrected? When should be corrected? Basically, should errors be corrected? (DeKeyser, 1993; Hendrickson, 1978; Lyster and Ranta 1997). Later, interaction was investigated along with feedback. By using interaction analysis the focus turned to how it is done, rather than how it should be done. In 1997 Lyster and Ranta, from a research in French immersion classes[30] in Quebec, Canada, developed a model of corrective feedback which has been extremely important in systemizing studies on feedback (Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Spada & Lyster, 1997). This Lyster-Ranta model is in the form of a flowchart directing the researcher through the steps of a corrective interaction sequence. This three-step sequence begins with a trigger. The trigger is the response of the student to a question or remark made by the teacher or another student and contains some sort of error. The trigger pushes the teacher to respond with a form of (corrective) feedback. In conclusion, the student may or may not respond to the given feedback with an uptake.[31] Example (2.2) illustrates a typical feedback sequence.

(2.2) *Three-step corrective feedback sequence*

Student:	Box, two box.	(trigger)
Teacher:	Two boxes.	(feedback)
Student:	Two boxes.	(uptake)

Such feedback sequences are, in fact, embedded in IRF exchange structures. An IRF exchange begins with the source of the trigger on which the feedback is based. This source, the initiation step in an IRF exchange, is often a question or remark usually made by the teacher. The response is then

30 Immersion classes are basically the same as what is presently termed content-based L2 classes.

31 The term *uptake* probably has been coined in relation to feedback sequence by Lyster and Ranta (1997); others have followed suit. In similar contexts the word recall has been used in place of uptake by e.g. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005); Mackey (2007); Philp (2003); Sheen (2006); and Tarone, Bigelow, and Hansen (2009). In this study the word uptake is used.

the trigger on which the teacher gives feedback. The corrective feedback sequence ends with the student's possible uptake. Example (2.3) illustrates a typical IRF corrective feedback sequence.

(2.3) *Classroom corrective feedback sequence*

Teacher:	What do you see?	(initiation or source)
Student:	I see two pen.	(response or trigger)
Teacher:	Ah, you see two pens.	(feedback)
Student:	Two pens.	(uptake)

Lyster and Ranta (1997) specify six types of negative feedback: explicit correction, recast, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. These various types of feedback have often been labeled as being explicit or implicit correction with overt (explicit) correction as the most explicit form and recasts as well as negotiation techniques as the most implicit (e.g. Carol & Swain, 1993; Gass, 1997, 2003; Gass & Mackey, 2007; Long & Robinson, 1998; Panova & Lyster, 2002). In the use of feedbacks, it is evident that they are not static in terms of explicit or implicit, but stand on a continuum, depending on the saliency of its focus (Adams, Nuevo, & Egi, 2011; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Gass & Mackey, 2007). Sheen (2006) illustrates that recasts can also be less implicit and thus more explicit in view of its complexity and focus. For instance, a recast focusing on one word only is more salient than one focusing on an entire utterance (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 47), and those focusing on a phonological or lexical error are more salient than those directed toward morphosyntactic errors (Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000). Next to the dichotomy between explicit and implicit, feedbacks also differ in focus on form or meaning. Form refers to the surface features of an utterance. These could be lexical, grammatical or phonological (Allen, Fröhlich, & Spada, 1984, p. 237; Canale & Swain 1980, p. 29; VanPatten, Williams, & Rott 2004, pp. 1-2). Meaning refers to all aspects of communication: the message of the interaction (Allen, Fröhlich, & Spada, 1984, p. 237; VanPatten, Williams, & Rott, 2004, pp. 3-4) as well as the appropriateness of the message (Canale & Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1972). In other words it also pertains to pragmatic competence, which "refers to the ability to use language in culturally and contextually appropriate ways" (Fujioka, 2003). Van den Branden (1997, pp. 592-594) defines recasts and negotiation of meaning as implicit forms of feedback that primarily focus on meaning. In contrast, he sees overt correction and negotiation of form as explicit feedback mainly focusing on form.

The overview presented in Table 2:4 shows that the type and focus of the feedbacks stand on a continuum (Adams, Nuevo, & Egi, 2011; Doughty & Williams, 1998).

Table 2:4 Overview of types and focus of corrective feedback

	Type				Focus	
	Explicit	Implicit	Negative	Positive	Form	Meaning
1. Explicit correction	x		x		x	x
2. Elicitation	x		x		x	x
3. Repetition	x		x		x	x
4. Metalinguistic information	x	x	x		x	
5. Recast	x	x	x		x	x
6. Negotiation of meaning		x	x			x
7. Negotiation of form		x	x		x	
8. Negotiation of content		x	x			x
9. Reinforcement/acknowledgement	x			x	x	x

As shown in Table 2:4, negotiation is a form of corrective feedback, which incorporates three types: negotiation of meaning, negotiation of form, and negotiation of content. In contrast to other types of negative feedback, those concerning negotiation are used with the intent to maintain the flow of the conversation, even though their purposes differ. Hatch (1978) was perhaps the first to stress the importance of a study of interaction in language learning. In the words of Pica (1994, p. 494), "She [Hatch] encouraged a reversal of assumptions on the nature of the learning process, as she urged researchers to turn their attention away from questions about how L2 structure learning *led to* the learner's communicative use of L2, and instead to examine how the learning of L2 structure *evolved out of* communicative use." In Hatch's words, "syntactic structures grow out of conversation" (Hatch, 1978, p. 410). From this standpoint developed the concept of negotiation and a host of research followed (e.g. Gass, 1997; Gass, Mackey, & Ross-Feldman, 2005; Lightbown, 2000; Long, 1996; Mitchell & Myles, 2004; Pica, 1994a). Initially, negotiation was seen as interactional modification with the purpose of achieving comprehension and later it became known as negotiation of meaning (Gass, 1997, 2003, 2007; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Pica, 1994; Varonis & Gass, 1985). Long (1996) defines negotiation as a way to amend miscommunication.

In line with this development was that of comprehensible input, particularly known through the work of Krashen and his Input Hypothesis (DeKeyser, 2003; Krashen, 1985; Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Krashen argues that acquisition of form (grammar) is accomplished through comprehensible input. As Krashen (1985) formulates, "Speaking is the result of acquisition and not its cause. Speech cannot be taught directly but 'emerges' on its own as a result of building competence via comprehensible input" (p. 2). This is

just the opposite of that which Hatch advanced. In line with these developments, Swain (1985) came forward with the Output Hypothesis. He claimed, in contrast to Krashen, that input can be understood without the understanding of the syntactic structures involved. Learners can only become aware of language structures by being pushed to produce. This "may force the learner to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing" (Swain 1985, p. 249). Long, inspired by Krashen's approach, asserted that input alone is not sufficient; output is equally essential in facilitating comprehension and drawing attention to form (Long 1996, p. 423). This reciprocal input-output action was eventually consolidated in the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1983, 1996; Mitchell & Myles, 2004; Pica 1994).

Later correction of form through negotiation was incorporated. Lyster and Ranta (1997) refer to negotiation of form as having "didactic function." In negotiation of meaning, comprehensibility is at stake and through techniques such as clarification requests, confirmation checks, or comprehension checks, understanding is restored. In negotiation of form, comprehensibility is not the issue, but the actual grammatical form is. By means of elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition the student is encouraged to repair his error (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 42). Central to negotiation of meaning as well as form, is the feature of allowing self-repair where the student is encouraged either to modify or to add additional information to his response, making it more comprehensible or correct (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 42; Van den Branden, 1997). This concurs with the Output Hypothesis of Swain. Negotiation of meaning and negotiation of form differ in focus, but both are, what Van den Branden (1997) calls "side-sequences" within the interaction. The teacher stops to negotiate and when the problem has been resolved, resumes the interaction. In other forms of feedback, the focus is on the corrective feedback, not on the interaction at hand.

The third type of negotiation is negotiation of content. In this type of negotiation the focus is not on the clarity of meaning or correctness of form, but on the general topic on which the interaction is based. It is not a matter of misunderstanding, for the message is understood, but the interlocutor (the teacher or the student) wishes more clarity or information on the subject. This type of questioning is referred to as negotiation of content (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Rulon & McCreary, 1986; Van den Branden, 1997).[32] As Van den Branden (1997) explains, a negotiation of content does not form a side-sequence in the interaction; it is part of the interaction. The teacher,

32 Gass (2003, p.233-4) in a discussion on intentional requests for modification, alludes to negotiation of content naming it "topic-focused questions." She explains that in such cases "the NS takes the original questions and establishes them as the topic before proceeding to the crucial part of the question."

through her questions or remarks, pushes the student "to provide additional information" (Van den Branden 1997, p. 594). The teacher actually partakes in the interaction as a participant, not as a corrector. In the Rulon and McCreary's study "negotiation of content is the process of spoken interaction, whereby the content of a *previously* [italics added] encountered passage (aural or written) is clarified to the satisfaction of both parties" (1986, p. 128). This "previously encountered passage" refers to the lesson content, the teacher's explanation or comment about which students are interacting. The negotiation that takes place during such an interaction is about expanding or deepening understanding about the content.

2.5 Classroom pedagogical practices

Since the 1980s second language teaching in the classroom has undergone remarkable changes. In the Netherlands for the teaching of Dutch as a second language this was particularly prominent since 1990s. The influence of CLT approaches was evident in the emerging textbooks, encouraging more realistic oral skills practice and assessment. Next to advocating a communicative approach, certain didactic procedures were also prescribed in teacher's manuals and training. Of these the *VUT-model* and the *ABCD-model* were central in the planning and the sequencing of classroom practices.[33] The first involved the sequencing of the phases or stages in a lesson. In the Netherlands they have been termed the *VUT-model*, meaning: *Vooruit kijken* (looking ahead and introducing the lesson topic), *Uitvoeren* (practicing), and *Terugkijken* (looking back and evaluating) (Bossers, Kuiken, & Vermeer, 2010; Hulstijn, Stumpel, Bossers, & Van Veen, 1996). These steps form the backbone of the organization of a lesson.

Next to the VUT-model stands the ABCD-model. This cycle was introduced by the German scholar Neuner in 1981 in his *Übungstypologie zum Kommunikatieven Deutschunterricht* (A typology of exercises for communicative language teaching in German). By the 1990s it had become well established in the Netherlands through teacher training programs and classroom materials. The didactic cycle consists of four steps which became known in the Netherlands as the ABCD-model or structure (Bossers, et al., 2010; Hulstijn, et al., 1996; Van Kessel, 1993). In the VUT-model the

33 The VUT and the ABCD-model are similar to the Anglo-Saxon PPP model (presentation-practice-production) and the extended Five Steps model, which added revision at the start and consolidation at the end (Adamson, 2004). The main difference between the PPP model and that of the ABCD-model is that the later has been developed to promote communicative language teaching, while the PPP models are associated with practice on discrete forms of grammar (Adamson, 2004; De la Fuente, 2006).

ABCD-model is an expression of the practice step, the U in the VUT abbreviation. Each step builds up from simple vocabulary practice to realistic conversation practice. This model functions as a guide for the teacher in structuring his lessons towards the development of the communicative skills. The four steps in the ABCD-model are described below.

Step A is the presentation of new material and the review of known or previous material. The focus is on understanding. The activities are mainly closed and receptive such as multiple-choice or yes-no questions, and matching exercises. Step B is a reproductive step in which the new material is consolidated. Activities are strongly structured, often based on reproduction of fixed routines. Common types of exercises include (substitution) drills, cloze texts, and semi-closed often routine-like questions. Some communicative language is practiced in the form of micro-dialogs (an interaction with two exchanges) in which the elements (vocabulary and routines) are practiced heading towards dialog memorization (scripted role-play). Subject matter as well as linguistic forms and/or vocabulary are pre-determined. Step C is guided production with more focus on interaction. In this step the student gets an opportunity to experience real communication, without free production. Activities, which can be a continuation of the dialog practiced in step B, include semi-open dialogs, role play, and information gap activities. The roles in the interactions are structured, but there is more allowance for individual variation. The subject matter and dialogs, as well as the linguistic forms and/or vocabulary are still pre-determined. In the final step in the cycle, Step D, there is a move toward authentic communication in which free conversation is practiced. Although the subject matter is often pre-determined, language production is not limited in linguistic form and/or vocabulary. Activities such as discussions and open-ended questions characterize this step.

2.6 Summary

In this chapter an overview was given of historical and theoretical developments, laying a basis for this study. By looking into the past, it was seen that the non-literate as well as the teacher had a difficult start in education. Nevertheless, significant advances have occurred in creating learning levels, tests, and classroom materials for the non-literate. The discussion on classroom research focused on observation schemes, particularly in the area of feedback. This study relied for a large part on those observation schemes. Developments in communicative competence (from which the COLT system emerged) and in feedback (as seen through IRF structure), corrective feedback, and negotiation are all reflected in the

schemes constructed for this study. Basing observation on the constructed schemes, classroom organization and interaction structure could then be explored in detail.

Chapter 3
Selection process

This study is based on an investigation of six literacy classes. The final selection of these six literacy classes was preceded by an extensive survey of literacy programs in departments of adult education at schools for secondary vocational education. These schools, the ROCs, were in 2006 the main provider for literacy programs. At that time, there were 42 ROCs[34] distributed throughout the country. These ROCs were located in a main location and often various sub-locations. Of these 42 ROCs, 35 provided courses for adult learners of Dutch as a second language and literacy. The organization of these programs varied among the ROCs. There were differences in management (registration, administration, and distribution of finances) on one hand, to lesson organization (course duration, frequency, and intensity of courses) on the other. Even within a ROC, the organization in sub-locations could vary. Due to a certain amount of autonomy in program planning these sub-locations could determine the materials to be used, the didactic approaches, testing, and placement procedures.

This variation called for a closer investigation of the literacy programs in these 35 ROCs before a selection of classes could be made. For this purpose, a survey was constructed. The survey had three aims: (1) to map out the external factors of influence on the literacy programs such as location, size, and enrollment criteria; and (2) to map out the internal factors of organization such as curriculum, testing, resources, and teacher characteristics; and finally (3) to function as a database for the selection criteria. The distribution of the survey and the responses are discussed in 3.1. Section 3.2 deals with the selection criteria for the ROCs and the literacy classes. Finally, in 3.3, the six selected classes are described in terms of the selection criteria.

3.1 Survey

3.1.1 Distribution of the survey and the response

In March 2006 the distribution of the survey commenced. Before the survey could be distributed, consent had to be acquired from the appropriate unit head or manager in the department of adult education where the literacy

34 Taken from www.mboraad.nl consulted in November 2011.

courses were organized. Finding this person was not a straightforward process in every case. The main administration was not always informed as to the situation in the literacy section of the adult education unit. By starting with the information given on the website of the ROC, direct contact was sought with the literacy section. From there, the literacy program head, responsible team leader or literacy teacher could be contacted. Because literacy programs were often given at more than one location, those responsible at those locations were, if possible, also contacted. Initially, the purpose of the research project and the survey was explained by telephone. If interest was shown, the letter of introduction was e-mailed. In this letter the purpose and the overall content of the survey was explained in more detail. In total, 127 letters of introduction were e-mailed. Sixty-three teachers, team leaders, or department heads responded. To these 63 persons the survey was e-mailed. In total 39 (61.90%) surveys were completed and returned. These 39 surveys represented 27 ROCs (77.14%) of all the 35 ROCs offering DSL literacy programs. Given the fact that sub-locations of ROCs can act independently, all the statistics are based on the total set of 39 surveys from (sub) locations of ROCs.

3.1.2 Results

The survey was a closed ended questionnaire with multiple-choice questions with the possibility to add additional information. In order to avoid a misunderstanding of certain questions, the survey was first piloted. In spite of this precautionary measure, some questions were obviously not clear to all persons at the ROC (sub) locations. Multiple and sometimes conflicting answers were given or a response was left blank. Nevertheless, a general picture of the literacy DSL programs could be sketched. The survey was divided into six sections. Each section is discussed below. The sections are:

Section A: Student intake
Section B: The pre-program
Section C: The literacy curriculum
Section D: Testing practices
Section E: Class size and distribution
Section F: The literacy teacher

3.1.2.1 Student intake

Section A of the survey concerned the referral and placement of students in a DSL literacy program. Table 3:1 summarizes the initial steps for registration in a DSL program as given by 39 ROC (sub) locations. Three points were

investigated: (1) the authority that referred the students to the ROC, (2) the authority responsible for the placement interview, and (3) the authority responsible for administering the placement tests.

Table 3:1 Authorities and duties in student registration (survey 2006) at 39 ROC (sub) locations (multiple answers possible).

The authority	Refers student to ROC		Placement interview		Placement test	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Municipality	36	(92)	20	(51)	3	(8)
Reintegration office	22	(56)	10	(26)	0	0
Employment office	7	(18)	3	(8)	0	0
Social services	30	(77)	10	(26)	0	0
Student himself	29	(74)	1	(3)	0	0
ROC	4	(10)	25	(64)	27	(69)
Office newcomers	1	(3)	0	0	2	(5)

At the time this survey was distributed, all the newcomers entering the Netherlands were directly referred by the municipality to an ROC for DSL schooling. Those students already living in the Netherlands, the long-term residents, could be referred to a school by several authorities. It is clear from Table 3:1 that, even though multiple answers were possible, the municipality in which the ROC was established was the main authority that referred students to the ROC for DSL literacy education. Thirty-six out of the 39 responding ROC (sub) locations (92%) gave this answer. Other referrals were mainly from the city reintegration office (56%), city social services office (77%), and even the student himself (74%). In most (sub) locations the placement interview was carried out by the authority of the municipality before referral (51%) or by the ROC after referral (64%). In the majority of the cases, if a placement test was prescribed, it was administered by the ROC (69%).

With the enactment of the new integration law drawing near (January 2007), ROCs were adapting their organization for the upcoming changes, including that of continuous enrollment. In previous years, the students were often placed periodically. This was usually determined by municipal regulations, the curriculum, or by the number of students registered. With the new law in sight, the move to continuous enrollment of students was becoming the norm.Table 3:2 shows the frequency in which the students were placed in literacy classes after having been referred to the ROC. As is shown in Table 3:2, 24 (62%) of the (sub) locations responded that continuous placement was the rule. Multiple answers were given in two cases.

Table 3:2 Frequency of placement in literacy classes (survey 2006) in 39 ROC (sub) locations.

	Continuous placement	Periodical placement (intervals in weeks)								
Interval in weeks	0	1	5	6	7	8	9	10	13	20
Number of classes	24	3	2	1	1	2	3	3	1	1

3.1.2.2 The pre-program

Section B of the survey concerned the pre-program. The purpose of a pre-program is for placement confirmation or for laying the basis for the literacy course. A pre-program could be separate from the regular program or it could be integrated into the regular program. The 39 ROC (sub) locations indicate that most of the literacy classes did not have a pre-program (56%). Those that did have such a program (44%) integrated the program into the main curriculum. Three main reasons were given for the aim of a pre-program: (1) to lay the basis for the oral skills (26%), (2) to observe the learning skills (26%), and (3) to lay the basis for the learning skills (23%). Of these 25 % did not respond.

3.1.2.3 The literacy curriculum

Section C of the survey focused on the literacy curriculum. This section concerned the content and organization of the literacy courses. It focused on three main areas: (1) the type of courses given, (2) the organization of the oral and the literacy skills, and (3) the materials used in the classroom. Each of these points is discussed below.

An educational center could offer several literacy programs, each catering to a specific category of learner. Usually only the larger centers for adult education with enough students and financial support were able to offer such a variety. In the survey, seventeen programs were listed that were current at the time the survey was distributed, April 2006. Table 3:3 gives an overview of these programs and the number of ROCs and sub-locations offering each program. Sometimes programs overlapped in focus. For example, a standard literacy course could also cater to newcomers. Nevertheless, even though multiple answers were possible the responses give an indication which programs were most prevalent.

Table 3:3 Programs offered for literacy students (survey 2006)in 39 ROC (sub) locations (multiple answers possible).

	Programs for literacy students																
	Standard program	Integration	Slow learners	Quick learners	Literate in a non-Roman script	Long-term residents	Newcomers	Seniors	Parent education	Reading and writing groups	Special conversation groups	General portfolio	L2 portfolio	Career portfolio	PAVEM-groups[35]	OGO groups[36]	Other
Number of ROCs	23	35	27	17	30	35	31	10	11	11	11	5	12	8	1	17	7
(%)	(59)	(90)	(70)	(44)	(77)	(90)	(80)	(26)	(28)	(28)	(28)	(13)	(31)	(21)	(3)	(44)	(18)

As Table 3:3 indicates, integration programs and those geared toward long-term residents were prevalent in practically all the ROCs, 90%. The high percentages for integration courses and courses geared especially toward long-term residents were probably an effect of the impending integration law. In answer to new legislation which stipulated that direct referral of students to the ROCs would be terminated and released to open market competition, the ROCs had to reorganize the sector of adult education. The previously education-oriented sectors were being replaced with a flexible demand-oriented integration and re-integration programs. Responses for programs catering to literate students in a non-Roman script and those catering to newcomers were also regular occurrence, 77% and 80% respectively. Fifty-nine percent of the centers offered standard literacy programs. Literacy was a prerequisite in order to participate in the integration courses. Literacy programs were often incorporated into the integration courses, forming a pre-program.

Table 3:4 gives an overview of the organization of the programs in terms of frequency, intensity, and duration. In all there were 82 programs

35 PAVEM is an acronym for *Participatie Vrouwen uit Ethnische Minderheden* (Participation of Women from Ethnic Minorities). It was initiated in 2004 to enhance the social participation of these women with a sheltered home life.

36 OGO is short for the Dutch *Portfolio Opvoeding, Gezondheid, Onderwijs* (Portfolio Childcare, Health, Education). This portfolio, part of the National Civics Examination from January 2007 to January 2013, was usually used for women who most probably were not going to take part in the employment sector of the society.

described in 38 surveys. One survey was excluded from the analysis for this section because of inconsistent or improbable responses. Table 3:4 shows that most lessons convened two or three times a week for a total of five to ten hours (52%). The duration of the programs varied greatly, between 100 and 840 hours. With an average of 40 weeks of school per year, these statistics indicate that programs usually were organized for relatively short periods, between 200 – 400 hours per year depending on frequency and intensity of the lessons.

Table 3:4 Frequency, intensity, and duration of 82 literacy programs (survey 2006) in 38 ROCs and sub-locations.

Frequency (lessons per week)		Number of classes	(%)
Once a week		3	(4)
2 times a week		23	(28)
3 times a week		20	(24)
4 times a week		18	(22)
5 times a week		13	(16)
> 5 times a week		5	(6)
Total		82	(100)
Intensity (hours per week)	Duration (hours per year)[a]		
2.50 – 4.50	100 – 199	7	(9)
5.00 – 7.25	200 – 299	23	(28)
7.50 – 9.75	300 – 399	20	(24)
10.00 – 12.25	400 – 499	14	(17)
12.50 – 15.00	500 – 600	16	(20)
18.50 – 21.00	750 – 840	2	(2)
Total	Total	82	(100)

[a] A school year is 40 weeks.

Besides questions on general program frequency, intensity and duration, the survey also inquired about organization of the oral and literacy skills. This specifically concerned the time spent on the practice of each of these skills. Although integration courses were becoming the focus of many programs, the literacy student was required to have basic literacy skills before partaking in such courses. From the survey surfaced three basic types of program organization for the oral and literacy skills. These types were subsequently labelled Type 1, Type 2, and Type 3. The main characteristics central to these three types were: the lesson time allotted for the oral and literacy skills, the placement criteria for the students, and the materials used for the oral skills. The time allotted to each skill was of particular interest because it could reflect a certain view on literacy acquisition and teaching practices in the classroom, which in turn could have an effect on the learning processes. One could assume that if more time is given to the oral skills this would

result in an increase in the oral production of the student. Figure 3:1 illustrates these three types of language skills organization.

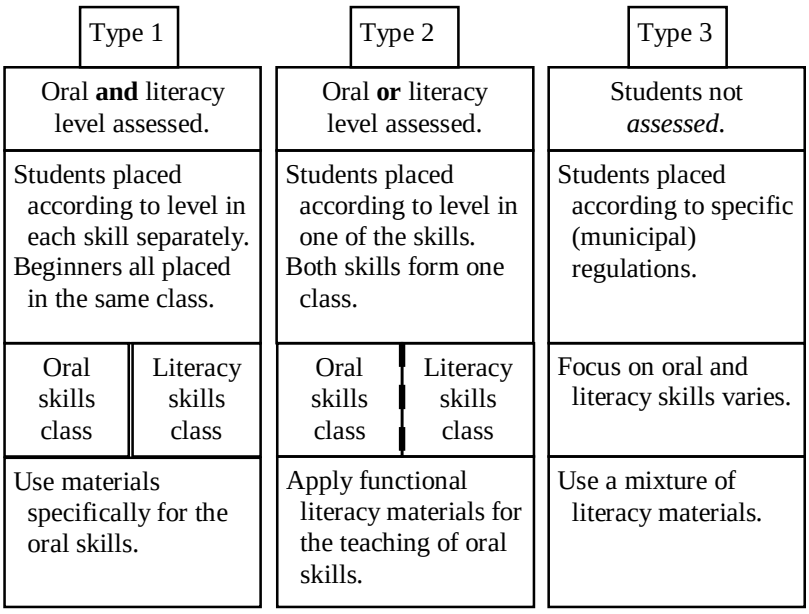

Figure 3:1 Program organization for the oral and literacy skills.

Type 1 literacy courses were organised along didactic criteria in which the oral and the literacy skills were viewed as separate processes each with their own particular learning materials and tasks. For each skill an equal and fixed amount of time was allotted. Often the morning or afternoon break marked the end of one class and the beginning of the next. The students in such classes were often placed according to the level attained in each skill. This meant that a student could be placed in a class at one level for his oral skills and in another class, at a different level, for the literacy skills. An example of a Type 1 program would be a lesson of three hours meeting three or four times a week. The first one and a half hours would be on the oral skills. Then, following the break, the literacy skills would be practiced for another hour and a half. Beginners usually attended the classes for the oral and the literacy skills together.

Type 2 courses also viewed the two skills as separate learning processes, but they did not form separate classes. This meant that students were placed in a class according to their level in one of the skills. Often placement was based on the results of a literacy placement test. Specific tests for the oral skills were at that time not available. This frequently resulted in

mixed level classes for one of the skills. Usually one skill was practiced before the break and the other skill afterwards. The students formed one class throughout the duration of the course. An example of a Type 2 program would be a lesson of two and a half hours meeting two or three times a week. The skills would be practiced separately, usually one skill before the break and the other following the break. If an individual student's ability on both skills out or under ranked the group, he or she would have to be transferred, if possible, to a more suitable group.

Type 3 courses viewed the skills as being complementary to each other. No specific time was allotted to a particular skill. The teacher determined the amount of time necessary for each skill. Again the students formed one class throughout the duration of the course. An example of a Type 3 program would be a lesson of two and a half hours meeting two or three times a week. The class stayed together throughout the program. The focus of the lesson could be entirely or partially devoted to one or the other skill, depending on the flow of the lesson and the plan of the teacher.

Besides the class organization along the lines of the two basic literacy skills, these classes also differed in the general placement criteria for participation. These were subsequently labelled as standard or specialized classes. For the standard classes, all students were eligible to participate, particularly those still under obligation of the immigration policy. The Type 1 and 2 classes were usually standard classes. For the specialized classes, participation was restricted to minority women who were long-term residents in the Netherlands, had an inadequate command of Dutch, and had limited contact with the Dutch society. The specialized classes were usually Type 3 classes.

The final sub-section of Section C of the survey concerned the educational materials. At the time of the survey there was one comprehensive literacy course for the learning of the literacy skills. This material became known as the "literacy method for non-literate speakers of other languages" published by the NCB (1989). It comprised two oral skills manuals for the teacher, one as a preparation for the literacy skills and the second to expand oral skills; seven student workbooks for the literacy skills (titled *7/43*), and three student workbooks for the low-literate reader (*Tempo*). In this course, the oral skills form an integral part. The course opens with an orals skills module, *Een zekere woordenschat* (A certain vocabulary) laying a foundation of 700 words for the literacy course to follow. This first module of oral skills, is followed by a second one named *De kop erop* (Heads on) which, thematically, runs parallel to the literacy course. Although this material was developed as a complete literacy learning course, it was often not implemented as such. Table 3:5 reveals out that of

the 39 classes only five (13%) used both the oral skills modules as well as the literacy workbooks.

Table 3:5 Implementation of oral skills courses and NCB materials (survey 2006) in 39 ROC (sub) location (multiple answers possible).

	Oral skills programs	Oral skills NCB material	7/43 + oral skills NCB	7/43 and no oral skills
Number of classes	23	7	5	12
(%)	(59)	(18)	(13)	(31)

Of the textbooks used for the oral skills, only two focused solely on the building of the oral skills, *SA* and *Van start* (At the start) and the ensuing *ENV*. These used a communicative approach—learning language through direct use. From the survey, a connection emerged between the three types of classroom organization and the basic textbook used. The Type 1 classes, with a strict division between the oral and the literacy skills, seemed to have a preference for textbooks with a single purpose—that of training the oral or the literacy skills. Most of these classes were intensive classes, meeting twelve or more hours a week. In the Type 2 classes, during which the skills were practiced separately and the students stayed together, a greater variation of textbooks was used. There was a slight preference for textbooks focusing only on the oral skills or for those focusing on the functional literacy skills. The Type 3 classes, in which the teacher determined the amount of time devoted to either skill, all sorts of materials were applied for the practicing of the oral skills, depending on the teacher's lesson plan.

In addition to the use of a basic textbook, various other materials were also applied to enhance learning. Table 3:6 gives a summary of the most prevalent materials used next to a basic textbook. Realia were almost always present in the literacy classroom (90%). These materials varied from commercial leaflets to real clothing. Computer programs on the school server were often utilized, particularly for vocabulary building. In total 29 (74%), responded to using computers in the classroom. Other materials that demonstrate language in use, such as television, and DVDs or videos, were regularly applied. In the 1990's various short films for adult education were produced, of these, the filmed sketches *Mag ik wat vragen?* (May I ask something?) (Van Baalen, & Breed, 1994) was particularly popular. Very characteristic of the literacy classroom was the ample use of self-made materials, usually in the form of hand-outs (67%). Very few responded to using special educational materials such as the ColorCards series (*ColorCards*, 1991) with pictures of objects and activities for the building of vocabulary and discourse. Only three (8%) noted using such materials.

Table 3:6 Use of extra materials (survey 2006) in 39 literacy classrooms for practicing the oral skills (multiple answers possible).

	Extra materials							
	Realia	Other textbooks	Self-constructed materials	Other ready made materials	Computer programs	Programs on the internet	Videos or DVDs	Television
Number of classes	35	21	26	3	29	17	27	17
(%)	(90)	(54)	(67)	(8)	(74)	(44)	(69)	(44)

3.1.2.4 Testing practices

Section D of the survey inquired about the testing practices. During the course of a literacy program students were frequently assessed to determine their learning level during the course of a program and for replacement. This was done either by using formal standardized tests, self-made tests, or through the teacher's personal impression of the student's development. The tests were either achievement tests, based on the basic textbook, or proficiency tests which assessed general language or literacy ability. Table 3:7 provides the results on testing practices taken from the 39 ROCs on the survey.

Table 3:7 Testing practices (survey 2006) for the 39 ROCs (sub) locations (multiple answers possible).

	Total ROCs Testing students N=39	Use formal tests N=37						Teacher's impressions N=37		
		Achievement			Proficiency					
		Oral skills	Literacy skills	Both skills	Oral skills	Literacy skills	Both skills	Oral skills	Literacy skills	Both skills
Number of classes	37	1	23	8	2	22	4	2	2	22
(%)	(95)	(3)	(62)	(22)	(5)	(59)	(11)	(5)	(5)	(59)

As Table 3:7 points out, 37 out of a total of 39 ROC (sub) locations expressed using tests to assess the learning levels of the students (95%). Two out of the total 39 ROC (sub) locations indicated not testing the students, but one noted using the national developed proficiency test, *Profieltoets*

alfabetisering NT2 (Dutch Profile Literacy Test) – at that time mandatory for financial accountability – the other indicated relying on the teacher's impressions as a form for assessing the students. Of the remaining 37 ROC (sub) locations more than half tested only the literacy skills using formal tests: 23 (62%) used achievements tests and 22 (59%) used proficiency tests. Twenty-two (59%) responded using teacher's impressions to determine both the oral and the literacy skills. The assessment of the oral skills was most often based on teacher's impressions, while the literacy skills were usually tested with commercially available tests. This is not so surprising since tests for assessing the oral skills were just arriving on the market end of 2003 and not all schools had implemented these tests in 2006. Secondly, testing the technical steps of literacy was much simpler to administer than the time consuming oral assessments. This withheld some schools to implement the oral skills tests.

3.1.2.5 Class size and distribution

Section E of the survey inquired about numbers of students and teachers. Although some teachers indicated that their response was not based on actual statistics, a general picture of the situation of the size and distribution of adult DSL literacy classes within the ROCs could be drawn. Table 3:8 gives an overview of the size and distribution of these literacy classes. Not all the (sub) locations responded fully to this question, leaving a few missing values.

Table 3:8 Size and distribution of literacy classes (survey 2006) in ROC (sub) locations.

		Number of ROCs	(%)
Number of sub-locations for literacy education	1 – 2 locations	5	(14)
	3 – 4 locations	17	(47)
	5 – 6 locations	5	(14)
	7 – 8 locations	3	(8)
	9 – 10 locations	2	(6)
	> 10 locations	4	(11)
	Total responses	36	(100)
Number of literacy students at the location of respondent	Less than 10 students	2	(5)
	10 – 25 students	11	(29)
	26 – 40 students	8	(21)
	41 – 65 students	5	(13)
	66 – 80 students	3	(8)
	81 – 95 students	3	(8)
	> 95 students	6	(16)
	Total responses	38	(100)
Number of literacy classes at the location of respondent	1 – 3 classes	13	(34)
	4 – 6 classes	13	(34)
	7 – 9 classes	6	(16)
	10 – 12 classes	2	(5)
	13 – 15 classes	1	(3)
	> 15 classes	3	(8)
	Total responses	38	(100)
Estimated number of students in a literacy class at the location of respondent	1 – 5 students	0	0
	6 – 10 students	11	(30)
	11 – 15 students	25	(68)
	16 – 20 students	1	(3)
	> 20 students	0	0
	Total responses	37	(100)

Most of the literacy classes were spread over the sub-locations. Adult education, and in particular literacy education, usually organized classes near or in the neighborhoods where the students lived in the belief that students would be more inclined to attend classes if they were within walking distance. From the days of the *Basiseducatie* (basic education) such classes were classified as *wijkeducatie* (neighborhood education). This construction had been continued even after adult education had become part of the regional vocational schools (the ROCs). For almost half of the ROCs, literacy classes were spread over three to four sub-locations (47%). Twenty-nine percent of the ROC (sub) locations reported that on average 10-25 literacy students were enrolled at her location. Six ROC (sub) locations (16%) noted that on average even more than 95 students were enrolled at her

location. Most of the locations had between one to six literacy classes (68%). Three (8%) responded to having even more than 15 literacy classes at their location. Most of the classes (68%) had eleven to fifteen students per class.

3.1.2.6 The literacy teacher

Section F in the survey focused on the literacy teacher. Table 3:9 summarizes the profile of the literacy teacher that emerged from the survey. Two ROC (sub) locations did not complete this section of the survey. As Table 3:9 indicates, the estimated total number of literacy teachers was 284. Of these, 225 (79%) were women. The level of education was not known for all the teachers. There were answers given for 177 teachers. In general these 177 teachers had a high level of education. There were 151 (85%) who had a bachelor's degree in a field related to education or linguistics. Concerning professional development in the field of second language education, 240 responses were given. Almost half of these, 112 (47%) reported that they and/or colleagues had training in adult basic education. Only 46 out of the 240 (19%) had had training in DSL and literacy. Slightly more teachers had had training in the teaching of the oral skills in DSL courses, 53 (22%).

Table 3:9 Teacher profile in L2 literacy education (survey 2006).

		Numbers	(%)
Estimated total number of literacy teachers	Male	59	(21)
	Female	225	(79)
	Total	284	(100)
Education – highest degree	Bachelor's degree in a field related to education or linguistics	151	(85)
	Bachelor's degree in a field not related to education or linguistics	7	(4)
	Master's degree in a field related to education or linguistics	11	(6)
	Master's degree in a field not related to education or linguistics	8	(5)
	Total	177	(100)
Professional development in the field of second language education	Adult basic education training	112	(47)
	DSL and literacy training	46	(19)
	DSL and the oral skills training	53	(22)
	DSL remedial teaching	13	(5)
	Class assistant	2	(1)
	Various other related areas	14	(6)
	Total	240	(100)

3.2 Selection criteria

In order to adequately reflect the situation of adult literacy education, the selection of the classes had to take six factors into account: type of classroom organization, location, ROC size, type of students, class size, and teacher's profile. From the survey surfaced three basic types of program organization for the oral and literacy skills (see section 3.1.2.3), labeled Type 1, Type 2, and Type 3. These three types were characterized by the time allotted for the oral and literacy skills, the placement criteria for the student, and the materials used for the oral skills (see Figure 3:1). Another factor of importance was the size of the educational institution, the ROC. For this information the ROC site was consulted. The schools were then divided into general categories of small, medium and large schools. The location of the school also played a decisive role. A diversity of schools in terms of geographical location had to be present. There also had to be variation in the type of student attending: newcomers and/or long-term residents. A minimum attendance of ten students per class was advisable. Finally, the teacher had to have sufficient teaching experience in the field of literacy and the oral skills. All these factors had to be considered.

3.3 Selected schools and classes

Two factors were essential in the selection. The first was the consent from the appropriate unit head or manager. The second was the favorable reputation of the teachers in their institution. This meant that the teacher had to have at least three years of experience in literacy classes and be willing to participate in the project. Taking this into consideration, six classes, two from each of the three types, were chosen (Figure 3:1). These classes differed in geographical location as well as size. Also a minimum of ten students per class was set. All the classes except one fulfilled this last criterion (Class 3). For Class 3 there was a probable addition of three new students, but this did not materialize. Table 3:10 gives an overview of the selected classes and the selection criteria. Figure 3:2 shows a map of the Netherlands on which the locations of the selected classes are marked.

Table 3:10 Overview of the selected classes in terms of program type, geographical location, school size, and category and number of students (2006).

Selected classes	Program type	Geographical location	School size	Category of students	Class size
1	1	Northwest	Large	Primarily newcomers	11
2	1	West	Medium	Primarily newcomers	15
3	2	South	Medium	Mixed	7
4	2	East	Small	Mixed	11
5	3	Northwest	Medium	Long-term residents	13
6	3	Center	Large	Long-term residents	11

Figure 3:2 Map of the Netherlands with the six selected ROCs.

Chapter 4
The literacy classroom

In the previous chapter the results of a survey were described. This survey formed the basis for the selection of ROCs for this study. From this, six classes were selected differing in type of program organization, geographical location, school size, category of students, and class size. In this chapter, these selected classes, the students, and the teachers are described. In order to understand the learning of these students and the differences between the classes a detailed description of the educational situation and the participants in that situation (the students and the teachers) is warranted. The chapter opens in section 4.1 with a description of the setting and the facilities at that location. Section 4.2 describes the literacy curriculum. This starts with a description of student placement and the information given in the school records. Both of these are import for the teacher to structure her lesson program. This section continues with an overview of how the lesson program is organized and the materials used in these classrooms. The literacy students are described in section 4.3 and the six literacy teachers in section 4.4. The chapter concludes in section 4.5 with a characterization of the six classes

4.1 The setting

The setting describes the type of accommodation and the facilities available for the literacy students and teacher. In all the locations, the teachers had access to a copy machine. If there were computers available these were connected to a network from which the required literacy programs could be downloaded for classroom use. The availability of other facilities such as CD-players or a television for viewing videos varied.

Class 1

The Class 1 literacy classroom was situated in a container-constructed building located in the northern district of a large city in the north-central part of the country. The building housed a number of vocational MBO[37] programs and DSL courses each along with their supporting administration. Most of the students attending the DSL courses lived in the immediate

37 MBO is the abbreviation for *Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs* (Secondary Vocational Education) for students 16-19 years old.

surroundings. The literacy classroom, located on the second floor, was a relatively large room equipped with a few computers, a television for videos, a CD-player, a whiteboard, and a well-stocked storage cabinet with educational materials. The tables, usually arranged in groups of four, filled the room. The students had their break in a small canteen located on the ground floor. The teachers had a small, separate staff room, which also functioned as a canteen.

Class 2

The Class 2 literacy classroom was located in a sizeable, renovated historic building at the edge of the center of a moderately large city in the western part of the country. The building housed all the intensive (twelve hours or more a week) DSL courses along with the supporting administration. Most of the students attending classes on this location lived in or near the city. The literacy classroom was located on the top floor just under the roof. The tables, placed together forming one long rectangle, filled the room. A television for video viewing was placed on a table in a corner of the room. On another table in the corner, was a CD-player with a small storage cabinet for students' workbooks. A small whiteboard hung on the wall near a doorway leading to an adjacent classroom. On the second floor of the building was a large OLC (open learning center). The students had their break in a sizable canteen on the ground floor along with all the other students and teachers. The teachers also had a large, separate staff room, equipped with computers and an extensive collection of educational materials.

Class 3

The Class 3 literacy classroom was in a large, modern school building on the west side of a town located in the southern part of the country. The building housed MBO departments and DSL courses along with the supporting administration. The school had a strong regional function servicing the city and surrounding towns. The literacy classroom was located on the second floor of the west wing. The classroom, with individual tables set in a square, was large and equipped with computers, television, CD-player, whiteboard, and two well-stocked storage cabinets with educational materials. On the first floor was also a large OLC. The students had their break in a spacious canteen on the ground floor along with MBO students. The teachers had a large, modern staff room, which was also equipped for lunch and coffee breaks.

Class 4

The Class 4 literacy classroom was located in a former monastery at the edge of a town near the eastern border. The building had a regional function and housed DSL courses along with the supporting administration on the ground floor. The students attending DSL courses came from the city and the surrounding towns. The classroom, with isosceles trapezoid formed tables set in a circle, was spacious and equipped with a minimum of educational attributes such as a whiteboard, bulletin board, and CD-player. A television for viewing videos was available on request and computers were nearby in the OLC across the hallway. The students had their break in a small canteen. The teachers had a separate room for their coffee and lunch breaks. In addition, there was also a large, separate staff room, equipped with computers and an extensive collection of educational materials.

Class 5

The Class 5 literacy classroom was located in an old, worn-out community center in a southeastern district of a city in the western part of the country. The community center, next to housing a day-care center, also organized various activities for residents living in the immediate vicinity. The students in the literacy class lived in the vicinity of the community center. The classroom was equipped with a large blackboard and small bulletin board. A CD-player and a television were available on request. The tables, placed together forming one long rectangle, filled most of the room. In an adjacent walk-in closet a small selection of educational materials was kept. No computers were available for student or teacher use. There was no administrative staff present for educational assistance. There was a canteen for all the users of the community center. Both the teacher and the students had their break together in the canteen.

Class 6

The Class 6 literacy classroom was situated in a large community center adjacent to a small shopping center located on the west side of a small town in the geographical center of the country. A majority of the students lived within walking distance. The community center accommodated various activities, including a day-care center and the office for the district community workers. The large classroom was equipped with a small whiteboard, a bulletin board, and several storage cabinets with educational materials. A CD-player and a television were also available on request. The small individual tables were placed in a square, leaving ample room for movement and group work. No computers were available for student or teacher use nor was there any administrative staff present for educational

assistance. There was a large canteen, but the students and the teacher took the break together in the classroom.

4.2 The curriculum

4.2.1 School records

Each school kept a file on each of the students registered and enrolled in a DSL course. Depending on the status of the student (residence permit) and financial support this information was generally made available to the teachers. The information noted in these records varied. In total, nineteen factors were found to be most frequently noted. Table 4:1 gives an overview of these nineteen factors for the schools of each of the six classes. The teacher could always consult the records when needed and was normally given a copy for her personal administration, which was updated when a new student was added to her class. At every school, except one, the researcher was also allowed to consult these records. The school that had denied access argued that it was for reasons of privacy. In this school, the teacher's copies of the school records were made available to the researcher. In another school, the registration forms were accompanied by a large selection of learning materials, giving the student file the appearance of a portfolio.

Table 4:1 Factors noted in the school records in 2007of the six centers of adult education (x = information complete, /= information partially complete, 0 = no information supplied).

	Main factors in the school records																		
School (=class)	Name	Gender	Date of birth	Country of origin	Date of entry	Marital status	Children	Work in the Netherlands	L1 (mother tongue)	Other languages	L1 Literacy	L1 schooling	Previous DSL schooling	Start DSL program	End DSL program	DSL start level	DSL target level	DSL tests	Profile	information complete
1	x	x	x	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	x	/	0	/	/	/	21%
2	x	x	x	x	/	/	/	0	/	/	/	/	/	x	x	/	/	/	0	32%
3	x	x	/	x	/	x	/	/	/	/	/	/	x	x	x	x	x	/	/	47%
4	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	/	x	x	/	/	x	x	x	x	x	/	x	79%
5	x	x	x	x	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	x	/	0	/	0	x	32%
6	x	x	x	x	/	/	/	0	0	0	0	x	x	x	x	0	/	/	0	42%

As Table 4:1 shows, not all the factors were accounted for in the school records. For several factors (marked partially complete), the necessary information was either lacking, incomplete, inconsistent or not filled in for all the students in the class. Basic information such as name, gender, date of birth, and country of origin was for the most part present. These and other factors such as date of entry into the Netherlands, marital status, children, and work in the Netherlands could supply beneficial information for the teacher. For example, if a student, often a woman, had the care of small children, then her study time or concentration could be limited. In addition, she might have extra interest in information on childcare and education. On the other hand, if the student had employment where he could use the target language, this could enhance his learning through more L2 contact. In both cases, the teacher could respond by giving attention to such matters. Only school 4 gave sufficient information on these factors. The factor of 'work in the Netherlands' was not filled in for only one student. Two schools (2 and 6) did not include the factor work in their registration forms; all the other schools were incomplete in their information.

Factors of special importance in a language class concern the L1 background of a student. This includes factors of first and second languages spoken, L1 schooling, and L1 literacy. The information given for L1 schooling in the country of origin was most unreliable. This was usually given in number of years attended and/or in type of school, for example, three years elementary school. Such information gives an indication of having had some schooling, but because school systems differ greatly from country to country, no absolute conclusions could be drawn as to the actual learning level of the student.

Information concerning L1 literacy was frequently obscure. The information in the school records often gave a general indication if the student was literate or not. Sometimes only a mere 'yes' or 'no' was noted, without specifying script or level of literacy. Although not specified, a yes could be inferred to mean literate in the Roman script. The teacher usually acquired this information during class time. If a student was taking notes in his L1, then it could be assumed that he was literate in the L1. Tests for determining L1 literacy, such as *Lezen over grenzen heen* (Reading across borders) (Siemonsma & Sparla, 1998), were not routinely applied. Students literate in a non-Roman script were frequently placed in literacy classes even if their schooling background extended beyond that of the non-literates. In some schools, such students were placed in special classes geared toward learners literate in a non-Roman script and with several years of schooling. In most cases, due to financial restrictions, such classes often having only a few students were too costly. Consequently, mixed-level classes were often a result.

The following illustrates how problematic student placement can be. Two students are described. Each student had a relatively high level of education and literacy in the L1, but in a non-Roman script. Both were placed in a literacy class. The first student concerns a young Moroccan man whose school records noted that he had worked as a hairdresser in his homeland, that his mother tongue was Berber, that he could also speak Arabic and French, that he was literate (no script was specified), and that he had had secondary vocational education. During the short interview prior to the assessment, this student told the researcher that he had had ten years of schooling plus two years of training as a hairdresser. He also mentioned that he had had fours years of French in school. From this can be inferred that he was literate in the Arabic as well as the Roman script. In Morocco the language of instruction during the first two years of primary school is Arabic. During the following three years both French and Arabic are used. The use of French is continued in the secondary schools.[38] Nevertheless, this student was placed in a literacy class for the literacy and oral skills. The second student concerned a well-spoken woman from Hong Kong. In her school records, it was noted that she had worked in a restaurant in her country of origin, that Chinese was her mother tongue, that she was literate, and that she had had six years of elementary schooling. From this, it can be inferred that this student was literate in Chinese, particularly since the researcher noticed during classroom observation, that this student was taking notes in Chinese. Once she told the class that she enjoyed the Chinese opera and also participated in amateur productions. During the pre-assessment interview, this student told the researcher that she worked in a Chinese restaurant in a nearby city, giving her contact with Dutch speakers. Just as the Moroccan student, this student was also placed in a literacy class. During observation of the classroom activities, these two students did not seem to be more advanced in their oral skills than the other students because of their L1 literacy. Nevertheless, it is unfortunate that these students were not placed in a class with students of a similar schooling background. Now they are in a class with students who have never been to school. Although mixed-level classes do not necessarily hamper learning, it could slow down the rate of learning. In an educational system where there is a time restraint, this could be detrimental, if not costly.

The following six factors in the school records concern DSL schooling. The only factor marked for all the students was the start date of the present program. This was not the case for the end date. The end date was flexible and re-evaluated for each student from one stage to the next.

38 Information retrieved from http://www.nationsencyclopedia.com/Africa/Morocco-EDUCATION.html (consulted 01-21-2011).

Extensions, though bound by school and municipal regulations, were usually given. These changes were not always entered into the schools records. Knowing the previous DSL schooling history is essential for correct placement of students, particularly for those who transferred from another school. In general, very little was known about their previous DSL schooling. Even if information was given, it was not always clear how it should be interpreted. The duration of previous DSL schooling was frequently noted in months and not in hours of instruction, making it difficult to determine a learning level. If the student had participated in a WIN[39] program, this was usually indicated, but again no proficiency levels were given. WIN courses were only subject to general guidelines and goals (*Opvang nieuwkomers*, 1994). The courses were not standardized. The mere fact of having participated in such a course did not reflect a certain L2 level.

In looking at the school records, DSL testing does not seem to be a standard procedure. The test results that were given were very incomplete or obscure. In three schools (schools 2, 5, and 6), a target level was noted, while the initial level was not given or unknown. In school 1, the initial level of one student was noted, but no target level, and for three students the target level was given, but not the initial level. Only school 3 and 4 were complete in noting the initial as well as target levels. School 3 also registered learner levels in a periodic teacher's progress report. The source on which these levels were based was not given. In a personal communication, this teacher commented that learning levels were usually based on the teacher's impressions of a student's progress. School 4 used the Nivor test battery, a battery originally developed for learners literate in the Roman alphabet. The scores obtained from these tests were subsequently converted to literacy levels. In the school records, school 5 reported a student's progress by noting the textbook used and/or the chapters last studied for both the oral and literacy skills, but not the proficiency level achieved.

The final factor listed in Table 4:1 concerns the student's profile. The term profile is normally used in education to mean learning profile. Such a profile characterizes the student's style of learning and the type of curriculum best suited to his needs. In the school records, the term profile refers to another domain. It indicated the governmental (or municipal) body funding the student's DSL schooling program. To each profile a set budget and amount of time was allotted for DSL schooling. This profile normally did not affect the student's learning program.

On the whole, the school records reflect a disinterest in meeting educational standards. It is remarkable that these official records of L2 literacy learners who were in most instances required by law to enroll in a

39 See section 2.1 for an explanation of WI and WIN.

DSL education program were so inadequately maintained. Only one school, school 4, kept most of the information in the school records up to date. For this school 79% of the information given was complete. For all the other schools less than half of the information recorded was complete: 21% for school 1, 32% for schools 2 and 5, and 42% for schools 3 and 6. In the following subsections, the students in each of the six observed classes are described.

4.2.2 Student placement

Continuous enrollment and subsequent placement in the classes were becoming the norm at the start of the present research end of 2006. Municipalities required students to be placed in a language course as soon as possible after registration, often within one or twee weeks. Mixed-level classes were thus inevitable. The teacher was never sure when and how many students would be added to her class. New additions could be disruptive, particularly if the total number of students in each class is not large and the L2 level of new students is considerably lower than the level in the existing class. The teacher had to be very flexible in incorporating one or more students with the other students in the class. Transfer of students to another class also influenced classroom composition. Sometimes a more competent student would be advised to join a more intensive program, such as was the case of a Class 5 student, or to a higher level class, as was the case of a student in Class 2 and Class 3. The two students in Classes 2 and 5 returned after a few weeks to their original class, preferring a less demanding course. The student in Class 3 flourished in the higher level class. Next to continuous enrollment and placement of students, the summer break often disrupted class stability. New students, having waited through the summer to be placed in a program, were added to existing classes. A third, and perhaps the most influential reason for the forming of mixed-level classes, is a financial one. Small classes are too expensive. In adult education minimum numbers of 12 to 16 students were frequently required, but because the number of literacy students was small, these minimums were often not realized.

4.2.3 Classroom program organization

The six selected literacy classes represent the three types of classroom organization that surfaced form the national survey (see section 3.1.2.3). At the start of the observation period, there were 68 students. From this, a total of 41 students, or 60%, were both pre- and post-assessed. The decrease in number of students assessed was primarily due to changes in classroom

composition. Next to the influx of new students, other students discontinued their schooling, had completed the program, or were transferred to another group or school. Since continuous enrollment and placement of students in the classes were becoming the norm, the composition of a class could change several times during the course of a program. These changes are discussed in section 4.4 on student placement. Three classes (Classes 3, 4, and 5) had the advantage of having an assistant. In Classes 3 and 4 the assistants were themselves former DSL students. The assistant in Class 3 helped the teacher in various tasks such as getting materials ready and reviewing vocabulary with individuals or small groups of students. In Class 4, the assistant helped in the OLC when students worked on vocabulary tasks using computer programs. In Class 5, the assistant was a university student doing a master's degree in teaching Dutch as a second language. As part of the requirements, she helped individual students and was also given the opportunity to teach parts of a lesson.

Two basic textbooks were used for practicing the oral skills. *SA* was used in Classes 1, 2, and 3 and *ENV* was used in Class 4. These two textbooks are described in section 4.2.4. Class 5 used various materials for oral skills practice. In Class 6, the Portfolio OGO[40] focusing on childcare, health, and education served as a guide in the program. For the practice of the literacy skills, two textbooks were most often used: *7/43* and *Alfa flex*. The textbook *7/43* was most often used in Classes 1, 5, and 6; and the textbook *Alfa flex* (Literacy flexible) was used in Classes 2 and 4. Class 3 used both of these literacy textbooks, depending on the student's style of learning. Class 6 used the textbook *7/43* sporadically. In addition Class 4 also made use of computer programs in the OLC. The reason for this is explained in 4.4. Table 4:2 gives an overview of the curriculum of the six classes.

40 See footnote 36 about the OGO Portfolio.

Table 4:2 Literacy curriculum for the six classes (2007).

Classes[a]	Students[b]	Basic text		Scheduled lesson organization					
		Oral skills	Literacy skills	Frequency per week		Hrs per lesson		Hrs per week	
1 (1)	11 (7)	SA	7/43	3	3	1.50	1.50	4.50	4.50
2 (1)	15 (8)	SA	AF[d]	4	4	1.50	1.50	6.00	6.00
3 (2)	7 (5)	SA	AF and 7/43	4	4	1.25	1.25	5.00	5.00
4 (2)	11 (6)	ENV	AF	1	2	2.75	2.75	2.75	5.50
5 (3)	13 (9)	Mix	7/43	2		2.50		5.00	
6 (3)	11 (6)	OGO[c]	7/43	4		2.75		11.00	

[a] In parentheses is program organization type. An asterisk indicates a classroom assistant.
[b] Number of students at onset; the assessed number of students in parentheses.
[c] OGO Portfolio.
[d] AF is the literacy text *AlfaFlex.*

As Table 4:2 shows, there is a difference in organization between Classes 1, 2, 3, and 4, on the one hand, and Classes 5 and 6, on the other hand. Classes 1, 2, 3, and 4 all had a specific number of allocated hours for the practice of the oral and literacy skills. Classes 1, 2, and 3 had an equal number of hours for each skill, while Class 4 had twice as many hours per week for the literacy skills as for the oral skills. Looking at the weekly number of hours for these four classes, Class 4 had the least number of hours for the oral skills and also the least number of total lesson hours per week, 2.75 hours and 8.25 hours respectively. In contrast, Class 2 had the most hours for the oral skills, 6.00 hours, and also the most in total, 12.00 hours. Classes 5 and 6 were organized differently. The practice of the oral and literacy skills in these two classes was not set in advance. The teacher determined which skill was to be practiced as well as the amount of time to be spent on it. Class 5, meeting twice a week for two and a half hours had, by far, the least number of total classroom hours of all the six classes, namely, 5.00 hours. Class 6 had more than twice as many classroom hours, 11.00 hours.

4.2.4 Instructional materials

The two main textbooks used during the practice of the oral skills were *SA* and *ENV*. Both textbooks were developed by experienced teachers in two different ROCs in the department of adult second language and literacy education. Both textbooks are essentially based on the assumptions fundamental to CLT, of which the primary focus is on using language for meaningful and directly functional interactions (Brown, 2007; Lightbown

and Spada, 1999). In such an approach the grammar is often implicitly presented through dialogs and formulaic language, and interaction is practiced through the learning of dialogs and the performing of role-play. These features form the basis of both textbooks. The unit of organization in these textbooks is thematically based, for example, health, transportation, and shopping. Within this structure the themes are broken down into situations. Within the unit health, situations such as 'making an appointment' and 'at the doctor's office' would be practiced. The essential difference between *SA* and *ENV* lies is its structure. *SA* is primarily organized along the lines of a syllabus (listing the contents with instructions), while *ENV* is a lesson-based textbook (with steps and specific activities for each step) including a separate workbook for the students. Both textbooks have a detailed teacher's manual and material for student use, accompanied by a CD. On the CD for *SA*, the vocabulary lists and certain dialogs are recorded and accompanied by a pictured vocabulary list for each lesson. For *ENV* the entire student workbook is recorded. For each lesson the vocabulary list and the exercises are recorded page by page—making self-study possible. Both textbooks follow a system of cyclic gradation. In *SA* gradation is organized along lexical lines. In three successive stages the vocabulary for each theme becomes more specialized. *ENV*, a much shorter program, is a cyclical continuation of a beginners oral skills course for the non-literate, *Van Start* (Van der Loop, Ma. & Strube, 1998). The material in *ENV* is organized along the lines of the ABCD-model, explained in section 2.5. In a series of fives lessons for each theme new vocabulary is presented and practiced in step A and B. In step B the grammar is implicitly presented. The series of five lessons for each theme culminates in step C activities. The authors of *SA* claim that their three year program leads up to the CEFR level A2. *ENV*, a program encompassing approximately one year, assumes at least an A1 level.

4.3 The literacy students

The data for the learner characteristics of the literacy students was collected from three main sources: official school records, teacher information, and information retrieved during the informal interview preceding the assessments. As explained in the following sections, various changes in class composition took place. From the total number of students (68) at the start of the observation period 41 students were eventually both pre- and post-assessed. The following discussion on learner characteristics applies only to those 41 students. Using the information given in the school records, teacher's knowledge, and that which surfaced from the interviews, a general picture of the literacy student population in the six classes at these six

schools was formed. The literacy students are characterized on two levels: their personal background and their DSL schooling history. These features are discussed for each class in 4.3.1 – 4.3.6.

4.3.1 Class 1

There were eleven students in Class 1 at the start of the observation period. Of these students, due to transfer and absence, seven (64%) took part in both the pre- and post-assessment. The characteristics of these seven students are summarized in Table 4:3. The students in Class 1 were, by chance, all women. The mean age was 38 years, the youngest student being 29 years old and the oldest 47 years old. Four students came from Afghanistan and the other three from Morocco, Turkey, and China. The students from Turkey and China were also long-term residents having lived in the Netherlands already 20 and 15 years, respectively. The mean length of residence was 7 years. The mean number of years of L1 schooling was low in this class, 0.7 years. One student from China had had three years of schooling and, according to the school records she was literate in Chinese. The other student had had two years of schooling and was literate in the Arabic script. One other student was also literate in the Arabic script, but had had no L1 schooling. She had come from Afghanistan and, being a woman, was not allowed to go to school. She had mentioned having had had some home schooling. In total 57% were not literate in any script.

Table 4:3 Student characteristics for Class 1 (2007).

Student	Gender[a]	Age	Marital Status[b]	Country of origin	L1[c]	LOR (yrs)	L1 schooling	L1 literacy
1	f	45	Married*	Morocco	Berber Arabic*	4	No	No
2	f	30	Married*	Afghanistan	Pashtu Urdu*	3	No	No
3	f	43	Single	Turkey	Kurdish	20	No	No
4	f	38	Married*	Afghanistan	Pashtu	3	No	No
5	f	29	Married*	China	Chinese	15	3 years	Chinese
6	f	47	Married*	Afghanistan	Pashtu Urdu*	2	No	Arabic
7	f	35	Married*	Afghanistan	Farsi French*	3	2 years	Arabic
Total mean		38				7	0.7 yrs.	57% illiterate

[a] f = female

[b] Those marked with an asterisk also have children living at home.

[c] The language marked with an asterisk is the second language spoken.

Table 4:4 gives a summary of the dates of previous and current DSL schooling. Previous DSL schooling refers to the DSL schooling prior to the course the students were attending at the time the observations took place. Current DSL course refers to the course in which the students were enrolled and attending at the time of the observations. As Table 4:4 shows, the data for previous DSL schooling is incomplete. Two students (numbers 1 and 7) had completed a special introductory course for newcomers equal to 600 classroom hours. Students 3 and 4 had not previously partaken in a DSL course. No data on previous DSL schooling was available for students 2 and 5. Student 6 had apparently had some DSL training, as the registration dates were noted, but no information was given as to the content of the schooling. For student 1 and 6 the date noted as the end of previous DSL schooling and that for the start of the current course overlap. Either both students had completed their initial language training or they had aborted the course to partake in the current course. Both students were still in the current course at the end of the observation period in November 2007. For the current course, four students (numbers 1, 2, 4, and 6) were enrolled in September 2005. The other three students (numbers 3, 5, and 7) joined the class about a year later in 2006. The general rate of attendance was high, with a mean of 86%. Student 7 even had an attendance rate of 100%.

Table 4:4 Student DSL schooling history for Class 1 (2007).

Student	Previous DSL schooling			Current DSL course	
	Start	End	Hours/level	Start	Attendance rate
1	01-2005	12-2005	600 WIN	09-2005	76
2	No data	No data	No data	09-2005	93
3	No	n/a	n/a	12-2006	No data
4	No	n/a	n/a	09-2005	81
5	No data	No data	No data	09-2006	85
6	04-2005	09-2006	No data	09-2005	81
7	05-2004	01-2005	600 WIN	10-2006	100
Total mean					86

4.3.2 Class 2

Class 2 started with 15 students. Due to transfer, placement of new students, and absence eight students finally took part in both the pre- and post-assessment, 53%. The characteristics of these eight students are given in Table 4:5. Again by chance, there was only one male student in the class. The ages of the students ranged from 22 to 62 years with a mean age of 36 years. The mean length of residence was 9 years. Two students were long-term residents (numbers 3 and 8) having lived in the Netherlands for 22 and

33 years. The other six students were recent arrivals with no more than four years residency. Five students (numbers 1, 2, 3, 5, and 8) had had no education in the country of origin and were not literate in the L1, 63%. Of the three remaining students, one student (number 7) was noted to be literate in the Arabic script. For the other two students (numbers 4 and 6) the school records noted that the student was literate, but no script was specified. For these two students the most probable L1 script was put between parentheses in Table 4:5.

Table 4:5 Student characteristics for Class 2 (2007).

Student	Gender[a]	Age	Marital status[b]	Country of origin	L1[c]	LOR (yrs)	L1 schooling	L1 literacy[d]
1	f	22	Single*	Iraq	Kurdish	4	No	No
2	f	31	Single	Togo	Haza French*	4	No	No
3	f	62	Married*	Morocco	Berber	22	No	No
4	m	28	Married	Morocco	Berber Arabic* French*	1	12 years	(Arabic, Roman script)
5	f	45	Single	Somalia	Somali English *	4	No	No
6	f	24	Widow*	Sudan	Sudanese Arabic*	4	2 years	(Arabic)
7	f	26	Married	Afghanistan	Dari Urdu*	2	6 years	Arabic
8	f	47	Married*	Turkey	Turkish	33	No	No
Total mean		36				9	3 years	63% illiterate

[a] f = female; m = male

[b] Those marked with an asterisk also have children living at home.

[c] The language marked with an asterisk is the second language spoken.

[d] No script was specified in the school records. The assumed script is given in parenthesis.

Table 4:6 gives an overview of previous and current DSL schooling. As the table shows, there is very little information concerning prior DSL schooling. Even though six out of the eight students had had some DSL schooling, dates nor number of hours or level were noted. According to the school records, student 3 had been in the class since November 2005, but no further data was available as to her DSL schooling background. In September 2006, two students (numbers 1 and 2) were added to the class. In January and February 2007 students 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 joined the class, while at the same time other students left the class. The mean rate of attendance was 66%. All the students, except two, had an attendance rate above 63%. Student 6 had an attendance rate of 53 and student 8 an attendance rate of 33%.

Table 4:6 Student DSL schooling history for Class 2 (2007).

Student	Previous DSL schooling			Current DSL course	
	Start [a]	End	Hours/level	Start	Attendance rate
1	No	No data	No data	09-2006	64
2	Some	No data	No data	09-2006	94
3	Some	No data	No data	11-2005	76
4	Some	No data	No data	02-2007	73
5	Some	No data	No data	02-2007	69
6	Some	No data	No data	01-2007	53
7	No data	No data	No data	02-2007	69
8	Some	No data	No data	02-2007	33
Total mean					66

[a] 'Some' indicates that there was a little DSL, but dates and hours/level were not specified.

4.3.3 Class 3

At the start of the observation period, there were seven students in Class 3. Eventually one student, being illegal, was compelled to leave the course. Another student, being nearly 70 years of age, found going to school too demanding. The remaining five (71%) partook in the pre- and post-assessment. Table 4:7 summarizes the characteristics of these students. In this class, there was, again by chance, one male student from Morocco. Three woman students came from Afghanistan and one came from Burundi. The mean age was 35 years. Three students were in their twenties and two around the age of 50. The three younger students had recently arrived in the Netherlands (numbers 1, 2, and 4). Only one student (number 2) had had some L1 education and was noted to be literate. No script was specified. This student, having had four years of schooling in Morocco, most likely was literate in Arabic and perhaps also in French. In Morocco, Arabic is used in the first two years of school and French is added in the third year. One other student (number 1) was also literate, but had had no L1 schooling. Having come from Afghanistan, she presumably learned this skill through homeschooling.

Table 4:7 Student characteristics for Class 3 (2007).

Student	Gender[a]	Age	Marital status[b]	Country of origin	L1[c]	LOR (yrs)	L1 schooling	L1 literacy[d]
1	f	27	married*	Afghanistan	Pashtu English*	1	No	Arabic
2	m	26	married	Morocco	Berber French*	1	4 years	(Arabic)
3	f	50	widow*	Afghanistan	Dari	6	No	No
4	f	24	single	Afghanistan	Pashtu	0	No	No
5	f	49	divorced*	Burundi	Kirundi French*	3	No	No
Total mean		35				2	0.8	60% illiterate

[a] f = female; m = male

[b] Those marked with an asterisk also have children living at home.

[c] The language marked with an asterisk is the second language spoken.

[d] No script was specified in the school records. The assumed script is given in parenthesis.

The previous and current DSL schooling is summarized in Table 4:8. By the end of 2006, all the literacy students had completed the WIN-language program of 600 hours and were immediately registered for a L2 literacy program. Student 3, after having completed the WIN program in June 2005, discontinued her DSL schooling due to family matters. She finally resumed her schooling and joined the class in March 2007. The rate of attendance for students 2, 3, and 4 was 75%. There was no attendance data available for students 1 and 5.

Table 4:8 Student DSL schooling history for Class 3 (2007).

Student	Previous DSL schooling			Current DSL course	
	Start	End	Hours/level	Start	Attendance rate
1	08-2005	12-2006	600 WIN	12-2006	No data
2	08-2005	10-2006	600 WIN	10-2006	68
3	09-2004	12-2005	>600 WIN [a]	03-2007	70
4	08-2005	09-2006	600 WIN	09-2006	87
5	08-2006	12-2006	600 WIN	12-2006	No data
Total mean					75

[a] Introductory course of 600 hours plus extra, not specified.

4.3.4 Class 4

There were eleven students in Class 4 at the start of the observation period. Of these students, due to replacement, absence, and influx of new students, six students took part in both the pre- and post-assessment, 55%. The characteristics of these six students are summarized in Table 4:9. As was the case for Classes 2 and 3, Class 4 also had just one male student (number 4). This student came from Afghanistan. By the time the observations started, he had already been a resident for seven years. The school records noted that he had had eight years of schooling in Afghanistan and was literate. Although the records do not indicate in which script, it can be assumed to be Arabic. Dari (his mother tongue) and Farsi (his second language) both use the Arabic script. Of the other students, four came from east African countries (two from Sudan and two from Somalia) and one from Kosovo. The African women were recent arrivals, having lived in the Netherlands only one to two years before starting the language class. Two of these students (students 2 and 3) had had a few years of education, six and seven years respectively. Student 3 was noted to be literate. Although the script was not specified, it can be assumed that she was literate in the Roman script. Acholi, her mother tongue, uses the Roman alphabet. Student 2, who had had six years of L1 schooling, was noted not to be literate. Coming from a war-torn country, Somalia, her schooling was most probably fragmented, hampering the learning of a L1 script. The young woman from Kosovo was already a resident for five years. She had never had any schooling nor was L1 literate. This was a relatively young group of students with a mean age of 27 years, the youngest being 20 years old, and the oldest 38. The mean years of L1 schooling was 4 years and in total 67% were non-literate.

Table 4:9 Student characteristics for Class 4 (2007).

Student	Gender[a]	Age	Marital status[b]	Country of origin	L1[c]	LOR (yrs)	L1 schooling	L1 literacy[d]
1	f	38	Single	Sudan	Acholi English*	0.2	No	No
2	f	22	Married*	Somalia	Somali	1	6 years	No
3	f	36	Married*	Sudan	Acholi English*	0.5	7 years	(Roman)
4	m	24	Single	Afghanistan	Dari Farsi*	6	8 years	(Arabic)
5	f	20	Married*	Somalia	Somali	1	No	No
6	f	21	Single	Kosovo	Albanian	4	No	No
Total means		27				2	4	67% illiterate

[a] f = female; m = male

[b] Those marked with an asterisk also have children living at home.

[c] The language marked with an asterisk is the second language spoken.

[d] No script was specified in the school records. The assumed script is given in parenthesis.

Table 4:10 gives an overview of the previous and current DSL courses of the students in Class 4. Students 1, 2, and 3 had had no previous DSL schooling, while students 4, 5, and 6 had taken an introductory WIN language course. These three students along with student 2 started the current course on the same date, August 14, 2006. The other two students joined the class shortly after, in December 2006 and January 2007. The rate of attendance was high with a mean of 85%.

Table 4:10 Student DSL schooling history for Class 4 (2007).

Student	Previous DSL schooling			Current DSL course	
	Start	End	Hours/level	Start	Attendance rate
1	No	n/a	n/a	12-2006	95
2	No	n/a	n/a	08-2006	87
3	No	n/a	n/a	01-2007	94
4	10-2005	07-2006	>600 WIN[a]	08-2006	70
5	04-2006	04-2006	600 WIN	08-2006	85
6	12-2003	08-2006	>600 WIN	08-2006	81
Total mean					85

[a] Introductory course of 600 hours plus extra, not specified.

4.3.5 Class 5

Classes 5 and 6 were specialized classes. Eligibility to participate in these classes was restricted to minority women who were long-term residents in the Netherlands and had a poor command of Dutch due to their limited contact outside the immediate family. Schooling was geared to participation in the society and life skills. In order to stimulate participation, the classrooms for both classes were located in or near the students' own neighborhood. As a result, most of the students could walk to school. Each class is discussed separately.

Initially thirteen students were in Class 5. Because of absence, nine students (69%) eventually partook in both the pre- and/or post-assessment. The characteristics of these nine students are presented in Table 4:11. All the women in this class came from Morocco and most even from the same village or district. The mean age was 45 years; the youngest was 41 years old and the oldest 56 years. Seven students were long-term residents of thirteen or more years. Two students (numbers 6 and 7) had lived just five years in the Netherlands. The mean length of residence was 14 years. Only two students (numbers 6 and 7) had had some L1 schooling. The school records noted four years for each. One of these students was also reported to be literate in Arabic, but this was refuted by the student during the pre-assessment interview. The remaining eight students were not L1 literate.

Table 4:11 Student characteristics for Class 5 (2007).

Student	Gender [a]	Age	Marital status[b]	Country of origin	L1[c]	LOR (yrs)	L1 schooling	L1 literacy
1	f	43	Married*	Morocco	Berber	12	No	No
2	f	45	Married*	Morocco	Berber Arabic*	15	No	No
3	f	41	Married*	Morocco	Berber	23	No	No
4	f	56	Married*	Morocco	Berber	16	No	No
5	f	42	Married*	Morocco	Berber	20	No	No
6	f	42	Married*	Morocco	Berber Arabic* French*	4	4 years	Arabic
7	f	46	Married*	Morocco	Berber	4	4 years	No
8	f	42	Married*	Morocco	Berber	19	No	No
9	f	47	Married*	Morocco	Berber	14	No	No
Total mean		45				14	1 year	89% illiterate

[a] f = female

[b] Those marked with an asterisk also have children living at home.

[c] The language marked with an asterisk is the second language spoken.

As shown in Table 4:12, the information concerning previous DSL schooling is very fragmentary. Only student 7 was noted to have completed a WIN course. Students 2, 4, and 5 had had some DSL schooling, but no exact dates were given. The learning levels were expressed by enumerating the completed chapters of the literacy textbook. Six students started the current course at the beginning of the school year in September 2005. Student 9 joined in November of the same year and students 6 and 8 joined the class a year later, in September 2006. In general their DSL schooling was very fragmented, often spread over of number a years with intervals of no schooling. This class had a high the rate of attendance of 82%. Student 1 had even attended all the lessons, giving an attendance rate of 100%.

Table 4:12 Student DSL schooling history for Class 5 (2007).

Student	Previous DSL schooling			Current DSL course	
	Start	End	Hours/level	Start	Attendance rate
1	No data	No data	No data	09-2005	100
2	2004	2005	No data	09-2005	98
3	No data	No data	No data	09-2005	78
4	2004	2005	No data	09-2005	47
5	2001 [a]	2005	No data	09-2005	80
6	No data	No data	No data	09-2006	93
7	2002	2003/2005	>600 WIN [b]	09-2005	81
8	No data	No data	No data	09-2006	75
9	No data	No data	No data	11-2005	83
Total mean					82

[a] This student stopped DSL schooling between 2003 and 2004.
[b] Introductory course of 600 hours plus extra, not specified.

4.3.6 Class 6

In Class 6, there were 11 students at the start of the observation period. Of these students, due to absence or course completion, six students had taken part in both the pre- and post-assessment, 55%. The characteristics of these six students are presented in Table 4:13. As was the case for Class 5, Class 6 also was solely composed of Moroccan women. The mean age was 43 years. The youngest student was 36 years old and the oldest 56 years. Four students were long-time residents of more than 15 years. The remaining two students had a length of residence of six years. The mean length of residence was 14 years. None of the students had had any L1 education nor were they L1 literate.

Table 4:13 Student characteristics for Class 6 (2007).

Student	Gender [a]	Age	Marital status [b]	Country of origin	L1	LOR (yrs)	L1 schooling	L1 literacy
1	f	38	Married*	Morocco	Berber	6	No	No
2	f	42	Married*	Morocco	Berber	22	No	No
3	f	56	Widow*	Morocco	Berber	15	No	No
4	f	36	Married*	Morocco	Berber	18	No	No
5	f	37	Married*	Morocco	Berber	16	No	No
6	f	47	Married*	Morocco	Berber	6	No	No
Total mean		43				14	0	100% illiterate

[a] f = female
[b] Those marked with an asterisk also have children living at home.

Table 4:14 shows the DSL schooling history. Just as for Class 5, the information on previous DSL schooling was very incomplete. All the students seem to have had some DSL schooling prior to the current course. Student 1 had completed an introductory WIN course plus some extra schooling. In the end, she was tested using a Nivor test for which she achieved a level 1 for the oral skills. Student 4, after having had one and a half years of schooling was apparently also tested, but the type of test was not specified. This student achieved a level A1for the oral skills and A1- for the literacy skills. It is not clear if the levels quoted for these two students are based on the same rating scales. For student 5 only the materials used in the course were listed. All the students started the current course during the calendar year 2006. Three started before the summer break and three in the following school year. The rate of attendance was high with a mean of 81%.

Table 4:14 Student DSL schooling history for Class 6 (2007).

Student	Previous DSL schooling			Current DSL course	
	Start [a]	End	Hours/level	Start	Attendance rate
1	01-2002	07-2005	>600 WIN; Nivor level 1 oral skills	02-2006	79
2	2 years	No data	No data	06-2006	75
3	Yes	No data	No data	06-2006	84
4	03-2004	12-2005	Oral skills A1, literacy skills A1-	11-2006	76
5	2 years	No data	No data	11-2006	79
6	Yes	No data	No data	10-2006	90
Total mean					81

[a] 'Yes' indicates that there was some previous DSL schooling, but dates and hours/level were not specified.

4.4 The literacy teacher

In adult education the majority of the teachers are women. This was also the case for the observed six DSL classes; all the teachers were women. Table 4:15 summarizes each teacher's profile. These teachers, who readily opened their classes for observation, were no beginners in the field of education having had several years of experience in second language teaching. The mean age was high, 52 years. The youngest teacher was 35 years old and the oldest 60. All the teachers had had a high level of education. Four teachers had a bachelor's degree and two a master's degree. Four teachers had a degree in a field related to education. All the teachers had had some type of training for teaching DSL, but their knowledge about teaching adult L2

literacy came mainly from practical experience. Only two teachers had had some in-service literacy training. All the teachers were native speakers of Dutch and, having had Dutch schooling, all the teachers also had ample knowledge of English and usually also German and/or French. As a result, they were able to use these languages to facilitate communication in their classrooms. One teacher was also fluent in Berber. All the teachers had taught various levels of DSL, but expressed that literacy had their preference.

Table 4:15 Teacher profile (2007).

			Education			Languages spoken[b]		Teaching experience (in years)		
Class	Gender[a]	Age	Highest degree	DSL training	Literacy training	L1	L2	Adult DSL	Adult literacy	Other language related
1	f	50	Bachelor's sociology	yes	Practical experience	D	EFG	3	3	no
2	f	58	Master's special education	yes	Practical experience; in-service training	D	EFG	8	6	no
3	f	57	Master's Dutch language/ literature	yes	Practical experience	D	EFG	22	20	yes
4	f	60	Bachelor's education	yes	Practical experience	D	EFG	18	4	yes
5	f	35	Bachelor's social work/ basic education	yes	Practical experience; in-service training	D	EF Berber	10	8	no
6	f	50	Bachelor's labor relations	yes	Practical experience	D	EFG	7	3	no

[a] f=female [b] D=Dutch, E=English, F= French, G=German.

4.5 Characterizing the classes

In this final section, the main distinctive features that characterize these six literacy classes are presented. Certain characteristics of these learners were basic to the group as a whole and others characterized the individual classes. Of these basic characteristics being non-literate, in the first language was the foremost reason these learners formed a separate group within the centers of adult education. Being non-literate implied that the learners had virtually had no previous schooling experience. The lack of learning skills, normally developed during the early years of schooling, could seriously hamper the

learning process in a formal school setting. Written materials could only be used to a limited extent, even if the basic decoding skills had been mastered. Apart from these impeding factors of literacy and schooling, non-literate learners were also confronted with yet another problem – that of receiving instruction through the target language. Instructions and explanations of vocabulary or grammar could be misconstrued or even not comprehended at all (Van de Craats, 2000). In short, the distinguishing characteristics of being non-literate in the first language and having had no or limited formal education in the country of origin typified the students in all the literacy classes.

Even though the students in the classes had comparable characteristics, the organization of the individual classes did differ. From the survey of literacy classes, described in chapter 3, emerged distinct differences in language skills organization with respect to the time allotted for the oral and literacy skills practice. Three basic types of organization were identified and subsequently labelled Type 1, Type 2, and Type 3. For the present study, two classes from each type were selected, each differing in size, location, and student population (see Table 3:10 and Figure 3:1). Next to the three types of language skills organization, the classes were also subject to certain placement criteria: standard and specialized placement. For classes referred to as standard classes, all the students were eligible to participate, particularly those still under obligation of the immigration policy. For the specialized classes, participation was restricted to minority women who were long-term residents in the Netherlands, had an inadequate command of Dutch, and had limited contact with the Dutch society. Of the selected six classes, four were standard literacy classes (Classes 1, 2, 3 and 4) and two were specialized classes (Classes 5 and 6). The standard classes were Types 1 and 2 classes. The specialized classes were Type 3 classes. This difference in placement criteria along with other characteristics indicates that Classes 1, 2, 3, and 4 had more in common with each other than with Classes 5 and 6. The ensuing discussion revolves around those features characterizing these two main groups of classes. Table 4:16 summarizes the characteristics of age, gender, country of origin and schooling background for these six classes.

Table 4:16 Characteristics of the 41 assessed students per class (2007).

Classes (type)	Gender[a]	Age	Country of origin	LOR (yrs)	(yrs) L1 schooling	% Non-literate	% DSL schooling	Attendance rate
1 (1)	7f	39	various	7	1	57	43	76
2 (1)	7f;1m	36	various	8	3	63	75	66
3 (2)	4f;1m	35	various	2	1	60	100	75
4 (2)	5f;1m	27	various	2	4	67	50	85
5 (3)	9f	45	Morocco	14	1	89	44	82
6 (3)	6f	43	Morocco	14	0	100	100	81
Means		38		8	2	73	67	78

[a] f = female; m = male

In all the classes a vast majority were women, 93%. In the standard classes (Classes 1, 2, 3, and 4) open to both genders, 88% were women. This was more by chance than by choice. In the two specialized classes (Classes 5 and 6), the students were preselected according to specific municipal regulations geared to minority women. Consequently, only women were present in these classes.

The mean age of all the students was 38 years. The students in Classes 1, 2, 3, and 4 were somewhat younger, having a mean age of 34 years. The students in Class 4 formed the youngest group with a mean age of 27 years. The mean age in the two specialized classes, (Classes 5 and 6) was notably higher, respectively 45 and 43 years, with a mean of 44 years. All the fifteen students in the specialized classes were, by chance, from Morocco. The students in the four standard classes originated from nine different countries: five from Morocco, two from Turkey, nine from Afghanistan, three from Somalia, three from Sudan, one from Togo, one from Iraq, one from China, and one from Kosovo. The mean length of residence for all the classers was 8 years. Again, there is a difference between the standard and specialized classes. The mean length of residence in Classes 1, 2, 3, and 4 was 5 years. For Classes 5 and 6 it was almost three times as long, 14 years.

This dichotomy between the classes also is evident in the schooling background. The mean number of years of L1 schooling in all the classes was very low, 2 years. In the standard classes it was somewhat higher, a little more than 2 years and in the specialized classes this was less than one year. In total 73% were non-literate. For those who were literate, their level of L1 literacy was not assessed. One student in Class 5 was reported to be literate in the L1 (although she denied this during the pre-assessment interview). In Class 6, all the students were reported to be illiterate in the L1.

Most of the students were false beginners and had had some type of previous L2 schooling before entering this beginner's course. Only a few were noted to be real beginners: in Class 1, two students; in Class 2, one student; and in Class, 4, three students. For the false beginners no levels of learning were noted. Sometimes, the course materials and the completed chapters of the basic literacy textbook were listed.

Table 4:17 highlights the features of length of residence and the type of placement criteria involved. Again a contrast between the standard and specialized classes becomes evident. In Table 4:17 the length of residence is split into two categories, the long-term residents and the recent arrivals. The total number of long-term residents and recent arrivals for all six classes do not differ greatly, 19 (46%) long-term residents and 22 (54%) recent arrivals. Looking at the two groups of classes separately, differences do surface. In Classes 1, 2, 3, and 4 there were in total six (23%) long-term residents. The remaining twenty students (77%) were recent arrivals. In comparison, notably more students in Classes 5 and 6 were long-term residents, thirteen students (89%). There were only two students (11%) in the specialized classes who were recent arrivals. Both of these students were in Class 5. The students for the standard classes were at the start of this research still subject to the WIN regulations. Consequently, most of these students were recent arrivals. The students for the special classes were selected on the basis of residency (which was usually long-term), gender, and L2 language factors.

Table 4:17 Class composition in terms of length of residence, student age, and type of placement criteria, in number and percentages (%).

	LOR		Criteria student placement	
Class	Long-term residents	Recent arrivals	Standard criteria	Special criteria
1	2 (29)	5 (71)	x	
2	2 (25)	6 (75)	x	
3	1 (20)	4 (80)	x	
4	1 (17)	5 (83)	x	
5	7 (78)	2 (22)		x
6	6 (100)	0		x
Totals (%)	19 (46)	22 (54)		

The two groups of classes also differed in the settings where the teaching took place. Table 4:18 gives an overview of the type of building, the facilities available at that location, as well as the availability of a class assistant. The standard classes were all situated in buildings with an educational purpose. Classes 1, 2, and 3 were situated in school buildings for vocational education. Class 4 was situated in a building for which the ground floor was especially adapted for DSL education. Having classes located in a

school building made it possible for students as well as teachers to make use of a variety of facilities available in the building, such as special study facilities, educational staff, and properly equipped classrooms. All the standard classes had easy access to computers, either they were present in the classrooms or they could be consulted in an OLC. If the computers were in the classroom, they were connected to a central network from which the necessary programs could be downloaded. Class 1 had two computers and Class 3 had seven computers in the classroom. Classes 2 and 4 and Class 3 could make use of the OLC located in the school building. Today, it is almost inconceivable that L2 and L2 literacy education can occur without the support of a computer. This is especially true for the teaching and learning of the literacy skills, but even for the oral skills, a computer is an essential tool. Classes 5 and 6 had no access to computers for educational purposes.

Table 4:18 Location and classroom facilities per class

	Location		Facilities			
Class	Educational institution	Community center	Computer available	Teacher staff support in situ	Separate student/teacher canteen	Classroom assistant
1	x		Yes	Yes	Yes	No
2	x		Yes	Yes	No	No
3	x		Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
4	x		Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
5		x	No	No	No	Yes
6		x	No	No	No	No

Having the classrooms within an established educational institution also implied easy contact with colleagues and staff, an advantageous asset for the teachers. They could confer with colleagues and ask for information concerning student or teacher affairs from the administrative or educational staff. This was the situation for all the standard classes. In addition, the teachers of the standard classes had easy access to a variety of educational materials. Finally, the availability of a separate canteen gave the students and teachers a moment of relaxation to talk among themselves. For Class 2 there was no separate canteen for the students and the teachers. The teachers gathered around a reserved table in the corner of the spacious canteen.

In contrast, Classes 5 and 6 were both located in community centers where a room was designated for teaching purposes. Being located in a multi-purpose building meant that the specialized classes did not have access to a number of facilities. Although CD-players and televisions for viewing videos were on hand on request, there were no computers for teacher or

student use. In these community centers there was a general canteen open to all users of the center. The community center housing Class 5 was small, and the canteen was often unoccupied allowing Class 5 the possibility of a relaxed break. The community center housing Class 6 was much larger, as was the canteen. Because other groups were often present, Class 6 opted to have its break in the classroom. At break time the teacher left the room to fetch the drinks for the students, while the students waited in the classroom. Other facilities such as educational or administrative staff or educational materials were not available in the community centers for Classes 5 and 6. If the teacher wished to confer with a college or a member of the administrative staff or consult educational materials she would have to go to the main building of the educational institution. For these two classes the main buildings were not within walking distance.

Lastly, the availability of a classroom assistant was not a common occurrence. In literacy education, teaching and learning is a time consuming process and often individual guidance is essential. For this, an assistant can be an invaluable asset. Classes 3, 4, and 5 had the use of a classroom assistant. The assistant in Class 5 was a student training for her university degree in DSL, and was temporary. The assistants in Classes 3 and 4 were permanent and employed by the school. In these last two classes the assistants were an essential part of the teaching process whereas the assistant in Class 5 was a participant observer.

The most pronounced difference between all the classes surfaced when looking at classroom hours. Not only were there remarkable differences in the number of scheduled classroom hours, but also in the mean number of attended classroom hours. The mean number of attended hours was a direct result of the rate of student attendance. Table 4:19 gives an overview of the scheduled classroom hours, the mean rate of attendance, and the resulting mean number of attended classroom hours for the 30-week observation period.

Table 4:19 Scheduled classroom hours and attendance for the oral skills during the 30-week observation period.

Class	Scheduled oral skills classroom hours	Attendance rate	Attended classroom hours
1	135.00	0.86	116.10
2	180.00	0.66	118.80
3	150.00	0.75	112.50
4	82.50	0.85	70.13
5	150.00	0.82	123.00
6	330.00	0.81	267.30

One point must first be made clear. There is an important difference between the standard classes and the specialized classes when talking about language skills organization in relation to the allotted classroom hours for the oral and the literacy skills. The number of scheduled classroom hours for Classes 1, 2, 3, and 4 were hours specifically reserved for the practice of the oral skills and literacy skills separately. This was not the case for Classes 5 and 6. The number of scheduled hours given for those classes was the total number of classroom hours available for both skills. In those classes the teacher determined the amount of time to be spent on the oral and the literacy skills. This was not a fixed amount, but could vary from lesson to lesson. In chapter 7 on classroom results, a distinction is made between scheduled and actual classroom hours. Nevertheless (and leaving this distinction until later) two classes stand out, Classes 4 and 6. Class 4 had on schedule 82.50 classroom hours for oral skills practice. The mean rate of attendance was 0.85. This meant that a mean of 70.37 classroom hours for oral skills practice were attended. In contrast, Class 6 had a maximum of 330 scheduled classroom hours available for the oral skills, four times the number of classroom hours for Class 4 and almost twice the number for Class 2. With an attendance rate of 0.81, this resulted in a mean of 267.30 total classroom hours that were attended by the students. Even if the teacher for Class 6 had spent half of the total classroom hours on the oral skills, which would be 165 scheduled classroom hours and a mean of 133.65 classroom hours attended, the number of hours for the oral skills would still have been almost twice that of Class 4. Class 2 had the second highest number of scheduled classroom hours, but a lower rate of attendance, 0.66, giving a mean of 118.00 classroom hours attended. The difference in scheduled classroom hours for Classes 1, 2, and 3 became insignificant when the rate of attendance was taken into account. In general there is a relatively high rate of attendance, a mean of 0.78.

Chapter 5
Classroom data

The classroom data was compiled from direct observation and audio recordings of teacher-student interactions in the six classrooms. The analysis of the data focused on two main dimensions of the classroom: learning and teaching. Both are evident in classroom organization and classroom didactics. Classroom organization was seen through the division of time during classroom practices, and classroom didactics was seen through the interactions and feedback. To facilitate the analysis of these two dimensions three observation schemes were constructed: Scheme A, classroom instructional organization; Scheme B, classroom instructional interaction; and Scheme C, classroom corrective feedback. Scheme C, focusing only on corrective feedback, is a subset of Scheme B, which focuses on all types of teacher feedback. The construction of these schemes was based on the COLT observation scheme (see section 2.4.3). As argued in chapter 2 flexibility of the scheme has proven advantageous in product as well as process oriented research and can easily be adapted to specific needs (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995). The format, categories, and coding procedure of the COLT scheme were all basic to the three observation schemes for this study. The matrix type format reduces subjectivity in interpreting the categories. No labels such as adequate, outstanding, or seldom, evidenced in schemes previous to COLT, were used.

The purpose of Scheme A was to map out the general pedagogical practices of the teacher in terms of time spent on certain lesson components. These practices encompassed instructional and organizational categories, including such features as content focus (e.g. vocabulary and grammar), teacher talk, group work, and textbook use. Schemes B and C focus on classroom interaction. In other words, they focus on the verbal exchanges in the classroom that took place between the teacher and the student. The categories in Scheme B reflect the main surface features of classroom interaction characterized by the triadic exchange cycle and types of questions involved. The development and the use of this cycle in classroom teaching, also referred to as the IRF exchange, is described in section 2.4.2. Scheme C focuses specifically on those interactions that have a corrective purpose. The categories in this scheme reflect the corrective feedback cycle: trigger, feedback, and student uptake. Developments entailing corrective feedback are discussed in section 2.4.4. The chapter opens with section 5.1, describing the criteria for the selection of the lessons analyzed by each

observation scheme. Section 5.2 reports on the steps taken for observing the classrooms in action. Section 5.3 describes the transcription and translation procedures. Sections 5.4, 5.5, and 5.6 describe the categories and coding criteria of each observation scheme.

5.1 Data collection

5.1.1 The classes and the teachers

The present study is based on the observations of intact classes. Although student composition within each class fluctuated during the observation time, the teachers remained a constant variable (see also section 4.4 on student placement). For each class, one teacher was observed throughout the observation period. In adult education, it is common that classes are taught by more than one teacher and each teacher is responsible for one or more lessons per week. The teacher observed taught per week an equal number of lessons as her colleague or the majority of the lessons. The teachers of the selected classes are presented in section 4.4, and their profile is given in Table 4:15. In short, next to the consent of the institution, three points were essential: (1) the teacher's willingness to participate and to be observed during the teaching of the oral skills, (2) the classroom organization of the oral skills conforms to the criteria, and (3) the teacher's quality: an excellent reputation in her institution and at least three years of experience teaching adult literacy classes. Each class was observed once a month, covering a period of 30 weeks. Classes 3, 4, 5, and 6 were observed eight times, and Class 2, nine times. The teacher for Class 1 transferred to another teaching position near the close of the observation period. Consequently, her class was observed only six times. Table 5:1 gives an overview of these observation hours.

Table 5:1 Number of lessons and hours observed and transcribed for each class.

Class	Lesson duration in hours	Lessons observed and recorded	Lessons transcribed	Total hours observed	Total hours transcribed
1	1.50	6	3	9.00	4.50
2	1.50	9	3	13.50	4.50
3	1.25	8	3	10.00	3.75
4	1.50	8	3	12.00	4.50
5	2.50	8	3	20.00	7.50
6	2.75	8	3	22.00	8.25
Totals		47	18	86.50	33.00

5.1.2 Observation Scheme A

The aim of Observation Scheme A is to draw a general picture of classroom practices for each class making it possible to compare the classes in terms of hours and percentages spent on selected instructional and organizational categories. The domains on which Scheme A focused were: content focus, participant interaction, participant organization, and materials. A description of these domains, its categories, and coding procedures using Scheme A are given in section 5.4. As Table 5:1 shows, for the data collection three entire lessons from each class were selected from the body of observed and audio recorded lessons. In the selection of these three lessons, two features were of central importance: (1) the lessons would show, over time, didactical variation on the part of the teacher and language development on the part of the student; and (2) the lessons would give a characteristic picture of each class. For the first point, three lessons were chosen covering the 30-week time span of the observation period. This meant that for each class one lesson was chosen at the beginning of the observation period, one in the middle, and one at the end. At the same time the second point had to be taken into account – are the lessons representative of that class? Having observed a substantial number of lessons for each class, it could be determined if the lessons were exemplary of that class in terms of organization, content, and pedagogy. For example, at one time Class 3 was joined by another class whose teacher was absent. The teacher of Class 3 had to adapt her lesson to accommodate the situation. This obstruction to the daily program resulted in an atypical lesson. Although this lesson was observed and audio recorded, it was not selected to be transcribed, and consequently, not analyzed. Finally, these eighteen lessons (three for each of the six classes) were transcribed and coded using Scheme A. The data surfacing from the analysis was then extrapolated to the 30-week observation period. The results are presented in chapter 7.

5.1.3 Observation Schemes B and C

The practice of the oral skills was more closely scrutinised through the use of Scheme B (classroom instructional interaction) and Scheme C (classroom corrective feedback) focusing on the four areas of instruction coded in Scheme A under the domain of content focus: vocabulary, grammar, restricted discourse (RD), and unrestricted discourse (URD). These fragments represented form-focused and meaning-focused instruction. The form-focused lesson fragments were those during the practice of vocabulary and grammar. The meaning-focused lesson fragments were those during RD and URD. LSK (Life Skills Knowledge) was not analyzed for interaction

using Scheme B or C as the teacher was the primary speaker. A description of the domains/categories and coding procedures using Scheme B are given in section 5.5 and using Scheme C in section 5.6.

Table 5:2 gives an overview of the lessons (date and time span) used for Scheme B and Scheme C. In order to be able to demonstrate variation in the teachers' pedagogy, two lessons of each type of practice were analyzed – one at the beginning of the observation period and one at the end, and if possible, with an interval of at least five months between the two lessons. For the selection of lesson fragments covering these four areas of instruction, the beginning and end lessons transcribed for Scheme A were first screened for suitable fragments. If no such fragments were present, then the other observed lessons were screened. These are printed in bold in Table 5:2. In addition, in order to be able to evidence the teacher's style of instruction, an attempt was made to cover a continuous time span of at least ten minutes for each fragment. As this was not always possible for all the practice sessions, those which took ample amount of time (such as during vocabulary practice) were transcribed for a longer span of time.

Table 5:2 Dates and time spans of lesson fragments analysed for Observation Schemes B and C (date: month-day-year; time span in whole minutes; bold=lessons not taken from Scheme A; RD=restricted discourse; URD=unrestricted discourse. Dates in bold indicate additional selected lesson fragments).

Practice sessions	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Class 6	Totals (mean)
Vocabulary 1							
Date	04-25-07	11-13-06	04-19-07	11-22-06	11-16-06	03-22-07	
Time span	17	20	17	14	9	10	87 (14.5)
Vocabulary 2							
Date	10-29-07	**04-23-07**	11-06-07	**05-09-07**	02-06-07	**10-01-07**	
Time span	13	11	19	10	20	10	83 (13.8)
Grammar 1							
Date	**03-26-07**	**12-18-06**	04-19-07	01-17-07	11-16-06	03-22-07	
Time span	10	8	4	11	9	10	52 (8.7)
Grammar 2							
Date	04-25-07	05-23-07	**10-02-07**	**02-14-07**	**04-03-07**	**10-01-07**	
Time span	10	10	10	5	8	10	53 (8.8)
RD 1							
Date	02-19-07	11-13-06	**10-16-07**	**12-13-06**	11-16-06	05-21-07	
Time span	10	7	7	4	9	11	48 (8.0)
RD 2							
Date	**10-08-07**	05-23-07	11-06-07	05-30-07	05-22-07	**10-15-07**	
Time span	10	10	4	12	3	6	45 (7.5)
URD 1							
Date	02-19-07	11-13-06	05-31-07	11-22-06	11-16-06	05-21-07	
Time span	6	8	10	8	3	11	46 (7.7)
URD 2							
Date	10-29-07	05-23-07	11-06-07	05-30-07	05-22-07	**10-15-07**	
Time span	8	10	2	9	10	9	48 (8.0)
Totals (mean)	84 (10.5)	84 (10.5)	73 (9.1)	73 (9.1)	71 (8.9)	77 (9.6)	462 (9.6)

In total 48 lesson fragments were analyzed for Schemes B and C – two lessons for each of the four areas of instruction. As Table 5:2 indicates, only four practice sessions were not separated by a time span of more than five months. These were: Class 1 and 4 for grammar, Class 3 for RD, and Class 5 for vocabulary. Table 5:2 also indicates that lesson fragments for vocabulary practice were either plentiful and/or practiced for longer continuous periods of time, whereas those for RD and URD were much less frequently found and/or occurred for shorter periods of connected time. The latter particularly applied to URD. The occurrence was substantial, but a continuous span of time was not always easy to find. At times, particularly during URD episodes for Class 5, the interactions were chaotic, making it difficult, and at times, almost impossible to transcribe.

5.2 Observation procedure

Before the observation period commenced, the teachers were informed about the general objectives of this study, its duration, publication of information, and aspects of privacy.
Furthermore, the researcher also inquired about each teacher's educational background, training, and teaching experience in adult literacy (see section 4.4). Subsequently, observation and student pre-assessment dates were set. During the first visit to the class the teacher introduced the researcher and the researcher explained to the students the reason for her class visits. In order to put the students at ease, the researcher made clear that she, as a former teacher, understood that learning a second language as an adult is a difficult and time consuming process. Secondly, she described globally the purpose of her study. She explained that she was interested in what goes on in the classroom when the students are working on their oral skills and that the observations would focus on organization and types of activities. The researcher also told the students that as an aid for her memory, the lessons would be recorded. Finally, she made clear that personal names would not be used so that identities could not be traced. No further details about the study were given.

For the audio recordings an MP3 recording device was used. This device, not bigger than a large broche, was pinned to the teacher's upper garment at shoulder level where it would not hinder her movements during teaching. In this way her voice and that of her students could be clearly heard in the recording. However, it did not capture the voices of individual learners when working in groups, unless the teacher was attending the group. The teachers prepared their lessons as usual. The researcher, as a nonparticipant observer, sat as unobtrusively as possible at the rear of the classroom observing and taking notes. The only intrusion on the lesson program was the intermittent presence of the researcher and the MP3 recording device. As soon as the teacher was ready to start the lesson, the audio recording device was turned on. When the teacher concluded the lesson the recording device was turned off. This was also the case when there was a break halfway through the lesson. Scheduled time and classroom teaching time is discussed further under classroom time management in section 7.1.1. No video recordings were made of the lessons. This decision was based on objections expressed by students in two classes. Those students disapproved strongly to the making of any type of visual registration, including photographs and visual recordings.

Even though care was taken not to intrude on classroom procedures, one is never sure if the presence of the researcher influences classroom behaviour, making the situation less representative. On this *observer's*

paradox, Labov, who coined the term in 1972, remarked that: "the aim of linguistic research in the community must be to find out how people talk when they are not being systematically observed; yet we can only obtain this data by systematic observation" (Labov, 1972, p. 209). In line with this paradox, a *Hawthorne effect* or a *Rosenthal effect*[41] was also always present. Although these effects cannot be entirely eliminated, they can be diminished by alleviating any doubts the students might have. In the case of this study, the students and the teachers were informed that the research project did not stand under any governmental control or scrutiny, and consequently, no accountability would be required. This was crucial for these immigrants.

5.3 Transcription process

Different approaches can be taken in transcribing audio recordings. For this study, the transcriptions of the interactions were basically simple, broad transcriptions. In other words, they were orthographic representations of the interaction showing only the words uttered. Such transcriptions were deemed sufficient for obtaining an insight into the learning and teaching in the classroom, as Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) stress, details not relevant to the research purpose should not be included in a transcription (p. 28). In those cases where auditory aspects of an interaction, such as intonation and stress, were essential for interpretation, then the original audio recordings were consulted.

Two types of translation approaches were used in rendering the Dutch into English, one was a general translation and the other a more detailed one using a glossing technique. The general translation approach was adopted for those examples where meaning was paramount to linguistic structure.[42] This approach was applied for the examples cited in chapter 7. Example (5.1) shows a teacher's question interrupted by a student's response. To show that the teacher could not complete her question the terminator +/? was used. The question was not translated word for word; instead a general rendering of the Dutch was given.

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41 A Hawthorne effect on an experiment means that changes in the behavior of the subjects can occur merely because they are being studied. A Rosenthal effect is the influence expectations can have on the results of an experiment: the higher the expectations, the higher the performances. The opposite can also occur: the lower the expectations, the lower the performances.

42 The transcription symbols used were derived from the CHAT transcription codes used in the Childes project (MacWhinney, 2000). The abbreviations and symbols used in the translations of the examples are given following the list of abbreviations.

(5.1) *General translation of a Dutch text*

Teacher: *Hoe heet onze* +/?	T: What is the name of our +/?
Student: *Maxima.*	S: Maxima.

The second type of translation used the three-lined interlinear glossing approach following the Leipzig glossing rules.[43] This approach was used when it was necessary to analyze a text according to its linguistic structure, as were the examples cited in chapter 6. At times it was necessary to give the target form to show that the student's utterance did not correspond to that target. Example (5.2) is a three-lined interlinear glossed text with the target.

(5.2) *Three-lined interlinear glossed translation with target sentence*

Vrouw	*lezen.*	(target: De vrouw leest.)
woman	read.INF	
'The woman reads.'		

5.4 Observation Scheme A: Classroom instructional organization

Observation Scheme A is pedagogically oriented. It is divided into four domains: content focus, participant interaction, participant organization, and materials. Scheme A, reproduced in Figure 5:1, was coded from the transcriptions of the recordings of the observed three lessons.

Class + lesson	Timer (hr-min-sec)	CONTENT DESCRIPTION	CLASSROOM DOMAINS																	
				Content focus					Participant interaction				Participant organiza-tion			Materials				
			Procedural time	Vocabulary	Grammar	Restricted discourse	Unrestricted discourse	Life skills knowledge	Teacher talking	Teacher – student/class	Student – student/class	Other	Whole class	Small groups or pairs	Individual	Textbook	Extra materials	Audio	Visual	None
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21

Figure 5:1 Observation Scheme A: Classroom instructional organization

43 Leipzig Glossing Rules were obtained from http://www.eva.mpg.de/lingua/resources/glossing-rules.php, retrieved on December 9, 2013.

The first step in the coding procedure was to fill in the class and lesson codes (column 1). Subsequently, from the transcriptions each activity was briefly described and timed (columns 2 and 3). From there the categories for the five domains were coded. The categories in each domain were mutually exclusive; meaning that only one category per domain could be marked. In some cases, a classroom activity could be characterized by two or more categories. In such an occurrence, the category with the greatest emphasis was marked. For example, in an exercise practicing the plural of new vocabulary, if the words were previously introduced, then *grammar* was marked. But if the words were new at the time of practice, then *vocabulary* was marked. The category *procedural time* (column 4) formed a special case, as it had little to do with classroom didactics and more with time management. The aspect of time management is discussed further with the results in chapter 7. In short, procedural time involved classroom management and occurred during the lesson. This included roll call, interruption by late arrivals, the teacher calling the class to order, and the handing out of lesson material or getting lesson material ready.

5.4.1 Content focus

The teaching of the oral skills in adult literacy education followed the basic principles of CLT by focusing on the functional use of language and its immediate application in realistic situations. This implies that the dichotomy form and meaning are basic to such an approach. For this reason, the definition used in CLT for form and meaning was adhered to (see also section 2.4.4). Form refers to the surface features of an utterance. These could be lexical, grammatical, or phonological. Meaning refers to all aspects of communication – the message of the interaction as well as the appropriateness of the message.

The first two categories under the domain content focus are *vocabulary* (column 5) and *grammar* (column 6). These represent the two main features of form. The following two categories, *RD* (column 7) and *URD* (column 8), represent the feature of language use or meaning. The category vocabulary was marked if the focus of the activity was primarily on learning vocabulary and routines. Routines were viewed as chunks of unanalyzed language that were learned as a whole (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982, p. 232-233). Thus in essence a routine could be viewed as an item of vocabulary. The category grammar was marked if the focus of the activity was primarily on form. This included aspects of inflection and word order, in other words, the morphosyntax. The category RD points to the practice of planned discourse. Such discourse usually consisted of pre-structured or scripted dialogs which were often practiced from memory. The categories

vocabulary, grammar, and RD were also specified according to the ABCD-model in the teaching strategy of Neuner (1981), see section 2.5.

The last two categories under the domain of content focus (columns 8 and 9) are URD and LSK. The language in both of these categories is unplanned and not meant for controlled language practice as seen in the previous categories. URD is free and spontaneous speech such as conversations, discussions, and explanations. The final category, LSK, differs from URD in that it focuses on the building of general knowledge and the developing of awareness of the social environment, often needed in order to understand the contexts of language use. It connects classroom learning with the real world. This includes subject matter of a broader nature such as the concept of time and knowledge of the health system.

5.4.2 Participant interaction

The second domain is *participant interaction*. This domain focused on the participants of an interaction. The following four categories were subsumed under participant interaction: *teacher talking* (column 10), *teacher–student/class* interaction (column 11), *student–student/class* interaction (column 12), and *other* (column 13). In the category teacher talking, the teacher spoke, but did not interact with the class or a student. It usually took place during a whole class activity when the teacher might be explaining (vocabulary, grammar, or a dialog), telling about something (URD or LSK), or summarizing a lesson. In the second category (column 11) teacher–student/class interaction, the teacher was in control of the topic or task in his interaction with a student or the class. He took most of the initiative in such an interaction. A characteristic activity was a question–answer exercise, where the teacher asks and the student responds. In the category (column 12) student–student/class interaction, the student took the initiative and had initial control over his interaction with the class or a fellow student. The final category (column 13) was labelled *other*. Various types of activities were subsumed under this category. Each type was marked with a specific symbol. This included activities involving other modalities than oral interaction (in other words listening, writing, or reading).

5.4.3 Participant organization

The domain *participant organization*[44] deals with how the students were organized during a particular task. This domain included three categories: *whole class* (column 14), *small groups* or pairs (column 15), and *individual*

44 The term ‘participant organization’ is derived from the COLT schemes.

(column 16). Whole class means that the entire class was involved in the same task and the attention of the teacher was primarily directed toward the class as a whole. In the category small groups or pairs, the class was divided into smaller groups of two to four students, each group working on the same task. The teacher directed his attention to each group as a whole. The category individual meant that the students were working individually on a task or were individually interacting with the teacher.

5.4.4 Materials

The final domain, *materials*, indicates which materials were being used during a task or activity. This could be: a basic *textbook* (column 17), *extra materials* (column 18), an *audio* recording (column 19), a *visual* recording (column 20) or *none* (column 21). If textbook was marked, then the task was performed using a textbook as its primary source. Often a specific textbook formed the basis of a course, but regularly extra materials were also used. These extra materials were items such as extra handouts, realia (i.e. leaflets, medicines, or photographs), or materials especially developed for educational purposes (practice clocks, play money, or pictured cue cards). Audio referred to any device for listening only, such as CDs, tapes, or radios. Visual included any device for viewing such as DVDs, videos, or television. An audio activity was solely for practicing listening, while a visual activity involved a combined skill – listening and viewing. Nevertheless, if visual material was used, only visual was marked. If no material was used during a particular task, then the box none was marked.

5.5 Observation Scheme B: Classroom instructional interaction

Observation Scheme B focuses on the interactions between the teacher and the student(s) in the classroom. The scheme is divided into three domains: initiation, response, and feedback. These domains reflect the IRF exchange structure. The role of this structure in classroom teaching is explained in section 2.4.2. Scheme B, reproduced in Figure 5:2, was coded from the transcriptions of the selected interactions.

Class and lesson	Timer (hr-min-sec)	TEACHER – STUDENT INTERACTION	Speaking (teacher or student)	IRF INSTRUCTIONAL INTERACTION														
				Initiation				Response			Feedback							
				Focus: meaning or form	Display: open/closed	Referential: open/closed	Comment or instruction	Response	Repetition	No response	Explicit correction	Negotiation	Acknowledgement	(Partial) repetition	Elicitation	Provided	Comment	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	

Figure 5:2 Observation Scheme B: Classroom instructional interaction

The first step in the coding procedure was to fill in the class and lesson codes (column 1). Subsequently, in column 3 the transcriptions of the selected interactions were given and intermittently the time was noted (column 2). Each utterance of the interaction was placed on a separate line and analyzed according to the domains and its categories. For a number of categories two or three features were possible. Each was coded with a specific letter. These are explained accordingly.

The first column marked after each utterance was column 4, the speaker of the utterance. A *t* was noted for the teacher and an *s* for the student, or if known, the first two letters of the student's initial. Then the three domains of the interaction and their categories follow. The categories for the domains *response* and *feedback* were exclusive; for the domain *initiation*, two categories were marked: focus (column 5) and type of initiation (column 6, 7, or 8).

The first domain in Scheme B is the *initiation* step of the IRF exchange structure. In column 5, the focus of the utterance was marked first. This could be on meaning or form. Meaning was coded *m* and form was coded *f*. The following three categories characterize the type of utterance: a question or a comment. In columns 6 and 7 the type of question asked was coded. Question types could be grouped into two main categories: *display* (column 6) or *referential* (column 7). Display questions inquire about something which is already known by the asker. Such questions are frequently routine type of questions checking for knowledge or understanding. Display questions are also referred to as test or tutorial questions (Ellis, 1990, 1994) or pseudo-requests (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995). Next to display questions stand referential questions. The answers to such

questions are normally not known by the asker beforehand. Referential questions are also referred to as real or genuine questions (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995). Both the display and referential questions can be open- or closed-ended questions. Answers to closed questions are limited, usually only one answer is possible. This could be a simple *yes* or *no* answer or a choice out of a closed set of possibilities. Open-ended questions require more than a mere *yes* or *no* answer. Often they contain wh-questions (who, what, where, when, why, and how.). Open- and closed-ended questions were coded in the respective columns for display and referential questions. Open-ended questions were coded with the letter *o* and the closed-ended questions with the letter *c*. Table 5:3 gives an overview of these question types. If no question was asked, but information was given on an aspect of form or meaning, then column 8, comment, was marked. The initiation of an interaction was usually done by the teacher, but not always. If a student took the initiation, then this was indicated in the scheme by marking the box green.

Table 5:3 Question types illustrated

	Open-ended	Closed-ended
Referential	Why did you buy that book?	Do you like carrots?
Display	What do you see in the picture?	What day is it today?

The second domain, *response*, characterizes the reaction to the initiation – a question or comment. If the reaction is a self-constructed utterance, then the number of words spoken was coded in column 9 as follows: one or two words was termed minimal and coded with the letter *m;* three or four words was termed limited and coded with the letter *l*; more than four words was termed extended and coded with the letter *e*. If the teacher made the response, then an *x* was noted. If the given response was a repetition of a previous utterance (thus not self-constructed), it was marked with an *x* in column 10. In this same column the use of the L1 was marked with an *L1*. Finally, if no response was given, column 11 was marked.

The third domain was *feedback*. Seven types of feedback were coded in this domain. These were marked in columns 12-18. These various types were explained in section 2.4.4. In column 12, *explicit correction*, the teacher makes clear that something in the student's response was wrong and subsequently corrects it. If *negotiation* was used, then this was marked in column 13. The category reinforcement or *acknowledgement* (column 14) indicated some type of approval of the given response. The category (*partial*) *repetition* in column 15 included feedback that repeated a previous response (coded with *x*) as well as feedback that functioned as a recast (coded *r*). The category *elicitation* (column 16) was marked if the teacher

used an elicitation technique to draw out a response without giving the answer. Column 17 was marked if the response to a question was *provided*. The final category, *comment* with no particular focus (column 18) was marked if the initiator continued with the topic at hand giving no feedback to the response. Feedback was usually given by the teacher, but sometimes a student would provide feedback. If this occurred then the box of that response was marked green.

5.6 Observation Scheme C: Classroom corrective feedback

Observation Scheme C focuses on corrective feedback and is a subset of Scheme B. Scheme B includes all types of feedback, corrective as well as non-corrective feedback, whereas Scheme C only includes corrective types of feedback. The texts selected for Scheme C were the same as those used for Scheme B. The scheme is divided into three domains characterizing the three-step feedback sequence: trigger, feedback, and uptake. This feedback structure is explained in section 2.4.4. The scheme is reproduced in Figure 5:3.

Class and lesson	Timer (hr-min-sec)	FEED-BACK INTER-ACTION	Speaking (teacher or student)	FEEDBACK SEQUENCE																					
				Trigger					Feedback											Uptake					
					Focus				Type							Focus				Type			Who		
					Linguistic			Use	Negative Feedback				Negotia-tion			Linguistic Focus			Use						
				Non-understanding	Phonological	Lexical	Grammatical	Language use	Explicit correction	Metalinguistic info.	Elicitation	Recast	Clarification request	Comprehension check	Confirmation check	Phonological	Lexical	Grammatical	Language use	Repair	Needs-repair	No repair	Student	Peer	Topic continuation (s/t)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26

Figure 5:3 Observation Scheme C: Classroom corrective feedback

The first four steps in the coding procedure are the same as those in Schemes A and B.

The first domain concerns the student's *trigger*. Two types of triggers are possible: *non-understanding* or an erroneous reply. A trigger was marked in column 5 as non-understanding if it was evident that the student did not understand what the teacher said. If the student replied, and his reply included some type of error, then the type of error was marked. If it was a linguistic error, it could be marked: phonological (column 6), lexical

(column 7), or grammatical (column 8). If the error is one in meaning or language use then column 9 is marked. Table 5:4 summarizes the types of student triggers with examples from the corpus of the present study. Examples 5, 7, and 9 start with the teacher's question, the source of the trigger.

Table 5:4 Types of triggers defined and illustrated from Scheme C with examples from the present corpus (bold =error).

Scheme column	Trigger type	Definitions	Example (the trigger in bold)
5	Non- or mis-understanding	A trigger is termed non-understanding when there is some overt indication in the student's utterance that understanding of the teacher (the source) has not been complete (Varonis & Gass, 1985).	T: *Jane hoe noemen wij zaterdag en zondag samen?* Jane how do we call Saturday and Sunday together? S: ***dertien***. thirteen. [C1:1]
6	Phonological	Phonological errors pertain to those involving pronunciation and intonation.	S: *De jongen **slij** [/] **slij** +/.* The boy slip[/] slip +/. T: *Snijdt.* . Snips. S: *Snijdt.* Snips. [C1:1]
7	Lexical	A lexical trigger involves errors in the choice of vocabulary.	T: *Woensdag, wat komt er na woensdag, Malika?* Wednesday, what follows after Wednesday, Malika? S: ***Maandag***. Monday. [C1:1]
8	Grammatical	A grammatical error includes all incorrect used features of a language that are not overtly phonological or lexical. It includes errors involving morphology, syntax and/or sentence-grammar semantics.	S: *Ik eten brood.* I eat.INF bread. T: *Ja, probeer ook kort. Eet, niet eten.* Try to make it short. Eat, not to eat. [C1:1]
9	Language use	Language use involves functional and sociolinguistic knowledge which, when incorrectly used, result in producing the wrong communicative effect.	T: *Kunt u woensdagmiddag*? How about Wednesday afternoon? S: *Ja, **dit** is goed.* Yes, this is fine. T: *Dat is goed*. That is fine. [C1:1]

Linguistic error

The second domain is *feedback*. This domain is divided into two main categories: type and focus. Type is again subdivided into negative feedback (includeing explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and recast) in columns 10, 11, 12, and 13; and negotiation (clarification request, comprehension check, and confirmation check) in columns 14, 15, and 16. The four subcategories under negative feedback run parallel to those cited in the study by Lyster and Ranta (1997). If the teacher repeats a student's erroneous utterance, using emphasis to alert the student to his error, then this is also marked as explicit correction (Han 2004; Hellermann, 2003; Spada & Lightbown, 1993). The focus of the feedback (columns 17, 18, 19, and 20) runs parallel to the focus of the trigger. In Table 5:5 the categories under the domain feedback are defined and illustrated with examples from the corpus of this present study.

Table 5:5 Corrective feedback, defined and illustrated from Scheme C with examples from the present corpus (bold=error).

Scheme column		Feedback type	Definition (from Ranta & Lyster, 1997)	Example (feedback in bold)
Negative feedback	10	Explicit correction	Clearly indicating that the student's utterance was incorrect, the teacher provides the correct form.	S: *Het meisje slapen.* The girl sleep.INF T: ***Nee, het meisje slaap-t.*** No, the girl sleep-3SG. [C1:1]
	11	Metalinguistic information	Without providing the correct form, the teacher draws the student's attention to certain linguistic features of the student's utterance.	S: *Ik drinken.* I drink.INF. T*: Ja. maar wat gebeurt er ook weer als het een persoon is? Dan wordt het kort hè?* Yes. But what happens if it's one person? Then you make it short, okay? [C1:1]
	12	Elicitation	Without directly correcting the student, the teacher tries to extract (elicit) the correct response, pausing to allow the student to complete the teacher's utterance or by asking the student to reformulate his utterance.	*T:* ***Hij is +….*** He is +…. *S: Verdrietig.* Sad. [C5:1]
	13	Recast	Without directly indicating that the student's utterance was incorrect, the teacher implicitly provides the correct form by reformulating all or part of the student's utterance.	S: *Kan afspraak maken?* Can make appointment? T: ***Kan ik een afspraak maken?*** Can I make an appointment? [C2:1]

Table 5:5 (continued)

Negotiation	14	Clarification request	By using phrases like "Excuse me?" or "I don't understand," the teacher or student indicate that the message has not been understood. The student's utterance may contain some kind of mistake and a repetition or a reformulation is required.	S: *Het meisje slapen.* The girl sleep.INF T: ***Wat hoor ik nou?*** What do I hear now? [C1:1]
	15	Comprehension check	In a comprehension check the teacher tries to keep the conversation going by intermittently checking his understanding of the student's message by asking the student to repeat his utterance, by overtly saying that something is not clear or by rewording his own utterance in order to restore comprehension on the part of the student.	S: *Daarna slaap, 'pray god'.* After that sleep, pray god. T: ***Wat zei je?*** What did you say? [C2:1]
	16	Confirmation check	In confirmation checks the teacher checks to make sure that he has correctly understood what the student has said (Gass 2003: 233). Repetitions and paraphrases, often in question form, can be used to verify student utterances if comprehension is uncertain. (Ellis, 1999:12).	S: *Alles computer.* Everything computer. T: ***Alles op de computer?*** Everything on the computer? [C2:1]

The final domain in the feedback sequence is student *uptake*. The student uptake is defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997) as "a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback" (p. 49). There are three types of uptake: *repair*, *needs-repair*, and *no repair* (in columns 21, 22, and 23 respectively). Repair is defined as "the correct reformulation of an error as uttered in a single student turn" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 49). Repair is operationalized in this research project as a full or partial repetition of the given correction. Lyster and Ranta include in the needs-repair category six types of utterances: acknowledgement, same error, different error, off target, hesitation, and partial repair (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 50-51). On this point the operationalization used in the Scheme C differs slightly from that given by Lyster and Ranta. Lyster and Ranta state that "acknowledgement generally refers to a simple 'yes' on the part of the student in response to the teacher's feedback, as if to say 'Yes, that is indeed what I meant to say (but

you've just said it much better!')" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 50). This is not necessarily so. A simple *yes* as a reaction to a question or statement can also be just a sign showing attentiveness, as if to say, "Yes, I heard you, but I don't know what you mean." Van den Branden (1997, p.591) stated that a vague utterance such as "hmm" or "I see" can also be uttered to feign understanding in order to be polite or to avoid looking stupid. Gass (1997, p. 30, note 3) mentioned that this can also be the case where the L2 level still is inadequate and "so as not to appear rude" a very minimal response is given. Therefore, the needs-repair category excluded those undirected *yes* or *hmm* utterances, unless the focus of the student was clear. In those cases, the student probably realized that something in his utterance was incorrect and, consequently, he most likely made an effort to modify his original utterance. These could include the making of a different error and a partial repair. A partial repair means that only part of the corrected utterance is repaired and an error still remains. Responses included in *no repair* are hesitations, repetitions of the same error, an off-target response or no response at all. In columns 24 and 25 the one giving the uptake is specified. This can be the student who made the error or another student (his peer). The last category in Scheme C is *topic continuation* (column 26). This is similar to category comment or instruction (column 19) in Scheme B. Topic continuation indicates that the teacher (marked *t*) or a student (marked *s*) carried on with the discussion or activity at hand directly after the feedback was given, giving the student to whom the feedback was directed no opportunity to respond. The no repair instances are all followed by a topic continuation.

Chapter 6
Learner data

As the aim of this study is to investigate learner achievement in relation to classroom organization and interaction it is necessary to ascertain learner achievement during the observation period of this research project. Moreover, testing the language proficiency of the learners gives insight in their level of performance. The learners were tested both at the start and at the end of the observation period. To this end an assessment[45] was developed consisting of three kinds of tasks: vocabulary, picture description, and picture story. The language produced in these three tasks was analyzed on three levels: vocabulary, morphosyntax, and discourse. Figure 6:1 gives an overview of these three components and the features analyzed within them.

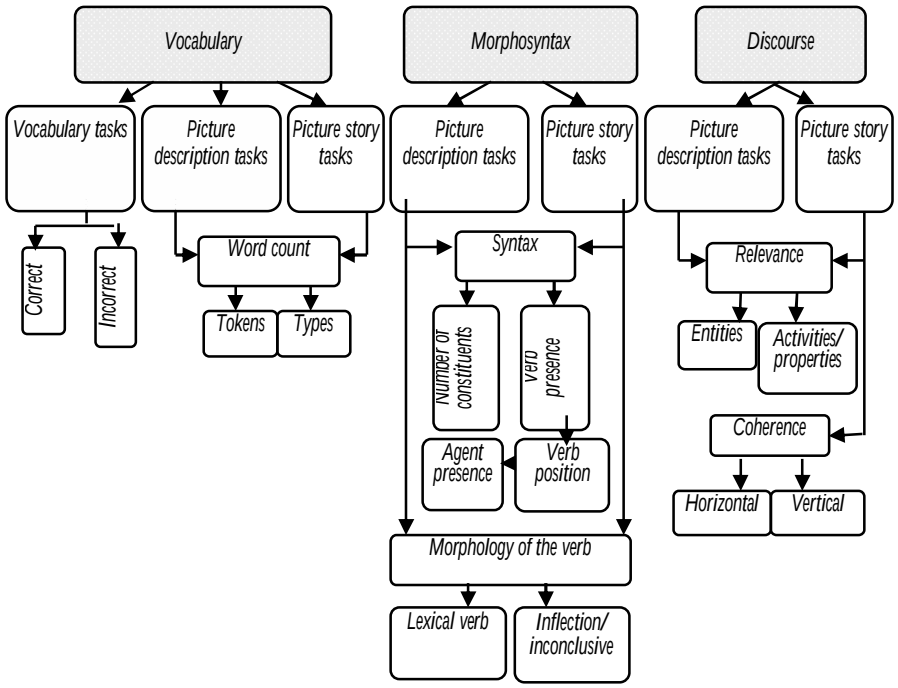


Figure 6:1 Components and features analyzed in the pre– and post–assessments.

45 The assessment is reproduced in Appendix 1.

As Figure 6:1 illustrates, the assessment focused on three components: vocabulary, morphosyntax, and discourse. The assessment consisted of three parts: vocabulary tasks, picture description tasks, and picture story tasks. For determining vocabulary, the language produced in all three parts of the assessment was analyzed. This included knowledge of specific words in the vocabulary tasks and the number of words spoken during the picture description and picture story tasks. For the components morphosyntax and discourse, the responses made during the picture description and picture story tasks were analyzed. For this, spontaneous speech was essential. A test or assessment is by definition not spontaneous, but if the limitations imposed are minimal, a sufficient amount of spontaneity can be assumed, leading to semi-spontaneous speech. To accomplish this, no limitations on the picture tasks were imposed, except that of describing or telling what happens in the pictures. The analysis of the morphosyntax focused primarily on verb use and that for discourse on relevance and coherence. The following sections in this chapter concern the development and evaluation criteria of the assessments. Section 6.1 describes the development of the assessments. The testing procedure is explained in section 6.2. Each of the three parts of the assessment is described in section 6.3. The evaluation criteria for each component are defined and explained in sections 6.4 – 6.6.

6.1 Development of the pre- and post-assessments

The necessity for developing an assessment for this research project became clear after an investigation of available oral skills tests for LESLLA learners of Dutch. Two types of tests were on the market: curriculum-dependent and curriculum-independent. The first type was excluded. In curriculum-dependent tests the learners using the textbook on which the test is based would have an advantage over learners not using that textbook. The only existing curriculum-independent tests for assessing the oral skills were those developed by ICE.[46] This was the only organization that developed tests for the literacy student that was readily available at the start of this research project in 2005. These tests were part of a battery of tests called the *NT2 Profieltoets Alfabetisering* (DSL Profile Test for Literacy), developed to assess the literacy student after having completed the WIN language training program of approximately 600 classroom hours. Next to assessing the learner's literacy decoding skills, the test also included an oral skills component based on a simulation format in situations such as making an appointment with the doctor or shopping in a grocery store. The student's

46 ICE is the abbreviation for *Bureau Interculturele Evaluatie* (Bureau Intercultural Evaluation).

performance was globally evaluated based on the descriptors characteristic for the level being tested. These were derived from the CEFR levels,[47] a framework based on "user-oriented scales [that] report typical or likely behaviours of learners at any given level. Statements tend to talk about what the learner can do" (Council of Europe, 2001:22). The oral skills tests could also be analyzed using a more detailed model focusing on, for example, grammatical correctness, vocabulary, and coherence. But again, these were based on global descriptions of the CEFR levels. For example, assessing grammatical correctness on an A1 level was characterized as: "the utterances are limited to a small number of simple grammatical constructions and memorized expressions", while that on an A2 level say, "the utterances consist of simple constructions of small word groups" (Bureau ICE, 2003).[48] It is clear that not only is the difference between A1 and A2 difficult to determine, it is also difficult to determine variation within a group of learners on the same level. The ICE criteria are insufficiently fine-tuned to capture small steps in learning. The ICE oral assessments assess the student's general ability to perform a particular task. Results based on this type of testing would be too general and unspecific, making comparisons vague and inexplicit. The only option open was to construct an assessment which could capture the small steps in language achievement and would make comparisons between the learners investigated in this project possible.

The assessment developed in this project was entirely based on the use of pictures, as its aim was to test oral language proficiency. Secondly, these learners were still in the beginning stages of learning to read, so the written word could not be used as a support, and if used it might distract the learner from his purpose. Not every picture is adequate for such a test. The fact that LESLLA learners are to take the test puts constraints on the format. As Arbuckle (2004) observed, "People who do not see educational pictures regularly have few opportunities to learn how to understand and interpret pictures" (p. 451). This is a skill which must be learned. Cook (1980) found that the use of pictures for the L1 non-literate learners can be a formidable task (p. 3). He states that the ability to read pictures, meaning to recognize and interpret them, involves a visually literate skill (p. 8). Learning to read pictures is just as important as learning to read the letters of words, and both can be trained. A study among non-literate unskilled Moroccan labourers showed that many had trouble interpreting a two-dimensional reproduction of a three-dimensional object (Haverkort, 1972). Such drawings are often used in illustrated instructions—just think of instructions for the use of home appliances. At work, the ability to read such pictures can be of utmost

47 See footnote 6 for an explanation of the CEFR-levels.

48 Translation is mine.

importance for safety measures. In the Netherlands Zikkenheimer (1986a, 1986b), investigated the comprehensibility of illustrations in information brochures for low-literate Moroccan and Turkish women. In studying her subjects, Zikkenheimer identified several characteristics that facilitate picture interpretation. The most important one concerned picture detail. She found that unnecessary detail in an illustration confused the non-literate learner to a greater degree than it would the literate learner. In communicating specific information, the picture should focus only on those elements important for understanding the message. Zikkenheimer illustrated this by showing one photograph with all the background details just as clear as the main action in the foreground, and another picture, in which the background details are vaguely visible (see Figure 6:2).

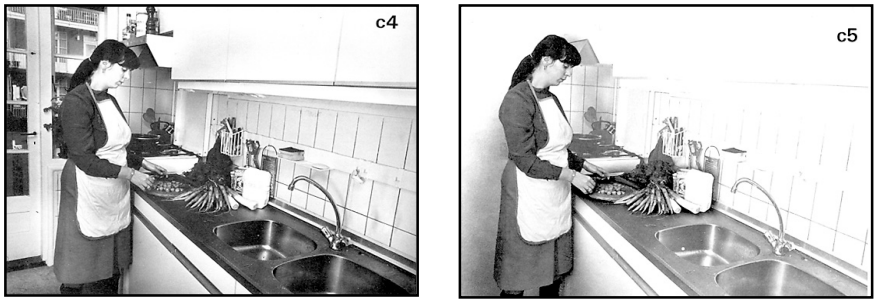


Figure 6:2 Pictures showing a detailed and a dimmed background Zikkenheimer (1986b) p.27. Reprinted with permission from the author.

Not only is it important to reveal only those details necessary for the message, the picture must be presented as realistically as possible and recognizable for the 'reader' (Cook, 1980; Zikkenheimer, 1986a). The use of iconic symbols and color to focus on a certain detail must be used sparingly, for it might not always be understood (Zikkenheimer, 1986a, p.70). A study on illustrations in health information brochures used for educating LESLLA residents, found that "simple, realistic pictures with limited content and familiar objects and symbols communicate well", and that "an illustration of a complete face is less confusing than an isolated facial feature" (Hill, 2008, p. 40). Hill warns that caution should be taken in the use of symbols indicating time, such as a calendar or clock. These are often not interpreted in the intended way, particularly in information concerning a span of time such as 'in two days' or 'every four hours' (Zikkenheimer, 1986a; Hill, 2008). In conclusion, from previous research there is evidence that indicates that for the LESLLA learner the use of photographs is preferred to drawings and the use of colored photographs is preferred to black-white photographs and colored drawings to black-white drawings (Cook, 1980; Hill, 2008;

Zikkenheimer, 1986a). Van der Erve, et al. (1981), the author of one the first literacy courses for LESLLA learners in the Netherlands, pointed out the importance of proper illustrations in teaching material. Since illustrations form an essential part in LESLLA materials, these must be unambiguous, meaning that caricature type drawings should be avoided. In addition, she also advised not to use symbols such as arrows or ticks because they can be misinterpreted. Van der Erve, et al. (1981) reminded teachers that illustrations are not always interpreted by the LESLLA learner in the same manner as they do. Whiteside (2008) found that the same applies for illustrations accompanying a text. Students have to learn to interpret the pictures correctly if they are to function as a support for reading. For the assessment of this research project these findings pertaining to picture use were adhered to as much as possible. Nevertheless, misinterpretations were not always avoidable.

6.2 Testing procedure

Prior to administering the assessments, the usability of the test and its pictures were evaluated. The assessment tool was piloted by three literacy teachers and ten of their students. Those pictures and tasks that were considered unsuitable by at least 70% were excluded from the assessment. The assessment was tested by ten different students to see if it was easy for the students to interpret and easy to be administered by the researcher. The researcher administered all the piloted assessments.

The post-assessment was a repetition of the pre-assessment. A period of 30-weeks intervened between the two assessments. The students were assessed in a separate classroom during normal classroom time. Both assessments were audio recorded using an MP3 recording device and were later transcribed orthographically. The entire assessment took approximately 20 minutes per learner to administer.

Each assessment was preceded by a short interview about general close-to-home topics such as country of origin, number of years in the Netherlands, the family situation, hobbies or interests, and schooling experience. The main purpose of the interview was to set the learner at ease and to reassure him that the assessment was not a formal language test and that the results were neither for school nor for governmental accountability purposes. At the same time some of the missing information from the school records could be retrieved during the interview. The instructions for each task were oral and the language as simple as possible. For the vocabulary tasks this was simply ‘point to …’ for the receptive tasks and ‘what is this?’ for the productive tasks. For the picture description tasks the researcher just

asked the learner what he thought was happening in the picture, not what he saw in the picture. For the latter this might evoke vocabulary enumeration.

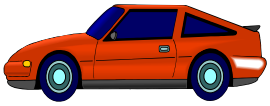
6.3 The assessment tasks

6.3.1 Vocabulary tasks

The vocabulary assessment was two-part: (1) knowledge of specific words, and (2) the number of words used in the picture description and picture story tasks. The vocabulary assessment started with a recognition task of ten real objects in the classroom, such as book, pencil, and chair. It was assumed that these objects would be familiar to the LESLLA learner in a classroom context. Secondly, the learning approach known as *Total Physical Response* or TPR (Asher, 1977; De Ru, 1991) was a well established didactic technique in the language classroom. Vocabulary knowledge of concrete objects was often drilled through TPR practice. Consequently, such commands as *point to* were well understood by the learner. Lastly, beginning the assessment with a relatively easy task boosts positive motivation and sets the learner at ease.

Specific vocabulary

The specific vocabulary task concerned recognition of single pictures. The pictures were in color and realistic, facilitating recognition. In order to tap a varied range of vocabulary, the pictures were selected from various topics. There were two receptive and two productive tasks, both at a beginners and a more advanced level. In order to determine which words were at a beginners or a more advanced level, an inventory was made of the vocabulary in five most used textbooks for beginners. These five textbooks surfaced from the results from the survey described in chapter 3. If a particular word appeared in at least three of the five textbooks, it was labelled beginners vocabulary; if it appeared in less than three of the textbooks, it was marked more advanced. Figure 6:3 illustrates two words used in the specific vocabulary part of the assessment. One word is on a beginners level and the other on a more advanced level.



Vocabulary - beginners level

Vocabulary - more advanced level

Figure 6:3 Pictures from the picture vocabulary task at two levels.

Receptive vocabulary knowledge was a recognition task in which the learner had to point to the picture mentioned by the tester. Productive vocabulary knowledge was a direct recall task. In this task the learner had to name the picture to which the tester pointed. For each task, twelve pictures were printed on a separate page. Of these twelve, two were distracters. To summarize, the vocabulary task consisted of five tasks, each with ten words. In the first task the student pointed to real objects when asked, "point to . . ." The following fours tasks were picture recognition tasks on two levels of difficulty, a beginners level and a more advanced level, each performed as a receptive and productive task. In total there were 50 words in 5 tasks.

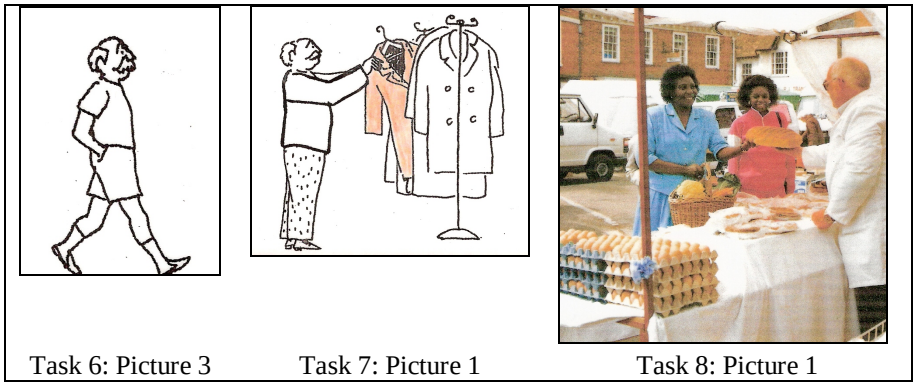
Task 1: a recognition task of 10 real objects,
Task 2: picture recognition task on a beginners level of 10 words,
Task 3: picture direct recall task on a beginners level of 10 words,
Task 4: picture recognition task on a more advanced level of 10 words,
Task 5: picture direct recall task on a more advanced level of 10 words.

The second part of the vocabulary tasks concerned vocabulary size. For this, the total number of words spoken in a response for the picture description and picture story tasks were counted and categorized as tokens or types. The tokens were the total number of words spoken and the types were the total number of different words spoken. The types are an indication of the diversity of the student's vocabulary.

6.3.2 Picture description tasks

The aim of the description task was to elicit connected speech, not just single words. All the pictures depicted familiar actions and episodes, each requiring its own vocabulary to tap as much language as possible and to allow for variation in vocabulary and utterance complexity for the less and more capable students. The picture description task consisted of three tasks. The first task, Task 6, consisted of four pictures with simple line drawings, each showing one person performing one action: eating, drinking, walking, and reading. To avoid distracting the learner's attention, no background was

added. The next was Task 7 with six pictures drawn in the same style as those in the previous task. These pictures were a little more complex than the previous task in that the protagonist performed an activity with an object or person. Task 8 contained four colored photographs of common daily affairs. These photographs contained a lot of detail and were the most complex of the description tasks, allowing the student the possibility to produce utterances with greater complexity. Figure 6:4 shows one picture from each task.



Task 6: Picture 3 Task 7: Picture 1 Task 8: Picture 1

Figure 6:4 Three pictures from the picture description tasks 6, 7, and 8.

6.3.3 Picture story tasks

The aim of the story telling task was similar to the description task, to extract connected speech, with the added complexity that it concerned a story. A story is seen as a series of connected events. This means that the events depicted in one picture are linked in some way to the events in the following pictures, in other words, there is a connection between the pictures, a connection that needs to be expressed when telling the story. The picture story task consisted of three picture stories, and these are presented in Figure 6:5. Each story was built up out of four pictures, each picture showing a separate episode of the story. The drawing style was the same as in the first two picture description tasks – a simple line drawing. To some pictures color had been added to assist interpretation. If this was indeed helpful is disputable, as will be discussed later. Concerning the direction of reading the pictures, Zikkenheimer (1986a:75) found that non-literate learners read picture stories from left to right as well as from right to left – regardless of cultural background. In order to avoid confusion as to which direction the story should be read, each story was printed on a separate sheet of paper with the four pictures arranged from top to bottom. The learners were instructed

to recount the story as presented in the pictures. The researcher explained and gestured where the story starts and ends. Each picture story differs in complexity. Picture story 1 opens with two protagonists and in the following three pictures only one of the two plays a role. Picture story 2 is about one protagonist that performs one action in steps. Picture story 3 involves three different characters. One character is seen in all four pictures. In the first two pictures, this character is with a woman, and in the last two, with a man. Next to unravelling the role of the characters, the learner also has to interpret the situation, making the best use of his limited
linguistic knowledge.

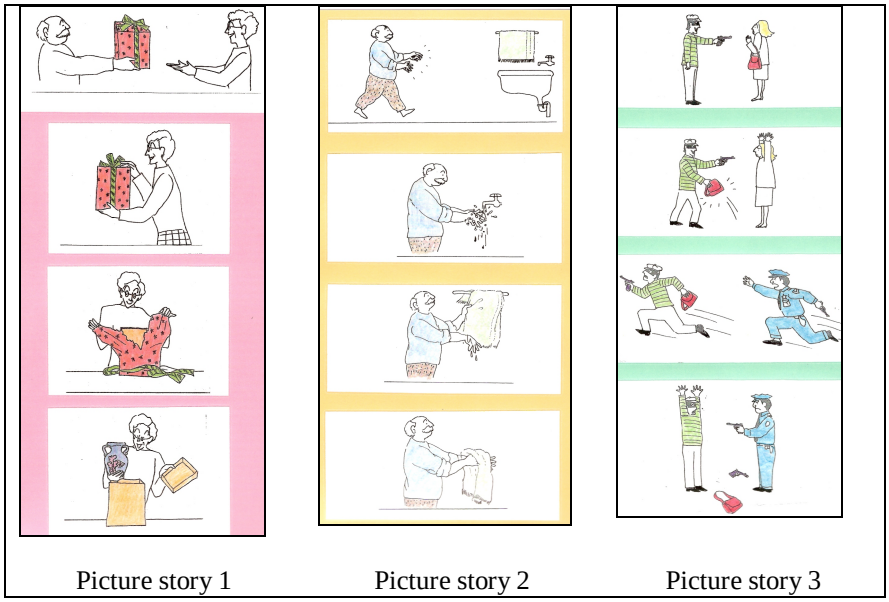


Figure 6:5 The three picture story tasks.

6.4 Evaluation criteria vocabulary

Assessing oral L2 language of beginning non-literate learners in terms of meaning (the message) and form (grammar) is a complex task. By making the criteria as precise as possible, language characteristics of these learners can become more apparent and describable. In the following sections the evaluation criteria and the dilemmas encountered are discussed.

6.4.1 Specific vocabulary

The first task was a two part vocabulary task assessing lexical knowledge through recognition and direct recall tasks. Both were performed on a beginners level and on a more advanced level. The responses were either correct or incorrect. For the recognition, or receptive task, the learner had to point to the picture named by the researcher. For the direct recall, or productive, tasks the learner had to give the correct vocabulary word for the picture to which the researcher pointed. Usually only one word for a picture was correct. For a few pictures various responses were allowed. One, for example, concerned the picture of a motorcycle, in Dutch *motorfiets*. The responses *motorfiets* or *motor* were marked correct, as well as the word *brommer* (moped). For an outsider, mopeds and motorcycles are often indistinguishable – both are motorized two-wheeled vehicles. Another example was the picture of a piece of cake. Next to cake, in Dutch also *cake*, it could also be called *taart* (cake) or *gebakje* (gateau). All are similar in appearance, and therefore, were marked correct.

6.4.2 Word count

Word count (tokens and types) was performed for each response in the picture description and picture story tasks. In general, the tokens included all the words in a response that pertained directly to these tasks. The types are the number of different words used. This means that different inflected forms of the same root word were counted as different words. In other words, the inflected verb forms for the verb 'to fetch' or 'to get' *pak, pakken, pakt*, are three different words. This applies to singular and plural noun forms as well; they were also counted as different words. Exceptions included the following: interjections, certain repetitions and certain meta-utterances. Interjections such as *uuh, ja* (yes), *toch* (a request for confirmation meaning 'don't you think?' or 'right') and direct repetitions, as in a stutter, were not counted. All those words given by the researcher and repeated by the assessee were not counted, except if the given word was put into a construction. In that case, the word became part of the response and was counted. Meta-utterances were also not counted, except in cases of uncertainty. Meta-utterances usually expressed thoughts, feelings, or meanings that were not directly connected with the task such as *wat zeg ik* (what am I saying) or *kan niet praten* (can not talk), as in (6.3). An embedded meta-utterance could often be interpreted in two ways. This concerned words such as *waarschijnlijk* (probably), *misschien* (maybe) and *ik denk* (I think), as in (6.4). The examples below are responses made during the picture tasks of the assessments. They illustrate the word count

procedure of the token and types. In (6.1) a total of four words were uttered, thus four tokens. Of these tokens there were three different types: *vrouw, boek, groot* (woman, book, big).

(6.1) *Vrouw boek. Boek groot.*
Woman book. Book big.
'The woman's book. The book is big.'

In example (6.2) a total four words were uttered. Book was repeated at the beginning as in a stutter, so it is not included in the word count as is the interjection *uuh*. This leaves a total of three tokens of which there are two types: *boek* (book), *lezen* (read).

(6.2) *Boek, boek, uuh boek lezen.* (target: De vrouw leest een boek.)
Book, book, uuh book read.INF
'The book, book, uuh reads book.'

Example (6.3) contains eleven words. Of these words, three form a meta-utterance: *kan niet praten* (can not talk) and were excluded from the count. This leaves eight tokens. Of these tokens there are six types: *hier, tas, pakken, die, vrouw, zo* (here, purse, take, that, woman, so).

(6.3) *Hier tas. Pakken die tas die vrouw zo. Kan niet praten.*
Here purse. Take.INF that purse that woman so. Can not talk.INF
'Here is a purse. He takes the purse of that woman like this. I can't talk.'

Example (6.4) contains six tokens. One word, *misschien* (maybe), is an embedded meta-word. This word can express an uncertainty on the part of the speaker, "I am not sure of the correct word, but I think it is picnicking" or it can mean "maybe the woman and the man are picnicking – they could also be doing something else." In the first interpretation "maybe" is a meta-utterance as in (6.4), in which case it is not counted. In the second interpretation "maybe" is part of the response and is counted. Not being able to justify either interpretation, the embedded meta-utterance was counted, to the advantage of the student. Example (6.4) contains six different words, so it has six tokens as well as six types.

(6.4) *Twee vrouwen, een man misschien picknicken.*
Two women, a man maybe picnicking.
'Two women and a man, maybe they are picnicking."

6.5 Evaluation criteria of the morphosyntax

The purpose of the picture description tasks was to get a better insight into the development of spoken language proficiency of the non-literate learner. An analysis of the morphosyntax of the utterances would give an impression of the learner's ability to manipulate certain linguistic elements during his L2 acquisition process. Here the morphosyntax analysis focused on verb use – the learner's ability to manipulate verbs in terms of position and form. Since all the pictures in the assessment focused on an action, the learners were required to use a verb to describe these pictures adequately. Consequently, the learners were indirectly stimulated to use verbs in their descriptions of the pictures.

The unit of analysis for the morphosyntax was the utterance. There are various units of analysis applied in research of spoken language (see for a discussion Crookes, 1990; Foster, Tonkyn & Wiggelworth, 2000). Most of these are not applicable for this study as they are identified according to syntactic features such as a sentence, clause or phrase. These features do not characterize the language of the target group of this study. If a definition of an utterance entails a syntactic description, this would exclude a large portion of the language produced. Consequently, a definition must include features other than syntactic ones. The most applicable definition for this type of research is the one given by, for example, Beheydt (1983) and Crookes (1990). They state that an utterance is not necessarily a complete syntactic unit, but one bound by an intonation contour. Crookes describes an utterance as a "stream of speech" having at least one of these three features: "under one intonation contour", "bounded by pauses", or forming a "single semantic unit" (p. 187).

A response could consist of more than one utterance. In such a case, only one utterance was chosen as the unit of analysis. This was the utterance that was deemed to be the most advantageous for the learner. Such an utterance usually contained a verb or had the most constituents. For evaluating the learner's morphosyntax, only those utterances containing a verb (finite or non-finite) were subject to analysis. For utterances not containing a verb, only the constituents were counted. In this manner all the learners, those with short responses and those with lengthy responses, could be compared on a relatively equal basis. How the constituents are determined is described below in the section on syntax.

6.5.1 Evaluation criteria of the syntax

The analysis of the syntax is restricted to four features: the number of constituents, verb presence, verb position, and agent presence. By focusing on these four features, the small steps taken in the beginning stages of the L2 acquisition process become evident.

In learning a second language it is necessary to know how words can be grouped. The ability to correctly form word groups, or constituents, aids the listener's comprehension, and is thus an essential skill for second language learners. Constituents can be defined as the minimal units that form a semantic construction of an utterance. Utterances parsed in syntactic trees show that a constituent can be a single word or string of words such that there is one node that dominates those words and no other words. Three tests of constituency were applied to identify a constituent: movement, substitution, and stand-alone. As the examples below illustrate, the process of determining constituents was not always without uncertainty. The utterances were often obscure in meaning and ungrammatical, making decisions ambivalent.

In determining the number of constituents, the presence of a deictic place marker needs to be explained more specifically. Examples (6.5a) and (6.5b) show two utterances using deictic markers: the demonstrative pronoun *deze* (this) in (6.5a) and the adverb *hier* (here) in (6.5b). Both stand at the beginning of an utterance and refer specifically to the picture being described. This type of place deixis was not included as a constituent, and therefore, (6.5a) contains one constituent, *lopen* (to walk) and (6.5b) three constituents, *de politie, gaan, met deze meneer* (the police, go, with this man).

(6.5) a *Deze lopen.*
This walk.INF
'This one, walks.'

b *Hier de politie gaan met deze meneer.*
Here the police go.INF with this man.
'Here, the police goes with this man.'

Not all deictic place markers at the beginning of an utterance were excluded, as examples (6.6a) and 6.6b) illustrate. In (6.6a) intonation was decisive. If the demonstrative pronoun referred to the picture, there was a pause after *deze* (this). If it modified the following noun, then there was a pause after the noun. In (6.6a), the demonstrative pronoun modified *vrouw* (woman) forming the constituent *deze vrouw* (this woman) and was, therefore, included in the count. In (6.6b) the use of the copula *is* (is) makes the

construction syntactically correct; it contains three constituents, *dit, is, vrouw* (this, is, woman). But if the demonstrative pronoun and the copula were followed by a verb phrase as in (6.6c), then *dat is* (that is) referred to the picture, and was not counted as a constituent.

(6.6) a *Deze vrouw lopen.*
This woman walk.INF
'This woman walks/is walking.'

b *Dit is vrouw.*
This is woman.
'This is a woman.'

c *Dit is vrouw lopen.*
This is woman walk.INF
'This is a woman walks.'

Repetitions, interjections, and all L1 utterances were not included as constituents, or in word count. The following six examples in (6.7), (6.8a, b) and (6.9a, b, c) illustrate the parsing of utterances into constituents. The constituents are separated by a vertical line. In (6.7) the response contains a series of syntactically unconnected single words. Each one is an utterance within that response. At the same time, each utterance is also a single constituent. Such a response is often a summing up of objects or actions seen in a picture such as expressing a single action or single entities through nouns (persons or objects) or qualities (adjectives).

(6.7) *Winkel.* | *Eieren.* | *Vrouw.* | *Boodschap.* | *Boodschap.* | *Taart.* | *Eieren.* |
Store. | Eggs. | Woman. | Shopping. | Shopping. | Cake. | Eggs. |

The examples (6.8a) and (6.8b) illustrate an utterance with two constituents, one formed by a noun (the agent) with a verb and the other by a noun the carrier with an adjective.

(6.8) a V*rouw* | *lezen.*
Woman | read.INF
'The woman reads.'

b *Man* | *vies.*
Man | dirty.
'The man is dirty.'

Longer utterances, such as those containing three constituents, as illustrated in (6.9), often contain a verb and a complement. In (6.9a) the direct object *cadeautje* (gift) is the added complement. This is an example for which the tests of movement, substitution, and stand-alone all apply. In (6.9b) the added complement is the prepositional phrase *met deze man* (with this man). In this example, even though an incorrect preposition was used, *met* (with) instead of *naar* (to), the tests of constituency still apply. In (6.9c) the test of movement applies. Although the utterance is grammatically incorrect, it is clear that the adverbial is a constituent. In Dutch the adverbial adjunct *een beetje* (a little) should follow the verb: *leest een beetje* (reads a little.), if we are dealing with a main clause.

(6.9) a *Vrouw* | *pakt* | *cadeautje.*
Woman | fetches | gift.
'The woman fetches the gift.'

b *De politie* | *gaan* | *met deze meneer.* (target: De politieagent gaat naar die meneer.)
The police | go.INF | with this man.
'The police goes with this man.'

c *Vrouw* | *beetje* | *lezen.* (target: De vrouw leest een beetje.)
Woman | a little | read.INF
'The woman reads a little.'

Utterances containing an embedded meta-utterance and certain compound verbs form special cases, as (6.10) and (6.11) illustrate. The embedded meta-utterance *ik denk* (I think) in (6.10) is taken as one chunk and thus, forms one constituent. In this particular example, the utterance contains three constituents.

(6.10) *Vrouw* | *ik denk* | *lezen.* *(target: De vrouw leest denk ik.)*
Woman | I think | read.INF
'The woman, I think, is reading.'

Particle verbs form a particular case in Dutch. The particle can be separated from the verbal part. In such cases the verb components were counted as one constituent. Example (6.11) illustrates the separable verb *openmaken* (to open). This utterance contains three constituents: *maakt* (makes) and *open* (open) form one constituent, *papier* (paper) a second constituent, *en kijkt* (and looks) the third constituent.

(6.11) *Maakt | papier | open | en kijkt.*
Makes | paper | open | and looks.
'She opens the paper and looks.'

Each utterance was examined for verb presence and position as well as the presence of an agent or another semantic role. The five examples in (6.12) illustrate the different types of utterances. Utterances without a verb, such as in (6.12a) were not further analyzed.

(6.12) a Verb not present.
In de doos een kan.
In the box a jug.

b Verb present, but position inconclusive and agent not present.
Lopen.
Walk.INF

c Verb present, but position incorrect and agent not present.
Die cadeau pakken.
That gift fetch.INF

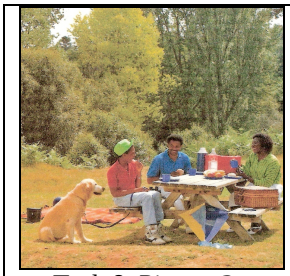
d Verb present, but position incorrect and agent present.
Meneer soep eten.
Man soup eat.INF
'The man eats soup.'

e Verb and position correct and agent present.
De vrouw leest krant.
The woman reads newspaper.
'The woman reads a newspaper.'

6.5.2 Evaluation criteria of the verbal morphology

The assessment of verbal morphology focused on the inflection of lexical verb. Determining verb inflection for the morphological analysis has not always been a straightforward process. This particularly applies to the Dutch infinitive form of the verb. The infinitive is formed by adding the suffix *(e)n* to the root verb, as in *drink-en* (drink-INF). This form is identical to the finite, inflected form for the plural. Consequently, *drinken* could also refer to 'you (plural), we or they drink'. Thus, the Dutch infinitive is a non-finite, inflected verb. In order to avoid random interpretation, certain criteria had to be created. At onset, all verbs of this form were initially marked as a non-finite default form due to the fact that these learners were in the beginning of

their acquisition process. Such an approach concurs with research on L2 acquisition and developmental stages (Bardovi-Harlig, 2000a, 2000b; Klein & Perdue, 1992; Prévost & White, 2000; Vainikka & Young-Scholten, 2006, 2007). The verb was only marked as finite if the pictures distinctly showed plurality. Nevertheless, knowing if the learner had applied inflection correctly is still disputable. This meant that for the picture tasks, utterances containing such a verb were often open to more than one interpretation. In such instances, the determining factor in deciding if inflection had been correctly applied was the utterance along with the respective picture. In those cases where an agent is expressed as a plural, the picture must confirm this. This approach concurs with the concept-oriented approach. In that approach surrounding words also influence interpretation. In the case of plurality, plural morphology is not the only way to express this, quantifiers and numerals can be equally important. Bardovi-Harlig (2007) explains by saying, "consider also the noun phrases *two boy, many friend,* and *two girls*. (…) in a concept-oriented analysis, all three noun phrases express plurality" (p. 63-64). This dilemma is illustrated in examples (6.13a), (6.13b) and (6.13c). Figure 6:6 shows three corresponding pictures from the picture description task at issue.



Task 8: Picture 2

Task 7: Picture 4

Task 8: Picture 4

Figure 6:6 Three pictures from the picture description tasks 7 and 8.

(6.13) a Task 8: Picture 2
Man, vrouw, kind eten en drinken.
Man, woman, child eat and drink.
'The man, woman, and child eat and drink.'

b Task 7: Picture 4
Praat telefoon.
Talk telephone.
'(He) talks on the telephone.'

c Task 8: Picture 4
Vrouw lezen.
Woman read.INF
'The woman reads./The women read'

In Figure 6:6, Task 8: Picture 2 shows three people sitting at a picnic table in a park. In the corresponding utterance, (6.13a), the verbs *eten, drinken* (eat, drink) were marked as being correctly inflected. The respective picture confirms this. Consequently, the use of a plural verb form is appropriate. In (6.13b) there is no agent present, but the verb is irrefutably inflected as a third person singular form prescribes, *praat* (talks). Again the correctness of this finite verb was supported by the respective picture showing a single character talking on the telephone (Task 7: Picture 4). Another situation is seen in (6.13c). The verb *lezen* (read) is marked as uninflected. In the picture (Task 8: Picture 4), four women are sitting in a classroom, probably learning to read and write. Most certainly the learner saw four women in the picture, but he did not express this. If the plural form of the noun was used, *vrouwen* (women), or, concurring with the concept-oriented analysis, if a modifier indicating plurality was added, *veel vrouw* (many woman) or *twee vrouw* (two woman), then the verb would have been interpreted as being correctly inflected.

6.6 Discourse

Of the three analyzed components (vocabulary, morphosyntax, and discourse), discourse proved to be the most problematic. Most discourse research focuses on native speakers' language, Kurvers (2002b) research excepted. The responses for discourse were analyzed on two levels: meaning and syntax. An analysis of meaning would show how the learner uses his knowledge of the L2 to convey meaning. For this the criteria of relevance and coherence were chosen for two reasons. First, being able to produce descriptions that are relevant and appropriate for a picture reflects the learner's ability to use language in certain contexts. Second, being able to produce a series of connected responses shows the learner's ability to produce a logically linked text. Concepts of relevance and coherence and how they are measured, is the topic of this section. Along with the concepts of relevance and coherence, stand word order (the syntax of an utterance) discussed in 6.5.1. This also has an effect on the conveyance of meaning.

Before continuing, the terms discourse and text must be explained and the unit of analysis must be clarified. The terms discourse and text are often used interchangeably (see Blass-Weiss, 1990 for a discussion on the use of these terms). If a distinction is made, then the term discourse usually refers to verbal communication (interaction) and text for sentences

deliberately constructed as a (written) unit. Discourse here, although communicated, is not to be confused with conversation. Conversation is a specific form of discourse and has a pragmatic purpose (Simpson 2006:43), while discourse in the context of this research, is a verbal communication, but without the element of exchange or interaction. For this semi-spontaneous connected speech was essential. Here the pictures in the assessment formed the framework for the ensuing discourse. These responses, although limited by the assessment construct, were semi-spontaneous (given on-the-spot) resembling communication without the feature of turn-taking. To make matters simple, I will refer to the individual responses as text, and the whole of the responses as the student's discourse. The unit of analysis for relevance and coherence was the entire response consisting of one or several utterances. The term response is used for the verbal reaction to a stimulus; it is the learner's answer to a picture.

6.6.1 Evaluation criteria of picture relevance

6.6.1.1 Defining relevance

A response was judged relevant if the words of the speaker had a direct relation to the context presented in a picture. In this study the term picture relevance is used when referring to relevance in the picture tasks. Various features played a role in determining whether a response was relevant in a particular picture task. Of these, certain ideas from Grice (1989) as well as those from Sperber and Wilson (1986, 1995) were fundamental in forming the concept of picture relevance. Grice was concerned with aspects of logic, meaning, and inference that characterize native speaker conversation. In four maxims (Quality, Quantity, Relation and Manner) he postulated how effective communication could best be achieved. Of these four maxims, "Relation" was most important for picture relevance. Grice (1989) stated that ". . . [the] contribution [had] to be appropriate to immediate needs at each stage of the transaction" (p. 28). In other words: "Be relevant" and say things related to the current topic of the conversation (Grice 1989, p.28). Tanskanen, (2006, p. 28, note 5) explained that we can assume that learners always make an endeavor to be relevant in their responses. For the present assessment, this assumption must be taken as an undeniable truth. The discussion below focuses on those points of relevance that have contributed to the ideas underlying picture relevance, while at the same time making distinctions characterizing the LESLLA learner.

Oral communication involves two parties: a speaker and a listener/hearer. In this discussion the speaker is a LESLLA learner and the listener the native speaker (the researcher). The determination of relevance

of a communication depends on linguistic and non-linguistic abilities of the speaker and the listener (Blakemore, 1992; Tanskanen, 2006; Sperber & Wilson, 1986, 1995). The linguistic abilities include knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, while non-linguistic abilities include pragmatic knowledge, knowledge of the world, and mutual knowledge. A LESLLA learner, at the beginning of his acquisition process is limited in both areas. He is, just as all beginning second language learners, building up his vocabulary knowledge, grammar skills, and pragmatic language skills. But the LESLLA learner has, in comparison to the literate learner, a greater disadvantage due to his limited or lack of schooling and literacy. This is particularly evident in a formal educational learning environment. For all sorts of tasks he cannot rely on previous educational training. This can impinge on his understanding and interpretation of certain contexts portrayed by the pictures (Arbuckle, 2004; Kurvers, 2002; Strube 2010; Strube, Van de Craats, & Van Hout, 2010).

For the listener, as a native speaker, it is not only his own linguistic knowledge that may enhance his understanding, but also his knowledge of the speaker's linguistic ability. Deviations in, for example, pronunciation, intonation, word choice, and morphosyntax in the speaker's utterances can affect its comprehensibility. Being aware of these differences and the second language acquisition processes can facilitate understanding. Even though linguistic knowledge is an important determinant in understanding, it is not enough. As Blakemore (1992, p. 40) states, an ungrammatical utterance can be understood, and therefore be viewed as acceptable because "the acceptability of an utterance may be affected by factors other than its grammatical well-formedness." The listener, as does the speaker, uses reasoning and inference as well as his knowledge of the world to understand the information communicated. Together the speaker and the listener form a bond in their process toward utterance interpretation which "depends on the speaker and hearer establishing mutual knowledge" (Blakemore 1992, p.19). This mutual knowledge (also referred as shared or common knowledge) aids understanding only if the assumptions on which the interpretation of the utterance are based are the same for speaker and listener. In cross-cultural situations such as those that occur in the L2 language classroom, inferences made from L1 (for both speaker and listener) cannot be automatically assumed to be understood. Example (6.14) illustrates such an utterance made in response to Picture story 1 (see Figure 6:5).

(6.14) Picture 1: *Cadeautje. Cadeautje. Ik uuh geef.*
Gift. Gift. I uuh give.

Picture 2: *Ik hier naar huis.*
I here to home.

Picture 3: *Kapot.*
Broken.

Picture 4: *Kan uuh kan.*
Jar uuh jar.

In (6.14) a learner recounted Picture story 1 during the first assessment. In this story the use of the pronoun *ik* (I) is remarkable. There are two probable explanations. One stemmed from inference based on cultural knowledge and the other from classroom didactics. In the picture story the learner (a woman) placed herself in the story by dialoging the role of the protagonist by using the pronoun *ik* (I). In the first picture it seems that she had placed herself in the role of the man giving the gift, and in the second picture in the role of the woman holding the gift. In interpreting the response for the second picture, mutual knowledge is essential. For the picture in which the woman is holding the gift, the learner responded by saying *Ik hier naar huis* (I here to home). For this response, it is helpful to know that in Morocco it is customary not to open gifts in the presence of the giver. The learner probably presumed that the woman in the picture is taking the gift home to open it. Without this knowledge, the meaning of these utterances can be rather puzzling, particularly since the mechanism for dialoging is used for two different figures in the story. A second plausible interpretation for the use of the first person singular pronoun stems from classroom didactics. In classrooms where the communicative approach is predominant, the focus is on the functional use of language. Much of the language practiced is from the learner's perspective, where the use of the pronoun *ik* (I) predominates, such as in 'I want to buy this.' or 'Where can I find that?' These observances also support the findings of Broeder (1991). He comments that in untutored second language acquisition the first person pronoun is acquired before the second person and that the singular forms are acquired before the plural ones. Although mutual and linguistic knowledge aid understanding of the speaker's utterances within a certain context, it does not automatically mean that those utterances are also marked as relevant. In cross-cultural situations, it is the speaker's responsibility to be relevant. Grice (1989) would say: "to be appropriate to immediate needs at each stage of the transaction" (p. 28). If mutual knowledge is not available, then a misunderstanding between speaker and hearer can occur. If the speaker interprets a context differently than the hearer, then the speaker's utterance will probably be interpreted to be unacceptable. "A mismatch between the context envisaged by the speaker and the one actually used by the hearer may result in a misunderstanding" (Sperber &Wilson, 1986, p.16). Example (6.15) illustrates such a misunderstanding – here referred to as picture misinterpretation. Example (6.15) is a response also made for Picture story 1, see Figure 6:5.

(6.15) Picture 1: *Hier doos uuh cadeau.*
Here box uuh gift.

Picture 2: *Hier cadeau kijken.*
Here gift look.

Picture 3: *Broek.*
Trousers.

Picture 4: *Kijken.*
Look.

In Picture story 1 the red color of the wrapping paper was added, with the assumption that this would assist interpretation. Zikkenheimer (1986a, p.70) warned that the use of color to focus on a particular detail must be used sparingly; otherwise the meaning can be misinterpreted. The added color in this picture story was indeed misunderstood by the learner. In the third picture the torn wrapping paper was seen to be a pair of trousers. The response of this learner for picture 3 is clearly one of picture misinterpretation.

The linguistic and non-linguistic abilities of the speaker and listener all contribute to understanding and relevance of a communication. As Sperber and Wilson (1995) stated, "[An utterance] is relevant in a context to the extent that the effort required to process it in this context is small", while at the same time "an [utterance] is relevant in a context to the extent that its contextual effects in this context are large" (p. 125). Renkema (2004) comments that contextual effect is the way new information and already known information interact and thus contribute to the communication. If this information is amply present, then the relevance of the communication is high. The effort needed to process the information involves the decoding of linguistic information and the linking of new information with already known information. In short, this means that the ease with which a communication is understood enhances the relevance of that communication. Transferring this to the picture tasks of the assessment: a response has picture relevance if the words of the speaker have a direct bearing on the picture and the relation between what is said by the speaker and what is seen in the picture can be easily perceived.

6.6.1.2 Measuring relevance

This definition of picture relevance is still rather vague if not further specified. This is of particular importance in the case of an assessment where responses have to be comparable. In order to avoid ambiguity in the analysis

process, the criteria of picture relevance had to be explicitly formulated. Consequently, the elements that were central to the interpretation of the picture were predetermined. These elements concerned two categories: the entities on one hand, and activities/properties on the other. The entities were the objects or persons (nouns) about which something was said and concerned the main figures in the pictures, often the agent. The activities/properties (verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and nouns) expressed the actions or described the entities. These entities and activities/properties collectively formed the minimal distinctive elements. A response was termed relevant if these minimal distinctive elements were present. Not all the listed entities and activities/properties were always required for relevance. Keeping in mind the complexity of the picture and the minimal distinctive elements required to describe the picture a balance between the two was made. Table 6:1 gives an overview of the scoring for the minimal distinctive elements.[49]

Table 6:1 Relevance scores and minimal distinctive elements (R = relevant, P = partially relevant, 0 = not relevant).

Response category	One element		Two elements			Three elements			
Required number of elements per category	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	3	3
Given number of elements	1	0	2	1	0	3	2	1	0
Relevance score	R	0	R	P	0	R	R	0	0

In Table 6:1 the relevance scores are given for responses requiring one, two, or three elements for either the entities or the activities/properties. In the category *one element*, if one element was given for a response, then the relevance score was relevant (R). On the other hand, if one element was required, but no relevant elements were given, then the score was not relevant (0). In the category *two elements*, if two elements were given then the relevance score was relevant (R). If only one of the two elements were given, then the relevance score was partially relevant (P), meaning that the response contained only some relevant elements – actually only half of the required number. This was judged to be barely enough to evidence any relevance. If no relevant elements were given, then the response was marked as being not relevant (0). For the pictures in the *three elements* category the scoring becomes a little more complex. If three elements were required and given, then the response was scored relevant (R). If two elements were given (two-thirds of the total number of required elements) this was sufficient relevance to be scored as relevant (R). If only one of the three required

49 The minimal distinctive elements for the picture description tasks and the picture story task are given in Appendix 2.

elements was given (one-third) then it was judged not relevant (0). Finally, if none of the three required elements were expressed, then the score was also not relevant. Summarizing, in determining the relevance score, the entities on one hand and the activities/properties on the other hand were counted. These were termed the elements of the picture. Depending if a picture requires one, two, or three elements, its relevance was scored. One score was obtained for the entities and one score for the activities/properties. The process for both was the same. This is summarized in Table 6:2. Subsequently, the scores of each of the two categories, entities and activities/properties, were combined producing the following total scores given in Table 6:2.

Table 6:2 Relevance scores for entities and activates/properties.
(R = relevant, P = partially relevant, 0 = not relevant).

	Scores of relevance								
Score for entities	R	R	R	P	P	P	0	0	0
Scores for activities/properties	R	P	0	R	P	0	R	P	0
Relevance combined score	R	P	P	P	P	0	P	0	0

In determining the minimal distinctive elements the focus was on the core activity portrayed in the picture. For example, Picture 3 in Task 6 (Figure 6:4) shows a man walking. The man is the entity. He is the main and only subject in this picture. This entity is clearly a man, shown by his baldness and mustache, thus it cannot be viewed as a woman. The activity that is depicted is *lopen* (to walk). A second possibility is *wandelen* (to stroll). No other interpretation can be given for this picture. A few details in some pictures can be interpreted in a number of ways, depending on the speaker's perspective. For example, in the second series of pictures a more complex event is illustrated requiring a combination of entities or activities/properties. Picture 1 in Task 7 (Figure 6:4) shows a man getting a coat. *Man* (man) and *jas* (coat) are core entities. The coat rack in this picture is not a core entity. The core activity in this picture can be either *pakken* (to take), *halen* (to get) or *ophangen* (to hang up), depending on the point of view of the speaker. The last series of pictures for the picture description tasks were actual photographs of events. These were the most complex and could elicit various different responses. Picture 1 in Task 8 (Figure 6:4) shows a market scene where bread is being sold. This picture can be described from two different perspectives—that of the women buying the bread or that of the man selling the bread. The core entities from the first perspective are *vrouw* (woman) or *vrouwen* (women), *brood* (bread) and *markt* (market). The activity could be either *kopen* (to buy) or *betalen* (to pay) depending on which part of the activity is focused. Of these two activities 'buying' is seen as the core activity and 'paying' a subsidiary activity. Consequently, the activity

'paying' is marked as partially relevant. If the event is viewed from the man, the entities are *man* (man), *brood* (bread) and *markt* (market). The core activity is then *verkopen* (to sell).

To illustrate the operationalization of the scoring system the responses by two learners for three picture descriptions from the picture description task are discussed in detail in Figure 6:7. Each learner shows how she manipulates the language she has at her disposal to express relevance. The first learner, Yamina, has great difficulty formulating understandable utterances. Without the pictures, the listener would be unable to visualize what is happening. The second learner, Nadia, clearly has a larger vocabulary, which she is able to put to use. For the first picture Yamina does not express the core entity, in this case the agent, and the core activity, *drink* (drink). She is only able to say *koffie* (coffee), insufficient for a relevant response. Nadia is able to express the essence for both the entities and the activities. She even adds extra information by saying what the child may be drinking. For the second picture, only Nadia is able to convey what is exactly happening in the picture. Yamina seems to question her interpretation of the slightly bald character with a big mustache as a woman. Perhaps she expects a woman to be feeding a child, but this is an inference on the part of the researcher. Nevertheless, she does say "the baby eat" and for that her response is partially relevant. Nadia, in a short clear utterance, tells what the picture conveys. The third picture is the most troublesome for both learners. Yamina only expresses single words of items in the picture, but cannot connect them into a relevant description. Even her use of *eten* is questionable. In Dutch it can be the verb 'to eat' as well as the noun 'food'. In Yamina's response she could have meant either word. In any case, her response is not relevant. Nadia, in spite of some faulty grammar, uses her language knowledge optimally, clearly conveying what the picture depicts.

Task		Yamina		Nadia	Minimal distinctive elements (P= partially relevant	
Task 6 	O	*Koffie.* (Coffee)	R	*De jongen of meisje drinkt, misschien melk of water.* (The boy or girl drinks, maybe milk or water.)	*Kind /meisje/ jongen* (child/girl/ boy)	*Drinken* (to drink)
Task 7 	P	*Vrouw, vrouw? Baby eten.* (Woman, woman? Baby eat.INF)	R	*Man/opa + baby/kind* (man/granddad + baby/child	*Eten geven /voeden/ eten* = P (to feed/to eat)	*Man/opa + baby/kind* (man/ granddad + baby/child
Task 8 	O	*Hond. Kijk 's. Koffie. Brood. Eten. Koffie.* (Dog. Look. Coffee. Bread. Eat.INF. Coffee.)	R	*Die vrouw, misschien zijn man of kind, zitten in de picknick. Gezellig voor de buiten zitten, gezellig eten. Misschien volgens mij naar buiten, bos.* (That woman, maybe his husband of child, sit in the picnic. Enjoyable for the outside sit, enjoyable eat. Maybe according to me to outside, woods.)	*Familie/ mensen/ man, vrouw, jongen + park/ picknick/ buiten* (family/ people/man, woman, boy + park/picnic, outside)	*Picknicken/ eten en drinken* (to picnic/ to eat and drink)

Figure 6:7 Relevance illustrated in three pictures from description tasks 6, 7, and 8 for two learners (R = relevant utterance, P = partially relevant utterance, 0 = not relevant utterance).

6.6.2 Criteria of coherence

6.6.2.1 Defining coherence

The concept of coherence coincides in many ways with that of relevance. Both are concerned with logic, mutual knowledge, and linguistic elements. Verhoeven & Vermeer (1996, p. 60) say that coherence is strongly connected with vocabulary. This again shows the close relationship it has with relevance. Halliday (1985, p. 50) explains, "What all types of cohesion have in common is that every instance presumes some other element in the text for its interpretation; and hence a tie is set up between it and what is presumes." Blass-Weiss (1990) defines relevance as the relation between linguistic units and assumptions. These assumptions are the contextual effects, also referred to as contextual assumptions the hearer uses to interpret utterances. The contextual effects can be found within the utterance itself and through mutual or world knowledge as well. In contrast, Blass-Weiss defines coherence as the relation between linguistic units and how they are put together. Levinson (1983) connects relevance and coherence by saying, "Relevance entails a certain amount of assumption and inference. These are fundamental to our sense of coherence in discourse" (p. 107). Likewise, Stenström (1984, 1994) points out that relevance concerns the understanding of utterances (their meaning), while coherence concerns the connectivity in a text. In other words coherence is concerned about how a text hangs together as a whole, while relevance focuses on utterance interpretation. De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981, p. 84) call this 'hanging together of a text' making sense.

> … because there is a continuity of senses among the knowledge activated by the expressions of the text. A 'senseless' or 'non-sensical' text is one in which text receivers can discover no such continuity, usually because there is a serious mismatch between the configuration of concepts and relations expressed and the receivers' prior knowledge of the world. We would define this continuity of senses as the foundation of coherence, being the mutual access and relevance within a configuration of concepts and relations.

Blakemore (1987) contrasts the two concepts in a similar fashion. She defines coherence "as a relationship between linguistic units that is, utterances or the segments of a text. By contrast, relevance is defined in terms of a relationship between propositions" (p. 111). Propositions are the interpretations the listener gives to an utterance. Blass-Weiss, as mentioned above, uses the term contextual effects or assumptions for propositions. From this it is clear that the relation between relevance and coherence is in a

way symbiotic. Both are connected in that an utterance must be relevant to be coherent. As Hatch (1992) states, "To make the messages 'cohere', contributions must be relevant to what goes before and what one expects might follow" (p. 33). The feature of coherence, which seems to be most outstanding is that of textual connectivity – also referred to as connectedness or continuity. Within this connectivity, cohesion plays a central role. Blakemore (1987) says that "the term *coherence* is standardly used to describe 'semantic' continuity or connectivity of content, and is contrasted with *cohesion* which is textual unity created by cohesive (i.e., linguistic) devices" (p. 148). Renkema (2004) also views coherence and cohesion as two separate manifestations of text continuity. He states that "cohesion refers to the connection that exists between the elements in the text [and] coherence is the connection that is brought about by something outside the text. . . . that something is usually knowledge which the listener or reader is assumed to have" (p. 49). He summarizes as follows: "cohesion is usually defined as the connectivity that is literally detectable in the discourse, e.g., synonyms and pronominal words such as she, it etc. Coherence is the connectivity that can be inferred from the discourse by the reader or listener."

Reinhart (1980) in her discussion on coherence sees cohesion as one manifestation of coherence. For a text to be labelled coherent it must therefore meet three sets of conditions: "connectedness (cohesion), consistency, and relevance" (p. 167). The first is synonymous with cohesion, the second concerns semantic agreement and the third involves semantic and pragmatic conditions. Further on she states that cohesion is the minimal necessary requirement for sentences (utterances) of a text to be considered connected. Within a text each utterance must be formally connected to the previous utterance – they must be linearly connected. This view is also expressed by Tannen (1984) where she states that "cohesion is one factor contributing to coherence" (p. xiv).

Here cohesion will also be seen as an expression of coherence. Coherence is then the continuity, connectedness, connectivity that holds a text together. This continuity of a text can be expressed explicitly and implicitly. Implicit coherence uses logic and reasoning to interpret the utterance – the use of the contextual effects. Explicit coherence is expressed through the use of cohesive devices such as those put forth by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and deictic markers identified by Levinson (1983). Halliday and Hasan list four major types of cohesive devices: reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. Levinson describes five major types of deictic markers: person, place, time, discourse, and social (showing social relationships such as the Dutch terms of address *je* and *u*).

6.6.2.2 Measuring coherence

The picture stories were, next to relevance, also analyzed on the feature of coherence. Coherence, as has been pointed out, focuses on the ability of the learner to be able to speak in an orderly and logical fashion producing semantically meaningful utterances. In the picture stories there must be a consistent relation between the utterances and the sequential episodes of the story. In contrast to relevance, which focuses on the direct relation between what is said and what is seen, coherence focuses on making sense of the whole, as said by De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) above. Each picture description must therefore be relevant, and throughout, these utterances must in some way be connected.

Picture stories are stories told with the aid of pictures. Each episode is presented in a picture. The story teller tells the story guided by each picture as he goes along from one to the next. In telling stories, more is involved than just conveying relevant meaning for each picture. The telling of the story must also have coherence in order for it to be characterized as a story. The text or story must be about something. The utterances within a response must be connected in some way to produce an internal relation. Each utterance must be formally connected to the previous utterance; they must, using the words of Reinhart, be linearly connected. Foster (1990) explains that these linear connections can be horizontal as well as vertical. Horizontal connection implies that consecutive utterances are connected to each other, while vertical connections imply that the utterances in general are connected to the topic being developed. In the case of the picture stories, it must be easy to infer the relationship between the utterances and the topic of the story as presented through the pictures – there must be connectedness. In line with Foster, such relationships are called here horizontal and vertical coherence. Horizontal coherence is expressed through the use of explicit linguistic devices and vertical coherence is expressed through semantic connections between the utterances and the underlying topic, or theme of the story.

Being able to produce relevant utterances for the individual pictures in a picture story does not automatically imply that the story is also coherent. Foster (1990) remarked that although relevance plays a crucial role in coherence, a picture story which is not relevant is, by nature, also not coherent; on the other hand, a coherent picture story is not always entirely relevant. The two stories, reproduced in Figure 6:8, illustrate the features of horizontal and vertical coherence. Two contrasting stories, one with strong coherence and the other with weak coherence, emphasize the complexity of determining coherence. In a sense, one feels the struggling of these learners in their endeavor to accomplish the task.

Yumna, in her effort to tell the story, was unable to connect the utterances from picture to picture horizontally nor could she connect them to the theme of the story – gift giving. This resulted in a non-coherent story. In the first two pictures she enacted the portrayed actions by playing the role of the protagonist. In the first picture she seemed to play the role of the man and in the second one that of the woman. By switching roles Yumna broke the connection between the two pictures; had she not done so, she would have produced horizontal coherence. In her story there is evidence of a trace of coherence in the vertical connectedness. Yumna's utterance *ik hier naar huis* (I here to house) for the second picture could have contributed to vertical coherence, through shared knowledge between Yumna and the listener. As explained above, it is customary in Morocco not to open gifts in the presence of the giver. Yumna by saying that she is going home (presumably to open the gift) alluded to the theme of the story but this piece of information was not connected to the previous nor the following picture. It stands, as it were, in isolation. Consequently there is no vertical coherence. In the third picture she only said *kapot* (broken), presumably describing the torn wrapping paper, but this was not made explicit. In the final picture, although she identified the object, she could not make clear that the *kan* (jug) was the gift portrayed in the first picture nor that the "breaking" of the paper in the previous picture had any connection with this jug. Distinctly her story, though containing some attempts at forming connectedness, is neither horizontally nor vertically coherent.

Guli's story is an example of one that is coherent. She was able to connect the pictures bringing about horizontal and vertical coherence. In the first picture the scene was set. In the second picture, the focus of the action switched from the man to the woman. She made this clear by explicitly mentioning the new agent *mevrouw* (woman) and strengthening the connection by repeating the word *cadeautje* (gift). In this manner she enhanced horizontal coherence. In the third picture she dropped the agent and the object, but by using the temporal conjunction *dan* (then) to express sequence of action she connected the utterance with the previous picture maintaining horizontal coherence. In the fourth picture, Guli did not know (or could not remember) the word for *vaas* (vase) and demonstrated her strategic competence by describing the appearance of the vase instead: *kijk, mooie* (look, pretty). Even though Guli again used the word *dan* (then) in this final utterance, there was no connection made with the previous utterance. As a result there was no horizontal coherence. Nevertheless, through inference a connection with the theme of the story was preserved – resulting in vertical coherence. Guli had connected most of her utterances horizontally and all of them vertically producing a coherent story. She had

made it clear that the gift given in the first picture is the object taken out of the box in the final picture.

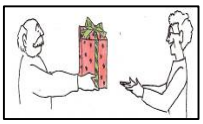
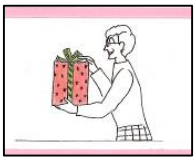
Picture story 1	Yumna	Relevance	Coherence		Guli	Relevance	Coherence	
			Horizontal	Vertical			Horizontal	Vertical
	*Cadeautje, Cadeautje. Ik uuh geef.* (Gift, gift. I uuh give.)	P	(Setting the scene)		*De meneer voor deze vrouw door geef cadeautje.* (The man for this woman pass.1SG on gift.)	R	(Setting the scene)	
	*Ik hier naar huis.* (I here to house.)	O	No	No	*De mevrouw cadeautje halen.* (The woman gift fetch.INF)	P	Yes	Yes
	*Kapot.* (Broken.)	O	No	No	*Dan kom voor thuis. Misschien openmaken.* (Then come.1SG for home, maybe open make.INF)	P	Yes	Yes
	*Kan uuh kan.* (Jug uuh jug.)	O	No	No	*Dan kijk mooie, de naam weet ik niet.* (Then look.STEM, pretty, the name I don't know.)	P	No	Yes

Figure 6:8 Relevance,, and horizontal and vertical coherence, for picture story 1 as told by two story tellers (R = relevant utterance,P = partially relevant utterance, O = not relevant utterance)

To my knowledge no other studies have focused on the aspect of relevance and coherence in discourse by LESLLA learners, except that of Kurvers (2002). Kurvers (2002) investigated, by use of a picture story, how such learners retell a story. In her study, including preschoolers, adult non-literates, and literates, all with similar ethnic and social backgrounds, Kurvers demonstrated crucial differences in task approach. In her study, the picture story could be told in the L1 or L2, whichever the candidate felt most comfortable. Concerning text coherence, Kurvers found that 45% of the stories told by the non-literate adults were coherent, while for the preschoolers this was 73.7% and 100% for the literate adults. Even though this study and that of Kurvers used different picture stories and the criteria varied, the similarities are remarkable.

Chapter 7
Results classroom data

The research questions presented in chapter 2 focused on two dimensions within the classroom: (1) how classroom education for the LESLLA learner is organized for the oral skills, and (2) how classroom interaction is structured during the practice of the oral skills. This chapter presents the results from the classroom data that surfaced from an investigation on these two dimensions. Three observation schemes were applied for the data collection: Observation Scheme A, focusing on the organization of pedagogical processes in the classroom; Observation Scheme B, focusing on classroom interaction between the teacher and the students; and Observation Scheme C, focusing on corrective feedback. The structure of these observation schemes, the data selection for these schemes, and the coding criteria are explained in chapter 5. This chapter starts in section 7.1 with the results for Scheme A, classroom instructional organization; section 7.2 gives those for Scheme B, classroom instructional interaction; and section 7.3 presents those for Scheme C, corrective feedback. Section 7.4 deals with the classroom didactic framework as seen through the pedagogical teaching cycle. The chapter closes with section 7.5 with a discussion on the results presented in this chapter.

7.1 Observation scheme A: Classroom instructional organization

Observation Scheme A, reproduced in Figure 5:1, focuses on the organization of teaching in the classroom. It covers the domains: content focus, participant interaction, participant organization, and materials. Three lessons from each class were analyzed using this scheme (see section 5.1.2 and 5.4 for an explanation of Scheme A and the coding procedures). This amounted to an average of eight lessons per class; each class was observed approximately once a month (see Table 5:1). Finally these eighteen lessons (three for each of the six classes) were transcribed and coded using Scheme A. The data surfacing from the analysis was then extrapolated to the 30-week observation period. In the following sections the results are presented and interpreted.

7.1.1 Time management

Time management stands central to effective teaching as it reveals the priorities in lesson planning and learning time. It forms a link to understanding how time and learning are interconnected. Classroom time is divided into three main categories: allocated time, instructional time, and engaged time (Denham & Lieberman, 1980; Kauchak & Eggen, 1998, 2012). These time factors are related to how the teacher organized the time available for classroom teaching. This relationship, based on the categories of Kauchak and Eggen (1998), is shown in Figure 7:1.

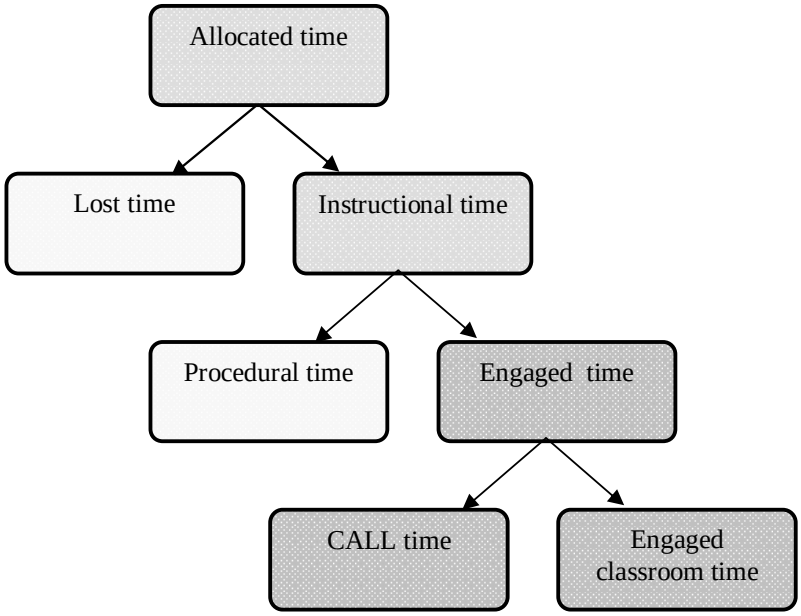


Figure 7:1 Categories of time management

To the original Kauchak and Eggen (2012) version of time management, three categories have been added: lost time, CALL time (Computer-Assisted Language Learning), and engage classroom time. Allocated time is the time noted on the school lesson program. Lost time and instructional time are part of allocated time. Lost time is the time lost, for example, when a class starts later than scheduled. When lost time is deducted from allocated time, instructional time remains. Part of instructional time is procedural time. This time includes, for example roll call. Originally, instructional time is the time after routines and administrative tasks have been completed (Kauchak &

Eggen, 2012, p.153). In the classes of the present study, these procedures were often so intertwined with instruction that they seem to form a whole. Consequently, as Figure 7:1 depicts, procedural time is a part of instructional time. Engaged time embraces all practice time left over from instructional time after procedural time has been deducted. Kauchak and Eggen define engaged time as time during which the students are busy with a learning task. For this study, engaged time is extended to include teaching time as well. It also includes all learning activities that take place during lesson time. If CALL activities have been scheduled by the teacher as part of the lesson, this is also engaged time. CALL activities and other L2 practice outside classroom hours are not part of engaged time. The last category is engaged classroom time. This time is learning time in the classroom with the teacher when other classroom activities have been deducted. Table 7:1 shows how allocated time is divided into lost time, procedural time, and engaged time in hours and percentages for the six observed classrooms. The bar graph in Figure 7:2 visualizes these same results, except that engaged time is split into engaged classroom time and CALL time.

Table 7:1 Allocated time in relation to lost time and instructional time during oral skills practice during the 30-week observation period in hours and percentages (%) by class.

Class	Allocated time	Lost time	Instructional time	
			Procedural time	Engaged time
1	135.00	8.93 (6.61)	17.88 (13.24)	108.19 (80.14)
2	180.00	3.61 (2.01)	25.92 (14.40)	150.47 (83.59)
3	150.00	21.95 (14.63)	4.37 (2.91)	123.68 (82.45)
4	82.50	0	4.58 (5.55)	77.92 (94.45)
5	150.00	62.80 (41.87)	9.56 (6.37)	77.64 (51.76)
6	330.00	97.47 (29.54)	36.86 (11.17)	195.67 (59.29)

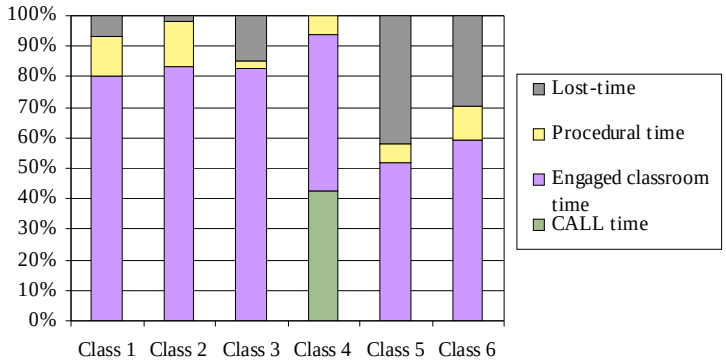


Figure 7:2 Four types of classroom time in relation to total allocated time.

Foremost in classroom time management is allocated time. Allocated time is the total time a class is scheduled. It is a fixed time within the curriculum. If, for example, a class is scheduled to take place three times a week from nine in the morning to twelve noon, then the allocated time for that day is three hours. In Table 7:1 the allocated time for the whole observation period is given. From this time the scheduled fifteen minutes for the (coffee) break in each lesson was deducted, giving the time on which program planning could be based. Within this time the teacher plans her weekly or yearly program. Next to allocated time stands lost time. Lost time encroaches on allocated time. It is a consequence of late starts, early conclusions of the lesson, and/or extended breaks. A lesson might start late because the teacher is still busy getting her material ready for the lesson or because of transportation delays or a chat with a colleague. A lesson might end early because the teacher finished sooner than anticipated. The social character of coffee breaks causes the teacher as well as the students to lose sight of time resulting in longer breaks. If the language spoken during these breaks was in the L2, one could say that this was also language practice. This was usually not the case. In Classes 5 and 6 the breaks were held in a common area and the researcher evidenced that the L1 was primarily spoken among the students. The teachers and the students for Classes 1, 2, 3, and 4 spent their breaks in separate areas; nevertheless, the students were herd to speak primarily in the L1. The teacher cannot always control time lost, however it is still her responsibility to start and end the lessons on time and ensure that the breaks do not exceed the given fifteen minutes. Next stands instructional time. This time includes routine procedures as attendance and announcements as well as interruptions by late arrivals, the teacher calling the class to order, and the handing out of lesson material or getting lesson material ready. Such time is often unavoidable, yet it can take up valuable time from actual learning.

Engaged time remains when all entities of time not connected with learning and teaching are subtracted. Engaged time is the same as time-on-task, attention, participation, and opportunity to learn (Borg, 1980; Kauchak & Eggen, 1998, 2012; Good & Brophy, 2000). This time is seen as a significant factor in learning achievement. Kauchak and Eggen (2012, p.158) assert that "engaged time is a tangible measure of a teacher's impact on students." Several studies have focused on the aspect of time management in the classroom. One major study was BTES (Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study), an extensive six-year study in elementary school classes in California from 1972-1978 (reported on in Denham & Lieberman, 1980).[50] In the latter study, Rosenshine (1980) reports on the amount of allocated and engaged time in elementary school classes with high, average, and low achievers. The results reveal that the allocated time, as well as engaged time, is the highest in classes with high achievers. The engaged time was between 80% and 86% of the allocated time. For classes with average achievers, engaged time was between 71% and 74%, and for low achievers between 63% and 75%. Kauchak and Eggen (1998, p. 113) report similar results. They state that high-achieving students are engaged for at least 75% of the time and low-achieving students less than 50%. Transferring this to teacher effectiveness, Kauchak and Eggen (1998) conclude that in classes where effective teaching takes place, 80% of classroom time is engaged time, while in classes with less effective teaching this is 60% or less. For this study, engaged time has been extended to include teaching time. Kauchak and Eggen regard only practice time as engaged time. Although these percentages cannot be directly applied to the situation in this study, they can function as an index in approximating teacher effectiveness.

Looking at Table 7:1, a number of interesting differences emerge between the classes. In the first place, the number of scheduled hours available for language learning (under allocated time) reveals a strong contrast between Classes 4 and 6. Class 4 has the least number of hours, 82.50 and Class 6 has four times as much, 330 hours. This difference is greatly reduced because of lost time. In Class 6, a large percentage of instructional time was lost through late starts and extended breaks, leaving for engaged time slightly more than 59% of the allocated time. The same holds for Class 5. Although this class started with almost twice the number of allocated hours of Class 4, through lost time only half remained as engaged time, 77.92 hours. Consequently, Class 5 had just as many engaged hours as Class 4.

50 Time management has long been studied and the accompanying terminology (allocated time, instructional time, and engaged time) was already used before the BTES study of 1978 (Denham & Lieberman, 1980).

In accordance with these observations, a noteworthy difference is also seen between Classes 1, 2, 3, and 4 on the one hand, and Classes 5 and 6, on the other hand. For engaged time, the percentages for Classes 1, 2, 3, and 4 are all more than 80% (80.14%, 83.59%, 82.45%, and 94.45% respectively), reflecting as Kauchak and Eggen (1998) noted, effective teaching. Classes 5 and 6 have low percentages for engaged time, 51.76% and 59.29% respectively, reflecting less effective teaching – a consequence of high percentages of lost time, 41.87% and 29.54% respectively. This lost time impinges on the time left for language practice. Classes 1, 2, and 3 have much lower percentages for lost time, respectively 6.61%, 2.01%, and 14.63%. Class 4 has, remarkably, no lost time at all. A possible explanation for the high percentages of lost time in Classes 5 and 6 might be the educational setting. The lessons of these two classes took place in community centers. In these centers there was no school bell to signal the beginning or end of class sessions or breaks. The other four classes took place in standard school buildings and were subject to school regulations. Breaks, for example, were strictly scheduled making it difficult to overrun the time limit.

Another noteworthy observation is the insertion of CALL activities in Class 4 during engaged time. Table 7:1 shows that 94.45% (or 77.92 hours) of the allocated time is engaged time. This engaged time is a combination of classroom time and CALL time. In Figure 7:2 CALL time is exposed. As Figure 7:2 shows, Class 4 is the only class that made use of practicing L2 using computer programs. The teacher in this class, in dealing with a highly mixed-level class as a result of continuous enrollment, opted to insert CALL activities. The class was divided into two relatively homogeneous groups. While one group practiced vocabulary with various computer programs in the OLC (open learning center) under the supervision of an assistant, the other practiced the oral skills with the teacher in the classroom. At break time the two groups exchanged positions. As a consequence of inserting CALL activities, the time spent in the classroom practicing the oral skills was reduced by 54.55%, from 82.50 to 45 hours (82.5 allocated time minus 37.5 CALL time). This reduction did not have a negative impact on the percentage of effectiveness as seen by Kauchak and Eggen. On the contrary, engaged classroom time (45 hours) minus procedural time (4.58 hours) leaves 40.42 hours. During this time actual teaching and learning in the classroom took place. In relation to the allocated 45 hours this is 89.82%, which admirably compares with Kauchak and Eggen's index marking an effective teacher. Remember, for the other five classes there is no reduction of CALL time. As a consequence, engaged time and engaged classroom time are the same, as Figure 7:2 shows. The following discussion on the four domains of classroom organization focuses

on the division of time during engaged classroom time. For Class 4 this is 40.42 hours; for the other five classes these are the engaged hours given in Table 7:1.

7.1.2 Content focus

The domain content focus investigated the time spent on five main lesson components: vocabulary, grammar, RD, URD, and LSK. The focus during vocabulary and grammar practice was mainly on form. The focus during RD and URD practice was mainly on meaning or language use. The LSK component focused on information about the Dutch society, necessary for adequate language use. Table 7:2 summarizes how much time is devoted to the various skills in relation to the amount of available engaged classroom time in hours and percentages. Figure 7:3 presents the results graphically.

Table 7:2 Classroom time for content focus over the 30-week observation period during oral skills practice in hours and percentages (%) by class.

Class	Engaged classroom time	Categories content focus				
		Vocabulary focus	Grammar focus	Restricted discourse	Unrestricted discourse	Life skills knowledge
1	108.19	19.25 (17.79)	22.41 (20.71)	10.54 (9.74)	11.35 (10.49)	44.64 (41.26)
2	150.47	39.97 (26.56)	11.60 (7.71)	32.80 (21.80)	42.31 (28.12)	23.79 (15.81)
3	123.68	52.70 (42.61)	3.38 (2.73)	12.61 (10.20)	7.43 (6.01)	47.56 (38.45)
4	40.42	11.84 (29.29)	2.41 (5.96)	5.74 (14.20)	9.08 (22.46)	11.35 (28.08)
5	77.64	19.24 (24.78)	6.10 (7.86)	0	17.42 (22.44)	34.88 (44.93)
6	195.67	6.42 (3.28)	20.40 (10.43)	5.03 (2.57)	56.31 (28.78)	107.51 (54.94)
Mean (%)		(24.05)	(9.23)	(9.75)	(19.72)	(37.25)

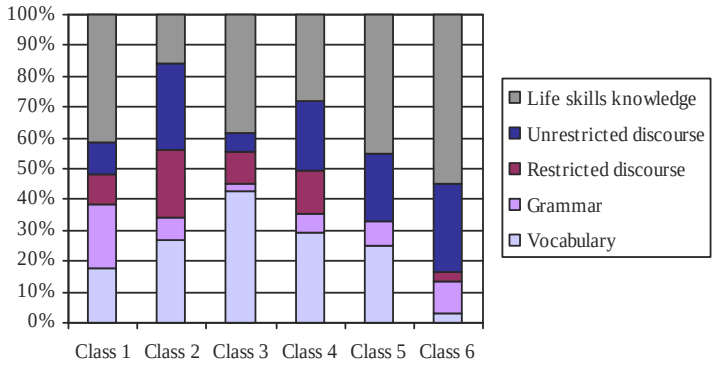


Figure 7:3 Five categories of content focus in relation to total engaged classroom time by class.

As mentioned earlier in section 7.1.1, Classes 4 and 6 portray a remarkable difference in their division of allocated time. This difference is still present when looking at engaged classroom time. Class 6 has almost five times as many hours as Class 4. Actually, looking only at the number of hours available for classroom practice, Class 4 has a strikingly low number of hours, namely 40.42. Nevertheless, the actual number of hours practiced in Class 4 for three (vocabulary, RD, and URD) of the five factors is not consistently the lowest. For example, Class 4 spent almost twice as many hours on vocabulary practice as Class 6. As Figure 7:3 shows, the percentages of Class 4 compare well with the other classes. For none of the factors does Class 4 have the lowest percentage. For vocabulary, Class 4 is even second highest to Class 3 (29.29% and 42.61% respectively) – reflecting a strong focus on vocabulary building. For RD, Class 4 stands second to Class 2 (14.20% and 21.80% respectively).

The graphical representation in Figure 7:3 clearly shows that all the classes, except Class 5, spent some time on each of the five lesson components. For Class 5 no RD practice had been observed during the three analyzed lessons. In all the classes, vocabulary and LSK had been practiced relatively frequently. In comparison to the other classes, Classes 2 and 4 show a relatively balanced focus[51]. Class 3 spent most of its time on LSK and vocabulary. Perhaps the first was necessary to explain the second. Just before the commencement of the observations the teacher of this class had completed the first part of the textbook (*SA*). For the remaining part of the

51 The term 'balanced' is taken from the ESOL study *Effective Teaching and Learning* (Baynham et al., 2007).

school year, which coincided with the observation period, she reviewed and extended vocabulary knowledge. In contrast, Class 6 focused more than half of its time on LSK giving very little time to vocabulary and RD practice. Overall, the classes can be characterized as focusing primarily on vocabulary learning and LSK with ample URD. There is also a noticeable infrequent focus on grammar and little practice on RD.

Of all the classes, Class 2 spent the most time on RD in hours as well as percentages, namely 32.80 hours and 21.80%. This points to ample dialog practice. There were three types of RD practice: strict dialog practice, flexible dialog practice, and dialog practice in a question-answer format. All three are characterized as being planned dialog practice, but one allows for more flexibility in language use than the other. Example (7.1) illustrates the strict form of practice during which the script is closely followed. The dialog was taken from the basic textbook (*SA*) used in Class 2. The subject is "buying cheese." The teacher took the role of shopkeeper and the student that of the customer. The teacher starts by calling out the number of the next customer to this the student responds.

(7.1) *Strict* r*estricted discourse practice* [C2/1:RD2]

Teacher:	*Nummer tweeënzestig.*	T: Number sixty-two.
Student:	*Dat ben ik.*	S: That's me.
Teacher:	*Zegt u het maar.*	T: What will it be?
Student	*Mag ik een kilo jonge kaas?*	S: May I have a kilo young cheese?

As this example illustrates, the language, the setting, and the speakers were fixed according to the dialog script. Practice was chiefly a matter of memorization. In the second type of RD the teacher allowed students to vary from the script. Example (7.2) was taken from the same lesson as (7.1), but now two students are performing the dialog together. In this example a student shows initiative by inserting a new element into the dialog. The dialog ends with the teacher's approval in the form of a recast. An example of the question-answer type of RD is (7.19), given in section 7.2.4 under the discussion of RD practice.

(7.2) *Flexible restricted discourse practice* [C2/1:RD2]

Aicha:	*Hoeveel kost dat?*	A: How much does that cost?
Laura	*Twee euro vijftig.*	L: Two euros fifty.
Aicha:	*Alstublieft.*	A: There you are.
Laura:	*Dank u.*	L: Thank you.
Aicha:	*Geef u mij uh +//. Graag een tas alstublieft.*	A: Give me uh +//. Please, a bag please.
Laura:	*Ja.*	L: Yes.
Aicha:	*Dank.*	A: Thanks.
Teacher:	*Mag ik een tas alstublieft. Ja, dat is een goede.*	T: May I have a bag please. Yes, that is a good one.

Concerning URD, Classes 2, 4, 5, and 6 spent between 22% and 29% of engaged time on this component. For the other two classes, Classes 1 and 3, the percentages are less than 11%. In URD, the subject matter is usually predetermined, but not the language form. Example (7.3) illustrates such an URD. The theme in the lesson was health. In previous lessons the students had practiced asking about opening times of the pharmacy. Transferring this task to the real world, the students had to go to a pharmacy themselves and ask for specific information. In (7.3) a student reports to the class her experience at the pharmacy.

(7.3) *Unrestricted discourse practice – prepared* [C4/2:URD2]

Teacher:	*Wat heb jij gevraagd Naima?*	T: What did you ask Naima?
Naima:	*Ik vragen, als apotheek gesloten is en ik heb medicijnen nodig waar ik ga naartoe?*	N: I ask, if pharmacy is closed and I need medicine where do I go?
Teacher:	*Konden ze dat goed begrijpen?*	T: Could they understand that well?
Naima:	*Ja.*	N: Yes.
Teacher:	*En wat voor antwoord kreeg jij?*	T: And what did you get as an answer?
Naima:	*Als jij medicijnen nodig heeft ga naar ziekenhuis. Bij ziekenhuis huisarts en dokter samen met apotheek. Huisarts elke avond ben daar.*	N: If you need medicine go to the hospital. At the hospital the physician and doctor together with pharmacy. Physician every evening is there.
Teacher:	*Mooi. Dus zij kon jou goed begrijpen en jij kon het antwoord ook goed begrijpen.*	T: Good. So she could understand you well and you could also understand the reply.

As this example shows, the student was prepared for the task and could adequately respond to the teacher's inquiries about her performance. Example (7.4) also illustrates URD, but the subject matter for this lesson, although prepared by the teacher in advance, was new for the students. In trying to explain the concept of time as a continuum of events, the teacher inquired about the students' childhood experiences as an example for time past. This example illustrates that the conversation was not planned. The teacher does not seem to be focused on retrieving specific information. At the start of the interaction she asked an open-ended question, but did not follow through on it. The student's "yes" was probably uttered in politeness as she was not prepared for the questions the teacher asked.[52] The teacher, not knowing what the student was going to say, improvised as she went along, often inferring, as to the meaning of the student's responses.

(7.4) *Unrestricted discourse practice – unprepared* [C3/2:URD1]

Teacher:	*Ja, had jij ook een zusje? Had je een zusje of een broertje?*	T: Yes, did you have a sister? Did you have a sister or a brother?
Student:	*Ja.*	S: Yes.
Teacher:	*Ja.*	T: Yes.
Student:	*Ja.*	S: Yes.
Teacher:	*Veel?*	T: Many?
Student:	*Ja, veel uh niet, thuis alleen.*	S: Yes, many uh no, at home
Teacher:	*Jij was alleen thuis?*	T: alone.
Student:	*Alleen met ander.*	S: You were alone at home?
Teacher:	*Met andere kinderen speelde je, ja.*	T: Alone with other. With other children you played, right.

In all the classes, a substantial amount of time was spent on the building of LSK. This is not surprising as knowledge of the L2 society is essential in order to be able to function adequately. This is of particular importance for this target group. Having had little or no prior education on which to base their learning, extra attention must be given to new information. The connection of what is learned in the classroom to what is spoken in the "outside world" has to be made explicit. In addition, these learners, not being able to consult written material, are dependent on others (i.e. the teacher) to supply the necessary information and training. For Class 6, the greatest amount of lesson time was spent on LSK, 107.51 hours (54.94%). This was at least 10% more than any of the other classes.

52 See 5.6 for a discussion on the use of 'yes' in a student's response.

LSK is integrated in the lessons in two ways. In one way, the information is part of the language learning program. In the other way, the information is part of general knowledge, and is necessary for functioning in the Dutch society. In this latter type of LSK the teacher does most of the talking, as she is giving information. Example (7.5) is a review exercise that illustrates the first type of LSK. In this example the teacher connects vocabulary learning to LSK. She reviews the vocabulary using photo pictures (*ColorCards*, 1991) that denote situations in the house. To this she adds questions pertaining to the responsibilities of the housing corporation in the maintenance of the house. This knowledge formed a part of the crucial practice situations of the Civic Integration test of 2007. [53]

(7.5) *Life skills knowledge and vocabulary lea*rning [C1/1:VOC 1]

Teacher:	*Wat is hier aan de hand?*	T:	What is the problem here?
Student 1:	*WC.*	S1:	Toilet.
Teacher:	*Wat is er met de wc?*	T:	What is wrong with the toilet?
Student 2:	*WC verstopt.*	S2:	Toilet clogged.
Teacher:	*Verstopt, ja. De wc. is verstopt. Lea, kan je de woningbouwvereniging bellen?*	T:	Clogged, yes. The toilet is clogged. Lea, can you call the housing corporation?
Lea:	*Ja.*	L:	Yes.
Teacher:	*Ja, oké. Je kan de woningbouwvereniging bellen. Oké.*	T:	Yeah, okay. You can call the housing corporation. Okay.

The following example (7.6) demonstrates how the teacher searches for knowledge the students already have and connects it to new information. On this particular lesson day the national elections were being held in the Netherlands. The teacher took this event as a staring point for her lesson. Starting with the date, the teacher checks step by step the students' knowledge as she highlights the words necessary for understanding.

53 Under Civic Integration test, the crucial practice situation practiced belonged to the domain Housing, Crucial activity (CH2): A talk with a housing corporation (Cito, ICE, & ITTA, 2006, p. 45). http://itta.nl.netmasters13.netmasters.nl/upload_files/Overzicht%20Cruciale%20Praktijksituaties%20totaal.doc (consulted June 2013).

(7.6) *Life skills knowledge* [C4/2:TRAN1]

Teacher:	*Tweeëntwintig november voor Nederland een speciale dag. Waarom Nisa?Wat is er vandaag?*	T:	Twenty-second of November is for the Netherlands a special day. Why Nisa? What's today?
Nisa:	*Weet niet.*	N:	I don't know.
Teacher:	*Weet jij het, Chama. Wat is er vandaag?*	T:	Do you know, Charma? What's today?
Chama*:*	*Uh, nee.*	C:	Uh, no.
Teacher:	*Dan zal ik even wat foto's op de tafel leggen. Moeten jullie het zeggen. Kennen jullie deze mensen?*	T:	Then I'll put some pictures on the table. You must tell. Do you know these people?
Chama*:*	*Politiek?*	C:	Politics?
Teacher:	*Ja, ja. Kennen jullie die? Wie zijn dat? Waar hebben jullie die mensen weleens gezien? Hier op school?*	T:	Yes, yes. Do you know them? Who are they? Where have you ever seen these people? Here at school?
Nima:	*Nee.*	N:	No.
Teacher:	*Nee. Waar? De televisie?*	T:	No. Where? The television?
Nima:	*Ja.*	N:	Yes.
Teacher:	*De televisie, ja, ja. Ken jij ze, Roya?*	T:	The television, yes, yes. Do you know them, Roya?
Roya*:*	*Nee. PVDA.*	R:	No. PVDA.
Teacher*:*	*Wat is dat, PVDA?*	T:	What is that, PVDA?
Roya*:*	*Partij Holland.*	R:	Party Holland.
Teacher*:*	*Een partij in Nederland, ja. En waarvoor, wat doen die mensen?*	T:	A party in the Netherlands, yes. And for what, what do these people do?
Roya*:*	*Amsterdam.*	R:	Amsterdam.
Teacher*:*	*Ook.*	T:	Also.
Roya*:*	*Den Haag.*	R:	The Hague.
Teacher*:*	*Wat is er in Den Haag?*	T:	What is there in The Hague?
Roya*:*	*Uh misschien uh parlement of zo.*	R:	Uh maybe uh parliament or so.
Teacher*:*	*Het parlement. Heel goed. Wat is er dan vandaag?*	T:	The parliament. Very good. What is there then today?
Roya*:*	*Uh parlement uh.*	R:	Uh parliament uh
Teacher*:*	*Vandaag zijn er verkiezingen.*	T:	Today there are elections.
Students*:*	*Ooh. Verkiezingen.*	S:	Ooh. Elections.
Teacher*:*	*Ja, wat betekent dat verkiezingen?*	T:	Yes, what does that mean elections?
Roya*:*	*Uh mensen voor verkiezen wie op wie.*	R:	Uh people to choose who for who.
Teacher*:*	*Ja, ja. Mensen, Nederlanders, van*	T:	Yes, yes. People, the Dutch,

achttien jaar en ouder die gaan stemmen. Stemmen, hè. Dat betekent, dan hebben ze zo'n lijst, kijk, met allemaal namen. En mensen gaan naar een stemhokje in uh in de bibliotheek of uh cultureel centrum hè. Op verschillende plaatsen in Zevenaar, Pannerden, in Duiven. Overal gaan mensen er naar toe en dan moeten ze met rood, met een rood potlood, kiezen. Moeten ze één naam aanwijzen, die persoon wil ik in het parlement. Er zijn er een heleboel en moeten ze één kiezen. Jij gaat in het parlement.	from eighteen years and older can vote. Vote, yes. That means, then they have a list, look, with all the names. And the people go to a voting booth in a uh library or uh cultural center. At various locations in Zevenaar, in Pannerden, in Duiven. Everywhere people go there and then they have to with a red pencil, with a red pencil, vote. Must choose one name, that person I want in parliament. There are a lot and they have to choose one. You go to parliament.

As this example shows, the teacher makes sure the students understand before continuing. When the basis has been laid, she continues by giving more information about the elections. The interaction does not end here. The teacher then asks about parliament, where it is located, and what democracy is. Each time, following the same procedure, more information is revealed – first asking, probing a little deeper, and then finally explaining and giving more information.

7.1.3 Participant interaction

In the category participant interaction the speakers of an interaction are identified. Four factors were covered: teacher talking, teacher interacting with the class or a student, a student interacting with the class or another student, and other. Under the latter, other modalities than speaking were subsumed such as watching a video, listening to a CD, or doing a simple written exercise. Table 7:3 characterizes the classes in hours and percentages. Figure 7:4 visualizes for each class the amount of time participant interaction takes place in relation to the total available engaged time.

Table 7:3 Classroom time for participant interaction over the 30-week observation period for the six observed classes during oral skills practice in hours and percentages (%) by class.

Class	Engaged classroom time	Categories participant interaction			
		Teacher talking	Teacher – student/class	Student – student/class	Other
1	108.19	20.76 (19.19)	55.11 (50.94)	29.78 (27.53)	2.54 (2.35)
2	150.47	23.22 (15.43)	50.09 (33.29)	68.32 (45.40)	8.83 (5.87)
3	123.68	32.31 (26.12)	83.40 (67.43)	0	7.97 (6.44)
4	40.42	14.79 (36.59)	18.59 (45.99)	2.77 (6.85)	4.27 (10.56)
5	77.64	26.49 (34.12)	34.88 (44.93)	11.31 (14.57)	4.95 (6.38)
6	195.67	61.30 (31.33)	98.39 (50.28)	10.87 (5.56)	25.12 (12.84)
Mean (%)		(27.13)	(48.81)	(16.65)	(7.41)

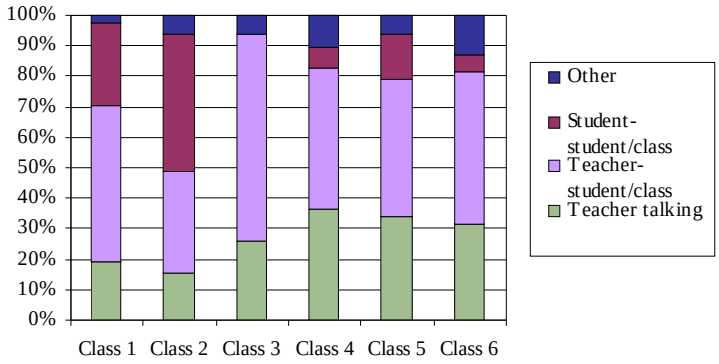


Figure 7:4 Four categories of participant interaction in relation to total engaged classroom time by class.

Characteristic of all the classes was the strong teacher-centered learning, exhibited by the high percentages and number of hours for the factors teacher talking and teacher-class/student interactions. In such classrooms, the teacher controls classroom processes, determines what is to be done, and generally how it is to be performed. This is not so surprising, as these students need extra guidance in their learning process. The category teacher-student/class indicates that the teacher took the initiative in asking the questions or requesting some kind of response from the students. This is reflected by exercises such as question-answer type. Example (7.7) illustrates such a question-answer exercise during a vocabulary lesson in Class 3, where this type of practice was abundant, 67.43% of the engaged time. In such an exercise, the students' reactions are short, usually limited to one or two words.

(7.7) *Teacher-student intera*ction [C3/2:TRA1]

Teacher:	*Welk nummer heeft de woonkamer?*	T: What number is the living room?
Student:	*Vijf.*	S: Five.
Teacher:	*Ja, goed zo. Nummer vijf is de woonkamer. Ja. Wat zie je in de woonkamer?*	T: Yes, good. Number five is the living room. Yes. What do you see in the living room?
Student:	*Een bank.*	S: A sofa.
Teacher:	*Een bank.*	T: A sofa.

In all the classes, except Class 3, there was an activity where the student had some control over the interaction. In Class 3 no such activity was observed during the selected lessons. For Class 2 the amount of engaged time during which the teacher was talking or took the initiative was practically just as large as the student to student interactions, 48.72% compared to 45.40%. Most of these were small exchanges with a classmate. Example (7.8) demonstrates such a student-student type of interaction in an exchange about a student's trip to Mecca, closing with the teacher's quick summary.

(7.8) *Student-student interaction* [C2/1:TRA2]

Hasan:	*Hoeveel kost ticket voor vliegtuig? Duur?*	H:	How much does a plane ticket for airplane cost? Expensive?
Amina:	*Vierduizend, vierduizend.*	A:	Four thousand, four thousand.
Hasan:	*Totaal*?	H:	In total?
Amina:	*Allemaal kost kleren, vliegtuig, eten. Vierduizend.*	A:	Altogether cost clothes, airplane, food. Four thousand.
Hasan:	*Voor hotel, voor +/.*	H:	For hotel, for +/.
Amina:	*Zelfde. Vierduizend*.	A:	The same. Four thousand.
Teacher:	*Oké, vierduizend per persoon.*	T:	Okay, four thousand per person.

For the final category, *other*, modalities other than speaking were included. The hours and percentages for this feature were overall low. In Class 1, 2, and 4 the classroom practices were guided by the basic textbook, which instructed the teacher in the use of recorded materials (video, DVD, or CD) for dialog or vocabulary practice. In Class 3 time was taken up by copying words from the white board, Class 5 listened to a song on a CD, and Class 6 spent the greatest amount of time on the modality writing, which included answering questions on a teacher-written text. A number of students in the latter class were not sufficiently advanced in their literacy skills to be able to complete the exercise. In those cases the teacher assisted by giving the correct answer orally or by writing it down so that the student could copy it to her work sheet.

7.1.4 Participant organization

The domain participant organization examined how the students were organized during a particular activity or task. Three types of participant organization were identified: whole class, small groups or pairs, and individual. Table 7:4 exhibits in number of hours and total percentages these three types of classroom organization. Figure 7:5 presents the differences between the classes in a bar graph.

Table 7:4 Classroom time for participant organization over the 30-week observation period for the six observed classes during oral skills practice in hours and percentages (%) by class.

Class	Engaged classroom time	Categories participant organization		
		Whole class	Small groups/pairs	Individual
1	108.19	71.71 (66.28)	26.12 (24.14)	10.36 (9.58)
2	150.47	120.90 (80.35)	27.51 (18.28)	2.06 (1.37)
3	123.68	113.02 (91.38)	0	10.66 (8.62)
4	40.42	33.56 (83.03)	2.63 (6.51)	4.23 (10.47)
5	77.64	74.58 (96.06)	0	3.06 (3.94)
6	195.67	125.41 (64.09)	0	70.27 (35.91)
Mean (%)		(80.20)	(8.16)	(11.65)

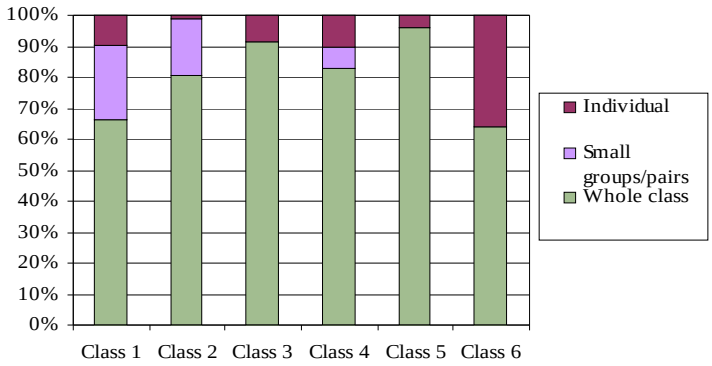


Figure 7:5 Three categories of participant organization in relation to the total engaged classroom time by class.

As can be seen in Table 7:4 and Figure 7:5, activities and tasks predominantly involved the whole class with percentages between 64% and 97%. This concurs with the high percentages for teacher talking and teacher-student interactions, taken together between 48% and 94%. Strikingly low is the number of group work activities. In Classes 3, 5, and 6 no activities organized in small groups or pairs were observed. In Classes 1, 2, and 4, guided by the use of a basic textbook, group work occasionally occurred, 26.12 hours (24.14%), 27.51 hours (18.28%), and 2.63 hours (6.51%) respectively. The sporadic use of group work activities has its reasons. Foremost is the teacher's hesitancy to organize such activities, saying that it takes too much time to explain the exercise before it can be performed. Secondly, students revert to L1 use during such exercises. Class 1 performed the most group work. During a great part of this time students worked on making sentences using *PICTO* (Paulussen-van Vugt & Geurtsen, 1994). *PICTO* is a remedial program originally developed for children, native and non-native, speakers of Dutch who have difficulty with speaking in complete and correct sentences. Through the use of pictures and symbols (pictographs) the student's attention is focused on the structure of a sentence. *PICTO* has also been adapted for DL2 adult education.[54] Figure 7:6 illustrates such a pictograph. The three pictographs aim at eliciting the sentence: De jongen leest (The boy reads). The small square in this pictograph symbolizes an article.

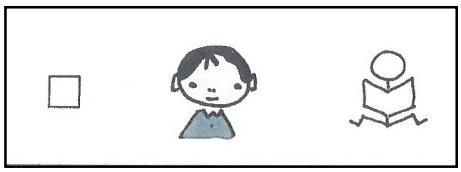


Figure 7:6 A pictograph taken from PICTO, workbook 3, p. 6 by Paulussen-van Vugt, B. (1994). Reprinted with permission from the publisher.

During this exercise the students sat in groups of four, each with their own workbook. The instruction was clear and simple – to read aloud one by one the pictograph sentences. The teacher went from group to group helping and giving feedback.

An example of group work in Class 1 without the use of extra materials was the technique using the dyadic belt formation.[55] Students stand

54 In 2007 a version of *PICTO* especially geared to Dutch second language literacy classes was produced by Borgesius, Brinks, Jaquet and Nijdam (2007).

55 Epstein, R. & Ormiston, M. (n.d.). Drills, Dialogues, and Role Plays - Web-only chapter retrieved October 4, 2013

in two concentric circles facing each other. Students in the inside circle face a partner on the outside. First those in the inner circle ask the question to the student standing opposite. That student then answers the question. Then the students on the outside all move counterclockwise or clockwise and the question-answer routine is repeated with another partner from the inside circle. After a designated time the roles are exchanged – those answering now ask and the process is repeated. By repetitive practice the question-answer routine is automatized. The question asked in the Class 1 exercise was "What is your date of birth?" The answer to that question was the actual date of the student's birth. This question-answer routine had been practiced in previous lessons. As a review exercise, the teacher decided to use the dyadic belt formation. She repeatedly stepped in to demonstrate the purpose of this exercise. After fifteen minutes of trying and a lot of laughter, the circles were dismantled. This is, of course, no evidence that this type of group work cannot be performed with this target group of students, but it does show that it takes time and effort to make it succeed. Simplicity and clarity of purpose are most important. Perhaps the same exercise in line formation would have been more effective. Group work using *PICTO* was very effective. The students were focused on the task at hand.

Group work in Class 2 was limited. Located in a small classroom not allowing for much student movement, group work mainly entailed short interactions with a neighbouring student during basically whole class activities. This accounts for the high percentage of student-student/class interactions, 45.40% (see Table 7:3) in contrast to the lower percentage for group work, 18.28%. In Class 4 group work was limited to the practice of small dialogs. Class 6 spent a substantial part of the lessons working individually, 70.27 hours (35.91%) doing either a short written task or having an individual exchange with the teacher during which, for example, questions were answered or written work was checked.

7.1.5 Materials

The last domain in Scheme A is the use of materials during classroom activities. Four main categories were subsumed under this domain: textbook, extra materials, audio/visual, and none. Table 7:5 compares the six classes on use of such materials. The bar graph in Figure 7:7 renders a visual picture of the differences between the classes for the use of materials.

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from: http://www.press.umich.edu/pdf/0472032038-web.pdf .

Table 7:5 Classroom time for use of educational materials over the 30-week observation period for the six observed classes during oral skills practice in hours and percentages (%) by class.

Class	Engaged classroom time	Categories educational materials			
		Textbook	Extra materials	Audio/visual	None
1	108.19	36.14 (33.40)	16.69 (15.43)	4.67 (4.32)	50.69 (46.85)
2	150.47	39.52 (26.26)	35.84 (23.82)	21.11 (14.03)	53.99 (35.88)
3	123.68	0	67.11 (54.26)	0	56.57 (45.84)
4	40.42	10.76 (26.61)	13.96 (34.54)	5.83 (14.42)	9.88 (24.44)
5	77.64	0	16.34 (21.05)	3.34 (4.30)	57.96 (74.65)
6	195.67	1.52 (0.78)	107.49 (54.93)	0	86.67 (44.29)
Mean (%)		(14.51)	(34.01)	(6.18)	(45.33)

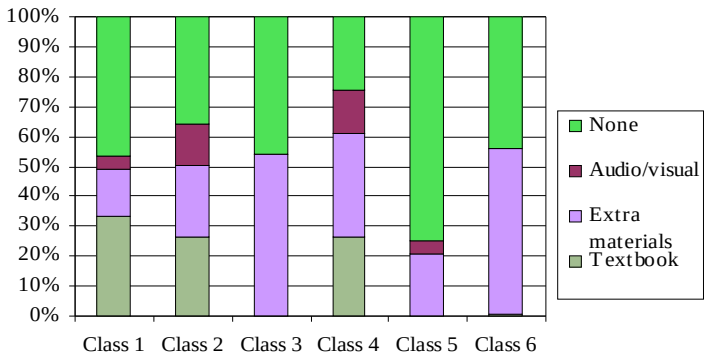

Figure 7:7 The four categories of educational materials in relation to total engaged classroom time by class.

Three classes, Classes 1, 2, and 4, based their learning program on a textbook. Classes 1 and 2 used the same textbook, *SA* and Class 4 used the textbook *ENV*. Both textbooks are described in 4.2.4. These three classes, in following the instructions in the textbook, also made occasional use of audio and/or visual materials. The use of such materials was not observed in Classes 3 and 6. At one time the students in Class 5 listened to a song. Classes 3, 5, and 6 did not use a basic textbook, but did refer to a text for dialog practice (see section 7.2.4). Class 3 had, just prior to the observation period, completed the first part of the basic textbook (*SA*) and was subsequently reviewing and expanding vocabulary by using various materials other than the textbook.

All the classes made liberal use of extra materials. This included realia, such as leaflets, medicines or photographs, as well as materials made for educational purposes, such as practice clocks, photo pictures (*ColorCards, 1991*), or play money. A substantial amount of practice time took place without the use of any type of materials, such as the group work activity described in section 7.1.5.

7.1.6 Comparing the classes

In Table 7:6 the classes are compared for Time Management (including CALL time) and the categories in Observation Scheme A. First, the percentages for the categories of each domain presented in Tables 7:1–7:5 were compared, within and between the classes. To facilitate the comparison, each category was labelled *remarkably high*, *high*, *low*, or *remarkably low*. CALL activities that were not scheduled were labelled *not scheduled*. Percentages for each category within a 5% margin above or below the mean were regarded as average and were consequently marked with a small black dot. Percentages between 5% and 10% above or below the mean were regarded as high or low and were marked with respectively a light green or light purple circle. Percentages above or below 10% of the mean were considered as remarkable high or low. These were marked respectively with a dark green or dark purple circle. Based on the overview presented in Table 7:6 each class is subsequently described, highlighting the main characteristics noted in Table 7:6.

Table 7:6 The classes compared for time management and classroom organization.
(● = remarkably high, >10% above mean; ● = high, 5% -10% above mean; ● = low, 5% - 10% below mean; ● = remarkably low, >10% below mean; ○ = not scheduled; • = mean).

Domains	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Class 6
Time management						
• Lost time	●	●	•	●	●	●
• Procedural time	•	•	●	●	●	•
• Engaged time						
o Classroom time	●	●	●	●	●	●
o CALL time	○	○	○	●	○	○
Content focus						
• Vocabulary	●	•	●	•	•	●
• Grammar	●	•	●	•	•	•
• Restricted discourse	•	●	•	•	●	●
• Unrestricted discourse	●	●	●	•	•	●
• Life skills knowledge	•	●	•	●	●	●
Participant interaction						
• Teacher talking	●	●	•	●	●	•
• Teacher-student	•	●	●	•	•	•
• Student-student	●	●	●	●	•	●
Participant organization						
• Whole class	●	•	●	•	●	●
• Group	●	●	●	•	●	●
• Individual	•	●	•	•	●	●
Materials						
• Textbook	●	●	●	●	●	●
• Extra materials	●	●	●	•	●	●
• Audio/visual	•	●	●	●	•	●
• None	•	●	•	●	●	•

Class 1

As Table 7:6 exhibits, Class 1 had a high score for time (above 80%), pointing to effective teaching in terms of time use. The teacher also functioned efficiently as lost time was remarkably low. No CALL activities were scheduled during classroom time. In comparison to the other classes, Class 1 had a remarkably high focus on grammar, but a low focus on vocabulary. URD practice was infrequent as was the amount of teacher

talking. In contrast, student to student interactions occurred frequently as did group work. The teacher was guided by a textbook accompanied by a CD and a teacher's manual with suggestions for audio/visual material. The activities were most often performed without the use of extra materials.

Class 2

For Class 2 Table 7:6 also shows a high score for engaged time (above 80%) and a remarkable low score for lost time, both pointing to effective and efficient teaching. No CALL activities were scheduled during classroom time. In comparison to the other classes, Class 2 had a substantial amount of RD and URD practice, both marked high. There was very little LSK. The roles in the dialogs were often performed by two students, while in the other classes the teacher performed together with a student. This added to the remarkably high score for student-student interactions. The teacher was guided by a textbook accompanied by a CD and a teacher's manual with suggestions for audio/visual material. The activities were most often performed without the use of extra materials.

Class 3

Table 7:6 also indicates a high score for engaged time (more than 80%) for Class 3 and a remarkable low score for procedural time, both pointing to effective and efficient teaching. No CALL activities were scheduled during classroom time. Grammar and URD practice occurred seldom; both were marked low. Instead, this class focused strongly on vocabulary learning, which was marked remarkably high. The teacher's abundant use of question-answer exercises contributed to the remarkably high marking for teacher-student interactions and whole class activities. On the other hand, no group activities or student-student interactions were observed and consequently, both were marked remarkably low. No textbook or audio/visual material was used, but the use of extra materials was remarkably high.

Class 4

Class 4 was the only class that had a remarkable high score for engaged time (above 90%) and at the same time a low score for procedural time. No lost time was observed. All three features point to effective and efficient teaching. CALL activities were a fixed part of the lesson, which contributed to the high engaged time. The teacher was the central figure in the class and student-student interactions were minimal. The teacher closely followed the instructions of the textbook (*ENV*) which was also accompanied by a CD. The features under content focus and participant organization were neither high nor low in focus (only LSK had a low marking), pointing to a balanced pedagogy.

Class 5

For Class 5 Table 7:6 shows a high score for lost time, which resulted in a remarkably low score for engaged time (circa 50%), reflecting less effective teaching. The teacher was efficient in her procedures. This was marked low. There were no CALL activities during classroom time as there were no computers available for classroom use. No RD or group work was observed and, consequently, both were marked as remarkably low. Ample time was spent on LSK. Most of the classroom activities were performed with the whole class (a remarkable high). The lessons were not based on the systematic use of a textbook. Most of the activities were not accompanied by any type of materials.

Class 6

Table 7:6 also indicates a high score for lost time for Class 6, which, likewise, resulted in a remarkably low score for engaged time (circa 50%), reflecting less effective teaching. There were no CALL activities during classroom time as there were no computers available for classroom use. The focus on vocabulary and RD was remarkably low. On the other hand, a remarkable high score for LSK and a high for URD were noted. Perhaps this was a result of a strong focus on community integration and the development of a language portfolio for the civic exam. Group work, as well as the use of audio/visual material, was not evidenced. This coincides with a remarkably low score for student-student interactions. No basic textbook was used systematically, instead the teacher was active in making her own material with which the students regularly worked individually giving a remarkably high score for the use of extra materials.

7.1.7 Observations on classroom organization

In the previous section the general pedagogical processes in the classroom in view of time given to instructional and organizational features were examined. In comparing the classes, some striking observations surfaced. Most remarkable is the profound difference in the allocation of time for teaching and learning, referred to by Kauchak and Eggen (1998, 2012) as engaged time. Classes 1, 2, 3, and 4 stand out for having a high percent for engaged time. The formidable amount of time lost in Classes 5 and 6 resulted in a low percentage for engaged time. Not even the efficient use of procedural time in Class 5 compensated for the loss of learning time. As Kauchak and Eggen (2012) asserted, such loss of learning and teaching time reflects poor planning and discipline, which in turn can affect learning results.

Another striking observation is the use of CALL activities in Class 4. Class 4 was the only class that incorporated the use of CALL activities during classroom hours. As Brown (2007) pointed out, through using CALL activities students can work at their own pace focusing on those activities which are of most interest, importance, or necessity. Classes 5 and 6 had no access to computers. Classes 1, 2, and 3 did not integrate the use of the available computers into the program. This low occurrence of CALL use is surprising, particularly in view of the results on the survey presented in chapter 3. From this survey surfaced that 74% of the respondents (of which these classes formed a part) noted using the computer for language practice. It is known that for the written skills, in particular the literacy part of the NCB comprehensive course (titled *7/43)*, CALL activities have been developed and integrated into the literacy program. For the oral skills there are no special computer programs. Class 4 made use of various computer programs developed for learning DSL vocabulary, but these were not specifically geared toward the low-literate.

Teacher-centered classes with whole class activities occurred the most (mean 80%). Group work, argued to be advantageous for quantity as well as quality of L2 output (e.g. Brown, 2007; Long & Porter, 1985) occurred only in Classes 1, 2, and to a lesser extent in Class 4 (overall mean for group work was 8%). In Class 6 the students spent a substantial amount of time working individually on teacher-made handouts with short written texts (overall mean was 12% for individual work). Taking a look in the class, it was observed that a number of students could not complete these tasks without the teacher's help. Katz (1996) found that in an elementary school situation whole class activities were dominate (72%). It was likewise in the LESLLA classroom (80%). For group work Katz noted 15% and for individual work 7%. Both types of education are shown to be teacher-centered, only the LESLLA classes are not characterized by group work (8.16%) and for individual work (11.65%).

The use of a textbook formed the backbone of the language course in Classes 1, 2, and 4. The book formed the learning goals and dictated classroom procedures and preparation. The latter is seen in the minimal amount of lost time in these classes. In comparison to the other classes, Class 4 showed an overall balanced content focus. Classes 3 did not use a textbook, but had a clear learning focus. Having completed the introductory program of the textbook, the teacher chose to review and expand vocabulary before continuing further. In Class 5 the use of materials was minimal. Not only was a textbook not used, few other supporting materials were utilized. Both Classes 5 and 6 spent a formidable amount of time on LSK. World knowledge and LSK are essential to language learning. This becomes even

more acute due to the requirements for the integration exam specified by the then current integration law.

7.2 Observation scheme B: Classroom instructional interaction

Through the use of Observation Scheme B (reproduced in Figure 5:2 and described in section 5.5) verbal interactions between the teacher and the students were analyzed. The scheme focuses on three domains organized along the lines of the IRF exchange structure: initiation, response, and feedback. The domain *initiation* covers those features of an interaction that start the interaction. This part is usually executed by the teacher in the form of questions or comments. The second domain, *response*, focuses on the responses a student gives in reaction to the teacher's initiation, put simply – the answer to the questions. The last domain covers the teacher's *feedback* in reaction to the student's response. This includes positive and negative feedback as well as topic continuation. For the analysis, interactions occurring during the practice of vocabulary, grammar, RD, and URD were selected. These four lesson components were extracted from the domain 'content focus' in Scheme A. The selection of the lesson fragments for analysis is described in section 5.1.3. To recapitulate, two lesson fragments for each component, one at the beginning and one at the close of the observation period, were selected. If possible, each fragment covered a continuous time span of ten minutes. Table 5:2 lists the lesson fragments analyzed under Scheme B. The lesson components RD and LSK were not analyzed using this scheme. The interactions during RD practice were scripted dialogs with a fixed structure, leaving little room for creative production. Section 7.2.4 deals separately with RD. LSK was not analyzed because as this component did not consistently involve interaction between teacher and student. The teacher was usually the primary speaker during LSK.

7.2.1 Teacher initiation

In total, 1114 teacher initiations were analyzed that took place during the practice of vocabulary, grammar, and URD. Of these, 903 were IRF exchanges. Table 7:7 exhibits the frequencies per class for the occurrence of these IRF exchanges, their focus, and the types of questions asked during the initiation phase. The occurrence of questions types were also analyzed for each lesson component. Figures 7:8–7:10 render the percentages graphically.

Table 7:7 IRF exchanges and question types in teacher initiations for vocabulary, grammar, and unrestricted discourse by class (F = form-focus; M = meaning-focus).

Class	% IRF (IRF totals)	% IRF Focus		% Display questions				% Referential questions			
				Closed		Open		Closed		Open	
		Form	Meaning	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
1	73 (95/130)	58	42	57	20	0	2	1	13	0	7
2	91 (176/193)	44	56	35	2	3	1	6	31	0	22
3	86 (202/234)	68	32	67	0	1	0	0	22	0	10
4	85 (192/227)	76	24	75	3	1	6	0	10	0	5
5	56 (71/127)	76	24	47	0	28	0	1	18	0	6
6	82 (167/203)	54	46	51	6	2	6	0	25	0	10
Mean (%)	79 (903/1114)	63	37	55	5	6	3	1	20	0	10

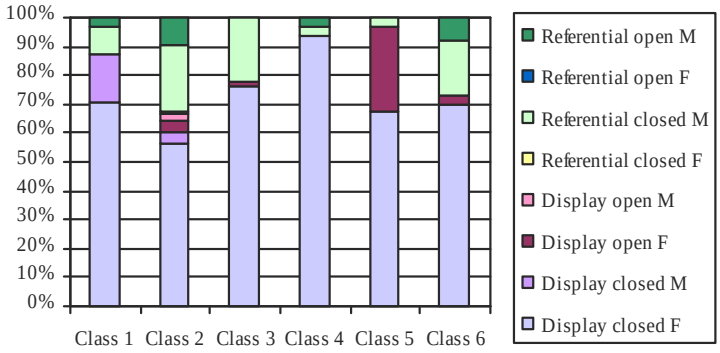

Figure 7:8 Distribution of question types during vocabulary practice (F= form-focus, M=meaning-focus; N=470).

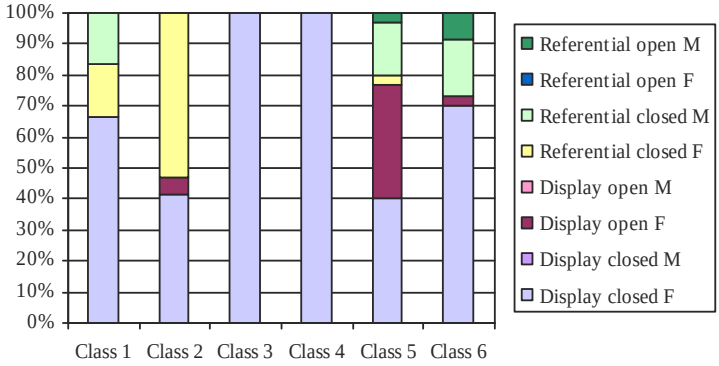

Figure 7:9 Distribution of question types during grammar practice (F= form-focus, M=meaning-focus; N=205).

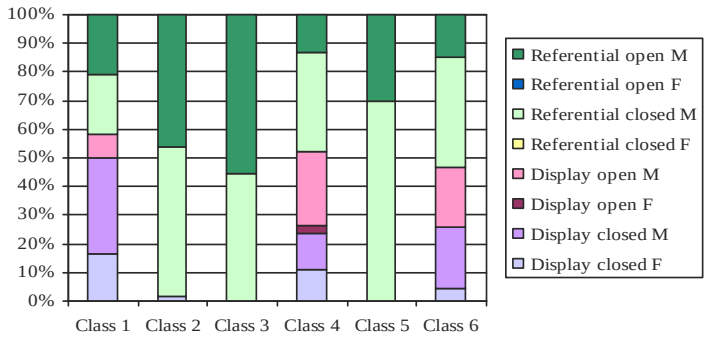

Figure 7:10 Distribution of question types during URD (F=form-focus, M=meaning-focus; N=228).

As Table 7:7 notes, more than half of the initiations followed the IRF structure, with a mean percentage of 79%. This structure occurred most frequently in Class 2, with a percentage of 91% and the least in Class 5, with a frequency of 56%. Such high frequencies for the use of IRF exchanges reflect a pedagogy that is predominately teacher-fronted, meaning that the teacher was the pivotal figure in the classroom – around her all revolves. She decided the what, when, where, why, who, and how the activities were to take place. Consequently, it was the teacher who opened an interaction with a solicitation. Teacher-fronted classrooms did not solely entail IRF exchanges. The teacher was also instructing, explaining, informing, remarking, evaluating, expanding knowledge, or even just chatting. Example (7.9) illustrates a meaning-focused explanation. In (7.9) the teacher is not soliciting a response, but explaining language use. The students were practicing 'making an appointment with the doctor'. The teacher closes in (7.9) calling the student's attention to a specific routine used in making a telephone call.

(7.9) *Teacher explaining language use* [C1/1:RD1]

Teacher:	*Als je de telefoon opneemt dan zeggen we in Nederland altijd 'met' en dan de naam. 'Met Fadila Zanzan' of 'met mevrouw Zanzan,' hè ? Dus je hoeft niet te zeggen 'ik ben,' maar gewoon alleen 'met mevrouw Zanzan,' 'met Fadila Zanzan.'*	T: When you take up the telephone then we always say in the Netherlands 'with' and then your name. 'With Fadila Zanzan' or 'with Mrs. Zanzan'. So you don't have to say 'I am,' but simply 'with Mrs. Zanzan,' 'with Fadila Zanzan.'
Fadila:	*Alles met, ja?*	F: Everything with, yes?
Teacher:	*Telefoon, zeggen we gewoon: met. Ja? 'Goedemiddag, met de praktijk van dokter More.'*	T: Telephone, we just say: with. Okay? 'Good afternoon, with doctor More's office.'

IRF exchanges can focus on either form or meaning. As explained in 5.4.1, form refers to the lexical, grammatical or phonological features of an utterance. Meaning refers to the message of the interaction. Table 7:7 shows that in all the classes, except in Class 2, the primary focus was on form, with a mean of 63%. Class 2 had a slightly higher focus on meaning than on form (56% and 44% respectively). Accordingly, most of the questions also focused on form. These form-focused questions were largely closed-ended display questions with a mean of 55%. Closed-ended display questions are a frequent occurrence in the classroom. For questions of this kind, the teacher already knows the answer and she applies them to check for understanding

or for language practice. Such questions often include yes/no questions or simple multiple choice questions to which there is only one possible answer. Example (7.7) in section 7.1.3, illustrates a closed-ended display question focusing on vocabulary. In that example, the students were looking at a drawing of a floor plan of a house. The teacher was asking about the rooms in the floor plan. She was checking the students' knowledge on specific vocabulary. Not all display questions are as limited as those in (7.7). Example (7.10) illustrates a closed-ended display question for which real answers, albeit limited, can be given. This exercise had a grammatical focus and the teacher ended with a grammatical explanation put forth inductively by using examples.

(7.10) *Form-focused closed-ended display question* [C5/3:GRA1]

Teacher:	*Ik heb. Wat heb jij*?	T: I have. What do you have?
Yamna:	*Niks.*	Y: Nothing.
Teacher:	*Ik heb niks? Yamna zegt ik heb niks. Jij hebt heel veel. Wat heb je onder de tafel?*	T: I have nothing? Yamna says I have nothing. You have a whole lot. What do you have under the table?
Yamna:	*Tas.*	Y: Purse.
Teacher:	*Ja. Ik heb een tas. Jij hebt een tas. Ik heb een tas. Ja, dat heb je wel.*	T: Yes. I have a purse. You have a purse. I have a purse. Yes, you indeed have that.

In contrast to the form-focused, closed-ended display questions, meaning-focused ones occurred only sporadically, except in Class 1. Class 1 had an unusually high percentage for this type of question (20%). In this class, almost half of the teacher's meaning-focused questions were of the closed-ended display type. As Figures 7.8 and 7.10 show, they occurred during vocabulary and URD practice. Example (7.11) illustrates such a meaning-focused, closed-ended display question during a URD interaction. The students were discussing "news of the week", a recurring event with which the teacher opened her lessons. In (7.11) the discussion centered on a newspaper photograph of the Royal couple's visit to Bhutan. The arrows point to the teacher's meaning-focused, closed-ended display questions.

(7.11) *Meaning-focused closed-ended display question* [C1/1:URD2]

Teacher:	*Hoe heet onze +/?*	T: What is the name of our +/?
Yolaidis:	*Maxima.*	Y: Maxima.
→Teacher:	*Prinses Maxima. En wie nog meer? En haar man. Hoe heet haar man?*	T: Princes Maxima. And who else? And her husband. What is the name of her husband?
Betty:	*Alexander.*	B: Alexander.
→Teacher:	*Heel goed. Willem Alexander en Maxima, ja. Vorige week waren ze +//. Waar waren ze vorige week op bezoek?*	T: Very good. Willem Alexander and Maxima, yes. Last week they were +//. Where were they visiting last week?
Yolaidis:	*In India was gisteren geweest in Buddhist.*	Y: In India was yesterday in Buddhist.
Teacher:	*Ja, hoe heet dat? Bhu +//. Ja, dit is niet India. Dit is Bhutan.*	T: Yes, what is it called? Bhu +//. Right, it is not India. It is Bhutan.

The teacher, although knowing the answer to her questions herself, was not only trying to extract an answer, but also trying to expand the students' knowledge and to get them to speak. Another example of meaning-focused, closed-display questions is demonstrated by (7.5) during a vocabulary and LSK exercise. In that excerpt, the teacher also knows in advance the answers to her questions, but by linking vocabulary to LSK she also linked form to meaning. Van Lier (1996, 2001) and Lee (2006) both argue that the use of IRF sequences can be of didactic importance, depending on the type of questions asked. Lee states that display questions can "steer the discourse into a particular direction, using multiple IRF sequences" (p. 708). In such a way, words and topics can be explained and clarified. Example (7.11) is such an illustration, as are also examples (7.5) and (7.6).

The referential questions were primarily meaning-focused ones – closed- as well as open-ended. Class 2, whose IRF focus was slightly more on meaning than on form, had the highest percentage for meaning-focused referential questions, 31% for the closed type and 22% for the open type. Figure 7:10 illustrates that the use of these questions was foremost during URD practice. Form-focused, closed-ended display questions dominate vocabulary and grammar practice (Figures 7:8 and 7:9) is the. During URD practice the use of this type of question is minimal and, as Figure 7:10 shows, the meaning-focused referential questions dominate. There were no form-focused, open-ended referential questions. A referential question is also called a real or genuine question (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995). The answers to such questions are usually not known by the teacher in advance and, as a

consequence, all types of responses are possible. This is particularly the case for the meaning-focused open-ended referential questions, as (7.12) shows. The example is taken from Class 2 during the weekly recurring "weekend story." Here Asma tells about her biking episode. To keep the conversation going, the teacher poses real questions. In such a way she forces the student to use more words than just yes or no in her answer. The arrows point to the teacher's meaning-focused open-ended referential questions.

(7.12) *Meaning-focused open-ended referential questions* [C2/1:URD2]

→Teacher:	*Oké, nou vertel eens, Asma, wat heb je gisteren gedaan?*	T:	Okay, now tell us, Asma, what did you do yesterday?
Asma:	*Gisteren ik uh ik fietsen tot over de grote brug hier. Mijn band sss.*	A:	Yesterday I uh biked up to the big bridge here. My tire sss.
Teacher:	*Je band was lek.*	T:	Your tire was flat.
Asma:	*Ja.*	A:	Yes.
→Teacher:	*En toen?*	T:	And then?
Asma:	*Toen ik lopen met de fiets zo naar huis. Ik haal mensen help mij fiets maken.*	A:	Then I walked home with the bike. I get people to help me fix my bike.
→Teacher:	*Ben je zelf naar de fietsenmaker geweest of heeft iemand jouw fiets gemaakt?*	T:	Did you go to the bicycle repair shop or did someone repair your bike?
Asma:	*Ik heb uh vraag voor mijn buurman.*	A:	I uh asked my neighbor.

7.2.2 Student responses

The second domain in Scheme B covers student responses. In this analysis only those self-constructed responses were included, meaning that repetitions of teacher utterances were not part of the analysis. These self-constructed responses were analyzed on number of words uttered. The responses were grouped into three categories: *minimal* (one to two words), *limited* (three to four words), and *extended* (more than four words). Neither grammar nor correctness of the responses was taken into consideration. Table 7:8 gives an overview of the student utterances for the three lesson components grouped together.

Table 7:8 Total number of student responses for the categories minimal, limited, and extended in number and percentages (%) by class.

Class	Total	Minimal (%)	Limited (%)	Extended (%)
1	264	156 (59)	72 (27)	36 (14)
2	437	280 (64)	88 (20)	69 (16)
3	323	215 (67)	62 (19)	46 (14)
4	270	156 (58)	80 (30)	34 (13)
5	180	130 (72)	44 (24)	6 (3)
6	336	217 (65)	82 (24)	37 (11)
Totals	1810	1154 (64)	428 (24)	228 (12)

In Table 7:8 the total number of student responses exceeds the total number of teacher initiations noted in Table 7:7. This is due to multiple responses given by one student as well as those given by more than one student to the same initiation. The latter occurs more often when the teacher's allocation of turns is not directed to one student, but to the class as a whole. Example (7.13) illustrates such multiple responses to a teacher's single question.

(7.13) *Multiple responses to a teacher's question* [C2/1:VOC3]

Teacher:	*Nou, hoe noem je dat? Hoe noem je zo'n tube?*	T:	Now, what do you call that? What do you say for such a tube?
Student 1:	*Tandpasta.*	S1:	Toothpaste.
Student 2:	*Tube.*	S2:	Tube.
Student 3:	*Tandepoets.*	S3:	Tooth polish.
Student 1:	*Tandpasta.*	S1:	Toothpaste.
Teacher:	*Tandpasta. Je kunt er mee tandenpoetsen.*	T:	Toothpaste. You can brush [polish] your teeth with it.

Table 7:8 also shows that there is also a considerable difference between the classes in the total number of student responses. For example, for Class 2 there are almost two and a half times as many responses as for Class 5, 437 and 180 respectively. This points to a lower student contribution in Class 5 than in Class 2. Secondly, this difference also indicates a higher teacher contribution in Class 5 through the giving of comments. In other words, the teacher in Class 5 talked more than the one in Class 2. The results in Table 7:3 indicate that this is indeed the case. Class 5 has for teacher talk 34% and for LSK 45%, while for Class 2 the percentages are 15% and 16% respectively. Table 7:9 shows that most of the responses during each form of practice are minimal, between 58% and 72%. There were considerably fewer utterances in the category limited, between 19% and 30%. The least number of responses were extended, between 3% and 16%. Class 5 has the highest

percentage for limited responses (72%) and a strikingly low percentage for extended responses (3%). For the category extended, the students in Class 2 produced the most responses (16%). Table 7:9 gives the student responses in numbers and percentages during each of the lesson components vocabulary, grammar, and URD. When looking at the three components separately, the frequencies become more distinct. This is visualized in Figures 7:11–7:13.

Table 7:9 Number of student responses during vocabulary, grammar, and URD practice for the categories minimal, limited, and extended, in number and percentages (%) by class.

	Vocabulary (%)			Grammar (%)			Unrestricted discourse (%)		
Class	Minimal	Limited	Extended	Minimal	Limited	Extended	Minimal	Limited	Extended
1	79 (71)	19 (17)	13 (12)	48 (48)	43 (43)	8 (8)	29 (54)	10 (19)	15 (28)
2	107 (78)	19 (14)	12 (9)	68 (55)	32 (26)	24 (19)	105 (60)	37 (21)	33 (19)
3	139 (77)	30 (17)	12 (7)	36 (59)	16 (26)	9 (15)	40 (49)	16 (20)	25 (31)
4	82 (67)	24 (20)	17 (14)	37 (41)	48 (53)	6 (7)	37 (66)	8 (14)	11 (20)
5	56 (62)	32 (36)	2 (2)	47 (78)	11 (18)	2 (3)	27 (90)	1 (3)	2 (7)
6	87 (69)	33 (26)	7 (6)	87 (69)	33 (26)	7 (6)	43 (52)	16 (20)	23 (28)
Mean (%)	(71)	(22)	(8)	(58)	(32)	(10)	(62)	(16)	(22)

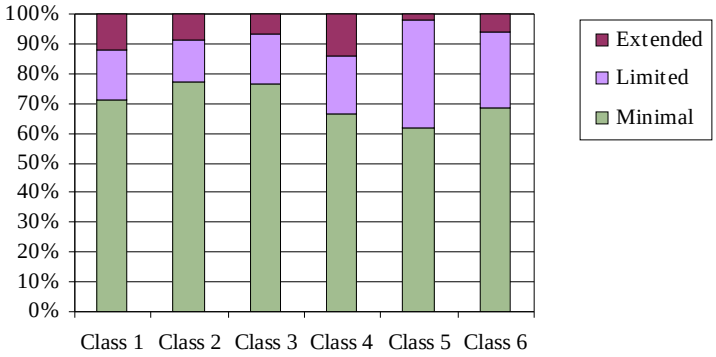

Figure 7:11 Student responses for vocabulary by class.

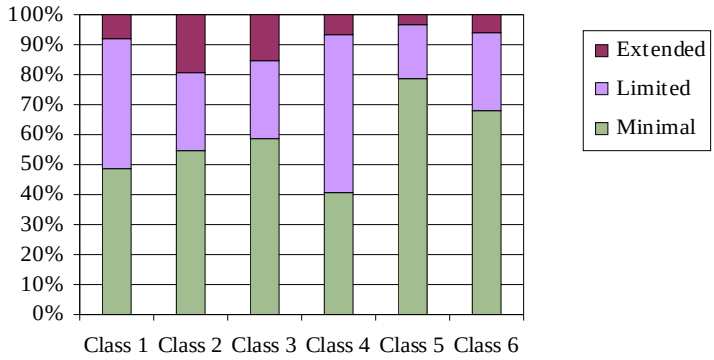

Figure 7:12 Student responses for grammar by class.

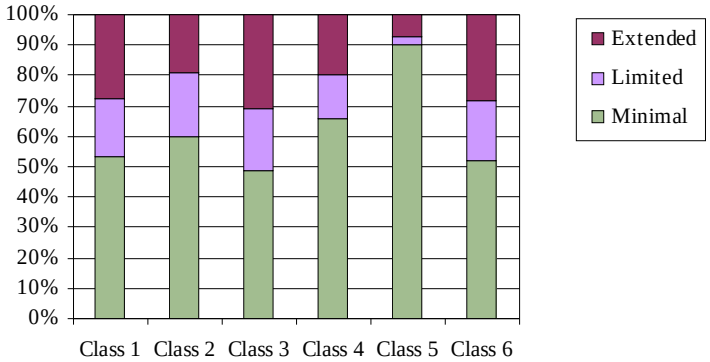

Figure 7:13 Student responses for URD by class.

Minimal responses occurred most frequently during vocabulary practice, except for Class 5 during URD. Limited responses occurred most during grammar practice, except for Class 5 during vocabulary practice. In all the classes, extended responses occurred most frequently during URD. These results indicate that the type of practice (vocabulary, grammar, or URD) influences the length of the student responses. During the URD practice sessions the responses contain more words. This is often dependent on the questions posed by the teacher, as (7.3) and (7.4) above demonstrate. In (7.3) the teacher asks real open-ended questions, while in (7.4) the questions, although focused on meaning, were chiefly closed-ended. As a result, the student in (7.3) responds extensively, while the student in (7.4) has more limited responses. During vocabulary and grammar practice, noticeably fewer extended responses were made. During vocabulary practice a higher percentage of minimal responses occur than during grammar practice, with means of respectively 71% and 58%. During grammar practice the use of limited responses is greater (mean 32%) than during vocabulary practice (mean 22%). An explanation probably lies in the type of responses required. For vocabulary one or two word responses usually suffices, as evidenced by examples (7.7) and (7.14), while for grammar a short sentence is often required, as illustrated in (7.10) and (7.15).

7.2.3 Teacher feedback

In this section the results on teacher feedback are presented. It deals with the types of responses the teacher gave in reaction to a student's response. These could be corrective as well as non-corrective. In Observation Scheme B eight types of teacher feedback were coded: explicit correction, negotiation, recast, repetition, elicitation, acknowledgement, response provided, and comments (see section 5.5). In general, feedback may be categorized as being negative or positive. Negative feedback has as its main purpose to correct a flawed utterance by giving a signal to the student that his utterance was, either linguistically or in content, unacceptable. This type of feedback is then referred to as corrective feedback. Three main types of feedback are usually classified under corrective feedback: explicit feedback, negotiation, and recasts. Corrective feedback is examined more closely in section 7.3. Positive feedback gives a signal to the student that his utterance was, either linguistically or in content, acceptable. Reinforcement and acknowledgement are examples of positive feedback. Although reinforcement is not a traditional form of feedback, it is an evaluation of the response, be it a positive one (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Utterances such as "Very good!" and "That's right" are examples of positive feedback.

Repetition and elicitation are borderline techniques of feedback. They can either have a negative or positive purpose. The repetition of a student's (correct) response has the same purpose as acknowledgement. It signals to the student that his language production is acceptable. If the teacher repeats an erroneous utterance of the student by putting emphasis on the error, then it has a corrective purpose, for it signals to the student that a part of his utterance is incorrect (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Elicitation technique is used to stimulate the student to reformulate his utterance (particularly if it contains an error) or just to draw out a response from the student. The latter has been named a didactic elicitation and tends to serve as a prompt to pull out, as it were, a response. The student has not yet replied and, therefore, has not as yet made an error. The teacher, in utilizing the elicitation technique, allows the student to formulate his own response within the limits set by the elicitation. In other words, the teacher tries to guide the student to make a correct response by modelling the onset of the response. The example in (7.14) demonstrates a didactic elicitation (the arrow marks the teacher's didactic elicitation). Section 7.3.2 deals with corrective elicitation.

(7.14) *Didactic elicitation* [C6/3:URD2]

➞Teacher:	*Ja,maar waar kwam die mevrouw vandaan? Waar kwam die mevrouw vandaan? Uit +…*	T: Yes, but where did that lady come from? Where did she come from? From +…
Student:	*Surinam.*	S: Surinam.
Teacher:	*Suriname hè. Suriname, ja.*	T: Surinam, wasn't it? Surinam, yes.

Table 7:10 gives for each class an overview of the occurrence of the eight feedback types listed in Scheme B during the practice of vocabulary, grammar, and URD. Figures 7:14–7:16 reveal the distribution of these feedbacks for each of these three analyzed lesson components by class.

Table 7:10 Total number of types of teacher feedbacks in number and percentages (%) by class.

Class	Total	Explicit correction	Negotiation	Recast	Repetition	Elicitation	Acknow-ledgement	Response provided	Comments
1	329	7 (2)	17 (5)	47 (14)	69 (21)	14 (4)	51 (16)	37 (11)	87 (26)
2	442	12 (3)	28 (6)	90 (20)	47 (11)	27 (6)	60 (14)	79 (18)	99 (22)
3	433	12 (3)	24 (6)	51 (12)	70 (16)	20 (5)	47 (11)	134 (31)	75 (17)
4	312	8 (3)	8 (3)	36 (12)	88 (28)	38 (12)	56 (18)	27 (9)	51 (16)
5	283	11 (4)	1 (-)	38 (13)	48 (17)	36 (13)	23 (8)	36 (13)	90 (32)
6	418	20 (5)	3 (1)	25 (6)	109 (26)	56 (13)	74 (18)	18 (4)	111 (27)
Totals (%)	2217	70 (3)	81 (4)	287 (13)	431 (20)	191 (9)	311 (14)	331 (14)	513 (23)

First the totals presented in Table 7:10 must be clarified. These do not correspond to the total number of student responses given in Table 7:8. This is due to multiple feedbacks of the teacher in one reply. Example (7.15) illustrates such an occurrence. The students were discussing the duties of the housing corporation. In this instance, it concerns the making of living room curtains. The teacher starts by asking if that is the responsibility of the housing corporation. The first arrow in (7.15) points to the teacher's acknowledgement of the many student responses. Subsequently (second arrow), she acknowledges the response of Student 2 in the form of a recast. Finally (third arrow), the teacher closes with a general comment on costs.

(7.15) *Multiple teacher feedbacks* *[C1/1:VOC1]*

	Teacher:	*Kan je de woningbouwvereniging bellen*?	T: Can you call the housing corporation?
	Student 1:	*Nee.*	S: No.
→	Teacher:	*Nee.*	T: No.
	Student 2:	*Zelf naaien.*	S: Sew yourself.
	Teacher:	*Maar als je niet kan naaien, wat dan? Ik heb geen naai-machine thuis, hoe moet het dan*?	T: But if you can't sew, what then? I don't have a sewing machine at home, how can it then be done?
	Student 2:	*Jij bij mij winkel kopen.*	S: You buy at my store.
	Student 3:	*Winkel.*	S: Store.
	Teacher:	*Goed zo.*	T: Good.
→	Teacher:	*Je kan het ook in de winkel laten maken, hè. Je kan ook gordijnen in de winkel laten maken.*	T: You can also have it made in a store. You can also have curtains made in a store.
→	Teacher:	*Maar dan is het ietsje duurder, hè? Als je zelf stof koopt op de markt en zelf naait, dan is het niet zo duur. Oké.*	T: But then it is a little bit more expensive, isn't it? If you buy material yourself at the market and sew it yourself, then it isn't as expensive. Okay.

Looking at the mean distribution of the feedbacks in Table 7:10, comments stand out in having the highest frequency, 23%. As Figures 7:14–7:16 show, comments appear in all three lesson components, but are more frequent during URU – reflecting a necessity for extra information. It is essential to remember that the target group has had little or no schooling. Learning in an educational setting confronts the student with information and ways of learning unfamiliar to him. He needs extra guidance to understand and integrate this new information into his own existing frame of reference.

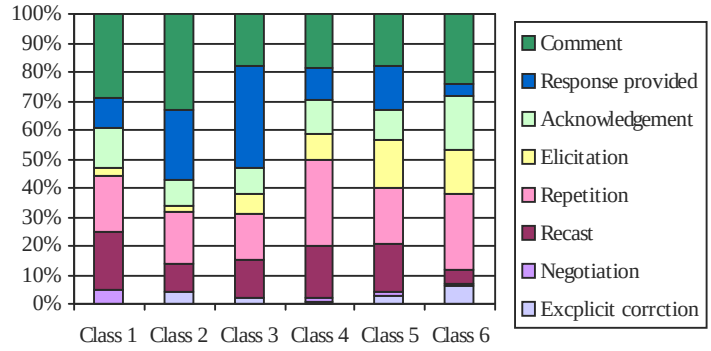

Figure 7:14 Distribution of the eight categories of teacher feedback for vocabulary by class.

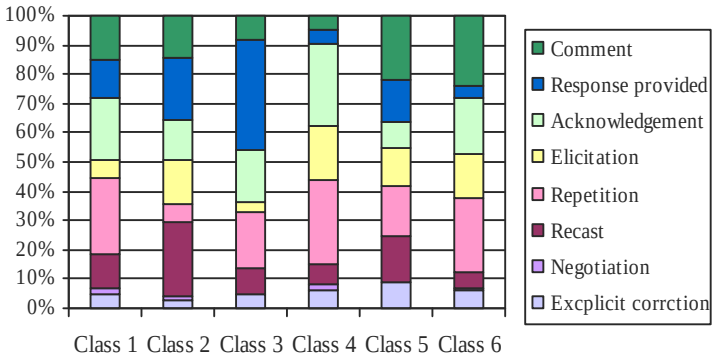

Figure 7:15 Distribution of the eight categories of teacher feedback for grammar by class.

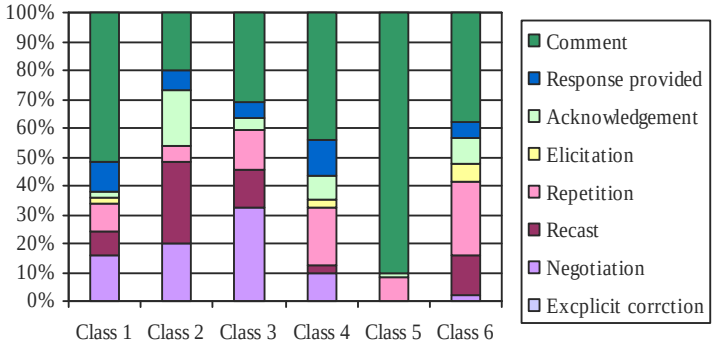

Figure 7:16 Distribution of the eight categories of teacher feedback for URD by class.

Comments given as feedback differ from those given during the initiation phase. In the initiation phase comments focused on language form or meaning, and were marked accordingly in the scheme. In the feedback phase these comments do not necessarily focus on linguistic elements of form or meaning. Many comments concern LSK others are about the daily news or are just chats about the weather. Example (7.6) in section 7.1.2 is one illustration of a non-linguistic focused comment. The teacher was informing the students about the national elections. In this case, the comment had a LSK focus. Often teachers use current events to stimulate student involvement. Fragment (7.16) illustrates such an event – about an escaped ape in the Rotterdam zoo. After having asked if the students had heard about the incident, the teacher continued by telling about it. The enthusiasm with which the students react shows that they understood the gist of the teacher's story.

(7.16) *Teacher feedback as comments* [C5/3:URD2]

Teacher:	*… normaal met het glas er tussen vond die mevrouw die aap mooi. oh leuke aap. Maar nu had die haar gepakt. die mevrouw schreeuwen auw. En hij ging haar bijten. Haar vingers, haar arm.*	T:	… usually with the window in between that lady thought the ape to be beautiful. Oh nice ape. But now he had grabbed her. That lady yelled ouch. And he began to bite her. Her fingers, her arm.
Students:	*Ooooh.*	S:	Ooooh.
Teacher:	*Heel veel gebeten. Misschien wel honderd keer.*	T:	Bitten a whole lot. Maybe even a hundred times.
Student 1:	*Die mevrouw? Die mevrouw?*	S1:	That lady? That lady?
Teacher:	*Ja. Die mevrouw in haar arm.*	T:	Yes. That lady in her arm.
Student 2:	*Gevaarlijk.*	S2:	Dangerous.
Teacher:	*Ja, het was gevaarlijk.*	T:	Yes, it was dangerous.
Student 3:	*En kleren eten.*	S3:	And eat clothes.
Teacher:	*Nee dat kan niet.*	T;	No that's not possible.
Student 3:	*Nee?*	S3:	No?
Teacher:	*Nee, nee. Kan geen kleren eten. Nee, maar hij was boos geworden.*	T:	No, no. Can't eat clothes. No, but he got angry.
Student 2:	*Boos, boos.*	S2:	Angry, angry.
Teacher:	*Ja.*	T:	Yes.

Examples (7.6) and (7.16) exemplify two very different approaches in giving comments or information. The subject matter in both excerpts has value. Example (7.6) concerned the national elections. Elections are an inextricable

part of the Dutch political process, a process in which the students eventually will participate. The escaped ape in the zoo is a sensational news item, something that is talked about. Being aware of such events can give the students a sense of engagement in the new society they now live in. The approaches taken by these two teachers to convey the information are fundamentally different. Both classes were characterized as being teacher-fronted, the teachers decided the subject matter to be told, but their procedure in doing so differed considerably. The teacher in (7.6) takes as her starting point the students and their existing knowledge. Step-by-step she builds on that knowledge, steering the students in the right direction. The teacher in (7.16) takes as her starting point her own acquired knowledge (the ape) which she then conveys to the students. Nevertheless, she knew how to keep the students engaged as they intermittently contributed to the teacher's story. Table 7:10 reveals that Class 5 had the highest percentage for comments 32%. Figure 7:16 discloses that 90% of this time is during URD and the remaining 10% is taken up by repetition and acknowledgement. The ape story took up 20 minutes of lesson time. Although such comments seem to take up valuable time from language learning, the students were seen to be actively listening and making contributions, which is also learning.

Table 710 also indicates that most of the feedbacks were not corrective. Comments, repetitions, acknowledgement, and response provided encompassed 71% of the total. Class 3 had the highest percentage for response provided, 31%. As this class was focusing on vocabulary, this is not unusual. Repetition of the students response occurred regularly in all the classes (mean 20%), but in Classes 4 and 6 it occurred the most, 28% and 26% respectively. Repetition (as with recasts) can also be just an automatic reaction as is also seen in parent-child speech (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). If such a repetition is given without correction, then it can be a sign of approval of the content of the response (Lyster, 1998). The remaining four types of feedback in Table 7:10 (explicit correction, negotiation, elicitation, and recast) cover 29% of the total, an indication that greatest part of teacher talk does not consist of correction. Figures 7:14–7:16 show that all eight types of feedback types occur during vocabulary and grammar practice, of which negotiation is very limited. During URD (Figure 7:16) there is a much greater occurrence of negotiation and comments, but no explicit correction. Clearly the focus is then more on the content of the discourse than on the form.

7.2.4 Restricted discourse practice

RD is a form of planned discourse exemplified by dialog practice. The purpose and the practice of dialogs are diverse. Dialogs in language learning are often used to demonstrate grammar, facilitate conversation, illustrate language routines in context, and form a bridge to other activities (Epstein & Ormiston, n.d.). It can be used for listening comprehension, memorized following the audio-lingual method or it can facilitate activities that stimulate spontaneous use of learner knowledge as in role play, characteristic of communicative language teaching (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). In looking at the didactic steps of the ABCD-model (see section 2.5), dialog practice fits in step B and C (Neuner, Krüger, & Grewer 1981; Van Kessel, 1993). After the presentation and practice of new vocabulary and routines in step A, the dialog can be presented and practiced step-by-step in the form of drills, question-answer exercises, and memorization of short exchanges. All are characteristic of step B. Being able to reproduce a longer scripted dialog either by rote memorization, in role play, or as a part of an information gap activity forms step C. This last step is guided production with more focus on the interaction where the student gets an opportunity to experience real communication, without free production. Examples (7.1) and (7.2) illustrate steps B and C of the ABCD-model. Example (7.1) shows a step B dialog practice performed by the teacher and a student. The student, closely following the script (buying cheese), had memorized her lines carefully. The dialog practice in (7.2) was the same dialog, but a step C activity. Here, not guided by the teacher, two students performed the dialog together. Although the script was set, more creative language production was also displayed (asking for a bag). Table 7:11 summarizes the types of dialog practice during RD.

Table 7:11 Overview of the types of RD practice by class (Q-A = question-answer)

Class[a]	Source	Dialog context	Dialog topic	Practice technique	Speakers
1 (1)	*Spreek Actief*	Health	Making an appoint.	Memorization	Teacher – student
1 (2)	*Spreek Actief*	Shopping	Buying cheese	Memorization	Teacher – student
2 (1)	*Spreek Actief*	Shopping	Buying cheese	Memorization	Student – student
2 (2)	*Spreek Actief*	Transportation	Vacation	Memorization	Student – student
3 (1)	*Spreek Actief*	Social contacts	Getting acquainted	Q-A routines	Teacher – student
3 (2)	*Spreek Actief*	Social contacts	Getting acquainted	Q-A routines	Teacher – student
4 (1)	*En Nu Verder*	Shopping	Changing money	Memorization	Teacher – student
4 (2)	*Het Begin*	Health	Making an appoint.	Memorization	Teacher – student
5 (1)	*Spreek Actief*	Social contacts	Reporting sick	Memorization	Teacher – student
5 (2)	*Spreek Actief*	Social contacts	Getting acquainted	Q-A routines	Teacher – student
6 (1)	Teacher	City services	Filing a complaint	Impromptu	Teacher – student
6 (2)	Teacher	Social contacts	Small talk	Impromptu	Teacher – student

[a] The numbers between parenthesis indicate the analyzed RD lessons, (1) the first lesson and (2) the second lesson.

As Table 7:11 notes, in all the six classes some type of dialog practice took place. The topics of the dialogs practiced all fitted in the context of the lesson theme. For example, in the theme health (Classes 1 and 4) the students practiced making an appointment with the family doctor and in the theme shopping (Classes 1, 2, and 4) the students learn language routines that customarily accompany a purchasing activity. The dialogs were practiced in three different ways: memorization, question-answer technique, or impromptu production. The dialogs were either taken verbatim from a textbook, as in Classes 1, 2, and 4, or based on dialogs in a textbook, as in Classes 3 and 5. Class 6 was one of the exceptions. In that class the dialog was not predetermined, but the topic was. For example, in the first analyzed RD lesson the theme centered on city services. The students were discussing situations in their direct surroundings that would be appropriate for the city

complaints department. On the spur of the moment, the teacher decided to role play the topic at hand. Such dialog practice was termed *impromptu* as it was totally unprepared beforehand. Example (7.17) is an excerpt from such an impromptu dialog. Just prior to this activity, the class had been talking about benches that had been removed from a park near their homes. The urgency of this matter spurred the teacher on to use it in a dialog. After moving a student desk to the center of the room to function as the city complaints desk, she designated the student who had been telling about the benches, to play the part of a resident with a complaint.

(7.17) *Impromptu RD* [C6/3:RD1]

→Teacher:	*Uh ik ben Jolanda, Sumiya. En jij komt bij mij. Komt u maar.*	T:	Uh I am Jolanda, Sumiya. And you come to me. Come on through.
Sumiya:	*Goede morgen.*	S:	Good morning.
Teacher:	*Hallo, dag mevrouw. Gaat u zitten. Gaat u zitten. Ja, waar kan ik u mee helpen*?	T:	Hello, good day, madam. Please sit down. Please sit down. Okay, how can I help you?
Sumiya:	*Ja. uh mijn buurvrouw [/] mijn buurvrouw geven eten, geven ete +/.*	S:	Yes. Uh my next door neighbour [/] my next door neighbour gives food, gives food +/.
→Teacher:	*Nou wacht even. Daar hebben we het net over gehad hè. Jij had een idee van de bankjes hè. De bankjes van Hofwijk.*	T:	Now wait a minute. We just talked about that. You had an idea about the benches. The benches in Hofwijk.
Sumiya:	*Oh. Nee, nee, nee. Niet gebruiken de bankjes.*	S:	Oh. No, no, no. Not use the benches.
Teacher:	*Niet praten over de bankjes*?	T:	Not to talk about the benches?
Sumiya:	*Nee, nee, nee.*	S:	No, no, no.
Teacher:	*Maar over de vogels wel*?	T:	But you do about the birds?
Sumiya:	*Ja, niet alleen mensen niet met uh +/. Weet ik niet. Alle mensen [/]mensen is wonen, weet praten, niet ik. Uh ik in Steijnoord.*	S:	Yeah, not only people not with uh +/. I don't know. All the people [/] people residing, know to speak, not I. Uh I'm in Steijnoord.
→Teacher:	*Ja, maar jij mist de bankjes daar. Jij kan er nu niet meer zitten. Jij mist ze toch*?	T:	Right, but you miss the benches there. You can't sit there any longer. You miss them don't you?
Sumiya:	*Andere mensen praten, maar anders. Niet ik. Hoeft niet.*	S:	Other people talk, but different. Not me. Don't need to.
Teacher:	*Jij niet*?	T:	Not you?

Sumiya:	*Nee. Schaam vragen van bank.*	S: No. Ashamed to ask about bench.
→Teacher:	*Je schaamt je over praten bankje? Ja, het is een oefening, hè? Hoe kan je dat nou. Jij hebt een idee. Dit is een oefening hè.*	T: You feel ashamed about talking bench? Now, this is an exercise, isn't it? How could you. You have an idea. This is an exercise, isn't it?
Sumiya:	*Ja.*	S: Yes.
Teacher:	*Probeeer toch maar eens. Probeer maar eens over de bankjes.*	T: Try it anyway. Try it anyway about the benches.
Sumiya:	*Ja. Mag ik wat vragen*?	S: Okay. May I ask you something?
Teacher:	*Ja.*	T: Yes.
Sumiya:	*Waar is[/-] waarom uh Hofwijk uh park geweest is uh stoelen zitten? Mee neem. Is weg. Waarom?*	S: Where is [/-] why uh Hofwijk uh park has been uh chairs to sit? Taken away. Is gone. Why?

The student, being totally unprepared, had difficulty in seeing that this exercise was just a simulation of a real situation. The first arrow points to the teacher's initiation for the role play. The teacher then interrupts the student to remind her of the subject matter that they were going to use as a complaint (second arrow). Apparently the teacher assumed this was already decided on; the student had other ideas. The teacher then tries to convince the student of the importance of her complaint (third arrow). Finally (fourth arrow), unable to convince the student, the teacher almost accuses her of not wanting to continue with the dialog and reminds her that they are doing an exercise. The student gives in, and the role play is restarted. This impromptu dialog also illustrates that the steps in the ABCD-model had not been practiced. The teacher moved directly on to step D, free conversation. The subject matter had been prepared in URD, but not the language. It is evident that this particular student, a student of more than a year, was not aware of the language to be used in such a situation. She could only apply the basic routines for greeting and asking permission. While the teacher and the student were absorbed in this exercise, the other students were sitting idle and chatting in the L1.

As Table 7:11 shows Classes 3 and 5 also did not practice a scripted dialog, but practiced routines in the form of a Q-A dialog. The material was based on a dialog in a textbook, but only the routines were practiced. These routines, often memorized, were mainly adjacent pair sequences of two utterances like question-answer, greeting-greeting, request-grant, and offer-accept/reject. Levinson (1983) notes that such adjacent pairs "seem to be a fundamental unit of conversational organization" (p. 304). This can account

for their frequent occurrence in the classroom. Example (7.18) illustrates a Q-A routine as RD practice in Class 5.

(7.18) *Question-answer routine in restricted discourse* [C5/2:RD2]

Teacher:	*Fatma hoe gaat het?*	T:	Fatma how are you?
Fatma:	*Het gaat goed.*	F:	I am fine.
Teacher:	*Gaat het goed? Gelukkig. Mina hoe gaat het?*	T:	You are fine? That's great. Mina how are you?
Mina:	*Ja, goed. Karima* [name teacher]?	M:	Yes, fine. Karima [name teacher]?
Teacher:	*Ja. Gaat ook goed. Dank je wel. Yamna hoe gaat het?*	T:	Yes. Also fine. Thank you. Yamna how are you?
Yamna:	*Goed.*	Y:	Fine.

In general, the most remarkable characteristic of RD was the strong central role of the teacher. In each class the interaction was dyadic with the teacher playing the leading or initiating role, except in Class 2. In that class, in order to get the students started, the teacher initially took the role of the protagonist, strictly following the script. Example (7.1) in section 7.1.2 illustrates such a dialog. After having gone through the dialog a few times, the teacher transferred her role to a student. Subsequently, the students performed before the class in pairs, as in (7.2) in section 7.1.2. Although more flexibility was allowed, the teacher kept a close eye on the development of the dialog, intermittently stepping in to correct.

In all the classes, even though the dialogs were practiced regularly, no student could perform his role flawlessly. Often the teacher stepped in with a recast, an elicitation, or a correct response. She, as it were, pulled the student through the dialog, as (7.19) illustrates. Here she first uses an elicitation (first arrow), and then provides the correct response (second arrow).

(7.19) *Teacher feedback in RD* [C4/2:RD1]

Bea:	*Mag ik wat vragen? Kunt u vijf euro wisselen*?	B:	May I ask you something? Do you have change for five euros?
Clara:	*Sorry, ik +/.*	C:	Sorry, I +/.
→Teacher:	*He +…*	T:	Ha +…
Clara:	*Ik heb niet.*	C:	I have no.
→Teacher:	*Ik heb het niet.*	T:	I don't have it.
Clara:	*Heb dat niet.*	C:	Don't have that.

Dialogs that are not sufficiently practiced and understood are not only a waste of valuable classroom time, but also a waste of learning effort. Example (7.20) illustrates how cumbersome the flow of a dialog is if the student is not prepared. In this class (Class 1), the dialog had already been dealt with several times in previous lessons, and in this lesson it was being reviewed again. The setting of the dialog was a cheese shop. The teacher took on the role of shopkeeper, and a student was the customer. Before dialog was performed, the teacher wrote the two items to be purchased on the blackboard. Example (7.20) begins after the student had successfully asked for the first item. Then the difficulty sets in. It is clear that the student did not understand the routines around which the dialog was built, particularly the routine *anders nog iets* (anything else). Asia seems to confuse it with *nog een keer* (once again). Her request, "once again" (first arrow) is literally interpreted by the teacher as she repeats Asia's question. Evidently Asia does not understand this and responds with a vague "yes" (see section 5.6). The teacher repeats it as to encourage Asia to continue. This triggers Asia to come with another learned response (second arrow). Although this response is adequate, it does not follow the scripted dialog, and the teacher makes this clear with the negative "no." Asia responds anew with a "once again" (third arrow). By now the teacher realizes that Asia does not understand the basic routine, and she tries to explain its meaning. In response, Asia reverts to her first purchase in the dialog, probably interpreting the teacher's explanation ("once again") literally. The subsequent turns point out that Asia still does not understand the key routine in the dialog "anything else" as she repeatedly inserts, "once more" as a response. Finally, the teacher tries to explain the routines in a shopping dialog. In her final remark, she tries to spur Asia on to the next part of the dialog. Asia's non-understanding of the words "goats cheese" (fourth arrow) proves that she has either not learned the dialog or the teacher has not practiced sufficiently with the class. The flawed productions of a number of the other students in the class indicate that the latter is a plausible conclusion which brings one to wonder what ahs been learned during this exercise.

(7.20) *Ill prepared* r*estricted dialog RD* [C1/1:RD2]

	Teacher:	*Anders nog iets?*	T: Anything else?
	Asia:	*uh anders iets.*	A: uh, any else.
	Teacher:	*Anders nog iets?*	T: Anything else?
➞	Asia:	*Ja, nog een keer.*	A: Yes, once again.
	Teacher:	*Anders nog iets?*	T: Anything else?
	Asia:	*Ja*.	A: Yes.
	Teacher:	*Ja*.	T: Yes.
➞	Asia:	*Dat was het.*	A: That's all.

Teacher:	*Nee.*	T:	No.
➞Asia:	*Nee. Nog een keer.*	A:	No. Once again.
Teacher:	*Nog een keer. Nog een keer betekent ik zeg hetzelfde nog een keer.*	T:	Once again. Once again means I say the same once again.
Asia:	*Ik wil een half kilo. Nee?*	A:	I want a half kilo. No?
Teacher:	*Nee. Ik bedoel wil je nog meer kopen. En dat bedoel ik met anders nog iets. Wil je nog meer kopen.*	T:	No. I mean do you want to buy more. And that is what I mean by anything else. Do you want to buy even more.
Asia:	*Nog meer.*	A:	Even more.
Teacher:	*Anders nog iets?*	T:	Anything else?
Asia:	*Ja, nog een keer.*	A:	Yes, once again.
Teacher:	*Nog een keer wat? Nog een keer betekent nog een keer zeggen. Anders nog iets?*	T:	Once again what? Once again means say it once again. Anything else?
Asia:	*uh.*	A:	Uh.
Teacher:	*En anders nog iets bedoel ik mee, mevrouw wilt u nog meer kopen?*	T:	And anything else means, madam do you want to buy more?
Asia:	*Uh nog niet.*	A:	Uh, not yet.
Teacher:	*Nee, niets meer?*	T:	No, nothing more?
Asia:	*Nog niet.*	A:	Not yet.
Teacher:	*Nog niet. Asia als je in de winkel bent dan vraagt iemand van "zegt u het maar" en jij bestelt een kilo jonge kaas en dan vraagt hij "anders nog iets", wilt u nog meer kopen? Anders nog iets? Ja, een ons geitenkaas. Dat bedoel ik met anders nog iets. Wilt u nog meer kopen? En dan vraag jij "heeft u geitenkaas?" Ja? Want je wil nog geitenkaas kopen.*	T:	Not yet. Asia, if you're in the store and someone says "what shall it be" and you order a kilo young cheese and then he asks "anything else?" Do you want to buy more? Anything else? Yes, an ounce of goats cheese. That is what I mean by anything else. Do you want to buy more? And then you ask "do you have goats cheese?" Yes? Because you want also to buy goats cheese.
➞Asia:	*Geiten wat?*	A:	Goats what?

7.2.5 Student initiation and feedback

Student initiations or feedbacks as spontaneous L2 student contributions during a lesson were evidenced only sporadically. Table 7:12 gives an overview of the total number of student initiations and use of L1 for the two analyzed lessons during each of the three lesson components for each class.

Table 7:12 Total number of L2 student initiations and L1 responses during vocabulary, grammar, RD, and URD practice by class (F = form-focus; M = meaning-focus)

Class	L2 initiations								L1 responses			
	Voc		Gram		RD		URD		Voc	Gram	RD	URD
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M				
1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	0
2	4	3	2	2	1	1	0	6	0	0	0	3
3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	0	0	2
4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
5	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	23	0	10	13
6	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	1	18	11	3	7
Totals	8	13	2	2	1	1	0	13	45	11	18	25

As Table 7:12 reports, student initiations were very infrequent. If they did occur, it was mostly during vocabulary practice. Perhaps 'getting the meaning right' encouraged the students to react. The students in Class 2 were the most active. Example (7.21) shows such a student initiation during vocabulary practice on names of types of stores. Here it was about the flower shop and tulips. Student 2 asks a meaning-focused question about the price of tulips and student 4 a form-focused question about vocabulary (see arrows).

(7.21) *Student initiation during vocabulary practice* [C2/1:VOC1]

Teacher:	*Wit met rood, wit met roze, alles tulpen.*	T:	White with red, white with pink, everything tulips.
Student 1:	*Mooie kleur.*	S1:	Lovely color.
Teacher:	*Het is eigenlijk +/.*	T:	It is actually +/.
➞Student 2:	*Duur dit*?	S2:	Expensive this?
Teacher:	*Soms zijn ze duur, soms zijn ze goedkoop en tulpen zijn eigenlijk alleen maar in het voorjaar.*	T:	Sometimes they are expensive, sometimes they are cheap and tulips are actually only in the spring.
Student 3:	*Rood.*	S3:	Red.
Teacher:	*Rood, ja, ze zijn rood, alleen +/.*	T:	Red, yes, they are red, but +/.
Student 4:	*Duur*?	S4:	Expensive?
Teacher:	*Nee, niet zo erg, ja, gewoon, gewoon.*	T:	No, not so much, average, average.
➞Student 4:	*Plant*?	S4:	Plant?
Teacher:	*Nee, het is geen plant, bloemen.*	T:	No, it is not a plant, flowers.

Van Lier (1988, p. 215) states that "it is predominantly during unplanned sequences that we can see learners employ initiative and use language

creatively". Students taking initiative in the initiation phase of IRF exchanges are examples of such unplanned initiatives. Not always are such initiatives responded to by the teacher as in 7.21. Example 7.22 illustrates how the teacher maintains a tight control over the interaction by using a cut-off technique.

(7.22) *Student initiation and teacher cut-off reply* [C5/3:VOC2]

Teacher:	*Wat is de datum van vandaag?*	T : What is the date today?
Student 1:	*Uh zes februari.*	S1: Uh six February.
Teacher:	*Zes februari.*	T: Six February.
➞Student 2:	*Januari thuis.*	S2: January at home.
Teacher:	*Ja, januari thuis. Dit is februari.*	T: Yes, January is at home. This is February.

The interaction starts as a normal IRF exchange. After the teacher's feedback, student 2 unexpectedly pops up with a remark, which on the surface seems to have no bearing on the topic at hand (arrow). Most likely the mention of the month (February) triggered the student's memory about the preceding month (January). The first two weeks in that month were still Christmas vacation, during which the student probably was at home. To this bit of information the teacher does not respond by evaluating the utterance, as in a corrective feedback, nor does she ignore it. She cuts the student short. She gives an indication of having heard the utterance, in this instance by repeating it, but does not follow through on it. Instead, she then immediately pulls the student back to the topic at hand, closing off any possibility for further development on part of the student, and by doing so, keeps control of the activity in the class.

The use of L1 was also very infrequent. Normally its use was overtly forbidden. If used, students seemed to be conferring in the L1 among themselves on the meaning of the teachers' words. Sometimes the teacher did understand the L1, as in (7.23), and used it to the learning benefit of the student. The student, coming from Burundi, spoke not only the national language Rundi, but also French. The teacher, understanding French, could make the student aware of her L1 response without having to forbid its use. The vocabulary lesson focused on kitchen appliances and utensils. Here it concerned a basin, which is similar to the French word *bassin*.

(7.23) *Student L1 during vocabulary practice* [C3/2:VOC1]

Teacher:	*Niet echt een pan, dat is een soort [/] een soort badje, ja, om de groente in te wassen, ja? Heel ouderwets, een soort [/] een soort bad is het, een kuip, ja? Tegenwoordig gebruiken we die niet veel meer. Aan de muur bij ons hangt niet meer zo'n bakje. Ja, om de groenten te wassen.*	T:	Not really a pan, that is a type of [/] a type of basin, yeah, just to wash the vegetables in, okay? Very old-fashioned, a type [/] it's a type of basin, a bowl, okay? Nowadays we don't use it so much. On the wall at our home such a basin doesn't hang anymore. Right, to wash the vegetables in.
Student:	*Speciaal voor de groenten. 'Bassin.' [French]*	S:	Specifically for the vegetables. 'Bassin.' [French]
Teacher:	*Ja, een 'bassin,' een badje.*	T:	Yes, a 'bassin,' a basin.
Student:	*Badje.*	S:	Basin.
Teacher:	*'Bassin', badje. 'Bassin' is het Franse woord natuurlijk, hè?*	T:	'Bassin', basin. 'Bassin' is the French word, of course, isn't it?
Student:	*Ja.*	S:	Yes.

Student responses functioning as a feedback to a teacher's or fellow student's remark occurred even more infrequently. Table 7:13 summarizes the total number of student feedbacks during the four practice sessions.

Table 7:13 Total number of student feedbacks during vocabulary, grammar, RD, and URD practice by class (E = explicit correction; N = negotiation of meaning; R = recast; P = provides response)

Class	Totals	Student L2 feedbacks															
		Voc				Gram				RD				URD			
		E	N	R	P	E	N	R	P	E	N	R	P	E	N	R	P
1	12	3	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	1	2	0	0	0	0
2	21	0	2	0	0	1	2	0	3	1	0	2	8	0	2	0	0
3	13	2	3	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	0
4	6	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	0
5	8	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	6	0	0
6	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Totals	63	9	6	0	0	6	3	1	5	3	3	3	14	0	9	0	0

Table 7:13 shows that most of the student feedbacks were either explicit correction, negotiation, or answer provided. The latter was mostly during RD practice. Explicit correction was usually in the form of a negative response, *nee* (no), and occasionally followed by the correct answer. Student negotiation often involved requests for clarification. The utterances were

generally short, limited to one or two words. Student feedbacks and initiations indicate active participation and involvement in classroom learning. Example (7.24) illustrates how one student helps another get through her role during the practice of a dialog. Here, two students were re-enacting a scene in a cheese shop: Sofia the customer and Asma the shopkeeper. The example starts with Sofia cueing Asma in her role (first arrow). The difficulty centers on the formulaic expression *anders nog iets* (anything else). The teacher intermittently comes with a recast, but it is Sofia who resolves the problem (second arrow), after which Asma resumes with the dialog (third arrow).

(7.24) *Student feedback during RD* [C1/1:RD1]

→	Sofia:	*Alsjeblieft, anders nog?*	S:	Please, anything?
	Teacher:	*Dan vraag je: Anders nog iets?*	T:	Then you ask: Anything else?
	Asma:	*Andere vraag je andere.*	A:	Any ask you any.
	Teacher:	*Anders nog iets?*	T:	Anything else?
	Asma:	*Andere vraag je andere nog iets.*	A:	Any ask you any else.
	Teacher:	*Anders nog iets?*	T:	Anything else?
→	Sofia:	*Niet vraag.*	S:	Not ask.
	Students:	*Ander nog iets.*	SS:	Anything else?
→	Asma:	*Andere nog iets.*	A:	Anything else?
	Sofia:	*Mag ik 'n half kilo kaas uh jonge kaas.*	S:	May I have a half a kilo cheese uh young cheese?

7.2.6 Comparing the classes

In section 7.1.4 the classes were compared on management of time and organization of classroom processes based on the results from Observation Scheme A. In this section the classes are again compared, but now focusing on the basic pedagogical practices based on the results from Observation Scheme B. The results are presented in Table 7:14. These results were calculated in the same way as for Table 7:6 (see section 7.1.6). The pedagogical practices primarily cover those didactic approaches expressed by the use of the IRF structure, the types of questions asked, and the types of feedback the teacher used. During these procedures student responses were solicited. The length of these student responses reflects the teacher's didactic strategy in stimulating student production of extended language. Table 7:14 highlights the main characteristics of Scheme B followed by a short description for each class. RD practice and student initiations are not included in this comparison.

Table 7:14 The classes compared for classroom instructional interaction. (● = remarkably high, >10% above mean; ● = high, 5% -10% above mean; ● = low, 5% -10% below mean; ● = remarkably low, >10% below mean; • =mean)

Domains	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Class 6
% IRF exchanges	●	●	●	●	●	•
• Form-focused	•	●	•	●	●	●
• Meaning-focused	•	●	•	●	●	●
Display questions	● (closed-ended, meaning-focused)	●	•	●	● (open-ended, form-focused)	•
Referential questions	●	● (meaning-focused)	•	●	●	•
Student responses						
• Minimal	•	•	•	•	●	•
• Limited	•	•	•	●	•	•
• Extended	•	•	•	•	●	•
Teacher feedback						
• Explicit correction	•	•	•	•	•	•
• Negotiation	•	•	•	•	•	•
• Recast	•	●	•	•	•	●
• Repetition	•	●	•	●	•	●
• Elicitation	•	•	•	•	•	•
• Acknowledgement	•	•	•	•	●	•
• Provides response	•	•	●	•	•	●
• Comments	•	•	●	●	●	•

Class 1

As Table 7:14 shows, Class 1 does not stand out in having particularly high or low occurrence of the features characterizing classroom interaction. The number of words in the student responses, as well as the type of teacher feedback, was average. Three features shown in Table 7:14 do stand out. The use of the IRF exchange structure was low. Although the use of display questions was average, the teacher asked a remarkable high number of closed-ended, meaning-focused display questions. On the other hand, the use of referential questions was remarkably low.

Class 2

Table 7:14 indicates that Class 2 had a remarkably high use of IRF exchanges, which points to a strong teacher-fronted teaching. The focus of the IRF exchanges was stronger on meaning than on form. This focus on meaning was also reflected in the type of questions asked. There were a remarkably low number of display questions, while the number of meaning-focused referential ones was remarkably high. In comparison to the other classes, the teacher seldom used repetition as a feedback technique, whereas the use of recasts occurred frequently.

Class 3

Class 3 also did not stand out as having a particularly high or low occurrence of the features characterizing classroom interaction. The IRF focus as well as the number of words in the student responses, was average. Nevertheless, three features that stand out: a high occurrence of IRF exchanges, a very frequent giving of the correct response, and an infrequent occurrence of comments.

Class 4

In Class 4, there was a high occurrence of IRF exchanges. The focus of the IRF exchanges was stronger on form than on meaning. This focus on meaning was also reflected in the type of questions asked. In comparison to the other classes, there were a remarkably high number of display questions, while the referential ones were remarkably low. In contrast to the other classes, the limited utterances of the student responses were marked high. As a feedback technique the teacher frequently used repetition, but seldom gave extra comments.

Class 5

As Table 7:14 reveals, Class 5 had a remarkably low occurrence of IRF exchanges. The focus of the IRF exchanges was stronger on form than on meaning. This focus is also reflected in the type of questions asked. There were a high number of display questions, particularly the open-ended form-focused type. The referential questions were low. Most of the student responses were minimal and the extended responses were remarkably low in occurrence. There was an infrequent use of positive reinforcement (acknowledgement), but a frequent addition of extra information (comments).

Class 6

In Class 6, the occurrence of IRF exchanges was average. The focus of these exchanges was nearly balanced between form and meaning, with a slightly higher focus on form. The frequency of the display and referential questions was average as were the number of words in the student responses. The teacher frequently used repetition as a feedback technique, but seldom recasts. In addition, the teacher rarely provided an answer for her questions.

7.2.7 Observations on classroom interaction

Section 7.2 focused on classroom instructional interaction by looking at IRF exchanges and types of questions asked during such an exchange. In general, the literacy classroom can be characterized as being strongly teacher-fronted with an overarching use of the IRF structure (mean 79%), reflecting a firm control on classroom procedures.

The lessons were more strongly focused on form than on meaning, respectively 63% and 37%. The majority of the questions were closed-ended and form-focused display questions (mean 55%). These type of questions mainly elicited short responses of one to two words, leaving little room for spontaneous responses and student initiations. Real or referential questions were prominent during URD, where practice focused more on meaning than on form. In RD practice all the classes, except Class 6, relied on a fixed dialog exchange structure for practice. Within such a structure there was little language variation or experimentation. In Class 6 the dialog practice was improvised. Such practice would normally allow for a great amount of student creativity, but task content and language ability did not match. The focus was on content, while the language to accomplish the task was as yet inadequate, resulting in confusion.

Teacher feedback, although varied, did not provoke negotiation, but was mostly comments or positive feedback forms (71%). Corrective feedback was 28%. The double role of the teacher is evident. She has to explain language form and its use, while at the same time convey knowledge about the L2 society. These learners with little or no schooling heavily rely on the teacher as a source for knowledge. Learning to speak a new language in unfamiliar surroundings needs extra guidance to understand and integrate new information.

7.3 Observation scheme C: Corrective feedback

Observation scheme C (reproduced in Figure 5:3, section 5.4,) focuses on corrective feedback. Scheme C is a subset of Scheme B. While Scheme B centered on the IRF exchanges, Scheme C focuses solely on corrective

feedback. The same lesson fragments that were selected for Scheme B were also used for Scheme C (see Table 5:2). This meant that for each class two lessons (one at the beginning and one at the end of the observation period) for each of the three lesson components (vocabulary, grammar, and URD were analysed for corrective feedback. RD was again not included in this analysis.

Scheme C is organized along the lines of the three-step feedback sequence expounded by Lyster & Ranta (1997): (1) the student's erroneous utterance, also referred to as the trigger (Varonis & Gass, 1985); (2) the teacher's feedback, his response to that trigger; and (3) the student's uptake, his response to the teacher's feedback. Corrective feedback can be directed toward the meaning or form of the student's utterance. As explained in section 5.4.1, meaning refers to the message of the interaction, the appropriateness of the message as well as its pragmatic correctness. In the scheme, meaning was termed language use. Form refers to the linguistic features of an utterance. These could be phonological, lexical, or grammatical.

7.3.1 Student trigger

The analysis started with the student trigger. A trigger is the student's erroneous utterance to which the teacher responds with a corrective feedback. In Table 5:4 in chapter 5, the different types of student triggers in form and language use are defined and illustrated. Not every error that the student makes is a simple straightforward mistake. Fragment (7.25) illustrates such a case. The student responded to the teacher's question by saying *keuken verf* (kitchen paint). The teacher inferred this to mean *keuken geverfd* (painted the kitchen), a viable answer to her question. But as it happens, the word *keukenverf* (kitchen paint) – written as one word, but of course not heard as such – is also possible. If this was the student's intention, a possible interpretation could be: 'I had to buy kitchen paint'. The student's final "yes" response could be a real affirmative to the teacher's correction, or just a polite reply. Nevertheless, the teacher must, in an instance, interpret, analyse, and determine her corrective feedback to the student. Here, shared knowledge between teacher and student probably was the determining factor for the teacher's chosen correction (Blakemore, 1992; Renkema, 2004). She was aware of the fact that the student was busy with house improvement activities.

(7.25) *Student trigger* [C6/3:URD1]

Teacher:	*Jij hebt het heel druk gehad?*	T: You've been very busy?
→ Student:	*Keuken verf.*	S: Kitchen paint.
Teacher:	*Keuken geverfd.*	T: Painted the kitchen.
Student:	*Ja.*	S: Yes.

Table 7:15 exhibits the results for total number of student triggers for phonology, lexicon, grammar, and language use and their frequencies. Figures 7:17–7:19 reveal the distribution of these four error types by class during the practice of vocabulary, grammar, and URD separately.

Table 7:15 The number of student triggers for phonology, lexicon, and grammar during classroom practice, in number and percentages (%) by class.

Class	Totals	Phonology		Lexicon		Grammar		Language use	
1	82	7	(9)	10	(12)	42	(51)	23	(28)
2	132	6	(5)	15	(11)	82	(62)	29	(22)
3	88	8	(9)	12	(14)	44	(50)	24	(27)
4	74	6	(8)	20	(27)	39	(53)	9	(12)
5	55	2	(4)	1	(2)	50	(91)	2	(4)
6	52	1	(2)	2	(4)	48	(92)	1	(2)
Totals (%)	483	30	(6)	60	(12)	305	(63)	88	(18)

As the results in Table 7:15 show, the total number of student triggers per class differs considerably, between 52 and 132 triggers. Class 2 has the highest number of triggers, 132, and Class 6 has less than half, 52. Of the type of errors most frequently corrected, grammatical ones are by far the most frequent in all the classes, mean of 63%. On the other side, phonological errors are the least corrected type, mean 6%. Looking at all the distributions of the types of errors corrected, a dichotomy is seen between Classes 1, 2, 3, and 4 and Classes 5 and 6. The frequencies for Classes 1, 2, 3, and 4 for phonological errors are small (5%–9%), for lexical errors moderate (11%–27%), for grammatical errors large (50%–62%), and for language use also moderate (12%–28%). In contrast, Classes 5 and 6 show very small percentages for phonology, lexicon, and language use (2%–4%). Most of the triggers are grammatical (circa 90%). With such a high percentage for grammatically based triggers, Classes 5 and 6 appear to have overlooked or even ignored errors in the areas of phonology, lexicon, and language use. It is questionable that they did not occur. Lyster (2001) reports that at least 34% of the errors are either phonological or lexical, the rest grammatical (50%) or L1 use (16%). Mackey, et al. (2000) show percentages of 32% for phonological errors, 13% for lexical ones, and 55%

grammatical errors. Either the teachers in this present study did not perceive such errors or they were not obstructive in communication and thus, not conducive for correction. Figures 7:17–7:19 display the distribution of triggers by class for each of the three analyzed lesson components (vocabulary, grammar, and URD practice).

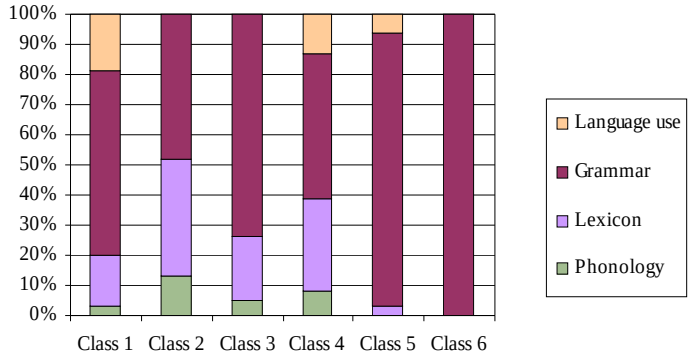

Figure 7:17 Types of errors corrected for phonology, lexicon, grammar, and language use during vocabulary practice by class.

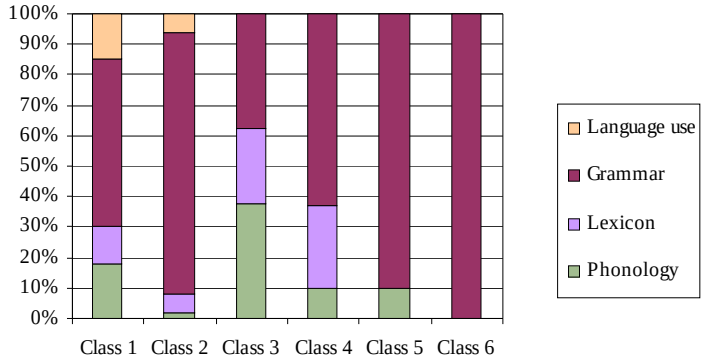

Figure 7:18 Types of errors corrected for phonology, lexicon, grammar, and language use during grammar practice by class.

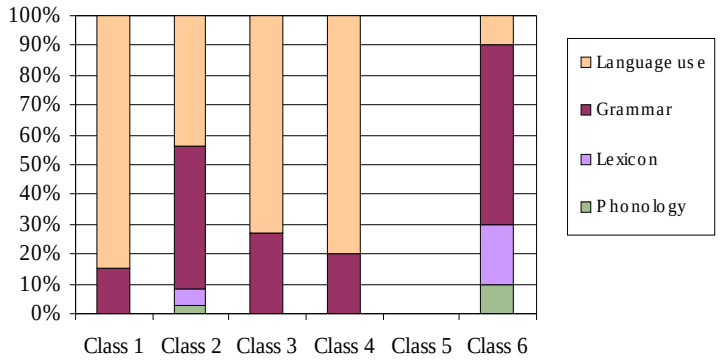

Figure 7:19 Types of errors corrected for phonology, lexicon, grammar, and language use during URD by class.

As the Figures 7:17–7:19 reveal, grammatical errors are prevalent in all three lesson components, but foremost during vocabulary and grammar practice. In Classes 5 and 6 all or nearly all the triggers during vocabulary and grammar practice are grammatical ones. Table 7:15 showed that phonological errors were the least corrected, mean 6%. Of these, triggers, as Figures 7:17–7:19 show, the most occur during the practice of grammar and only few during vocabulary practice. In Class 3, focusing on vocabulary building, only 5% of the triggers corrected are phonological during vocabulary practice, while during grammar practice this is 38%. Lexical triggers occurred slightly more often during vocabulary practice then during grammar practice. For Classes 1, 2, 3, and 4 the majority of the triggers during URD are in the area of language use (44% - 85%). In Class 6, most of the triggers have a grammatical focus, 60%, and only 10% are on language use. In Class 5 no errors were evidenced to have triggered a correction during URD.

7.3.2 Teacher corrective feedback

Teacher corrective feedback is the response the teacher gives to an erroneous response of the student. Five types of feedback were distinguished: explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, negotiation, recast, and elicitation. In Table 5:5, in chapter 5, these five types of corrective feedback are defined and illustrated. At this point, it is necessary to make a distinction between the two types of elicitation techniques: didactic and corrective. In Scheme B both didactic and corrective elicitations were included. In section 7.2.3 didactic elicitation was illustrated. This section deals with corrective elicitation. Example (7.26) demonstrates both types of elicitation. The

technique involved in both forms is the same – to pull out a response, without divulging the correct answer.

(7.26) *Elicitation technique* [C4/2:VOC]

	Teacher:	*Wat heeft Berta?*	T: What does Berta have?
	Student:	*Uh een doos.*	S: Uh a box.
→	Teacher:	*Ja, maar de hele zin maken. Berta +…*	T: Yes, but make a complete sentence. Berta +...
	Student:	*Berta hebbe een doos.*	S: Berta have a box.
→	Teacher:	*Berta +…*	T: Berta +…
	Student:	*hebbe doos.*	S: have box.
	Teacher:	*Berta heb een doos, is dat goed?*	T: Berta have a box, is that correct?
	Student:	*Nee.*	S: No.
→	Teacher:	*Berta +…*	T: Berta +…
	Student:	*Heb ik +/.*	S: Have I +/.
	Teacher:	*Heeft, Berta heeft een doos.*	T: Has, Berta has a box.

In (7.26) the teacher skilfully manoeuvres the student to reformulate her respond; an error has not yet been made. This is a didactic elicitation. The following two arrows point to corrective elicitations. The teacher signals in this manner that the constructed sentence is incorrect and, as it were, invites the student to start anew and correct it. Doughty and Williams (1998) refer to such a (indirect) request, "as a flag to an incorrect form" (p. 242) giving the student an opportunity to correct himself. In (7.26) the teacher's attempt to give the student the opportunity to discover her error and to correct it herself was unsuccessful. She then resolves to give the correct response herself.

In contrast, corrective elicitations focus on an error. Without giving the correct response, the elicitation pushes the learner to reformulate his first erroneous utterance. The teacher models the onset of the response up to the point of the error, indicating that at that point the student must reformulate his utterance. Example (7.14), discussed in section 7.2.3, illustrates a didactic elicitation and 7.26 illustrates both forms of elicitation. If this technique is not used adeptly, the efficacy of the elicitation is lost, as (7.27) demonstrates.

(7.27) *Inapt elicitation* [C5/3:VOC2]

Teacher:	*Wie is zij?*	T: Who is she?
Student:	*Zij Mimount.*	S: She Mimount.
➞Teacher:	*Zij is +…*	T: She is +…
Student:	*Mimount.*	S: Mimount.
➞Teacher:	*Zij is +…*	T: She is +…
Student:	*Mimount.*	S: Mimount.
Teacher:	*Ja, zij is Mimount.*	T: Right, she is Mimount.

In (7.27) the teacher is focusing on the use of the copula *zijn* (to be) with a personal name. By asking a display question the teacher tries to extract a simple sentence using the verb 'is'. The student fails to use the copula in her answer. Twice the teacher uses the elicitation technique to extract the correct response (indicated by the arrows), but both times she overshoots her goal by including the copula in her elicitation. In other words, the teacher's elicitation includes the correction instead of drawing it out. The student, probably unaware of the teacher's intention, has responded adequately and correctly to both elicitations. The teacher, not having made clear her intention to the student, finally provides the correct sentence without explaining the use of the copula, leaving the student in the lurch as to the reason for the teacher's correction. Table 7:16 gives a summary of the types of corrective feedbacks given in the six classes. Figures 7:20–7:22 disclose the distribution of corrective feedback for each of the three analyzed lesson components (vocabulary, grammar, and URD practice) by class.

Table 7:16 Frequencies of corrective feedback types during vocabulary, grammar, and URD practice by class in number and percentages (%) by class.

Class	Totals	Explicit correction		Metalinguistic feedback		Negotiation		Recast		Elicitation	
1	82	4	(5)	3	(4)	17	(21)	47	(57)	11	(13)
2	132	11	(8)	1	(1)	28	(21)	90	(68)	2	(2)
3	88	11	(13)	1	(1)	24	(27)	51	(58)	1	(1)
4	74	5	(7)	3	(4)	8	(11)	36	(49)	22	(30)
5	55	8	(15)	3	(5)	1	(2)	38	(69)	5	(9)
6	52	12	(23)	8	(15)	3	(6)	25	(48)	4	(8)
Totals (%)	483	51	(11)	19	(4)	81	(17)	287	(59)	45	(9)

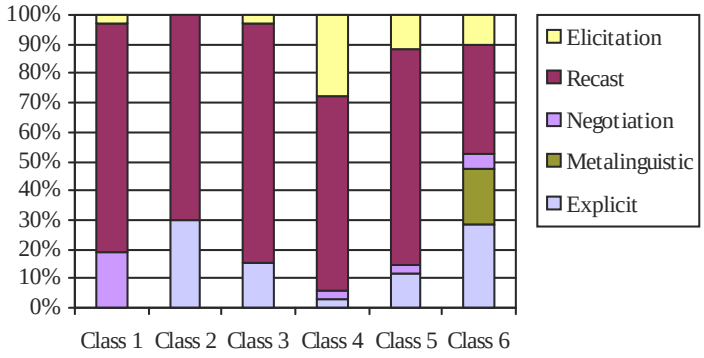

Figure 7:20 Distribution of five categories of corrective feedback for vocabulary by class.

Figure 7:21 Distribution of five categories of corrective feedback for grammar by class.

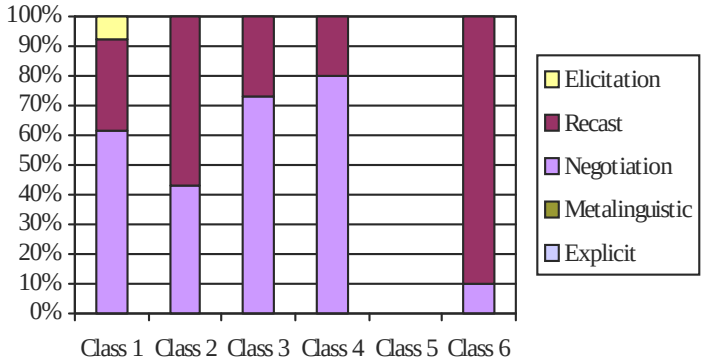

Figure 7:22 Distribution of five categories of corrective feedback for URD by class .

In total 483 corrective feedbacks were given. As Table 7:16 discloses, the most frequent type of feedback is the recast, with percentages between 48% and 69% (mean 59%). This is not surprising as in other studies recast also surfaces as the most frequent type of corrective feedback (e.g. Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001; Lyster 2001; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey, et al., 2000; Sheen, 2006). Figures 7:20–7:22 disclose that recasts occur amply during all three lesson components, particularly during vocabulary and grammar practice. Only in Class 6 do recasts occur more frequently during URD (90%) than during the form-focused lessons. Table 7:16 shows that the other four types of feedback occur much less than recasts. Negotiation (17%) and explicit correction (11%) are the second most frequent types. The figures again reveal that negotiation is barely used during vocabulary and grammar practice, but on the other hand, it is amply used during URD (between 43% and 80%). Class 6 shows for negotiation only 10%. The use of explicit correction during vocabulary and grammar practice is somewhat more frequent than for negotiation. During URD no explicit correction occurs. Table 7:16 shows that Class 6 has the overall highest percentage for explicit correction, 23%. Elicitation (9%) and metalinguistic feedback (4%) occur sparingly. Elicitation is seen during vocabulary and grammar practice, but not during URD, except in Class 1, where it had an 8% occurrence. Table 7:16 indicates that Class 4 has the overall highest percentage for elicitation, 30%. Metalinguistic feedback is evident during grammar practice in all the classes, but only in Class 6 during vocabulary practice. No metalinguistic feedback takes place during URD. In Class 5 no feedbacks are noted during URD. The percentages presented here are comparable to the Lyster study (Lyster, 2001; Lystar & Ranta, 1997): recasts 55%, elicitation 14%, negotiation (clarification) 11%, metalinguistic cues 8%, and explicit correction 7%. In this study the following percentages were revealed 59%, 9%, 17%, 4%, and 11 % respectively.

The teacher's corrective feedback and accompanying explanations are not always clear and straightforward as, for example, in (7.25). Grammar explanations can be rather opaque. These students, having had little or no education, have not been taught to reflect on language metalinguistically (Kurvers, Van Hout, & Vallen, 2006). Therefore, the use of grammatical terminology has to be introduced carefully. Consequently, teachers often resolve to use simple terminology or avoid the matter altogether. This can sometimes be even more confusing. In (7.28) the teacher tries to explain the necessity of the article[56], calling them "the little words", the same label used for prepositions and the copula – all being little words. By using metalinguistic feedback the teacher tries to guide the student to self-correct

56 Dutch has two definite articles 'het' and 'de' and one indefinite article 'een'.

her error. In (7.28) the students were practicing making sentences with the use of objects placed before them on the table. In this example, Malika had just formed a simple sentence with the object placed before her, a vase. The teacher encouraged her to make a longer sentence. Example (7.28) opens with Malika's longer sentence. The sentence had a number of errors, but the teacher chooses to focus on the definite article. She starts by complimenting the student on the second part of the sentence, which indeed as it stands, is entirely correct. Then the teacher turns to the omitted 'little word' in the first part of the sentence (a metalinguistic feedback, first arrow). The student, only knowing that her error concerned 'a little word', had to guess which word and where it should be placed. Malika's third response points out that she understood what constitutes 'little words', by adding the little word *mee* (along), but the teacher explains that this is not the word she had in mind and gives Malika a hint by enumerating the three types of articles (metalinguistic feedback, second arrow). Malika guesses the article and places it correctly in the sentence (Malika's fourth response). The teacher closes with praise and an acknowledgement (third arrow) ignoring the fact that the sentence is actually still faulty.

(7.28) *Teacher explaining grammar* [C6/3:VOC1]

Malika:	*Ik neem bloem in de vaas.*	M:	I take flower in the vase.
Teacher:	*Ik neem bloem, ik neem bloem. En wat zeg je dan daarna?*	T:	I take flower, I take flower. And what do you say then?
Malika:	*In de vaas.*	M:	In the vase.
➞Teacher:	*In de vaas. Nou ja, dit is helemaal goed, maar dit zou nog een klein beetje beter kunnen, want jij vergeet steeds dit soort woordjes, kleine woordjes.*	T:	In the vase. Well, well, this is completely correct, but this could be a little bit better, because you always forget this kind of words, little words.
Malika:	*Neem mee, neem mee.*	M:	Take along, take along.
➞Teacher:	*Nee, die kan wel blijven staan, maar ergens moet een 'een' of een 'het' of een 'de', nog hier in deze zin. Hier staat er eentje, maar ergens anders moet die ook nog komen.*	T:	No, that one's okay, but somewhere else a 'a', or a 'the', or a 'the', still has to be in the sentence. Here's one, but somewhere else there must be another one.
Malika:	*Ik neem de bloem.*	M:	I take the flower.
➞Teacher:	*Precies, de bloem. Ja. De bloem, de bloem. Ik neem de bloem in de vaas. Een langere zin, goed zo, prima. Maar let op die kleine woordjes, hè. 'De,' 'het' of 'een'*	T:	Exactly, the flower. Yes. The flower, the flower. I take the flower in the vase. A longer sentence, good, fine. But watch those little words, okay.

moet er tussen, hè. Dan krijg je een wat mooiere zin. Ja? Iedereen zou je begrijpen als je het laat zitten, maar jij kan wel, hè, dat je wat mooiere zinnen leert maken. Oké? Dus 'de bloem' en 'in de vaas.'	'The,' 'the,' or 'a' have to be put in somewhere. Then you get a better sentence. Okay? Everyone would understand you if let it be, but you can do it, you can learn to make somewhat better sentences. Okay? So 'the flower' and 'in the vase.'

Recasts and negotiation, although seemingly two different types of feedback, are not always so easily discernable. Even the teacher might not always realize the effect of such recast-negotiation. Negotiation in the form of a confirmation of the student's response is generally a repetition of that response (Lyster, 1998; Oliver, 2000; Sheen, 2006). In chapter 5, Table 5:5 such a confirmation is illustrated. In that confirmation the teacher checks to see if he has correctly understood the student's response by repeating the utterance in question form, as if saying, "Did I hear you correctly? You said the following …" Such a repetition, but then usually not in the form of a question (although this difference is not always evident), just reinforces the words of the student. In fact, this type of recast is more an echo than anything else. Such reactions are common in child-parent interactions (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). In (7.29) the teacher utters two confirmation-recasts (see arrows). In both she reformulates the student's utterances, without disturbing the flow of the interaction.

(7.29) *Recast as a confirmation* [C2/1:URD2]

Student:	*Samen ander familie. Vier vrouw, ik samen vijf vrouw. Kijken. Een vrouw ziekenhuis Amsterdam.*	S: Together other family. Four woman, me together five woman. Looking. One woman hospital Amsterdam.
→Teacher:	*Oké, jullie zijn op bezoek geweest.*	T: Okay, you've been visiting.
Student:	*Ja, op bezoek. Is terug avond. Acht uur huis.*	S: Yes, visiting. Am back evening. Eight o'clock at home.
→Teacher:	*Je was 's avonds om acht uur weer terug.*	T: You were at eight o'clock in the evening back again.
Student:	*Ja.*	S: Yes.

In sections 7.3.1 and 7.3.2, the discussion focused on the distribution of triggers and feedback types in the three lesson components for the six classes. First, Table 7:15 points out that most of the triggers were primarily of a grammatical nature, 63%, particularly during form-focused practice

(Figures 7:17 and 7:18). Secondly, Table 7:16 points out that most of the feedbacks were recasts, 59%, prevalent during all the three lesson components (Figures 7:20–7:22), but primarily during form-focused practice (Figures 7:20 and 7:21). During meaning-focused practice the triggers were mainly in the area of language use (Figure 7:19) with negotiation as the dominant type of feedback (Figure 7:22). The distributions of feedback type in relation to the type of errors corrected are merged in Tables 7:17 and 7:18.

Table 7:17 Distribution corrective feedback types across error focus in number and percentages (%).

(N = 483)	Explicit correction (n=51)		Metalinguistic feedback (n=19)		Negotiation (n=81)		Recast (n=287)		Elicitation (n=45)	
Phonology	5	(10)	0	0	0	0	24	(8)	1	(2)
Lexicon	16	(31)	1	(5)	0	0	28	(10)	15	(33)
Grammar	26	(51)	18	(95)	9	(11)	227	(79)	25	(56)
Language use	4	(8)	0	0	72	(89)	8	(3)	4	(9)

Table 7:17 shows the distribution of error types for each of the five corrective feedbacks. As Table 7:16 reveals, recasts were the most frequent type of corrective feedback, 287 out of the 483 (59%). Table 7:17 reveals that of these recasts, 79% were focused on a grammatical error. Grammatical errors had the highest frequency for four out of the five types of corrective feedback: explicit correction, 51%; metalinguistic feedback, 95%; recasts, 79%; and elicitation, 56%. For negotiation only 11% were focused on grammatical errors. The remaining 89% of the negotiations were directed toward errors in language use. During URD practice, the focus was mainly on the message being conveyed, in other words language use. Metalinguistic feedback was only used in cases where there was a lexical or a grammatical error. Through the use of a metalinguistic feedback the teacher draws the student's attention to discrete linguistic features of the student's utterance. This was usually during the practice of vocabulary or grammar. Of these metalinguistic feedbacks, 95% were directed towards grammatical errors and a small percentage (5%) towards lexical ones. Correction through the use of the elicitation technique occurred for the most part during the practice of vocabulary (33%) and grammar (56%).

Table 7:+18 views feedback from another angle. In that table the distribution of the types of feedback given for each error type is revealed. Phonological errors were mainly corrected by use of recasts (80%) and a smaller percentage through explicit feedback (17%). These corrections focused on errors in pronunciation. Errors in intonation or stress were not evidenced in the analyzed samples. The low frequency of phonological errors that were corrected points out that the students' pronunciation was

generally intelligible for the teacher. In addition, the students' responses were short and the teacher was focused on understanding the message being conveyed, in spite of faulty pronunciation or grammar. Errors in the lexicon or grammar were mainly corrected by use of a recast, 46% and 74% respectively. As mentioned above, negotiation was the primary form of feedback for the correction of language use, 82%. In comparison, the Lyster study (2001) shows that recasts are mainly used for grammatical and phonological errors, but negotiation for lexical errors. In this study recasts are predominant for all types of errors except those for language use. Then negotiation predominates.

Table 7:18 Distribution error focus corrective across feedback types in number and percentages (%).

(N = 483)	Phonology (n=30)		Lexicon (n=60)		Grammar (n=305)		Language use (n=88)	
Explicit correction	5	(17)	16	(26)	26	(9)	4	(5)
Metalinguistic feedback	0	0	1	(2)	18	(6)	0	0
Negotiation	0	0	0	0	9	(3)	72	(82)
Recast	24	(80)	28	(46)	227	(74)	8	(9)
Elicitation	1	(3)	15	(25)	25	(8)	4	(5)

7.3.3 Student uptake

A reaction by the student in a direct response to a corrective feedback is termed his uptake. Three types of uptake were discerned: repair, needs-repair, and no repair. An uptake with repair is defined as a correct full or partial repetition of the given feedback. Needs-repair is the student's response to a corrective feedback that is not complete, such as making the same error again, making a different error, or just some kind of acknowledgement of the given feedback. If the student does not respond to the teacher's feedback this is called no repair. No repair also occurs when the teacher continues talking without giving the student an opportunity to reformulate his utterance, this is topic continuation. Not only the teacher, but also the student who made the error, or another student, can continue with the topic at hand, ignoring the correction made by the teacher. One clarification must be made concerning uptake. The mere fact that a student has responded to a corrective feedback with a repair or needs-repair does not imply that that student has understood the correction made – if he was at all aware that he was being corrected (Mackey, et al., 2000). An uptake in the form of a repair or a needs-repair can only indicate that the student probably has noticed that something in his language production did not concur with

the L2 target or is merely an echo of the teacher's words. The following examples illustrate these three types of uptake, with the arrows pointing to each uptake. Example (7.30) illustrates a full repair and (7.31) a partial repair (see arrows).

(7.30) *Student uptake with full repair* [C2/1:GRA2]

Teacher:	*Nou, wat ga je vanmiddag eerst doen, ja. Vanmiddag eerst +…*	T:	Now, what are you first going to do this afternoon, yeah. This afternoon I am first +…
Student:	*Uh kom naar school.*	S:	Uh come to school.
Teacher:	*ga ik naar school.*	T:	going to school.
➞ Student:	*ga ik naar school.*	S:	going to school.

In (7.30) the student repeats the teacher's entire corrective recast. The exercise was focused on telling about what one does 'first', 'then', and 'after that'. This was practiced in a question-answer drill format. This was a review exercise and the student's instant repair shows that the teacher's recast was understood and salient. In (7.30) the student's uptake is a partial repair – only part of the correction is repeated, but it is repeated correctly. The teacher, in reviewing the prepositions, was asking and demonstrating where an object was located in the classroom. The student's reply, *oh, ja* (oh, yes) indicates that he understood the correction.

(7.31) *Student uptake with a partial repair* [C3/2:GRA2]

Student:	*Uh achter de tafel.*	S:	Uh behind the table.
Teacher:	*Precies andersom, voor de tafel, ja?*	T:	Exactly the reverse, in front of the table, isn't it?
➞ Student:	*Oh ja, voor.*	S:	Oh yes, in front of.

Not always does a 'yes' response to the teacher's feedback indicate understanding (see section 5.6). Sometimes it is just a sign of noticing as in (7.32). At times such a reaction can indeed be recognition of the feedback, while at other times it can be uttered to indicate attentiveness. Example (7.32) illustrates a needs-repair in the form of an acknowledgement showing that the given feedback had been noticed, even though form was probably not understood. The emphasis was on meaning, and the student most likely followed the gist of the teacher's reformulation.

(7.32) *Student uptake with a needs-repair* acknowledgement [C1/1:VOC1]

Student:	*Uh Elsbeth* [teacher] *is niet altijd goed mensen thuis bellen.*	S:	Uh Elsbeth [teacher] it is not always good people phone at home.
Teacher:	*Je moet niet altijd de woningbouwvereniging bellen.*	T:	You must not always phone the housing corporation.
➞ Student:	*Ja.*	S:	Yes.

Example (7.33) illustrates a topic continuation by the teacher and (7.34) one by the student. In (7.33) the teacher's topic continuation is the question directly following her explicit correction (the arrow). This question blocked the student from repeating the corrected word. In (7.34) the student ignores the teacher's correction (adding the indefinite article) and continues with the subject matter by adding a comment of her own.

(7.33) *Topic continuation by the teacher* [C2/1:VOC1]

Student:	*Vleeswaren.*	S:	Cold cuts.
Teacher:	*Vleeswaren.*	T:	Cold cuts.
Student:	*Wagen?*	S:	Cold butts?
➞ Teacher:	*Nee, vleeswaren. Weet je wat het is?*	T:	No, cold cuts. Do you know what it is?

(7.34) *Topic continuation by a student [*C2/1:GRA1]

Teacher:	*Is het een bloes?*	T:	Is it a blouse?
Student:	*T-shirt.*	S:	T-shirt.
Teacher:	*Een T-shirt.*	T:	A T-shirt.
➞ Student:	*Met lange mouwen.*	S:	With long sleeves.

In Table 7:19 the distribution of student uptake during the practice of vocabulary, grammar, and URD for the six classes is summarized. Figures 7:23–7:25 reveal the distribution of student uptake for each of these three lesson components.

Table 7:19 Total distribution of student uptake during vocabulary, grammar, and URD practice by class in number and percentages (%).

Class	Total	Repair	Needs-repair	No repair
1	82	25 (30)	17 (21)	40 (49)
2	132	29 (22)	39 (30)	64 (48)
3	88	17 (19)	22 (25)	49 (56)
4	74	27 (36)	19 (26)	28 (38)
5	55	9 (16)	11(20)	35 (64)
6	52	9 (17)	15 (29)	28 (54)
Totals (%)	483	116 (24)	123 (25)	244 (51)

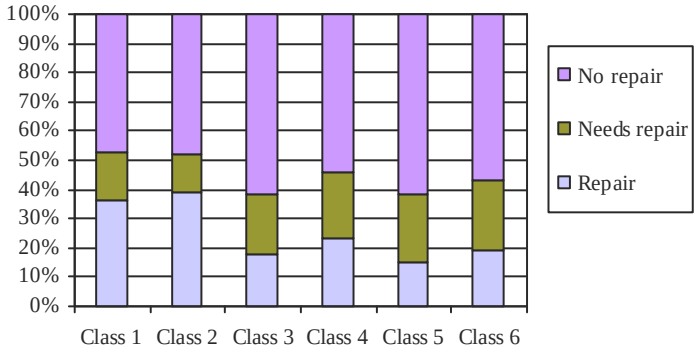

Figure 7:23 Distribution for uptake for corrective feedback during vocabulary practice by class.

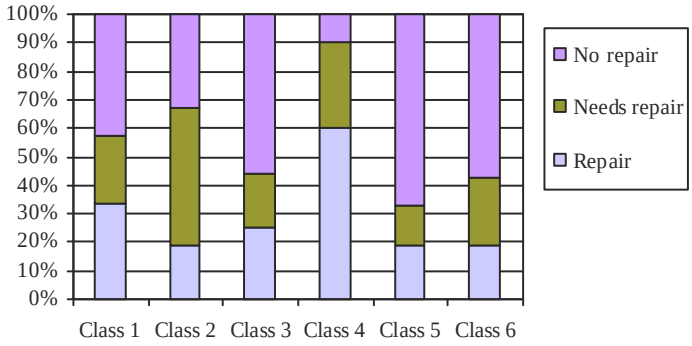

Figure 7:24 Distribution for uptake for corrective feedback during grammar practice by class.

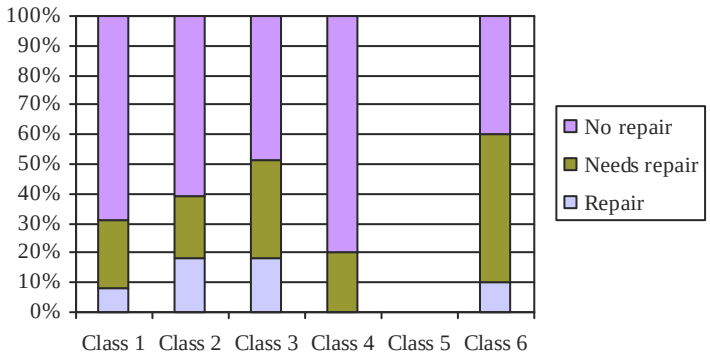

Figure 7:25 Distribution for uptake for corrective feedback during URD by class.

What immediately stands out in Table 7:19 are the high percentages for no repair, with a mean of 51%. Although uptake with no repair is prevalent in all three lesson components (Figures 7:23–7:25), it has a higher occurrence during URD (see Figure 7:25). The conversational character of URD apparently overrides the necessity for correction, the focus being on the message and not the form. Table 7:19 also reveals that uptakes with repair or needs-repair do not differ greatly in their mean percentages, 24% and 25% respectively. In comparing the figures, it is evident during URD (Figure 7:26) the amount of repairs is greatly reduced. Worthy of notice is Class 4. As Table 7:19 indicates, this class has the lowest percentage for no repair (38%). The frequencies for other classes are between 48% and 64%. For repair the opposite is true. Here Class 4 has the highest percentage (36%). The frequencies for other classes are between 16% and 30%. As Figures 7.24 and 7.25 show, the repairs of Class 4 are all during form-focused practice. During meaning-focused practice (Figure 7:25) repairs did not surface. For Class 5 no uptake was marked during URD – a consequence of no corrective feedback having taken place.

Recapitulating, in section 7.3.3 student uptake was discussed per class. Table 7:19 showed that slightly more than half of the uptake was characterized as no repair (51%). Class 4 emerged having slightly more repairs than the other classes and slightly less no repairs. Repairs were more frequent in form-focused practice than in meaning-focused practice. Table 7:16 revealed that recast was the most utilized form of corrective feedback, while metalinguistic feedback was applied the least. Table 7:17 and 7:18 showed that negotiation was most prevalent during meaning-focused practice. In the following, the frequencies between student uptake and the type of error or the corrective feedback applied is looked at more closely. In

Table 7:20, the results for each type of error for the three uptake types are given in the number and percentages.

Table 7:20 Distribution of error type over uptake in number and percentages (%).

(N = 483)	Phonology n=30	Lexicon n=60	Grammar n=305	Language Use n=88
Repair (n=116)	16 (53)	24 (40)	55 (18)	21 (24)
Needs-repair (n=123)	5 (17)	15 (25)	78 (26)	25 (28)
No repair (n=244)	9 (30)	21 (35)	172 (56)	42 (48)

Table 7:20 reveals that feedbacks given for phonological and lexical errors had the highest percentage of repair, 53% and 40% respectively. Feedback focusing on grammatical errors or those in language use was clearly less successful. For 56% of the feedbacks focusing on grammar there was no repair. For language use this was 48%. The saliency of the feedback most probably plays an important role. Corrections on grammar and language use are often complex, while those for pronunciation and vocabulary focus on one entity. It is clear that while most of the feedback was directed toward correcting grammatical errors (305 out of the 483, or 63%), more than half of these resulted in no repair.

Table 7:21 presents the distributions for repair for each of the five corrective feedbacks. From Table 7:21 it is evident that recasts, although the most frequently used form of feedback (287 out of 483, or 59%) it was also the most unsuccessful. Of the total number of recasts, 59% had no repair. This was also true for explicit correction and negotiation. Of these 43% and 42% respectively resulted in no repair. Elicitation emerges as most successful in bringing about a repair, 44%. These figures are graphically represented in Figure 7:26.

Table 7:21 Distribution of corrective feedback types of across uptake in number and percentages (%).

(N = 483)	Explicit correction (n=51)	Metalinguistic feedback (n=19)	Negotiation (n=81)	Recast (n=287)	Elicitation (n=45)
Repair	17 (33)	3 (16)	22 (27)	54 (19)	20 (44)
Needs-repair	12 (24)	8 (42)	25 (31)	63 (22)	15 (33)
No repair	22 (43)	8 (42)	34 (42)	170 (59)	10 (22)

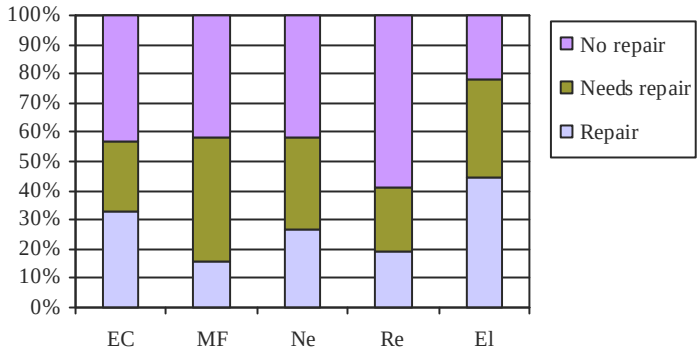

Figure 7:26 Distribution of student uptake over the type of corrective feedback (EC=explicit correction, MF= metalinguistic feedback, Ne=negotiation, Re=recast, El=elicitation).

7.3.4 Comparing the classes

In section 7.1.6 the classes were compared on the results from Observation Scheme A (management of time and organization of classroom processes). In section 7.2.6 the classes were compared on the results emerging from Observation Scheme B (pedagogical practices). In this section the classes are compared again, but now focusing on corrective feedback based on the results from Observation Scheme C. The results presented in Table 7:22 were calculated in the same way as for Tables 7:6 and 7:14 (see section 7.1.6). Corrective feedback was analyzed following the triadic feedback sequence: trigger, feedback, and uptake. Table 7:22 highlights the main characteristics of Scheme C. A short summary for each class follows. RD practice and student initiations are not included in this comparison.

Table 7:22 The classes compared for corrective feedback..
(● = remarkably high, >10% above mean; ● = high, 5% -10% above mean; ● = low, 5% - 10% below mean; ● = remarkably low, >10% below mean; ○ = not scheduled; • = mean)

Domains	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Class 6
Student triggers/errors						
• Phonology	•	•	•	•	•	•
• Lexicon	•	•	•	●	●	●
• Grammar	●	•	●	●	●	●
• Language use	●	•	●	●	●	●
Feedback						
• Explicit correction	●	•	•	•	•	●
• Metalinguistic feedback	•	•	•	•	•	●
• Negotiation	•	•	●	•	●	●
• Recast	•	●	•	●	●	●
• Elicitation	•	●	●	●	•	•
Student uptake						
• Repair	●	•	●	●	•	•
• Needs-repair	•	•	•	•	•	•
• No repair	•	•	•	●	●	•

Class 1

Table 7:22 reveals that, in comparison to the other classes, the feedbacks in Class 1 were foremost directed toward responses with errors in language use, marked remarkably high. Triggers with a grammatical error were much less responded to with a feedback as it was marked remarkable low. The types of feedback applied were comparably average, except for explicit correction. This was not often used. Apparently the feedbacks were relatively salient as the student responses to the feedbacks with a repair were high.

Class 2

For corrective feedback, Class 2 appears to be a relatively average class. The types of triggers on which were responded with a feedback were neither high nor low, nor were the types of uptake. In the feedback that was given, recast was relatively high in occurrence and elicitation low. The application of the other three types of feedback was average.

Class 3
Class 3 had a remarkably low score for grammatical triggers and a high score for language use. As this class focused on vocabulary knowledge, apparently the semantics and not only the meaning of individual words were highlighted. The corrective feedback was remarkably high for negotiation, whereas elicitation was not often used.

Class 4
The corrective feedback given in Class 4 was remarkably high for lexical errors. Grammatical triggers and those in language use were infrequent, as they were marked low in Table 7:22. Elicitation was applied frequently and marked with a remarkably high. Recasts were also regularly used. Class 4 was the only class with a remarkably high score for student uptake with repair. This means that there was sufficient opportunity to respond to a feedback and little topic continuation seen by the low score for no repair.

Class 5
Table 7:22 shows a remarkably low occurrence of triggers with a lexical and language use error. In contrast, the grammatical triggers were remarkably high. Negotiation was seldom utilized and recasts were very frequent. Student uptake was average, but topic continuation occurred very often, as seen through the remarkably high score for no repair.

Class 6
Table 7:22 shows a comparable picture for student triggers as that of Class 5. Lexical errors and those in language use were infrequent and those for grammar were remarkably high. Negotiation was seldom used, but explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback were both used very often. The use of recasts was likewise frequent. Even though explicit feedback was often used, student uptake in comparison to the other classes was average.

7.3.5 Observations on correction feedback

Section 7.3 examined the use of corrective feedback in the classroom following the three-step corrective feedback sequence presented by Lyster and Ranta (1997). Out of a total of 2217 interaction episodes (see Table 7:10), only 483 (22%)[57] were coded as corrective feedback in Tables 7:15

57 In section 7.2.7, 71% is given for non-corrective feedbacks and 29% for the corrective ones, based on Table 7:10. The percentage for corrective feedbacks includes both forms of elicitation, the didactic and corrective forms. Of these, 191 were didactic and 45 were corrective. This explains the difference given in sections 7.2.7 and 7.3.5.

and 7:16. Of these 483 more than half were recasts (Table 7:16). In both Classes 5 and 6 there was a remarkable high focus on grammatical errors, with an occasional focus on lexical errors and on those pertaining to language use. Recasts occurred most often as the technique for correction, while negotiation was used sparingly. Correction did not seem to be effective in Class 5, as the occurrence of no repair was quite prominent. In comparison to the other classes, Class 4 focused highly on lexical errors and less on the grammatical ones. The teacher in this class made regular use of elicitation techniques and recasts from which a considerable number of student repairs surfaced. Classes 1 and 3 show again another picture. Both classes focused more on errors in language use than on those in grammar.

The results have shown that the majority of the erroneous utterances which triggered the teacher to respond with a corrective feedback contained a grammatical error (63%). The feedbacks that were primarily utilized were recasts. Most of the student uptakes to these feedbacks were characterized by having no repair (51%) and these were marked as teacher or student continuation, giving no opportunity for a reformulation of the erroneous utterance. Generally, comments covered approximately 25% of the teacher's feedback (see Table 7:10), but during corrective feedback this percentage doubled.

7.4 Classroom didactic framework

In 2.1.5 two didactic procedures that were prominent in teacher's manuals and training programs were described. These two were the *VUT-model* and the *ABCD-model*. Both stand central in the planning and the sequencing of classroom practices. The *VUT-model* concerned the overall structure of a lesson from the lesson beginnings, lesson development, to lesson endings (Faux, 2006; Kauchak & Eggen, 2012). In the Dutch acronym *VUT*, the *V* represents the beginnings (introducing to the lesson, reviewing what has been done, and setting the stage), the *U* is the development of the lesson (practice and feedback), and the *T* is the closure of the lesson (summarizing, evaluating, and looking ahead). The VUT-model was evidenced in only three classes: Classes 1, 2, and 4. All three classes were also guided by a textbook. In Class 5 the teacher sporadically wrote the lesson program on the blackboard, but did not refer to it during the lesson. The teacher in Class 1 systematically carried out the V-step in each lesson by writing the program on the board and explaining the lesson procedures for the day. Throughout the lesson she referred back to the planned program to indicate how far the lesson had progressed. Example (7.35) illustrates such a lesson beginning.

(7.35) *Didactic step V: 'looking ahead'* [C1/1:10-29]

Teacher:	*Oké, daar gaan we. Vandaag, kijk maar even wat we gaan doen. We beginnen natuurlijk eventjes met de datum en het nieuws en het weer. Maar het nieuwe thema waar we vorige week mee zijn begonnen is gezondheid. En daarmee gaan we met het spreken verder. En waarmee zijn we gestart donderdag, Aicha, wat hebben we gedaan donderdag? Waar hebben we over gepraat? Weet jij het nog?*	T:	Okay, there we go. Today, look at what we are going to do. We begin of course with the date and the news and the weather. But the new topic with which we began last week is health. And with that we are going to continue with speaking. And what did we begin with on Thursday, Aicha, what did we do on Thursday? What did we talk about? Do you still remember?

In (7.35) the teacher first calls the students to attention and then introduces the lesson program. The first part of the program, giving the date, talking about the news, and the weather, are standard parts of each lesson. Depending on the talkativeness of the students this can take up to 20 minutes. The teacher then reminds the students of the topic before asking a student what they practiced in the previous lesson. In this way the teacher tries to refresh the students' memory and, at the same time, to get them focused on the lesson.

The closing step in a lesson or a task is the T of the VUT-model, 'looking back'. During this step the lesson is either summarized or, in the case of a task or dialog, evaluated. Example (7.36) illustrates how the students' performance on a dialog was subsequently evaluated. The topic of this dialog was 'buying in a store,' where the expression *Hoeveel kost het*? (How much does it cost?) stood central. This dialog had been extensively practiced.

(7.36) *Didactic step T: 'looking back'* [C2/1:11-13]

	Teacher:	*En wat vonden jullie er van? Ging het makkelijk? Was het makkelijk? Was het moeilijk?*	T:	And how do you feel about it? Did it go effortless? Was it easy? Was it difficult?
	Student 1:	*Makkelijk.*	S1:	Easy.
	Teacher:	*Makkelijk, hè? Hebben we zo vaak:. Hoeveel kost het samen? Ja, ja, dat is mooier, ja*?	T:	Easy, wasn't it? We have often: How much does it cost together? Yes, yes, that is better, isn't it.?
➞	Student 2:	*Hoeveel kost allemaal? Hoeveel kost samen?*	S2:	How much cost all? How much cost together?
	Teacher:	*Hoeveel kost het samen? Hoeveel kost het allemaal bij elkaar? Ja, heel goed.*	T:	How much does it cost together? How much does it all cost? Yes, very good
	Student 3:	*Moeilijk voor mij.*	S3:	Difficult for me.
	Teacher:	*Ja, ja, oefenen, hè!*	T:	Right, yes, practice!

As this example illustrates, the evaluation did not extend further than labelling it as easy or difficult, even when a student confesses that she found the dialog difficult. The teacher merely utters that she must practice, giving no suggestions as to how or even asking what the difficulty was. Although the general dialog was easy to understand and visualize (as seen by the first student's exclamation), the exact reproduction of the routines still seems to remain problematic (arrow student 2). The teacher automatically responds to the faulty utterance with a recast.

The practice structure of the lesson is reflected by the strategy expressed in the didactic steps of the ABCD-model. These didactic steps guide teacher in structuring his lessons. Briefly, these are:

Step A: presentation of new material and the review of known or previous material;
Step B: a reproductive step in which the new material is consolidated or reviewed;
Step C: guided production with more focus on interaction;
Step D: authentic communication.

The results displayed in Table 7:23 show how frequently these practice steps were applied during the practice of vocabulary, grammar, and RD. These results also indicate on which level the tasks and activities were primarily practiced. For example, in Class 6 the tasks practiced during vocabulary and grammar were foremost on an introductory level. Only step A activities were

observed. Exercises in this step often include closed and receptive activities, such as multiple-choice, yes-no questions, and matching exercises. Fragment (7.28) demonstrates a step A practice session during a combined vocabulary/grammar lesson – one that is exemplary of this class (see 7.3.2). The activity basically reflected a multiple-choice exercise performed on a step A level. Just three months further in the program, Class 6 practiced an impromptu dialog (see 7.17) relying foremost on LSK and not on previously practiced language skills. In this case, both were essential. If indeed only step A type of practice had been performed, then free conversation is a step too far. Skills not as yet mastered, were expected to be applied. This example shows how problematic such a dialog can be if it is not prepared for in advance.

Table 7:23 ABCD-steps during the practice of vocabulary, grammar, and RD in hours and percentages (%) by class.

		Vocabulary		Grammar		Restricted discourse		
Class	Engaged time	Step A	Step B	Step A	Step B	Step A	Step B	Step C/D
1	Total in hours	19		22			11	
	ABCD-model	19	0	0	22	0	11	0
	in hours (%)	(100)	0	0	(100)	0	(100)	0
2	Total in hours	40		12			33	
	ABCD-model	3	6	1	11	0	33	0
	in hours (%)	(85)	(15)	(8)	(92)	0	(100)	0
3	Total in hours	53		3			13	
	ABCD-model	50	3	0	3	5	8	0
	in hours (%)	(94)	(6)	0	(100)	(38)	(62)	0
4	Total in hours	12		3			6	
	ABCD-model	5	7	1	2	0	6	0
	in hours (%)	(42)	(58)	(33)	(67)	0	(100)	0
5	Total in hours	19		6			0	
	ABCD-model	8	11	6	0	0	0	0
	in hours (%)	(42)	(58)	(100)	0	0	0	0
6	Total in hours	6		20			5	
	ABCD-model	6	0	20	0	0	0	5
	in hours (%)	(100)	0	(100)	0	0	0	(100)

Classes 2 and 4 practiced vocabulary and grammar on both A and B levels. RD was a step B type of practice. Class 4 seems to have a more balanced pedagogy. The amount of time spent on steps A and B are more equally spread. This also applies for Class 5 during the practice of vocabulary. Class 3 is the only class that also had practiced RD in step A and B. Step A RD concurs with the question-answer type of RD practice (see 7.2.4). This class, focusing on expanding vocabulary knowledge, stressed step A learning (94%).

7.5 Conclusions

This chapter focused on the classroom – its organization, types of interaction, use of corrective feedback, and the didactic framework. In order to be able to compare the classes on these aspects, three observation schemes were applied. The high and the low scores that emerged from those schemes were subsequently summarized in Tables 7:6, 7:14, and 7:22. From this the most salient positive and negative features were compiled and summarized together in Table 7:24, giving an overall picture of the classes. In Table 7:24 only those features with a remarkable rating (10% above or 10% below the mean score) are included. All the other features are marked with a dot. The didactic framework discussed in section 7.4. is also added to Table 7:24

Table 7:24 Salient characteristics for classroom organization, interaction, corrective feedback, and the didactic framework.
(H = 10% above mean; L = 10% below mean; • = *between H and L; S-S = student-student interaction, TT = teacher talk, T-S = teacher–student interaction).*

	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Class 6
Scheme A: Classroom organization						
Time management	*L lost time* • *No CALL*	*L lost time* • *No CALL*	*L lost time* • *No CALL*	*L lost time* *H engaged* *H CALL*	*H lost time* *L engaged* *No CALL*	*H lost time* *L engaged* *No CALL*
Content focus	• *H grammar* • • •	• • • • *L LSK*	*H vocabulary* • • • •	• • • • •	• • *L RD* • •	*L vocabulary* • *L RD* • *H LSK*
Participant interaction	• • *H S-S*	*L TT* • *H S-S*	• *H T-S* *L S-S*	*H TT* • *L S-S*	*H TT* • •	• • *L S-S*
Participant organization	• *H groups* •	• • *L individual*	*H class* *L groups* •	• • •	*H class* *L groups* •	*L class* *L groups* *H individual*
Materials	*H textbook* *L extra* • •	*H textbook* *L extra* • •	*L textbook* *H extra* *L audio/visual* •	*H textbook* • • *L none*	*L textbook* *L extra* • *H none*	*L textbook* *H extra* *L audio/visual* •
Scheme B: Classroom interaction						
IRF exchanges	• • • *H display* *L referential*	*H IRF* *L form* *H meaning* *L display* *H referential*	• • • • •	• *H form* *L meaning* *H display* *L referential*	*L IRF* *H form* *L meaning* • •	• • • • •
Student responses	• • •	• • •	• • •	• • •	• • *L extended*	• • •
Teacher feedback	• • • • • • • •	• • • • • • • •	• • • • • • *H provides* •	• • • • • • • •	• • • • • • • •	• • • • • • *L provides* •

Scheme C: Corrective feedback						
Trigger	•	•	•	•	•	•
	•	•	•	*H vocabulary*	*L vocabulary*	•
	L grammar	•	*L grammar*	•	*H grammar*	*H grammar*
	H use	•	•	•	*L use*	*L use*
Feedback	•	•	•	•	•	*H explicit*
	•	•	•	•	•	*H metalinguistic*
	•	•	*H negotiation*	•	*L negotiation*	*L negotiation*
	•	•	•	•	*H recast*	•
	•	•	•	*H elicitation*	•	•
Uptake	•	•	•	*H repair*	•	•
	•	•	•	•	•	•
	•	•	•	*L no repair*	*H no repair*	•
Didactic framework in the ABCD-model						
Vocabulary	*A*	*AB*	*AB*	*AB*	*AB*	*A*
Grammar	*B*	*AB*	*B*	*AB*	*A*	*A*
RD	*B*	*B*	*AB*	*B*	*No RD*	*D*

By using Observation Scheme A the organization of the classroom was investigated. From this differences and similarities became evident. The most salient concerns lost time and engaged time. Classes 5 and 6 had between 50% and 60% for engaged time, indicating a great amount of time not spent on learning. According to Kauchak and Eggen (2012) scores below 60% for engaged time can be interpreted as a measure of less effective teaching. In Table 7:4 this was marked as having a high lost time. Classes 1, 2, 3, an 4 surfaced as having high engaged classroom time, more than 80%, which is an indication of effective teaching (Kauchak & Eggen, 2012). Even so, Class 4 proved to have an exceptional percentage for engaged time, a near 95%. This was primarily due to the insertion of CALL practice during classroom time. In Table 7:24 this high engaged time was marked only for Class 4. Another result that surfaced from Scheme A was the focus on LSK, with a mean of almost 40% (see Table 7:2). Such knowledge forms an important part of learning in these classes. For these students, with little or no education, LSK forms a basis through which language (its use and meaning) can be better understood. In Class 6 LSK seems to overshadow language learning and was marked high in Table 7:24. This can probably be explained by the focus on the OGO portfolio. The teacher paid special attention to community services as illustrated by the impromptu RD in (7.17). In all the classes there was some RD practice. Only Classes 5 and 6 had a very meagre amount of RD practice. Class 3 spent a considerable amount of time on vocabulary practice. That is not so surprising, as the teacher had explained that she was reviewing vocabulary before continuing with the program in the textbook.

Observation Scheme B focused on the structure of interaction, its focus, types of questions, and feedback. The IRF structure was strongly

present in all the classes, except Class 5. By using the IRF structure, the teacher controlled the movement of the interaction—its focus and the responses. Class 2 emerged with a high score for the use of the IRF structure, 91%. Class 2 was the only class with a higher focus on meaning than on form. This is reflected in the high use referential of questions. Example 7.12 illustrates how the teacher maintained control of the flow of the interaction by using referential questions and recast. Class 4 had the opposite of Class 2. Class 4 had a high focus on form, low on meaning, and a high use of display questions, low on referential ones.

Observation Scheme C focused on corrective feedback. Out of a total of 2217 analyzed utterances, 483 were corrective feedbacks, 22 %. Undeniably, these students made more errors, but these were either not corrected or not noticed. Not giving a greater focus on the errors can mislead the student into believing that his language is acceptable (Han, 2004). Perhaps this is a dilemma with which the teacher has to deal. In order not to obstruct the flow of talk too much, certain errors must purposely be overlooked. Noticeable is the strong focus on the correction of grammar (particularly in Classes 5 and 6). This is surprising as the overall focus on grammar practice was not high (9%). Class 5, next to a noticeable focus on grammar errors, in comparison to the other classes, and a frequent use of recasts, also had a high no repair. As Table 7:24 shows, Class 4 was the only class that regularly corrected lexical errors. The teacher in Class 4 made ample use of the elicitation technique. Through the use of elicitation the student is stimulated to reformulate his utterance. This resulted in a high student repair. Negotiation, although advocated in SLA research, was moderately applied – and it was primarily the teacher trying to understand the student, as (7.29) illustrates.

Finally, the steps taken in accordance with the didactic ABCD-model were compared. Table 7:24 clearly shows that during the observation period of eight months, the learning activities were foremost of the step A and B type. No step C activities were evidenced. Only Class 6 performed a step D activity during RD practice. This is surprising as only step A activities had been witnessed in other lessons. The impromptu RD of (7.17) distinctly demonstrates that free conversation (step D) demands serious preparation (see also Table 7:23).

Not included in Table 7:24 are student initiations, feedback, and L1 responses. These were all rare, as Tables 7:12 and 7:13 indicate. There were extremely few student initiations. In Class 2, there were 19 student initiations, while in the other classes not more than seven were counted. From this it can be inferred that the use of the IRF structure was indeed overarching – the teacher was in control. Student contributions, except when solicited, were not stimulated. An example of such control is (7.22) in

Class 5. In this example a student cut in with a spontaneous remark. As this did not fit in with the teacher's pedagogical aim, she subsequently cut the student off, not allowing her to expand on her remark. Student L2 feedback was somewhat more present in Classes 1, 2, and 3 than in Classes 4, 5, and 6. This seemed to occur more often during grammar or RD practice when it was clear as to the required response. The use of L1 occurred with some regularity in Classes 5 and 6. This was probably due to the same L1 of the students. The student in Classes 5 and 6 were all from Morocco. The other classes were composed of students originating from various countries.

Learning and teaching in LESLLA classes is complex. The many examples presented in this chapter demonstrate this complexity. Communication does not develop smoothly. Both the student and the teacher are struggling. The students are trying to express themselves and the teacher is trying to understand the message of the student, as in (7.29). Regularly the teacher has to infer the meaning of the student, which might or might not be successful, as in (7.4). For LESLLA students, being non-literate and low-educated, reflection on form is problematic, as they have not been taught to reflect on language metalinguistically (Kurvers, Van Hout, & Vallen, 2006). Avoiding linguistic terminology, teachers at times resolve to explaining grammar implicitly and to using simple terminology. Example (7.28) illustrates that avoidance of terminology can turn an exercise into a guessing game. It is questionable if this assists learning. Nevertheless, it also illustrates that the teacher is not equipped to handle such difficult problems. Teacher training should focus more on how to communicate with LESLLA learners on points of grammar. All in all it is evident that the students and the teachers are without a doubt grappling with the oral skills.

Chapter 8
Results learner data

In the following chapter, the results on the pre- and the post-assessments are presented and discussed. The purpose of the assessments was to ascertain if, and what type of progression in the oral skills occurred during the observation period of 30 weeks. The analysis of the language production focused on three basic components: vocabulary, morphosyntax, and discourse. Vocabulary was assessed on two points: specific vocabulary and word count (the types and tokens). The assessment of morphosyntax focused on the verb and word order. Discourse was analyzed in terms of relevance and coherence. In the following sections, the results on these components are described: vocabulary in section 8.1, morphosyntax in section 8.2, and discourse in section 8.3. Relationships between these aspects are discussed in section 8.4. Section 8.5 describes learner characteristics that emerged from these results in relation to the outcomes of the pre- and post-assessments. The same is done for the classroom characteristics in section 8.6. The chapter closes in section 8.7 by comparing the results from this study with studies based on comparable target groups. The components of the analysis presented in the following discussion are diagrammed in Figure 6:1.

8.1 Vocabulary

In order to determine if there was an increase in vocabulary, it was assessed on two points: specific vocabulary and word count (the types and tokens). The data for the specific vocabulary was taken from the results on the picture recognition and production tasks. Data for the word count was taken from the picture description and picture story tasks. The tasks are described in 6.3.1 and the evaluation criteria in 6.4.

8.1.1 Specific vocabulary

The data for the assessment of specific vocabulary was based on receptive recognition and productive direct recall of objects or pictures denoting specific vocabulary words. In total, there were five tasks, each with ten words, totaling 50 words. The first task was a recognition task of real objects in the classroom. The remaining four tasks consisted of pictures representing specific objects. Two tasks were recognition tasks (Tasks 2 and 4) and two

were direct recall tasks (Tasks 3 and 5) – each on a beginners (Tasks 2 and 3) and a more advanced level (Tasks 4 and 5). The mean number of correct responses given for each vocabulary task is presented in Table 8:1.

Table 8:1 Mean number of correct responses for the vocabulary tasks. (rb = receptive beginners, pb = productive beginners, ra = receptive more advanced, pa = productive more advanced) (N=41).

Maximum score 10	Task 1 (objects)	Task 2 (rb)	Task 3 (pb)	Task 4 (ra)	Task 5 (pa)
Assessment 1	9.10	9.10	8.54	6.76	5.29
Assessment 2	9.76	9.73	8.88	8.05	6.39

As Table 8:1 shows, there was a small increase in vocabulary knowledge/size from Assessment 1 to Assessment 2 for each task. The scores in Tasks 1 and 2 are very high. Task 1 and 2 were both on a beginners level and both were recognition tasks (pointing to an object or picture). Since a receptive task is less demanding than a productive one, these two tasks were relatively easy. For those students with a larger vocabulary this most likely resulted in a ceiling effect. The mean number of correct responses given for the reception tasks (Tasks 2 and 4) are higher than those given for the productive tasks (Tasks 3 and 5), indicating that the productive tasks were more difficult. As the purpose of the vocabulary task was not to analyze the effect of each task in the development of the vocabulary, but to see if there was any increase in vocabulary size over time, all the tasks were combined and analyzed as a whole. This resulted in an analysis of 50 items for each assessment. A reliability test revealed for both assessments an allowable reliability: Assessment 1 alpha = 0.828 and for Assessment 2 alpha = 0.730. Many items have a low rest-sum correlation because of high scores (ceiling effect), but never a clear negative correlation.

Table 8:2 gives an overview of the total mean number of correct responses for Assessments 1 and 2 broken down for each of the six classes. As can be seen in Table 8:2 the mean increase in vocabulary size from Assessment 1 to Assessment 2 was only four words. In addition, there is a greater spread of scores for Assessment 1 than for Assessment 2, meaning that the variation in vocabulary knowledge has decreased. Class 3, with a mean score of 34.40 for Assessment 1 and 42.80 for Assessment 2, has the largest gain of 8.40. Class 5, with the largest standard deviation for both assessments, has a wide spread of scores for vocabulary. On the other end of the scale is Class 6. This class has the highest mean number of correct responses with a minimal gain of 1.00. This is most probably the result of a ceiling effect. From a maximum score of 50, the percentages of correct

responses for Assessment 2 are high, varying between 81.42% for Class 1 and 93.34% for Class 6.

Table 8:2 Number of correct responses for the vocabulary tasks by class for Assessments 1 and 2 (maximum score = 50).

Class (N=41)	Assessment 1		Assessment 2	
	Mean number	(sd)	Mean number	(sd)
Class 1 (n=7)	37.43	(3.05)	40.71	(2.93)
Class 2 (n=8)	39.50	(4.54)	43.13	(3.94)
Class 3 (n=5)	34.40	(6.11)	42.80	(3.63)
Class 4 (n=6)	37.17	(5.12)	42.33	(3.88)
Class 5 (n=9)	38.11	(7.22)	41.89	(4.78)
Class 6 (n=6)	45.67	(3.27)	46.67	(2.73)
Mean total	38.78	(5.85)	42.80	(4.00)

The box plot in Figure 8:1 diagrams the distribution of vocabulary scores for Assessments 1 and 2 for each class. As can be seen in Figure 8:1 even though the mean gain for Classes 1, 2 and 5 are very similar, Class 5 has a much greater spread of scores for Assessment 1 as well as for Assessment 2. Class 3, with minimal spread of scores for Assessment 1, made a substantial increase in scores for Assessment 2. For Class 4 this is just the opposite. The spread of scores for Assessment 1 is larger than for Assessment 2. The box plot also shows that the scores for Class 6 for Assessment 1 are at the top of the scale allowing for a minimal increase in scores for Assessment 2. Although the difference between the two assessments for all the classes appears to be small, it is significant ($F_{1,40} = 53.87$, p=.000, partial eta squared = .559).[58]

58 The analysis applied is a one-way repeated measures ANOVA. To account for a possible effect of classes all ANOVAs presented in this chapter were also done with a liner mixed model analysis. The outcomes obtained were the same.

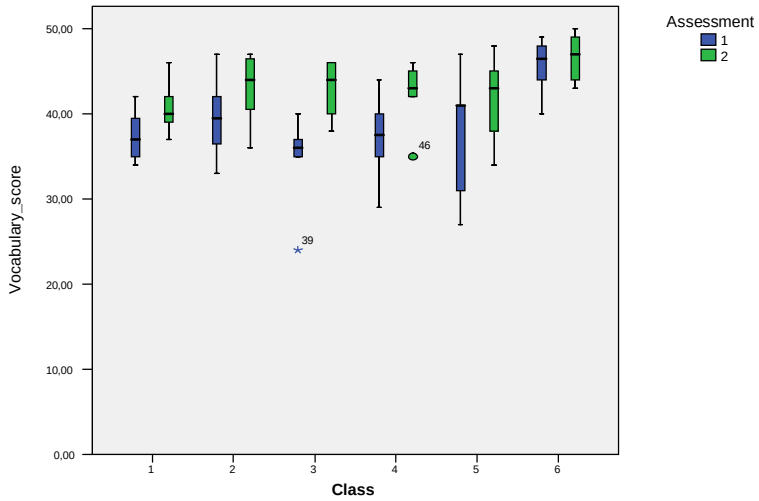

Figure 8:1 Box plot for vocabulary scores for Assessment 1 and 2 by class.

8.1.2 Word count

Data for word count was taken from the picture description and picture story tasks. To get an insight into vocabulary size and diversity, the language produced in these tasks was analyzed on types and tokens. Since the learner himself determined how he would respond to the pictures in the picture description and picture story tasks, it was assumed that the responses are examples of semi-spontaneous language production within a preset context expressed by the pictures. False starts, redundancy, and misinterpretations were all part of the word count. The criteria for counting the tokens and types are explained in 6.4.2.

8.1.2.1 Tokens

Tokens are the total number of words spoken during the picture description and picture story tasks. Table 8:3 shows the mean number of tokens for Assessments 1 and 2 for each class. As can be seen in Table 8:3, there is a general increase in number of tokens between the two assessments, indicating, to a certain degree, progression in vocabulary size. Classes 2 and 5 stand out. Class 2 has a slight decrease in tokens between the two assessments from 122.63 to 117.00 resulting in a negative gain score of -5.63. This does not necessarily mean that this class had responded less effectively to the tasks. It could indicate a more efficient use of vocabulary

in Assessment 2. Class 5 shows a notable limited number of tokens with a mean score of 72.00 for Assessment 1 and 78.00 for Assessment 2. For Assessment 1, Class 6 produced the largest mean number of tokens, 136.00, while for Assessment 2, Class 4 produced the largest mean number of tokens, 163.67. Class 3 along with Class 4 made the greatest gain in tokens between the two assessments, 42.20 and 47.84 respectively. The high standard deviations indicate a large variability in number of tokens produced within the classes. These characteristics are visualized in the box plot in Figure 8:2 showing the spread in the mean number of tokens produced for Assessments 1 and 2 for each class.

Table 8:3 Number of tokens for picture description and picture story tasks by class for Assessment 1 and 2.

Class (N=41)	Assessment 1		Assessment 2	
	Mean number	(sd)	Mean number	(sd)
Class 1 (n=7)	89.29	(33.46)	122.71	(47.29)
Class 2 (n=8)	122.63	(24.72)	117.00	(14.28)
Class 3 (n=5)	104.60	(54.55)	146.80	(47.44)
Class 4 (n=6)	115.83	(51.61)	163.67	(39.63)
Class 5 (n=9)	72.00	(18.57)	78.00	(17.09)
Class 6 (n=6)	136.00	(78.51)	159.17	(69.36)
Mean total	104.59	(47.51)	126.05	(49.20)

In the box plot of Figure 8:2, the differences between the classes are clearly visualized. The contrast between Class 5 and 6 is remarkable. The greater dispersion and the higher number of tokens of Class 6 overshadow that of the limited range of Class 5. Class 2 with a slight decrease in number of tokens between Assessments 1 and 2 also shows little inner variation. The substantial gain made by Class 4 is pronounced. The outlier of Assessment 1 seems to have been absorbed in Assessment 2. On the whole, there has been significant development in the number of tokens between the two assessments ($F_{1,40} = 15.450$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .279).

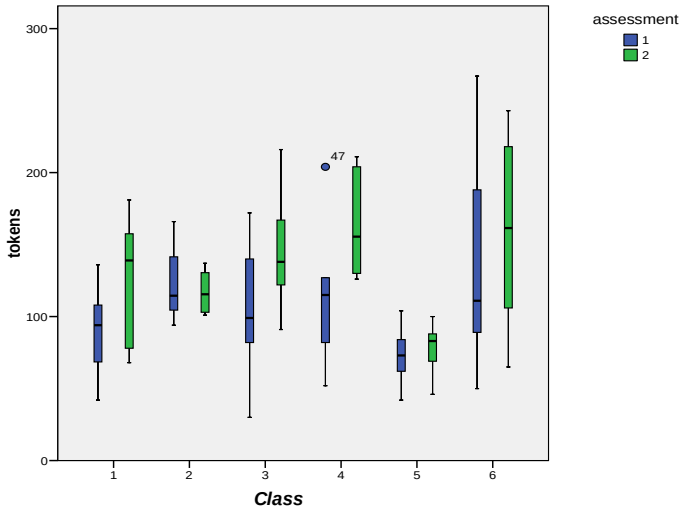

Figure 8:2 Box plot for tokens for Assessment 1 and 2 by class.

8.1.2.2 Types

In order to get an indication of vocabulary richness and diversity, the types were counted. Table 8:4 shows the number of types produced in the tasks for Assessments 1 and 2 for each class. Table 8:4 shows a similar distribution in types as it did in tokens. There is a slight increase in number of types between the two assessments indicating, on the whole, a slight increase in lexical variation. Class 2 has, as was the case for tokens, a small decrease in types from 62.88 for Assessment 1 to 57.13 for Assessment 2, resulting in a negative gain of -5.75. Classes 3 and 4 again made the greatest gain. Class 3 has a mean number of 48.40 for Assessment 1 and 66.40 for Assessment 2, a gain of 18.00. Class 4 has an increase in gain of 12.00, from 61.67 for Assessment 1 and 73.67 for Assessment 2. Class 6 produced in both assessments the greatest number of types (71.50 and 74.33 respectively). For Assessment 1, Class 1 produced about the same number of types as Class 5 (44.29 and 44.56 respectively), but had in the end a much greater gain than Class 5 (7.28 and 0.88 respectively). The standard deviations, although not as high as for tokens, do indicate substantial variation in mean number of types produced within the classes. The box plot in Figure 8:3 displays these characteristics.

Table 8:4 Number of types for picture description and picture story tasks by class for Assessments 1 and 2.

Class (N=41)	Assessment 1		Assessment 2	
	Mean number	(sd)	Mean number	(sd)
Class 1 (n=7)	44.29	(9.93)	51.57	(10.49)
Class 2 (n=8)	62.88	(9.39)	57.13	(9.06)
Class 3 (n=5)	48.40	(24.91)	66.40	(20.95)
Class 4 (n=6)	61.67	(17.69)	73.67	(13.84)
Class 5 (n=9)	44.56	(9.58)	45.44	(9.22)
Class 6 (n=6)	71.50	(29.63)	74.33	(23.83)
Mean total	55.00	(19.22)	59.68	(17.67)

As the box plot of Figure 8:3 illustrates the differences between the classes are similar to that for tokens. Class 6 is again clearly at the top of the range and Class 5 at the bottom. Class 5 remains virtually stable in vocabulary growth for tokens as well as for types, while Class 6 with a slightly higher mean for types in Assessment 2 produced a smaller variation of words. Classes 3 and 4 have the largest gain and Class 2 a slight decrease in mean number of types. The spread for Classes 1, 2 and 5 is smaller than for Classes 3, 4, and 6, meaning that the variation is larger in the latter three classes. Although the F-ratio between assessments was significant for the tokens, this is not the case for the types ($F_{1,40} = 6.28$, $p = .016$, partial eta squared = .136).[59]

59 For lexical richness the Guiraud index was also computed, but no significant results were found (Van Hout & Vermeer, 2007).

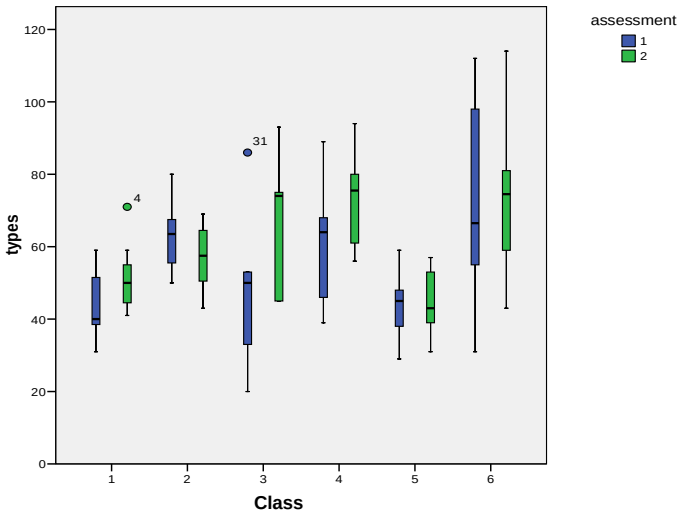

Figure 8:3 Box plot for types for Assessment 1 and 2 by class.

8.2 Morphosyntax

The analysis of the morphosyntax focused on two features: the ability to combine words into units (syntax) and the ability to apply inflection to verbs (morphology). The assessment of syntax focused on the number of constituents, verb presence, verb position, and the presence of an agent. The verbal morphology concerned the inflection of verbs. The unit of analysis for the morphosyntax was the utterance. Because the length of a response (one or more utterances) varied from learner to learner, only one utterance in a response was chosen as the unit of analysis. In a multi-utterance response, the best utterance was the one with a verb, or in the case a verb was lacking, the one with the most constituents. In this manner, all the learners could be compared on a relatively equal basis. In 6.5 the evaluation criteria for the morphosyntax are explained.

8.2.1 Syntax

The results on the assessment of syntax are presented in the following order: the number of constituents, the presence of a verb, the position of the verb, and the presence of an agent (or another semantic role) accompanying the verb in subject position. First, the number of constituents was counted. Then, only those utterances containing a verb were examined further and analyzed with respect to the position of that verb in relation to a complement or

modifier. At this point inflection did not play a role. Finally, the presence of an agent in the utterance was investigated.

8.2.1.1 Constituents

The number of constituents in an utterance gives an indication of utterance complexity. The more constituents there are, the greater the complexity of the utterance could be. A more complex utterance usually involves the use of a verb. Table 8:5 gives an overview for the number of verbs present broken down according to the number of constituents. For each assessment, there were 26 possible utterances for each learner, making a maximum of 1066 utterances for all 41 learners. Table 8:5 shows that in Assessment 1, 713 utterances (66.89%) contain a verb and in Assessment 2, 817 utterances (76.64%) contain a verb. This is a 9.76% increase in the use of verbs between the two assessments. The statistics also show that in Assessment 1 most of the verbs are present in utterances with one or two constituents (205 and 268 respectively). This is 66.34% of the total number of verbs present. In Assessment 2 most of the verbs are in utterances with two or three constituents (301 and 293 respectively). This is 72.71% of the total number of verbs present. Accepting that verb use points to utterance complexity, the inference can be made that there is a slight increase in utterance complexity between the two assessments.

Table 8:5 Number of constituents and verbs present for Assessment 1 and 2.

Number of Constituents	Assessment 1			Assessment 2		
	No verb	Verb present	Total	No verb	Verb present	Total
0	72	0	72	37	0	37
1	185	205	390	110	157	267
2	63	268	331	70	301	371
3	28	185	213	30	293	323
4	5	55	60	2	66	68
Total	353	713	1066	249	817	1066

Table 8:6 presents the mean number of constituents occurring in both assessments broken down by class. Table 8:6 shows that for all the classes the mean number of constituents does not exceed three and the increase between the two assessments is minimal (0.30). Only Class 2 has a small decrease in mean number of constituents, from 2.18 to 2.14. As was seen previously, Class 5 has again obtained the lowest scores – a mean number of constituents of 1.39 for Assessment 1 and 1.62 for Assessment 2. Class 6 has the highest mean score for Assessment 1 (2.17), but for Assessment 2,

Class 4 has the highest mean score (2.59). Class 4 also has the highest gain score of 0.62, with Class 1 as the second highest (0.49). Class 6 has a much lower gain score, 0.34. Figure 8:4 illustrates in a box plot these characteristics. Overall the progress in number of constituents between the two assessments is significant ($F_{1,40}$ = 19,749, p = .000, partial eta squared = .331).

Table 8:6 Number of constituents in the picture tasks by class for Assessments 1 and 2.

Class (N=41)	Assessment 1		Assessment 2	
	Mean number	(sd)	Mean number	(sd)
Class 1 (n=7)	1.58	(0.47)	2.07	(0.53)
Class 2 (n=8)	2.18	(0.44)	2.14	(0.37)
Class 3 (n=5)	1.68	(0.74)	1.96	(0.41)
Class 4 (n=6)	1.97	(0.64)	2.59	(0.43)
Class 5 (n=9)	1.39	(0.27)	1.62	(0.38)
Class 6 (n=6)	2.17	(0.75)	2.51	(0.49)
Mean total	1.81	(0.60)	2.11	(0.53)

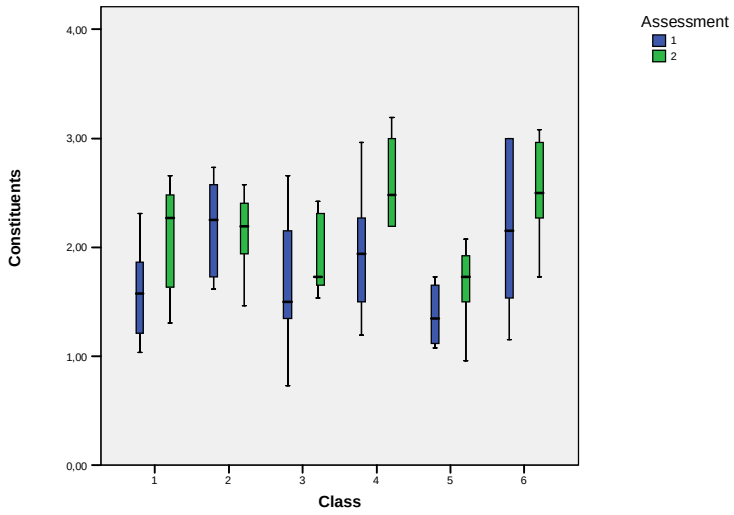

Figure 8:4 Box plot for number of constituents for Assessment 1 and 2 by class.

8.2.1.2 Verb presence

Table 8:7 presents the mean percentage of utterances in which a verb is present for the picture description and picture story tasks for Assessments 1 and 2. As Table 8:7 shows, verbs occur more frequently in the picture description tasks (Tasks 6, 7 and 8) than in the picture story tasks (Picture stories 1, 2 and 3). The picture description tasks have a total mean of 82% for Assessment 1 and 90% for Assessment 2. The picture story tasks have a total mean of 51% for Assessment 1 and 63% for Assessment 2. The statistics also show that the highest mean percentages were obtained for Task 6 with a mean of 90% for Assessment 1 and 99% for Assessment 2. The pictures in this task focus on one simple action performed by one agent. For Tasks 7 and 8 the pictures are more detailed, allowing for more variation in the type of responses. For the picture story task, the lowest scores are for Picture story 1, with a mean of 45% for Assessment 1 and a slightly higher percentage for Assessment 2, 56%. For this story, the action performed was apparently more difficult to express than it was for the other two stories. Stories 2 and 3 have a mean percentage of respectively 51% and 57 % for Assessment 1 and 63% and 69% for Assessment 2.

Table 8:7 Mean percentages for verbs present in the picture description and picture story tasks for Assessments 1 and 2.

	Assessment 1	Assessment 2
Picture description Task 6	90	99
Picture description Task 7	76	82
Picture description Task 8	79	89
Total mean %	82	90
Picture story 1	45	56
Picture story 2	51	63
Picture story 3	57	69
Mean Total %	51	63

Table 8:8 gives the mean percentage of verbs present in an utterance for Assessment 1 and Assessment 2, broken down by class. As Table 8:8 shows, all the classes have made moderate gains between Assessments 1 and 2, but as the standard deviations show, there are large variations of scores within the classes. Classes 1, 3, and 4 have made for verb presence the most gains, 17.49, 20.77 and 14.11 respectively, while Classes 2, 5, and 6 have made very modest gains, 1.44, 3.42 and 8.98 respectively. Class 5 has again the lowest scores for both assessments and Class 2 has the least amount of gain, 3.42 and 1.44 respectively. These differences are visualized in the box plot

in Figure 8:5. The differences between the assessments, although slight for verb presence, are significant ($F_{1,40}$ = 16.639, p = .000, partal eta squared = .294).

Table 8:8 Mean percentages for verbs present for the picture tasks by class for Assessments 1 and 2.

Class (N=41)	Assessment 1		Assessment 2	
	Mean %	(sd)	Mean %	(sd)
Class 1 (n=7)	58.24	(17.96)	75.73	(16.30)
Class 2 (n=8)	79.81	(10.23)	81.25	(13.07)
Class 3 (n=5)	57.69	(31.83)	78.46	(16.45)
Class 4 (n=6)	71.15	(21.86)	85.26	(10.15)
Class 5 (n=9)	58.12	(16.03)	61.54	(11.21)
Class 6 (n=6)	76.28	(20.70)	85.26	(14.68)
Total mean %	66.89	(20.57)	76.64	(15.51)

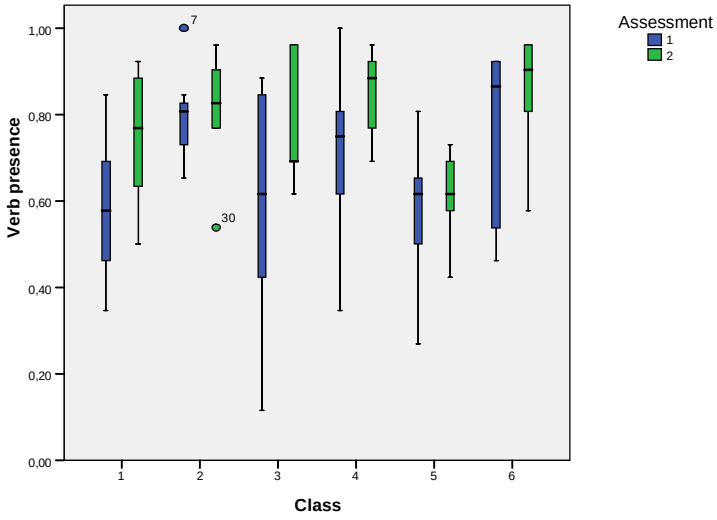

Figure 8:5 Box plot for verb presence for Assessment 1 and 2 by class.

8.2.1.3 Verb position

All the utterances in which a verb was present were analyzed on the position of that verb in relation to a complement or modifier. This could be either correct or incorrect, or in the case no modifier was present, inconclusive. At this point, verb inflection was not taken into account. Table 8:9 presents the mean percentage of verbs that were correctly placed.

Table 8:9 Mean percentages for verbs in correct position by class for Assessments 1 and 2.

Class (N=41)	Assessment 1 (n=40) [a]		Assessment 2 (n= 41)	
	Mean %	(sd)	Mean %	(sd)
Class 1 (n=7)	60.87	(38.54)	60.63	(35.92)
Class 2 (n=8)	64.05	(34.41)	61.88	(23.31)
Class 3 (n=5)	53.04	(18.57)	57.21	(28.20)
Class 4 (n=6)	57.50	(28.85)	84.56	(19.71)
Class 5 (n=9)	40.80	(26.39)	62.57	(27.09)
Class 6 (n=6)	60.28	(27.15)	72.21	(22.64)
Total mean %	55.61	(29.77)	66.08	(26.57)

[a] One learner in Class 3 had no scores for Assessment 1.

The statistics in Table 8:9 show that 55.61% of the verbs present were also correctly placed for Assessment 1. For Assessment 2 this was 66.08%. The high standard deviations again indicate the large variability within the classes. Any substantial improvement in correct verb position is evident in Classes 4, 5 and 6 with gain scores of 27.06, 21.77 and 11.93 respectively. Class 3 made some improvement with a score of 53.04% for Assessment 1 and 57.21% for Assessment 2, a gain of 4.17. Classes 1 and 2 have not made any gain; in fact, they show a decline in gain with scores of -0.24 and -2.17 respectively. The box plot in Figure 8:6 visualizes these characteristics. The differences between both assessments for verb position are statistically significant ($F_{1,40} = 8.840$, $p = .005$, partial eta squared = .185).

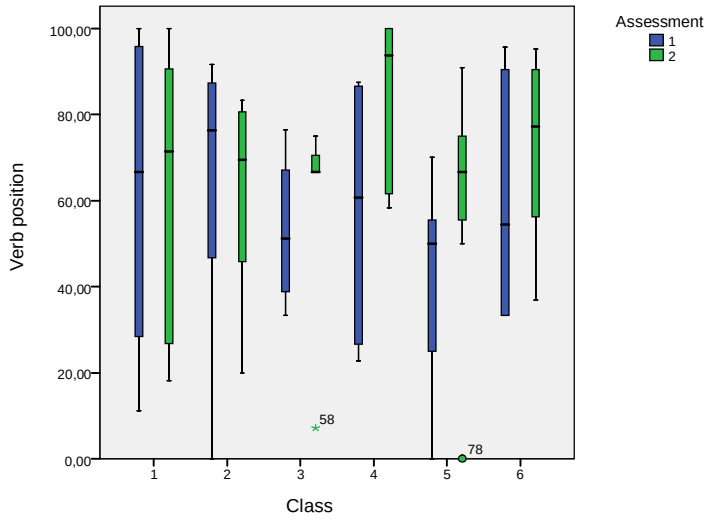

Figure 8:6 Box plot for correct verb position for Assessment 1 and 2 by class.

8.2.1.4 Agent present

Table 8:10 displays the results of the presence of an agent (or other semantic role accompanying the verb in subject position) in the utterance for Assessments 1 and 2 broken down by class. In comparison to verb presence (Table 8:8), the mean percentages of agent presence is notably lower. In Assessment 1, for 39.56% of the utterances an agent is present, while for 66.89% of the utterances a verb is present. The same occurs in Assessment 2. For 55.94% of the utterances an agent is present, while for 76.64% a verb is present. Class 4, with a mean of 46.18% for Assessment 1 and 81.18% for Assessment 2, has the highest gain for agent present of 35.00%. Class 5, even though it has the lowest mean percentages for both assessments (23.98% and 43.22% respectively), it does have a sizable gain of 19.24%. This is even higher than that for Class 6 who has considerably higher percentages for both assessments (51.86% and 64.26% respectively), but a gain of 12.40. Class 3 shows a very slight decrease with a negative score of -0.98. The box plot in Figure 8:7 illustrates these statistics for agent presence. The differences between both assessments are significant ($F_{1,40}$ = 17.778, p = .000, partial eta squared = .308).

Table 8:10 Mean percentages for agent present in the picture task by class for Assessments 1 and 2.

Class (N=41)	Assessment 1		Assessment 2	
	Mean %	(sd)	Mean %	(sd)
Class 1 (n=7)	32.20	(24.79)	55.13	(33.94)
Class 2 (n=8)	50.49	(32.35)	57.76	(27.62)
Class 3 (n=5)	37.73	(29.96)	36.75	(15.03)
Class 4 (n=6)	46.18	(17.38)	81.18	(19.63)
Class 5 (n=9)	23.98	(16.60)	43.22	(22.62)
Class 6 (n=6)	51.86	(28.26)	64.26	(22.01)
Total mean %	39.56	(25.99)	55.94	(27.00)

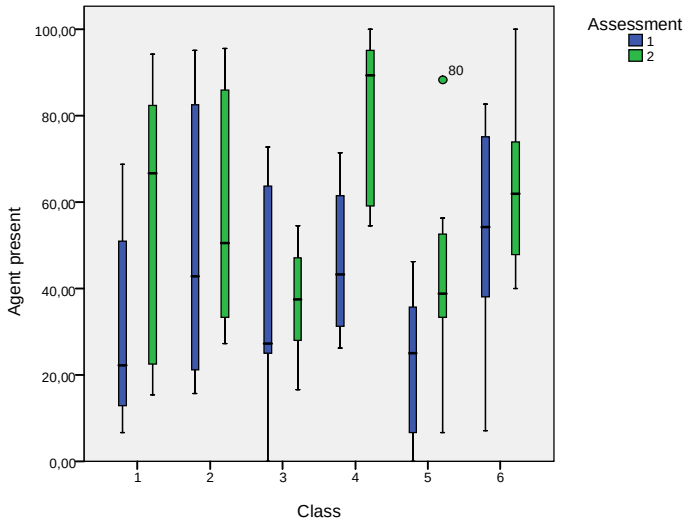

Figure 8:7 Box plot for agent present *for Assessment 1 and 2 by class.*

8.2.2 Verbal morphology

The results on verbal morphology focus on inflection of the lexical verb. The use of auxiliaries or modals and its accompanying lexical verb were not included in the analysis because of their very infrequent occurrence. There were 32 auxiliaries in Assessment 1 (4.49%) and 40 in Assessment 2 (4.90%). As was discussed in 6.5.2, determining verb inflection was not always without ambiguity. The verb was only marked as finite if the pictures distinctly showed plurality or singularity. Table 8:11 presents the distribution of verb forms, finite and non-finite, for Assessments 1 and 2. As

Table 8:11 notes, most of the verbs are non-finite – 66.82% in Assessment 1 and 58.31% in Assessment 2. Nevertheless, there is a notable increase in the overall use of finite verbs. Applying inflection, even if it is incorrect (e.g. when there is no subject-verb agreement), shows to a certain extent awareness of this phenomenon. For both the correctly and incorrectly inflected forms together, this was 33.18% in Assessments 1 and 41.69% in Assessment 2. Of these finite verbs, 44.60% were correctly inflected in Assessment 1 and 46.08% in Assessment 2. Even though there was an increase in applying inflection, more than 50% of the verbs were still incorrectly inflected.

To measure the progress that had taken place in the use of finite verb forms, either correct or incorrect, the finiteness index was applied (the ratio between total finite verbs and total number of verbs).

Table 8:11 Distribution of finite and non-finite verbs for Assessment 1 and 2.

	Assessment 1 (n=1066)	Assessment 2 (n=1066)		Assessment 1 (n=1066)	Assessment 2 (n=1066)
Verbs non-finite	429 (66.82%)	428 (58.31%)			
Verbs finite	213 (33.18%)	306 (41.69%)	Correctly inflected	95 (44.60%)	141 (46.08%)
Total verb forms	642 (100%)	734 (100%)	Incorrectly inflected	118 (55.40%)	165 (53.92%)
			Total forms inflected	213 (100%)	306 (100%)

Table 8:12 presents the results of this index for all the six classes for Assessments 1 and 2. There is a considerable spread in scores as indicated by the large standard deviations in Table 8:12, indicating a substantial variation within each class. This was also previously observed for the syntax variables. The totals given in Table 8:12 show an overall increase in the use of finite verbs, from 33.51 for Assessment 1 to 40.44 for Assessment 2. However, this increase does not characterize all the classes. Classes 1 and 2 show a decrease in gain (-03.05 to -08.10 respectively). Three classes, Classes 3, 5 and 6, have made comparable gains in the use of finiteness, 06.76, 09.26 and 08.74 respectively. Class 5, with the lowest scores for both assessments (13.40 and 22.66 respectively) made, compared to Classes 3 and 6, a respectable gain. Class 4 surpassed all the classes by making a remarkable gain of 33.49 (from 37.98 for Assessment 1 to 71.47 for Assessment 2). The box plot in Figure 8:8 illustrates these differences in the finiteness-index scores. These differences between both assessments is statistically not significant ($F_{1,40}$= 5.104, p= .029, partial eta squared = .113).

Table 8:12 Finiteness index and standard deviations by class for Assessments 1 and 2.

Class (N=41)	Assessment 1		Assessment 2	
	Index	(sd)	Index	(sd)
Class 1 (n=7)	47.97	(25.03)	44.92	(22.35)
Class 2 (n=8)	39.51	(18.08)	31.41	(14.30)
Class 3 (n=5)	24.97	(15.95)	31.73	(24.87)
Class 4 (n=6)	37.98	(25.81)	71.47	(22.40)
Class 5 (n=9)	13.40	(12.03)	22.66	(12.00)
Class 6 (n=6)	41.44	(31.21)	50.18	(26.39)
Mean total	33.51	(23.81)	40.44	(24.70)

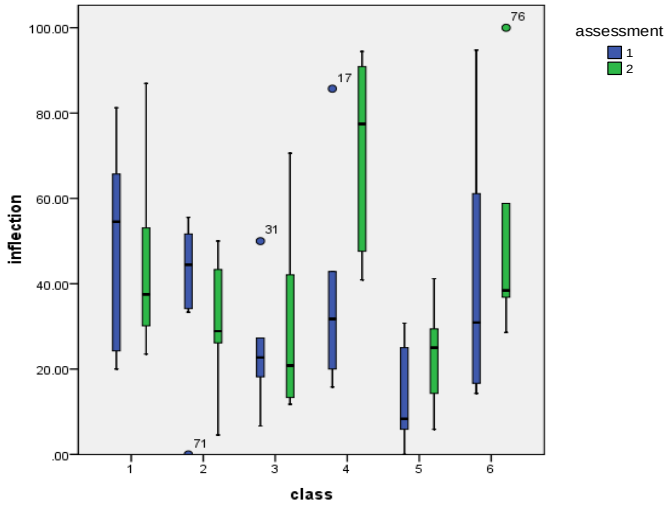

Figure 8:8 Box plot of verb inflection for Assessment 1 and 2 by class.

8.3 Discourse

Discourse, represented by the responses for picture description and picture story tasks, was analyzed on aspects of relevance and coherence. Relevance, as used in this study, was termed *picture relevance* (see 6.6.1.1). Coherence, concerning connectedness in texts, was only applied to the three picture stories. The unit of analysis for relevance as well as coherence was the entire

response made in the picture description and picture story tasks. Such a response could consist of one or several utterances.

The picture description tasks consisted of three tasks: Task 6 with four pictures, Task 7 with six pictures and Task 8 with four pictures. The pictures for each task were increasingly more detailed than the pictures of the previous task. This made it possible for the learner to produce more complex and detailed utterances. The picture story tasks consisted of three picture stories each with four pictures: Picture story 1, Picture story 2 and Picture story 3. Each story had varying degrees of complexity (see 6.3.2).

8.3.1 Picture relevance

The evaluation criteria for picture relevance are discussed extensively in 6.6.1. The responses to the pictures were evaluated as relevant, partially relevant, or not relevant. Relevant meant that the response complied with all points in the criteria; partially relevant meant that at least half of the criteria were met; not relevant meant that less than half or no criteria were met. From this a scoring system was derived. For each response, a maximum of two points was given for relevant entities and two points for relevant activities/properties, one point each for partial relevance, and no points each for not relevant elements. Table 8:13 shows the maximum scores, which could be attained for the entities and activities/properties for the picture tasks.

Table 8:13 Maximum scores for entities and activities/properties for the picture description and picture story tasks.

(n = number of pictures)	Task 6 (n=4)	Task 7 (n=6)	Task 8 (n=4)	Story 1 (n=4)	Story 2 (n=4)	Story 3 (n=4)
Entities	8	12	8	8	8	8
Activities/ properties	8	12	8	8	8	8
Total	16	24	16	16	16	16

8.3.1.1 Picture description tasks

Table 8:14 shows the mean scores for picture relevance for each picture in the picture description task for Assessment 1 and 2, split up for entities and activities/properties. For all three tasks together, the maximum score is 56. As can be seen in Table 8:14, there is an overall increase in scores on picture relevance between Assessment 1 and Assessment 2. For the entities, Task 6 appears to be the most problematic in both assessments. In both cases, the mean score for the entities, 1.66 and 3.27 respectively, is clearly lower than the scores for the activities/properties, 7.00 and 7.51 respectively. The

pictures in this task denote a simple single action, such as eating, drinking and walking. For these pictures, the activity was most often expressed, while the entity, the agent of the verb, was seldom expressed. For Tasks 7 and 8, with more complex pictures, this difference is much less. For Task 7 the activities/ properties (the verbs) were slightly more often expressed than the entities (the agent). The pictures in Task 7 are, just as in Task 6, simple line drawings, but with more detail focusing on the action. For Task 8 the difference between the entities and activities/properties is reversed. The mean scores for the activities/properties are in that task slightly higher than they are for the entities. In Task 8, the pictures are much more detailed than those in the other tasks. Perhaps this resulted in a stronger focus on detail than on the overall action.

Table 8:14 Mean scores for relevant entities and activities/properties for the picture description tasks (n = 41).

	Assessment 1 (max. 56)			Assessment 2 (max. 56)		
	Task 6	Task 7	Task 8	Task 6	Task 7	Task 8
Entities	1.66	6.05	5.85	3.27	7.90	6.39
Activities/properties	7.00	7.10	4.95	7.51	8.07	6.12
Total mean scores	8.66	13.15	10.80	10.78	15.97	12.51

In Table 8:15, the total mean scores for picture relevance for the picture description task are presented for Assessments 1 and 2 for each class. Table 8:15, just as in Table 8:14, shows a small increase in mean scores between the two assessments. Although Class 6 is at the top of the scale and Class 5 at the bottom, the difference between the classes is not large. For Assessment 1, Classes 2 and 6 have the highest mean scores of 38.50 and 37.50 respectively. For Assessment 2, Classes 4 and 6 have the highest scores, 43.00 and 44.83 respectively. In terms of gain scores, Class 4 appears to have made the greatest improvement with a gain score of 10.50. Classes 1, 5 and 6 follow with gain scores of 9.28, 7.22, and 7.33. Both Classes 2 and 3 have made minimal gains with scores of 2.25 and 3.60 respectively. There is a maximum of 56 points for relevant responses. All the scores are well above 50%. Classes 3 and 5 have the lowest percentages, 61.07% and 61.11% respectively. The highest is for Class 6 with 80.05% relevant responses. The box plot in Figure 8:9 clearly illustrates these differences in development. The differences between the assessments, although slight, are significant ($F_{1,40}$ = 31.11-, p=.000, partial eta squared = .437).

Table 8:15 Mean scores for picture relevance for the picture description tasks by class for Assessments 1 and 2.

Class (N=41)	Assessment 1 (max. 56)		Assessment 2 (max. 56)	
	Mean score	(sd)	Mean score	(sd)
Class 1 (n=7)	30.43	(8.30)	39.71	(10.40)
Class 2 (n=8)	38.50	(8.75)	40.75	(9.24)
Class 3 (n=5)	30.60	(14.43)	34.20	(8.41)
Class 4 (n=6)	32.50	(6.50)	43.00	(11.03)
Class 5 (n=9)	27.00	(6.32)	34.22	(7.81)
Class 6 (n=6)	37.50	(10.84)	44.83	(7.94)
Total mean	32.61	(9.57)	39.27	(9.47)

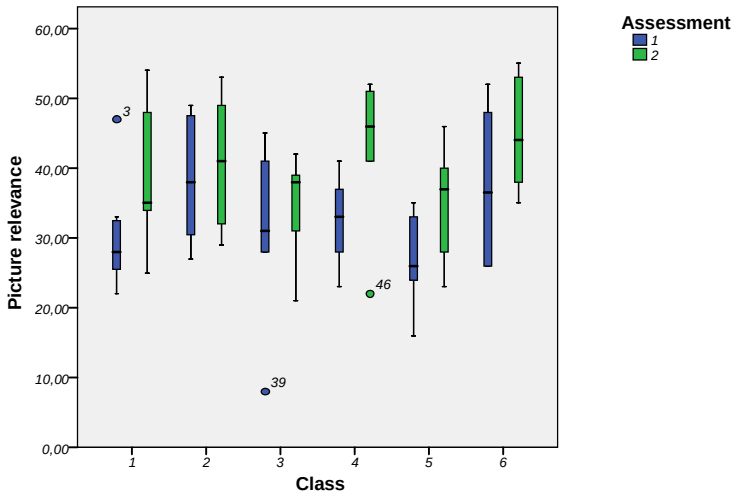

Figure 8:9 Box plot for picture relevance for the picture description tasks for Assessment 1 and 2 by class.

8.3.1.2 Picture story tasks

The picture story tasks consisted of three picture stories, each containing four pictures. Table 8:16 presents the mean scores for picture relevance for each picture story, split up for entities and activities/properties for Assessments 1 and 2. For all three stories together, the maximum score is 48. Just as for the picture description task, there is also a consistent increase in mean scores for the three picture stories between Assessment 1 and Assessment 2. As Table 8:16 indicates, the differences between the three picture stories are on the whole not large. The scores for Picture story 2 are slightly lower than the scores for the other two stories. Apparently, this story was more problematic than the other two stories, particularly for the entities. The scores for Stories 1 and 3 are comparable with Assessment 1. The entities are slightly higher than the activities/properties. Gains for Picture story 1 are the smallest and for Picture story 3 the largest. Picture story 3 is the most complex story with three characters. In Table 8:17, the total mean scores for relevance for the picture story tasks are broken down for the six classes for Assessment1 1 and 2.

Table 8:16 Mean scores for relevant entities and activities/properties for the picture story tasks for Assessments 1 and 2.

(N=41)	Assessment 1 (max. 48)			Assessment 2 (max. 48)		
	Story 1	Story 2	Story 3	Story 1	Story 2	Story 3
Entities (max. 8)	3.95	2.02	3.73	4.27	2.73	4.88
Activities/properties (max. 8)	2.90	2.61	2.63	3.51	3.88	3.88
Mean total (max.16)	6.85	4.63	6.36	7.78	6.61	8.76

Table 8:17 Mean scores for picture relevance for the picture story tasks by class for Assessments 1 and 2.

Class (N=41)	Assessment 1 (max. 48)		Assessment 2 (max. 48)	
	Mean score	(sd)	Mean score	(sd)
Class 1 (n=7)	14.29	(7.54)	23.86	(10.32)
Class 2 (n=8)	23.13	(8.32)	23.63	(8.73)
Class 3 (n=5)	16.20	(12.99)	19.60	(12.28)
Class 4 (n=6)	16.33	(9.27)	29.17	(7.57)
Class 5 (n=9)	11.33	(3.12)	13.67	(5.39)
Class 6 (n=6)	27.67	(8.78)	32.83	(8.21)
Total mean score	17.85	(9.61)	23.15	(10.36)

Table 8:17 again shows an increase in scores between Assessments 1 and 2 for each class. In comparison with the scores for the picture description tasks in Table 8:15, the scores in Table 8:17 are distinctly lower. The total mean scores for the picture story tasks are 17.85 for Assessment 1 and 23.15 for Assessment 2, while these scores for the picture description tasks are 32.61 and 39.27 respectively. Attaining picture relevance for the story tasks seems to be more problematic. As was the case for picture description tasks, Class 2, 4, and 6 stand out for scores for picture story relevance. For Assessment 1, Classes 2 and 6 had the highest mean scores, 23.13 and 27.67 respectively and for Assessment 2, Classes 4 and 6 had scores of 29.17 and 32.83. Class 2, with the second highest mean for Assessment 1, had the least gain for Assessment 2, 0.50. Class 3 and 4 had comparable means for Assessment 1, 16.20 and 16.33 respectively, but strongly differed in gain scores. Class 4 has the largest gain of 12.84 and Class 3 a much lower gain score of 3.40. Class 5 again stands out with the lowest mean scores for both assessments, 11.33 and 13.67 respectively, but still had some gain 2.34. Class 1 has a similar gain for picture story relevance as it did for picture description relevance, 9.57 compared to 9.28 respectively.

The box plot in Figure 8:10 diagrams picture relevance for Assessments 1 and 2 for all the classes. In comparison to the box plot in Figure 8:9, Figure 8:10 clearly shows that picture relevance is more difficult to express in picture story tasks than in picture description tasks. A reliability test revealed a high consistency between the six scores of Assessment 1 and the six scores of Assessment 2 (alpha = .900; alpha for Assessment 1 is .865, for Assessment 2 .838). All item-total correlations have a value above .500. The overall sum scores for Assessment 1 and Assessment 2 show a significant difference between the two assessments ($F_{1,40}$ = 17.346, p = .000, partia eta squared = .302).

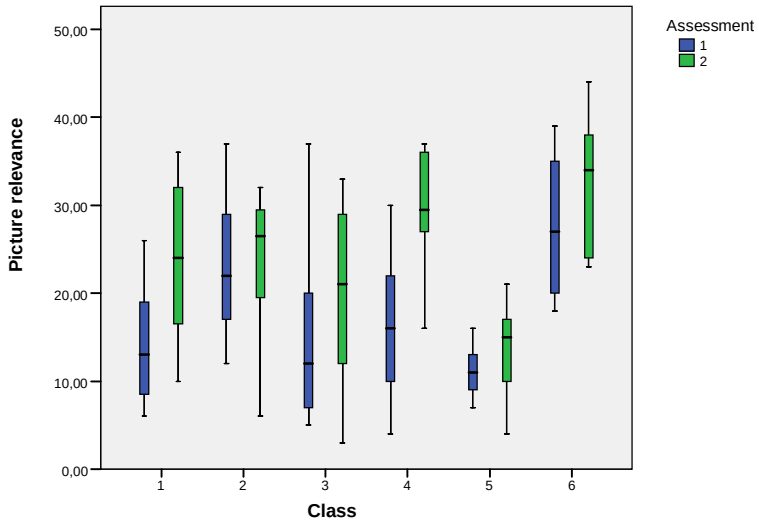

Figure 8:10 Box plot for picture relevance for the picture story tasks for Assessment 1 and 2 by class.

8.3.2 Coherence

The criteria of coherence were applied only to the picture stories. Coherence involved two features: horizontal coherence (connectedness of consecutive utterances) and vertical coherence (connectedness to the topic). For each coherent horizontal connection 2 points were given, 1 point for partial coherence, and 0 points if not coherent. The same applied for vertical coherence. Because coherence concerns connections, it involved three connections between the four pictures: between picture 1 and 2, 2 and 3, and 3 and 4. This gives a maximum of six points each for horizontal and vertical coherence, totalling to 12 points. The criteria for coherence are discussed in detail in 6.6.2.

Table 8:18 shows that the mean scores for horizontal and vertical coherence are consistent from Assessment 1 to Assessment 2. The scores also show that Picture story 2 was for coherence just as problematic as it was for relevance. In comparison to Picture stories 2 and 3, Picture story 1, with the highest mean scores, appears to be the least problematic in both assessments. Table 8:18 also shows that for Picture story 2 the lowest mean total scores were obtained, but at the same time, the most gains were also made. For Picture story 1 this was 0.97, for Picture story 2 it was 1.59, and for Picture Story 3 it was 1.20.

Table 8:18 Mean scores for horizontal and vertical coherence for the three picture stories for Assessments 1 and 2.

(N= 41)	Assessment 1			Assessment 2		
	Story 1	Story 2	Story 3	Story 1	Story 2	Story 3
Horizontal coherence (max. 6)	1.61	0.78	1.24	1.90	1.34	1.71
Vertical coherence (max. 6)	1.56	0.85	1.10	2.24	1.88	1.83
Mean total (max. 12)	3.17	1.63	2.34	4.14	3.22	3.54

Table 8:19 presents the mean scores for total coherence (horizontal and vertical coherence together) for Assessments 1 and 2 broken down for each of the six classes. For each picture story, there was a maximum score of 12, giving a total score of 36 for each assessment. The results in Table 8:19 show that expressing coherence is even more problematic than it was for picture relevance. The mean scores for both assessments and the gain scores are much lower than for picture story relevance. Class 6 has the highest mean scores (15.17 and 19.83 respectively), but does not have the highest gain. For this Class 6 (gain score of 4.66) is exceeded by Class 1 with a gain score of 8.14. Class 1 also has the highest gain for picture story relevance. Class 5 apparently had much difficulty in expressing coherence. The assessment scores are 2.22 and 2.56 respectively, making a gain a 0.34. The percentages are also lower than that for picture story relevance.

Table 8:19 Mean scores for total coherence for the picture story tasks by class for Assessments 1 and 2.

Class (N=41)	Assessment 1 (max. 36)		Assessment 2 (max. 36)	
	Mean score	(sd)	Mean score	(sd)
Class 1 (n=7)	3.57	(3.55)	11.71	(10.16)
Class 2 (n=8)	7.50	(10.88)	10.88	(10.40)
Class 3 (n=5)	7.00	(10.46)	8.20	(10.92)
Class 4 (n=6)	10.33	(9.56)	15.83	(3.49)
Class 5 (n=9)	2.22	(2.59)	2.56	(3.97)
Class 6 (n=6)	15.17	(15.34)	19.83	(12.43)
Total mean	7.15	(9.73)	10.90	(10.13)

The box plot in Figure 8:11 diagrams the spread of the scores for coherence for both assessments by class. As can be seen in Figure 8:11, a remarkable spread of scores for total coherence is displayed. These scores do not appear to be consistent with the scores shown for picture relevance in Figure 8:10. For coherence, all the classes include ‘not coherent’ scores indicating that a

number of learners have not been able to express coherence. In contrast, the box plot for picture relevance (Figure 8:10) shows that all the learners had expressed some picture relevance. Classes 5 and 6 again stand out as opposites. Class 6 clearly has the highest scores and greatest spread, while Class 5 has the lowest scores and least spread.

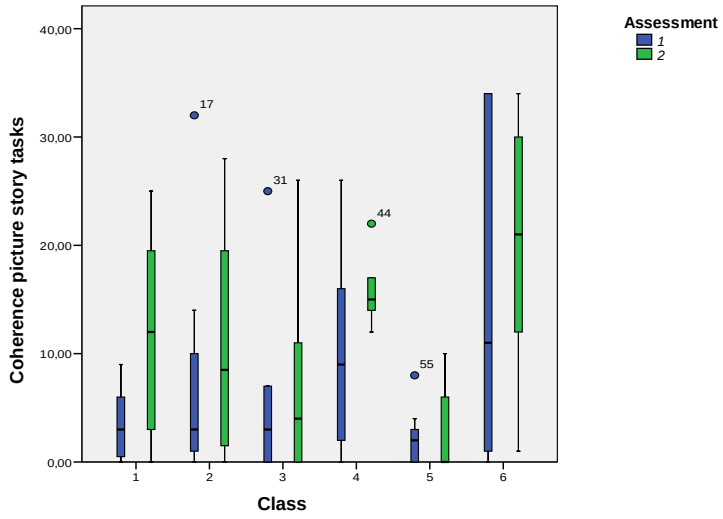

Figure 8:11 Box plot for coherence for the picture story tasks for Assessment 1 and 2 by class.

A reliability test revealed a high consistency between the six scores of Assessment 1 and the six scores of Assessment 2 (alpha = .931; alpha for Assessment 1 is .925, for Assessment 2 is .868). All item-total correlations have a value above .500. The overall sum scores for Assessment 1 and Assessment 2 show a significant difference between the two assessments ($F_{1,40}$ = 10.968, p =.002, partial eta squared = .215). The overall increase is not spectacular, but the learners do show progress in coherence.

8.4 Underlying competences

In the preceding sections, the results on the pre- and post-assessments were presented. Eleven linguistic variables were tested. From this certain patterns of similarity and differences between the classes surfaced. It was seen that Class 5 generally had low scores and Class 6 had high scores. However, when looking at the gain scores, the relationships change. Class 5 has at times considerable gain, while Class 6 has relatively little gain. In order to

identify such and other patterns of similarity and difference resulting from the assessments, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was applied.

By applying Principal Component Analysis the underlying structure or dimensions of the correlations between all the proficiency assessments, the eleven variables, are revealed. Both for the first and second assessment three factors emerged (criterion eigenvalue >1; explained variance Assessment 1 80.1%; explained variance Assessment 2 74.7%). Table 8:20 contains the rotated (varimax rotation) factor matrices. The matrices give the loadings of the eleven assessment variables, the higher loadings being marked in bold face. Most assessment variables have high loadings (toward 1) on one of the three factors, the loadings on the other factors being low (toward 0). Both matrices have an outspoken pattern that leads to a clear interpretation. Given the high loadings of the vocabulary variables in both assessments, the first factor represents lexical competence (high loadings for specific vocabulary, tokens, and types). The two relevance variables have high loadings as well, but they also have loadings on the other two dimensions. The second factor contains in both assessments three variables (constituents, verb present, and picture story coherence) which can be subsumed under the heading syntagmatic competence. The third factor is morphosyntactic competence, as stipulated by the three relevant variables verb position, agent present and verb inflection. These three competences, which surfaced from PCA, concur, in general, with the three areas of analysis at the start of the evaluation process (see Figure 6.1). These competences reflect the skills around which language acquisition seems to be centered.

Table 8:20 PCA factor matrices for eleven variables in Assessments 1 and 2 (pd=picture description, ps=picture story); loadings > .60 in bold face.

	Assessment 1			Assessment 2		
Factors	Lexical competence	Syntagmatic competence	Morphosyntactic competence	Lexical competence	Syntagmatic competence	Morphosyntactic competence
Specific vocabulary	**.738**	.159	-.126	**.819**	.112	-.103
Tokens	**.865**	.171	.316	**.638**	.303	.422
Types	**.883**	.202	.176	**.808**	.136	.272
Constituents	.265	**.875**	.239	.171	**.894**	.263
Verb present	.239	**.888**	-.101	.194	**.902**	.000
Verb position	.146	-.067	**.909**	.062	.117	**.795**
Agent present	.370	.266	**.738**	.270	.439	**.617**
Verb inflection	.059	.165	**.805**	.150	.119	**.884**
Relevance pd	**.765**	.292	.381	**.772**	.315	.198
Relevance ps	**.748**	.413	.335	.523	.498	.457
Coherence ps	.221	**.842**	.212	.272	**.779**	.298

In order to investigate the development over time and the differences between classes, the z-scores for the three underlying competences were calculated. This was done by computing the z-scores for the mean of the three most relevant variables for each competence, taking into account both assessments. That is specific vocabulary, tokens, and types for lexical competence; constituents, verb presence, and picture story coherence for syntagmatic competence; and verb position, agent present, and verb inflection for morphosyntactic competence. These z-scores give an indication of the initial state (the pre-assessment) and the final stage (the post-assessment) of each class as a whole. The difference between the pre- and post-assessment z-scores gives the gain scores, indicating the progress made by the classes. From the gain scores it can be discerned whether a class had improved, stayed constant or even regressed during a certain amount of time. Tables 8:21, 8.22, and 8.23 give the z-scores and standard deviation for lexical, syntagmatic, and morphosyntactic competence.

Table 8:21 Z-score for lexical competence by class for Assessments 1 and 2.

Class (N=41)	Assessment 1		Assessment 2	
	z-score	(sd)	z-score	(sd)
Class 1 (n=7)	-0.68	(0.58)	-0.17	(0.57)
Class 2 (n=8)	0.13	(0.68)	0.35	(0.50)
Class 3 (n=5)	-0.69	(1.33)	0.26	(1.04)
Class 4 (n=6)	-0.12	(1.03)	0.64	(0.54)
Class 5 (n=9)	-0.76	(0.70)	-0.44	(0.54)
Class 6 (n=6)	0.87	(1.44)	1.13	(1.30)
Mean total	-0.23	(1.06)	0.23	(0.88)

As can be seen in Table 8:21, Class 6 has by far the highest distribution of z-scores for lexical competence for both assessments (0.87 and 1.13 respectively) and Class 5 emerges with the lowest z-scores (-0.76 and -0.44 respectively). This outcome was to be expected as Class 6 also produced high mean scores for specific vocabulary and word count and Class 5 low mean scores (see 8.1 for results). For Assessment 1 only Class 2 also has a positive z- score, all the other classes have negative scores. In contrast, Assessment 2 shows only two classes (Classes 1 and 5) with negative z-scores. Nevertheless, all the classes made some improvement in their lexical competence, with Class 3 outranking the other classes in gain. This class has a negative z-score of -0.69 for Assessment 1 and a positive z-score of 0.26 for Assessment 2 – a gain of 0.95. Classes 2, 5 and 6 made the least amount of progress with gain z-scores of 0.22, 0.32 and 0.26 respectively. The overall effect is significant ($F_{1,40}$=50.788, p=.000, partial eta squared = .559).

Table 8:22 presents the z-scores for syntagmatic competence for Assessments 1 and 2 by class. The general picture for syntagmatic competence seen in Table 8:22 is similar to that of lexical competence. Class 6 has the highest distribution of scores for both assessments (0.44 and 1.00) and Class 5 the lowest scores (-0.87 and -0.65 respectively). Even so, all classes made progress in syntagmatic competence. In this respect, Classes 1 and 4 stand out. Both made the greatest gain in z-scores: Class 1 has a gain of 0.92 and Class 4 a gain of 0.86. Classes 2 and 5 have the lowest gain in z-scores, 0.12 and 0.22 respectively. The overall effect is significant ($F_{1,40}$ = 23.603, p=.000, partial eta squared = .371).

Table 8:22 Z-score and standard deviation for syntagmatic competence by class for Assessments 1 and 2.

Class (N=41)	Assessment 1		Assessment 2	
	z-score	(sd)	z-score	(sd)
Class 1 (n=7)	-0.70	(0.72)	0.22	(0.93)
Class 2 (n=8)	0.24	(0.73)	0.36	(0.79)
Class 3 (n=5)	-0.52	(1.39)	0.10	(0.93)
Class 4 (n=6)	0.04	(1.12)	0.90	(0.45)
Class 5 (n=9)	-0.87	(0.45)	-0.65	(0.46)
Class 6 (n=6)	0.44	(1.37)	1.00	(0.91)
Mean total	-0.25	(1.03)	0.25	(0.91)

Table 8:23 shows the z-scores for morphosyntactic competence for both assessments broken down by class. From the results of these scores a different picture emerges than that described for lexical and syntagmatic competence. Although Class 5 still has the lowest z-scores, also evident from the results for the individual components for morphosyntactic competence (verb position, agent presence and verb inflection), it has made considerable progress in terms of gain with a score of 0.73, even surpassing Class 6 who has a gain score of 0.49. Class 4 has made the most remarkable gain with a score of 1.32. Class 2 stands out because it has a small negative gain score, -0.05. The overall effect is significant ($F_{1,40}$ = 18.731, p=.000, partial eta squared = .319).

Table 8:23 Z- score and standard deviation for morphosyntactic competence by class for Assessments 1 and 2.

Class (N=41)	Assessment 1		Assessment 2	
	z-score	(sd)	z-score	(sd)
Class 1 (n=7)	-0.05	1.22	0.23	0.98
Class 2 (n=8)	0.12	1.01	0.07	0.74
Class 3 (n=5)	-0.43	0.54	-0.29	0.89
Class 4 (n=6)	-0.05	0.89	1.37	0.85
Class 5 (n=9)	-1.00	0.67	-0.27	0.69
Class 6 (n=6)	0.12	1.14	0.61	0.95
Mean total	-0.25	0.99	0.25	0.96

Table 8:24 summaries the z-scores for lexical, syntagmatic, and morphosyntactic competence with the gain scores for each class. As the z-scores in Table 8:24 indicate, Class 5 has for all three competences negative scores in both assessments, while the other classes generally had positive scores. However, the situation changes when we look at the gain scores. The least amount of gain for all three competences is made by Class 2. Class 1 made the most gain for syntagmatic competence, 0.92, while Class 3 made

the most gain for lexical competence, 0.95. Class 4 made remarkable gain for morphosyntactic competence, 1.42. Class 5, in spite of the negative scores, still made notable progress. In every competence it surpasses in gain score at least one other class. Class 6, with the highest z-scores for lexical and syntagamtic competence, did not achieve high gains. For each competence class 6 was surpassed in gain by at least two other classes.

Table 8:24 Z-scores for lexical, syntagmatic, and morphosyntactic competence and the gain scores by class.

Class (N=41)	Lexical competence			Syntagmatic competence			Morphosyntactic competence		
	z-score		Gain	z-score		Gain	z-score		Gain
	Pre	Post		Pre	Post		Pre	Post	
Class 1 (n=7)	-0.68	-0.17	0.51	-0.70	0.22	0.92	-0.05	0.23	0.28
Class 2 (n=8)	0.13	0.35	0.22	0.24	0.36	0.12	0.12	0.07	-0.05
Class 3 (n=5)	-0.69	0.26	0.95	-0.52	0.10	0.62	-0.43	-0.29	0.14
Class 4 (n=6)	-0.12	0.64	0.76	0.04	0.90	0.86	-0.05	1.37	1.42
Class 5 (n=9)	-0.76	-0.44	0.32	-0.87	-.065	0.22	-1.00	-0.27	0.73
Class 6 (n=6)	0.87	1.13	0.26	0.44	1.00	0.56	0.12	0.61	0.49
Mean gain			0.50			0.55			0.50

The graphs in Figure 8:12 illustrate the pre- and post-assessment scores for lexical, syntagmatic, and morphosyntactic competence for each class. In these graphs the differences in gain between the classes become more distinct. The most obvious result is the great variation at the point of the first measurement in time. For all three competences Class 5 is the lowest and Class 6 the highest. For the second measurement in time, Class 5 and 6 maintain their relative positions for the lexical and syntagmatic competences, but not for morphosyntactic competence. In that competence the relationships between the classes change. Class 4 has the steepest slope (gain) and surpasses all the other classes. Class 5 shows notable gain, ending by just barely surpassing Class 3.

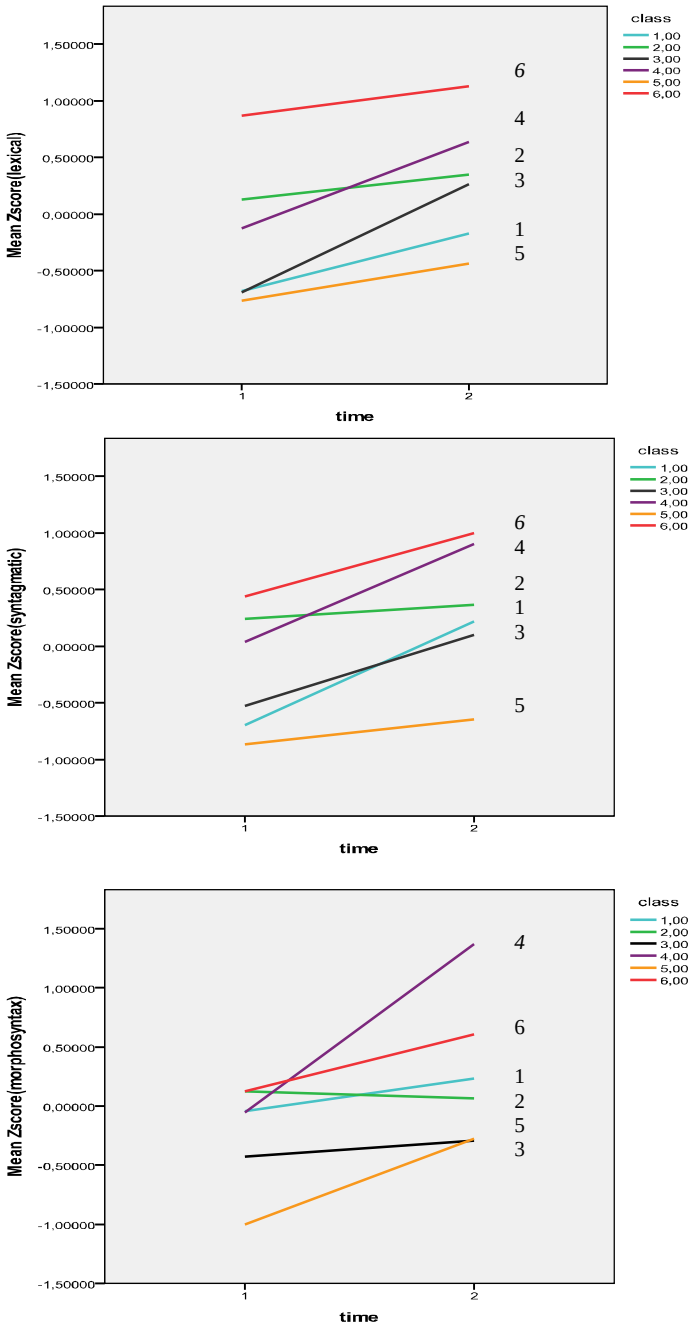

Figure 8:12 Pre- and post-assessment scores for lexical, syntagmatic, and morphosyntactic competence for each class.

Although the differences between the classes are not large, the scores indicate that the gain in the area of syntagmatic competence (expressed through constituents, verb present, and picture story coherence) was slightly higher than the gain in the other two competences. For lexical competence (expressed through specific vocabulary, tokens, and types) and morphosyntactic competence (expressed through verb position, agent presence, and verb inflection) the mean gain was the same. Looking at class gains, Table 8:24 reveals that Classes 2 and 3 made the most progress for lexical competence; Classes 1 and 6 made the most progress for syntagmatic competence; and Classes 4 and 5 made the most progress for morphosyntactic competence. Overall, Class 4 made the most gain in all three competences, particularly in the area of morphosyntactic competence.

8.5 Learner characteristics[60]

In chapter 4 various learner characteristics were described. Of these, seven, plus two personal characteristics were selected as factors of possible influence on learning results. The nine variables are: work, care for children, age (at time of assessment), L1 literacy, L1 schooling, LOR, previous DSL schooling, classroom hours, and classroom hours attended. A tenth variable was added – the age of entry. This was calculated by subtracting the LOR from the age of the learner. Subsequently, the Pearson product-moment correlations were run to determine the relationship between these variables and the three competences: lexical competence, syntagmatic competence, and morphosyntactic competence. The correlations reveal that only three factors have any significance: classroom hours, hours attended, and age of entry. Table 8:25 presents the results of these correlations.

60 The discussion in sections 8.5 - 8.7 have also appeared in three previous publications, see Strube, Van de Craats, and Van Hout, 2013a, 2013b, 2012.

Table 8:25 Pearson product-moment correlations for the variables of classroom hours, hours attended, and age of entry in relation to lexical competence, syntagmatic competence, and morphosyntactic competence at the pre-assessment.

	Lexical competence	Syntagmatic competence	Morphosyntactic competence
Classroom hours			
Pearson correlation	.359*	.386*	.394*
N	41	41	41
Attendance hours			
Pearson correlation	.337*	.382*	.470**
N[a]	38	38	38
Age of entry			
Pearson correlation	-.567**	-.194	-.057
N	41	41	41

[a]Three missing data. *Significant (2-tailed) at p<.05; **Significant (2-tailed) at p<.01

Classroom hours and hours attended have a positive correlation for all three competences, meaning that the more hours a classroom was scheduled, the higher the competence score. The same is true for the hours attended; the more hours a class was attended, the higher the competence score. These two effects are surprising, as they are found at the stage of the pre-test. In the conclusion this point is dealt with again.

The factor age of entry is only significant for lexical competence and has a negative relationship. This means that the older the learner is at entrance, the lower the score for lexical competence. The reverse also applies: the younger the learner enters the country, the higher the lexical competence score. Figure 8:13 visualizes in a scatter gram the relationship for each learner between lexical competence and age of entry, differentiating in LOR between recent and long-term residents. Even though the number of learners is small and the gains are limited, the results point to a valuable conclusion. It shows that all the higher achievers, those with a z-score greater than 1.00, had entered at a relatively young age, around 20 years old, while the low achievers, those with a z-score of less than -1.00 were older than 35 years at entrance. As the scatter graph in Figure 8:13 shows, the two highest scores were obtained by long-term residents who had entered the country at a relatively young age.

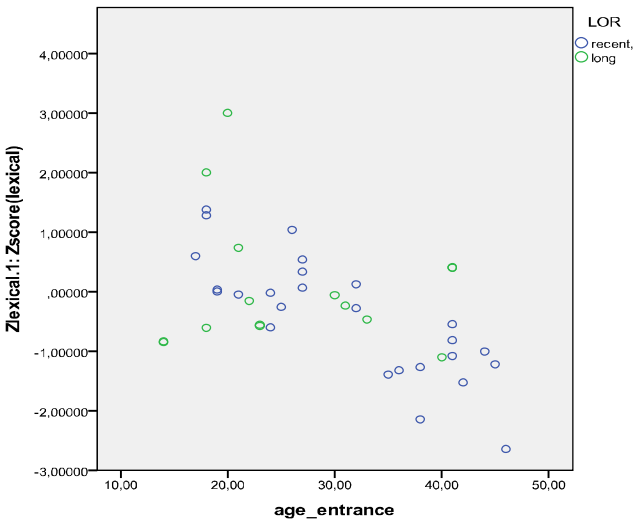

Figure 8:13 Scatter gram of age of entry and lexical competence for recent and long- term residents.

Correlations between learner characteristics and the gain scores were computed as well. No significant results were found. In addition the technique of mixed models was applied, in which the pre- and post-assessment were defined as the time variable. No new effects were found, not even when interactions were included.

8.6 Classroom characteristics

In this discussion two classes are particularly highlighted, one with the lowest mean gain scores in the assessments (Class 2) and the other with the highest gain scores (Class 4). Each of the classroom practices summarized in Tables 7.2, 7.3, 7.4, and 7.5 could be a factor of influence in language learning. The practice of vocabulary could be advantageous for lexical development. The practice of grammar could improve the morphosyntax. The practice of restricted and URD could influence syntagmatic development. Although no absolute conclusions can be drawn, a comparison of the differences between Classes 2 and 4 as seen in Tables 7.2–7.5 with the z-scores presented in Table 8:23 certain observations are of interest in view of language learning of the LESLLA student.

In Table 7:2 on content focus, the differences in percentages between Classes 2 and 4 is minimal, except for CALL activities. As Figure 7:2 shows, Class 2 did not do CALL activities during classroom time whereas Class 4 spent almost half of the classroom time at the computer, 45%. Aside

from this, it is still surprising how little time Class 4 had spent on the other factors of content focus and produced such high scores on the assessment. Class 3 had, in contrast to all the other classes, spent the most time (in hours and percentage) on vocabulary practice and had for that the highest gain score for the assessments. This indicates that the focus on vocabulary had a positive effect, but as seen by the z-scores Class 3 did not attain high scores for the other two competences. Therefore, vocabulary practice alone does not seem to be sufficient for language learning. Class 2 had spent notably more time on grammar, RD, and URD than Class 4. The assessment results show another picture. Class 4 had far higher gain scores for syntagmatic and morphosyntactic competence than Class 2. It is evident that the factor of time spent on grammar practice and RD practice cannot explain this discrepancy, but that of CALL training could definitely have been an important influence.

As pointed out in section 7.1.3, the classes are characterized by strong teacher-fronted teaching. In comparing Class 2 and 4 the results in Table 7:3 on participant interaction show that the teacher in Class 2 had spent (in percentages) much less time talking (teacher talking plus teacher-student/class interaction), 48.72%, than the teacher in Class 4 with 82.58%. In looking at the time for student-student/class interaction the opposite is evident. Class 2 spent almost 25 times more classroom time on activities with student-student/class interactions than Class 4 (68.32 hours or 40.45% and 2.77 hours or 6.85% respectively). Again the gain scores show that Class 4 outranked Class 2. The question arises if student-student/class interactions are constructive for this target group. Apparently, as seen by these results, this does not seem to be the case. CALL activities seem more challenging and effective.

Table 7:4 on participant organization shows that whole class activities were overwhelmingly frequent while practice in small groups or pairs was much rarer. Group practice was observed in only three of the six classes. The relatively high percentage for student-student/class interactions for Class 2 as seen in Table 7:3 points to the presence of activities performed in small groups. This is indeed the case; only the percentage is lower than that for the interactions, 18.28% and 45.40% respectively. It was observed that student-student interactions also took place during whole class activities. For Class 4, practice in groups was just as minimal as the student-student interactions (6.51% and 6.85% respectively). In L2 research, small group or pair interactions (be it teacher-student or student-student) have been shown to facilitate language learning (e.g. Brown, 2007; Long & Porter, 1985), but the observed classroom practices do not reflect this. More research is necessary.

Table 7:5 summarizes the classroom materials that were used during the observed lessons. Clearly there is a lot of talk in the lessons, which is not

supported by learning materials (mean of 45.33%). When looking at the distribution of the classroom materials, it appears that Classes 2 and 4 have a relatively balanced focus in the sense that there is no great difference in the time spent on practice using a textbook, extra materials, audio/visual materials or no materials as is seen in the other classes. This could be the result of textbook use, as the book guides the teacher through the program. Both textbooks were also accompanied by a CD. One feature that did show a great difference was the use of CALL materials. Such an activity induces working on your own, thinking on your own, and making choices about what might be right and wrong.

8.7 Conclusion

Many SLA studies have investigated learner characteristics in connection to second language learning development, but only a few were concerned with the LESLLA learner. The question arises as to whether the results that surfaced are only relevant for the present study or whether they reveal dimensions characteristic of the target group as a whole. No broad generalisations can be made from data based on a small sample of students as was the case in this study. Nevertheless, by comparing the results from this study with studies based on comparable target groups, general characterisations can be made. The four recent studies discussed in section 2.3 are taken as sources for comparison. In these three studies various factors of influence on learning surfaced as well. Two studies focused on classroom teaching: *What works* (Condelli et al., 2003) and the *ESOL effective teaching and learning* project (Baynham et al., 2007). The other study focused on the acquisition of literacy skills (Kurvers & Stockmann, 2009). On the factor of age the Kurvers & Stockmann study showed that age had a significant negative correlation with reading and writing scores. The same was found in the Condelli study for reading: the older learners need more time, while the younger learners seem to learn in less time. In another study (Van de Craats & Kurvers, 2007) study, age and LOR correlated negatively with vocabulary growth, but not significantly. In the Baynham et al. (2007) study results were expressed in terms of progress on a speaking test in which grammar, vocabulary pronunciation, and interactive communication were globally assessed. Age had, likewise, a significant negative correlation with learning progress. It is interesting to note that this present study takes a different approach concerning the impact of age and LOR, i.e. that of age of entry (the age of the learner minus LOR). The age of entry was correlated to the lexical competence, indicating that learning a new lexicon is easier the younger the learner begins, as a kind of head start that is not compensated by a longer LOR. This is nicely illustrated by Figure 8:14, which shows that the

correlation applies to both learners with a recent and a long LOR. No correlations were found between any age factor and/or LOR and the other two competences. This may partly be due to the low level of proficiency obtained by our learners. Progress goes slowly, particularly in the more structural domains of relationships between meaning and form elements.

The number of classroom hours was also examined in the above studies. In the Condelli et al. (2003) and the Kurvers & Stockmann (2009) studies reading skills and number of classroom hours had a negative significant correlation, in other words, the more the classroom hours, the lower the reading scores. In the Baynham et al. (2007) study a moderate positive correlation was found between number of classroom hours per week and mean gain on the assessment. This same study reported that the correlation between lesson length and gain scores was negative. Here we see that students with longer scheduled classroom hours showed less growth than students with fewer hours. In another study by Kurvers (Kurvers 2007; Kurvers & Van der Zouw 1990) it was found that intensive courses of 15 hours per week showed more growth for reading than non-intensive courses of three to five hours per week – even when tested after both had completed an equal amount of classroom hours. This suggests that there is not only a maximum limit to the number of classroom hours and learning achievement, but also a minimum. Apparently, as the Baynham et al. (2007) study shows, concentration and thus also performance is bound by a time limit. At the same time, as seen in the Kurvers study, practice must be on a regular and relatively frequent basis. Consequently, it is not only a matter of total number of scheduled hours a program has, but also of the intensity of those hours. The aspect of optimal classroom time for learning is still not fully answered.

Surprisingly, significant correlations at the pre-assessment for all competences, classroom hours, and attendance hours were found. This effect can be attributed to the relatively low competences of Class 5 that coincides with a comparatively low level of classroom hours and attendance hours. No explanation in terms of classroom hours of the learners in the past can be given. The crucial difference between Classes 5 and 6 seems to have been the motivation of the learners. Even though both classes had a comparable group of older Moroccan women and a high rate of attendance (.82 and .80 respectively), Class 6 performed much better. Several learners in Class 6 did show a keen interest in increasing language ability for future employment. Those in Class 5 had not expressed such learning goals. On the other hand, literacy classes are characterized by great diversity.

Chapter 9
Conclusions and discussion

As Van Lier (1988) aptly voiced, "We describe to explain, and explain to understand." (p.11). This study focused on the LESLLA classroom. Through my explorations, I have tried to understand what happens in these classrooms by describing and explaining what I saw and what I heard during the practice of the oral skills. The learners in these classrooms, low-educated and non-literate in the L1, were still in the beginning stages of their L2 and literacy acquisition when this study commenced. They were struggling to understand the L2 and to express themselves in the L2. At the same time, the teachers were struggling as well – struggling to understand what the LESLLA learner is trying to say and struggling to explain the L2. Both were indeed grappling with the oral skills.

In the beginning years of guest workers (1960s) education for the LESLLA learners was slow in taking form. As said in chapter 2, language learning had been the responsibility of the private sector (WRR, 1979) and only after the government recognized that immigration was permanent, was legislation formed for education. In the intervening years since these beginnings, there has been a lot of change, not only along the lines of legislation (remember the WIN and the WI), but also in the area of education. New learning materials have been developed (in 1987 the NCB literacy course) and guidelines with literacy levels have been produced (Stockmann & Dalderop, 2005). Classroom materials for practicing the oral skills as an autonomous part of the curriculum were first available in 1998, but proficiency levels are yet to be produced.

The practice of the oral skills in the LESLLA classroom separately from the literacy skills does not have such a long history. With the publication of *Van Start* in 1998 the oral skills as a separate skill was gaining focus. Nonetheless, as was shown in chapter 1, even though the importance of a focus on the oral skills was valued, it still remained underfocused. The oral skills have usually been highlighted as a basis for learning to read and for understanding classroom instruction. It is through legislation with the WIN and the WI that the focus on the oral skills intensified; only now the LESLLA learner remained undervalued as well as underfocused.

This study had been undertaken to understand what is happening in the LESLLA classroom during the practice of the oral skills by describing and explaining. The two research questions presented in chapter 1 give the framework within which this study was carried out. These questions focus

on the LESLLA classroom from two different angles. One question focuses on classroom organization and the other on classroom interaction. For both the relationships with learning achievement were sought. But before this could be undertaken, schools had to be selected and classes designated. For this a survey of schools offering literacy programs was carried out (chapter 3). From the results six classes were selected. The selected classes and their students are described in chapter 4. Returning to the research questions, in order to be able to answer these questions three observation schemes (described in chapter 5) and pre- and post-assessments (described in chapter 6) were applied. The results surfacing from these schemes are presented in chapters 7 and 8.

In this final chapter I re-examine the study in view of the research questions. Do the results presented in this study answer the questions and can recommendations be given based on these results? Section 9.1 addresses Research Question 1. First, I discuss the program types (presented in chapter 3) and then I examine the relationship between program type and learning achievement. Subsequently, I investigate two significant features arising from Observation Scheme A on classroom organization: (1) allocation of classroom time and (2) participant organization. Section 9.2 addresses Research Question 2. In this section I examine three significant features arising from Observation Scheme B on classroom interaction, Scheme C on corrective feedback, and the didactic framework. These features are: (1) the IRF exchange structure; (2) three corrective feedback techniques: recasts, negotiation, and elicitation; (3) and the didactic framework. In section 9.3 implications for the LESLLA teacher are addressed. The chapter closes in section 9.4.

9.1 Research question 1

Research question 1

1a. How is education in the LESLLA classroom organized for the oral skills?

1b. What is the relationship between types of organization, learner characteristics, and learning achievement?

9.1.1 Program type

In the survey under 'literacy curriculum' questions were asked on the frequency, intensity, and duration of literacy programs as well as the time allotted for the practice of the oral and literacy skills. From the survey three basic types of program organization surfaced, labeled Type 1, Type 2, and Type 3. The factor of program organization was of central importance in the

selection of the six classes. The reason to do so was based on the assumption that more time for the oral skills would have a positive effect on the development of the student's oral skills. First I give a short review of the three types.

In Type 1 literacy classes the oral and the literacy skills form separate classes. For each class a fixed and equal amount of time is allotted. The students are in principle placed according to the level attained in each skill. This means that a student could be placed in a class at one level for his oral skills and in another class, at a different level, for the literacy skills. Classes 1 and 2 were Type 1 classes. In Type 2 classes the oral and the literacy skills are also practiced separately, but the skills do not form separate classes. The students are placed in a class according to their level in one of the skills. This frequently results in mixed levels for the other skill. Classes 3 and 4 were Type 2 classes. In Type 3 classes no specific time is allotted to a particular skill. The teacher determines the amount of time practiced for each skill. The students form one class throughout the duration of the course. Classes 5 and 6 were Type 3 classes. These program types also differed in registration regulations. This was usually determined by governmental (municipal) regulations. All types of LESLLA students could register for the Type 1 and 2 classes, particularly those still under obligation of the integration laws. The Type 3 classes were restricted to minority women who were long-term residents in the Netherlands with an inadequate command of Dutch and limited contact with the Dutch society. Figure 3:1 illustrates these three types of program organization. Table 4:18 points out the differences in location and facilities. On these points it is clear that Classes 1, 2, 3, and 4 stand in opposition to Classes 5 and 6. During this study this opposition became even more evident, as I explain below.

All the classes were screened and assessed equally. From the results on these schemes and the assessments, differences arose. Classes 1, 2, 3, and 4 stood time and again in contrast to Classes 5 and 6. Foremost stands engaged time (the time devoted to learning). Engaged time was for Classes 5 and 6 around 50% of the allotted time. For the other four classes this was more than 80%. According to Kauchak and Eggen (2012) an effective teacher ensures for 80% engaged time, while a less effective teacher has 60% or less. Although no direct relationships can be made between these LESLLA classes and the Kauchak and Eggen assertions, the differences are so prominent that these results can not be disregarded, particularly in view of learner achievement. On the assessments Class 5 regularly had the lowest scores for the three competences and Class 6 the highest. The other classes stood in between. Figure 8:12 graphically displays this relationship for each of the three competences. Table 8:24 summarizes the scores and gains.

Although the program type is probably not the determining factor for these results, the placement criteria did focus on a particular type of student, and in such a way formed relatively homogeneous groups with Classes 1, 2, 3, and 4 on the one side and Classes 5 and 6 on the other. This dichotomy is also seen in Table 4:16 in which the learner characteristics for each class are presented. The students in Classes 5 and 6 are older; all come from Morocco, have a higher LOR, and had more non-literate learners. On the surface, these factors alone would seem to have a negative influence on learning achievement. However, only correlations with age of entry proved significant (with a negative relationship) for lexical competence. This was examined for each learner and not for the classes. On this point the classes do not differ. The students in Classes 5 and 6 had a mean age of entry of 30 years and in the other four classes the students were on average 29 years old on entry. Nonetheless, it is known that older learners need more time to learn. Class 1, 2, 3, and 4 had a mean age of 34 years and Classes 5 and 6 a mean age of 44 years. A mean difference of ten years does seem to reflect a lower learning achievement in the latter two classes.

Another factor is previous DSL schooling. From the percentages in Table 4:17 it is clear that most of the learners were false beginners. The school records were not complete in this matter (see Table 4:1), but they do give some information on previous DSL training, including WIN courses. Only Classes 3 and 4 had several students who had followed a WIN course of 600 hours: in Class 3 all five students and in Class 4 three out of the six students (see Tables 4:8 and 4:10). From this I assumed that the L2 acquired during the WIN course would have given these students a head start in learning, but the scores on the pre-assessment show no advantage over the other classes. For all three competences the pre-assessment scores of Classes 3 and 4 were surpassed by Classes 2 and 6. From this I conclude that the learners who participated in a WIN course do not seem to have had an advantage over those who did not participate in one.

Let us now return to our assumption on the effect of classroom hours and oral skill development. In the discussion on the results in chapter 8, Class 6 had the most allocated classroom hours, 330 hours, but the gain scores were for each of the three competences lower than that of Class 4, who had the least number of allocated hours, 82.50 hours. In comparison to the other classes, Class 6 had overall high scores on both the pre- and the post-assessments. This could point to a ceiling effect – the test wasn't difficult enough to test the students' ability and therefore gain was limited. But since the assessment did not measure ability on a scale (except for specific vocabulary) this limited growth must have another cause. I can only think of one – the teacher. She wasn't able to enhance the students' oral L2 ability during the observation period. This seems rather harsh, for there was

learning in that class; only for the L2 it was minimal. The teacher focused for more than 50% on LSK, but this knowledge was not tested. Class 5 represented the other end of the scale with very low scores in comparison to the other classes. Nevertheless there was gain, as the graphs in Figure 8:12 clearly show. In lexical and morphosyntactic competence Class 5 had more gain than Class 6. This just shows that L2 education does have a positive (albeit small) effect, even for these learners.

9.1.2 Allocation of classroom time

From the discussion on the three program types, I showed that time given to learning (engaged time) is reflected in learner achievement – the more the engaged time the higher the gain scores. The results on time management also reveal that the total amount of time given to learning is not the only factor of influence on the development of the oral skills. Class 4, with the least number of allotted classroom hours, used these hours efficiently. Confronted with a highly mixed-level class as a result of continuous enrollment, the teacher opted to insert CALL activities. The class was divided into two relatively homogeneous groups. While one group practiced vocabulary with various computer programs in the OLC and under the guidance of an assistant, the other practiced in the classroom the oral skills with the teacher. As a consequence of inserting CALL activities, the time spent in the classroom practicing the oral skills was reduced by more than half, from 82.50 to 45 hours. In spite of this drastic reduction of practice hours with the teacher, the assessment results are remarkably positive. A closer look at Class 4 is necessary. The domain 'content focus' in Scheme A discloses that the actual number of hours practiced in Class 4 for three of the five factors (vocabulary, RD, and URD) are not consistently the lowest. In the classroom, Class 4 spent almost twice as much time on vocabulary practice as Class 6. For the assessment Class 4 produced high gain scores (see Table 8:24). For lexical competence it had a gain score of 0.76, exceeded only by Class 3 with a gain of 0.95. For syntagmatic competence Class 4 had 0.86, exceeded only by Class 1 with 0.92. For morphosyntactic competence Class 4 had 1.42, leaving the other classes far behind. Class 5 came in second with a gain score of 0.73. As previously stated in section 8.6, CALL training most probably could have contributed to this amazing student achievement in Class 4. Focusing on vocabulary through CALL activities seems to have made the difference. By practicing with CALL the L2 input was on three levels: visual (with a picture), written (showing the vocabulary word), and oral (hearing the word spoken). Often a context was incorporated by also presenting the word in a sentence or a situation. These CALL programs had not been examined and were, consequently, not included in the

analysis, but it cannot be denied that their implementation most probably facilitated the learning of grammar and discourse. There are more advantages for the learner in using CALL activities: it is motivating, provides immediate feedback, is self-pacing, pushes the student to notice, and the computer is patient (Brown, 2007; Epstein & Ormiston, 2007). By working individually the learner can think for himself and take control over his own learning process. These advantages were all available to the learners in Class 4.

9.1.3 Participant organization

These LESLLA classrooms are characterized as being strongly teacher-centered with predominately whole class activities. Group work was relatively rare and occurred only in Classes 1, 2,, and 4 (approximately 24%, 18%, and 6.5% respectively). In the other three classes no group work was witnessed. In SLA research (e.g. Doughty & Pica, 1986; Long & Porter, 1985; Pica, 1994) and by education specialists (Brown, 2007; Kauchak & Eggen, 2012) group work is taken to be advantageous for quantity as well as quality of L2 output. Long and Porter argue that group work "increases language practice opportunities" and "improves the quality of student talk." It has also been demonstrated that learners in doing group work produce more L2 and negotiate more (Rulon & McCreay, 1986; Doughty & Pica, 1986). Brown (2007) adds that group work also creates an affective climate, increases motivation, and promotes learner responsibility and autonomy. From this I infer that group work can enhance lexical, syntagmatic, and morphosyntactic competence. Does this also apply to the LESLLA classes? I will now take a closer look at group work in the LESLLA classroom.

The most apparent form of group work was evidenced in Class 1 during the practice with *PICTO*, a work form using pictographs to guide the student in making correct sentences (see section 7.1.4). The students sat in groups of four each with a *PICTO* booklet. For the student the goal of the task was clear – to read the pictographs. Any other L2 was not necessary. This meant a strong focus on vocabulary (lexical competence), word order (syntagmatic competence), and verb inflection (morphosyntactic competence). The gain scores on the three competences show another picture. According to the gain scores (Table 8:24), Class 1 had an average gain of 0.51 for lexical competence (mean for the classes was 0.50) a noticeable gain for syntagmatic competence 0.92 (mean for the classes was 0.55), and a marginal gain for morphosyntactic competence of 0.28 (mean for the classes was 0.50). As shown here, Class 1 stood out for syntagmatic competence. Conjecturally, *PICTO* seems to be advantageous for the

development of syntagmatic ability (for the constituents, verb position, and agent presence). This should be looked at further.

Other forms of group work were sporadic. In Class 2 group work was mainly in two's speaking with an adjacent student for the classroom was much too small to allow for any learner movement.

9.1.4 Conclusions

In this section I stressed that ample time must be given to learning. Learning, especially for the LESLLA learner, takes a lot of time. Given the complexity of learning and teaching, as shown above, it becomes increasingly evident that the steps are small, but progress is nonetheless evident. Class 4 illustrates that same-level classes seem to be an advantage for learning as instruction can focus on the class as a whole and ensure the participation of all the students. In addition, it is advised to use specially developed CALL programs as a support for language learning. Such materials can not only enhance the learning of the oral skills through interaction with the computer, but at the same time the listening skills, grammar, and dialog knowledge. Clearly more attention should be given to the development of CALL materials for the LESLLA learner.

9.2 Research question 2

Research question 2

2a. How is interaction structured in the LESLLA classroom during the practice of the oral skills?

2b. What is the relationship between types of classroom interaction, learner characteristics, and learning achievement?

9.2.1 IRF exchange structure

The IRF structure is the most frequent type of teacher-student exchange pattern in the L2 classroom the (see sections 2.4.2 and 7.2). It occurs most often in teacher-fronted type of classrooms where the teacher primarily checks for knowledge. This is precisely what I found in the LESLLA classes. Of all the teacher initiations, 79% were IRF exchanges. In SLA research it has been argued that IRF structure has too many drawbacks as it does not allow for student variation or experimentation in asking questions, expanding on requests, self-correcting, or even initiating an exchange outside the requested. In my opinion, these points of criticism are not necessarily drawbacks for the LESLLA learner. The use of the IRF structure in the classroom can function, as Van Lier states (1996, 2001), as "building a

bridge" to creative language use; it scaffolds learners' language. If viewed from this angle the IRF exchange structure becomes an important didactic technique in classroom interaction. By selecting the type of questions or the type of feedback, the teacher can fluctuate between focusing on rote learning, checking vocabulary, grammar, and LSK, scaffolding new L2 structures, or even challenging the students to think creatively by probing their knowledge further.

If indeed the success of the IRF exchange structure lies in the skilful manipulation of the questions asked or the feedbacks given by the teacher (the predominant initiator of the exchange) it is important to know if the LESLLA classroom exhibits such usages and what effect this has on learner achievement. In order to examine learner achievement, the types of feedback must first be scrutinized. I return to this part of the question in section 9.2.2. A direct relation between the types of questions asked and learner achievement is more difficult to investigate in a classroom setting. The results on the types of questions asked reveal that 69% were display questions and 31% referential (Table 7:7). Even though display questions are not viewed as real questions, examples show that teachers were able to be creative within the IRF structure and the questions asked. A good example is (7.11). In introducing a news item, the teacher first probed the students' knowledge. The questions asked were real for the students, even though the form was within the closed-ended display question type. This example is similar to example (7.6) in which the teacher is telling and asking about the national elections. In both examples the IRF structure dominates. Another form of question often used for clarification or confirmation of the student's message, as in (7.12), is negotiation. By using meaning-focused open-ended referential questions the teacher allows the student to elaborate on her response. Negotiation is discussed in the following section.

What can be said about learner achievement and the use of IRF structure? I take as an example Class 3. Class 3 strongly focused on vocabulary, almost 43% of classroom time (total mean was 24%, see Table 7:2). The practice on vocabulary was predominantly through the use of the IRF structure. Of all the teacher initiations, 86% were IRF structures (the total mean was 79%). In learner achievement for lexical competence Class 3 had a gain score of 0.95 (total mean was 0.50). For syntagmatic and morphosyntactic competences Class 3 had second lowest gain scores. The conclusion can be drawn that for Class 3 the systematic use of the IRF structure had a positive effect on learner achievement in the area of lexical competence. Although the IRF can guide the student in learning, it is not the only determiner for enhancing or blocking learner achievement. Corrective feedback plays also an important role in learning.

9.2.2 Corrective feedback

There are various ways of giving corrective feedback (see 2.1.4). In this section I focus on recasts, negotiation, and elicitation for four reasons. First, a great number of studies have proven that recasts are the most frequent type of corrective feedback given and the results in this study did not prove differently. Secondly, negotiation is regarded as a facilitator for L2 acquisition, but its use was in this study minimal. Thirdly, recasts and negotiation are intertwined, particularly in the function of confirmation. Such a double function can confuse the purpose of the feedback for the student. Fourthly, the use of elicitation has in this study produced favourable results

Recasts

In this study, 59% of the feedbacks given were recasts (Table 7:16). Of these recasts, most were focused on grammatical errors, 79% (Table 7:17). The biggest problem in using a recast is its saliency. This means saliency in its purpose and saliency in its focus. A problem I frequently encountered. A recast is used on several levels: to correct an error, to confirm a student's utterance, or as a teacher echo (Macaro, 2003). Which of these the teacher intended is not always the same as perceived by the student (Mackey et al., 2000). Examples (7.16) and (7.29) illustrate such multi-interpretable recasts. In both of these examples the teacher could be recasting, confirming, or echoing. Not once did the students give a sign of comprehending the teacher's feedback – a clear indication that the students did not perceive the teacher's utterances as corrective feedback, but as a confirmation (or even an echo) of the messages.

Turning to the research question, is there a relationship between the use of recasts and learner achievement? For the sake of argument, I will take learner uptake to be a reflection of learner achievement, although I am aware that no direct line can be drawn between uptake and achievement. Most of these recasts did not elicit a repair, 59%. This does not reveal the whole picture. The focus and saliency of the recast are significant for the uptake. If during an exercise the student's attention is focused on a single linguistic feature (as, for example, the practice with *PICTO*), this enhanced the saliency of the recast. In other words, the student is then prepared; he knows what to expect in terms of correction. This increases the possibility of a repair to take place, as illustrated in example (7.30). This explains why more repairs take place during vocabulary or grammar practice than during RD or URD (Figures 7.24–7.26). Nevertheless, more than half of the corrections on grammar resulted in a no repair, 56%. In contrast, activities during which the student's attention is on conveying meaning (as in 7.29) corrections are often

left unnoticed or not understood. The correction, as it were, comes unannounced. The student is not only unprepared, he is often unaware of the relationship between his erroneous utterance and the teacher's recast. Three percent of the recasts focused on language use. Of these, we see that 48% resulted in no repair. Overall I dare to claim that the recast as a form of correction is not constructive for learning. As I said, a recast can also be mistaken for a confirmation. In the following paragraph I will show that negotiation was just as problematic as were recasts.

Negotiation

Confirmation checks are, as comprehension checks and clarification requests, strategies of negotiation used to resolve a communication impasse and regarded as a valuable instrument in language learning. In this study, a mean of 17% of all the feedbacks were negotiation (Table 7:16). Most of the negotiations focused on language use, 89%. The remaining 11% focused on grammar (Table 7:17). As the examples for recast illustrated, negotiation in the form of a confirmation can also be interpreted as an actual verification of the message and not as a check for understanding what was being said. Turning to learner achievement as seen through uptake, I have shown that a recast on meaning is frequently not noticed (no repair), the same applies to negotiation – 42% end in no repair. Pica (1994) and Ellis (1999) argue that a beginner learner lacks the resources to negotiate effectively. I presume that this is also the case for the LESLLA learner in this study. From observation I evidenced that it was not the student, but the teacher who negotiated in his effort to understand the learner, see again example (7.29). I now turn to quite another type of feedback – elicitation.

Elicitation

Elicitation is a type of explicit feedback. In contrast, negotiation is implicit and recasts can be both implicit and explicit, depending on the focus (see 2.4.4). An elicitation technique is used as a prompt to draw out a response from the student or to stimulate the student to reformulate his utterance. The teacher, in utilizing the elicitation technique, allows the student to formulate his own response within the limits set by the elicitation. In other words, the teacher tries to guide the student to make a correct response by modelling the onset of the response. I refer the reader to two examples in chapter 7 illustrating a successful and an unsuccessful elicitation technique with the purpose to correct faulty grammar, examples (7.26) and (7.27). In (7.26) the teacher models the onset of the response up to the point of the error, indicating that at that point the student must reformulate his utterance. Here I must mention two essential aspects resulting from the use of an elicitation. These are noticing and wait-time. First, by directing the student's attention to

the error, the teacher makes sure that the student notices the error. Understanding and learning can only take place if the learner notices his error (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Gass, 1997). It is the teacher's task to ensure that the learner notices his error, then steps to understanding can take place. Secondly, an integral part of elicitation is wait-time. Rowe (1986) observed that by inserting wait-time the length of student responses as well as the number of questions asked increased. The technique of word lengthening that comes before the error inserts wait-time. This gives the student time to think. In (7.27) there is no noticing or wait-time. In the first place, the teacher does not elicit, for she gives the correct response herself. In doing so the problem is not made salient, and consequently, the student does not notice the error. Secondly, she repeats her faulty elicitation twice without word lengthening and wait-time. Walsh (2002, p. 13) claims that "Timing and sensitivity to learner needs are of utmost importance and many teachers intervene too often or too early." Research has proven that wait-time in questioning increases the quality of student responses (Kauchak & Eggen, 2012; Mercer, 1995; Van Lier, 1988; Walsh, 2002).

In this study, a mean of 9% of all the corrective feedbacks were elicitation (Table 7:16). The distribution within the classes shows that Class 4 used elicitation 30% of the time. The other classes had percentages between 1% and 13% (Table 7:17). Most of the elicitations focused on a grammatical error, 56% (Table 7:17). Turning to learner achievement as seen through student uptake, the results reveal that elicitation had a positive effect. In general, 44% of the elicitations were repaired, 33% needed repair and 22% had no repair (Table 7:21). This is just the opposite of recasts and negotiation. In Class 4 elicitations were used the most and repair also occurred the most, 36%. The other classes had a mean of 20% for repair. Class 5, from where (7.27) was taken, had 16% for repair and 64% for no repair. In that class 9% of the corrective feedbacks were elicitation. I did not investigate wait-time in this study, but this is certainly a feature, which must be studied further.

9.2.3 Didactic framework

Table 7:23 shows that the didactic steps of the ABCD-model were minimally applied. Sitting in the classes I observed that Class 4 was the only class that systematically built up the practice of the oral skills in small learning steps. The teacher's manual and the learner's workbook were both organized along the steps of the ABCD-model. Class 4 had a more than average gain for lexical and syntagmatic competence (second highest for both) and a remarkable gain for morphosyntactic competence, outranking the other fives

classes. This shows that systematic and structured practice can be advantageous for learner achievement.

9.2.4 Conclusions

In this section I emphasized the importance of a clear structure in classroom teaching. This means that the teacher must know what her pedagogical purpose entails and how she can best implement it, constantly taking into account the specific needs of the LESLLA learner. The LESLLA learner, not having the experience of school learning, needs clarity in lesson focus and clarity in instruction. A feedback which focuses on one specific entity, be it one of meaning or form, is more salient than a feedback focusing on several features. I showed that feedback through elicitation, as exemplified by Class 4, is not only salient, but also stimulates the student to respond. In addition it gives the student more time to think and to reformulate his response. By forming his own response the possibility of noticing increases. From that, learning can develop.

9.3 Focus on the LESLLA classroom

Before closing I want to make a few remarks about the significance of these results for the LESLLA classroom and the LESLLA teacher. As I stated at the beginning of this chapter, the LESLLA learner is struggling to understand the L2 and to express himself in the L2, while at the same time, the teacher is struggling as well – struggling to understand what the LESLLA learner is trying to say and struggling to explain the L2. Both are grappling with the oral skills. It is clear from the results presented here that progress is marked by many obstacles: a high lost time, low vocabulary focus, low RD, high LSK, and many no-repairs. These are the teacher's area of expertise, and it is clear that the teacher's pedagogy plays an important role in the learning process. Teaching the LESLLA student is not an easy task. Although a few pointers cannot be a substitute for a thorough training, these few recommendations can help the teacher in the LESLLA classroom.

- *Practice on the oral skills implies a focus on meaning – getting the message across – but form must not be forgotten.*
  Even if many opportunities are created for learners to participate in interaction, there must also be a minimal focus on form. If faulty language repeatedly goes unnoticed, or at least uncorrected, there is a great possibility that the learner will not learn to speak correctly.

- *Use L1 as a support for learning.*
  Regularly the use of the L1 is even forbidden in the classroom. Of course in a multi-lingual class one cannot expect the teacher to know all the languages, but it can be helpful if the teacher has more understanding of the L1, while at the same time it can be enlightening for the student to notice the differences between his L1 and the L2 he is struggling to learn. In Class 3 the teacher made a student aware of her L1 use, seen in (7. 23). The Condelli (2003) and Allender (2011) studies show that L1 support can have positive effect on learning.

- *A tighter hold on classroom procedures and a clear focus on the learning steps are necessary.*
  Concerning classroom didactics, only steps A and B of the ABCD-model were evidenced. The LESLLA learner seems to profit from modeling and scaffolding of the L2. For example, the use of drills can scaffold sentence patterns making the learner more aware (noticing) of their structure.

- *Grammar must at times be addressed. Clarity of purpose is essential.*
  Grammar is mainly practiced implicitly through examples. It is too demanding for a LESLLA learner to infer from the L2 input how the language is structured. These students, having had little or no education, have not been taught to reflect on language metalinguistically (Kurvers, Van Hout, & Vallen, 2006), nevertheless explicit explanations can be helpful.

- *Noticing and being aware of the fact that language has to be learned must be the point of departure in the classroom.*
  As Doughty and Williams (1998) argue, from noticing comes understanding.

- *The teacher must give the LESLLA learner time to think.*
  Teacher talk dominates the classroom, but a little bit of silence, or wait-time, gives rest and focus.

9.4 Conclusions

We see here that learning a second language for non-literates is an exceptional challenge for adult learners who have never been to school. They are constantly trying to understand and be understood. In other words, they have to grasp the meaning of new words and interpret the meaning of pictures or gestures while also trying to convey meaning. New ways of

processing and conveying information are involved. These need to be learned in combination with learning to speak and read in the new language. In addition to learning and functioning in a new social environment, these learners also have to adapt to learning in a school situation. Their lack of skills, which are normally developed during the early years of schooling, can severely slow down or even obstruct learning in a formal school setting.

Apart from these impeding factors, the LESLLA learner is also confronted with yet another difficulty – that of receiving instruction through the target language. Giving instructions for exercises and explaining vocabulary and grammar can be misconstrued or not even comprehended at all. A final characteristic common to the literacy classroom is that of mixed cognitive abilities. Adult language classes are generally characterized by mixed abilities: those that learn quickly as well as those that need more support in their learning process. Still, classroom composition between regular DSL classes and literacy classes differs considerably. In regular DSL classes, the learners are placed according to their cognitive abilities as seen by previous schooling experience or according to the results of an intake test. For the literacy classes, this is not possible and, consequently, LESLLA classrooms are often characterized by learners with pronounced differences in general learning abilities. Definitely this forms a complex problem for the teacher which is too often neglected. The teacher of Class 4 decided to divide her mixed-level class into two relatively homogeneous groups. While one worked at CALL activities the other worked with the teacher on the oral skills. Working with same level groups proved to be extremely advantageous.

We need to be careful in making generalizations with such a limited number of students and teachers, but it does give a picture of what happens in a LESLLA classroom and calls the attention to the problems LESLLA learners have and how difficult it is for the teacher to address these problems. For this reason a well trained teacher is of the utmost importance who can guide the learning process. These learners also need the time to learn. By allowing time to learn their social and economic integration increases as well as the possibility to participate and take responsibility. The WI is inept to fulfill such educational goals for the LESLLA learner. By decreasing learning time, the LESLLA learner is virtually excluded from full participation in society. As I stated at the start of this chapter, it is through legislation, the WIN and the WI, that the focus on the oral skills intensified, only now the LESLLA learner remains undervalued as well as underfocused. In this study I have described to explain. I now only hope that through this we have gained more understanding of the LESLLA learner and the LESLLA classroom.

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Picture credits

Text

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Assessment tasks

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Task 8: picture 4
Robert de Hartogh (photographer).

Appendix 1
The assessment tasks

Specific vocabulary tasks

Task 1: a recognition task of 10 real objects,
Task 2: picture recognition task on a beginners level
Task 3: picture direct recall task on a beginners level
Task 4: picture recognition task on a more advanced level
Task 5: picture direct recall task on a more advanced level

Picture description tasks

Task 6 (four pictures)
Task 7 (six pictures)
Task 8 (four photographs)

Picture story tasks

Task 9: Picture story 1
Task 9: Picture story 2
Task 9: Picture story 3

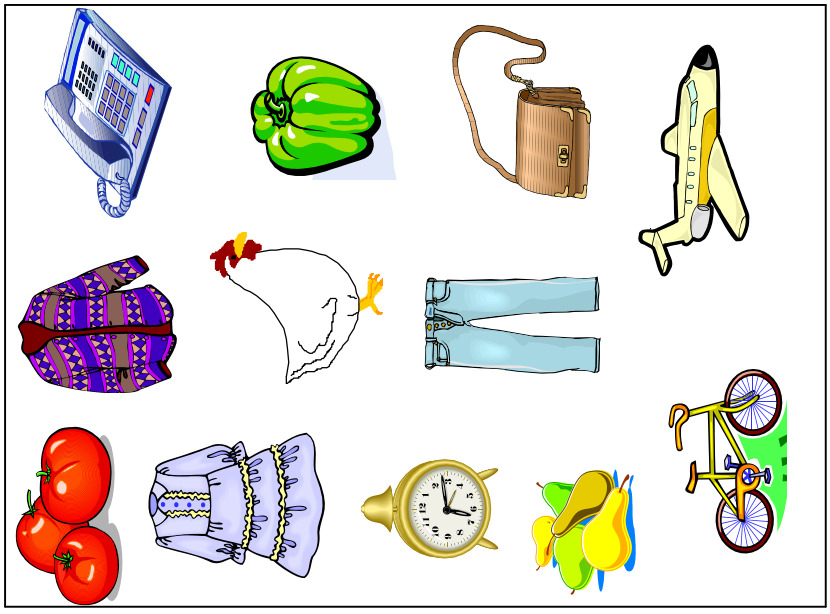
Specific vocabulary tasks – the words

Task 1 - recognition task realia	**Task 2** - recognition task (beginners level)	**Task 3** - direct recall task (beginners level)
1. een stoel (a chair)	1. de paprika (the pepper)	1. de banana (the banana)
2. een deur (a door)	2. de trui (the sweater)	2. de sokken (the socks)
3. een tafel (a table)	3. de tas (the purse)	3. de bus (the bus)
4. een pen (a pen)	4. de fiets (the bicylcle)	4. de vis (the fish)
5. een map (a folder)	5. de broek (the trousers)	5. de jas (the coat)
6. een raam (a window)	6. de tomaten (the tomatoes)	6. de televisie (the television)
7. een tas (a purse)	7. de telefoon (the telephone)	7. het overhemd (the shirt)
8. een potlood (a pencil)	8. de kip (the chicken)	8. de schoen (the shoe)
9. een boek (a book)	9. het vliegtuig (the airplane)	9. de auto (the car)
10. een lamp (a lamp)	10. de jurk (the dress)	10. de klok (the clock)

Task 4 - recognition task (advanced level)	**Task 5** - direct recall task (advanced level)
1. de vrachtauto (the truck)	1. de taart (the cake)
2. de prei (the leek)	2. de aardbeien (the strawberry)
3. de stofzuiger (the vacuum cleaner)	3. de wasmachine (the washing mashine)
4. de wortels (the carrots)	4. de bloemen (the flowers)
5. de muts (woolly hat)	5. de hoed (the hat)
6. het mes (the knife)	6. de motorfiets (the motorcycle)
7. de wanten (the mittens)	7. de sleutels (the keys)
8. de boom (the tree)	8. de handschoenen (the gloves)
9. het stoplicht (the traffic light)	9. de lepel (the spoen)
10. het koffiezet-apparaat (the coffee maker)	10. het fototoestel (the camera)

Task 3 - direct recall (beginners level)

Task 2 - recognition task (beginners level)



Task 5 - direct recall task (advanced level)

Task 4 - recognition task (advanced level)

Picture description tasks

Task 6

Picture 1

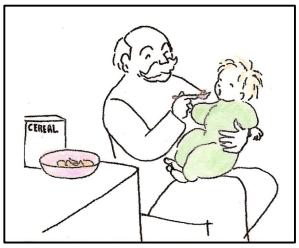
Picture 2

Picture 3

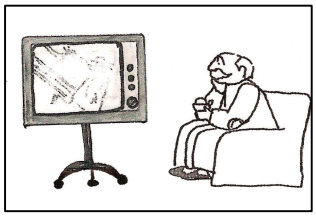
Picture 4

Task 7

Picture 1

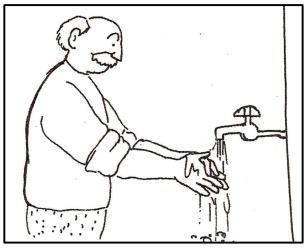


Picture 2



Picture 3

Picture 4

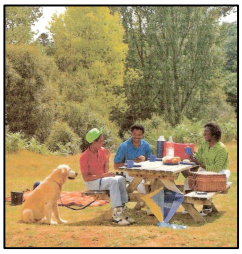


Picture 5

Picture 6

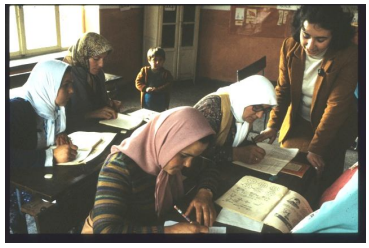
Task 8

Picture 1



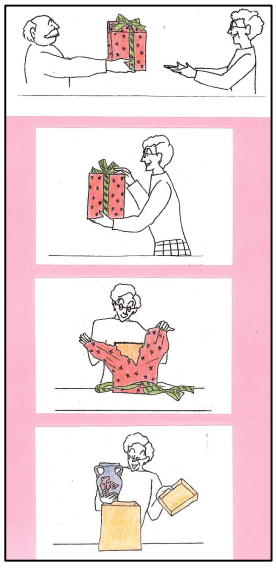
Picture 2

Picture 3

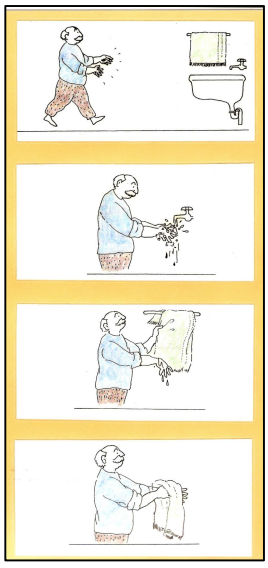


Picture 4

Task 9



Story 1



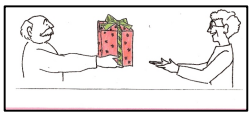
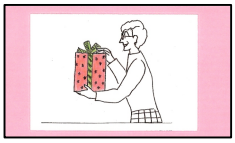
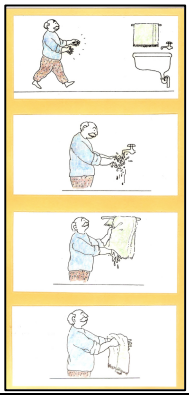
Story 2

Story 3

Appendix 2
Minimal distinctive elements

Picture description task	Task no.	Minimal distinctive elements (P= partially relevant)	
		Entities	Activities/properties
	6.1	*Man/opa* (man/granddad)	*Eten* (to eat)
	6.2	*Kind /meisje/jongen* (child/girl/boy)	*Drinken* (to drink)
	6.3	*Man* (man)	*Lopen/wandelen* (to walk/to stroll)
	6.4	*Vrouw* (woman)	*Lezen /zitten* = P (to read/sit)
	7.1	*Man/opa + jas* (man/granddad + coat)	*Pakken/halen/ophangen* (to fetch/get/hang up)
	7.2	*Man/opa + baby/kind* (man/granddad + baby/child	*Eten geven /voeden/eten* = P (to feed/to eat)
	7.3	*Man /opa + televisie* (man/granddad + television)	*Kijken* (to watch)
	7.4	*Man /opa* (man/granddad)	*Telefoneren/bellen* To telephone/to call
		Man /opa (man/granddad)	*Telefoon praten* (to talk on the telephone)
	7.5	*Man + handen* (man + hands)	*Wassen/schoonmaken* (to wash/to clean)
	7.6	*Vrouw /man + vloer/ keuken/huis* (woman/man + floor/ kitchen/house)	*Schoonmaken* (to clean)
		Vrouw /man (woman/man)	*Dweilen /moppen* (to mop)

Picture description task	Task no.	Minimal distinctive elements (P= partially relevant) Entities	Activities/properties
	8.1	*Vrouw /vrouwen + brood + markt* (Woman/women + bread + market)	*Kopen /betalen* = P (to buy/to pay)
		Man + brood + markt (man + bread + market)	*Verkopen* (to sell)
	8.2	*Familie/mensen/ man, vrouw, jongen + park/picknick/buiten* (family/people/man, woman, boy + park/picnic, uotside)	*Picknicken/eten en drinken* (to picnic/ to eat and drink)
	8.3	*Familie/papa,vader en moeder/ mama en kind + baby* (familiy/dad,father and mom, mother en child + baby)	*Kijken* (to look)
		Moeder /vrouw/mama (mother/woman/mom)	*Bevallen* (to give birth)
		Baby (baby)	*Geboren /nieuw* (born/new)
	8.4	*Vrouwen/school,klas, lokaal, les, juf, docent* (women/school, class, classroom,lesson,teacher)	*Lezen /schrijven* *(to read/write)*
		Vrouwen (Women)	*Leren/toets maken*= P (to learn/to take a test)

Picture story task	Picture no.	Minimal distinctive elements (P = partial relevance)	
		Entities	Activities/properties
	9.1a	*Man + cadeau + vrouw /voor vrouw* (man + gift + woman/for woman)	*Geven* (to give)
	9.1b	*Vrouw + cadeau* (woman + gift)	*Pakken/halen* = P/ *brengen* =P/*kijken* = P (to fetch/get/bring/look)
	9.1c	*Vrouw + cadeau* (woman + gift)	*Open maken/openen/ kijken* (to open/look)
		Vrouw + papier (woman + paper)	*Los maken/los* =P (to undue)
	9.1d	*Vrouw + vaas/kan/pot* (woman + vase/jug/jar)	*Pakken/uithalen/kijken gevonden/hebben* =P (to get/take out/look/fiind)
		Cadeau (gift)	*Vaas/kan/pot* (vase/jug/jar)
		Vaas/kan/pot (vase/jug/jar)	*Cadeau* (gift)
		Vaas/kan/pot (vase/jug/jar)	*Heel, oh mooi* enz. (oh, wow pretty etc.)
	9.2a	*Man + wastafel/kraan* (man + sink/faucet)	*Lopen/wandelen* =P (to walk/strool)
	9.2b	*Man + handen* (man + hands)	*Wassen* (to wash)
	9.2c	*Man + handdoek* (man + towel)	*Pakken/halen* = P (to fetch/get)
	9.2d	*Man + handen* (man + hands)	*Drogen/afdrogen* (to dry/wipe)

Picture story task	Picture no.	Minimal distinctive elements (P = partial relevance)	
		Entities	Activities/properties
	9.3a	*Dief/man + pistool + vrouw/naar,tegen vrouw* (thief/man + pistol + woman/to, against woman	*Richten* (aim)
		Dief/man + tas (thief/man + purse)	*Wil pakken, hebben/ wil, moet hebben, geven* (want to grab, have/want, must have, give)
		Dief /man + pistool/met pistool (thief/man + pistol/with pistol)	*Hebben* = P (to have)
	9.3b	*Dief/man + tas* (thief/man + purse)	*Pakken/stelen/hebben halen*=P, *krijgen* =P) (to get/ steel/have, fetch)
		Mevrouw + Tas (woman + purse)	*Geven* (give)
	9.3c	*Dief/man* (thief/man)	*Weg rennen/weg* = P *rennen/ver rennen* (to run away/run/away/run far away)
		Politie (police)	*Achtervolgen/komen/ rennen achter /lopen*=P (pursue/come/chaase)
	9.3d	*Politie + dief/man* (police + thief/man)	*Stoppen/pakken/vast-houden/gevonden/ Aanhouden/arresteren* (to stop/catch/find/arrest)

Dutch summary

Dit boek gaat over het leren van de mondelinge vaardigheden van het Nederlands als tweede taal door laag- en ongeletterde leerders en het onderwijzen ervan. Deze leerders (ofwel cursisten) zijn bekend geworden als de LESLLA[1] doelgroep. Deze doelgroep volgde de lessen op de afdeling Educatie van een ROC in de zogeheten alfaklassen. Ze waren oudkomers (die langer dan vijf jaar in Nederland hebben gewoond) en nieuwkomers (die kortgeleden zijn aangekomen). Wat deze groep kenmerkt, naast niet-geletterd te zijn in hun moedertaal, is hun gebrek aan schoolervaring. Voor een leerder die geen of weinig onderwijs heeft genoten en niet-geletterd is in zijn moedertaal, is het leren lezen in een nieuwe taal een uiterst moeilijke taak. Dat geldt ook voor het onderwijzen, en daarmee ook voor de docenten. De leerproblemen zijn niet te onderschatten. In dat opzicht worstelen beide partijen en vandaar de titel van dit onderzoek: 'Worstelen met de mondelinge vaardigheden: Het leren van en het onderwijzen aan laaggeletterde NT2 volwassenen'.

Voor dit onderzoek werden zes klassen op vijf verschillende ROC's geselecteerd. Die klassen werden gedurende acht maanden geobserveerd. Die observaties werden opgenomen op een MP3 apparaat. Een deel van deze opnames werd getranscribeerd voor verdere analyse. Bij aanvang en aan het slot van het onderzoek werd een aantal toetsen afgenomen bij alle cursisten om hun mondelinge vaardigheden te meten. De taaluitingen die de cursisten bij die toetsing formuleerden werden vervolgens taalkundig geanalyseerd. Hieruit kwamen duidelijke verschillen tussen de klassen naar voren. Om verklaringen te vinden voor de gevonden verschillen, werden de klassen systematisch geobserveerd. De verschillen werden vervolgens naast de observaties gelegd. Deze stappen in het onderzoek worden per hoofdstuk in detail beschreven.

1 LESLLA is het acroniem voor Low-Educated Second Language and Literacy Acquisition. LESLLA is een internationaal forum van onderzoekers die geïnteresseerd zijn in de ontwikkeling van tweedetaalvaardigheden van volwassen immigranten met weinig of geen opleiding in hun eigen land. "Het doel van LESLLA is om resultaten uit empirisch onderzoek en informatie te delen om verder onderzoek naar tweede- taalverwerving van laagopgeleide volwassenen te informeren en te sturen. Dit onderzoek kan vervolgens een bijdrage leveren aan de ontwikkeling van onderwijsbeleid in alle landen waar immigranten zich vestigen en educatieve ondersteuning nodig hebben." (www.leslla.org).

In **Hoofdstuk 1** wordt het belang van onderzoek naar het leren van de mondelinge vaardigheden besproken. Ook worden de onderzoeksvragen gepresenteerd en wordt de organisatie van het onderzoek uitgelegd. Het is duidelijk, zowel vanuit wetenschappelijk perspectief als vanaf de werkvloer, dat mondelinge vaardigheden niet alleen essentieel zijn voor het leren lezen en schrijven, maar ook voor de sociale redzaamheid. In de klas blijkt het echter niet zo eenvoudig te zijn om mondelinge vaardigheden te trainen. De uitleg en het oefenen worden in de klas in dezelfde taal uitgevoerd, met andere woorden: de doeltaal is gelijk aan de voertaal. Dit bemoeilijkt het begrip en het leren van het Nederlands als tweede taal. Verder is de klas voor veel leerders de voornaamste plaats waar zij de schriftelijke en de mondelinge vaardigheden leren, en in sommige gevallen zelfs de enige plaats. Dit maakt onderzoek naar de alledaagse praktijk van het leren en onderwijzen des te belangrijker. Deze overwegingen hebben geleid tot de eerste onderzoeksvraag, die tweeledig is.

Onderzoeksvraag 1

1a. Hoe is het onderwijs in de mondelinge vaardigheden in de alfaklas georganiseerd?

1b. Wat is de relatie tussen de organisatie van het onderwijs, leerderskenmerken en leerprestaties?

Om het leren van de alfacursist tijdens het oefenen van de mondelinge vaardigheden beter te kunnen begrijpen is het nodig onderzoek ter plekke te doen en de gang van zaken van nabij daadwerkelijk te observeren. Hierbij spelen drie overwegingen een rol. Ten eerste kan externe regelgeving rondom het onderwijs die wordt opgelegd door de landelijke overheid of door de gemeente, van invloed zijn op de organisatie in de klas. Ten tweede kunnen de leerprestaties beïnvloed worden door de organisatie van de lessen door de docent. Hierbij kan gedacht worden aan de wijze waarop de docent de mondelinge vaardigheden laat oefenen en de manier waarop de lestijd wordt ingedeeld. Ten derde moeten de leerprestaties worden vastgelegd om een relatie te kunnen leggen tussen het gebeuren in de klas en die leerprestaties. Deze overwegingen hebben geleid tot de tweede onderzoeksvraag:

Onderzoeksvraag 2

2a. Hoe is de interactie in de alfaklas gestructureerd tijdens het oefenen van de mondelinge vaardigheden?

2b. Wat is de relatie tussen de soorten interactie, leerderskenmerken en leerprestaties?

In **Hoofdstuk 2** wordt het historisch en theoretisch kader geschetst waarbinnen het onderzoek heeft plaatsgevonden. De komst van laaggeletterden en laaggeschoolden naar Nederland heeft een lange geschiedenis, die in de jaren zestig begon toen de behoefte aan extra arbeiders groot was. Hoewel er een continue instroom van buitenlanders was, heeft de overheid Nederland lange tijd niet gekenmerkt als immigratieland. Dat gebeurde pas in 1979 met het WRR rapport *Etnische Minderheden* (WRR, 1979a). Door dit nieuwe standpunt werden vanuit de overheid mogelijkheden geschapen voor onder andere taalonderwijs. Vóór die tijd waren taalcursussen veelal initiatieven van zelfstandige organisaties en vrijwilligers. Een van de eerste organisaties was het NCB, het Nederlands Centrum voor Buitenlanders, dat al in de jaren zeventig met taalcursussen begon. In de loop der jaren steeg het aantal immigranten, alsmede het aantal wettelijke beperkingen, vooral met betrekking tot het taalniveau (zie overzicht in Tabel 2.3). Desalniettemin werd er ook enorme vooruitgang geboekt op het gebied van niveaubepaling van en lesmateriaal voor de LESLLA leerder. Hierbij moet gedacht worden aan de ontwikkelingen omtrent de CEFR niveaus die in Nederland van invloed waren op het ontwikkelen van het *Raamwerk NT2* en *De Blokkendoos*, die op hun beurt de basis waren voor het *Raamwerk Alfabetisering NT2* en het *Portfolio alfabetisering NT2.* Lesmateriaal speciaal gericht op de mondelinge vaardigheden kwam pas na 2000 op de markt. De lesmethoden *Van start: Beginners mondeling programma in de alfabetisering* met aansluitend *En nu verder* en *Spreek actief!* namen een centrale plaats in.

Onderzoek naar de LESLLA leerder is beperkt. Na de oprichting van LESLLA in 2005 was er een zichtbare stijging in publicaties die betrekking hebben op de werkvloer, onderzoek of beleid (Warren & Young, 2013). Om het eigen onderzoek beter te funderen is ook onderzoek naar tweedetaalverwerving in algemenere zin geraadpleegd, vooral op het terrein van klassenobservatie (en observatieschema's), interactie en feedback. De observatieschema's die ontwikkeld zijn voor mijn onderzoek steunen grotendeels op de ontwikkelingen binnen het kader van de communicatieve competentie waaruit de COLT observatieschema's voortkwamen. Met betrekking tot interactie in de klas werd gebruik gemaakt van het IRF stramien (initiatief – respons – feedback) en dat van feedback (*trigger – feedback – uptake*) van Lyster en Ranta (1997). De pedagogische ontwikkelingen in Nederland waren ook van belang bij het organiseren van het oefenen van de mondelinge vaardigheden in de les. In Nederland was het ABCD-model van Neuner, Krüger en Grewer (1980) van grote invloed.

Hoofdstuk 3 beschrijft de procedure voor de selectie van de zes geobserveerde klassen. Deze selectie was gebaseerd op een enquête die verspreid is onder de docenten van alfabetiseringsklassen in de ROC's. Het

doel van de enquête was een beeld te krijgen van de externe eigenschappen (locatie, grootte en plaatsingscriteria) en de interne eigenschappen (onderwijsprogramma, toetsing en docentenkenmerken). Op basis van de resultaten van de enquête is een database gemaakt voor de selectie van de klassen. In deze enquête kwamen drie organisatievormen voor de mondelinge en schriftelijke vaardigheden naar voren. Deze drie typen onderscheiden zich door hun criteria met betrekking tot de plaatsing van cursisten, de organisatie van de mondelinge en schriftelijke vaardigheden in tijd, en in het lesmateriaal (zie Figuur 3.1). Omdat al deze kenmerken van belang konden zijn bij het oefenen van de mondelinge vaardigheden, werden er twee klassen van ieder type geselecteerd, verspreid over Nederland (zie Tabel 3.10). Deze drie typen zijn verder aangegeven als type 1, 2 of 3.

De zes geselecteerde klassen worden in **Hoofdstuk 4** beschreven op basis van hun omgevingsfactoren (locatie en ondersteuningsmiddelen, zoals het gebruik van computers), onderwijskundige factoren (onderwijsprogramma, plaatsingscriteria en lesmaterialen), en de specifieke samenstelling van iedere klas (leerders- en docentenkenmerken). Deze klassen worden verder aangeduid met klas 1, 2 , 3, 4, 5 of 6. Tabel 4.2 geeft een overzicht van het onderwijsprogramma, het gebruikte lesmateriaal en de uren die besteed werden aan de schriftelijke en mondelinge vaardigheden. Tabel 4.17 geeft een overzicht van de cursisten in die klassen. De klassen 1 en 2 zijn van type 1. In deze klassen werd het oefenen van de schriftelijke en mondelinge vaardigheden strikt gescheiden gehouden. Eerst werden de mondelinge vaardigheden geoefend en na de pauze de schriftelijke vaardigheden. De cursisten werden ook op basis van beide vaardigheden, mondelinge en schriftelijke, in de aparte klassen geplaatst. Beginners zaten meestal samen in de klas voor het oefenen van beide vaardigheden, maar dit kon in de loop van het traject veranderen. Als een cursist sneller of langzamer leerde, kon hij overgeplaatst worden naar een andere klas voor één van de vaardigheden. Klassen 3 en 4 waren voorbeelden van klassen van type 2. In deze klassen werden de schriftelijke en mondelinge vaardigheden ook apart geoefend, maar de cursisten bleven samen. Ze werden geplaatst op grond van hun vorderingen op het gebied van de schriftelijke of mondelinge vaardigheden. Dit veroorzaakte regelmatig niveauverschillen bij de andere vaardigheid. Klassen 5 en 6 waren klassen van type 3. Kenmerkend voor type 3 is een niet-strikte scheiding van de twee vaardigheden. De docent bepaalde per les wanneer en hoeveel tijd er aan een vaardigheid besteed werd. Klassen 5 en 6 waren ook in andere opzichten anders dan de klassen 1 tot en met 4.

De cursisten in klassen 5 en 6

- waren gemiddeld ouder (44 jaar tegenover 34 jaar in de andere klassen);
- kwamen allemaal uit Marokko;
- waren gemiddeld langer in Nederland (14 jaar tegenover 5 jaar in de andere klassen);
- waren grotendeels analfabeet in de T1, de moedertaal (95% tegenover 67% in de andere klassen).

Deze informatie over de kenmerken van de leerders is van belang om de onderzoeksvragen te kunnen beantwoorden.

Hoofdstuk 5 beschrijft de procedures voor het verzamelen van de data voor het onderzoek. Naast een beschrijving van de manier waarop de observaties in de klassen werden ingezet en van de werkwijze bij het maken van de transcripties, worden in dit hoofdstuk ook de drie schema's die gebruikt werden voor de klassenobservaties beschreven. Dit zijn observatieschema's A, B en C. Met observatieschema A werd de structuur van het onderwijs in de klas in beeld gebracht. Het schema was vooral gericht op de hoeveelheid tijd die besteed werd aan specifieke aspecten van instructie en organisatie. Vier domeinen stonden centraal. Het eerste domein had betrekking op aspecten die van belang zijn bij het oefenen van de mondelinge vaardigheden, namelijk: woordenschat, grammatica, gestuurde gesprekken (dialogen), ongestuurde gesprekken en kennis en vaardigheden die nodig zijn voor de sociale redzaamheid. Het tweede domein bestreek het aspect van de interactie: hoeveel tijd was de docent aan het woord, hoeveel tijd was er sprake van interactie tussen docent en cursist en hoeveel tijd spraken de cursisten onderling? Het derde domein ging over de hoeveelheid tijd die werd besteed aan oefeningen in klassikaal verband, groepswerk, of individueel werk. Het laatste domein had betrekking op het materiaal dat gebruikt werd tijdens een oefening: een leerboek, extra materialen, audio- of videomaterialen, of geen materiaal. Observatieschema B was gericht op de interactie tussen docent en cursist in de klas tijdens het lesgeven. Het schema volgde het stramien van de IRF, waarbij I initiatief (*initiation*) betekent (degene die de interactie aanvangt), R respons, en F feedback en evaluatie. De eerste stap werd meestal gezet door de docent en was vaak een vraag of een uitleg van een leeraspect. Vervolgens werd gekeken of deze vraag/uitleg betrekking had op betekenis of op vorm (grammatica). Als er een vraag gesteld werd, is gekeken of die vraag een oefenvraag was (waarvan de docent het antwoord al weet) of een echte vraag (waarvan de docent het antwoord niet weet) en ook of die vraag open dan wel gesloten was. De respons, het antwoord op de vraag, werd meestal geleverd door de cursist. Daarbij werd gekeken naar de lengte van de respons (1-2 woorden, 3-4

woorden of meer dan 4 woorden), het gebruik van de T1 en of de respons slechts een herhaling was van een vorige spreker (cursist of docent). Tenslotte werd de soort van de feedback (meestal van de docent) aangegeven. Feedback kan corrigerend of bevestigend zijn, of aanvullende informatie bevatten. Feedback met het doel om te corrigeren werd nauwkeuriger bekeken met behulp van observatieschema C. Dit schema volgde het stramien van de feedbackcyclus van Lyster en Ranta (1997): *trigger – feedback – uptake*. Bij iedere correctie werd er ook gekeken naar de soort fout: lag die op het vlak van uitspraak, woordenschat, grammatica of taalgebruik. Er werd gekeken naar twee soorten feedback: negatieve feedback (expliciete correctie, metalinguïstische vraag, elicitatie of recast) en betekenisonderhandeling (*negotiation*). Deze drie observatieschema's waren essentieel voor het beantwoorden van onderzoeksvraag 2 over interactie in de klas.

Hoofdstuk 6 beschrijft de mondelinge taaltoetsen: de ontwikkeling ervan en de afnameprocedure, de taken en de evaluatiecriteria van de taalproductie van de leerders. Aangezien beide onderzoeksvragen zich richten op de relatie tussen organisatie en leerprestaties enerzijds en interactie en leerprestaties anderzijds was het noodzakelijk de leerprestaties voor de mondelinge vaardigheden van de cursisten te bepalen. Aangezien er geen toets voorhanden was die de ontwikkeling van de mondelinge vaardigheden gedurende een relatief korte periode (circa acht maanden) objectief en voldoende fijnmazig in kaart zou kunnen brengen, werden nieuwe taaltoetsen ontwikkeld gebaseerd op plaatjes. De taaltoetsen bestonden uit drie delen, namelijk woordenschat, beschrijving van losse plaatjes en het navertellen van drie beeldverhalen.

(1) Specifieke woordenschat
- Taak 1: herkenningstaak (receptief) van 10 echte objecten
- Taak 2: plaatje herkenningstaak (receptief) – beginnersniveau
- Taak 3: plaatje benoemen (productief) – beginnersniveau
- Taak 4: plaatje herkenningstaak (receptief) – gevorderdenniveau
- Taak 5: plaatje benoemen (productief) – gevorderdenniveau

(2) Plaatjes beschrijven
- Taak 6: vier eenvoudige tekeningen die ieder één handeling uitbeelden
- Taak 7: zes eenvoudige tekeningen die ieder één handeling uitbeelden samen met een ander persoon of object
- Taak 8: vier gekleurde foto's van verschillende onderwerpen

(3) Beeldverhaal
- Taak 9.1: Beeldverhaal 1
- Taak 9.2: Beeldverhaal 2
- Taak 9.3: Beeldverhaal 3

De situaties op de plaatjes en in de beeldverhalen waren gevarieerd en over het algemeen bekend en dichtbij huis. De verscheidenheid aan woordenschat en de oplopende complexiteit van de plaatjes maakten het mogelijk dat zowel minder als meer taalvaardige cursisten taal konden produceren.

De verkregen taaldata werden op drie niveaus geanalyseerd: woordniveau, zinsniveau en tekstniveau. Uiteindelijk werden er elf componenten onderzocht. Op woordniveau werd gekeken naar (1) de kennis van specifieke woorden en (2) het totaal aantal gebruikte woorden voor de beschrijving van de plaatjes en het navertellen van de beeldverhalen. Voor punt (2) waren dit het totaal aantal gebruikte woorden, de *tokens*, en het totaal aantal verschillende gebruikte woorden, de *types*. Het aantal verschillende woorden, de *types*, laat de diversiteit in de woordenschat van de spreker zien. Vervolgens werd de morfosyntaxis onderzocht. Daarvoor werden twee aspecten bekeken: de vaardigheid om woorden te combineren (de syntaxis) en de vaardigheid om werkwoorden te vervoegen (morfologie). Voor de syntaxis werd er specifiek gekeken naar het aantal constituenten, de aanwezigheid van een agens of een onderwerp, en een werkwoord en naar de plaats van het werkwoord. Tenslotte werd er op tekstniveau gekeken naar de samenhang (coherentie) van een verhaal gebaseerd op een serie plaatjes en de relevantie van de woorden voor het verhaal. Figuur 6.1 geeft een overzicht van de toetsonderdelen en de componenten die geanalyseerd werden. De toetsen werden twee maal afgenomen,aan het begin en aan het eind van de observatieperiode. Voor het afnemen van de toetsen werd geen tijdslimiet gesteld, maar de duur was voor iedere cursist ongeveer gelijk, circa 15 minuten. Het verschil in prestatie tussen de twee toetsen liet de mate van vooruitgang zien. De toetsresultaten worden in Hoofdstuk 8 besproken.

In **Hoofdstuk 7** worden de resultaten met betrekking tot de observaties in de klassen gepresenteerd. Onderzoeksvraag 1a ging over de manier waarop het onderwijs in de klas georganiseerd was. De resultaten van observatieschema A geven hier een antwoord op. Onderzoeksvraag 2a ging over de manier waarop de interactie in de klas is gestructureerd tijdens het oefenen van de mondelinge vaardigheden. Observatieschema's B en C geven hier een antwoord op. Het meest opvallende resultaat dat voortkwam uit de resultaten van observatieschema A betreft 'verloren tijd' (*lost time*) en 'bestede tijd' (*engaged time*). Verloren tijd ontstaat door een les te laat te beginnen, te vroeg te beëindigen of door pauzes die te lang laten duren. Deze tijd heeft de docent grotendeels in eigen hand en het is dus zijn verantwoordelijkheid om ervoor te zorgen dat een les de tijd beslaat die ervoor gepland staat. Veel verloren tijd heeft tot gevolg dat minder tijd besteed kan worden aan leren. Tijd die aan leren besteed wordt, wordt 'bestede tijd' genoemd. Volgens Kauchak en Eggen (2012) is bestede tijd van minstens 80% een indicatie van effectief onderwijs; een bestede tijd van

minder dan 60% is een indicatie van minder effectief onderwijs. De resultaten laten zien dat er bij klassen 5 en 6 slechts tussen de 50% en 60% van de lestijd bestede tijd was. Met andere woorden, rond de helft van de lestijd wordt aan leren besteed. Klassen 1, 2, 3 en 4 lieten daarentegen scores van boven de 80% zien, een indicatie van effectief onderwijs. Klas 4 had zelfs een score van bijna 95%. Dit hoge percentage is waarschijnlijk te danken aan de inzet van CALL[2] activiteiten tijdens de lesuren. Het gebruik van CALL heeft meerdere voordelen die later besproken zullen worden. Een tweede resultaat dat uit observatieschema A naar voren kwam, was de aandacht voor kennis en vaardigheden voor sociale redzaamheid, gemiddeld tegen de 40% (zie Tabel 7.2). Dit resultaat lijkt in de rede te liggen. Kennis van de T2 samenleving is onontbeerlijk, vooral voor leerders met weinig of geen onderwijs. Voor de docenten is het moeilijk om een juiste balans te vinden tussen aandacht voor kennis en voor taal. Klas 6 had het hoogste percentage voor kennis, bijna 55%. Waarschijnlijk is dit te verklaren door de focus op inburgering en het OGO-portfolio.[3]

Observatieschema B richtte zich op de structuur van de interacties in de klas: de focus, soorten vragen, en de feedback. Het IRF stramien was in alle klassen dominant. Door het gebruik van de IRF structuur kon de docent de interactie sturen. Hij bepaalde waarop de interactie gericht was, de soort antwoorden die verwacht konden worden, en de feedback die gegeven zou worden. Klas 2 had een zeer hoge score voor IRF gebruik, namelijk 91%. Bovendien werd er in deze klas meer op betekenis dan op vorm gelet. Klas 4 daarentegen had een hoge score voor vragen over de vorm (grammatica) en gebruikte daarbij grotendeels oefenvragen.

Observatieschema C was gericht op feedback met de doel om te corrigeren. Van de 2217 geanalyseerde interacties waren er 483 met feedback gericht op correctie. Dat is slechts 21% van het totaal. Er kan verondersteld worden dat er door de cursisten nog meer fouten gemaakt werden, maar die zijn waarschijnlijk niet opgemerkt of gewoon niet gecorrigeerd. Als fouten niet gecorrigeerd worden, bestaat de kans dat de cursist aanneemt dat zijn taalproduct acceptabel is (Han, 2004). Aan de andere kant kan te veel corrigeren het gesprek verstoren en de interactie wellicht belemmeren. Dit is een dilemma waarmee de docent geconfronteerd wordt. Opmerkelijk is de sterke nadruk op feedback gericht op de grammatica. Dat is verrassend , omdat uit observatieschema A is gebleken

2 CALL staat voor Computer-Assisted Language Learning (Computer ondersteund taal leren). Dit houdt in dat er met gebruik van computerprogramma's geoefend wordt om de taalvaardigheid te vergroten.

3 Voor januari 2013 was het mogelijk om in een portfolio bewijzen te verzamelen. Het portfolio kon betrekking hebben op verschillende terreinen. OGO richtte zich op Opvoeding, Gezondheid en Onderwijs.

dat gemiddeld nog geen 10% van de lestijd aan grammatica werd besteed. Klas 4 springt er uit wat betreft deze twee aspecten. In die klas werden fouten in woordgebruik regelmatig gecorrigeerd. Bij deze en andere fouten werd veel gebruik maakt van elicitatie, een techniek om een antwoord van de cursist uit te lokken. Cursisten reageerden vaker met een correctie op feedback door elicitatie dan op andere vormen van feedback. Recasts[4] werden (en dit komt overeen met ander T2 onderzoek) het meest toegepast in de lessen, maar daarop werd de minste respons gegeven. *Negotiation* (betekenisonderhandeling en met name vragen om verduidelijking) wordt het minst toegepast door cursisten, terwijl in T2 onderzoek wordt beweerd dat betekenisonderhandeling de taalvaardigheid juist bevordert. Meestal waren het de docenten die de cursisten om opheldering vroegen. Over het algemeen waren initiatieven van cursisten in de vorm van vragen of feedback minimaal.

Tenslotte werd er ook naar het gebruik van de ABCD-model gekeken. Dit model, dat veel wordt gepropageerd in docententrainingen voor het NT2 onderwijs, werd slechts enkele malen in de lessen toegepast. In het kort zijn de stappen als volgt (Hulstijn, Stumpel, Bossers & Van Veen, 1996):

Stap A: aanbieden, uitleggen en herhalen van de leerstof (semantiseren)
Stap B: inslijpen van de leerstof (consolideren);
Stap C: gestuurde (re)productie;
Stap D: vrije productie.

Tabel 7.23 en 7.24 laten zien dat voornamelijk de stappen A en B werden toegepast. In de lessen zijn er geen voorbeelden van stap C gezien. In Klas 6 werd Stap D toegepast, maar zonder de nodige voorbereiding die in dit model essentieel is voor de uitvoering. Alleen Stap A werd in eerdere lessen van klas 6 gesignaleerd.

In **Hoofdstuk 8** worden de resultaten van de toetsen gepresenteerd op het niveau van woordenschat, morfosyntaxis en tekst. De toetsen werden twee maal afgenomen, aan het begin en aan het einde van de observatieperiode. Het verschil tussen die twee toetsen geeft de leerwinst aan. Over het algemeen bleken alle klassen vooruitgang te boeken tussen toetsafname 1 en toetsafname 2. Hoewel die winst niet groot was, was de vooruitgang wel significant.

In de analyse werd een onderscheid gemaakt in elf toetsresultaten. Om de verschillen en overeenkomsten duidelijker te kunnen identificeren werd *Principal Component Analysis* (PCA) toegepast. Hier vloeiden drie

4 Een recast is een herhaling van een grammaticaal incorrecte respons, maar zonder de fout.

algemenere competenties uit voort : lexicale competentie (kennis van specifieke woorden, de *tokens* en de *types*), syntagmatische competentie (constituenten, aanwezigheid van een werkwoord en coherentie bij een beeldverhaal) en morfosyntactische competentie (plaats van het werkwoord, aanwezigheid van een agens en vervoeging van het werkwoord). Om te kunnen vaststellen wat de leerprestaties in een bepaalde tijd waren, werden voor de twee toetsen de z-scores voor de drie competenties berekend. Het verschil tussen deze z-scores voor toets 1 en toets 2 geeft de leerwinst aan, met andere woorden: het is een indicatie van de leerprestatie. Uit deze scores die de winst aanduiden, is af te leiden of een klas vooruit is gegaan, constant is gebleven of is teruggevallen in leerprestaties gedurende een bepaalde periode. Uit deze resultaten kan een aantal conclusies over de klassen getrokken worden. Zie hiervoor tabel 8.24 en figuur 8.13. Hoewel de verschillen niet groot waren, was de vooruitgang bij de syntagmatische competentie iets hoger dan bij de twee andere competenties. Als we naar de klassen kijken, zien we dat de klassen 2 en 3 het meest vooruit zijn gegaan in lexicale competentie. Klassen 1 en 6 hebben de meeste vooruitgang geboekt in de syntagmatische competentie en de klassen 4 en 5 in de morfosyntactische competentie. Maar het meest opzienbarende resultaat is evenwel de vooruitgang van klas 4, vooral voor de morfosyntactische competentie. Die vooruitgang kan wellicht verklaard worden door de inzet van CALL activiteiten in die klas. Aan het begin van de observatieperiode kreeg de docent van klas 4 te maken met sterke niveauverschillen in de klas, een gevolg van continue instroom van nieuwe cursisten. Als oplossing voor dit probleem besloot de docent de klas in tweeën te splitsen. Terwijl een helft van de klas (onder begeleiding van een klassenassistent) woordenschatoefeningen met behulp de computer deed, oefende de andere helft van de klas de mondelinge vaardigheden met de docent. Na de pauze werd er gewisseld. Hoewel hierdoor het totaal aantal uren in de klas met 45% omlaag ging, had klas 4 toch de hoogste leerprestatie voor syntagmatische en morfosyntactische competentie. Klas 3 (waar de nadruk vooral op woordenschat was gelegd) had de hoogste leerprestatie voor lexicale competentie, maar had geen hoge scores bij de andere twee competenties. Dit laat zien dat het oefenen van de woordenschat alleen niet voldoende is voor taalverwerving. Klas 2 besteedde veel meer tijd aan grammatica en het oefenen van dialogen dan klas 4, maar de totale leerprestaties in klas 2 waren beduidend minder. Het gebruik van CALL activiteiten in klas 4 lijkt de verschillen te verklaren. De woordenschatoefeningen op de computer waren gevarieerd. Vaak werden de woorden op drie manieren gepresenteerd: visueel met een plaatje, geschreven, en vaak ook mondeling. Bovendien werd door het gebruik van een computer zelfstandig werken gestimuleerd. Daardoor moest de cursist

zelf denken en bepalen wat goed en niet goed ging bij het leren. Dit zijn allemaal elementen die taalverwerving bevorderen.

Hoofdstuk 9 beantwoordt de twee onderzoeksvragen waarvan de gegevens in de vorige hoofdstukken werden gepresenteerd. Daaruit kunnen we een aantal conclusies trekken en naar aanleiding daarvan enkele aanbevelingen doen. Voorop staat dat wij voorzichtig moeten zijn met generalisaties. Het aantal leerders en klassen was daarvoor te klein. Toch wordt hier wel een beeld geschetst van hoe het eraan toe gaat in de LESLLA klas. We zien dat het leren moeizaam verloopt en tegelijkertijd hoe ingewikkeld het is om les te geven aan deze leerders. Daarom is het van het grootste belang dat docenten goed getraind zijn voor hun taak. Niet alleen is dit van belang voor het onderwijs, maar ook voor de maatschappij waarin deze leerders moeten participeren. Wetgeving zoals de Wet Inburgering heeft de leertijd alleen maar verminderd, waardoor maatschappelijke uitsluiting van de LESLLA leerder dreigt. Mijn onderzoek heeft zowel de complexiteit van het leren als van het doceren aangetoond. Communicatie in de tweede taal is een ingewikkelde onderneming voor de leerder en voor de docent. De leerders proberen zich verstaanbaar te maken, terwijl de docenten proberen de cursisten te verstaan. Regelmatig moet de docent raden wat de cursist bedoelt te zeggen, en niet altijd met succes. Dit laat zien dat leerders en docenten zonder twijfel worstelen met de mondelinge vaardigheden.

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Curriculum vitae

Susanna Strube was born in The Hague on February 24, 1946. After some years in Indonesia, the family emigrated in 1951 to the United States. Susanna spent most of her youth in Kalamazoo, Michigan. In 1968 she received her BA in anthropology at the University of Michigan. In the summer of 1967 she participated in an Indonesian language program on an National Defense Foreign Language Fellowship at the University of Hawaii. Susanna decided to continue her study of Indonesian at the University of Leyden in the Netherlands where she also completed her BA. In the following years Susanna taught Indonesian and developed course materials for professionals and nonprofessionals. During this period, she got her MA in 1987 in Applied Linguistics at the Radboud University Nijmegen. Subsequently, she co-authored Indonesian courses for LOI (correspondence courses) and TELEAC (multimedia courses). In the intervening years Susanna married and had two children. In 1993, she started teaching Dutch as a second language to adult immigrants. During this period, she developed materials for L2 beginners (literate and non-literate adult learners) in the oral skills. Focusing on the non-literates she developed a self-evaluation test for the oral skills as part of the remedial specialist program under the auspices of the Free University of Amsterdam and Fontys Hogeschool. In 2004 she established the literacy committee within the Dutch association for teachers of Dutch as a second language and regularly contributed to the international forum LESLLA. After 12 years of teaching oral skills and literacy in adult education, Susanna was given the opportunity to do research in this same area, which culminated in the present dissertation. Susanna still lives in Leyden with her husband, enjoying retirement and their four lovely grandchildren.

Stellingen

1. Een alfaleerder heeft een competente, geschoolde docent nodig om hem bewust te maken van wat leren is en om hem de daarbij behorende cognitieve vaardigheden bij te brengen.

2. Door het ontbreken van een erkende professionele opleiding hebben ANT2-docenten, ondanks hun inzet en motivatie, te weinig inzicht in het leren en oefenen van mondelinge vaardigheden.

3. Als slechts 5% van de analfabeten binnen twee jaar het hoogste niveau in de alfabetisering haalt (Kurvers & Stockmann, 2009), dan is een verlenging met twee jaar om de inburgeringstoets te halen voor 95% van de analfabeten ontoereikend.

4. Een zwakke basis in de mondelinge vaardigheden vertraagt en bemoeilijkt het proces van leren lezen en schrijven.

5. Het leren van de mondelinge vaardigheden door niet- en laaggeletterde tweedetaalleerders zou doeltreffender verlopen als deze tweedetaalleerders op basis van hun leercompetentie ingedeeld zouden worden. We zetten ook geen VMBO- en gymnasiumleerlingen bij elkaar.

6. Een NT2-certificaat voor docenten dat is gebaseerd op een portfolio-methodiek is een ogenschijnlijk acceptabel, maar doelmatig gezien verwerpelijk excuus voor het ontbreken van een erkende (A)NT2-opleiding.

7. Een wet die migranten verplicht een bepaald taalniveau te halen verplicht ook de overheid, moreel gezien, bijpassende condities te scheppen, bijvoorbeeld in de vorm van geschoolde docenten en adequate leermiddelen.

8. Het is verkieslijker immigranten toe te laten met het vooruitzicht van betaald werk dan op grond van taalvaardigheid.

9. Ned Flanders , als bedenker van het FSIA observatieschema maar ook als buurman van Homer Simpson, wordt zwaar ondergewaardeerd.

10. Promoveren op latere leeftijd is geen mosterd na de maaltijd, maar de kers op de taart.

Propositions

1. A literacy student needs a competent, qualified teacher to make him aware of what learning is and to teach him the necessary cognitive skills.

2. Because there is no accredited professional training, DSL literacy teachers, in spite of their effort and motivation, have too little insight in the learning and practicing of the oral skills.

3. If only 5% of the literacy students attain the highest literacy level within two years (Kurvers & Stockmann, 2009), then an extension of two years to complete the civic integration program is for 95% of the literacy students insufficient.

4. Having a weak basis in the oral skills can retard or even impede the process of learning to read and write.

5. The learning of the oral skills by non- or low-literate second language learners can develop more efficiently if these learners are placed in classes on basis of their learning capabilities. After all, children with learning disabilities are usually not placed in classes with gifted children.

6. A DSL certificate for teachers that is based on a portfolio is ostensibly acceptable, but in effect a reprehensible excuse for the lack of a accredited DSL literacy training.

7. A law that prescribes immigrants to attain a certain language level also places the government under obligation, in a moral sense, to provide suitable conditions such as trained teachers and adequate learning materials.

8. It is preferable to admit immigrants on the basis of prospective employment than on the basis of language skills.

9. Ned Flanders , the creator of the FSIA observation scheme, but also the neighbor of Homer Simpson, is grossly underrated.

10. Getting ones PhD later in life is not after meal mustard, but the cherry on the cake.