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DANIELA GOMES DE ARAÚJO NÓBREGA

SPEECH AND SMILE

IN EFL CLASSROOM INTERACTION

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Tese de Doutorado apresentada ao Programa de Pós-graduação em Letras e Linguística na Universidade Federal de Alagoas, como requisito para obtenção do título de Doutor em Letras e Linguística.
Orientadora: Prof. Dra. Roseanne Rocha Tavares

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DANIELA GOMES DE ARAÚJO NÓBREGA

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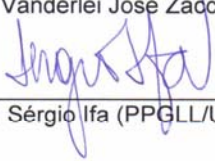
Orientadora:

Profa. Dra. Roseanne Rocha Tavares (PPGLL/UFAL)

Examinadores:

Profa. Dra. Maria Inez Matoso Silveira (PPGLL/UFAL)

Profa Dra. Mailce Borges Mota (UFSC)

Prof Dr. Vanderlei José Zacchi (UFS)

Prof. Dr. Sérgio Ifa (PPGLL/UFAL)

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this work is to analyze the relation between teacher's verbal language and the students' smile in EFL classroom interaction, at *Curso de Letras*, during activities that involve students' oral production. Theoretically anchored by Conversation Analysis (MARCUSCHI,1991; ARMENGAUD, 2006), Interactional Sociolinguistics (GUMPERZ, 1982) and by the Ethnomethodology (WARDHAUGH, 1998; COULON, 2005), this research is of qualitative and ethnographic basis. That is to say, the description and interpretation of the classroom interactional processes were derived from observations of the teacher and students' discursive practices. There were four stages of research: classroom observation, teacher interview, filmed lessons and application of students' questionnaire. Regarding the teacher, findings revealed that students' oral production tends to develop when the teacher checks out grammar exercises orally; makes questions related to the learning of vocabulary, grammar and reading activities; instigate students' comments in oral discussions; and answers the students' doubts. Under this context, the students' oral production tends to be connected with teacher's orientations. It was also revealed that it is during group and pair activities, and in individual oral corrections, that the conversation skill receives more attention; moments in which occurs the intersection between the teacher's verbal elements with students' smile. Interacting with the teacher, the students show a polite smile as a discursive strategy to avoid oral interaction. With the classmates, the students show a spontaneous smile as a discursive strategy of acceptance and understanding among them, in the oral activities. Based on all these evidences, the interaction among students by means of the spontaneous smile revealed as a fundamental interactive component in the dialogic game of facial expressions during the co-construction of meanings, in the oral tasks in the classroom.

Key- words: classroom interaction. Teacher's speech. Students' smile.

Number of words: 57.137

RESUMO

O objetivo deste trabalho é analisar a relação da linguagem verbal do professor com o sorriso dos alunos na interação de sala de aula em Língua Inglesa, de um curso de Letras, durante as atividades que envolvem a produção oral dos alunos. Teoricamente ancorada pela Análise da Conversação (MARCUSCHI, 1991; ARMENGAUD, 2006), Sociolinguística Interacional (GUMPERZ, 1982) e da Etnometodologia (WARDHAUGH, 1998; COULON, 2005), a pesquisa é de base qualitativa e de cunho etnográfico. Isto é, a descrição e interpretação dos processos interacionais em sala de aula foram obtidos a partir de observações das práticas interativas da professora e dos alunos. Foram quatro etapas de pesquisa: observação em sala de aula, entrevista com a professora, filmagem das aulas e aplicação de questionário com os alunos. No que se refere à professora, os resultados revelaram que a produtividade oral dos alunos tende a se desenvolver quando a professora checa oralmente os exercícios gramaticais; elabora questões relacionadas ao ensino e aprendizagem de vocabulário, gramática e atividades de leitura com base no livro texto; instiga os comentários dos alunos nas discussões orais; e responde as suas dúvidas. Neste contexto, a produtividade dos alunos tende a estar vinculada às orientações da professora. Foi revelado também que é durante as atividades em grupos e em pares, e nas correções individuais orais que a habilidade conversação recebe mais atenção, momentos estes em que ocorre a interseção dos elementos verbais da professora com o sorriso dos alunos. Interagindo com a professora, os alunos apresentam o sorriso educado como estratégia discursiva para evitar a interação oral. Já com os colegas, os alunos mostram o sorriso espontâneo como estratégia discursiva de aceitação e entendimento entre eles, nas atividades orais. Desta forma, a interação entre os alunos através do sorriso espontâneo mostrou ser um componente interativo fundamental no jogo dialógico das expressões faciais durante a co-construção de significados nas atividades orais em sala de aula.

Palavras - chave: Interação em sala de aula. Fala do professor. Sorriso dos alunos.

Número de palavras: 57.137

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INTRODUCTION

> Talk is usually a social activity and therefore a public activity. It involves you with others, and each time you are involved with another person you must consider him or her. You must be aware of that person's feelings about what is happening, and you have some right to require him or her to do the same for you and your feelings. (WARDHAUGH, 1985, p. 2)

As the above citation says, the main concern in this study is with talk. If we think about what normally happens between two people who are trying to elaborate a dialogue, we may imagine they co-constructing their talk. That is to say, to talk is not merely to open the mouth and spell out words. As Wardhaugh (1985) explains, talk consists of a cooperative undertaking with at least two people in which what one says and does will necessarily interfere with what another will say or does. In this game of exploring ways of negotiating meanings, the participants should be aware of each one's needs and interests. In this sense, talk is a reciprocal game of elaborating ideas, of exchanging thoughts, feelings and whatever intended messages the participants want to convey and express.

However, what would happen if we needed to motivate talk? The initial motivation of this work seeks to discuss on students' talk and their speaking difficulties during class activities. Such argument rests on my own teaching experience in observing students' oral difficulties, be with their classmates or with me, their teacher. According to my teaching experience, when students' oral production emerges it is often because they are more worried about the class content with regard to grammar and vocabulary doubts.

In my thesis dissertation, I could see that students' talk still relies on the T's talk and orientations. Although the focus of my thesis dissertation was to investigate T's teaching procedures in EFL reading classes, I could observe that the students' view about EFL reading classes and their oral participation are often based on T demands (NÓBREGA, 2002). Results showed that most teachers interviewed tended to emphasize their reading classes according to the traditional pedagogy to reading, i.e. pronunciation practice, passive reading tasks, comprehension questions that deal with literal understanding which were seen as the most frequent teaching and learning objectives.

Still focusing on students' oral difficulties, this study sets out to investigate the interactive sources in EFL classroom that might contribute to develop students' oral production, be that from T, from the students or from both. With this in mind, in order to

analyze the features of EFL classroom interaction, we should also consider what T and students do with their words and body language.

It is also in the classroom where both T and students' communicative purposes are unveiled by means of their gestures, eye contact, smile, touch or any other body movements. T and students' body language and facial expressions, as Pennycook (1985) states, might strongly express their personal feelings and intentions much more than what it is verbally expressed. As far this definition is concerned, the objective of this work is to uncover what is behind the students' smile during oral activities and when interacting with their teacher.

With this initial argument in mind, this work considers three aspects for analysis: (1) nonverbal elements in EFL classroom interaction (DANTAS, 2007; OLIVEIRA, 2007; SANTOS, 2007; SOUZA, 2007), (2) the interactive role of nonverbal elements in conversations (PENNYCOOK, 1985) and (3) the smiling expression as a fundamental interactive element in conversations (EKMAN; FRIESEN, 1969; RECTOR; TRINTA, 1993; EKMAN, 2003).

The argument I defend in this work is that the way T and students look at each other and sign their facial expressions in classroom conversations might be known as nonverbal indicatives of complementing or contradicting the exchanged messages among them, and that may favor understanding or misunderstanding of their communicative intentions in the classroom. As so, the students' smile might appear as an important interactive element with T and among students favoring the co-construction of knowledge during oral activities.

In what follows, I refer to the theoretical background that yield basis for the accomplishment of the present study.

Context of Investigation

This study is situated in the interface between Applied Linguistics (AL) and Pragmatic studies, and its relation to classroom interaction research. First of all, the present work rests on the post-modern perspective of AL as it seeks to question or bring issues of social life to language studies. Instead of centering efforts to discuss teaching problems – the main concern of the traditional research in AL – the post-modern view has attempted to understand how individuals co-construct knowledge from different socio-cultural contexts (MOITA LOPES, 1996; PENNYCOOK, 1998).

What is at stake in this new scope of AL is its interdisciplinary nature. Its tendency is to dialogue with other fields of knowledge in order to rethink the own place of theory from different theoretical views. Three fieldworks are considered in the present study: Interactional Sociolinguistics, Pragmatics and Conversation Analysis. It involves Interactional Sociolinguistics as it deals with language in use from the classroom environment. It is in the classroom that T and learners co-construct relevant knowledge by means of interacting to each other. The tone of voice T's use when giving a reprimand to students, the students' smile in group activities and T's hand movements when providing an explanation are some examples of interactive sources that are co-constructed among T and students focusing their pedagogical, learning and interpersonal objectives (MARCUSCHI, 1991; KOCH, 2006).

From the Pragmatic standpoint, this study has been concerned with context-oriented approaches to language studies. More specifically, language use has been analyzed with reference to its users' perspective and with what they do in their place of interaction. In the classroom, for example, oral interaction is bound to be a result of T and students' sayings and doings in concrete interactive situations. Be during oral tasks, reading activities, in explanation parts or in individual corrections between T and a student, classroom interaction results from T and students' joint efforts to accomplish class activities which favor effective teaching and learning.

And from the Conversation Analysis perspective, this study regards research on talk-in-interaction in the classroom setting. Conversation Analysis holds the function of unfolding the interactive mechanisms of conversations in both daily and institutional sceneries. Examples of these types of research can be found in the investigations of the turn-taking systems of law courts, doctor-patient interactions, and among friends in informal contexts of interaction. Lines of study in the Conversation Analysis area include: (a) who tends to begin and finish the turns; (b) the systematic organization of the turns (SACKS; SHEGLOFF; JEFFERSON, 1978); (c) the way(s) contextual factors influence the development of face-to-face encounters (GOFFMAN, 2002) and (d) the social roles the interlocutors tend to adopt in the course of oral interactions (MARCUSCHI, 1991; GOFFMAN, 2002; ARMENGAUD, 2006).

Although most AL studies have been examining issues related to the teaching practices that involves language as a starting point; notably considering the application of linguistic theories to the learning of languages (MOITA LOPES, 2006; PENNYCOOK,

2006), contemporary studies of AL have involved new fields of inquiry, holding new ways of research and investigation. New tendencies of research in AL in Brazil and abroad have been concerned with language problems in everyday conversations not only in educational contexts but also in any professional context. This post-modern concept of language analysis incorporates discussions that include issues of social identity, gender, social class differences, ethics, access (MOITA LOPES, 2006). Examples of this research perspective include topics as Linguistic discrimination, Forensic Linguistics, Language Politics, Linguistic Conflict, Language and the Media, Language and Genre analysis, Discourse Analysis and World Englishes (MENEZES; SILVA; GOMES, 2009).

In attempting to make things different, the current area of AL, also namely critical AL, has became interested in discussing issues of Language and Education. That is to say, to explore the way(s) the individuals' knowledge construction and their discursive practices can reveal the ideology of a certain linguistic community. For instance, knowledge produced in a private institution reveals a political and educational perspective of that from a public institution. Every institution represents its historical, political, cultural background in which the institution itself is based on. And how can this be seen and therefore studied by Applied Linguists? Examining the political base of knowledge we produce, Applied Linguists try to investigate the discursive practices of the individuals as to see the extent they resist to social differences, existent power relations or matters of racism (PENNYCOOK, 1998; MOITA LOPES, 2006)

As such, oral interaction studies have received influence of the socio-interactionist line of research providing evidence that the socio-cultural-historical aspects, implicit in the interlocutors' speech, are also present in the negotiation of meanings within the classroom setting. In some studies, researches have revealed that teachers and students' discursive practices tend to reflect the social nature of the school system (FIGUEIREDO, 2006), as well as the communicative intentions of such participants in the negotiation of their images (TAVARES, 2006).

Other studies analyzed how the teachers' discursive practices lead to the learning difficulties in terms of content and the ones with regard to interpersonal relationship among students (CONSOLO; VANI, 2006). Furthermore, it was observed that the informality encountered in the teacher-student interaction and the interest in the subject taught favor both students' oral production as well as the learning as a whole. Such classroom interaction

features might guide us for reflections upon the T's oral performance, the students' behavior and their implication for the teaching and learning of foreign languages.

In a university context, for example, Figueiredo (2005, p. 33) observed that the students seem to overvalue T's speech by reinforcing "the association between language and power in interactional events when reprimanding a spontaneous contribution and from the student's critical nature". Such T's profile, which might seem to be culturally accepted by the students, can sometimes be observed in conversational sequencings of classroom interaction. This author also noticed that when the students' answers are not accepted by T, a long explanation tends to be shown by T. Such verbal behavior may reflect an asymmetrical relation among T and students because there is little turn concession given to the students and, consequently, the T's voice reinforces the idea that it is T who controls the topic development and all turns of the interactive movements.

At college level, in the Letters Program[1], in the area of English language, this reality is not so different from high school. Students' speech production often emerges, only when the subject discussed interests them, or when there is a pleasant atmosphere among the classmates and T (FIGUEIREDO, 2006). According to findings on EFL classroom interaction, scholars have contended that both T and students' discursive practices and negotiated images seem to reflect the ideology of the school system (FIGUEIREDO, 2006) and their teaching and learning objectives (TAVARES, 2006).

With regard to nonverbal language in EFL classroom interaction studies, research has shown the prevalence of the association between what is said to what is nonverbally expressed by T. This association can be seen when T agrees with one student's answer through a smile (DANTAS, 2007), when his/her gestures reinforce, facilitate students' learning, orient students' speech or/and indicate his/her reactions in relation to some students' behavior (LORSCHER, 2003; SOUZA, 2007; SIME, 2008); or when the look and the smile both contribute to approach or to give students a reprimand (OLIVEIRA, 2007).

Inserted in the Interactional Sociolinguistics and Conversation Analysis theoretical perspectives, EFL classroom interaction research has demonstrated that T's nonverbal actions (gestures, body movements, the touch, the look, the smile) often significantly complement T's

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[1] The Letters Program at the State University of Paraiba (UEPB) consists of three areas: Portuguese, English and Spanish. In each of them, the disciplines are divided according to the Language and Literature subfields (See chapter Methodology, section: The Faculty, for more detailed information).

speech in relation to his/her pedagogical objectives. In this sense, these scholars seem to agree that T's nonverbal language holds an important interactive function in classroom discourse, when complementing, emphasizing and /or reinforcing his/her speech during class moments.

Such classroom reality has called scholars' attention to investigate T and students' words and nonverbal actions and their implications for the teaching and learning as a whole. As far T's speech and its implication for students' learning of EFL is concerned, research has found a set of pedagogical objectives which come along with T's speech. The common teachers' procedures found in their speech are: (1) in correcting and presenting information; (GARCEZ, 2006), (2) in leading questions to reading activities, in providing long explanation after a wrong student's answer; (FIGUEIREDO, 2006), (3) and in controlling what and how information should be expressed by students (FIGUEIREDO, 2005; GARCEZ, 2006).

In regard to what EFL research of classroom interaction has hitherto discussed, as previously mentioned, the next part shows the motivating aspects that guided and inspired me to carry on this work.

Statement of Purpose

The research presented in this study was initially motivated by what actually occurs in the classroom environment, more particularly at college level, with T and students of the Letters Program. What they do with their words and body movements while conversing and how classroom interaction is organized in terms of oral tasks was the crucial aspect to be analyzed. In this sense, classroom interaction has been defined as a result of all interactive elements which are at hand by T and students and to what extent they make use of them to accomplish the EFL teaching and learning processes.

As the focus of the study was regarded on classroom talk, i.e. what instigates students' talk, this work is inserted in Pragmatics studies (LEVINSON, 1983; MEY, 2001) and has as theoretical analytical trends the fields of Interactional Sociolinguistics (GUMPERZ, 1982) and Conversation Analysis (MARCUSCHI, 1991; GOFFMAN, 2002; ARMENGAUD, 2006; KEBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006). Following a qualitative research method of an ethnographic nature, the description and interpretation of the classroom interactional processes stemmed from observations of the T and students' interactive practices during oral tasks.

Initially, this work attempted to focus on T's nonverbal behavior, more specifically her smile, and its contribution to students' oral production. As T analyzed did not allow her image to appear in this study by the end of the second semester of research (2008.2), and the students' smile was a very recurrent and significant nonverbal sign that emerged during classroom interactions, I decided to focus on the interplay of T's verbal signs (discourse markers) and the students' smile at interactive moments in which the pedagogical objective was on students' oral production.

All in all, this study sets out to investigate the interplay between T's verbal element (i.e. discourse markers) and students' nonverbal element (i.e. the smile) and their relation to the students' oral production at the Letters Program, at UEPB (State University of Paraiba), English Language area, Campina Grande, Paraiba.

Research Questions

The present study pursued the following research questions:

1. How does classroom interaction among the participants contribute to EFL students' oral production?
2. In which interactive moments of the class does the teacher give emphasis to students' oral interaction?
3. Which class occasions do verbal and nonverbal elements interact in the promotion of students' oral production?
4. Which interactive sources does the teacher use to motivate the students' oral production and what is their pedagogical implication?
5. Which interactive sources do the students' use to produce orally in English language and what is their learning implication?

Relevance of the study

This research study differs from previous ones in that its objective is to investigate the interplay of T's speech with the students' smile in an EFL classroom context, at the Letters Program in a public university, designed to form future teachers of English for secondary level and language schools. I hope, therefore, that this research may serve as a future reference for research on EFL classroom interaction that favors reflection upon the interplay of T's speech and students' smiling expression, and its implications in the learning of a

foreign language, particularly in oral tasks. Some questions helped me develop a line of research to discuss how such interplay in EFL classroom interaction contributes to increasing the amount of the students' oral language. They are: Which specific linguistic items does T use to motivate students' speech production in oral tasks? How does T's speech interact with the students' smile? And what are the learning implications, derived from this interplay, in relation to the development of the students' oral production?

Organization of Thesis

This work comprises six chapters in addition to the Introduction. Chapter 1, entitled Language in Use and Its Areas of interest, discusses the three theoretical approaches which served to frame this work: Pragmatics, Interactional Sociolinguistics and Conversation Analysis. Chapter 2, Interaction, is designed to define and explain the features of the phenomena Interaction. Chapter 3 seeks to discuss what EFL classroom research has been investigating in relation to issues of interaction studies. Chapter 4 is devoted to the methodological steps by presenting the participants involved, the instruments, the data collection and procedures that were used in this study. Chapter 5 presents and discusses the results of research. And finally, Chapter 6 concludes this investigation by answering the research questions, presenting the final remarks, limitations of research and the pedagogical implications.

1   LANGUAGE IN USE AND ITS AREAS OF STUDY

Inserted within the context of interactional studies of language in use, this study holds the function of unfolding the interactive processes that teacher (T) and students manage and negotiate during classroom interaction. More specifically, the present work discusses how the interplay of T's verbal behavior and students' smiling expression in oral activities can contribute for the development of students' oral production. Because this work deals with talk-in interaction in the classroom setting, the following topics were taken into account: the Pragmatics view of language, involving the issues anchored by the Interactional Sociolinguistics studies (IS) and the use of an analytical method of research, the Conversation Analysis (CA).

Following a pragmatic perspective of language, the present study seeks to describe and interpret class events and activities from the participants' viewpoint, considering their social context of use (LEVINSON, 1983; MEY, 2001). With this concept in mind, language in use can only be analyzable in the light of the interlocutors' perception of their own words, actions and reality during any interactive event. In the case of classroom interaction – the focus of our attention – analysis is based on what T and students do with their words and actions in their teaching-learning environment. What pedagogical and learning purposes are to be fulfilled, and how T and students' discursive practices will lead towards an effective classroom interaction – these are the driving questions on how T and students make sense in classroom conversations.

This study also draws attention to the Interactional Sociolinguistics (IS). Because IS deals with the social organization of spoken discourse (GUMPERZ, 1982), it seeks to examine how the linguistic and non-linguistic language elements can sign specific social and cultural patterns of human behavior. In this sense, this work analyzes to what extent T and students' verbal and nonverbal language can sign their socio-cultural behavior, values and expectations during classroom interaction. Under the IS standpoint, the use of verbal and nonverbal elements of language in classroom interaction is cultural and socially shaped. Their use is not unintentionally. On the contrary, by investigating for what pedagogical and learning purposes T and students manage and negotiate their verbal and nonverbal elements, it is possible to infer what cultural and social meanings they inform during their talk-in-interactions, or how all these interactive elements can contribute to the development of the students' oral production.

The present work uses, as an analytical method of research, the Conversation Analysis (CA) (MARCUSCHI, 1991; ARMENGAUD, 2006; KERBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006). Theoretically connected with the premises yielded by IS and Pragmatics, CA is a fieldwork that describes the interlocutors' productive and interpretive processes in face-to-face encounters. For this field of inquiry, classroom interaction is the result of T and students' joining efforts to negotiate their verbal and nonverbal language elements in order to accomplish specific teaching and learning objectives. With this argument in mind, this study attempts to investigate how classroom spoken activities are performed by T and students, and which social and cultural relevance they want to inform with their words and smiling expressions, particularly the students', in oral activities.

Therefore, seeing to the purpose of the present work, this chapter is divided into three parts: (1) a brief overview on Linguistics studies; (2) a discussion on Pragmatics studies; (3) on Interactional studies (4) and on Conversation Analysis. The review of the literature herein presented tries to cover the three already mentioned theoretical approaches that are considered important to frame this work.

1.1   A Brief Historical overview on Linguistics studies

Linguistics, as a science, began to be studied in the middle of the 19th century as to distinguish it from the Traditional Grammar and Philology studies. Launched by the Greeks, language studies began to focus on the Traditional Grammar, based largely on Logics and leaving aside the scientific view of language. Languages, in general, were examined in relation to Latin and scholars aimed to formulate rules whose focus was to distinguish the correct from the incorrect forms of language usage. Because of this concept, Linguistcs has been considered a normative discipline (SAUSSURE, 1916; WEEDWOOD, 2002). Later on, there came the study of Philology, which referred to the history of languages, involving the analysis of literary texts as part of the cultural and political research of specific communities (CRYSTAL, 1997; WEEDWOOD, 2002; MENEZES; SILVA; GOMES, 2009).

At the beginning of the 20th century, language study began to move towards a Pragmatic approach to Linguistics, i.e. a context- oriented approach to language studies. Its core aspect was the study of meaning by taking into account the language user (LEVINSON, 1983; MEY, 2001). To make things different from what the Traditional Grammar and Philology have emphasized, Pragmatics attempts to open up a societal window for studying

language use, i.e. language can only be analyzed in the light of contextual information, including cultural and social issues of language surrounding its realization. It has been, therefore, recognized as Social Pragmatics. In this sense, "pragmatics is intimately connected with the relationship between linguistics as a 'pure science' and the practice of linguistics as applied to what people use their language for" (MEY, 2001, p.289). That is to say, the orienting feature of pragmatic research became the users' point of view positioned in their own societal context.

The paramount aspect of the Pragmatic approach to language is represented by its interest in the social and cultural issues of language, and how these contribute to language behavior among individuals. As a result, Pragmatics seeks to understand the way(s) social and cultural conditions are constructed amid social interactions. Such is the case of linguistic repression, which has captured the attention of scholars, and is here represented by the language of the media and medical interviews. As to the institutionalized discourse, medical interviews often provide evidences that "the value of the individual's linguistic expression is measured strictly by the place he or she has in the institution" (MEY, 2001, p. 301). Language study has begun to account for the set of conditions (cultural, social and political) involving language use. As Mey (2001, p. 302) points out, "we can only become language users through the social use of language". In this sense, Pragmatics appears to be more akin to Sociolinguistics than to the Linguistic study of language.

Linguistics, indeed, began to be recognized as a science through the use of an investigative methodological approach. By that time, it was within the Linguistic area that language studies received a scientific treatment by linguists, particularly by Saussure (WEEDWOOD, 2002). Influenced by the behaviorism concept of language and the linguistic structuralism, language was studied with emphasis on its grammatical description, disregarding the individuals from their historical, cultural, political and ideological aspects (PENNYCOOK, 1998; MOITA LOPES, 2006; RAJAGOPALAN, 2006). The emphasis on cognition left out the socio-cultural aspects involved in the learning process. Applied linguistics, on such basis, would be treated as the praxis of the linguistic theory, and, consequently, the result of the theory-practice dichotomy.

In the 70's, anchored by the structural thought of language studies, Applied Linguistics (AL) was recognized as a discipline, and its objectives were related to the application of the linguistic theories in educational settings. Language studies were merely

connected to educational matters, and research would focus those classroom aspects that could help develop more effective teaching methods (MOITA LOPES, 1996; PENNYCOOK, 1998). Devoted mainly to the study of foreign language, it has been the purpose of AL to analyze the learning/teaching setting in order to find 'answers or solutions' to problems that teachers usually meet in a classroom context (MOITA LOPES, 2006; MENEZES; SILVA; GOMES, 2009). As Crystal (1997, p. 23-24) puts it, " The most well-developed branch of applied linguistics is the teaching and learning of foreign languages, and sometimes the term is used as if this were the only field involved". The teaching material, grammar teaching and the teacher's teaching strategies were some of the common objects of investigation.

From mid-80s onwards, a newly emerging applied linguistics has been used to explore language studies within a more 'critical' perspective. Among other scholars interested in critical literacy, Pennycook (2006) proposes a critical analysis to language. What he meant by 'critical' was the relation of language studies to broader social, cultural and political dimensions. As he explains, this alternative version of doing applied linguistics relates language to questions of social issues; thus it can only contribute to research if it is socially relevant. According to Pennycook (2006a, p. 797), what is at stake is not the relation of language issues to their specific contexts of use but "to use such an analysis as part of social critique and transformation". Instead of describing, systematically, the language features based solely on linguistic theories, critical applied linguistics has started out by "problematizing" issues of social life to language studies (MOITA LOPES, 2006).

This new way of doing applied linguistics defines language as a form of social action. This idea is anchored by some new branches of language studies, such as Pragmatics, which regards language studies as references of its users (LEVINSON, 1983). In this sense, language is seen as a social co-oriented and co-constructed activity. It is co-oriented when we see that words and attitudes, i.e. the users' actions, become the motivation and response to what is (re)said in interactions. In other words, to start a conversation means to be open to a social event in which mutual expectations are to be (re)constructed by its interlocutors. What is more, this is co-constructed as what is to be developed in a conversation depends not solely on the part of the speaker's interests but also on the interlocutor's. That is why we say that the co-construction of negotiation relies on the sharing of common interests among the participants in relation to specific communicative ends (KOCH, 2006).

For example, in a conversation between a mother and her 5 year-old daughter about the girl's birthday party, there might be many topics that seems to be in constant (re)negotiation. While the mother may want to organize a small party, her daughter may want to have a big party. To decide on the most appropriate type of party, the mother can provide turns to her daughter to express herself. And also the mother may encourage her daughter to listen to her suggestions. This mother-daughter interaction can illustrate how face-to-face interactions tend to rely on each other's efforts to co-construct the dialogue. In this example, the daughter is learning how to internalize proper conversational strategies through her mother's help, which becomes fundamental for a successful conversational activity.

It is to understand what individuals do with words in interactions, and what social, relevant purposes these words refer to, that critical linguists study conversations – and the language used – as a form of social activity (MARCUSCHI, 1991). It is through and with language that individuals produce, preserve and (re)create their communicative intentions under specific contextual conditions to achieve specific communicative ends. In attempting to understand the dynamic processes of producing language in multiple contexts, Pennycook (1998, p. 46) remarks the following:

> We need to rethink what we want to say when we refer to language, investigating specific circumstances that took us to our current concept and to see how, by adopting a concept of discourse as a set of signs and practices that organize the existence and social (re)production, we can conceive language as paramount either to keep or change the way we live and comprehend the world and ourselves.[2]

This position of assuming a questioning attitude in relation to social problems (MOITA LOPES, 2006) has broaden the scope of AL to dialogue with different voices of knowledge from areas such as: Psychology, Sociology, Anthropology, Education, Ethnography of communication, and Discourse analysis. The contribution of other fields of knowledge has placed AL as a hybrid model of voices (MOTA LOPES, 2006); and in this sense, it has been characterized as an interdisciplinary field of inquiry (PENNYCOOK, 1985). This method of doing research has embraced a set of areas through which language becomes a means for analysis in a range of fieldworks such as: Linguistic discrimination, Language

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[2] (my translation from the Portuguese version) "Precisamos repensar o que queremos dizer quando nos referimos à linguagem, investigar as circunstâncias específicas que nos levaram aos nossos conceitos atuais e ver como, ao adotar uma concepção de discurso como um conjunto de sinais e práticas que organizam a existência e a (re)produção sociais, podemos conceber a linguagem como fundamental tanto para manter quanto para mudar a maneira como vivemos e compreendemos o mundo e nós mesmos" PENNYCOOK, A. A lingüística aplicada dos anos 90: em defesa de uma abordagem crítica. In: SIGNORINI, I.; CAVALCANTI, M. (Org.). *Lingüística aplicada e transdisciplinaridade*: questões e perspectivas. Campinas: Mercado das Letras, 1998. p.46.

politics, Language variation, Language acquisition, Forensic Linguistic, Discourse Analysis, Language and Genre analysis, Conversation analysis, Error analysis, Language and the media and Sign language (MENEZES; SILVA; GOMES, 2009).

Because it offers an array of hybrid possibilities , Critical Applied Linguistics (CAL) has began to question matters "such as identity, sexuality, access, ethics, disparity, difference, desire, or the reproduction of Otherness that have hitherto not been considered as concerns related to applied linguistics" (PENNYCOOK, 2006, p. 803-804). For this reason, the contemporary applied linguistics opens up debates on the integral formation of individuals, going beyond the classroom setting and including a wide range of questions such as: linguistic politics for the foreign languages, political meanings of learning foreign languages, cultural concerns for learning languages, social changing, critical awareness, etc. These changes in doing AL research have inspired the development of Pragmatic studies (LEVINSON, 1983; MEY, 2001), cultural studies, Etnographic research, and Interactional sociolinguistics (GUMPERZ, 1982).

In Brazil, the AL fieldwork has been expanded through the creation of several lines of research, post-graduate programs in Federal universities or areas of research (MENEZES; SILVA; GOMES, 2009). One of the pioneers was the institution PUC-SP, which created the Post-graduate program in Applied Linguistics and Language studies (LAEL) in 1970, and a doctoral program in 1980. Another important institution, UNICAMP, launched a periodical entitled *Trabalhos em Linguística Aplicada,* which, along with PUC-SP, has motivated scholars to produce and disseminate other areas of linguistic research. In 1990, the – International Association of Applied Linguistics was created. AILA's main goal is to spread out works that discuss aspects of linguistic and communicative competences of the individuals, and of everyday problems related to language and communication.

On the basis of these institutions and periodicals' perspectives, CAL became a field of inquiry that originated from observations of language in use in real world problems. As such, the AL research areas include First and Second Language Acquisition, Language Disorders, Linguistic Variation, Multi-linguism, Bilingualism, Linguistic Conflict, Linguistic Politics, Linguistic Planning, Linguistic Discrimination, Discourse Analysis, Translation Studies and Interpretation, World Englishes, Language and Genre Analysis, Language and Law, Lexicography, Conversation Analysis, Language, Thought and Culture and Forensic Linguistics.

Regarding Pragmatic Linguistics and its interface with CAL the present work refers to two pragmatic analytical trends: Interactional Sociolinguistics (IS) and Conversational Analysis (CA). First, it follows Pragmatics studies and the new concept of AL as it deals with a study on context-oriented language in use. Second, it involves IS work, since it views language studies according to the interlocutors' social-historical-cultural perceptions of their social reality. Finally, this study refers to the CA field of inquiry as it attempts to describe and explain how T and students co-construct the appropriate knowledge, i.e. their social and cultural meanings, by examining their words and nonverbal actions during classroom interaction (MARCUSCHI, 1991; ARMENGAUD, 2006; KERBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006).

Based on the pragmatic principles of language and on the theoretical trends previously mentioned – Conversation Analysis and Interactional Sociolinguistics – this study attempts to delineate "the procedures and expectations actually employed by participants in producing and understanding conversation" (LEVINSON, 1983, p. 319) in the teaching and learning environment. Different from daily conversations, language in use in institutional contexts tends to be more task-oriented (DREW; HERITAGE, 1992). Both T and students' conversational procedures should be analyzed in the light of what they expect from classroom conversations. Their perception of how classroom conversation should develop and which conversational strategies they should adopt have served as a theoretical base of research to discuss which pedagogical and learning intents they tend to inform through their discursive practices.

For the purpose of this study, I have investigated how T's discourse markers interact with the students' smile during oral activities with a focus on students' oral production. That is to say, I have examined which interactive sources are most commonly managed and (re)negotiated by T and students in order to promote the students' speech production.

1.2 Pragmatics

The pragmatic approach to linguistics goes back to the beginning of the 20th century with Charles Morris' (1938) theory of Semiotics (LEVINSON, 1983; MEY, 2001; TAVARES, 2006). Within the field of Semiotics, Morris regards Syntax, Semantics and Pragmatics as the three branches of inquiry. As Morris (1938, p. 6 apud LEVINSON ,1983, p. 1) points out:

[…] **syntactic** (or **syntax**), being the study of the "formal relation of signs to one another", **semantics**, the study of "the relations of signs to the objects to which the signs area applicable" (their designata), and **pragmatics**, the study of "the relation of signs to interpreters.

This initial definition of Pragmatics has been hitherto criticized by linguists and applied linguists. Some believe that Pragmatics comprises Semantics or that Semantics is part of Pragmatics. Nevertheless, according to Morris (1938 apud LEVINSON, 2007), both fields of inquiry deal with the study of meanings, but in different perspectives. From a semantic perspective, language study based on sentence level and linguistic description has to be syntax-oriented so as to secure its validity. This follows a more structural concept of language. Pragmatics, in turn, is concerned with language study from the speaker-meaning level within a social context. For this field of inquiry, both *context* and *language user* (or the interlocutors) are fundamental terms for a fully understanding of meanings. The difference between Pragmatics and Semantics lies in the shift from the theory to the paradigm of the language user. The language user determined by societal conditions starts out to be the center of interest over a pragmatic approach to language studies.

Levinson (1983) attempts to furnish a more plausible definition of the term Pragmatics; though he critizes its complexity, which is due to some theoretical drawbacks regarding Semantics, Sociolinguistics, Psycholinguistics, and other interdisciplinary areas. The difficulty in defining Pragmatics is reflected on its relation between language structure and language user. The difference between them rests on the principles they adopt: sentence level analysis, linguistic analysis from a functional perspective, notion of appropriateness according to specific contexts, language user's performance and aspects of discourse structure, deixis, implicatures, speech acts and presupposition. Pragmatics, in fact, encompasses everything that characterizes people as language users in their social contexts. That is why Pragmatics is more akin to Sociolinguistics than Semantics (LEVINSON, 1983; MEY, 2001). Pragmatics does not leave Semantics apart, but it tries to provide a context-oriented approach to complement the contribution that Semantics makes to the study of meaning.

The most appropriate definition of Pragmatics comprises a context-oriented approach to language study regarding the individuals' history, culture and ideology in their social context. Understanding human language behavior, and understanding how people make sense through their dialogues, are premises of Pragmatic studies. As stated by Levinson (1983, p.

24), "Pragmatics is the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with the contexts in which they would be appropriate". A pragmatic account of language use not only encompasses the social meanings of the linguistic structure from specific social events (BLOM; GUMPERZ, 2002) but also takes into account all contextual factors that concerns time, setting, social position, social class, adequate language level and power relations, and their contributions to the (co)construction of a communicative event (LEVINSON, 1983; MEY, 2001).

Present AL research tendencies have been increasingly oriented towards a more defined sociolinguistic perspective under pragmatic competence. In language teaching, for example, there are three questions that are frequently examined:

> what opportunities are offered in language classrooms for developing a second language (L2) Pragmatics ability; what pragmatic abilities may be develop in a classroom setting without a knowledge of pragmatics; and what effects various approaches to instruction may have on Pragmatics development (ROSE; KASPER, 2001, p.4).

Classroom research often includes the understanding of what T and students usually do with their words, i.e. how they verbally and nonverbally behave to achieve the teaching and learning goals, and how they (co)construct relevant knowledge through their communicative acts. Issues that deal with conversational management, signaling attention, turn-taking systems, response tokens, presupposition, and conversational implicatures are some instances of the research on conversational analysis.

The Pragmatics trends, Conversational Analysis and Interactional Sociolinguistics, deal with the study of the social organization of the spoken discourse. The tendencies have been oriented with regard to the social nature of the spoken discourse in social interactions in different workplaces. Daily conversations, job interviews, doctor-patient consultations, classroom discourse are the most common data to pragmatic analysis of face-to-face interactions (ROSE; KASPER, 2001; RIBEIRO; GARCEZ, 2002).

Studies of social interactions in institutional settings have been conducted towards a conversation-analytical approach. As so, it is based on some varied institutional contexts on which the data is constructed and, hence, made analyzable to describe "[…] how persons conduct their affairs in institutional contexts" (DREW; HERITAGE, 1992, p. 5). The objective of institutional interactional studies is to unfold the way the goal-oriented tasks, i.e.

the institutional talks, are performed by their participants, and the relevance they inform with their words and actions. Issues about the organization of talk, the sequence organization, turn-taking system, overall structural organization, social relations construct in formal or informal institutional settings have been treated as the most common approaches to the analysis of institutional interaction.

Pragmatics studies which revolve around conversation-analytical approach have been stimulated within the current AL research that deals with social interactional studies. Conversationalists have shown that language usage, appropriate speech behavior and definitions of interactional events vary from context to context, and from culture to culture. What counts as social interactions is not necessarily what is happening at the very moment of conversation. Conversely, the contextual elements, which are culturally and ideologically shaped, help the interlocutors to define and assume their roles in interactions, and define their interactions through the interchanging of words and actions (GUMPERZ, 1982; DREW; HERITAGE, 1992; MONTGOMERY, 1998).

1.3   Interactional Sociolinguistics

Another area upon which I have based my research is the Interactional Sociolinguistics (IS). This is a field of inquiry that investigates the social organization of discourse from both sociological and linguistic viewpoint. Linguistically, IS describes the structural organization of the spoken discourse through the analysis of topic development and turn-takings systems. From the sociological standpoint, this comprises issues of language, culture and society in social interactions studies. In other words, IS analyzes how individuals construct their social identities, and perceive themselves and others as social actors, through their language in use in an array of conversational encounters (GUMPERZ, 1982; RIBEIRO; GARCEZ, 2002).

With this concept in mind, Blom and Gumperz (2002) gave priority to the study of social meanings in language production. In describing the verbal behavior of a Norwegian community (Hemnesberget), they found out that it is the social event that determines whether the dialect or the standard language should be chosen in conversations. Also, the linguistic varieties in the vocal system, pronunciation, consonants, phonology and morphology can reflect social and cultural specific meanings. On one hand, the dialect can be observed in informal settings where spontaneous conversations are expected, such as in houses and in some public places. The dialect use in a Norwegian community can be related to expressing

local values. On the other hand, the standard language was often present in formal social events such as religious events and public announcements.

Based on non-structured ethnographic observations, Blom and Gumperz's research revealed that the meanings of interlocutors' actions and expressions are not related only to the words pronounced by the interlocutors. The prosodic signs, the scenery, the background knowledge sharing (WARDHAUGH, 1985), the sequential organizational of sentences, the turn-takings arrangement and the appropriate signaling of contextualization cues (GUMPERZ, 1982) are taken as some of sociolinguistic elements used to signal different social and cultural meanings in interactional engagements, as it can be observed in the authors' research.

Within this line of research, the interlocutors are regarded as active co-constructors of social encounters (MARCUSCHI, 1991; TAVARES, 2007). According to these authors, the individuals are constantly in a cooperative game of sharing and negotiating cultural and social meanings in interactive encounters (WARDHAUGH, 1985; MARCUSCHI, 1991; BLOM; GUMPERZ, 2002). Every one of them bears a personal life history full of expectations and experiences. For this reason, interaction becomes the result of language and knowledge co-construction among interlocutors whose role is to produce, maintain and develop these interactions. The language used, the socio-cultural meanings shared, the expectations, values and perceptions negotiated, the communicative and pragmatic shared knowledge, and the contextual information, for example, can be accounted as conditioning factors for the interlocutors' discursive practices in conversations (GUMPERZ, 1982; WARDHAUGH, 1985; KRAMSCH, 2001; TAVARES, 2006, 2007).

1.3.1 Origin and Objectives

Located in the intersection in between the fields of Linguistics, Anthropology and Sociology, Interactional Sociolinguistics (IS) emerged from Gumperz' works (GUMPERZ, 1982; GORDON, 2010). With emphasis on linguistic and cultural diversity in everyday conversations, Gumperz (1982) investigated issues of intercultural communication in order to understand how individuals co-construct and maintain relationships, exercise power relations, project and negotiate social identities, as well as create communities.

As a linguistic approach, IS seeks to analyze both structural and functional aspects of language inserted, as it is, into a wider concept of interaction. Since IS grounds its work the fields of inquiries of Conversation Analyzes (ARMENGAUD, 2006; KOCH, 2006; KERBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006) and Pragmatics (LEVINSON, 1983; MEY, 2001), its core objective is to investigate the role of language in social interactions. In this sense, IS attempts to discuss, for example, the causes of miscommunication and the strategies the interlocutors tend to adopt for improving communication among them.

The most relevant study under the linguistic approach was Gumperz's analysis of contextualization cues (GUMPERZ, 1982; LEVINSON, 1997). The objective of this was to investigate how interlocutors signal, co-construct and interpret meanings in social interactions. These signaling mechanisms were defined by Gumperz as contextualization cues. Using his own words, contextualization cues "[…] are the means by which speakers signal and listeners interpret what the activity is, how semantic content is to be understood and how each sentence relates to what precedes or follows" (GUMPERZ, 1982, p.131). According to Gumperz, it is through these signaling mechanisms that can be of a prosodic, linguistic or paralinguistic nature that the interlocutors are capable of recognizing and interpreting the meaning of what they say in conversation.

As an anthropological approach, IS seeks to unveil cultural issues among the interlocutors in the analysis of everyday conversations. In this sense, IS highlights the intersection of language and culture in social interactions. With this perspective in mind, IS discusses which cultural meanings the interlocutors attribute to their actions and words while they are involved in face-to-face encounters. One of the aspects that deserve attention within this perspective is the study of intercultural communication and conflict, which are often based on cultural differences (GUMPERZ, 1982; GORDON, 2010).

As a sociological approach to discourse, IS highlights the relation between language and society, i.e. it investigates how individuals use language to achieve their social objectives as well as to create and negotiate their social identities in interactions (GUMPERZ, 1982; GORDON, 2010). Its major theoretical contribution was Garfinkel's study. According to this author, the interlocutors construct their social reality and identities through their utterances and actions in everyday conversation. The individuals' socio-cultural knowledge – which comes from their collection of cultural experiences – tends to mould their social identities and values they attribute to conversations. Summing up, IS discusses the way(s) the interlocutors

co-construct and negotiate their social positions, roles and identities in conversational encounters, be that from private or public affairs, as it is shown in Tannen's works (GORDON, 2010).

From a qualitative and ethnographic source, IS investigates daily conversations that take place in natural settings. It relies basically on what happens at the very moment of a particular language in use situation. For this reason, its method of analysis attempts to uncover the inferential processes of conversations by means of an array of instruments: audio or video-recorded data, interviews, questionnaire applications and linguistic transcriptions of recorded conversations. This method of collecting relevant data for analysis follows the same criterion employed in the Conversation Analysis field of inquiry, which will be presented in the next part of this work.

1.4   Conversation Analysis

Conversation Analysis (CA) is a field of inquiry that belongs to the study of language in use in real-life settings. This is a discursive approach whose aim is to describe and interpret the interlocutors' conversational practices from multiple contexts and cultures (ARMENGAUD, 2006; KOCH, 2006; KERBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006; LEVINSON, 1983; TAVARES, 2007). The CA approach unfolds the conversational rules that sustain the mechanisms of conversational exchanges between at least two interlocutors. Aspects such as conversational implicatures, presuppositions, the turn-taking systems organization and the use of discursive markers in spoken discourse are some of the discourse features which can be ascertained by use of CA.

As CA involves research in face-to-face interactions, it seeks to describe and comprehend all strategic communicative procedures the interlocutors adopt in the (co)construction of knowledge in conversations. Thus, the aspects CA investigates can be divided into two categories: the formal aspects of conversations and the content-oriented mechanisms of conversations (MARSHALL, 1998; MEY, 2001).

The formal aspects of conversation revolve around the initial empirical research with Sacks and Jefferson in the 70's. The conversational structures descriptions can be seen in the investigations of greetings (Irvine, 1974), meetings (SALMOND, 1974 apud SACKS; SCHEGLOFF; JEFFERSON, 1978) and the turn-takings systems (SACKS; SCHEGLOFF;

JEFFERSON, 1978). Issues concerned with the set of practices through which a conversation is organized (turn-taking organization), how turns are allocated among the interlocutors (turn allocation component), the ordering of speech actions (sequence organization), the study of responsive pairs (adjacency pairs), the way interlocutors deal with problems in conversations (repair) and the ways the different social actions are conducted are some examples of the form-oriented mechanisms of face-to-face interactions (SACKS; SCHEGLOFF; JEFFERSON,1978; LEVINSON, 1983; MEY, 2001).

Within a content-oriented mechanism, CA analyzes the coherence and cohesion development of conversations. While cohesion, which is the way words formally hang together in sentences and the like, "[…] coherence captures the content-based connections between the words that make them produce sense" (MEY, 2001, p.153). Since conversations are the result of some dynamic and strategic processes that interlocutors handle for knowledge (co)construction, cohesion refers to the syntactic items responsible for the internal coherence of texts (reference, deitics, concord, pronouns). Coherence, in turn, refers to the way we express ourselves meaningfully in any conversational management; it has to do with the global meaning of texts (MEY, 2001).

CA data come from conversational encounters in their natural settings: both from institutional (hospitals, universities, law courts) and daily conversations. The analysis is often done through tape-recording and/or video-recording in order to report and transcribe patterns of conversations to detect the systematic rules that enable communication to proceed (LEVINSON, 1983; MEY, 2001; KERBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006). The procedure is inductive. Observation is primarily based on the participants' discursive practices of their social acts. The researcher/observer is not supposed to interfere with the participants'practices at all. Social meanings are derived from the interlocutors' descriptions and from the perceptions of their actions within their social uiniverse (LEVINSON, 1983; GARFINKEL, 1984; MEY, 2001; COULON, 2005; KERBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006). At a final stage, transcriptions of speech acts are used to see *in loco* how the interlocutors manage the conversational mechanisms to achieve their specific communicative intentions.

Conversational Analysis, then, asserts that "conversation is not a structural product in the same way that a sentence is – it is rather the outcome of the interaction of two or more independent, goal-oriented individuals, with often divergent interests" (LEVINSON, 1983, p. 294). Therefore, for the conversationalists, interaction is a social and co-constructive activity

where the interlocutors are mutually negotiating the production and interpretation of meanings. It is, as Marcuschi (1991) points out, a collaborative communicative exchange among the interlocutors. That is why, the CA takes into account the roles and social positions the interlocutors adopt in conversations so that it can give an account of how they sustain, control, (re)create and develop an interactional encounter based on their social reality of communication. The next section of this work, discusses the origin of CA research and the shift from the structural to a more sociological perspective of analysis.

1.4.1 Origin and Objectives

From a qualitative and interpretative viewpoint, CA started out in the 60's having its origin in the Ethnomethodology principles. This method emerged from the need to understand both daily and institutional discursive practices in a variety of contexts and cultures. Its relevance came out to interpret human behavior in the light of Social Anthropology whose aim was to investigate the social meanings of the daily activities in a specific social organization (LEVINSON, 1983; MEY, 2001).

The method is qualitative since it focuses on the description of reality from the individual's perspective. The principles that conduct the ethnographic research, in other words, the technique managed, observe the following: a) the setting and the people who live in that place, b) the people and group's behavior standing before that specific context, c) and how the social aspects of context might interfere in the interlocutors' ways of speaking. That is, the term 'etnomethodology' revolves around "the study of ethnic methods" (LEVINSON, p 374, 1983) by describing the production and interpretation of social interactions.

It was, then, by the mid 1970s that CA, as practiced by Sacks, Shegloff and Jefferson (1978) began to follow an empirical approach. There was no concern with the ongoing process of interaction, but with revealing the systematic properties of the sequential organization of conversations, i.e. the mechanics of face-to-face encounters. Language in use was studied from two perspectives. On one hand, the content perspective attempted to examine the topic of conversations, involving topic changes and topic organization. In terms of form, language was analyzed in turn sequences and in adjacency pairs. Initial research relied on the analysis of greeting – greeting, offer-acceptance and apology-minimization (LEVINSON, 1983; TAVARES, 2007).

The ordering of moves within the organization of turn-taking systems was the starting point in this strand of analysis. Sacks, Shegloff and Jefferson (1978, p. 40) reports two types of speech exchange systems, called local management system and interactionally managed system, to explain that there are two basic turn-taking organization of conversation. The local management system deals with "the single transitions at a time". Under this system only two participants interact with each other, allowing the turn order and the turn size to vary. The turn-taking system of this sort functions when one talks at a time, and the 'next turn' passes from one person to another. This is the case of interviews, seminars and classroom interaction. One has a time to speak. The interactionally system, on the contrary, occurs when more than two participants has the right to decide what to talk about, when to talk, i.e. it is not party-administered. Daily conversations are the most recurrent example of this sort of turn-taking system.

Parallel to these researches, Erving Goffman gave one piece of advice to all researches concerned with conversation analysis in 1964 – linguists, sociologists, anthropologists and sociolinguists – concerning one aspect that has been neglected: " the social situation built in face-to-face communication"[3] (GOFFMAN, 2002, p.13). Goffman asserted that in any interactional encounter it is the social factors and values that individuals attribute to them that define their linguistic behavior. Following this new strand of research, it does not mean that the structural part should be avoided.

Language structure, i.e. the linguistic aspect of language, is part of the whole process of analysis which contributes to the understanding of how the social rules are appropriately adequate to the conversational strategies employed by the interlocutors. Moreover, speech and its properties should be seen as functional acts, i.e. oral production also involves body movement, the gestures, intonation and the affective expressions we make while conversing. For example, at a meeting in a restaurant with our family; the environment provides more than the mere comfortable atmosphere among us. It also guides the ways we communicate with each other, including verbal and nonverbal elements of language employed in that specific situation. (GOFFMAN, 2002).

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[3] From the Portuguese version of the text: "a situação social engendrada na comunicação face a face" GOFFMAN, E. A Situação negligenciada. In: RIBEIRO, B. T.; GRACEZ, P. M. (Org.). *Sociolingüística interacional*. 2. ed. São Paulo: Loyola, 2002. p.13.

Within this new perspective of discursive analysis, CA attempts to comprehend the ways the social rules, values, beliefs and positions the interlocutors attribute to them in conversations (GOFFMAN, 2002). Goffman defines them as contextual factors present in face-to-face interactions. According to Goffman, these factors are not the only ones responsible for interaction development; interlocutors are also in charge of contextual changes that might occur in conversations. The interlocutors can establish, in the course of a conversation, which social roles they should adopt according to their communicative intentions. This time, issues of power relation, genre differences, the role of presuppositions, conversational implicatures, social attitudes of speech, the role of discursive markers in institutional talk, for example, are regarded relevant to the area of Conversation Analysis.

It can, therefore, be said that CA nowadays attempts to describe the structural organization of conversations revealing the contextual information that conducts the verbal and nonverbal interlocutors' choices and their effects towards others in conversational encounters (ARMENGAUD, 2006). What someone says and does reflects not only on his/her communicative intention but also provides inferential clues, or as Gumperz (1982) says, contextualization cues, so that the interlocutor can comprehend and interact accordingly. When such harmony fails to happen, the interaction does not flow and miscommunication emerges.

The theories, herein discussed, have yielded valuable basis for the observation, description and interpretation of all interpretive processes which were investigated in this study. Focused on the Applied Linguistics area, this work discusses about the way(s) both verbal and nonverbal aspects of language in use can contribute to students' oral production in an EFL classroom setting. The present work is also related to Pragmatics, as it involves conversational approach from a specific context of language in use. That is, this approach was related to the context of EFL classroom interaction.

The present work also involves both Conversation Analysis and Interactional Sociolinguistics trends, as it seeks to describe and interpret which conversational strategies T and students tend to adopt when encouraging the students' speech production during EFL classroom interactions.

For the purposes of this study, the language in use theories discussed in this chapter have positively contributed to: (1) understand what students intend to express during the

classroom activities through their smile; (2) in what way(s) this students' nonverbal behavior provide basis for their oral production; (3) and, in interacting with students, how T's speech influences the development of students' oral production. In the following chapter, a discussion on the phenomenon 'Interaction' and its features will be presented.

2   INTERACTION

It is the purpose of this chapter to discuss the Interaction phenomenon by presenting its features and explaining how interaction can be investigated within nonverbal communication. Finally, contextual information regarding the description of the participants, the context and the dimensions of context are highlighted.

2.1   Defining Interaction

A lot of what we say and do meaningfully serves a communicative purpose: to express a wish, apologize, ask for help, give advice, tell a joke, etc. To understand and to comprehend what goes on in conversations has been the matrix of information exchange in a given interactive event. This game of saying and having a response, which can be changed whenever possible according to what is going on in conversational encounters, is named interaction.

Seen from a more traditional research view, interaction happens when there is a sender and a receiver (CRYSTAL, 1997). It, thus, refers to the transmission and reception of information between a sender and a receiver through a signaling system (the language) in which the response to a message becomes of crucial importance. That is, in any transmission of information the message received must be the same as the message sent. If not, it means that a failure in communication has occurred. This very static notion that calls for the existence of a source, an emissor and a receiver make us conceive interaction as a linear phenomenon,whereby the participants already hold a pre-existent social role, being not possible to change their social roles in the course of interaction.

The need to clear out the non-existence of this linear way of interaction has possibly come from the failure of previous empirical research sources. In Phonetics, it was believed that individual sound elements and Semantics specifications was not enough to account for the stable language habits of specific populations. Later on, the contrast between *langue* and *parole* through empirical observations at the level of sound and meaning relation could not explain particular utterances in different social contexts, since Saussurian's principles of structural analysis was based on phonological and morphological data and it was free from context symbolic categories (GUMPERZ, 1982).

In terms of language syntax analysis, the task itself was to test hypotheses derived from theoretical basis. Furthermore, linguistic analysis was based on the connection of grammatical sentences uttered by the interlocutors. Chomsky was the first linguistic who proposed to outline a consistent theory of human linguistic ability with little attention given to aspects of language. Moreover, Chomsky believed that grammatical knowledge was part of the individual cognitive ability, and that could have a significant role in human interaction (GUMPERZ, 1982).

In general terms, structural analysis has yielded enough empirical evidence to ascertain that human cognition was historically and culturally affected. Besides, interacting is not a matter of raw experience alone, but a predisposition to perceive and assimilate what surrounds us. Sapir, for example, investigated the context of language, culture and cognition to assert that meaning is seen as "cultural and subconsciously patterned" in the human mind (GUMPERZ, 1982, p. 14).

The shift to the sociointeractionist research in language studies has been receiving the attention of different fields of knowledge. Because of the influence of Social Anthropology and Philosophy, Pragmatic studies are concerned with language use and its relation with users under specific contexts. That is, for Pragmatics as well as for Interactional Sociolinguistics, interaction comprises the linguistic and non-linguistic choices the interlocutors make in social interaction and the effects of such choices on others. As so, the aspects, such as contextual information (GOFFMAN, 2002), used in grammar structure, the conversational implicatures, inferences and presuppositions (LEVINSON, 1983), conversational and social rules, the external and internal varieties of context (KRAMSCH, 2001), principles of cooperation (GRICE, 1975), age, sex, gender, social class, setting, time and space, and linguistic competence (KERBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006) are some of the elements that constitute social interaction.

To speak of social interaction is to speak of conversation; the most common type of activity in interaction. Conversation can be defined as a social activity whereby the participants exchange words, ideas, express their feelings, all based on a certain contextual support. Grounded on Pragmatics and the Interactional Sociolinguistic's theories, Wardhaugh (1985) discusses the structure of conversation, describing what occurs when people talk and why they say specific things under certain circumstances. Wardhaugh (1985); Marcuschi (1991) and Koch (2006) defines conversation as a cooperative undertaking. Under this 'game'

of idea exchanging, the interlocutors talk to achieve objectives and, therefore, they need to be conscious of what and how things are to be said. They must also be aware of who is speaking to whom, under what contextual circumstances, and which social roles they are to play in such interactive encounter.

Being described as a natural and spontaneous acting, Wardhaugh's (1985, (apud WARDHAUGH, 1985) definition of conversation also relies on the Austin's theory of Speech Acts which conceives conversation as a social, dynamic activity constantly co-constructed by its users. The author asserts that conversation can be seen as a natural acting; a performance. The interlocutors, regarded as actors of this ongoing interactional event, are (re)creating, negotiating and maintaining the discursive topic using a variety of interactive sources available to provide a social harmony between/among them. In a restaurant asking for a meal, in a post-office sending a letter, in a theatre buying a ticket, for example, we tend to act out to achieve our communicative intentions. We do things with words. As so, all interactive sources which we manage will be crucial to furnish any conversational event. Such conversational event refers to any social activity that encompasses the participants acting out their roles, words, sensations and attitudes while co-constructing knowledge to one another. As Wardhaugh (1985, p. 40) points out "Each conversation, therefore, is a scene – or a succession of scenes – constructed in the very playing by actors who create their roles as they play them". The speaker's attitude, tone of voice, gestures, hand movements, eye contact, the choice of grammatical structure and words, all of these elements come along with what we intend to say and for the purposes we desire to achieve (WARDHAUGH, 1985; GOFFMAN, 2002).

One of the main features of any interactional event relies on the interlocutors' use of discourse strategies (GUMPERZ, 1982). Many are the signals managed in the course of conversations – the code, dialect, style switching, prosody, lexical and syntactic options, formulaic expressions, conversational openings and closings, sequencing strategies, phonetic and rhythmic signs. As Gumperz (1982) explains, discourse strategies are the verbal and nonverbal elements interlocutors manage during the production and interpretation of messages. Although these elements can carry information individually, they are part of interactive processes. That is why their meanings are implicit and are, therefore, revealed through contextualization cues (see definition in section 2.2).

Another characteristic in this process of information exchange and meaning construction is the signaling and interpretation of meanings during social interactions through the interplay of verbal and nonverbal language elements in conversations. According to Pennycook (1985), whatever the objective of communication may be, we express ourselves more with actions than with words. The author asserts that while we speak, our body movements are also conveying information; i.e. the linguistic segments we use in speech might be in accordance with the body movements we make. For example, the use of head movements, the eye contact and gestures in the classroom might indicate a teacher's reprimand or satisfaction, as some researches on classroom actions have revealed (SANTOS, 2007).

Embarking in any conversational encounter is to enter a game where all interactive sources, both verbal and nonverbal, have to be managed in an adequate and intelligible way. Content, interlocutors, channel (the medium), form, destination, the pragmatic aspect (purpose), discourse strategies (what strategies the interlocutors make use of in order to accomplish interaction), the interlocutors' social role, contextual information, body movements, prosody, and any other social and pragmatic aspects are fundamental features to be taken into account both in the production and the reception of the making-process called interaction. In the following part of this chapter, I will discuss the term interaction and its features grounded on the Interactional Sociolinguistic (GUMPERZ, 1982; GOFFMAN, 2002) and Pragmatic theories (LEVINSON, 1983; ARMENGAUD, 2006, KERBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006).

2.2 Interaction Features

Brown (2001, p. 165) postulates that "interaction is the heart of communication". By interacting, we (re)create, interpret and negotiate meanings in specific contexts, and help another interlocutor to accomplish certain communicative purposes. Using Brown's, (2001, p. 165) own words:

> Interaction is the collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings, or ideas between two or more people, resulting in a reciprocal effect on each other. Theories of communicative competence emphasize the importance of interaction as human beings use language in various contexts to negotiate meaning, or simply stated, to get an idea out of one's person's head and into the head of another person and vice versa.

One of the characteristics of interaction is its cooperative capabilities. As the word itself says, to cooperate means "to work or act together for a shared purpose" (LONGMAN…, 1992). That is, to interact one needs a set of actions and reactions which are shared by the participants involved in a conversational encounter aiming at some successful communicative ends. In social interactions in which conversation is the most common type of activity, interaction is a social action whereby the participants involved are constantly (re)building their exchange of ideas and meanings based on a set of social conventions and roles shared by them.

Consequently, the interlocutors must be aware of what is to be said, the manner to say it, who speaks to whom, and the social roles adopted under certain circumstances to achieve the communicative intention (GUMPERZ, 1982; LEVINSON, 1983; WARDHAUGH, 1985; MARCUSCHI, 1991; GOFFMAN, 2002; ARMENGAUD, 2006). In this dialogic game, the interlocutors' intentions, their attitudes to one another, their verbal and nonverbal choices during conversations and the way they produce and interpret their communicative intentions; all of these make a conversational episode flow naturally (TAVARES, 2004, 2007).

In social interaction studies, according to Grice (1975), human communication is ruled by the Principle of Cooperation (GRICE, 1975; LEVINSON, 1983). Grice contends that the interlocutors make use of conversational strategies to arrive at common agreement in an interactional encounter, following the maxims cited below:

The co-operative principle

make your contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged

The maxim of Quality

try to make your contribution one that is true, specifically;

(i)   do not say what you believe to be false
(ii)   do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence

The maxim of Quantity

(i)   make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purposes of the exchange
(ii)   do not make your contribution more informative than is required

The maxim of Relevance

make your contributions relevant

The maxim of Manner

be perspicuous, and specifically:

(i)   Avoid obscurity
(ii)   Avoid ambiguity
(iii)   Be brief
(iv)   Be orderly

(LEVINSON, 1983, p. 101-102)

When one of these maxims is broken by one of the interlocutors – whether intentionally or not – we have what is termed "conversational implicature". Ironies, insinuations, double sense sentences, and metaphors are some examples of these conversational implicatures or indirect speech of acts (LEVINSON, 1983; ARMENGAUD, 2006). This happens when one of the participants says one thing but intends to say another. For example, let us imagine that a naughty child does not listen to his mother at lunch time, and mess up the table with food. Instead of saying that his act was reproachable, the mother says: "What a nice work you've done". The mother used an indirect speech act. Probably what she meant was just the opposite because of the contextual support: the mess, her tone of voice and her eye contact.

Another characteristic of any social interaction is the interlocutors' shared social behavior. Such behavior, which leads to harmony in the course of interaction, tends to establish a shared agreement of conversational principles, social roles and rules, beliefs and adequate social procedures to be managed in the course of conversations.

In Wardhaugh's words (1985, p. 19):

> Since most participants in a conversation usually do share a certain amount of background knowledge about 'proper' behavior and the 'right' way to do things, much of what they say can be understood if we, too, are familiar with the knowledge they share.

Such adequate actions take place once the interlocutors share available knowledge between or among them in order to (re)construct the message. This normative or expected behavior is what Wardhaugh (1985) and Gumperz (1982) name common-sense knowledge. This is also defined by Kramsch (2001) as internal context of utterances.

The social sharing knowledge, or common-sense knowledge (WARDHAUGH, 1985), has to do with the background knowledge the interlocutors have on the normal sequenciality of social procedures in conversations which is cultural-loaded, varying from group to group. What is said and done in conversation should coincide with what they see as familiar to them. Their descriptions and accounts, their reference to the time and place of a story, what they know and believe others to know are part of the background repertoire stored in their minds, and which imparts harmony to conversations. Wardhaugh (1985, p. 19) points out:

> A participant in a conversation must believe that he or she has access to the same set of reference points that all the other participants have access to; all he or she needs do in conversing is use those points for orientation, and listeners will comprehend.

Repetition, asking for clarification and paraphrasing are some of the conversational strategies used to achieve such harmony or, according to Wardhaugh (1985), the cooperative behavior in conversations.

Apart from the common-sense knowledge, Gumperz (1982, p. 131) also believes that the way(s) the interlocutors imply, mean or suggest can be uncovered through contextualization cues. In his words:

> That is, constellations of surface features of messages form are the means by which speakers signal and interpret what the activity is, how semantic content is to be understood and how each sentence relates to what precedes or follows.

The signaling of contextual inferences or presuppositions can be revealed by the verbal and nonverbal elements such as: formulaic expressions, the closing and openings sentences, the referents, the deitics, such as the pronouns, the style, the code and prosodic elements respectively. Although these cues carry information individually, they are part of the interpretive processes of conversations. That is why their meanings are made implicit and cannot be understood out of context. Therefore, they are named contextualization cues.

Contextualization cues are the signaling mechanisms, be those verbal or nonverbal, which allow the interlocutors to make appropriate inferences in conversations (GUMPERZ, 1982). They can be categorized as prosodic (intonation, stress, pitch register) or paralinguistic cues (hesitation, laugh, smile, silence, pause). It is through the contextualization cues that the interlocutors are able to predict what comes next in the conversation, and how an utterance

should be interpreted. Depending on the context that surrounds its use, a smiling expression can indicate satisfaction or disagreement in view of what has been said.

These "active developing elements", as categorized by Gumperz (1982, p. 135), do not determine meaning but constraints interpretations by channeling inferences to foreground certain aspects of background knowledge. As the signaling mechanisms are implicit and context-dependent, differences in interpretations mirror variations of socio-cultural base. For example, "[...] directness is often itself a matter of socio-cultural convention". When a husband says to his wife "I want to post this letter", this can probably infer that he is asking where the post office is. In saying that the coffee has a marvelous smell, he is probably asking for a cup of coffee. In these examples, someone is actually communicating but not literally saying everything. It will be the hearer's perception of voice tone, eye contact and the gestures made while conversing that define the message as a demand of information or a request.

The breakdown in the cooperative principle of conversation can be revealed when, for example, some contextualization cues yield basis for miscommunication and lead to misjudgments of the speakers' intent (GUMPERZ, 1982). Thus, miscommunication and cross-cultural differences, for example, can be seen in the use of prosody and paralinguistic clues, and can lead to the disruption of conversational rhythm and thematic progression. As Gumperz (1982, p.150) claims,

> Miscommunication caused by contextualization conventions reflects phenomena that are typically sociolinguistic, in the sense that their interpretive weight is much greater than their linguistic import as measured by the usual techniques of contrastive grammar.

Considering that paralinguistic features are non-linguistic signs of language which accompany verbal signs in an interactive encounter, they are cultural and context bounded for interpretations. Paralanguage, according to Canale (apud PENNYCOOK, 1985), is part of grammatical and sociolinguistic competence as it includes appropriateness of non-verbal signs use of language. This means that the context of a situation delineates what and how something is expressed by interlocutors; in the same way that the shared cultural knowledge among the participants contribute to miscommunications in conversations. Behaving appropriately in ceremonies, for example, is also the subject of sociolinguistic. Greetings, gifts to be sent, facial expressions revealing joy and pleasure depend on the type of culture the participants

belong to; and it also requires the proper linguistic behavior. What features the paralanguage includes and what are their functions in conversation – these will be the topics of the following part of this work.

2.3   Nonverbal Communication in Social Interactions

Considering that interaction implies the exchange of words, feelings and emotions of any sort among the interlocutors who are constantly (re)creating and (re)negotiating their social roles and attitudes, nonverbal behavior also plays a fundamental role in the process of human communication (PENNYCOOK, 1985; MARCUSCHI, 1991; SANTOS, 2007). As part of human communication, nonverbal acts determine the extent to what the individual's personal emotions and attitudes can interfere meaningfully in the process of face-to-face interaction. Nonverbal actions such as hand gestures in conversations, eye contact in informal conversations and facial expressions denoting happiness, sadness or frustration may indicate to what degree people are socially closer or farther away from one another; however, these can also determine what social roles should the participants play in a given conversational encounter.

Nonverbal signs and their respective interactive meanings in conversations are often contextually and socially – oriented (GOFFMAN, 2002; GUMPERZ, 2002). They represent the specific interactional events shared by the participants who will adopt the adequate social behavior, including the use of appropriate nonverbal signs (WARDHAUGH, 1985). The use of hand gestures by EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers when explaining the use of deitic pronouns such as 'this' and 'that' can illustrate the functional meanings of hand movements in grammar lessons. Based on recent classroom interaction research on nonverbal signs a supportive meaningful function to the teachers' oral discourse may be provided.

Some of the functional meanings that T's nonverbal actions include in classroom interactions are: (1) to keep students' attention; (2) to guide the students' comprehension; (3) to facilitate the learning processes; (4) to give emphasis on specific explanations; (5) to promote a relaxed learning environment, and (6) to reinforce an explanation (LORSCHER, 2003; ACIOLI, 2007; DANTAS, 2007; OLIVEIRA, 2007; SANTOS, 2007; SOUZA, 2007; SIME, 2008).

Nonverbal signs include: (1) the paralanguage, such as prosody (sounds used by its interlocutors); (2) kinesics, i.e. gestures, body movements, facial expressions, eye contact and smile); (3) proxemics, i.e. the distance among the interlocutors; (4) the tacsenics, i.e. touch in interaction and (5) silence, i.e. lack of linguistic elements and constructions in interactions (PENNYCOOK, 1985; SANTOS, 2007).

The importance of paralinguistic features in face-to-face interactions can also be found in Goffman's works. According to Goffman (GOFFMAN, 2002, p. 19) [4], "many of the speech properties will have to be seen as alternatives to extra linguistic acts, or to its functional equivalents" Goffman states that "The neglected situation" is the relevance of functional gestures in oral interactions. Gestures, for example, not only favor the state of speech but also maintain and control what is said in an interactional encounter. These functional gestures are considered as extra linguistic features that is part of the whole process of oral communication.

Based on Goffman's assumptions, the social rules and the meanings the interlocutors attribute to them guide the linguistic and non-linguistic expressions of our speech. For example, the eye contact between the interlocutors in accordance with the social behavior they share in a formal context might interfere in the type of message they exchange and the levels of importance they give to the interactional event. In a formal context, in which the superior – inferior hierarchy is usually present, the eye contact might influence certain social rules and behavioral patterns giving rise to the event. That is why it should be asserted that speech production and reception are both socially organized.

According to Pennycook (1985), these features are coordinated along with the speech, as they tend to provide contextual clues to the ongoing task of interpreting what the interlocutor has said. In spoken discourse, the paralinguistic features refer to the nonverbal way people attempt to convey meanings and feelings through supra-segmental features of speech. The study includes variations of voice tones, intonation, and stress, i.e. all melodic and rhythmic patterns of speech sound which can signal attitude, social positions or other language-specific meanings (CRYSTAL, 1997; GUMPERZ, 1982).

Within the nonverbal communication, the prosody provides semantic information about the way(s) speakers convey their feelings and meanings through oral language. Being

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[4] From the Brazilian version: "(…) muitas das propriedades da fala terão de ser vistas como alternativas a atos extralingüísticos, ou equivalentes funcionais deles (...)" GOFFMAN, E. A situação negligenciada. In: RIBEIRO, B. T.; GRACEZ, P. M. (Org.). *Sociolingüística interacional*. 2. ed. São Paulo: Loyola, 2002. p.19.

context-dependent, prosodic elements such as intonation, accent, loudness, stress, vowel length, voice tone and speech register reproduce either the emotional or the state of the speakers' utterances. What conversationalists tend to analyze when studying prosody in conversations (GUMPERZ, 1982) is what most characterizes the speaker's irony, sarcasm, command or any other communicative intention through the suprasegmental features of speech. Therefore, the conversational interpretations emerge as the interlocutor establishes coherent and cohesive connections on the selected utterances used with both the theme and the nonverbal features of speech.

The prosodic elements mean nothing in isolation; they are context-dependent as to signal meaningful information in any interactional participation. As Gumperz (1982, p. 110) said, "Nucleus or accent placement refers to the signaling of prosodic prominence within an information unit". For example, the strongest and highest melodic pattern of voice expressed by a mother when interacting with her daughter at home might indicate that she wants to complain to her daughter of a wrong behavior. Also, the accent placement within a sentence construction can reinforce such meaning at this interactive moment. By imparting a strong accent, as in "DO NOT MESS this table, girl!" in the first information unit, and by using severe eye contact, the mother gives emphasis to her complaint. .In this case, the prosody and the eye contact complement the mother's communicative intention.

One of the paralinguistic elements – kinesics to be exact – deals with the study of body movements and gestures that take place during the spoken discourse. The kinesics analysis involves facial expressions, particularly eye movements, body posture, smile and gestures, which pose functional and social values to the overall act of communication (RECTOR; TRINTA, 1993). Based on the initial principles of Birdwhistell's works, its principal premise is that its analysis is culture-specific. According to Pennycook (1985, p. 262) "[…] for most other forms of nonverbal communication, the expressive meaning differs greatly across cultures". Brazilian and English people, for example, employ different kinesics movements to greetings. While Brazilians tend to kiss each other and shake hands spontaneously with friends or work colleagues, the English tend to assume a more discrete behavior, shaking hands and giving a social smile. Therefore, based on Birdwhistell and La Barre's findings, the use of nonverbal signs in conversations is closely related to the social conventions and meanings the interlocutors attribute to them. This normal sequentiality of social procedures disclosed by

kinesics movements also reflects the common practical knowledge shared by the interlocutors in face-to-face interactions (WARDHAUGH, 1985).

However, in his attempt to prove the Darwin's ideas about the universality of emotions, Ekman (2003) investigated several facial expressions revealing emotions across cultures. At first, Ekman (2003, p. 3) believed that facial expressions were socially learned and culture-specific. However, as he went on researching facial expressions from emotions, he found out that Darwin's arguments "[…] That expressions were innate and therefore universal", and could be applied to investigations upon which anger and surprise are analyzable. According to his research on facial expressions of familiar emotions, such as happiness, anger, sadness, anger and disgust, Ekman initially attested for the universality of emotions based on the premise that these expressions can be recognized by different people belonging to different cultures in the world.

However, there were some emotions which Ekman (2003) defined as culture-oriented. Relying on the argument that it is the context of a situation that defines the meaning of emotions, Ekman (2003, p. 4) compared the emotions, fear and disgust, from two different cultures. The author filmed American and Japanese emotional expressions "in response to seeing films of surgery and accidents". Ekman concluded that the universality of facial expressions of emotions will primarily depend on the situation surrounding them. The emotional expressions of an American or a Japanese individual when alone were similar. However, when they had a scientist watching those films, their facial behavior changed considerably. The Japanese tended to mask negative expressions with a smile while Americans did not. Although his findings have come under the criticism of social anthropologists, Ekman (2003) still asserts for the universality of emotions through facial expressions.

Part of the pragmatics has to do with the language user (BROWN, 2001); and so the kinesics movements can establish a set of significant social meanings in oral interactions. They can reveal the interlocutors' social position, establish who domains who in the turn-taking systems, define the interlocutors' social behavior, attitudes, feelings, intentions and reveal the level of intimacy among interlocutors. In an EFL classroom context, for example, T's facial expressions found in the spoken discourse might contribute to the overall co-construction of knowledge, and can establish different power relations with the students.

Oliveira (2007) investigated the T's facial expressions in a science classroom setting to see how they are linked to the meaning construction among teacher-students. Oliveira asserts that dominance, power and control can affect the visual patterns even in a classroom context. According to Oliveira, depending on the class situation, T can control the classroom by means of eye-contact. Through eye contact, T can criticize the students' utterances or give orders, establishing power dominance, taking control over the students who are not paying attention or who are not doing their homework properly.

Apart from expressive eye contact, the present research has demonstrated that the smile, as an expressive instrument to establish relationships between T and students, is another crucial element of investigation. The smile could be observed at moments when the T's satisfactions are expressed. On the other hand, when it seems convenient, T can provide a forced smile. Oliveira (2007) summed up that both eye contact and smile can contribute to a meaningful co-construction in the classroom between T and students. These two types of paralinguistic features, when used by T, might bring up some significant facial expressions that can manifest positive or negative attitudes towards students' verbal and nonverbal behavior, depending on the pedagogical intention.

All these nonverbal elements explained here have proven to be meaningful, functional complements of overall human communication. Surrounded by contextual information, which can either reinforce or contradict the verbal exchanges among interlocutors, the nonverbal elements have called the attention of scientists on account of their influence over the production and interpretation of social interactions as a whole. In order to clear out more aspects that are relevant to describe and interpret the meaning-making processes of communication, the following part of this work is devoted to detail the concept of context and its features at face-to-face encounters.

According to the studies mentioned above, to comprehend T's pedagogical objectives in EFL classroom interaction, we should also take into account T's nonverbal actions. A point that most studies highlight is that language nonverbal signs provide important contextualization cues (GUMPERZ, 1982) in relation to the overall communicative unit. T's nonverbal language in classroom interaction – eye contact, facial expressions, smile, hand movements, use of gestures – usually attributes functional complementary meanings to what T does and says in the classroom. It is through nonverbal actions that teachers tend to reinforce the pedagogical objectives during class.

The studies, highlighted in this part of the work, served as valuable theoretical reference for a discussion on functional meanings of nonverbal language in a classroom setting. Based on such reference, I can argue in this study that nonverbal language in a classroom context can be recognized as a contextualization cue (GUMPERZ, 1982), allowing the participants to adopt specific social roles, and express specific emotions according to their needs and interests during oral interaction.

The present work differs from all previous studies. The difference lies in its choice of participants to be analyzed in EFL classroom interaction, and in its verbal implication to the overall EFL classroom interaction. The focus herein discussed was the students' nonverbal language, i.e. their smiling expression during interactive moments centered on students' speech production. Therefore, EFL classroom interaction was based mostly on the students' nonverbal language perspective. What I support here is that the students' smile can reflect specific learning implications for oral production, depending on how and with whom the students interact. Since its interpretation is context-oriented, the smile can only be understood in the light of what is seen and/or heard in oral interactions (EKMAN, 2003). Furthermore, as it deals with emotions, the smile often expresses emotions and communicative intentions which were not explicitly shown during face-to-face encounters.

For the purposes of this work, the smile is seen as an important contextualization cue in EFL classroom interaction for interpreting the students' intentions to communicate with one another and with T. The students' smile provided specific functional cues and displayed different emotional meanings according to a particular class event. That is to say, its interpretation depends on at whom, when and why it is displayed. The analysis of the students' smile can, therefore, reveal the way(s) students communicate their hidden intentions to one another, and when interacting with T.

According to Pennycook (1985) and Weil; Tompakow (2008), the body speaks louder than words, revealing what our communicative intentions really are. As far as EFL classroom interaction is concerned, and by observing and interpreting students' smile in conjunction with T's speech I was able to comprehend what learners want to express during oral tasks, and how this can contribute to their oral development.

2.4   The Context

Context is one of the most relevant conversational features for the understanding of the interaction process as it also interferes with the organization and interpretations of communicative events. Contextual information can be accounted as the mainstream of any face-to-face episode since it provides the physical domain of interaction, i.e. the situation of a communicative event. It is by reference of context that we can find adequate linguistic, social, psychological, cultural and attitudinal types of behavior to perform in specific discursive events. However, according to the socio-interactionist view of language, the context exists as representations worked out by the interlocutors. Not only the context itself can lead towards what is going to be said or not in a conversation, but also the interlocutors can be in charge of deciding the roles they perform and the consequent linguistic and non-linguistic choices during the interactional context (GOFFMAN, 2002; KERBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006).

At the outset, the extralinguistic levels of contexts, namely context of culture and of situation, offer guidelines for the interlocutors to perceive and shape context accordingly with their verbal and non-verbal behavior in conversations. It is based on the context of situation and the context of culture with which the participants can share their values, expectations, cultural beliefs, i.e. their background knowledge in order to achieve harmony during conversations (WARDHAUGH, 1985). Conversely, language and context relation are interdependent. It is not only the context responsible for modeling the type of language to be managed in social interactions. Also, the participants can change the context-oriented language according to their communicative needs, roles and social positions adopted (BUTT et al., 1998; KRAMSCH, 2001; ARMENGAUD, 2006; KERBRAT- ORECCHIONI, 2006).

The context of situation directs the interlocutors of social events towards talking about the fact as it is, establishing levels of relationships and choosing the appropriate text to fulfill their communicative goal (BUTT et al., 1998). These ways of looking into the context of a situation is what Halliday calls Field, Tenor and Mood, respectively (HALLIDAY, 1994; BUTT et al., 1998). The field has to do with the discursive topic itself. The tenor includes the interlocutors' involvement and the level of relationship among them. The mood is about the channel of communication, i.e. if it is via oral or written discourse, and which style of language should be adopted. It is, then, the situation context that allows the interlocutors to

predict their lexico - grammatical choices, which, in turn, signs the syntax and the meanings needed to achieve the dialogue itself.

Let's consider the dialogue below, between father and son, in which the son wants to borrow the father's car for a while. To convince his father to let him have the car, the son might initially think this to be a very hard task, as he probably sees himself in a inferior position as that of his father: the father is the car owner, not he. Because of this initial expectation, the son's non-verbal behavior signals hesitation and doubt as to his father's reaction. As his father's non-verbal behavior reacts differently from what the son initially expected, the course of interaction took another direction. That established the context of the situation.

Picture 1 - Edi's Comics Strips

In turn, the context of culture is the outer context in which the context of the situation is inserted. This context deals with shared knowledge, beliefs and social values among interlocutors belonging to the same culture. This includes agreement of social conventions of a specific event that only one community embraces. For example, a Greek wedding ceremony is socially organized in ways that differ from a Brazilian ceremony. While in the Brazilian ceremony the bride and the groom receive their wedding gifts moments and even days before the wedding, the Greek wedding gifts are left at the moment of the wedding, at the church entrance. This shows that cultural differences in wedding ceremonies, and the consequent actions and reactions it demands from the people involved. In other words, the culture context involves the social practice of a particular community used for sharing appropriate verbal and non-verbal behavior (BUTT et al., 1998; KRAMSCH, 2001).

In order to discuss the relevant role context plays in the development of the son-father dialogue above (Picture1), aspects such as the topic organization, the sequence of turns organization, the social roles expected in the interlocutors' interactions , the non-verbal elements used and the implicit purpose to be achieved throughout the dialogue are taken into account. It is also relevant to mention the time and setting of the dialogue in order to clear out the expected level of relationship between the participants and their type of conversation.

To begin with, one can infer that one is dealing with a son-father dialogue at their home place. As shown in the comic strip (Picture 1), the father is reading or working on his notebook, and his son, a child, is free to play. I can infer that this dialogue takes place in the evening, when the son is not at school, at the weekend. The opposing purpose shown by the interlocutors – the father wants to work and the son wants to play – seems to initially create the interlocutors' verbal and nonverbal choices in the production and interpretation of their interactions. The language and gestures used, surrounding the conversation, will determine how the discursive topic goes on. It is then established the context of the situation.

One contextual aspect to take into account is the use of the computer in this conversation, and how it interferes in the conversation. Nowadays, we can assume that the computer used at home influences the way the family members interact. The computer is either used for pleasure or for work. The computer is usually operated by one person. As a result, the individualism increases making the family members more distant from one another for any conversational encounter.

This specific context of culture (the presence of the computer in the family relations) seems, at first sight, to narrow down the type of relationship to be established in the interactional episode. In the comic strip, the father tends to assume this individual position, particularly when expressing himself by saying 'Humm' when his son approaches. I can infer, thus, that he does not want to talk at that very moment, and the prosodic element gives emphasis to this.

Another feature to be pointed out is the development of the discursive topic. Initially, it might be said that the son is trying to ask something to the father who seems to be busy, possibly working or reading something on his notebook (Picture 1). As so, the son starts his speech by requesting 'Dad, are you listening to me?' checking out his father's attention. With this question, the son might be expecting his father to allow him or not for what he wants to

say, which is the topic of the whole conversation: to take his father's car for a while by saying: 'Can you lend me your car?' If we consider what goes on in a father and son's organizational structure of conversation under these circumstances, we will probably assume that it is the father who decides what the son should do; who listens to his children whenever they need him. The tendency of most turn-taking systems of this type of relationship points out to the father as the one who has the leading voice, and, consequently, guiding the development of the topic.

Another aspect that might deserve one's attention in this conversation is the non-verbal element: the gestures. Gestures along with the linguistic element, which is the direct question used by the son, can reinforce the intentions and expectations of the interlocutor, according to his/her response (GOFFMAN, 2002; SANTOS, 2007). In this case, the first son's eye gesture seems to correspond to his uncertainty about his father's reaction to his desire of taking the car on loan. Once observing that his father was not attentive to his question 'Can you lend me your car', probably because of his father's reply 'Humm', the boy's eye gesture and smile take another position: that of satisfaction, as shown in the second picture.

For the purposes of the present work, contextual information appears to be relevant to detail the context of the situation and culture, which is discussed throughout this study. The context of situation provides the basis to place the reader as to the spatial and physical information of this study. In this study, T's speech and students' smile are investigated in an EFL classroom in a public institution at college level. The context of culture yields the basis to delineate the background information of the participants involved in the research as well as the values and beliefs that are co-constructed during classroom interaction in that institutional setting. To understand what was going on in that EFL classroom interaction, I needed to take into account the students' level of proficiency, their EFL learning experience and the T's learning and teaching information. That is to say, I needed to figure out a little the participants' life story, their relation with the English language learning and teaching.

Another contextual issue that is relevant for this study is the relation between language and context. For this reason, I attempted to describe and interpret which T's verbal and students' nonverbal elements are often present in that EFL classroom environment, and the contribution of these to the students' oral production. Situated within the scope of Pragmatics, this work seeks to investigate the functional meanings of the students' smile during pair and

group work by referring to contextual information that surrounded its display. To interpret the relation between T's speech and the students' smile, there came the need to analyze to whom and to which interactive moments it was displayed, and which functional meanings emerged from the interaction and the learning purposes. As it has already been pointed out by scholars, nonverbal language provided functional complementary meanings to verbal language in the EFL classroom interaction under investigation.

2.5   The Dimensions of Context

Under the pragmatics approach to language study, discourse can only be produced and interpreted in the light of concrete communicative situations. This means that context emerges once the interlocutors set the scene of conversation, establish grammatical and lexical choices for the interaction and attempt to speculate about the expectations raised in the speaker, and the effects the interlocutors want to cause on one another. These are called contextual features of communication. According to Searle, the meaning of a sentence can only be conceived by means of previous propositions, also namely contextual propositions (ARMENGAUD, 2006), which can be identified as presupposition, grammatical and lexical references.

Meaning in context, as so, if analyzed from a linguistic dimension, has to do with the co-text. The co-text involves all those linguistic elements which proceed or follow the dialogue itself, and "that ensure the text's cohesion" (KRAMSCH, 2001, p. 35). Textual features, which may serve as co-texts are pronouns, deictics, referents, parallelisms, substitutions and lexical referents, often in tune with the internal context of utterance – the intentions, expectations, assumptions and presuppositions of the interlocutors (KRAMSCH, 2001).

The linguistic dimension of context makes us observe language from its structural organization, the initial perspective studied in conversational analysis (KERBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006). The use of language can be conceived in two ways. On the one hand, under the concept of meaning, one can observe how the topic is structurally organized, and how it can change in the course of an interaction. On the other hand, under the concept of form, one can analyze the structural organization of the turn-taking systems and the sequences of such turns in order to understand the process of knowledge construction during conversations (LEVINSON, 1983; TAVARES, 2007). For example, in doctor-patient interactions in hospitals, the use of formal personal pronouns and polite, textual features

adequate to formal contexts of situations are recurrent. It is the level of interpersonal relationship between the interlocutors that leads to the linguistic choices of a conversation. If a doctor and a patient are relatives, for instance, their way of talking differs completely from a doctor and a patient that see each other for the very first time.

Because all aspects of language are interrelated within context, the linguistic dimension of context can only be interpreted by reference to the social dimension. That is, in order to interpret what goes on in a conversational episode, we need to take into account the social roles of the interlocutors, when and where they are talking and their level of relationship. To understand 'who says what to whom in what channel with what effect', we need to observe the contextual information which surrounds such conversational episode.

For example, the sequence of turns in Picture 1 (in page 52) seems to be of a different type, considering the role the father and the son have adopted at that moment, providing, as a result, a symmetric relation between them (MARCUSCHI, 1991). Probably, when the son asks his father for permission to do something, there is a *yes* or *no* answer following it, along with some further comments or words of advice from the father. In this case, the father seems to ignore the son's request by muttering 'Uhum', possibly meaning that whatever the request is, he seems to be no interested at all. As the comic strip shows, "dad is busy". By doing so, one can infer that the father changes his social role in the dialogue as a person who decides on what the son should do, making the son responsible for his own decision. The sequence of turns, in this case, can represent two interpretations. For the father, there is the lack of a *yes* or *no* question; he probably wants his son to see that he is busy and does not want to be disturbed. The prosodic sign, 'uhum' might indicate exactly that. For the son, the father's reaction means that his request may be accepted.

The social dimension of context refers to the social roles the interlocutors play in a face-to-face encounter and the consequent social variables which might interfere in the development of the interaction. The topic discussed, the type of relationship among the interlocutors, the form through which the message is exchanged among the interlocutors, the setting and time of the conversational episode, and the purpose to be achieved will lead the social dimension of conversations.

Both in the production and in the interpretation of spoken language, the contextual information and its features serve to direct the verbal and non-verbal choices the interlocutor

should select (in the production), identifying the implicit meaning of the conversation (in the interpretation). Therefore, we might say that the relation between context and text is interdependent; the discourse can either be conditioned or transformed by the context itself. In a teacher-student college interaction, for example, teachers tend to assume a more distant relationship towards the students, probably because of the institutional role they play in the classroom. This is the case of a conditioned-oriented interaction which can be identified in an IRE classroom movement, revealing a more asymmetric relation between them (SINCLAIR; COULTHARD, 1975; MARCUSCHI, 1991). When a friendly atmosphere provided by the teacher breaks the institutional role, that is to say the formality among the students, we have a transformed-oriented interaction, revealing a more symmetric relation (MARCUSCHI, 1991; KERBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006). If the context provides rules of adequate behavior to establish formality or informality levels of relationships, this will necessarily lead toward the interlocutors' verbal choices in conversations.

What follows in the last picture of Picture 1 (page 52), for instance, seems to be the result of the real interlocutor's perception (the son) according to the reactions provided by the other interlocutor (the father). The son finally managed to get the car – represented by VRUUUUMMM, the engine sound – under the impression that it was his father who gave him permission to use it. This could be implied by the mother's voice as in 'EDI: "Turn off this car now!" In fact, as expected by the son, his father did not pay any attention to his request as when he gave the same answer 'Uhum'.

From this dialogue, one might infer that it was based on the son's perceptions and expectations concerning his father, and the son's request that the interaction developed. One may very well assume that the context of the situation provided informational cues for the realization of the interaction. Considering all the different levels of relationship, one often finds fathers deciding over what their children should and should not do. This, however, has established a different social role on the part of children –that of deciding what to do. On the other hand, the conflict which was set up by the mother's voice was that of establishing the culturally accepted level of relationship between father and son: the parents' decision on what the sons should do at home.

Thus, the role of context in oral interactions is one among many other conversational features that conversational analysts can choose as the basis for investigating the implicit meanings found in dialogues. That is why, context should be considered a product of various

informational aspects which sets up the scene for the interaction. According to the Figure 1, the context of situation was modified through the son's perception of his father's verbal and nonverbal behavior. As it happens in most family relations, it is culturally accepted that it is the father who decides on what a seven year-old boy should do with the family car. The lack of attention shown by the father in relation to his son's request provided contextual information leading to a change of the social roles as established in the dialogue. As a result, the son's perceptions and his nonverbal behavior were of great value to alter the context so as to carry out his intention. That is why, as Kramsch (2001, p. 46) says "Context is the matrix created by language as discourse and as a form of social practice". As so, this social product of linguistic and non-linguistic choices of the dialogue "[…] in turn hold together, control, manipulate, and maintain the social order, that is, the social organization of classrooms, homes, and workplaces" (KRAMSCH, 2001, p. 46).

Therefore, when analyzing a conversational episode, the discourse analyst should be aware of both the contextual information surrounding the dialogic game among the interlocutors and "the beliefs, values and presuppositions that the interlocutors bring to the interactional encounter" (KRAMSCH, 2001, p. 41). It is the notion of shared knowledge among the interlocutors that can be of ideological nature or not, that context is (re)created. and the meaning-making process is possible to be uncovered.

2.6   The Interlocutors

Every interactional episode can be revealed as a sequence of events which are (re)produced and (re)interpreted by participants involved in a determined context. That is to say, to discuss the interlocutor's role in face-to-face interactions, one cannot disregard important contextual information which holds both text production and internal coherence of a conversational episode (KERBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006).

After having established a conversational cooperation (GUMPERZ, 1982, p. 165), "participants must have at least some idea of the likely outcome before they commit themselves to an interaction". Expectations on shared background, grammatical, lexical types of knowledge, appropriate use of discourse strategies in the production and interpretation of messages, and coordination of the contextualization cues are some of the features managed by the speaker-listener mutual cooperation during interactive encounters (GUMPERZ, 1982; WARDHAUGH, 1985; MARCUSCHI, 1991; GOFFMAN, 2002). Such expectations

determine not only the level of relationship between the participants but also the use of verbal and nonverbal signs of language during any specific conversation.

As the behavior established by the interlocutors in a face-to-face interaction also depends upon some external factors of interaction, it is by reference of the symmetric and asymmetric levels of relation that their social roles can be established and/or modified. (MARCUSCHI, 1991; KERBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006). This has to do with the social dimension of context (KRASMCH, 2001), which was explained in the previous part of this work. According to these levels, aspects such as the appropriate verbal and non-verbal elements to be used, the type of information to be sent and received, and how expectations and inferences are signaled, are regarded as fundamental for the analysis and understanding of the whole process of interaction.

At a symmetrical level of relationship, the interlocutors share the same rights as to their use of speech. The common example is what happens on daily conversations in which participants perform the same role (MARCUSCHI, 1991; KERBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006; KOCH, 2006). Informality in the use of language, close relationship between or among the participants, and shared expectations are some of the most common grounds that brings in symmetry to a face-to-face interaction. Chats between friends, talks in bars, at the workplace between colleagues are some instances of the symmetrical level of social relationship.

In turn, the asymmetrical level denotes one speaker controlling the turn-taking system in a conversational episode (KOCH, 2006). When one interlocutor owns the right to control the conversation and distributes the turns according to his/her wish, this is seen as asymmetrical level of relationship. As the difference between/among the interlocutors is at first a matter of context, age, sex, social status, the interactional role, the linguistic competence, prestige and other verbal and nonverbal forms that mark such difference can highlight the asymmetrical level in social interactions (KERBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006; MARCUSCHI, 1991). This is what commonly happens in interviews, lectures, court judgments, classrooms, and doctor-patient relations in which the discursive event is marked by institutional aims (it involves tasks or objectives to be achieved, marked under specific social contexts) (CITÓ, 2007). This relation can be signaled by distinct linguistic signs determining that the one who controls the turn has a more competent speech skill and, higher social prestige.

The ultimate premise in the Interactional Sociolinguistics study is to account for the communicative functions of linguistic varieties and its relation to the objective speakers wish to achieve with their interactions. Bearing in mind that "being able to interact also implies some sharing" (GUMPERZ, 1982, p. 29), the social shared knowledge is one of the ingredients needed to indentify the alternation from formal to informal speech style, involving the lexicon, phonology and the morphology used, as well as the expectations (real life experiences) which speakers might bring in to their interactive encounters. Differences in the speaker's perception of communicative signs, for example, can be pointed out as discrepancies of matters of values, attitude and socio-cultural background. This means that the language used in interaction varies from different groups or communities since each one of them define distinct expectations, beliefs and socio-cultural knowledge which are shared in human interactions.

Given the communicative conditions and the social relationships that underlie them, Gumperz (1982) asserts that discourse strategies are socially conditioned; we can take for granted that linguistic signs interact with social knowledge in discourse. Therefore, the discourse strategies the interlocutors make use of while conversing (the levels of linguistic signaling – phonology, morphology and lexicon, as well as prosody, paralanguage and nonverbal signs) are those which guide the production and interpretation of messages under certain social norms of conduct. Its relation to the interpretive processes, though, works implicitly. It is the interlocutors' role to make connections –inferences between the perception of the verbal and nonverbal signs and a social-bound interpretation. When there is failure in such connections or when they are not observed, differences in interpretation are likely to occur, as the interlocutors rely on distinct social values and meanings.

As the focus of this study lies on the confluence of T's verbal behavior (the discourse markers) and the students' smile at the interactive moments of the students' oral production, the following chapter will be about the most relevant research on EFL classroom interaction.

3   CLASSROOM INTERACTION IN EFL TEACHING

This chapter shows research on EFL classroom interaction which is divided in three moments. The first part is dedicated to research about verbal elements in classroom interaction studies. The second part discusses the importance of nonverbal communication in social interaction studies. And the third part provides a detailed explanation of the nonverbal behavior features, including the definition of kinesics and Ekman and Friesen's (1969) categories of gestures and types of smile.

The idea that we normally have in our minds about traditional language classrooms is that of the place where teaching and learning take place. And for that to happen, there are initially a teacher and a certain number of students, physically organized in desks and the teacher placed in a front desk saying what is to be done. What is more, it can be seen informative pictures and charts placed on the wall and the board, objects that at first sight might define the classroom context. Apart from these physical features, language classrooms can also be recognized by the activities organized by teachers. Writing summaries, doing pair and group tasks, oral discussions, grammatical exercises and reading comprehension activities are some examples of what we can observe in this environment.

And what about the discourse used in the classroom? How does it contribute for the design of a class? We can take for granted that there are more than the physical matters to explain the functioning of a classroom. The way the teacher and the students interact to each other, the types of talk and actions employed in this institutional setting, for example, can reveal the type of teaching and learning which is involved there.

Thinking on these matters within the classroom environment, several scholars have investigated classroom discourse from different perspectives. The common interactional movements encountered in EFL classroom among T and students (SINCLAIR; COULTHARD, 1975), how objectives, methods and actions are organized (GARCEZ, 2006), classroom interaction in events of reading in EFL classroom (FIGUEIREDO, 2005; FREIRE, 2003), T and students' discursive practices and their relation to EFL learning (HALL, 2003; FIGUEIREDO, 2006; CONSOLO; VANI, 2006; TAVARES, 2006), are some topics which discuss the function classroom discourse holds in the teaching and learning process in EFL classroom setting.

Although classroom interaction research has initially drawn more attention on issues related to classroom discourse, particularly the teacher's discourse, some research has devoted on nonverbal aspects in the classroom context (OLIVEIRA, 2007; SANTOS, 2007; SOUZA, 2007). Most of these studies have explained the role of the teacher's (T) nonverbal elements (gestures, hand movements, the smile) in relation to the teaching and learning processes as a whole. Seen from the part of the teacher, the nonverbal elements serve as a supportive sign to T's spoken discourse. They are normally used to regulate, complement and give emphasis on what T explains, and orient the students' comprehension (ACIOLI, 2007; DANTAS, 2007; SANTOS, 2007; SOUZA, 2007).

One of the reasons to analyze the interplay of verbal and nonverbal elements in classroom interaction can be seen in regard to the effects this relation might provide to the development of students' oral production. Two reasons can be explored under this aspect. On the one hand, the T's verbal discourse might serve as an input to instigate the students' speech production or not considering the T's interactional movements and the conversational strategies employed. On the other hand, the students' smile can serve as a responsive element to the T's speech, revealing an increase of oral production or not among the students and with T.

The dialogic game between the students' smile and T's speech in EFL classroom interaction can convey two fundamental meanings. It can contribute to the understanding of meanings which is shared and co-constructed by the participants, and as Bohn (2004) asserted, can be seen as a cultural reflection of the participants' behavior in relation to the activities organized in the classroom.

As far as oral production is concerned, there is a need to point out here what is meant by 'students' oral production', i.e. spoken language which is produced by second language students. In the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) classes, "[…] the efforts of students in oral production come in the form of conversation, or dialogue" (BROWN, 2001, p. 269). Under the CLT principles, EFL teachers tend to organize the class activities through pair and group works to emphasize students' oral production. Activities which include role plays, story telling, interviews and correction of written activities among students often give priority on the students' speech production.

The students' spoken language can be developed in two ways: through transactional and interpersonal dialogues. In transactional dialogues, the conversation is "an extended form of responsive language" (BROWN, 2001, p. 273). Because of its negotiated nature, particularly for purposes of exchanging specific information, transactional dialogues are very common in group work activities. The interpersonal dialogues, in turn, occur "for the purpose of maintaining social relationships than for the transmission of facts and information" (BROW, 2001, p. 274).

As for beginners and pre-intermediate learners, the intensive and responsive spoken language types are recurrent in classroom interaction. Designed to the practice of grammatical, lexical or phonological aspects of language, the intensive spoken language involves any talk activity that refers to the achievement of a learning objective, i.e. the practice of prepositions of place. The responsive students' speech, on the other hand, are usually regarded as replies to the teacher's questions and/or comments, and do not extend to dialogues. Thus, it is an oral production which is in line with the forms required by the teacher, i.e. it can be known as teacher-oriented type of speech.

In the light of Pragmatics and Interactional Sociolinguistics fieldworks, on which this study is based, the students' oral production should hold both transactional and interpersonal dialogues (BROWN, 2001). The oral production should be a result for conveying meaningful messages being them in group or pair activities, or when the students are in individual contact with T. For example, in group work activities when the students focus their attention on creating a story or describing a picture, they tend to draw their attention in comprehending each other and producing appropriate language to accomplish the task. Rather than simply answering T's questions for purposes of grammar and vocabulary understanding, in individual contact with T, students could ask for clarification, ask for repetition, use discourse markers to gain time to process communication, to paraphrase for structures they cannot produce and to use gestures to convey their meanings (BROWN, 2001).

Since data guided us to the present doctoral study - the analysis of T's discourse markers with the students' smile to discuss the students' learning implications to oral production – this chapter focuses on the T's verbal and students' nonverbal elements. Therefore, the present chapter is divided in three parts to delineate specific aspects within the verbal and nonverbal elements in classroom interaction research. The first part presents issues related to the verbal elements of classroom research, including the T's interactional

movements, the physical space and discourse markers. The second part discusses the function nonverbal communication holds in social interactions. And the last part defines and explains the nonverbal behavior, giving priority to the Kinesics, and narrowing down to the Ekman and Friesen's categories of gestures and types of smile, which is the nonverbal element under investigation in this study.

3.1 Verbal Elements in Classroom Interaction Research

Classroom contexts have been notably investigated over the decades as a place where all sorts of knowledge come into play, particularly from the oral interaction perspective. And one of the aspects which have deserved attention among scholars is the analysis of the verbal elements in classroom interaction. With this in mind, academic discussions have explored T's discursive practices as to search for the influential aspects which help increase the amount of classroom interaction among students.

Consolo and Vani's work (2006) illustrates the problems emerged from T's behavior that may cause lack of students' oral production. T's pedagogical posture of limiting students' oral participation and topics unrelated to students' reality are some pointed out by these authors. The students' oral production seems to be associated with their interest on the class topic and with the pleasant atmosphere created by the teacher. Following the same line of investigation, Tavares (2006) noticed that it was through the contact and spontaneous strategy types that T and students could negotiate their images in order to probe a more informal interaction, thus a more cooperative learning.

Focusing on the classroom elements that can influence the increase of students' oral production, scholars about classroom interaction research have investigated not only the physical space but also T's practices and their relation to the students' EFL learning. Below, I point out some features that have been under discussion such as the physical space, T's interactional movements and T and students' verbal behavior.

3.1.1 Physical Space

Contextual information not only involves the interlocutors' utterances that precede or follow the spoken sentences. It also includes the setting and time in which the conversation takes place, the participants' background knowledge, the level of relationship established or constructed among them, their assumptions on what to speak and how to carry on

conversations, and appropriate behavior which they tend to adopt in any interactional event (WARDHAUGH, 1985). The physical space and the spatial arrangements in which the classroom activities are organized can be illustrated as one of the aspects that can influence the amount of classroom interaction.

According to Freire (2003, p. 185), the classrooms whose "desks are set one behind another and of a teacher who kept stand up in front of her desk holding a text copy in which the students were reading and discussing"[5] seem to attribute a teacher-centered class that provides the teacher to control the discursive topic and decide who has the right to speak first. Such behavior not only implies an asymmetric relation in the classroom but also tends to point out the teacher's institutional voice, which seems to be culturally accepted by the students.

In this work, the spatial arrangement of the participants in the classroom was regarded a significant aspect to understand the interactional processes involved in that EFL classroom and the learning implications emerged from that. It can be argued that when the students are arranged in a semi-circle or circle in classrooms, they are socially defined as equals (FREIRE, 2003). They tend to have more equal rights in the turn-system and the distances between parties tend to be avoided. Consequently, this classroom arrangement tends to provide a more pleasant and relaxing atmosphere to the students' learning.

In this work, the physical space in which the students are organized yields basis for understanding the pedagogical function of specific interactive moments. Observing the way(s) the students are spatially organized to accomplish different oral tasks, either among them or with T, can serve to delineate the pragmatic functions of the oral tasks, the consequent interactive relationships that are created and the learning implications for L2 oral production.

3.1.2 Teacher's Interactional Movements

The implications emerged from T's spoken discourse to the EFL teaching and learning has been regarded as some of the aspects studied in classroom interaction. Both Figueiredo (2005) and Garcez (2006) claimed that teachers tend to control the turn-taking system, indicating what, how and why is to be talked in the classroom. This traditional teacher's

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[5] Translated from the text in Portuguese: "[…] em carteiras enfileiradas umas atrás das outras e de uma professora que permaneceu em pé em frente de sua mesa segurando uma cópia do texto que estavam lendo e discutindo". FREIRE, A. M. F. Discurso e contexto na sala de aula de língua estrangeira. In: COX, M. I. P.; ASSIS-PETERSON (Org.). *Cenas de sala de aula*. São Paulo: Mercado de Letras, 2003. p. 185.

verbal behavior, i.e. of orienting the students' speech in the classroom, can be seen in many interactional movements in EFL classroom context. According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), these movements are categorized as IRE (Initiation, Response and Evaluation), in which is often designed to the teacher the initiation and evaluation movements, and to the students the response movement.

Such organizing system of talk-in-interaction in the classroom context has revealed the assymetrical relationship in teacher-students' interactions. This type of classroom relationship takes place when one interlocutor-speaker owns the right to talk first, controlling and distributing the turns based on his/her desires (MARCUSCHI, 1991; KOCH, 2006). Some examples of interactional events in which the assymetrical relations occur are job interviews, seminars and classrooms. In classrooms, however, it seems that students are not enough prepared to ideal symmetrical participations with the teacher; that is when the interlocutor-speakers share the same speech rights in conversations (MARCUSCHI, 1991).

There have been some studies which identified some sets of T's speech features derived from T's interactional movements and his/her spoken discourse. Both Garcez (2006) and Citó (2007) found out that teachers' spoken discourse tend to give emphasis on their pragmatic intentions which can be identified in the classroom interactive sequences. Their speech tends to be related to the students' learning achievements and the teaching objectives. Such definition goes along with what Drew and Heritage (1992) describe as an institutional talk. Classroom talk, as any institutional talk, follows some peculiar features that are inherent to institutional contexts. Thus, "institutional talk is normally informed by goal orientations of a relatively restricted conventional form" (DREW; HERITAGE, 1992, p. 22).

Another characteristic can be seen in the ways(s) T usually manage the interactional movements in T-students interactions. Garcez (2006), for example, observed that while guiding students in oral discussions, T tends to own the control to indicate who should speak first, or answer his /her questions based on his/her pre-existent knowledge. T does so by taking control of his turn and of all interactional movements in the classroom, not allowing students to make their points-of-view.

In not allowing the students to provide an unexpected answer or comment, T reinforces the link between language and power (FREIRE, 2003). In the turn sequencing, the students' answers are usually not accepted. As a consequence, the T's speech is shown in long

explanations, with little turn right given to students' speech. Such verbal behavior tends to establish a distancing social position between T and students, reinforcing an idea that it is the T who knows the content of the lesson and, therefore, controls the interactive processes in the classroom for pedagogical aims. As a learning reflection of such T's verbal behavior, the students tend to value the T's voice in detriment to theirs.

Taking into consideration what was pinpointed by the scholars above, the core aspects to be investigated here will be T's speech's features within the interactional movements. Such procedure of investigation not only gives rise to what T does with words, but also attempts to describe and comprehend which pedagogical implications to students' oral production can be conveyed in her speech during interactive movements between her and students. In short, attempting to understand the T's language in use, it also means comprehending the T's speech through her actions involved in face-to-face interactions; a concept that both Conversation analysis (ARMENGAUD, 2006; KERBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006) and Interactional Sociolinguistics (GUMPERZ, 1982; BLOM; GUMPERZ, 2002; GOFFMAN, 2002) hold in explaining social interaction activities. As Garcez (2006, p. 66) explains social interactions,

> […] daily experience is constituted in great extent by actions the members of each social group execute in using language while interacting face-to-face, by phone or by new technological forms of interpersonal message exchanges[6].

3.1.3 Students' Voice

Another classroom aspect that has been under discussion was the students' speech in written tasks and its learning implications for oral production. Observing students' oral interaction in written texts corrections, Figueiredo (2006) analyzed how verbal interaction took place among students and its effect on their speech production. Based on Vygostky sociocultural theory which values the dialogue as a crucial aspect for cognitive development, the author asserts that oral correction among peers can benefit them to negotiate meanings for their texts from their dialogic interaction. By making suggestions to improve the writing in terms of content, structure, vocabulary, Figueiredo (2006) found out that although the focus of

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[6] From the text in Portuguese: "[...] a experiência cotidiana é constituída em grande medida pelas ações que os membros que cada grupo social executam ao usar a linguagem enquanto interagem face a face, ao telefone ou mediante as novas formas tecnológicas de troca de mensagens interpessoais" GARCEZ, P. M. *A organização da fala em interação na sala de aula*: controle social, reprodução do conhecimento. *Revista Caleidoscópio*, v. 4, n. 1, p. 66-80, 2006.

the activity was to improve the written text, it could be noticed the students' oral effort in order to negotiate the task itself.

3.1.4 Teachers' Verbal Behavior

The studies which were previously discussed have centered on what actually occurs between teacher-students or student-student interactions, and their implications for the students' overall EFL learning according to specific class tasks.

Based on teacher- students interaction, these researches have revealed that T's speech in classroom interaction tends to: (1) reflect a relation of social distancing with students, entitled as asymmetrical relation (FIGUEIREDO, 2006; GARCEZ, 2006), (2) establish difficulties of relationships between T and students (CONSOLO; VANI, 2006), and (3) mirror image negotiation with the students by means of five discursive strategies namely convivial, institutional, pedagogical, of cooperation and spontaneous (TAVARES, 2007).

In observing the link between extralinguistics and linguistics elements in classroom interaction, Consolo and Vani's study (2006) noticed that the amount of speech act by the students increases in the classroom as a result of a pleasant and relaxing atmosphere provided by T. It is not only what T does but how he/she mixes up their linguistic choice in accordance with the informal way of teaching that classroom interaction takes place in a more pleasant way, consequently the learning of the content studied in the class tends to improve (HALL, 2003; CONSOLO; VANI, 2006).

Tavares (2006) recently investigated how teacher and his/her students interact to each other in the EFL classroom to keep an atmosphere of cooperation and motivation observing the way they negotiated their images. Trying to decipher the communicative intentions of the participants through contextualized cues such as style, pause, intonation, gestures and face, the author divided the participants speech moves into five types of strategies: contact, institutional, pedagogic, cooperation and spontaneous. Among all these strategies, she found out that there was a mixture of strategy uses between the participants. Whenever the teacher started with the cooperation strategy, students answered with the contact and vice versa. Therefore, the negotiation of images could be better applied for interpersonal relations between the participants rather than probing teaching/learning of the target language. That is, oral interaction tended to increase by the time the pedagogic and institutional strategies were

not at stake but of the contact and of spontaneous type, the ones that favor humor, affection, thus a more friendly and informal interaction between teacher and students.

In Tavares (2006) and Consolo; Vani´s (2006), verbal interaction among learners tend to occur in a more informal relationship in the classroom. Common interest of the subject when that is linked to the learners' needs and to an atmosphere which promotes a relaxed and affective relationship among them are the key words for the learning process. It is not 'what' the teacher, as an institutional representative, offers that promote verbal interaction but 'how' the pedagogical aim is passed on. If the teaching objective is organized as a ruled-based principle - with reference to the textbook or the grammar exercises, as pointed out by Consolo and Vani (2006) – the class becomes boring and, consequently, learners turns out demotivated to share their knowledge among them. Sometimes, it is quite hard to associate the pedagogical aims with strategies that lead to interpersonal relationship as noticed by Tavares (2006). Nevertheless, Figueiredo (2006) argued that it is possible to link pedagogical with interpersonal strategies when learners feel motivated to accomplish the task such as in oral corrections of written texts.

How do teachers react toward the students' speech act? And to what extent these reactions contribute to the development of oral language? Reflecting on these issues, Cajal (2003) investigated the way two teachers reacted toward the children talks in the pre-schooling level in Cuiabá to see whether these children exercise their oral language or not, and if the teacher's talk and actions contribute for this to happen. Observing what people do when talking and considering that in the classroom setting the speech acts reflect different pedagogic objectives - it is through the talk that T orients, motivates students to learn, complains, takes their doubts, draws their attention to something relevant - the author found out that inside the same interactional context, the two teachers addressed different learning perspectives based on their respective type of talk.

In the teacher-student interaction, the two teachers' talk contributed differently to promote the evolvement of oral language in children. The first teacher in one school seemed to be very much worried with what children have to learn, the pedagogical objective itself, therefore all out-of- class questions posed by the students were avoided by the teacher. Consequently, the children exercise of oral language was restricted to either answer the teachers' questions or to accomplish the tasks oriented by the teacher. On the other hand, in another school, the second teacher seemed to be more receptive to any children talk either if

that was connected or not with the teaching objective proposed by her. The aim was to talk even about topics not related with the school context. Cajal (2003) concluded that the amount of children's oral language seemed to develop better in a more confident and open teacher-students relationship as seen in the second teacher classroom context.

For the purposes of this work, the analysis of T's speech is of great relevance because of its influential interactive contribution in relation to the students' oral development. In any classroom interaction, the participants involved (teacher and students) are always in an attempt to make themselves comprehended and comprehend others to achieve a harmonious classroom communication. T's speech is one of these classroom ingredients for a successful classroom interaction. And to understand the T's speech meanings, we should consider T's speech through his/her way of organizing speech within the turn system, which conversational strategies are used and for what purposes, and the way(s) each participant lead one another to cooperate in classroom conversations.

In short, this interactive game of most classroom interactions is also revealed through the participants' verbal actions such as in sharing ideas, negotiating meanings, contradicting and/or complementing any discursive activity. According to Schiffrin (1987, p. 29), a successful classroom interaction means "[…] the outcome of joint efforts from interactants to integrate knowing, meaning, saying and doing". For this work, it was through the analysis of T's speech that I could describe and explain the pedagogical implications of the discourse markers used by her (T's verbal element investigated in this study) throughout the classroom interactions with the students.

Next, a discussion about T's verbal elements which were investigated in this work is described.

3.1.5 Discourse Markers

One starting point on discourse markers (DMs) is that they are "part of the more general analysis of discourse coherence – how speakers and hearers jointly integrate forms, meanings, and actions to make overall sense of what is said" (SCHIFFRIN, 2001, p. 49). The role of DMs in discourse, also known as conversational markers (MARCUSCHI, 1991), can be determined by the position they are placed in the oral text (initial or terminal position), with what they co-occur, and how they interact with the syntactic and interactional meanings

which are negotiated through the interlocutors' co-construction of knowledge in conversations (SCHIFFRIN, 2001).

Discourse markers (DMs) can be defined as syntactic and semantically independents from statements but sequentially dependent elements in relation to units of talk. It is within these units, i.e. communicative unit which follows a more conversational than syntactic principles (MARCUSCHI, 1991; GONÇALVES, 2006; KO FREITAG, 2009), that DMs can establish anaphoric or cataphoric functions. This means that DMs refer to the interlocutors' attitudes and communicative intentions in relation to what was said, by the use of anaphoric markers, and what is going to be said, by the cataphoric markers. Thus, the boundaries of these units have to be regarded as different as tone groups, sentences, verses and actions. Based on Schiffrin's (1987, p. 37) words, they "[…] have a sequencing function of relating syntactic units and fitting them into a textual or discourse context". As DMs often mark some textual and interactional functions in the verbal structure, they can also be identified as pragmatic connectors, pragmatic operators, interactional organizers, cohesive elements (URBANO, 2003).

In any conversational text, the conversational markers both signal syntactic and conversational functions. On the basis of this argument, Marcuschi (1991) considered three types of evidences within conversational texts: a) verbal b) nonverbal c) suprasegmental signs. These signs, produced by the speaker and hearer, are used to make a link between the communicative units and orient the interlocutors' turn systems. To Marcuschi (1991), verbal signs do not contribute to the new information toward the topic development but in relation to the interpersonal conduct within conversations. The nonverbal or paralinguistic signs are those that maintain, regulate or control the contact among the participants. In turn, the supra-segmental signs are of linguistic nature (pauses, hesitations, voice tones) since they provide contextualization cues to discourse planning, change the turns, topic change, reformulations and thought organization.

Serving merely as cognitive operators of textual organization, the discourse markers tend to appear when the interlocutors are organizing their speech. For example, in saying 'Anyway, I'll have to go now', the interlocutor-speaker signs his/her intention to change the conversation, or to finish the subject or to show disagreement. As a matter of fact, such interpretation depends largely on analysis concerning the utterance intonation along with other nonverbal features present in the conversation. The relation of utterance intonation and

the use of DMs to its immediate context can assign both textual and interactive functions throughout conversations.

The meanings of the DMs also vary according to the positions they are inserted within the speech units. Placed in the beginning or in the terminal position of the communicative units (another term for speech units) or turns, the DMs can reflect or add various meanings, either referential or expressive. It is referential when the markers determine the semantic meaning, i.e. the external meaning. It is by reference to what is being reported that meaning appears. It is, thus, more objective. And it is expressive when it refers to the internal meaning of what is being reported, i.e. the meaning depends on the interlocutor's inferential procedures to interpret the intentions (MARCUSCHI, 1991; SCHIFFRIN, 2001).

Taking into account the interlocutors' position in conversations, Marcuschi (1991) divided the signs produced by the speaker and the hearer with their respective discursive functions. The speaker signs serve to maintain the turn, monitor the hearer, anticipate or announce what is going to be said, organize the thought during the conversation, indicate the beginning and the end of an assertion, and reorient and reorganize the speech. Yet, the hearer's signs, particularly during the speaker's turn, serve to orient and monitor the speaker in relation to the message reception. The hearers' signs may indicate disagreement or agreement, and can also mark a personal hearer's attitude in relation to what and how has been said. Feeling encouraged or discouraged, or asking for clarification are some interactive meanings that the DMs reveal by the listener.

In order to analyze both T's verbal and students' nonverbal behavior, there was a need to detail them into interactive moments. Interactive moments are moments in which the classroom interaction is designed to the process of teaching and learning. They can be recognized when T and students are engaged toward the co-construction of the lesson content and activities in the classroom setting be that by words, gestures or even by silence (GARCEZ, 2006). The interactive moments that were chosen for this work were the ones that dealt with the students' speech production in group and pair works, in individual oral corrections in grammar exercises, in reading tasks, with the students' comments in oral discussions and when T answered the students' doubts. From this time on, the interactive moments which are going to be cited both in the analysis of classroom observation and in video-recorded stage are abbreviated as IM.

Understanding the pragmatic, pedagogical and learning functions of T's speech in this work through her use of discourse markers helped me describe T's verbal profile in relation to the students' effort to communicate. As one of the questions pointed out by Rose and Kasper (2001) about classroom research, the main objective in this study was to investigate which opportunities for students' foreign language oral development were offered through T's speech in classroom interaction.

3.2 Nonverbal Communication

To communicate is far more than express ideas and feelings through words. In a common conversation between friends, a simple gaze can reveal either a sensation of pleasure or disgust. Nonverbal signs, as part of the process of human communication, can unfold meanings which are expressed by gestures, eye contact, facial expressions and body language. What someone does while conversing might strongly indicate his/her feelings and emotions more than expressing his/her intents orally. Talking with a work colleague, for example, with the arms crossed and a steady position might sign the person's discomfort on the topic discussion or the person's desire to talk about something different at that time. The way people look at each other and express their body movements or face in conversations might be known as the nonverbal indicatives of complementing or contradicting the exchanged messages among interlocutors.

Nonverbal signs include the paralanguage such as prosody (sounds used by its interlocutors), kinesics (gestures, body movements, facial expressions, eye contact and smile), proxemics (the distance among the interlocutors), the tacsenics (touch in interaction) and silence (lack of linguistic elements and constructions in interactions) (PENNYCOOK, 1985; SANTOS, 2007).

One of the nonverbal elements, the paralinguistic features in face-to-face interactions, is discussed in Goffman's works. According to Goffman (GOFFMAN, 2002, p. 19), "many of the speech properties will have to be seen as alternatives to extra linguistic acts, or to its functional equivalents".[7] What Goffman contends in his work "The neglected situation" is the relevance of functional gestures in oral interactions. Gestures not only favor the state of speech but also maintain and control what is said in any interactional encounter. These

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[7] From the text in Portuguese: "(…) muitas das propriedades da fala terão de ser vistas como alternativas a atos extralingüísticos, ou equivalentes funcionais deles (...)" GOFFMAN, E. A. A situação negligenciada. In: RIBEIRO, B. T.; GARCEZ, P. M. (Org.). *Sociolingüística*. 2. ed. São Paulo: Loyola, 2002. p. 19.

functional gestures are considered as extra linguistic features that is part of the whole process of oral communication. Based on Goffman's assumptions, the social rules and the meanings the interlocutors attribute to them orient the linguistic and non-linguistic expressions of our speech. For example, the eye contact between the interlocutors in accordance with the social behavior they share in a formal context might interfere in the type of message they exchange and the levels of importance they give to the interactional event. In a formal context, in which the superior – inferior hierarquy is usually present, the eye contact might influence certain social rules and behavioral patterns so that the event takes place. That is why it should be asserted that speech production and reception is socially organized.

According to Pennycook (1985), these features are coordinated with the speech as they tend to provide clues to the ongoing task of interpreting what the interlocutor has said. In spoken discourse, the paralinguistic features refer to the nonverbal ways people attempt to convey meanings and feelings through the supra segmental features of speech. The study includes variations of voice tones, intonation, and stress, i.e. all melodic and rhythmic patterns of speech sound which can signal attitude, social positions or other language-specific meanings (GUMPERZ, 1982; CRYSTAL, 1997).

Within the nonverbal communication, the prosody provides semantic information about the way(s) speakers convey their feelings and meanings through oral language. Being context-dependent, the prosodic elements such as intonation, accent, loudness, stress, vowel length, voice tone and speech register reflect either the emotional or the state of the speakers' utterances. What conversationalists tend to analyze in studying prosody in conversations (GUMPERZ, 1982) is what characterizes the speaker's irony, sarcasm, command or any other communicative intention through the suprasegmental features of speech. Therefore, the conversational interpretations emerge as the interlocutor establishes coherent and cohesive connections of the selected utterances used with the theme and the nonverbal features of speech.

The prosodic elements do not mean in isolation; they are context-dependent as to signal meaningful information in any interactional involvement. As Gumperz (1982, p. 110) said, "Nucleus or accent placement refers to the signaling of prosodic prominence within an information unit". For example, the strongest and highest melodic pattern of voice expressed by a mother, when interacting with her daughter at home, might indicate that she wants to complain her daughter of a wrong behavior she observes. Also, the accent placement within

sentence construction can reinforce such meaning in this interactive moment. Providing a strong accent as in "DO NOT MESS this table, girl!" in the first information unit, and using a severe eye contact, gives emphasis on the mother's complaint: not to mess. In this case, the prosody and the eye contact complement the mother's communicative intention.

One of the paralinguistic elements, namely kinesics, deals with the study of body movements and gestures within spoken discourse. The kinesics analysis involves the facial expressions particularly eye movements, body posture, smile and gestures which pose functional and social value to the overall act of communication (RECTOR; TRINTA, 1993). Based on the initial principles of Birdwhistell's works, its principal premise is that its analysis is culture-specific. According to Birdwhistell (1979) (PENNYCOOK, 1985, p. 262) and others researchers of nonverbal communication, "[...] for most other forms of nonverbal communication, the expressive meaning differs greatly across cultures". Brazilian and English people, for example, employ different kinesics movements in greetings. While Brazilian tend to kiss each other and shake hands spontaneously among friends or work colleagues, English people tend to assume a more discrete behavior, shaking hands and giving a social smile. Therefore, based on Birdwhistell's research (1970), the use of nonverbal signs in conversations is closely related to the social conventions and meanings the interlocutors attribute to them. This normal sequentiality of social procedures revealed in the kinesics movements also reflects the common practical knowledge shared by the interlocutors in face-to-face interactions (WARDHAUGH, 1985).

Nevertheless, attempting to prove Darwin's ideas about the universality of emotions, Ekman (2003, p. 3) investigated several facial expressions revealing emotions across cultures. At first, Ekman believed that facial expressions were socially learned and culture-specific. However, as he went on researching facial expressions of emotions he found out that Darwin's arguments "[…] that expressions were innate and therefore universal", could be applied to some investigations in which anger and surprise are analyzable. Examining facial expressions of familiar emotions such as happiness, anger, sadness, anger and disgust, the author claims for the universality since these expressions are all recognized by different people of distinguished cultures. Fear and surprise, on the contrary, are distinguishable from culture to culture in different contexts.

In explaining that facial expressions of fear and surprise can be culture-oriented depending on the context of situation they are surrounded, Ekman (2003, p. 4) compared these

emotions from two different cultures. The author filmed American and Japanese emotional expressions "in response to seeing films of surgery and accidents". Paul Ekman concluded that the universality of facial expressions of emotions will primarily depend on the situation which surrounds them from both cultures. When both American and Japanese were alone, their emotional expressions were similar. However, when they were with a scientist watching those films, their facial behavior changed considerably. The Japanese tended to mask the negative expressions with a smile while the American did not. Although his findings have received criticism from social anthropologists, Ekman still asserts that the universality of emotions through facial expressions tends to occur when individuals are alone, and not when they are interacting with someone that, for example, is observing them.

Part of the pragmatic competence of the language user (BROWN, 2001), the kinesics movements can establish a set of significant social meanings in oral interactions. They can reveal the interlocutors' social position, establish who domains who in the turn-taking systems, declare the interlocutors' social behavior, attitudes, feelings, intentions and the level of intimacy among the interlocutors.

In an EFL classroom context, for example, the relation between T's facial expressions with spoken discourse can considerably contribute to the overall co-construction of knowledge and establish different power relations with students. Oliveira (2007) investigated T's facial expressions in a science classroom setting to see how they are linked to the meaning construction among teacher-students. The author asserted that dominance, power and control can affect the visual patterns even in the classroom context. Depending on the class situation, the teacher can domain the classroom by means of his/her eye behavior. Through the eyes, the teacher can threat the students' speech or give orders, establishing the power dominance thus the control over those students who are not attentive or that did not do the homework, for instance.

Apart from the expressive eye contact, it could be noticed the smile as an expressive instrument to establish relationships between teacher and students. The smile could be observed in moments of the teacher's satisfactions, providing a sincere smile. On the other hand, when it seems convenient, the teacher can provide a forced smile. Oliveira (2007) summed up that both eye contact and smile can contribute to the co-construction of meanings in the classroom among T and students. These two types of paralinguistic features, when used by T, might reveal significant facial expressions that can either manifest positive or negative

attitudes toward the students' verbal and nonverbal behavior depending on the pedagogical intention.

The nonverbal aspects of communication explained herein have proven to be meaningful complements of the overall human communication. Such conception can also be taken into account for a better understanding of what a successful classroom interaction should mean. For the purposes of this work, I believe that body language is also an influential interactive and pragmatic aspect to interpret students' contributions for their own learning. It is through their body language that students can convey their hidden mental emotions (EKMAN; FRIESEN, 1969) regarding what is done in the classroom.

To reinforce the relevance of body language to oral communication, as it was previously mentioned by the scholars, Weil and Tompakow (2008, p. 144) asserts that "the body speaks what the mind contains"[8]. This means that there are many interactive instances in which what we perceive and want to do and say is more expressed through our body language. On the basis of this argument, what I focus on this study is the need to unveil the students' learning desires and expectations through the analysis of their smile in the EFL classroom interaction.

3.2.1 Nonverbal Elements

According to Pennycook (1985), our bodies constantly convey functional meanings in any interaction, and are always coordinated with the spoken language. Besides, body movements can yield contextual cues to the interlocutor-listener-interpreter in the task of understanding what the interlocutor-speaker has said before. For instance, direct eye contact can signal attentiveness followed by the head movements during interactive encounters. And, while a downcast eyes represent respect in Eastern cultures, in Western cultures might signal misunderstandings during face-to-face encounters.

Another nonverbal behavior, namely touching, varies according to their specific culture. Hall contends that, touching people in interactive encounters varies in social meaning from culture to culture (PENNYCOOK, 1985). For example, while in some cultures touching can be regarded as acceptable in public domains, for others are not acceptable. For North Americans, touching friends can be considered normal as for Japaneses can be conceived as

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[8] From the text in Portuguese: WEIL, P.; TOMPAKOW, R. *O corpo fala*: a linguagem silenciosa da comunicação não-verba. 66. ed. Petrópolis: Vozes, 2008. p. 144.

an impolite behavior. Similar to Hall, Pennycook (1985) sustains that, regardless the purpose in communication, we express ourselves more with actions than with words. Nonverbal resources are used along the spoken language in order to complement the functional meanings of the whole human communication (GREGERSEN, 2007; SANTOS, 2007). Based on research on classroom interaction, both Santos (2007) and Gregersen (2007) assert that the nonverbal signs tend to substitute, contradict, explain or monitor the verbal behavior during oral interactions. Hence, the nonverbal feature of communication needs to be treated with cautious as they are dependent on individual, contextual and cultural factors in the process of understanding and interpreting messages in social interactions.

One of the categories that have received attention in nonverbal studies has been the Paralanguage. Pennycook (1985) explains that paralanguage refers to all aspects of nonverbal communication and, as so, is used as a broad sense, and not as an interrelated subsystem comprising the overall communicative competence. In a narrow sense, this author refers to paralanguage as the paraverbal features in which constitute kinesics, proxemics and the paraverbal features (vocally-produced sounds). They both serve to complement or emphasize the spoken language in conversations. Whatever the nonverbal type of resource used in discourse, all of them have interactive and communicative intentions. (ACIOLI 2007; DANTAS, 2007 OLIVEIRA, 2007; SANTOS, 2007; SOUZA, 2007).

Following this category, nonverbal behavior in human communication can be divided into paralanguage (the vocally-produced sounds), the kinesics (body language, gestures, facial expressions, smile, laughter, eyes movements, and head movements), the proxemics (the distance among the interlocutors) and the silence (lack of linguistic and nonlinguistic constructions in social interactions) (PENNYCOOK, 1985; SANTOS, 2007). Among these nonverbal categories, the one that I give attention in this work is the kinesics, in which the nonverbal behavior, the 'smile', is part of the facial expressions.

According to Ekman and Friesen (1969, p. 55-56), there are three conveyed meanings within nonverbal behavior: informative, communicative and interactive meanings. The communicative meaning is related to "[…] those acts which are clearly and consciously intended by the sender to transmit a specifiable message to the receiver" . In such a case, what matters is the interlocutor-sender's conscious intent to transmit the message, even if no one understands him/her. On the contrary, the informative meaning regards "[…] those acts which have some shared decoding meaning, in that such acts elicit similar interpretations in some set

of observers" (EKMAN; FRIESEN, 1969, p. 55). For this type of nonverbal meaning to be accomplished, there is a need for the interlocutors to share, what Wardhaugh (1985) calls, the same common sense knowledge. Without it, it is inappropriate to understand what the interlocutor-sender intends to transmit. When students comprehend the teacher's explanation about the achievement of an oral task, this means that the informative nature of the interaction was accomplished. On the other hand, when there is a misunderstanding of what has to be done in class activities by the students, this indicates that the informative meaning of interaction failed.

The interactive meaning of nonverbal elements is revealed when the interlocutor-speaker's nonverbal acts influence or modify the interlocutor-receiver's verbal and/or nonverbal behavior (EKMAN; FRIESEN, 1969). That is, "they are acts by one person in an interaction which clearly modify or influence the interactive behavior of the other person" (EKMAN; FRIESEN, 1969, p. 56). This might occur in FL class events when the teacher uses the smile in order to increase the students' oral participation, and students start out to speak with more self- confidence. The smile, sometimes known as a convivial strategy (DANTAS, 2007), can be recognized as an interactive nonverbal behavior as it tends to provoke the interlocutor-receiver's attention to react toward the interlocutor-speaker's nonverbal act.

Studying the interactive meanings of nonverbal signs in EFL classroom interaction can benefit us to see the meanings which are behind of each facial expression or body movements expressed. That is to say, no one can deny the fact that a facial expression of anger or surprise, for example, in the middle of a violent scene description may reinforce the individuals' opinion about that. Nonverbal signs, such as the smile, can provide us additional information about the way(s) the interlocutors of a conversation signal and convey their personal feelings, emotions and expectations about what is being talked about.

Following one of the objectives set for this work - the students' smile in EFL classroom interaction – to deal with the smile is to look into the hidden aspects of communication during classroom interactions. In short, observing students' smiling expression was crucial to attempt to understand their emotions, desires and expectations about the classroom activities and the T's speech when interacting with them. Defined as nonverbal contextualization cues (LEVINSON, 1997), I believe that the students' smile could activate or retrieve the background knowledge base appropriate for the process of inferences to take place. According to data, this study provided evidence that students' smiling expression can

either complement or ignore the interlocutor's speech depending on the contextual information in which they are involved. In this sense, the students' smile could be described as a fundamental interactive contextualization cue (GUMPERZ, 1982) for signaling the interlocutors' expectations and interests to go on or to stop on conversations.

3.2.2 Kinesics

Kinesics is the nonverbal behavior that focuses on the study of movements. Its basic principles are based on Birdwhistell's works (1952), an American anthropologist, in 'Introduction to Kinesics' and 'Kinesics and context' (EKMAN; FRIESEN, 1969; BIRDWHISTELL, 1970). Having the initial model the North-American phonological analysis (phonemics), this nonverbal element examined the movements which constituted distinct unities of the overall gestures. The kinesics analysis involves the facial expressions particularly eye movements, body posture, facial expressions and gestures which pose functional value to the overall act of communication. In this work, the examples provided on the use of smile showed that such nonverbal element might serve to complement or contradict the spoken language, as well as to block any type of oral interaction.

Birdwhistell (1970) argued that all kinesics movements (gestures, posture, head movements, facial expressions) managed in social interactions are culture-oriented. They tend to add significant social meanings in relation to the act of communication in different cultures. The meaning of smiling, for example, is one of the facial expressions that vary from culture to culture. In Eastern culture, particularly in China and Japan, women tend to cover their mouths when they smile in oral interactions. In EFL classrooms, where there are students from different countries studying together, the Japanese female students tend to smile timidly, not showing their teeth. I could observe this nonverbal behavior when I studied abroad in Cambridge at a private language school in 1993. That could be noticed outside and inside classroom when we talked about funny stories or events among the classmates or with the teacher. The Western female students, on the contrary, tended to smile naturally without hiding the mouth and the teeth. It seemed that the Western female students were more self-confident in expressing their emotions than the Eastern ones.

Next, a description of the categories of gestures (EKMAN; FRIESEN, 1969) is presented.

3.2.3   Ekman and Friesen's Categories of Gestures

How can we perceive and interpret what someone is intentionally or not intentionally saying through his/her body movements? A fixed eye contact (gaze), crossing arms, being silent, having a tough posture toward others, smiling in an unusual context and looking down, for example, can convey an array of meanings depending on the contextual circumstances that surround their use. The readings of nonverbal signs, that can be related and/or unrelated with the verbal behavior, can be derived from observations of body movements and facial expressions (EKMAN; FRIESEN, 1969).

According to Ekman and Friesen (1969), nonverbal signs can be classified according to their use, origin and category. The term 'use' can be understood as the environment that surrounds the nonverbal act. It has to do with the contextual factors which are responsible for the realization of the nonverbal acts. The term 'origin' refers to the social motivation of the nonverbal acts, i.e. how the nonverbal behavior turns out to be part of the individual's repertoire in specific contexts. The term 'category' can be seen as a hierarchical classification of the nonverbal behavior. With these definitions in mind, the gestures are divided into: emblems, illustrators, regulators, adaptors and affective displays.

The emblems are seen as symbolic gestures which are culturally acquired and learned, and as so, are intentionally used. They can be recognized as speech-independent gestures since their meanings and use are culturally accepted. This includes a goodbye wave, a peace sign or a wave hello which vary across cultures (EKMAN; FRIESEN, 1969). The illustrators, in turn, are speech-dependent nonverbal signs. They often accompany the individual's speech in order to give emphasis to a word or phrase expressed by the interlocutor-speaker. Politicians often use their hand movements when speaking to a large audience as if they wanted to increase eloquence and clarity for public audience. The regulators are, then, regarded as the nonverbal acts that tend to maintain and/or regulate the flow of conversations. Providing such interactional function, the regulators indicate that the interlocutor-speaker intends to stop, to continue, to repeat the message or that suggests to the interlocutor-listener to speak. It is the regulator that orients the organization of the turn-taking systems of the interlocutors.

The adaptors, another gestural behavior, are acts that facilitate the release of body tensions in oral interactions. Biting one's nails or playing with objects while someone is

speaking, for example, might indicate that a person is nervous around the speaker or is disinterested in the interlocutor-speaker's message. Crossing arms in conversations is also regarded as an adaptor sign. This nonverbal sign might indicate that the interlocutor-speaker does not want to listen to the speaker or wants the interlocutor-speaker to stop the conversations or to change the topic.

The affective displays are gestures that express affection, emotions and feelings. These gestures are displayed through facial expressions such as smiling, crying, frowing or laughting. The smile - the affective display analyzed in this work - is a nonverbal communication sign that tends to be universally associated with enjoyable emotions. In social interactions, the smile tends to relieve tensions, easy the relationships and build trustfulness among people. That is why the smile tends to be known as an instrument of joining rather than leaving people apart. The smile is commonly regarded as a sign of friendship and seen as "[…] the facial signal of the enjoyable emotions." (EKMAN, 2003, p. 204).

For the purposes of this work, the study of gestural elements served to trace the students' nonverbal profile in relation to what they do during class activities. According to Ekman and Friesen (1969), the person's gestures, identified by any movement or position of the face or body, can be an indicative of the nature of emotion expressed during face-to-face encounters. In the case of affective displays – the object under investigation in this work – the smile showed to be a valuable interactive and informative nonverbal element that allowed me to discuss its contribution for the students' oral production in class activities.

3.2.4 Defining the Smile

"Determined facial expressions seem to be associated to emotions that are common to all human beings" (RECTOR; TRINTA, 1993, p. 57).[9] In parties where friends have fun, the spontaneous smile is most often recognized as a sign of joy and happiness. In wedding ceremonies, someone might indicate a social smile maybe because he/she does not feel comfortable in that occasion but he/she was invited to be present. There are many interactive events where the smile, whatever its type, tends to be socially recognized by all participants depending on the contextual aspects which surrounds its display.

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[9] From the text in Portuguese: "Determinadas expressões faciais parecem associadas a emoções que são comuns a todos os seres humanos" RECTOR, M; TRINTA, A. R. *Comunicação do corpo*. 2. ed. São Paulo: Ática, 1993. p.57.

Although the smile is commonly accepted as a facial expression that denotes joy and satisfaction, its origin comes from the facial expression of fear (FREITAS-MAGALHÃES, 2006). The smile-face may be traced to the primate's grimace or fear grin, as to sign ways of self- defense. Initially, it was among the animals that the smile was connected as a threat since it exposes the teeth, or a sign of submission. Then, the primate used the fear-smile-face by showing his teeth when in the context of animals attack to his environment. By doing so, the primates tended to suggest that they were harmless. Their smile started out to show a peaceful and friendly meaning. With its evolvement in human communication, the smile turned out to be related to joy, happiness and pleasure (FREITAS-MAGALHÃES, 2006). The fear-smile compared to the joy-smile began to be recognized in human communication in accordance to the context that surrounds their use (DAVIES, 1979).

The definition of a smiling expression can also be traced according to physiological and psychological perspectives of study. In physiology, a smile is a facial expression which is formed by flexing the facial muscles; when the corners of the mouth curve upward and the outer corners of the eyes crinkle into crow's feet. The physiology has also been the starting point to further studies about the smiling expression. Observing the way(s) each facial muscle changes people's appearance, Duchenne de Boulogne (a French neurologist) (EKMAN, 2003) found out different types of smile analyzing the movement of the zygomaticus muscle near the mouth and the obicularis muscle near the eyes. Later, other definitions have inherited the physiological concept to delineate what a smile can denote in an array of interactive events.

From the psychological viewpoint, the smile is a facial expression that denotes different types of emotions. According to the features of the face, a smile is often connected with emotions which denote happiness, satisfaction, approval, pleasure, amusement. But it can also denote irony, derision, dissatisfaction, unhappiness of a feeling in specific interactive events (DAVIES, 1979; EKMAN, 2003; FREITAS- MAGALHÃES, 2006). Studies on the Psychology area have shown that the smile is a bio-psycho-social phenomenon. Since it is culturally formed and defined, the social meanings stemmed from the smile suffer alterations in different social encounters. For this reason, the smile conveys the interlocutors' psycho-social specific intentions during social encounters, revealing a variety of emotional, interpersonal and interactive meanings. Through the smile in face-to-face interactions, the interlocutors can reveal their social position and role, the level of intimacy established among

them and can indicate personal attitude and expectations (DAVIES, 1979; FREITAS-MAGALHÃES, 2006) in relation to the conversation objectives.

In what follows, a description of different types of smile is presented.

3.2.5 Types of Smile

Expressed conscious or unconsciously, the smiling expression is often associated with human emotions. Besides, its meanings can only be understood in the light of the interactive event which is inserted. That is to say, it can only be interpreted by reference of who produces it, of who receives it and of the contextual information that surrounds its realization (EKMAN, 2003; FREITAS-MAGALHÃES, 2006). For example, let us suppose that a five-year old naughty boy received a severe complaint from his mother after having broken a porcelain vase of the dining room. Besides, his sister was watching such scene giving a smile. While this boy manifested an ashamed facial expression due to his mother's complaint, his sister smiled at him as if she was criticizing his behavior. In Ekman's words (2003, p. 210), this sister's smile "[…] acknowledges unenjoyable emotions; it shows you are a good sport, that you can take the criticism and still smile about it".

The first typology of the smile came from Duchenne de Boulogne's study of facial expression "by electrically stimulating different parts of the face and photographing the resulting muscular contractions" (EKMAN, 2003, p. 204-205). Based on research in a Psychiatry clinic, this French neurologist found out "how true enjoyment smile differs from all of the nonenjoyment smiles" (EKMAN, 2003, p. 204) by observing the way(s) each facial muscle changes people's appearance.

According to his findings, Duchenne asserted that there are involuntary and voluntary smiles. The involuntary smile involves the movement of the zygomaticus muscle near the mouth and the obicularis muscle which is near the eyes. This smile reveals a true smile as "it is only brought into play by a true feeling, by an agreeable emotion" (EKMAN, 2003, p. 205-206). Because of his definition, Ekman calls the true smile of enjoyment a Duchenne smile (EKMAN, 2003).

In turn, the voluntary smile can also be known as the polite smile, yellow smile or masked smile, as shown in the example of the first paragraph. This type of smile is voluntary since it often appears "[…] when people do not feel enjoyment of any kind […]" (EKMAN,

2003, p. 204) or, in Duchenne's words, "unmasks a false friend" (EKMAN, 2003, p. 206). That is why the voluntary smile does not show a real meaning as it represents a mask to hide any unfavorable feeling, emotion or to avoid worry and sadness to others. The Japanese people, for example, tend to smile even when a relative dies. For them, smiling is not a matter of affective insensibility but a way to prevent their sadness to others (RECTOR; TRINTA, 1993).

Another typology of smile is based on the functions it assumes in different interactive events and social contexts. According to Freitas-Magalhães (2006), the smiling expression presents three functions. First, the smile appears in the expressions of emotions and interpersonal attitudes. Second, it is related to the sending of meaningful signs in any ongoing social interaction. And third, it indicates typical aspects of the individual personality. Although the smile has been defined as an affective and social reaction to external stimulus, it suffers meaningful alterations grounded on cultural patterns and experiences of social interactions.

For this reason, this author categorized the smile in five types: the primitive, the reflex, the exogenous, the instrumental and the coordinated smile. The primitive smile is shown in the answers to the neurobiological excitements and does not represent relation to the outside world. Such behavior can be noticed during the period in which the baby is sleeping; only the mouth and face move. This neurological dimension of the smile might determine the beginning of the child smile development (FREITAS-MAGALHÃES, 2006). The reflex, or endogenous smile, can be regarded as instinctive. The baby smiles using all muscles of the face; characterizing the beginning of the smile morphology. Such endogenous smile is the result of the internal brain operations, notably seen in the babies, with no external interference for its realization.

The exogenous smile manifests relation to the outside stimulus. This smile is regarded as an effective response to outside actions and/or sayings. Being socially used as a conduct and strategy of affection, the exogenous smile favors affective proximity among the participants. It is the smile of flirting. This smile can be seen when a man flirts a woman for the first time, and uses such smile to show his affective interest to her. The instrumental smile can be managed at interactive moments for intentional purposes. For example, smiling in political circumstances may indicate a friendly mechanism for asking votes as if the candidates were saying 'If I smile people will find me friendly'. In turn, the coordinated or

organizational smile appears when the social smile has been already established. This smile reflects the individual's attitudinal mechanism when corresponding it with a happy tone of voice (FREITAS-MAGALHÃES, 2006).

Anchored by the scholars' typologies and definitions of smile previously mentioned, I intended to stress in this work the important interactive function the smile plays in EFL classroom interaction. What is behind the students' smile? Which meanings does the students' smile inform in different class events? And which contextual factors were responsible for the realization of the students' smile in different interactive moments? Motivated by these questions, I intended to identify the types of students' smile encountered in the class moments to discuss their contribution (or not) in relation to the students' oral production.

3.3   Nonverbal Elements in Classroom Interaction Research

Conversation normally takes place when at least two people are talking be that in a face-to-face encounter or in telephone or in any internet resources such as in messenger (msn), skype, facebook or orkut. In face-to-face encounters, to talk is not only to open the mouth and spread out words. It is much more than this (WARDHAUGH, 1998). It also involves body language, i.e. touch, gestures, eye contact, smile, hand and head movements are invariably present while we verbally communicate. This same communicative procedure occurs in the classroom context. Not only the voice but also the nonverbal behavior, be that from T and from the students, is in constant (re)negotiation focusing on a favorable teaching and learning environment. With this argument in mind, it was through the studies involving Conversational Analysis (MARCUSCHI, 1991; ARMENGAUD, 2006; KERBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006) that the classroom has been regarded a place whereby the implications about the teaching and learning of EFL stem from classroom interaction.

Based on the teachers' discursive practices, studies have demonstrated that T's nonverbal actions normally complement, in meaning and functionally, T's speech (DANTAS, 2007; OLIVEIRA, 2007; SANTOS, 2007; SOUZA, 2007). That is to say, T's nonverbal elements provide a valuable interactive function in classroom discourse. Both contributing to EFL classroom interaction and to the teaching and learning processes as a whole, T's nonverbal signs attempt to reinforce and orient his/her speech, facilitate the students' learning, indicate T's reactions in relation to the students' behavior (LORSCHER, 2003; SOUZA, 2007; SIME, 2008) and promote a funny learning atmosphere (DANTAS, 2007).

Interested in Textual Linguistics to Pedagogical discourse, Maria Francisca Oliveira Santos (2007) organized a book entitled *"Os Elementos verbais e não verbais no discurso em sala de aula"* whose aim was to explore the nonverbal elements in the pedagogical discourse such as gestures, head movements and facial expressions. Grounded on the interactional-pragmatic perspective, Santos (2007) and other scholars analyzed the relation between nonverbal and verbal elements of classroom discourse, giving priority to the nonverbal ones focusing on their implication to the process of teaching and learning as a whole.

The study of T's gestures has been mostly observed by reference to T's pedagogical intentions during classroom interaction. Souza (2007) examined the relation between the T's gestures and his/her oral discourse to see whether they maintain an interactive relation between T and students or not. It was observed ten lessons of the Science discipline, from the 6th grade of the elementary school, from public and private schools in Maceió, Alagoas. Souza (2007) claims for the importance of gestures in the process of oral communication, since they prove to be of fundamental interactive value to facilitate and orient the reading of T's speech.

The correspondence between what is said and what is nonverbally performed by T can be seen in other studies, emphasizing the role of T's gestures in many classroom instances. According to Acioli (2007), Santos (2007) and Souza (2007), the expressive gestures are illustrated when they provide an interactive support to the class content, to regulate, to translate the word meanings and organize the pedagogical discourse as a way to facilitate the students' comprehension during class explanations. For example, T's hand movements are used to emphasize oral explanations or to control the students' behavior during the classes (ACIOLI, 2007).

Other studies have discussed about the expressive value of T's gestures by reference of the students' perceptions, i.e. the students' perceptions of T's gestures. Lorscher (2003) observed T's nonverbal signs in schools in Germany, in 1972 and 1994, and stressed that the learners tend to interpret T's gestures correctly. According to the students, T's gestures tend to be used to provide positive feedback, to highlight information and to replace the verbal elements when the lexemes are unknown by them. This particularly occurs with a high intensity at the beginner level and within phases in which fictitious communication takes place, i.e. in moments of role play when learners are expected to act out a story. With more advanced learners, the amount of T's gestures tends to be reduced.

One particular T's nonverbal element that has conveyed different functional meanings is the smile. Dantas (2007), for example, reflected upon how T's smile could contribute to EFL learning in an English Classroom at the extension school of English from the Federal University of Alagoas. Believing that verbal and nonverbal types of behavior cannot be studied separately; one complements another for the understanding of human communication as a whole, Dantas (2007) examined T' smile by reference of what she did and said in the classroom. With this argument in mind, Dantas (2007) found out that the smile was used: (1) to increase classroom interaction through a convivial strategy (a balance between the instructional and the spontaneous discourse); (2) to promote a funny learning environment therefore favoring students learning; (3) and to reprimand students (exerting power and saving face) for not doing their homework. Although her work gave emphasis on T's smile influence to EFL learning, she could also notice that T's smile helped lower the affective filter between T and students, favoring an increasing amount of oral interaction among them.

T's smile could also be noticed as a responsive mechanism of both T and students' actions in classroom interaction. Lewis (2005) and Sime (2008) observed that T's smile tends to appear when they provide positive feedback to the learners' output. The smile turns out to be a sign of approval of the students' answers and/or comments. On the other hand, the smile could be seen in regard to the students' reaction to some T's verbal behavior. Lewis (2005) noticed that the female students often smile more than the male students after T's joke, when others say funny stories and during pair works.

Along with the expressive eye contact, T's smile can provide different pedagogical objectives according to different interactive moments in the classroom. Oliveira (2007) observed T's smile to describe its functional meanings between T and students' interaction. Two types of smile were noticed. The first smile could be regarded as a manifestation of enjoyment, also namely a true smile. This smile was observed during interactive moments when T agrees with the students' answers or in moments that deal with jokes. It was, then, often displayed during informal interaction among T and students. The second smile could be seen as a polite instrument of social contact that could be named as a social smile. Such smile could be observed in interactive moments that T gives a reprimand or when T disagrees with some student's comment.

The study of smile in classroom interaction can also reflect its cultural meaning from a specific community. Bohn (2004) investigated how Japanese smile culture influence Japanese

students' participation in an ESL classroom. Through a questionnaire to students and classroom observation, the author found out that the smile serves as a sign of politeness or kind of etiquette among the students, and between the students and the teacher. Also, the smile tends to be used to protect privacy, to show interest, to appear friendly and to listen carefully. In protecting privacy, the smile is often managed as a way to prevent the personal feelings on the event itself. For example, when asked if they understood the lesson or not, Japanese students tend to smile instead of expressing verbally their sensations. The smile is, thus, replaced by the verbal signs as a way to signal a lack of desire to orally participate in classes.

For the purposes of this work, all the studies which were mentioned in this chapter have shown to be of great importance for two reasons. On one hand, there is the T's verbal contribution to the students' EFL learning. Based on most classroom interaction research, which was cited above, T's talk has often appeared in classroom interactional tasks emphasizing a strong institutional-oriented talk. Many findings have shown that T's speech along with the interactive actions tend to lead to learning achievements. That is to say, what teachers verbally express tend to reflect upon their pedagogical objectives, i.e. what, how and why is to be taught (CONSOLO; VANI, 2006; FIGUEIREDO, 2006; GARCEZ, 2006).

Taking into account what was pinpointed by the scholars in this chapter, for the purposes of this work, EFL classroom interaction is meant to be the result of T and students' joint efforts for accomplishing an effective learning and teaching environment for students' foreign language oral production. These efforts come from two interactive sources. The first interactive source is T's discourse markers. I intend to stress in this study that T's discourse markers might serve as an interactive and pragmatic motivation in relation to students' oral production in some class events of classroom interactions. Considered as pragmatic operators (URBANO, 2003) and interactional organizers within the talk units (SCHIFRIN, 1987), I argue that T's appropriate use of discourse markers can construct potential for the students' oral learning or not.

The second interactive source is the students' smile during T and students' interaction and among other students in oral tasks (MARCUSCHI, 1991; KOCH, 2006). The analysis of students' smile emerged as a responsive mechanism of T's speech, and could also be seen as contextualization cues (GUMPERZ, 1982) in T and students' interactions and among the students. As a contextualization cue, the students' smile is seen as a signaling mechanism of

contextual inferences or presuppositions. To understand what is behind one student's smile, we should understand under what context the smile is displayed, how semantic content is related to the smile and which sentences precede or follow the smile within the talk units. T's speech, then, becomes part of this contextual inference since it might be placed before and after the students' smile.

In what follows, a detailed explanation about the methodological approach used in this study is described.

4   METHODOLOGY

The present study focused on the analysis of classroom interaction in EFL at college level. Aiming at describing and interpreting the interactive sources used by both teacher and students, it was my intention to analyze the interplay of the teacher's verbal element (discourse markers) and the students' nonverbal element (the smile) in some interactional events that had as a pedagogical objective the promotion of students' oral production.

The theoretical strength to deal with classroom interaction research lies initially in Pragmatic studies (see chapter 1 for more details). The language is investigated by means of the inter-relation of language structure and the principles of language use by its users (LEVINSON, 1983; MEY, 2001). The co-construction of meanings, which are implicit and derived from classroom interaction, are functional and socio-cultural marked. It is functional as it unfolds the interlocutors' communicative intentions through their utterances and actions throughout the ongoing process of knowledge co-construction. It is socio-culturally shaped since it priors the language use under a specific context of culture and situations. Therefore, it involves "[…] the study of communicative action in its sociocultural context" (ROSE; KASPER, 2001, p. 2).

The second field of inquiry on which I based the research is Interactional Sociolinguistics (IS) (GUMPERZ, 1982, see chapter 1 for more details). This approach of discourse focuses on the study of the social organization of discourse. With reference to linguistic analysis, it deals with the mechanics of conversations. How the topic is developed as well as the construction of turn-taking systems in different contexts of language use are some instances of research under IS. In sociological terms, IS holds the function of unfolding the social meanings which tends to be implicit in the co-construction of knowledge in any interactive engagement. Under this theoretical trend, the interlocutors are seen as active constructors of social interactions. They are in charge of (re)creating, maintaining, developing, and changing any conversational strategies which are made relevant to fulfill their communicative objectives in the course of face-to-face encounters (GUMPERZ, 1982; KOCH, 2006; TAVARES, 2007).

One of the trends of Pragmatics which I used throughout the classroom analysis was Conversation Analysis (CA hitherto). It primarily deals with the study of language in use in both institutional and daily settings. Its major worry is to unfold the mechanisms of face-to-

face interaction, namely conversation, from the form and content perspectives. In terms of form, CA attempts to describe the structural organization of conversations by looking into, for example, the construction of turn-taking systems and the sequences of turns. In terms of content, it analyzes the topic organization, i.e. the topic change and development (MARCUSCHI, 1991; MEY, 2001; GOFFMAN, 2002; ARMENGAUD, 2006).

A discursive approach of analysis based on the Ethnomethodology study, CA investigates the meaning-making process of the interlocutors in any interactional encounter, taking into account the socio-cultural context in which they are involved. As it consists of analysis of actions-in-context, the linguistic variables and varieties, the intonation, the rhythm, the speech style, the gestures and body movements, eye contact, all are seen as part of the whole process of face-to-face interaction. In the present study, I examined the interplay of verbal and nonverbal behavior toward the process of the students' oral production. More specifically, I focused on the interplay of the teacher's discourse markers and the students' smile at interactive moments whose aim was on the students' oral production. The context analyzed was the institutional, i.e. a college. The interlocutors were specific to the context: a teacher and students of English language 1. In an attempt to describe the reality of the Letters Program from an ethnographic perspective, I investigated the social meanings of the teacher and students' discursive practices in the EFL classroom.

It is, hence, the objective of this chapter to present the step-by-step of the classroom research method adopted. Initially, I describe the setting whereby I carried out the research. A brief of its history, its course functioning and objective are outlined. Second, I explain the type of research used by pointing out the definition, its historical perspective and, later on, I describe the steps which I followed to build the *corpus* in order to observe, report and transcribe the classroom research. The following part is devoted to the description of the participants involved in the research. In the fourth part, Data collection and Procedure, I point out the instruments used, explain how classroom observation was done, show the findings of the teacher's interview, the students' questionnaire and explain the video-recording stage. By the end, I describe and explain the type of transcription I used.

4.1   The Faculty

The institution I carried out this study is the State University of Paraiba in Campina Grande, Paraíba. Founded in 1955, initially as Faculty of Philosophy, then absorbed by the Foundation of the Regional University of the Northeast, later on as the State University of Paraiba in 1975, and recognized by the Federal Counselor of Education in 1996, the university aims at educating citizens from the perspective of knowledge construction and socialization. It accounts for the educational development and socio-cultural development of the Northeast region, more specifically of the State of Paraiba.

The Letters Program, from the Department of Letters and Arts (DLA), is one of the courses of CEDUC – Education Center. Its under-graduate course emphasizes critical citizen formation involved with social responsibility, ethic and professionalism. Its objective, therefore, is to promote opportunities for the development of abilities needed to acquire a desired competence in the professional field; to prior a student-centered pedagogical approach developing the students' autonomy; to promote constant harmony among teaching, research and extension besides a direct articulation with post-graduate courses and to define a professional profile of the students, basic curriculum activities, complementary and the teaching stage.

It is worthwhile mentioning here that the course descriptions as well as the objective of the disciplines are outlined in the Course Pedagogical Project, which is included in the attached Cd.

The program comprises disciplines which can be categorized as: basics, didactic-pedagogical and complementary. The basics are English language I to VI, Linguistic I, II and III, Theory and Critical Literature I and II, English Literature I to IV, North American Literature I and II, Phonetics of English language I and II, Writing in English language I and II, TAO (Academic Oriented Work). The didactic-pedagogical are Philosophy of Education, Sociology of Education, Didactic Process and Evaluation, Psychology development and Learning, Pedagogical Practice I and II, Monitored Stage I to IV. The complementary ones are Portuguese language, Translation, Scientifics Methodology, Applied research to English language and literature, Psycholinguistic, Sociolinguistics and Stylistics.

The objective of the Letters Program is to develop the necessary teaching skills and specific knowledge in the area of Portuguese, English and Spanish languages and their respective literatures. While the basic disciplines are devoted to specific knowledge formation in the Language and Literature areas, the didactic-pedagogical ones focus on knowledge formation in teaching and learning development. The complementary disciplines deal with specific areas of the language study. That is to say, the course not only centers on the development of language and literary studies but also attempts to articulate interdisciplinary knowledge types, with teaching, research and extension, as needed practices in the Language Studies area.

In the English language area, the disciplines English I, II, III, IV, V, VI deal with the study of language from the pre-intermediate to the upper-intermediate level. The English language I, the one which I researched during the year 2008, is categorized in the axis listening/speaking. That is, it aims at the morphology and syntax of English language involving the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) at the pre-intermediate level, with emphasis on the oral skills, as it is seen in the curriculum program to all disciplines of English Area in the first year (see attached CD for the course pedagogical project).

The Letters Program holds two sessions of classes a day: in the morning and in the evening. In the morning, the course takes place from 7 a.m until 11:50 a.m. In the evenings, the schedule ranges from 18:30 to 21:30 p.m. In the English language area, we have a total of 10 (ten) teachers divided into the Literature and Language subareas. For the Language area, we have 7 (seven) teachers. The discipline which I conducted the research in the year 2008, English language 1, took place in the morning, on Tuesdays and Thursdays, from 8:40 to 11:10 a.m. There was a total of 6 hours a week to cover 99 hours/ class for the semester.

The Letters Program pedagogical project is organized and defined by the superior members of the department. They are the head of the department and the coordinators of the Portuguese, Spanish and English areas, and of the course. By the end of each semester, they meet for a systematic evaluation of the course in order to adjust the initial proposals in relation to the curricular components and course program organization. Also, they attest the course program fulfillment with reference to each curricular component. For this reason, an evaluative committee is required to assess the teachers' performance concerning their course program fulfillment and to formulate a questionnaire to look into the students' performance during the semester.

4.2   The Research

The present research method is based on ethnography. Ethnographic research is a field of inquiry which describes and interprets the social reality from the participants' perceptions in moments of social interaction (HOLSTEIN; BUBRIUM, 2002). In order to interpret the interactional processes from a certain social event, research relies on fieldwork. The analyst needs to become immersed in the context of situation under investigation to initially understand the cultural system of the interactional processes. Because this research approach stems from social practices in natural settings, the analyst examines actions of social life. That is to say, such methodological approach investigates both the interlocutors' verbal and nonverbal behavior to comprehend how the conversational act is organized. For example, observing what students and teacher do in the classroom context, the analyst can describe and interpret how teacher and students use the nonverbal and verbal elements of communication to construct their social identities in the classroom throughout their interaction (HOLSTEIN; BUBRIUM, 2002).

Ethnographic research emerges from the Ethno methodology as to yield the relationship between culture and society. This empirical method of inquiry had its origin with the American Social Anthropology in the 1960's and was coined by Harold Garfinkel (GARFINKEL, 1984; COULON, 2005). Having received influence by the symbolic interactionism, which takes into account knowledge as socially (re)constructed by the individuals from daily interactions, ethno methodology is used to describe and interpret the individuals' practical common knowledge (procedures, actions, activities and techniques) to find out how they perceive and make sense of the reality around them (WARDHAUGH, 1998; COULON, 2005; TAVARES, 2006).

To describe, for the ethnographer, means to observe-and-report the world around them. As Coulon (2005) explains, " if I describe a scene of my daily life, it does not mean that I explain the world in the light of the ethnomethodologists but, in doing so, my description makes the world, it constructs the world".[10] Therefore, there are four principles which lead this research approach: 1. There is a initial contact to find out the area and people that take part of it; 2. It is holistic as it believes that social behavior is connected to specific contexts in order to fulfill certain objectives; 3. It deals with description as it describes the reality as it is;

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[10] From the text in Spanish "[…] si describe una escena de mi vida cotidiana, no es por <<explicar>> El mundo por lo que interessaria a um etnometodólogo, sino porque, al realizarse, mi descripción <<fabrica>> el mundo, lo constuye" (p.49).

4. It is based on the participants' viewpoint of the social reality (WARDHAUGH, 1998; COULON, 2005).

The ethnographic research is based on qualitative research. Following a different line of perspective, qualitative research "[…] is characterized to put focus on the perception the participants have about the linguistic interaction and social context in which they are involved, through the use of instruments such as field notes, diaries, interviews, etc"[11] (MOITA LOPES, 1996, p. 22). It is through this methodological approach that classroom research analyzes language in use from the process viewpoint. In other words, it is through the analysis of all interactive processes involved in the classroom context, such as the teacher and students' procedures and the teacher's and students' conversational strategies that the analysts can characterize classroom interaction. From this methodological standpoint, interaction is defined and outlined from the participants' awareness about their social roles, oral and nonverbal performances, and their discursive-pragmatic objectives during their face-to-face encounters (MARCUSCHI, 1991; WARDHAUGH, 1998).

According to this methodological research, Garfinkel calls the procedures, methods and activities used by the individuals as practical common sense knowledge (WARDHAUGH, 1998; COULON, 2005). Because of its reflexive and interpretive nature, the practical common sense knowledge follows four principles: 1. Index, which refers to the choice of words according to their situations of use; 2. Reflexivity, which brings the idea that it is through interaction that the social meanings and practices are (re)created; 3. Accountability which is reflexive and logical since it is the individuals who are in charge of describing and (re)constructing their world and 4. the notion of membership. Issues that point out how people use language in their relationships, how individuals employ their common sense knowledge which is acquired through experience of social interactions, are some of the questions that the ethno methodologists are worried about when observing-and-reporting social realities from different contexts.

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[11] From the text in Portuguese "[...] a pesquisa etnográfica é caracterizada por colocar foco na percepção que os participantes têm da interação lingüística e do contexto social em que estão envolvidos, através da utilização de instrumentos tais como notas de campo, diários, entrevistas etc." MOITA LOPES, L. P. da (Org). *Oficina de lingüística aplicada*: a natureza social e educacional dos processos de ensino/aprendizagem de línguas. Campinas: Mercado de Letras, 1996. p. 22.

Still based on Harold Garfinkel's standpoint (GARFINKEL, 1984; COULON, 2005), social facts cannot be seen as objects alone but as a product of continuing practices by its members who put into practice their beliefs, behavior and social rules, all related to a certain context. In other words, it is from the participants' perception and description of their social reality according to their common sense knowledge that they give meaning to things and, consequently, to everyday life that surrounds them (NEVES, 1996; COULON, 2005; BORTONI-RICARDO; PEREIRA, 2006). Interaction, therefore, should be treated by analysts as a process-oriented methodological approach. Once the individuals put into practice their actions, they describe and create the world around them. In Coulon's words (2005, p. 49), "to make the world visible is to make my action comprehensible when I describe it, as I make sense on it when I reveal the procedures I employ to express it"[12].

Since this study focused on face-to-face interaction in the classroom context, conversation analysis (CA) was the trend of analysis used for transcription of data (See chapter 3 for more detail about CA). According to the objectives that CA holds and the principles that underlie the qualitative research, three aspects need to be taken into account for the analysis: (1) the contextual information, i.e. what actually happens in the event itself; (2) the interlocutors' characteristics, i.e. their social and cultural background; (3) the interlocutors' communicative strategies, i.e. the verbal and nonverbal elements used throughout the interactive encounter (SACKS; SCHEGLOFF; JEFFERSON, 1978; MARCUSCHI, 1991; GOFFMAN, 2002; ARMENGAUD, 2006; KERBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006). Hence, the CA employs the techniques of the ethno methodology so as to describe all the procedures, activities and methods the individuals employ in oral interactions.

As the *corpus* of conversation analysis comes from interactive sequences of natural occurrence, "the data consists of tape-recording and transcriptions of conversation" (LEVINSON, 1983, p. 326). In Levinson words,

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[12] From the text in Spanish: "Hacer visible el mundo es hacer comprensible mi acción al describirla, porque doy a entender su sentido al revelar los procedimientos que empleo para expresarla" COULON, A. *La etnometodología*. 3. ed. Catedra: Madrid, 2005. p. 49.

> […] CA methodology is based on three basic procedures (a) collecting recurrent patterns in the data, and hypothesizing sequential expectations based on these; (b) showing that such sequential expectations actually are oriented to by participants; and (c) showing that, as a consequence of such expectations, while some organizational problems are resolved, others are actually created, for which further organizations will be required.

Based on the definition previously explained, in order to build the *corpus* and carry out this work, I needed to use the techniques and methods of ethno methodology and the conversational analysis (CA). First, a direct contact with the teacher and the students was made to explain the objective of study. That is to say, it was from their practices in the classroom context that the data should emerge so that I could describe and interpret the interactional processes they use to make classroom interaction possible to occur. After that, I began classroom observation, moving on to the interview with the teacher, to an application of a questionnaire to the students and, finally, to video-recording the classroom setting (all stages of such research are outlined in the following part of this chapter).

4.3   Participants

The participants who took part in this study, were one teacher and her students from two different groups of the discipline English language I. In the first semester 2008.1, there were fourteen students, and at the second semester 2008.2, there were eighteen students. It is worthwhile pointing out herein that the same teacher conducted these two different groups both in the first and second semester of the year 2008. This work was carried out at the Letters Program, at the State University of Paraiba (UEPB), Campina Grande, Paraíba.

4.3.1 Teacher

One teacher from the Letters Program, from the area of English Language, of the discipline English Language 1, at Paraiba State University (UEPB), in Campina Grande, Paraiba, was chosen for the research. The criteria for the selection of the teacher were the following: 1. availability to participate in the study; 2. the teacher had to teach the discipline English Language 1; 3. the choice of these disciplines should have been in accordance with the course pedagogical project (see Pedagogical Project of the Letters Programm[13]), since

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[13] UNIVERSIDADE ESTADUAL DA PARAÍBA. Centro de Educação. Departamento de Letras e Artes. Projeto Pedagógico do Curso de Letras. Campina Grande, 2006. Disponível em: http://www.uepb.edu.br/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=278%3Adepartamento-de-letras-e-artes-dla&catid=91&Itemid=118

they are devoted to the development of students' oral skills, the objective this work is about to discuss.

Before the beginning of the research, I had an initial contact with the teacher. After explaining to her that the ethnographic research was part of the doctoral study, she agreed on helping me to observe her classes. She is a young professional, around her forties, who has been teaching English for thirteen years. She has taught from high school level, through private language schools to college level. As she liked studying English in small groups, the method applied in one of the language school she studied motivated her to become a teacher of English. She is a professional who graduated in Administration Course, then in the Letters Program (Portuguese/English) at the State University of Paraiba. Later on, she acquired a Diploma certificate in Hospital Administration at UNAERPE, Minas Gerais, and a Diploma certificate in Applied Linguistics at the Federal University of Campina Grande, Paraiba.

When asked about the most appropriate teaching approach to be used in the classroom at college level I could notice that she favors communication as prior to the development of the class, as she said: "The communicative approach, even when the students become resistant to talk". According to the teacher (T), the effective type of teaching at college level involves all learning approaches leading to a more collaborative work in group activities.

According to my observations and interview with the teacher, her lessons are based on the Communicative Approach principles (BROWN, 2001). This can be seen at moments when she organizes her lessons with pair and group work activities, often emphasizing students' oral practice through collaborative learning. As Brown (2001, p. 47) asserts, "in cooperative learning models, a group learning activity is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners". As T said in the interview, she believes that it is through group activities that students, even being resistant to talk, may help one another in order to accomplish the oral task. This fact was corroborated throughout research. Both in pair and group activities, I could observe the students' joint efforts to accomplish the oral activities, particularly when the most advanced students helped the pre-intermediate ones to express themselves during the class activities.

4.3.2   Students

As I observed two semesters of English language 1 during the year 2008, two different groups of students took part in the research. Twenty two students came from the first semester (2008.1) but only fourteen students remained in the group. In the second semester (2008.2), there were eighteen students. I did not apply any questionnaire to the second group since I took the first group into account for tracing a general profile of the students' learning experience in EFL at college level.

As for their socio-cultural background, the majority of students from the two semesters came from a low social class. While in the first semester (2008.1) there were eight students, in the second semester (2008.2) there were twelve who had studied English at high school from public institutions. Their age varied from seventeen to twenty-two years old. This means that they were predominantly young adults. According to the third question of the questionnaire applied to all students (see Appendix B), the English language is a pre-requisite for professional growth and, to become a qualified professional, they need to study it. There was a minimum of interest, that is to say, lack of internal motivation to study English. English language seems to be part of their external motivation to become future teachers.

Giving up studying the English language area in the Letters Program has been a usual student's procedure due to their lack of awareness about the course objectives. In the first researched group, there were initially twenty-two students enrolled in the first semester (2008.1) but eight gave up continuing the course. Fourteen remained. According to outside conversations during break time I had with some students, they probably gave up continuing studying the discipline because they felt their proficiency level was too low to follow the English classes. Or that it was not what they expected about the discipline and the course objective. This can be said based on their general belief about the Letters Program in the English language area. They believe that the classes are for them to learn English, as it occurs in most private language courses. When they notice that all classes are taught in English, and that the focus is to improve the language and not learn the English language from the very beginning, they give up continuing. Then, they preferred to move to the Portuguese area.

According to the teacher's information about the students' proficiency level of English, more than a half was of a pre-intermediate level and three students had an upper level of English. Such context made the teacher motivate those three students to monitor the other

students in group work, for example. In the second semester (2008.2), there were eighteen students in which fourteen had a pre-intermediate level and four had an upper-intermediate level.

4.4   Data Collection and Procedure

4.4.1 Instruments

Data collection was divided into four stages. 1. the classroom observation with note-takings to build up the *corpus*, 2.the teacher interview to be informed on her EFL learning and teaching experience 3.the application of the students' questionnaire to find out their EFL learning experience, 4.the video-recording observation. At a final stage, the official documents of the course pedagogical project, which deals with the linguistic politics of the Language Course in the English language area, was examined to check out the objectives described in the discipline program.

The textbook used throughout the course was the New Headway Pre-intermediate and the units taught were 1, 2, 3 and 4 for both groups from the semester 2008.1 and 2008.2.The book follows a communicative approach to language integrating the four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. The grammatical structures are introduced in context, and every unit introduces the topic and the language to be studied through reading and listening activities.

4.4.2 Classroom Observation

The class observation was made through note-taking. It lasted from February 21st until April 22nd 2008. There were, therefore, a total of thirty hours lesson observed – ten lessons - considering that each lesson has three hours and the discipline contains six hours lesson per week. The main objective of classroom observation was to investigate which interactive resources (verbal and nonverbal elements) were mostly used in the classroom which could promote the students' oral production either from teacher to students, as well as among the students themselves.

Before the class observation took place, the teacher introduced me to the students as a doctoral researcher. After that short presentation, I explained that such observation was to fulfill the requirements of a doctoral research in EFL classroom research, with the aim at

describing the classroom reality at college level. Initially, I could notice that some students were shy but as the research started out, they became relaxed as if I was not there.

4.4.3 Teacher's Questionnaire

A nine-question questionnaire (see Appendix A), written in English, was used in the interview with the teacher. The aim of the questionnaire was to find out the teacher's EFL learning and teaching experience. As so, the questions were divided into six categories: 1. period of the EFL learning; 2.period of the EFL teaching; 3.type of graduation and post-graduation courses she attended; 4. type of EFL teaching the teacher was exposed to when she was a student; 5. type of EFL teaching she tends to adopt in her classes; 6. type of learning approach she tends to work with in her lessons.

4.4.4 Students' Questionnaire

At the end of the second week of classroom observation, I handed out a questionnaire to the students of the first semester 2008.1. The students' answers to the questionnaire served as a basis to trace a general profile of their EFL learning experience, as well as to help me interpret their learning perceptions and expectations in the part of analysis.

Since this work deals with classroom interaction study, the students' answers could guide me to observe and interpret their EFL learning perceptions from the classroom interaction perspective. It is according to what they do with language during classroom interaction, both among them and interacting with T, that I could comprehend how they make sense of their own classroom reality at college level, and for what learning purposes they interact to one another.

When asked about the school where they studied English before college, eight students said they studied at high school, while four at private language schools. Only 2 considered themselves autonomous (self-study). (See Table 1 below for results).

Table 1 - Studying English Before College

Studying English Before College	Number of Students
At high school	8
Private language school	4
Self-study	2

Source: Author, 2010.

The period of studying English varied for some students as seven said they had studied for more than four years; four had been studying around three years and three for one year. In general, they had already some experience with the foreign language. (See Table 2 below for results).

Table 2 - Period of Studying English

Period of Studying English	Number of Students
More than 4 years	7
Around 3 years	4
One year	3

Source: Author, 2010

To explain why they chose English to study at the Letters program, the majority said that was for professional reasons. Only one student answered differently stating that it was the English music which motivated him to study. The same answer was given when they were asked about what motivated them to study English at Letters and Arts course. (See Table 3 below for results).

Table 3 – Reasons to Study English

Reasons to Study English	Number of Students
Professional reasons	13
Because of the music	1

Source: Author, 2010

When asked whether they compared the foreign language with their mother tongue Portuguese or not, twelve reported they did and two that they did not. Asking them if they wanted to be an English teacher, eight said yes, three said that they were in doubt and the

other three said that they preferred to listen to songs as they considered teaching troublesome. (See Tables 4 and 5 below for results).

Table 4 - Comparing or Not With the Mother Tongue

Comparing or not with the mother tongue	Number of students
yes	12
No	2

   Source: Author, 2010.

Table 5 - Do You Want to Be an English Teacher?

Do you want to be an English teacher?	Number of students
yes	8
No	3
in doubt	3

   Source: Author, 2010.

To practice the foreign language at college level, most students use different strategies as four said through reading and listening; other four through speaking; three students through listening; one prefer to rely on other's help to learn; one by comparing with the native language and another through the teacher's help. (See Tables 6 below for results).

Table 6 – Students' Learning Strategies

Learning Strategies	Number of Students
Reading and listening	4
speaking	4
listening	3
teacher's help	1
other's help	1
Comparing to the mother tongue	1

   Source: Author, 2010.

Asked about which teaching strategy they thought more effective at college level the majority said (ten) they prefer to use the three skills – reading, listening, speaking (except writing) – to improve their oral production while one said that the use of translation could be used. Three students did not answer the question about the teaching strategy (see Appendix B). (see Tables 7 below for results).

Table 7 - The Teaching Strategies

Teaching Strategies	Number of Students
Reading, listening and speaking	**10**
use of translation	**1**
no reply	**3**

Source: Author, 2010

4.4.5   Video-Recording Stage

After a two-month classroom observation, the video-recording stage was set out. A video-camera was managed in order to capture all teacher and students' images to describe and interpret the development of oral interaction among the participants. The video-recording phase started on the 24th April, on Thursday, and ended up on the second semester, on the 9th October, 2008. A total of 27 hours/lesson were video-recorded. I began video-recording with the English language 1 group in the 2008.1 semester and continued with the second group of students in the 2008.2 semester.

Initially, the objective was to observe which teacher's interactive resources were mostly managed to promote students' oral production. Among the verbal and nonverbal elements of language, it was noticed the use of the teacher's smile, which motivated me to focus throughout the research. In the beginning of the semester 2008.1, after asking the teacher (T) and her group for permission to research their classroom context, T allowed me to go on researching once the students also permitted. That was done. Nevertheless, in the middle of the semester 2008.2, the teacher did not want her image to be presented in the doctoral theses. As only the students allowed their images to be shown in the theses (which was documented), I started observing the teacher's verbal elements. From this time on, the

focus was designed to observe the most recurrent verbal elements T managed at interactive moments devoted to the students' oral production.

As I noticed the upsurge of the students' smile during such interactive moments, I started out observing how the intersection between the teacher's verbal elements and the students' smile can contribute toward the students' oral production. Therefore, the purpose of this stage was to video record the interactive moments which explored the interplay of the teacher's discourse markers and the students' smile in oral tasks that fostered the students' oral production.

4.4.6 Research Procedures

In order to analyze the data obtained during classroom observations, there was a need to interview the teacher and apply a questionnaire to the students. The teacher's interview was designed to find out the teacher's learning and teaching experience in EFL so that I could check on it with her discursive practices in the classrooms. The focus on the application the students' questionnaire was to found out about their learning experience with the English language and its relation to their oral production development in oral tasks.

To the video-recorded stage, I filmed the students' images in order to describe and interpret the development of the students' oral production, focusing more closely on the students' smile. For the dialogues descriptions between the teacher and the students, I used the table of transcription based on the Marcuschi's category (see Appendix C).

By the end of the video-recording stage, I started the transcription of the recorded classes. It lasted 3 months: from February to April 2009. Divided into seven interactive moments, the transcriptions consisted of detailing the moments when the interplay of the teacher's discourse markers and the students' smile appeared in occasions that dealt with the students' oral production.

Based on Marcuschi's (1991) table of transcription, all sentences and phrases were transcribed with a precise care with the interlocutors' language realizations. On one hand, I tried to be as precise as possible to detail not only their words but also their speech manner which includes intonation, hesitation, eye contact, proximity, gestures and facial expressions, particularly the students' smile. On the other hand, I considered those interactive moments

that revolves around oral production: oral discussions in pair and group work, and the teacher's oral corrections.

The objective of this part of research was to make the recorded classes as clear as possible so that I could visualize the students' nonverbal behavior in accordance to what they verbally expressed. As Acioli said (2007),

> In the classroom context, the nonverbal and verbal elements constitute a unity, making interaction easier among the interlocutors (teacher/students), since the gestures are associated to the pronounced words by the subjects of conversation, having expressive value toward the verbal expressions.[14]

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[14] From the text in Portuguese: "No contexto de sala de aula, os elementos não-verbais e verbais constituem uma unidade, facilitando a interação entre os interlocutores (professor/alunos), uma vez que os gestos são associados às palavras pronunciadas pelos sujeitos da conversação, tendo expressivo valor diante das expressões verbais" SANTOS, M. F. O. Os elementos verbais e não verbais no discurso de sala de aula. In: *Os elementos verbais e não-verbais no discurso de sala de aula*. SANTOS M. F. O. (Org.). Maceió: EDUFAL, 2007. p.87.

5   RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Considering that the focus of the present study lies on the confluence of T's speech and the students' smile in EFL classroom interaction, this chapter has been divided into three parts. The first part deals with the analysis of T's speech and its textual and interactional meanings in relation to the students' oral production. The second part is devoted to the analysis of the students' smile, and the third is concerned with the relation between T's speech and the students' smile at interactive moments in oral activities.

Grounded on Pragmatics (LEVINSON, 1983) and inserted in the Conversation Analysis (MARCUSCHI, 1991; KERBRAT-ORECCHIONI, 2006) and in the analysis perspective of Interactional Sociolinguistics (GUMPERZ, 1985) the present study focused on the relation between the verbal and nonverbal elements in an EFL classroom environment. As stated in the Introduction, this analysis resulted from the drawbacks I faced throughout the research period.

To begin with, I decided to investigate T's nonverbal behavior and its influence in relation to the students' oral production in response to a variety of nonverbal signs used by T during classroom interaction. As the research went on, particularly from the video-recorded stage, T gave up participating in the research (she did not allow her image to be exhibited but only the students') making me look for other interactive elements from her. Thus, I began to examine T's verbal elements through an analysis of the transcriptions.

As the students' smile appeared at many interactive moments when interacting with T, I shifted the focus of analysis to the interplay of T's verbal behavior and the students' smile. Because of this ever so present nonverbal element in the investigated classroom, the aim of the present work was to verify if T and students' meeting established an interactive relation of meaning and to what extent such relation guided the students' oral production successfully.

Before starting out the analysis, it is important to sum up the steps needed to carry out the research, and the objectives to be accomplished as stated in the Chapter of Methodology. In the present study, it had to be taken into account, not only the setting and the situation context, but also the kind of involvement the participants had throughout the classroom interaction. Furthermore, three stages were fundamental in accomplishing the analysis: classroom observation, interviews and video-recorded classes. With these three stages

completed, I began the analysis of the classroom environment in order to investigate the interplay between T's discourse markers and students' smile at interactive moments devoted to the development of the students' oral production.

In the following sections, I debate on T's speech and T's use of discourse markers, pointing out the interactive moments at which these verbal elements are frequently managed, including further the pedagogical implications which emerge from T and students' interaction. For the transcribed lessons, the descriptions of T and students' speech are based on Marcuschi's (1991) table of transcription (see Appendix D).

5.1   The Teacher's Interactive Sources

In the first part, a study was conducted on T's verbal elements in EFL classroom interaction. I investigated T's use of discourse markers (DMs) at pedagogical moments between students and T's interaction with reference to Schiffrin (1987); Marcuschi (1991) and Urbano's (2003) works.

DMs are very often multifunctional in everyday oral interactions. These markers employ not only interactive functions but also syntactic ones as they are part of the discursive coherence of conversations (SCHIFFRIN, 1987). Syntactically, DMs regulate the turn-taking system, serve as cohesive elements between the communicative units, provide contextualization cues on how to encode utterances, and allow us to draw appropriate inferences in conversations. From an interaction viewpoint, DMs can be used as a speaker's communicative strategy to test the interlocutor's level of attention and participation. Therefore, DMs are more in line with the communicative principles of conversations.

Because the connotations of DMs lie in the pragmatic role they play in discourse, they tend to reflect "how the basic message relates to the prior discourse" (BLAKEMORE, 2006, p. 223), according to their positions in the sentence (SCHIFFRIN, 2001). Some English examples of DMs can be adverbial expressions such as frankly, happily, well; and conjunctions (but, on the other hand, moreover, so). Explaining the significance of DMs in conversational units, Blakemore (2006, p. 221) cite:

> [...] it seems that we can say that the term DICOURSE is intended to underline the fact that these expressions must be described at the level of discourse rather than the sentence, while the term MARKER is intended to reflect the fact that their meanings must be analyzed in terms of what they indicate or mark rather than what they describe.

Regarding the analysis of T's discourse markers used in conversational episodes with students, it is important to highlight their textual and interactional functions considering their position in T's units of talk. The textual functions were identified when the DMs established both anaphoric or cataphoric functions in the sentence. DMs could announce what was going to be said, by the use of cataphoric markers, or in relation to what was said, by means of the anaphoric markers. In other words, the DMs positions in the sentence tended to indicate T's communicative intentions.

Based on data from this study, T's speech tended to reflect a diversity of meanings according to the different uses of DMs. For example, when at the very beginning of the talk unit, T's DMs tended to indicate what she expected in the conversation. One of these examples can be seen in a class designed to the discussion about the movie 'To Sir with Love'. The students were given a questionnaire in the previous class and were expected to answer those questions in the form of oral discussion.

In saying, "Ok. So, who was Mr. Thackeray?" (class 13- 22/04/08 – IM 1), T wanted to convey two meanings. The first meaning, which was signaled by the DM 'Ok', could infer T's pause to motivate students' talk as the 'Ok' was just used after a T's final attempt to motivate students' talk by saying 'Let's try to talk'. The second meaning could be indentified by the use of DM 'So'. Because it was followed by a question (who was Mr. Thackeray?), this DM seems to indicate the introduction of another topic under the movie discussion.

Another example of T's DMs and their pedagogical uses can be seen in interactive moments in which T provides feedback to students' answers or comments. In the same class episode cited above, there was a moment when T was interacting with a student as he was talking about Mr. Thackeray. When the student said 'He was an engineer', T provided positive feedback in saying 'Ok. Good.' The examples herein mentioned can significantly illustrate the pragmatic functions of DMs in class conversations between T and students. They were used to end up a topic to move on to another one (seen in the previous paragraph) or mark agreement with what someone else said, as shown in this paragraph.

I have also investigated the interactive functions held by DMs through the analysis of how T integrates the forms and meanings of the DMs within the units of talk in relation to the students' oral production. For this reason, the guiding question that led me in the first part of analysis was: to what extent the use of T's DMs in classroom conversations orient students' oral production?

According to Gumperz (1982), all discourse strategies the interlocutors use throughout conversations are part of the interactive processes. They can only be understood with reference to their context of use. With this argument in mind, I can infer that T's DMs served as significant discourse strategies and contextualization cues. In order to interpret these cues, I had not only draw inferences on T's DMs use regarding the discourse coherence co-constructed among T and students. But also to account for the way these markers helped orienting the students' topic development and the interpersonal conduct in classroom conversations.

5.1.1 The teacher's speech

T's speech was regarded as a discursive and interactive element which needed to be accounted for by the analysis of EFL classroom interaction. In order to understand its relevance within the overall context of classroom interaction, there came the necessity to provide an overview on T's speech features. That is to say, T's talk had to be understood in relation to the classroom organization, to the pedagogical contents approached in the classroom, and to T's discourse strategies managed during classroom conversations.

In this work, T's talk is characterized in two distinguished class moments. The first moment comprises T's talk with all students in oral open discussion. For each class moment, T's speech takes up different aspects according to the demands placed on her by both content and pedagogical activities.

In the class 14 (29/04/08), which was designed to the continuation of the movie discussion 'To Sir with Love', T's speech indicated two pedagogical instances during a conversation with one student. The discussion was based on questions about the type of students found at the school and the difficulties the teacher faced in that learning setting. In the first instance, T summed up the students' answer in saying 'Ok. That's it. kind of prejudice'. In doing so, T used the DM 'ok' as if she was agreeing with the student's answer

'white people, very white people there' and rephrased it saying ' kind of prejudice', explaining that the movie also discussed about racial prejudice at school.

The second instance of this class could be seen at the end of this episode. After one student having finished his comments, T attempted to motivate others to continue talking. A very common procedure T employed was to make direct questions to specific students, as can be seen in 'Ok. What about you?" Instead of waiting students name themselves to speak, T preferred to name who should speak.

The second moment of T's speech takes place when she walks around the classroom to instruct and monitor the students' speech in pair and group activities. This was the class 10 in 01/04/08, during the classroom observation stage of research. The class held the function of exchanging information about street stores. In pairs, the students were expected to create a dialogue in which they could ask one another about the places they know, what they find there, how often they go there and the common prices that can be expected of such objects. Many stores were named such as Drugstore, Cd store, Clothing store, Shoe shop. As they went on talking, T often walked around them to verify their doubts when saying 'did you understand?' and motivate their discussion, particularly when she saw some students in silence. To incite students' oral production, T normally said 'Let's discuss about it' or 'Try to discuss about it' or 'Let's try to talk' or 'Let's just try to talk about'. According to this data, it might inferred that without T's questions, the students could not be able to continue talking by themselves.

In organizing open oral discussions, for example, T's talk tended often to be based on a questionnaire provided either by T herself or derived from the textbook. This was class 5 in 06/05/08, of a lesson designed to work with reading skills. The text was about Oscar Niemeyer, a famous Brazilian architect. Before reading it, students were asked to exchange information about what they know of this architect. Organized in pairs, the students were oriented to answer some reading comprehension questions among them after reading the text. When they had completed it, T began eliciting some students' answers and comments by asking them questions such as: "Who wants to read?" or "who wants to give the answers?"

It seems, from the class instance described above, that T tended to assume a more asymmetric posture when she did not direct who was to answer the questions or make comments. As shown in this example of interaction, the use of T's questions might have

served as a signaling mechanism for motivating conversation which, according to Sinclair and Coulthard's work (1975), tends to be regarded as a common pedagogical movement in most classroom interaction. Characterized as a conditioned-oriented interaction, the asymmetrical relationship between T and the students holds the function of establishing who is organizing and orienting the conversation, i.e. who is in charge of the turn-taking system. On providing the questions during the Initiation movement, T established that, without her starting questions, it would not be possible for the students to develop a discussion about the movie. Thus, the posing of questions turned out to be regarded, as common-sense knowledge among students, T's discourse strategy to open up debates (GUMPERZ, 1982).

The asymmetrical relationship between T and students also tended to prevail at classes when a new topic or some grammatical and introductory aspects of the language comprised the lesson's main pedagogical topic. In the second semester of 2008, one of the classes was devoted to the teaching of both coordinative and subordinate clauses and their respective conjunctions. In classes such as these, T tended to provide long explanations and the students often drew attention to T's speech silently. These pedagogical procedures were carried out by means of some conversational signs such as "any doubts?" or "many doubts?", "do you understand?" Very much used by T after tasks and grammar topics' explanations, these verbal signs seem to constantly indicate T's concerns about the students' understanding of her speech. These signs may, otherwise, mark T's constant desire to find out whether the students understood her speech or not. These questions, which serve as signaling mechanisms for clarification, (MASCUSCHI, 1991; SCHIFFRIN, 1987), tended to be followed by the students' silence, which can be interpreted as an asymmetrical sign of the relationship between T and students in the classroom setting. It was by means of silence that students expressed their wish not to speak or to inquire about their doubts. This could probably be due to T's constant position of posing questions and determining who is supposed to do what and at what time.

T's speech also tended to prevail when reprimanding the students. This was class 9 in 14/10/08, semester 2008.2, which was designed to the continuation of the movie discussion 'To Sir with Love'. And the interactive moment described below shows T's reprimand because of some students' resistance in speaking in English. Because most of the students' answers was given in Portuguese, T expressed herself in a straightforward way so that the students could accomplish the oral activity set to them. Also, T reminded them to practice

English in classroom activities because of their oral text. The episode below can illustrate T's strong attitude in instructing the students on how they should behave in the classroom as reflected by the use of imperative sentences ("Try to remember"; "Translate his ideas") and by the assertions ("you are not going to interrupt your speech"), which directs what T expects the students to do in both class conversations and in the oral test.

((This class moment was designed to reprimand the students for not speaking in English in the classroom))

T: in English … sorry, please. Why? Try to remember that during your oral test you have to speak everything in English. You are not going to interrupt your speech speaking in Portuguese and then come back to English… Ok? ...You, Mariana. Translate his ideas.

Interactive moment 2 – class 9 – 14/10/08.

For each of the above mentioned class moments, the classroom tended to be physically organized in different ways. For open oral discussions, explanation or introductory class parts, the students were positioned in a semi-circle while T tended to sit in the centre. Predominantly, when there was a discussion about a movie they had seen, or a text review they had previously read, the students tended to follow T's instructions. It was often T who guided the students' speech in terms of who would speak first, most often with the help of her questions. Few students' oral participation emerged without T's guidance.

Yet, during pair and group activities, T's talk tended to be directed to what one student needed to do or understand about the activity itself. In pair activities, for example, T's speech was far more centered on clarifying students' doubts; answering their questions which were most often related to grammatical issues. Also, T tended to guide their speech production through her questions. In class 10 – 01/04/08, the objective was to work with the speaking and listening skills in pair activities. The students were asked to develop a dialogue with a classmate about what it is found in different stores such as furniture store, Cd store, shoe shop, etc.

As this class was organized in the Lab[15], the students were sitting side by side in a booth so as to make them work in pairs. While the students were creating the dialogue between themselves, T would frequently walk round each pair to clarify their doubts about the

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[15] Lab stands for 'the Laboratory', a new study room, aimed to the study of listening skills in foreign languages.

activity, or to motivate them to speak in English by saying "Let's try to discuss it", "try to discuss, ok?"

This T's signaling mechanism for guiding the students' speech seems to be recurrent during pair and group activities throughout the two semesters under investigation. The use of T's conversational markers, such as "Let us try to….", "Try to.... , *ok*?", seem to hold functions which are in the end far more conversational than syntactic, notably because of their positions in the communicative units. Syntactically, these conversational signs co-occur at T's requests (in the form of imperative sentences) and they account for the syntax of T's communicative unit. Where interaction is concerned, these signs indicated the interlocutor-speaker communicative intent, i.e. expectation for the students' confirmation of the request, preferably seen in the form of oral production (MARCUSCHI, 1991).

In the following part, T's speech is analyzed in the light of what actually occurs between T and the students' interaction, and its pedagogical implication upon the students' oral production.

5.1.2 Teacher' Speech in EFL Classroom Interaction

There were two common interactive moments in which T's speech tended to incite students' oral production by means of verbal signaling mechanisms (MARCUSCHI, 1991). In other words, conversational markers (SCHIFFRIN, 1987) were used when explaining grammatical questions or introducing new topics, and also during individual oral corrections. In these interactional moments, T's use of conversational markers seemed to perform a function which appeared to be more conversational than syntactic; particularly because of those markers connection with T's communicative intents in relation to students' oral participation during class activities.

In the explanation of oral tasks either in pair or in group work, T's imperative sentences followed both by questions and by conversational markers were described as discursive strategies with focus on motivating the students' oral production. In the Lab, class 10 – 01/04/08, one of the activities was to develop a dialogue with a classmate about what we normally find in street shops such as: Drugstore, Furniture store, clothing store and Cd store. This activity was organized and developed in pairs.

This lesson episode took place in the semester 2008. 1. The focus of this lesson was for students to exchange information about the types of stores they find in their hometown, according to their background knowledge of their town. T explained that, in order to build up this dialogue, questions related to the prices of products, the frequency with which people go to these places, and the reason why we want to buy this or that product were needed.

In general terms, it could be observed that most of the students seemed to be engaged in the activity. The use of gestures, particularly hand movements while talking to each other, seemed to be recurrent throughout this activity with many pairs of students. In one of the pairs of students, for example, I could observe that one student acted out the meaning of the verb 'to paint' as she was explaining to her classmate what we normally find in a paint store. Other two groups of students used hand movements along with their smile while they were developing their dialogue. From these observations, I can infer that students' oral production seemed to flow more naturally probably because of such spontaneous nonverbal behavior that accompanied their speech.

In the same lesson episode described above, T's questions seemed to be recognized as a teaching discourse strategy to motivate students' speech production. By asking questions such as: "How often do you go to a Cd store?", "Which Cd would you like to buy?", "Let us try to discuss, ok?", T tries to help students develop the dialogue, and uses these sentences as guiding questions. It was noticed that the students seemed to rely on T's questions to begin talking. Thus, it can be inferred that the students' oral production may depend on T's guiding questions. As stated by Schiffrin (1987, p. 103-104),

> We also noted that questions constrain the next conversational slot for both semantic and pragmatic reasons: questions are incomplete propositions, or propositions whose polarity is unspecified (e.g. Carlson 1983); questions are among the linguistic means of enacting requests for information and actions, and thus impose – through their underlying appropriateness conditions (Gordon and Lakoff 1971, Labov and Fanshel 1977: Chapter 3) – an expectation of fulfillment.

Another class moment in which T's discourse markers were used in response to the students' oral production took place during oral corrections. In the semester 2008.1 – class 5-06/03/08, with the same group of students as cited above, one of the interactive episodes occurred during a reading lesson. T organized the class into three parts: (a) the pre-reading task; (b) the reading itself and (c) the post-reading activity. In the pre-reading part, T asked students to share information with their colleagues about the famous Brazilian architect Oscar

Niemeyer (who is he? What is his famous for?) After that, T handed out one short article[16] entitled 'Speculating on concrete' about this Brazilian architect for students to read and verify the information in the text with what they talked with their classmates.

After reading a passage about Oscar Niemeyer, T asked the students to answer some reading comprehension questions and do the grammar exercises which referred to the text. This time, the lesson was devoted to the post-reading activity. The grammar questions included exercises to identify verbal tenses (present continuous, present simple and past simple), the types of actions each verbal tense required, to justify the use of these verbal tenses, and to give the present tense of some of the verbs found in the past form in the text they read. This lesson could be described as a preparation for the next class which was designed to the oral correction of this activity.

During oral correction of written exercises, T often provided wh-questions to motivate students' speech production. Such T procedure seemed to be very common in both 2008.1 and 2008.2 semesters. For example, during IM 3 of the transcribed lesson below, few students did try to communicate in English, particularly the ones with a pre-intermediate level of proficiency. As seen in the IM3 below, these students tend to give short answers as in line 5 - S1: I think public – or hesitate in answering T as in line 3 - S1: Eh:::::. . It can be said that these students' oral production tend to be teacher-oriented since it was from T's questions, imperative sentences and comments followed by discourse markers that the students' oral participation emerged.

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[16] Article source: Newsweek Magazine, April 1st, 2002.

Interactive moment (IM) 3 – class 9 – 14/10/08

((T repeats students' comments as they develop the discussion on the film, and attempts to motivate them to go on discussing the film))

1. T: ok. So. He was growing in that (+) anything like this. Ok. What kind of school did

2. he start teaching? Fábio, do you remember?

3. S1: Eh:::::

4. T: What kind of school was it?

5. S1: I think public.

6. T: public one. Ok. Very good. What else? You ((looking at one student))

7. S2: was his first job? His first JOB?

8. T: the first JOB?

9. S2: Yeah

10. T: yes. ah::::

On the other hand, there were moments when T did not need to encourage students' speech through questioning. This is the case with the upper-intermediate students who tend to give long answers. For example, in the IM 7 below, one student began to share with all his colleagues what his group had created. The focus of the lesson was to elaborate a final story about the teacher Mr. Thackaray, the one who faced difficulties in teaching, as shown in the movie 'To Sir with Love'. It could be noticed here that, although this student did not make appropriate cohesive connections between the sentences to make them clear in meaning, the way he developed the story provoked joy to all students (see IM7 below).

Interactive moment (IM) 7 – class 17 – 15/05/08

((T organizes students in groups of four to elaborate a story based on the movie " To Sir with Love". During one group work, one of the students is sharing the story of the group with all students.))

1. T: Ok. Who else?

2. S1: He continued teaching in that school (xxx) and the director said because of his patience to the students and his ability to teaching the students eh eh eh he was promoted to be supervisor of the school and the ….after two months he married Pamela that eh::: three three years later they had three children called one black called Grice one blond called Tim and the last one was ((laughs)) because Pamela cheated him with a Chinese man.

3. Ss: ((all students laugh))

In a different way, individual oral correction seemed to instigate the students' oral development based on their personal attitude. In the fourth week of classroom observation, one of the activities investigated was that of discussing the difference between countable and uncountable nouns by examining the mistakes in the sentences. This lesson was organized in the Lab. Initially, the students were asked to say why the articles had been incorrectly used in the sentences, and replace them for the correct ones. It was at this moment that T's individual oral correction emerged to check out what and how the students were doing their class work. This pedagogical attitude probably helped to increase the students' confidence making them talk in English with T; differently with when she checked out their answers in the presence of all the other students. I could observe that the students' oral production seemed to flow naturally when compared to those class moments devoted to open oral discussions. In individual oral correction, the students' seemed to be more relaxed to interact with T in answer to her questions or when expressing their doubts about the task; an attitude that seemed to be blocked when they were with all classmates in open oral debates.

Long after the classroom observation stage, the one I described so far, I interviewed T, applied a questionnaire to students, then filmed the interactive moments when T used a variety of interactive elements during classroom interaction. Some of these elements were wh-questions, imperative sentences along with the discourse markers, and sentence repetition. Such research procedures took place in the semester 2008.1 to build the corpus, i.e. to see which interactive elements were mostly used in the promotion for students' oral production.

Used in different positions within the communicative units, T's interactive elements could either signal what she expected to be said by the students, introduce a new discursive topic, and agree with the students' answers followed by positive comments, or to call for the students' attention (MARCUSCHI, 1991). These verbal signs and their respective interactive functions and meanings can be seen in the IM 1 shown below.

From now on, all interactive moments are described according to Marcuschi's table of transcription (see Appendix D).

Interactive moment (IM) 1 – class 9 – 14/10/08. (To be)
((T is trying to motivate the students to discuss on the film "To Sir with Love" based on a given questionnaire))   1. T: /… /well, according to your oral test, you have to talk about the film. Can I take it?   2. Can I take it? Right ((here T is near a student asking whether she can get a textbook or not)).   3. Let's try to... a gente vai discutir agora se vocês se lembrarem mais ou menos de alguns   4. aspectos … Let's try to talk. Ok. (++) So, who was Mr. Thackeray? Do you   5. remember? Who was he?

Interactive moment (IM) 1 – class 9 – 14/10/08. (Conclusion)

6. T: Try to talk about his profession, his education. Do you remember who he was?

7. S1: He was a…

8. T: [he was a…

9. S: … brilliant British black…

10. T: ok. What about the profession? Do you remember?

11. S2: He was an engineer.

12. T: [engineer. Ok. Remember? Do not you write now. Ok. Let's just try

13. to talk about. Ok. Good. (++) Do you remember where he was born?

14.Ss: ((unaudible))

15. T: What about his education? ah… he finishes a course ahhh… where?

16. Ss: ((some)) In a:::: California

This interactive moment was designed to begin the discussion about the movie "To Sir with Love" which the students had watched in the previous class. At the starting point, it could be noticed T's speech prevalence from line 1 to line 5. T's use of discourse markers at this moment seemed to mark three interactional functions: (a) to call students' attention to the need of speaking in English seen in line 1 - T: /… /*well,* according to your oral test, you have to talk about the film. Can I take it? - (b) to motivate students' talk as in line 4 - Let's try to talk. *Ok.* - and (c) to guide students' talk based on specific questions as in line 4 to 5 - *So, who* was Mr. Thackeray? Do you remember? *Who* was he?

10. T: ok. What about the profession? Do you remember?
11. S2: He was an engineer.
12. T: [engineer. Ok. Remember? Do not you write now. Ok. Let's just try to
13. talk about. Ok. Good. (++) Do you remember where he was born?

Interactive moment 1 – class 9 – 14/10/08 – semester 2008.2

Used as an open devise in conversations, T's discourse marker 'well' indicates T's following assertiveness. By saying "Well, according to your oral test, you have to talk…', T's speech seemed to reprimand students for not speaking enough and, consequently, warn them of the necessity of speaking more as they would be soon facing an oral test. Differently, as observed in Schiffrin's study (1987), the DM 'well' is not placed as a response marker but as an introductory sign with the pragmatic function of calling someone's attention to a resulting argument. Therefore, it held a cataphoric function regarding T's discourse coherence. The use of the DM 'Right' just after T's advice might indicate T's expectation in regard to the students' understanding of her initial message.

In order to motivate students' speech, T tended to use imperative sentences and wh-questions along with the discourse markers placed at the end of the communicative units. In lines 3 and 4 (IM1), in saying 'Let's try to…. Let's try to talk', T was often attempting to encourage the students' oral production. The use of the DM "Ok' just after the students' oral production, might indicate T's desire to close on the previous talk (calling students' attention for not expressing themselves in English). The use of the DM 'So' followed by the wh-question, "who was Mr. Thackeray?" might indicate T's intention to move on to another topic.

Pre- placed in the communicative units before wh-questions, the conversational markers usually orient what the interlocutor-hearer should do or say (MARCUSCHI, 1991). The DM 'so' was, therefore, used to orient the students' speech based on T's question. The co-occurrence of this DM with the wh-question signs, throughout this interactional episode, revealed T's desire to return to the discussion on the movie. It is again T who is in charge of the turn-taking system and of the initiation movement of this instance of classroom interaction (SINCLAIR; COULTHARD, 1975). As a consequence of this pedagogical discourse strategy, the students tended to develop more referential than expressive type of oral production. That is, their responses were in accordance with the questionnaire on the movie; thus, the answers were already known by T. The expressive answers were displayed through the interlocutors' inferential processes so as to interpret the questions (SCHIFFRIN, 1987).

Another interactive element that T used to promote and help the students' speech production was obtained through repetition. As seen in line 8 below, T repeated the students' initial response as a way to motivate their speech. The continuing of their speech, in response to T's repetition, was noticed in line 9.

6. T: Try to talk about his profession, his education. Do you remember who he was?
7. S1: He was a…
8. T: [he was a…
9. S: … brilliant British black…

Interactive moment 1 – class 9 – 14/10/08 – semester 2008.2

In the following segment of the IM1 (see extract below), T's speech holds three pragmatic and interactive functions: (a) of accepting the student's answer; (b) of moving on the discussion and (c) of reprimanding students' classroom behavior. In accepting the student's answer, T signals it by using the DM 'Ok' just at the beginning of the communicative turn (line 10) and after T's repetition of a student's answer, as seen in line 12 below in co-occurrence with positive evaluative expressions (Good), as shown in line 13. In order to move on to the discussion, promoting, therefore, the students' oral production through answers, the DM 'Ok' co-occurs with wh-questions, as seen in line 10, and with imperative sentences, as seen in line 12. In reprimanding the students' behavior, the DM 'Ok' comes after the observed behavior 'Do not write now'. It is important to mention that the interactional and pragmatic meanings of the discourse markers are not shown explicitly throughout the conversational episodes. Their functional meanings can only be interpreted by observing their cataphoric or anaphoric functions with reference to the whole discourse coherence, as explained here (SCHIFFRIN, 1987; MARCUSCHI, 1991).

Interactive moment (IM) 2 – class 8 – 09/10/08

((Continuation of the movie discussion. T reminds students the need to speak in English because of their oral test. Her comment arises from one student's answer to one of the questionnaire question))

1.T: Yes. In U.S.A. do you remember? So, he was an engineer, he finishes his course in

2.U.S.A., and he was born in British Guiana. Do not you write, ok? (+) Ok. Let's go on

3. what about…why did he decide to work as a teacher….do you remember?

4. S: ((unaudible))

5. T: Ok. Why did he … decide to work as a teacher? Do you remember? Don't you

6. remember? No? ((she asks looking at some students)) you, Alfredo? You don't remember?

7. Only Vera. What about you, Alberto? Do you remember why Mr. Thackeray decided to   be a teacher?

8. S: Because… ele não conseguia arrumar emprego.

9. T: in English. Sorry, please. Why? Try to remember that during your oral test you have

10. to speak everything in English. You're not going to interrupt your speech speaking in

11. Portuguese and then come back to English. Ok? You Cláudia. Translate his ideas.

Just after her summarized sentence, T expressed complaint by saying 'Do not you write, ok?' because she had observed some students writing during her speech; this was a behavior T seemed not to like at all. This might be due to the fact that she often stopped an explanation to complain students on how they should behave during an explanation of a new topic. Moreover, one of the interactive elements she tends to use to reinforce this complaint is obtained by means of the DM 'Ok' after the complaints, as seen in line 2; usually followed by another DM 'Ok', which holds the function of signaling the closing of the complaint and the continuation towards the next question (line 3).

The prevalence of T's speech in classroom interaction can also be seen in the IM2. As a continuing part of the IM1 explained beforehand, the main focus of T's speech here covers the complaints she does in relation to what the students do during T's explanation and their attitude during the oral discussions. Before the complaints, T starts out the speaking turn by providing a positive answer related to the last line of the IM1. After signaling acceptance of the student's answer through the DM of answer 'yes', T expands the previous student's answer in line 1 like saying: 'So, he was an engineer, he finishes his course in U.S.A, and he was born in British Guiana'. This T's concluding statement was signaled by the marker of speaking continuation 'So' whose syntactic function is cataphoric. This DM was placed just before the concluding and expanding sentence, signaling what T was about to say (SCHIFFRIN, 1987).

The difficulty in encouraging the students to speak was noticeable as one can see in the following extract of IM 2. Observing that the students did not pay enough attention to her last question (line 3), and all of them spoke at the same time, T expressed her annoyance by using initially the DM 'Ok', and by repeating the last question (line 5). The conversational marker 'Ok' implies T's annoyance, probably because of its falling intonation, signaling T's disappointment with the students' behavior. T's disappointment were also noticed in line 5, 6 and 7, particularly in expressions such as 'Don't you remember?', 'No?', 'you don't remember?', 'Only, so-and-so (Joe) '. From here onwards, T chooses one student to answer her question. This T's verbal behavior corroborates the fact that in reprimanding a student, T tends to exert power and save face (DANTAS, 2007), emphasizing the asymmetrical relation between T and students (MARCUSCHI, 1991).

4. S: ((unaudible))
5. T: Ok. Why did he … decide to work as a teacher? Do you remember? Don't you
6. remember? No? ((she asks looking at some students)) you, Marcel? You don't remember?
7. Only Márcia. What about you, Fábio? Do you remember why Mr. Thackeray decided to   be a teacher?

Interactive moment 2- class 8 – 9/10/08.

In the following lines, after T's disappointment at the students' behavior, a student attempts to answer the question (line 8 below). Because the student did not expand the answer in English, T complains again about the student speaking in Portuguese, as one can see from line 9 to 11. T initially used a discourse strategy of politeness signaled by 'Sorry, please' and after that, she began explaining why they should have talked in English not in Portuguese. The DM 'Ok', post-placed at the end of T's communicative unit (MARCUSCHI, 1991), showed that all students agreed with T's complaints.

8. S: Because… ele não conseguia arrumar emprego.
9. T: in English. Sorry, please. Why? Try to remember that during your oral test you have
10. to speak everything in English. You're not going to interrupt your speech speaking in
11. Portuguese and then come back to English. Ok? You, Márcia. Translate his ideas.

Interactive moment 2- class 8 – 9/10/08.

There is another interactive moment in which T's speech is strongly marked by sentence repetition as a discourse strategy for inciting students' speech. This conversational strategy can be seen in the IM 3 below in which T attempts to motivate the student's speech throughout the dialogue. Here we have T and a student's interaction based on one topic chosen from the questionnaire under discussion. Similar to other interactive moments

previously described, T usually uses the turn-initiators 'Ok' and 'So' to close or summarize previous statements and the DM 'Ok' as a transition marker leading to a new topic to be debated; that is presented in the form of question (line 1). After this, it is T who suggests who should speak first. Again, T presents the topic, initiates the interactional movements, and suggested what interaction is to be conducted (SINCLAIR; COULTHARD, 1975; MARCUSCHI, 1991).

Interactive moment (IM) 3 – class 9 – 14/10/08

((T repeats students' comments as they develop the discussion on the film, and attempts to motivate them to go on discussing the film))

1. T: ok. So. He was growing in that (+) anything like this. Ok. What kind of school did

2. he start teaching? Fábio, do you remember?

3. S1: Eh:::::

4. T: What kind of school was it?

5. S1: I think public.

6. T: public one. Ok. Very good. What else? You ((looking at one student))

7. S2: was his first job? His first JOB?

8. T: the first JOB?

9. S2: Yeah

10. T: yes. ah::::

It is worthwhile mentioning that T's DMs seem to indicate textual-interactional functions which are responsible for her speech planning and development. Textually, the DMs 'Ok, So' and 'Ok' seen in line 1 (T: ok. So. He was growing in that (+) anything like this. Ok.

What kind of school did he start teaching?) serve as textual organizers of T's communicative units. In an interactional way, these conversational operators act as a signaling mechanism of communicative intents (MARCUSCHI, 1991; KO-FREITAG, 2009). T's DMs, 'Ok, So', as turn-initiators of speaking, tend to mark both the closing of a previous statement and leads to a summary of some previous thought, as shown in this IM 3 (line 1). Yet, the second DM 'Ok' holds the function of a transition marker. It points towards a new topic in the discourse, which is introduced by a question.

Such T's verbal behavior regarding the use of these conversational markers might determine the social norm of conduct in classroom interaction which is apparently shared by everyone in the classroom. Seen as a recurrent verbal behavior in most instances of classroom interaction hitherto discussed, the initial position of T's DMs tend to determine a position-centered teaching and learning in spite of a person-centered communication (KRAMSCH, 1987, p. 18). Instead of emphasizing the interactional process of communication – in which information is exchanged, and the interlocutors' utterances are adjusted and readjusted in order to achieve mutual understanding – the position-centered teaching focuses "on the content of the lesson or what is learned".

This position-centered teaching procedure can be seen in the extract below, from the IM3, through another discourse strategy: sentence repetition. The repetition of a student's answer seems to hold two interactional functions. First, it marks continuation of talking. It is through repetition that the interlocutors, engaged in interactional encounters, can expand or move the conversation on to another person (WARDHAUGH, 1985). And second, it signs agreement with what someone has said. In line 6, T's speech reinforces this sign of agreement by adding positive feedback as 'Ok. very good'. In this example, T's position-centered speech can be revealed through the turn sequence in which T's talk appears. As in previous interactive moments, T's speech is responsible for Initiation and Evaluative moves (SINCLAIR; COULTHARD, 1975) leaving the students' oral production as part of the response turn.

| 3. S1: Eh::::: |
| 4. T: What kind of school was it? |
| 5. S1: I think public. |
| 6. T: public one. Ok. Very good. What else? You ((looking at one student)) |

Interactive moment 3 – class 9 – 14/10/08.

In the following extract, it seems that T broke the initial discourse strategy established in the previous extract. In there, it is one student who opens up the turn sequence. T's turn appears in the form of another question, as if she wanted to confirm the student's doubt. The next turn shows the student's answer, allowing the following turn for T's evaluating move by means of repeating the student's answer. This interactional movement which is often found in the classroom interaction among participants frequently allows T to have the control of the turn sequence and over the students' speech. Therefore, it can be inferred from this that classroom interaction tends to be conditioned-oriented.

| **7**. S2: was his first job? His first JOB? |
| 8. T: the first JOB? |
| 9. S2: Yeah |
| 10. T: yes. ah:::: |

Interactive moment 3 – class 9 – 14/10/08.

An interesting aspect to be discussed from this conditioned-oriented interaction is about the social roles and actions played by the interlocutors. According to the interactional sociolinguistic fieldwork, language is accomplished through the participants' social actions in specific real-time situations. And, being part of the discourse coherence, these "actions are accomplished in culturally defined interactional contexts in which what one person does is treated as the basis for what another does" (SCHIFFRIN, 1987, p. 12). In the case of this study, the conditioned-oriented interaction between T and students is usually developed with pre-intermediate students, as seen in the extract below (IM 4). From the findings obtained, it seems that this type of classroom interaction is accepted as common-knowledge to all

participants involved in these conversations. It is through question-answer pairs, T's sentence repetition with the co- occurrence of pre-placed DMs, that the students' oral production is bound to emerge.

Interactive moment (IM) 4 – class 9 – 14/10/08

((another moment when T repeats students' comments, uses WH-questions, DMs at the initial position as to instigate students' oral production))

1. T: ok. What else? What kind of school…kind of students…

2. Ss: ((some)) yes. Difficult.

3. T: ok. Difficult students.

4. S1: white people. Very white people there.

5. T: ok. That's IT. Kind of PREjudice. Do you understand PREjudice? What kind of

6. difficulties did he face there? (+) at least one. One DIfficulty.

7. S2: Students did not listen to him.

8. T: OK. Students did not listen to him. What else? You. OK. What about you, Fábio? ((looking at another side of the classroom))

9. do you remember?

From the findings obtained with these interactive moments, it was possible to infer that the students' oral production tended to be teacher-oriented most of the time. This could be seen through T's verbal behavior in relation to the turn sequence organization, the amount and the interactional meanings of T's questions, and the interactional and textual functions the DMs held throughout the dialogues between T and students.

Nevertheless, those students who have more advanced level of proficiency seem to show more fluent oral production, as presented in the IM 7 below. In the second part of the class, T organized the students to work in group. The aim was to create a final story of the

movie, especially a story about Mr. Thackeray, the professor who changed the pedagogical attitudes at the school he was teaching. The students had to decide on his professional future. In walking around each group, T went on asking questions, checking out students' doubts until they all finished the activity. One of the students, from a specific group, volunteered to retell the story created by his group. As that student had a more advanced level of proficiency, compared to the rest, T did not stop, pose any questions or repeated any of his sentences to move on his speech.

Interactive moment (IM) 7 – class 17 – 15/05/08

((T organizes students in groups of four to create a story based on the film "To Sir with Love". During one group activity, one of the students tells everyone the story the group has finished))

1. T: ok. What else?

2. S1: He continued teaching in that school (xxx) and the director said because of his patience to the students and his ability to teaching the students eh eh he was promoted to be a supervisor of the school and the after two months he married Pamela that eh they had …they had eh::: three years later they had two… three children called… one black called Grice, one Blond called Tim and the last one was ((laughs)) because Pamela cheated him with a Chinese man.

3. Ss: ((all students laughed))

In what follows, this study analyzes the students' facial expression: the smile in EFL classroom in order to discuss interactional meanings during oral tasks. Although it is well known among the nonverbal specialists that nonverbal signs often accompany verbal signs in discourse as to complement or contradict the spoken language (PENNYCOOK, 1985; ACIOLI, 2007; DANTAS, 2007; OLIVEIRA, 2007; SOUZA, 2007), I narrowed the analysis of the students' smile, for it was the most recurrent nonverbal students' sign during classroom interactions which carried a variety of interactional and informative meanings vital to the overall discussion about learning implications for oral production.

5.2   Students' Interactive Sources: the Smile

The second part of the analysis deals with the students' smile. For this part, I referred to studies by Acioli (2007); Dantas (2007); Oliveira (2007); Santos (2007); Souza (2007). According to these authors, nonverbal elements in classroom interaction – be them eye contacts, smiles or gestures – have often governed the students' speech, providing positive feedback to maintain, to regulate, to emphasize an explanation, to correct or to reinforce T's pedagogical discourse. In other words, both nonverbal and verbal elements of language employed by teachers are most often regarded as complementary components of overall human communication.

Dantas (2007), in turn, reflected upon the effect of T's smile in EFL learning. The author understood that the smile was a nonverbal element used with the following purpose: to increase classroom interaction through convivial strategies (a balance between instructional and spontaneous discourse); to create a joyful learning environment, therefore, favoring students learning; and to reprimand students (exerting power and saving face) for not doing their homework. In sum, T's smile could be described as a nonverbal element that favors students' oral participation, that provides positive feedback and also a harmonious interaction in the classroom setting, favoring successfully EFL learning.

5.2.1   Context of Investigation

One of the places where the smile plays a significant role in producing and interpreting the communicative intentions of others, which also leads to all kinds of learning implications, is certainly the classroom. There are cases in which T's smile is used to overcome the students' poor self-image. Sometimes, T's smile is misunderstood by the students resulting in misunderstandings of classroom interaction (SANTOS, 2001). On the other hand, there are moments when T's smile adds some fun to the learning environment, increasing oral interaction and contributing towards an improvement in the students' learning as a whole. Moreover, T's smile can also indicate a feeling of frustration. It is the case when T's smile reprimands learners for not doing their homework (DANTAS, 2007).

The smile is frequently recognized as an enjoyable facial expression. The smiling expression often embraces the affective and personal traits of character in any social interactions. In the present work, the students' smile accounts for their personal feelings and attitudes in relation to what happens when interacting with their classmates and with T. Their

smile tends to be a consequence of what occurs in different class events. This is due to the fact that smiling depends on the contextual factors in which it occurs and on what social and interactional motivation it is based. According to the specific contexts upon which it occurs, we can identify different types of smile (FREITAS-MAGALHÃES, 2006), including its communicative, informative and interactional meanings (EKMAN; FRIESEN, 1969), as explained in chapter 3.

In this work, the students' smile was the nonverbal object of investigation within the boundaries of classroom interaction. Due to its frequent occurrence in classroom interaction, the students' smile indicated different interactional and informative meanings, depending on the class activity in which they were involved, as well as on the interactive moments into which they were inserted together with their classmates and with T.

When interacting among themselves, the students tended to assume different nonverbal postures compared to the way they interacted with T. Notably in pair and group work activities, the students seemed to be more confident in exchanging ideas among themselves, and their smile could be interpreted as a sign of satisfaction and agreement during their conversations. However, when in direct contact with T or in open discussion with all students, the students' smile tended to manifest itself as an instrument of defense; that is to say, in smiling, the students seemed to avoid oral interaction with T or to prevent themselves from saying something they did not know or did not want to state. These interactional meanings, which the students' smile appeared to originate from, served as the fundamental aspects leading towards a better interpretation of the learning implications concerning speech production.

5.2.2 Students' Duchenne Smile

Throughout this study, I have noticed two types of smile expressed by the students at different class interactive moments. One of them was often observed in group activities among students when fulfilling an oral task established by T. Either discussing grammatical exercises or making up stories based on previous class activities, the student's smile seemed

to signal their oral engagement in relation to the group work activity. Such smile has been named the Duchenne smile[17] or the spontaneous smile (EKMAN, 2003).

Such definition of smile emerged from the French neurologist's scientific observations on different types of smile, Duchenne de Boulogne. According to his experiments, he could identify enjoyable and non enjoyable smiles by observing how the "facial muscle changes people's appearances" (EKMAN, 2003, p. 204) through electrical stimulus. Based on his observations, the enjoyable smile appears with the contraction of the zygomaticus muscle and the orbicularis oculi (i.e. the eyes), the one which he defined as the Duchenne smile. On the other hand, the non enjoyable smile emerges when there is not any contraction around the eyes.

Throughout research, it could be observed that the students' Duchenne smile was not only noticed in group activities, but also at moments of great fun in the classroom. This could be seen during classroom observations, especially during the very first semester of 2008.1. Particularly at the outset of the classes, T tended to use some jokes to break the ice between her and the students. For example, before explaining the use of past tenses, T said: "I've got two dictionaries for those who need them. So, I charge 10,00 for each 30-minute use". After this little remark, everyone laughed and I could see that, from that moment onwards, a more relaxed classroom atmosphere settled in. On another occasion, the strategy was designed for a written exercise whose objective was to review verb tenses. This T's verbal behavior was often found to occur in her classes, particularly before an explanation of a grammar point or of an oral task.

It was mainly in group activities that the students' Duchenne (or spontaneous) smile could be observed. In one of the class moments, the lesson objective was to complete sentences with the right verb tenses studied in the previous class (simple present, present continuous and simple past). First, the students were asked to do it individually, and afterwards join their colleagues to compare and discuss their answers. This was a very common teaching procedure used by T to correct either the class activities or the home works.

Normally displayed in small group activities, I could notice that the students' smile differed from group to group. In one group, one student was writing while another was

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[17] Called as "the true smile of enjoyment, in which the outer portion of the muscle that orbits the eye is involved (...)" EKMAN, P. *Emotions tevealed*: recognizing faces and feelings to improve communication and emotional life. 2nd ed. New York: Times Books, 2003. p.203.

sending information. In another, one student smiled while orienting his classmates on the task (this student seemed to be in a more advanced level as he spoke more fluently), and in another group, as shown in picture 2 below, all students smiled while they were discussing and comparing their answers.

**Picture 2 - Students' Duchenne Smile) Class 4
– 21/08/08 – Semester 2008.2**

Source: Author`s personnel files, 2010.

At first sight, the students' smile denoted joy in that oral interaction, as shown in Picture 2. Everyone was smiling and seemed to feel at ease with one another. Probably because of this context of interaction, the oral task could be accomplished as a result of the students' collaborative efforts to complete the grammar exercises. According to Ekman and Friesen (1969), when shared nonverbal behavior is found in conversational episodes where a certain nonverbal behavior influences or modifies another, this seems to be the case of interactive meaning.

The interactive meaning of nonverbal behavior can also be recognized through the individuals' body movements. Along with the smile, body movements tend to reflect the individuals' personality traits and personal attitude during interaction (EKMAN, 2003). In Picture 1, two students smiled and performed arm movements to accompany their smile. As I noticed throughout research, there were some extroverted and introverted students in the classroom. They tended to perform their classroom activities according to their personality traits. In Picture 2, Márcio and Adriano[18], the students who are moving up their arms while talking, were the extroverted students. Only one student, Pedro, did not move his arms while talking. As also observed during the classroom observation stage and throughout the semester

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[18] Márcio and Adriano are the fictitious names for these students.

2008.2, Pedro tends to present himself quiet, with a shy attitude in class activities. And his timid attitude tends to be often followed by his body behavior: arms crossed, the head quite often in a down position and avoiding eye contact with his classmates.

Although such nonverbal attitude indicates a more polite smile (FREITAS-MAGALHÃES, 2006), it seems here that Pedro also shared a feeling of satisfaction towards his classmates. According to what happened in picture 1, Pedro was constantly motivated by the other two colleagues to complete the exercise about the review of verb tenses (present simple, present continuous and past simple). Probably, this motivational attitude helped the timid Pedro to become more confident, encouraging him to participate and provide his answers. And this could be seen with his timid smile in picture 2 above. Also, according to the students' questionnaire, the classmates' help was cited as an important learning strategy in group work to improve their oral production. It could be inferred, thus, that because of all these aspects that come along with the group activities, Pedro began to speak a bit more with his colleagues.

Regarding the level of social relations established by this group activity, a more symmetrical relation could be noticed (MARCUSCHI, 1991; KOCH, 2006). A symmetrical relation in oral interactions can be identified when the interlocutors share similar social roles, and when everyone is responsible for the turn-taking system. Each one has the right to talk. In this group activity, the students seem to be in their own right to decide who and when to speak by using their spontaneous smile as a sign of agreement. Although the timid student, Pedro, seemed to participate less than the others, as his body movement showed, he was in a situation "[…] in which the several participants have supposedly the same right to self-choose the word, the topic to deal with, and to decide on his/her time"(MARCUSCHI,1991, p. 16)[19].

The same symmetrical relation along with the Duchenne smile can be seen in Picture 3, as illustrated below. Differently from Picture 2, in this group activity, all students seem to share agreement through their Duchenne smile. Although there is one student at a more advanced level of proficiency – the one with a red T-shirt positioned in the middle – all of them seem to have the same right to coordinate who should speak first. There was no assistance given but negotiation of how their story would be. Similar to the group in Picture 2,

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[19] Translated from the text in Portuguese "(...) em que vários participantes têm supostamente o mesmo direito à auto-escolha da palavra, do tema a tratar e de decidir sobre seu tempo". MARCUSCHI, L. A. Análise da conversação. 2. ed. São Paulo: ÁTICA, 1991. p. 16.

this group was also sharing ideas about Mr. Thakeray's professional future. As illustrated in Picture 3, three students were focused on what one of them was saying. According to their head position, they were signaling joy and agreement through the Durchenne smile, as the dark blue T-shirt student kept on talking.

Picture 3 - Students' Duchenne Smile) – Class 9 – 14/10/08 – Semester 2008.2

Source: Author`s own files, 2010.

The same interactive meaning attributed to this particular smile could be seen all along classroom observations. On hearing two students talk about well-known handbag stores in town, one of them used hand movements followed by the smile as the other ones went on explaining where the store was situated. Another student, who was just listening, nodded to make his classmates see that he was following the conversation. According to researches on nonverbal elements in EFL classrooms (GREGERSEN, 2007; SANTOS, 2007), these gestures might serve to give emphasis to the student's speech when providing explanation about the location of the store. As for the smile, I could observe that its use probably reinforced the explanation given by the student-speaker. Hence, as the student nodded his head, the coordinated smile appeared.

In both Pictures 2 and 3, one can see a closer social relation among the interlocutors. In social interactions, such as in classroom group activities, the students' smile was displayed to express enjoyable emotions (EKMAN, 2003). The students' smile in these groups tended to ease the relationships and to build confidence in the co-construction of the story. The students' smile, therefore, turned out to be recognized as a sign of agreement among the students (RECTOR; TRINTA, 1993).

In the following part of the analysis, I describe and explain the second type of the students' smile: the polite or social smile, and its implication in the students' oral production.

5.2.3   Students' Polite Smile

The second type of smile that I noticed throughout the research was the polite smile (RECTOR; TRINTA, 1993). Also known as social and masked smile, the polite smile acknowledges more non-enjoyable emotions since " it shows you are a good sport, that you can take the criticism and still smile about it" (EKMAN, 2003, p. 210). This emotional implication is recognized as a voluntary smile because it does not show a true emotional meaning. This smile is shown through lip movements and tends to represent a mask to hide away or avoid unfavorable feelings or emotions in social interactions. As a result, the polite smile favors social distancing rather than proximity among people in conversational encounters.

In the present study, the polite smile was also identified in the classroom environment. It occurred mainly during pair activities, when the students smiled politely as T approached them to verify their doubts. The smiles' interactional meanings varied according to the students' personal attitude in relation to T's demands or to their learning difficulties. Thus, at closer examination, the students' polite smile revealed different oral implications from those of the Duchenne smile.

The first interactive moment, in which the students' polite smile appeared, can be seen in Picture 4 below. This lesson was designed to do the correction of a written exercise which was assigned by T. The exercise consisted of three parts: (a) reading comprehension and writing; (b) identification of textual genres; (c) and the grammar. Students were instructed through the work in pairs so as to check out the answers between them, or to complement any other part that they had not done previously. For both reading comprehension and writing, the students had to read an extract from an Edgar Allan Poe's short story and summarize it. As for the grammar part, the students were instructed to say the type of textual genre they had read and to justify their answer. As for the grammar part, they had to say and justify which verb tenses predominated in the excerpt. It is worthwhile mentioning that the students had reviewed both present and past tenses in their last four lessons.

Normally, it was during pair activities that T walked around the students to verify their doubts or to see whether they had understood the exercise or not. Picture 4 below illustrates the student's polite smile at the moment when T approached them to check out whether they were doing the class work or not. Then, observing that they did not do the exercise at all, T gave them a reprimand for not having done the required exercises from the last lesson. By way of responding to T's reprimand, the students Márcia and Pedro smiled instead of responding to T's complaints. Such smile seemed to signal the students' defense against T's requirements. In other words, it seemed that they wanted to avoid oral interaction with T, particularly to avoid saying 'no, teacher. I did not do the exercise'. Instead, they gave a smile.

Based on the previous argument, it should be worthwhile mentioning that the students' smiling expression has been a recurrent nonverbal behavior displayed by them in many instances of classroom interactions. In group activities, pair works or even when interacting with T, the students' smile tends to convey an array of interactive and learning meanings. The polite smile, which is discussed in this part of work, can be seen as a nonverbal indicative of students' unsatisfaction of T's involvement with them. As they said in the questionnaire, they prefer the reading and listening activities, and as for speaking, they feel more confident in speaking with their colleagues in pair and group work.

Under this interactional context, the students' smile seemed to be used to hide their disagreeable emotions. It can be argued that their smile was used as a way to prevent themselves from embarking into a conversational context of which they were part. This fact corroborates Bohn's study (2004). Similar to what this author found out about the Japanese students' behavior, in this work the students' smile expressed their desire to protect their privacy regarding their wish to speak. Mainly when T approaches them to ask or make any comments about their class work, the students' smile is replaced by the spoken language.

Picture 4 - Students' Polite Smile – Class 2 - 14/08/08 – Semester 2008.2

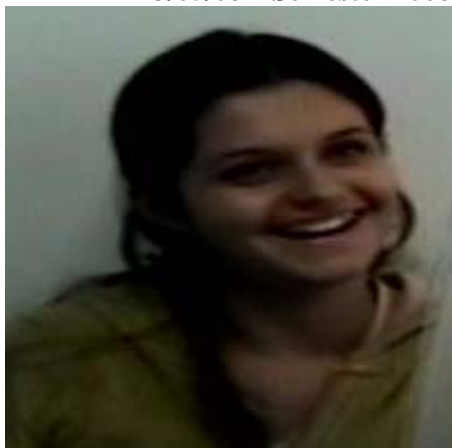Source: Author´s personnel files, 2010.

Furthermore, we can identify two distinguished smiles at this interactive moment. One smile expressed by a female student and another smile expressed by a male student. The female student smiled as she looked directly at T. She projected her head forward while looking at T with direct eye contact. On the other hand, the male student gave a smile with a down head position without looking directly at T, as he normally do when interacting with his colleagues (as seen in Picture 4). One cannot say, however, that these postural attitudes were caused by genre differences, i.e. the female smile tended to be more expressive than the male smile. One can still argue here that the students' personality traits influence on their smile behavior probably because a female student tends to express herself extrovertly whereas the male student does not. The female student way of smiling at T may reflect her personal attitude when interacting with everyone.

Although used differently by these two students, the smile was followed by the answer 'no, teacher'. The female student seemed to be more self-confident in her answer as she gave an opened and coordinated smile with her head upwards. Such smile could be noticed throughout the semester insofar as T approached each of the students to check their exercises. For this reason, the students tended to acknowledge T's discourse behavior with a smile. The male student, on the other hand, seemed to be less confident; as if he was ashamed to say something. His closed smile followed by a down head position might be seen as an indication of his been ashamed or shy, as shown above (Picture 4).

There was another class moment in which the students masked their feelings during their interaction with T. This is illustrated in Pictures 5 and 6 below. In this conversational episode, the lesson was devoted to the individual oral corrections of a grammar exercise about the use and form of past tenses. This was in class 16, 13/05/08, in the semester 2008.1. It is worth mentioning that oral corrections in pair works and in open discussions seem to be a harsh task for them, mainly for timid students. As observed during classroom observations throughout research, students tended to be more introverted in the classroom. In other words, they tended to be silent in open discussions choosing not to verify their doubts either with T individually or with other classmates. According to data, it might be inferred that Marta and Andrezza[20] tended to replace their speech with a smile probably because of their timid behavior during classroom interactions.

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[20] Marta and Andrezza are fictious names for these students.

**Picture 5 - Student's Polite Smile - Class 16 –
13/05/08 – Semester 2008.1**

Source: Author´s personnel files, 2010.

**Picture 6 – Student's Polite Smile Class 16
- 13/05/08 – Semester 2008.1**

Source: Author´s personnel files, 2010.

According to data, it could be noticed that the display of the students' smile may have three reasons: lack of linguistic knowledge, lack of self-confidence to speak or embarrassment to get involved in oral participation in the classroom, aspects which were already pointed out by Bohn's study (2004) with Japanese students. By the time T approaches them to verify whether they are doing the exercise or not, a classroom situation observed in Pictures 4 and 5 appear to be common with timid students. On one hand, such nonverbal attitude may cause some embarrassment to speak to T as their smile seemed to express the apology: 'sorry, teacher, I haven't done the exercise' or 'I do not know what to say here' or 'I was doing something different' or 'please, teacher, do not come and ask me again'. On the other hand, the students' smile may indicate their lack of self-confidence in interacting with T, implying an asymmetrical relation with T. That is to say, as if they were in a position of listening to T instead of answering her.

Analyzing from the students' smile standpoint, this asymmetrical relation may have indicated the students' control over the taking turn system (MARCUSCHI, 1991; KOCH, 2006). This was the case "[…] in which one of the participants had the right to initiate, orient, lead and conclude the interaction and to put pressure on (an) other(s) participant(s)"[21] (MARCUSCHI, 1991, p.16). In the case of Pictures 5 and 6 respectively, it seemed that there was an implicit control over the turn displayed by the students' smile. Instead of T, it was the students who were in charge of deciding whether they wanted to talk or not. On one hand, there was a subtle pressure exerted by T on them to interact, i.e. to answer her questions. In that case, T was initiating the interactional movement (SINCLAIR; COULTHARD, 1975). At first sight, it seemed here that it was T who was in charge of starting the conversation. On the other hand, the students' polite smile was displayed as a way of avoiding conversation. This responsive interactional movement tended to show that the students preferred to conduct a wordless interaction. Their smile was a reply to T's questions or complaints or comments. As a result, T responded to the students' nonverbal behavior with a reprimand, calling their attention to the need of completing their exercises at that time.

Differently from what normally happens in group activities, the occurrence of students' smile during individual oral corrections seems to mean avoidance of oral interaction, reflecting a social distance from T. As a reply to T's demands, complaints and reprimands, the students' smile seems to be displayed consciously. Because they do not feel comfortable with T's complaints, or they do not like answering at all, they prefer to use a polite conversational mechanism - that of being silent, as expressed by the polite smile. This reinforces Ekman's (2003) argument on the interactive meanings of polite smiles. According to Ekman (2003), this kind of smile tends to mask negative feelings.

Accordingly, this common students' nonverbal response through the smile as a way of protecting themselves from an unpleasant conversational episode, or of avoiding interaction with T could be observed in Bohn's work (2004, p. 9) with Japanese students, learning English. According to his findings, it is understood that "the smiling expression is used as a kind of etiquette or politeness" or it may signify "the students did not want to be embarrassed themselves or to embarrass T by not understanding what was taught". In the present work, the students' polite smile seemed to display their unwillingness to interact with T, or their embarrassment in admitting: 'I did not understand the exercise or I haven't done the exercise

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[21] Translated from the text in Portuguese: "(...) em que um dos participantes tem o direito de iniciar, orientar, dirigir e concluir a interação e exercer pressão sobre o(s) outro(s) participante(s)" MARCUSCHI, op. cit.,1991, p.16).

yet'. This might mean that the students' polite smile was used to hide their unfavorable emotions at class moments when T reprimands them about their class activities.

The students' nonverbal behavior towards T's reprimand or demands can be taken as mechanisms of conversational cooperation, namely "back channel sign" (GUMPERZ, 1982, p.163). According to Gumperz, not only the verbal but also the nonverbal signs of language can monitor, maintain and/or communicate the interlocutors' intentions and inferences. In this study, the students' smile was identified as a polite and implicit conversational mechanism to refrain the development of conversation. In short, the correspondence between the students' smile and T's approach during class activities tended to lessen the students' oral production. As Gumperz states,

> Other signs of cooperation are implied indirectly in the way speakers formulate responses, i.e. in whether they follow shifts in style, agree in distinguishing new from old or primary from secondary information, or in judging the quality of interpersonal relationships implied in a message, and know how to fill in what is implied but left unsaid or what to emphasize or de-emphasize. (GUMPERZ, 1982, p.163-164).

One interesting point to add in this analysis is T's viewpoint about the students' attitude in her class. Based on a conversation we had out of the school, T seemed to be worried with her students' resistance to speak during her classes. According to her, she tried to organize pair and group activities as a way of encouraging them to speak in English among themselves, as the students did not respond to her questions or converse among themselves in English. As revealed by the interview, T tended to employ more group and pair activities in the belief that, through cooperative work, the students could develop oral production; however, it was just the contrary that happened. The students tended to be embarrassed to speak in English with T, but they seemed to be self-confident in inquiring about their doubts, about grammar and vocabulary exercises in their individual interactions with T.

Probably because T failed to identify the defensive mechanism of the students' smile in oral interactions, her concern about her students' speech production in the classroom seemed to be most acceptable. This was most noticeable due to the fact that in her conversation with me, T never alluded to the students' nonverbal behavior in relation to class activities. On the contrary, she often emphasized working with pair and group activities as a way of increasing oral interaction among her students, as she said in the interview.

**Picture 7 - Student's Polite Smile – Class 9 –
14/10/08 – Semester 2008.2**

Source: Author`s personnel files, 2010.

There was another interactive moment in which the students' smile signals politeness in relation to T's comments. This class moment was devoted to correct the answers to the questionnaire about the film 'To Sir with Love' with the participation of all students. This was class 9, at 14/10/08, in the semester 2008.2. To begin with, T explained that they should pay attention to the use of the past tense of verbs as they answered the questions. After this, T started inquiring them on the questionnaire. In the second question: "Tell us something about the school where he taught". I saw that there was one student who seemed to be anxious to say something. This particular student (Picture 7) said once that his main difficulty in English was to speak. When answering the second question, this student smiled at T.

The smile in relation to T's comments (Picture 7) seems to signal the student's doubts about T's attitude. Used as a back channel sign for T's checking question 'For a?' the student's smile seemed to convey lack of understanding (EKMAN; FRIESEN, 1969). This student's nonverbal attitude probably denoted that he did not accept T's comments or that he did not answer correctly. According to Ekman and Friesen (1969), the nonverbal acts which are consciously transmitted by a singular interlocutor, and that establishes a misunderstanding to another interlocutor may signal more communicative meanings. According to Ekman's viewpoint (2003), this student's smile may show that he "can take the [teacher's] criticism and still smile at it" (p.210).

From the findings obtained, the importance of the gesture (the smile) during classroom interaction among the students, and between T and students must be highlighted (EKMAN; FRIESEN, 1969). It is well known among nonverbal behavior researchers that it is in the classroom environment that the interlocutors (re)construct their social identities and (re)produce oral interaction. Besides, nonverbal signs often come along with verbal signs,

complementing or contradicting the significant meanings that are (re)created during interactive moments (SANTOS, 2007). Again, nonverbal signs employed by both T and students can establish cultural patterns of social interaction, reflecting specific social meanings out of their uses.

In the present analysis, the students' smile, mostly expressed without words, tended to correspond not only to the students' personal feelings in relation to how class activities are organized by T, but also to T's attitude regarding classroom behavior. From the findings obtained, it can be inferred that students' facial expressions tended to speak louder than words. That is to say, the students tended to employ their smiling expression to agree with the opinions of others (in group work among classmates), to avoid oral interaction with T (direct interaction with T), to express lack of understanding, or to integrate themselves within some playful atmosphere in the classroom (when T used jokes at the beginning of classes).

The following part of analysis is devoted to the study of T's speech and students' smile. In a nutshell, I will explain which learning implication this relation provides concerning the students' oral production.

5.3   Students' Smile and Teacher's Speech in EFL Classroom Interaction

Bearing in mind the importance of students' smile in the teaching and learning processes of EFL, this study investigated to what extent students' nonverbal signs have contributed to the whole process of classroom interaction. Although the smile tends to be recognized as a universal enjoyable sign (EKMAN, 2003), it was fundamental to highlight in the present study that the students' smile may convey both interactive and informative meanings, which do not necessarily lead to harmonious classroom interaction. In this work, I argue that the students' smile displays an array of interactive and informative meanings depending on the type of classroom interaction that is established. I have noticed that during teacher and students' interaction, and during students and students' interaction, the students' smile may have or may have not contributed towards an increase in oral production.

The third and last part of the analysis investigated the relation between T's use of discourse markers and the students' smile at the interactive moments that focused on students' oral production. The focus here is twofold: First, I contend that T's use of DMs may motivate or de-motivate the students' production at the moment devoted to oral tasks. As for the second part of this chapter, I argue that it is through the students' smile that the oral production may

be developed. This argument reinforces the fact that classroom interaction results from a cooperative game between T and students during their conversational practices, revealing that oral interaction is constantly negotiated among interlocutors (MARCUSCHI, 1991; KOCH, 2006; TAVARES, 2007).

In the case of the interaction between T's speech and students' smile, I maintain that the negotiation of meanings can be unfolded in the dialogic game of facial expressions. On one hand, there is T's verbal element (Discourse markers) attempting to signal the outset of a conversation (see Appendix E for Table of Conversational verbal signs). On the other hand, there is the students' facial expression (the smile) signaling the continuing of conversation or not. The interpretation of this dialogic game, which includes facial expressions, might solely be inferred in the light of classroom reality organization, which is shared by all participants.

The last part of analysis rests, in particular, on the verbal and non-verbal aspects of communication in an EFL classroom. The analysis was based on data obtained through ethnographic research with an eye on the interplay between T's verbal behavior and the students' smile, and the implications of this interplay for students' oral production. The videotaped lessons allowed me to investigate aspects such as the social motivation of the students' smile in the classroom; the interactive meanings of the students' smile in oral activities; and the influence of T's verbal behavior along with the students' smile on EFL oral learning.

Because of lack of research evidence regarding the students' smile in connection with T's verbal behavior in classroom interaction, this study discusses the learning implication in oral production that this intersection may provide. However, what most research on nonverbal communication has evidenced is the influence of T's nonverbal signs on the teaching and learning processes. It has been argued that T's nonverbal signs such as gestures, hand movements and mimicries often come along with T's spoken language to either comment, complement, explain or illustrate the verbal utterances in discourse (PIOVESAN, 2001; LORSCHER, 2003; SANTOS, 2007; SIME, 2008).

Regarding the use of smile in classroom interaction, this nonverbal element has also been investigated from the part of T. According to Sime (2008), T's smile tends to indicate his/her reactions to the learners' output. T's smile has been generally conceived as a positive feedback in relation to the students' comments, answers or oral performances. Often recognized as a positive feedback by the students, T's smile tends to be seen as an instrument

of agreement and understanding. According to Sime's work (2008), T's smile seems to be identified as an evaluative mechanism of the students' class performances. If T does not smile after some student's answer or oral performance, this may mean by the students that T did not understand them or the students' answers or comments were not accepted as correct.

For the analysis of nonverbal elements in oral interactions, we need to explain them based on the external conditions, i.e. the environmental circumstances that surround the acts (EKMAN; FRIESEN, 1969). In this study, the students' smile appeared mainly in individual oral corrections. Four aspects were taken into account for the analysis: (a) the use; (b) the origin; (c) the interactive meaning implied and (d) the social relation established from the interplay of T's spoken discourse and students' smile. The use is meant as the contextual information which surrounds the nonverbal act. The origin has to do with the social motivation of the acts. And the interactive meaning involves those acts that can influence or modify another person's acts during oral interactions. When everyone laughs after listening to jokes, for instance, we may assume that the jokes established an interactive meaning of joy among the participants, thus, laughs appear as an interactive result among people (EKMAN; FRIESEN, 1969).

The students' smile in conjunction with T's verbal behavior could be noticed throughout research both in classroom observations and filmed lessons. In class 9, the lesson was designed to the continuation of the movie discussion and the following interactive episode took place when T was correcting the questionnaire about the film 'To Sir with Love' with the whole class. In an attempt to know whether the students were attentive or not in that part of the lesson, T posed a direct question to one of the students, as shown in the interactive instance below:

Picture 8 - Student's Smile – Class 9-
14/10/08 – Semester 2008.2

Source: Author`s personnel files, 2010.

During Interactive moment (IM) 1 – class 9 – 14/10/08

((Drawing one students' attention to the discussion about the film))

T: do you remember, Claudia?

S1: yes   ((the student nodded her head and smiled))

The student's smiling expression, illustrated in this interaction (Picture 8), can be identified as a communicative strategy to avoid oral interaction as well as to express politeness in relation to T's question. In responding to T's questions, the student said yes. The way to emphasize the yes answer, this student nodded her head and gave a polite smile. Considering that nonverbal acts normally come along with spoken language adding functional meanings to the whole communication, this student's smile seems to contradict her intended message (PENNYCOOK, 1985). If the student, in fact, remembered Mr. Tackeray's professional life – the question posed in that moment of discussion – she would have added something more after having said 'yes'. On the contrary, this student displayed a polite smile and gave no words afterwards. For this reason, the student's polite smile could be regarded as a way to prevent herself for conversation with T, a fact that corroborates Bohn's (2004) study.

There are some cases in which the smile in the classroom context may denote students' lack of self-confidence or embarrassment to continue talking to T. According to Ekman and Friesen (1969), nonverbal acts are not often intended to communicate but can be subject to inhibition, to dissimulate and to occur without any awareness. In face of what occurred to T and student interaction illustrated above, we may observe the student's inhibition to complete her answer in relation to T's direct question. Two reasons may raise from this students' nonverbal attitude: uncertainty or insecurity in commenting something. The student's smile, here, may indicate that this student did not feel safe enough to add comments after having said 'Yes'. Or because T's direct questions threatened her to go on talking about the film. For one reason or another, the student's smile tended to be used instead of speech as a way to refrain the student's speech.

However, there are moments when the polite smile can sign agreement. This can be illustrated in the interactive episode below, during classroom observation, when the students' smile appeared as a reaction to T's answer. According to Ekman's studies (2003), this type of smile often denotes that someone agrees with or understands what the speaker is saying during a conversation. This interactive moment (IM 6) occurred when in the explanation about sensitive verbs (to like, to love, to adore, to hate) that cannot be used in the continuous aspect. This was the class 7 at 18/03/08, in the semester 2008.1. Asking about the reason, one student gave a smile after expressing 'Ahhh', as if he was signaling agreement with T's answer.

Interactive Moment 6 – class 7 – 18/03/08
((Students' smile of agreement based on T's explanation about some verbs that cannot be used in the continuous aspect))
S1: Why?
T: because it's a rule.
S1: Ahhh (smile)

One aspect to be considered in this interaction is the student's initiative to ask T, a fact which was rarely noticed throughout research. As asserted by Sinclair and Couthard (1975), the standard interactional movement of Initiation and Response encountered in most classroom interactions is often managed by teachers. Such interactional movements tend to establish T's own to answer, evaluate or comment the students' speech. What can be seen in this interaction is the contrary of the most common patterns of interactional movements in classroom interaction. It was the student who asked, i.e. who started the interaction, and gave a feedback according to T's answer. Positioned in the evaluative interactional movement, the student's smile seems to indicate the student's agreement with T's answer, which was reinforced by the prosodic element 'Ahhhh'.

It could be noticed another interactive moment in which the students' smile and T's speech indicate lack of students' speech production. This time, the part of the lesson was designed to the group activity. Students were asked to create a final story about Mr.

Thackeray's professional future. Initially, T explained the task. Later on, T started to walk around to each group in order to check out how the students were doing the task, by answering their doubts or explaining some points they did not comprehend. With a group of four female students, T stopped, sat down in front of one of them and began interacting with them.

It should be pointed out here about the profile of these four female students. Throughout research, I could observe that these female students tended to be silent in the classroom. Not only during pair or group activities, but also in moments of individual activities these students tended to respond to T's questions, comments or reprimands with silence and, frequently, with a smile on their face. What is more, even among them, they often talk timidly. Thus, it is a group of introverted students. Taking all these personality traits into account, we can infer that these students have difficulties in expressing themselves orally in the English language. To motivate them to talk in English is a hard task for T. The interactive moment 8 below clearly illustrates T's attempts to instigate these four students' speech production.

Interactive moment (IM) 8 – class 17 – 15/05/08	**(To be)**

((T hands out a written exercise and asks Ss to discuss in pairs to create a story. After a while, she starts out going around each pair or group of students to check the stories out. With a group of four students, she stopped, sat down and began the oral interaction with them))

1. T: Finished? Did you FInish? because I'm GOing to listen the story. ((as she talks,

2. she walks. around the students)) ((after, she sits near a group of students)) FI nished? Ok

3. Tell HER what.you READ.

4. S1: ((one student smiles, looking at a colleague))

5. T: ou vocês falam ou vocês não terminam esse curso não.[22] ((T advises))

6. S1: I know

Interactive moment (IM) 8 – class 17 – 15/05/08   **(Conclusion)**

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7. T: /.../ ou fala ou desiste.

8. S1: não é vergonha   ((another student looks at a colleague))

9. S2: e:::h a gente não sabe nem o que dizer

10. T: estuda em casa

11. Ss: ((all students smile))

12. T: Ah então estuda em casa

13. Ss: ((all students smile))

14. T: só isso? Então nós temos a solução: vamos estudar.

15. T: OK. O que você sabe? Conta aí pra gente. ((looking at one student))

16. S1: As a:::h ((unaudible))

17. T: Vá contando pra ela ((T points out to other colleagues as she talks to this student))

In general, it can be noticed that it is T's voice which prevails more throughout this conversation. There are more speech instances from T. As it is illustrated below (Picture 9), T often reprimands them for two main reasons: (1) for not speaking in English; (2) for not studying at home. Initially, the purpose of this interaction was the sharing of the students' story and T was there to verify or comment about some students' doubts about the development of their story. This evidence can be illustrated from lines 1, 2 and 3 above; moment when T attempts to motivate the students to start talking, saying that she was there to listen to their story.

Throughout research, it could be noticed T's verbal attitude in orienting the turn system during the classroom conversations. As shown in line 3, 'Tell her what you read', T announces what she expects to happen in that interactive event, i.e. that the students could start telling the story. As said during the interview, T seems to be frequently worried about the

students' speech production and attempts to elicit students' talk in every type of class activity. What could be observed is T's direct attempt to elicit students' talk. It is often through direct questions (yes/no questions), open questions (wh-questions), directing who should speak first or refreshing the students' memory about the class topic that T is always trying to make students talk. What T does not seem to notice, however, is the students' nonverbal attitude in relation to her way of eliciting students' speech. This fact can be illustrated in the picture 8 and example of interaction below.

Picture 9 - Interactive Moment 8 – Class 17 – 15/05/08
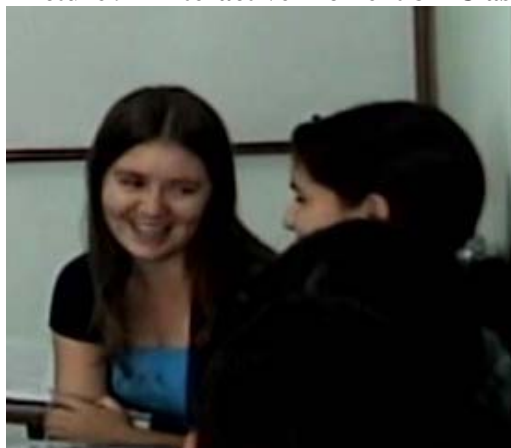
Source: Author`s personnel files, 2010.

At this very moment, T was giving a reprimand to all students. As T approached them, there was no oral reply in relation to what T said: 'Tell her what you read". After some minutes, probably noticing the students' lack of confidence to talk, T advised them for the need to talk in English in the classroom in saying "ou vocês falam ou vocês não terminam esse curso não". In responding to T's reprimand, the students gave a coordinated and social smile, also known as a polite smile (FREITAS-MAGALHÃES, 2006). The coordinated smile is recognized when the individuals' nonverbal behavior, in this case the smile, corresponds to either external stimulus, a specific tone of voice or types of social events. In the interactional instance above, the student's smile was coordinated to T's reprimand. Consequently, the students' smile can be identified as a strategy of politeness to avoid oral interaction. Instead of expressing happiness, a common definition of a smiling face (RECTOR; TRINTA, 1993), the students' smile seems to represent embarrassment for not speaking in front of T or lack of confidence to respond to T's demands.

The difficulty in expressing orally in the English language can be seen by one student according to her nonverbal behavior. Not only the polite smile – often shown when the cheeks are higher (Picture 9) – but also the crossed arms may indicate the student's timid and/or defensive behavior in interacting with T and other classmates. After having listened to T's demand to say the story to other classmates, this student's smiling expression along with the crossed arms may have indicated discomfort or disagreement with T's demand. Probably she did not want to participate or did not know what and how to say. Although the crossed arms often represent the individuals' defensive behavior in relation to what is heard or seen (WEIL; TOMPAKOW, 2008), in this example of classroom interaction the crossed arms is likely to represent embarrassment and timid posture to participate in the conversation.

The students' polite and masked smile (Picture 10) seems to indicate an important interactive nonverbal meaning to the whole group (EKMAN; FRIESEN, 1969). Establishing an interactive meaning, this smile could modify other classmates' facial expressions. Everyone smiled when the blue blouse student did so. Thus, they shared the same smile of politeness which could be reinforced by their verbal response, seen in lines 8 and 9 below. There is one student who explains the lack of oral production by saying: "não é vergonha"[23] (line 8). Probably because as she speaks she looks at other classmates, as if they agree with her statement, it can be argued that all of them shared the same sensation. Reinforcing the first student's argument, another student justifies the absence of talking in English because they do not know what to say (line 9). After T's response of these students' argument (line 10) in the form of advice "study at home" (line 10), the students' social and polite smile may indicate two replies. First, the students expected T to explain the oral task to them and it was not what T actually did. Or second, the students' smile reinforced their lack of self-confidence for speaking, as already explained in line 9.

Picture 10 - Interactive Moment 8 – Class 17 – 15/05/08

Source: Author`s personnel files, 2010.

8. S1: não é vergonha   ((another student looks at a colleague))
9. S2: e:::h a gente não sabe nem o que dizer[24]
10. T: estuda em casa[25]
11. Ss: ((all students smile))

Interactive moment 8 – class 17 – 15/05/08

From the findings obtained, the students' polite smile may contribute to their lack of speech production. Such lack of students' talk may be the result of two aspects of classroom interaction. On one hand, there is the constant T's verbal behavior in orienting the turn system (MARCUSCHI, 1991). T's verbal acts are frequently indicating who should speak first, expecting the sequencing structure of classroom talk, providing reprimands or giving advises on what to do during the classroom interactions. This may lead students to lack of talk initiative in conversational encounters, making them believe that their speech production can be related to the response movement of classroom interaction (SINCLAIR; COULTHARD, 1975). In case of such interactive episode, the smile (line 11) indicates the students' responsive attitude in relation to T's reprimand.

On the other hand, the students' polite smile is likely to represent the students' individual personality which reflects on their EFL oral performance. The students' polite smile seems to express unenjoyable emotions in most interactive instances with T (EKMAN, 2003). According to the episodes of classroom interaction analyzed, the students' polite smile

provides evidence of their lack of active participation in both oral tasks and in interacting with T. Such nonverbal attitude may reveal a communicative function of embarrassment. As shown in Picture 10, the masked and polite smile displayed by students represents a response of T's constant reprimand of their lack of talk during the oral tasks.

Still in Picture 10, the students' polite and social smile can be described according to their body posture. For the first student, the mouth curves slightly upwards, the lips slightly open and the chin supported by her hand may indicate the student's firm and challenging position in not answering T's demands (WEIL; TOMPAKOW, 2008). The open smile represented by another student might indicate spontaneity. However, the mid open eyes in both students can be an indicative of timid attitude to talk, and their misunderstanding of what needs to be done at that very moment.

According to the findings obtained about the students' smile in these classroom interactions, the smile seems to be recognized as a contextualization cue (GUMPERZ, 1982; LEVINSON, 1997). In most interactions with T, the students' polite is often associated to politeness or indirect way to avoid oral interaction. Because of its frequent use among students, the students' smile tends to signal embarrassment or timid attitude to express orally with T. Therefore, the smile acts as "an enconded or conventional reminder, like a knot in a handkerchief, where the content of the memo is inferentially determined" (Levinson, 1997, p. 27). Having Pictures 9 and 10 as examples to illustrate this argument, the smile displayed by one student activates and retrieves the background knowledge base that is appropriate for the process of inferences takes place among students. In other words, once the smile is displayed in interactive moments with T, other students seem to automatically relate it to politeness, as it can be seen in Picture 11 below.

Picture 11 - Interactive Moment 8 – Class 17 – 15/05/08

Source: Author`s personnel files., 2010

12. T: Ah então estuda em casa
13. Ss: ((all students smile))
14. T: só isso? Então nós temos a solução: vamos estudar.
15. T: OK. O que você sabe? Conta aí pra gente. ((looking at one student))
16. S1: As a:::h ((unaudible))
17. T: Vá contando pra ela ((T points out to other colleagues as she talks to this student))

Interactive moment 8 – class 17 – 15/05/08

The lack of T's understanding of the students' smile meanings in classroom interaction may represent one aspect of students' lack of speech production. In not comprehending what the students' smile imply in this conversation, T's attitude in giving constant reprimand for not studying at home (line 10 – Picture 9) may have caused students' lack of interest or self-confidence in continue talking or studying the English language. Again, the students' polite smile appears as a communicative strategy to avoid oral interaction with T and/or among other classmates. This fact could be reinforced by T's spoken discourse (lines 12 and 14 - Picture 10) and by the students' nonverbal reply (line 13 – Picture 9) respectively. Only in line 16, seen below, there is one student's timid attempt in telling the story.

One student's attempt in expressing orally in the English language (line 16) is associated to T's speech. The use of the discourse marker 'Ok' followed by a question 'O que você sabe?'[26], and a request 'Conta aí pra gente'[27] indicates two T's discourse functions. First, the use of 'Ok' at the beginning of the communicative unit indicates the closing of the preceding topic, i.e. the reprimands, mentioned before (line 14). Second, T's question 'O que você sabe?' provides a cataphoric function. It suggests that T expects the students to move on the conversation. In this sense, T is signaling the ordering sequencing of the turn-taking system. Now, she is in the command about who, how and when should speak first. This can be illustrated when T says 'Conta aí pra gente', indicating one particular student to continue talking.

Typical of speech, the discourse markers (DMs) are elements that help construct cohesion and coherence to oral discourse within the conversation event. Coherence is built as DMs link the semantic content of what was said to what is going to be said. This can be illustrated in lines 14 and 15 from the interactive moment seen above. Furthermore, cohesive devices are used to (re)orient the argument or the discursive topic making appropriate adjustments to the whole conversation. T's speech in the above interactive example illustrates T's intention to close one discursive topic to follow another, i.e. to give an end to the reprimands and to re-orient the task for students to go on talking.

The coherent speech can be recognized through the interlocutors' level of attention and participation, and how they attempt to manage the turns and negotiate the development of the conversation (SCHIFFRIN, 1987; URBANO, 2003). This often happens in a harmonious interaction when the cooperative principle of conversations is shared among the interlocutors. However, lack of understanding and cooperation among the participants throughout conversations can lead to miscommunication (GUMPERZ, 1982, p. 132). As Gumperz (1982) contends, "[…] when a listener does not react to a cue or is unaware of its function, interpretations may differ and misunderstanding may occur". For this reason, misunderstandings can cause disruption of conversational rhythm or thematic progression, and diminish the amount of oral interaction among the interlocutors.

From the interactive example seen on Picture 9, the reasons which surround the misunderstandings in the dialogue are twofold. On one hand, it can be seen T's lack of understanding of students' smile intents. This fact may be reinforced as T kept on giving advices about the students' classroom behavior and did not take careful attention on the

intents of students' smile during the dialogue. Consequently, T's constant reprimand could reduce the students' speech production.

On the other hand, the students' smile may be seen as a contextualization cue (GUMPERZ, 1982), providing some significant social meanings in classroom conversations with T. First, the students' social smile can reveal their social position in the classroom context establishing the level of intimacy among the interlocutors during conversations. In responding to T's frequent reprimand, the students' polite smile appears as a conversational strategy used to avoid oral interaction or to provide evidence of students' embarrassing attitude to respond orally to T. Such nonverbal behavior tends to establish a more distant social relation with T probably because of their embarrassing behavior provided by the smile, resulting in an asymmetric relation with T (MARCUSCHI, 1991).

Second, the smile provides semantic information about how the students convey their feelings through their smile in classroom conversations. The conversational interpretations emerged from the display of students' smile seem to be dependent on specific classroom activities. In group activities, the students' smile tends to represent students' engagement and satisfaction in accomplishing the oral tasks. However, in individual interactions with T, the case illustrated in Pictures 8, 9 and 10, the students' polite smile seems to indicate a blockage nonverbal element for speech production. The students tend to be more timid when interacting with T and, as a result, use the smile in the place of speech. In sum, based on the findings obtained, the social meanings of students' smile are implicitly revealed and cannot be understood out of specific classroom activities.

One of the consequences of T's constant reprimand, as seen in the conversational episode analyzed here, could be noticed in one student's attempt to tell her story. The difficulty in expressing herself in English could be noted through her nonverbal behavior. Her legs were crossed, she was looking down while speaking what she wrote on the sheet of paper and her arms were constantly moving on her legs (WEIL; TOMPAKOW, 2008). These body movements could describe her timid way of speaking. Even though the students' body movements were not the focus on analysis, this student's nonverbal behavior can reinforce the social meaning of her smile analyzed beforehand.

The introverted nonverbal behavior probably emphasizes the interactive meaning of politeness displayed by her smile moments ago. The difficulty in talking in English could be

noticed by both her smile and body movements. The synchrony of her smiling expression with the body movements would indicate that she did not want to embarrass T about her insecurity in speaking in English and, because of this, that she did not know how to continue the oral task (see Picture 12 below).

Picture 12 - Interactive Moment 8 – Class 17 – 15/05/08

Source: Author`s personnel files., 2010.

12. T: They were…
13. T: very good. That's it.
14. T: He didn't miss him. Não sentia falta. He couldn't, he couldn't miss him.
15. T: Do you remember the object she missed? Was it a knife?

Interactive moment 8 – class 17 – 15/05/08

Another aspect which seemed to motivate this student's effort in speaking in English was through T's discursive strategies. Although the student's speech was hard to listen to, it was through T's feedback that I could perceive some student's effort in talking in English. It should be worthwhile considering, nevertheless, that these discursive strategies were mostly used with pre-intermediate students. Notably positioned in the evaluative movement of the turn (SINCLAIR; COULTHARD, 1975), T's feedback was given through repetition, direct

questions and positive comments. The development of the student's speech could be perceived as T incited the oral production in saying "They were…" (line 12). To agree with what the student was saying, evaluative comments such as "Very good. That's it' (line 13) were common to hear from T. Another discursive strategy to encourage the student's speech production could be seen through T's repetition of student's answers/ comments as in 'He didn't miss him. ….he couldn't miss him' (line 14).

Conversation normally takes place when at least two people are engaged in a face-to-face encounter. To talk is not only open the mouth and spread out words. It is more than this (WARDHAUGH, 1998). It also includes body language, that is to say, the touch, gestures, eye contact, the smile, hand and head movements are invariably present while we communicate to each other. Body communication can establish a variety of communicative functions serving either to complement, emphasize or contradict the spoken discourse (OLIVEIRA, 2007; SANTOS, 2007; SOUZA, 2007). The smiling expression of politeness can convey indifference, insecurity in engaging in oral interactions or agreement with what has been heard. Along with the participants' communicative intentions, it will be the contextual factors (the participants involved, the setting, the interactional event itself, the communicative objective) that will define and orient the manner(s) by which the interlocutors conduct the conversations.

The same procedure happens in the classroom. Not only the speech but also the nonverbal language, of both teacher and students', are in constant (re)negotiation of meanings with the intent of constructing a favorable atmosphere needed to the accomplishment of the teaching and learning process. Under this Pragmatic (LEVINSON, 1983) and Socio – interactional perspective of interaction, classroom conversation becomes a result of a cooperative and collaborative conversational principles which is shared and (co) constructed among teacher and students (MARCUSCHI, 1991; WARDHAUGH, 1998; KOCH, 2006). Both words and body language expressed and displayed by teacher and students serve to complement, reinforce, explain, add or contradict important information during classroom interaction. When the classroom communication flows harmonically, we infer that both verbal and nonverbal elements of language, used by all interlocutors (teacher and students), fulfilled either the teaching and/or learning objectives. If, on the other hand, there are misunderstandings in classroom communication, we may attribute this to the failure of the

cooperative nature of interaction among the participants through the use of verbal and nonverbal elements of language.

According to the objective investigated in this study, EFL classroom interaction is regarded as a dialogic game between the students' smile and T's spoken discourse. With this in mind, I believe and could notice that the students' smiling face should be treated as a vital interactive nonverbal element during classroom interaction. Their smiling expression could reveal different social and communicative meanings which could be seen fundamental to comprehend the students' interactional processes in specific classroom moments. For example, although the relation between students' smile and T's speech seems to inhibit the students' oral production in some teacher-student interactions, the findings show a reasonable amount of students' speech production during student-student interaction. In a nutshell, the students' smile accounts for their personal feelings and attitudes in relation to what happens in the classroom activities reflecting in different learning implications to the development of conversation with both T and their classmates.

According to results, the students' smiling face provides valuable indicatives of their personal interest in engaging in oral activities or not. Depending on the type of class activity worked and with whom they were involved, the smile displayed by the students tended to be a nonverbal indicative whether they wanted to actively participate in oral tasks or not, and whether they felt self-confident enough to interact individually with T. It was through the smiling face that students could perceive and reveal what they felt about things they heard and saw. This sensation displayed by the students' smiling face did not only provide room for dialogues but also showed nonverbal evidence of their desire to be part of the process of classroom communication or not.

Studying nonverbal language in the classroom context not only offer us with valuable insights to understand both T's pedagogical and students' learning attitudes. Nonverbal language can also help us interpret T and students' nonverbal posture in relation to the foreign language teaching and learning processes. Based on the students' nonverbal expressions, I could infer their communicative and learning intents through their smiling expressions. As Weil and Tompakow (2008) contend, even when we try to hide our intentions through spoken discourse, body language never tell us a lie about how we feel or perceive in any social interaction.

6 FINAL REMARKS, LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH, AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

6.1 Final Remarks

As already explained, this study was an attempt to shed light on the interplay between nonverbal and verbal elements of language in EFL classroom interaction at college level, and their contribution in relation to students' oral production. More specifically, this work was designed to investigate three aspects of EFL classroom interaction. First, it was seen the use and functions of T's discourse markers and their influence to the students' speech production. Second, the students' smile was investigated in order to see their functional and interactive meanings in moments that dealt with oral development. Finally, the interplay between T's speech and students' smile was also analyzed to verify to what extent this connection contributes to the students' oral production.

Regarding the results obtained from T's interview, findings showed that her classes were more organized in terms of pair and group works. She believes that it is through group and pair activities that students' oral fluency tends to increase, particularly in the Lab, the place where the listening and speaking skills receive more attention and that they are oriented to create dialogues with their classmates. This fact could be verified during classroom observation and the video-recorded stages of research. Besides, as noticed in the classroom observations, it was during pair works and individual oral corrections of grammatical exercises that T tended to instigate students' speech production.

Based on the first research question – How does EFL classroom interaction contribute to students' oral production? – I could infer that there were some factors which seem to influence students' speech. Particularly with pre-intermediate students, oral interaction among learners tends to increase when T: (1) checks out grammatical exercises with them; (2) poses questions which are designed to vocabulary, grammar and reading tasks which are textbook-based; (3) attempts to motivate learners' comments during open discussions and (4) answers or clarifies the learners' doubts. It should be emphasized here, however, that such learners' oral behavior tends to rest on T's speech, mainly when their doubts concern language structure and topic development. Due to this fact, T needs to orient students' dialogues or any oral activities in which they practice the language. On the other hand, with upper-intermediate students – the minority – T only motivates them to open discussions.

Concerning the second research question – which class interactive moments does the teacher emphasize students' oral production? – findings showed that it was in pair and work activities, in individual oral corrections, during the reading tasks, in open discussions and in answering learners' doubts that the conversation skill receives more attention. These results go in line with what T said in the interview. According to her, she gives priority to a more communicative class, in a constant attempt to organize activities that promote oral production. As she answered in the question – What type of teaching approach do you believe tends to be more effective in EFL at college level? – "the communicative approach, even when students become resistant to talk".

As far the third research question is concerned – which class occasions do verbal and nonverbal elements interact in the promotion of learners' speech? – findings showed that they were the same of those described for the second research question. However, the difference rests on the types of classroom interaction established between T and students, and among students, resulting in different learning implications for oral production. In T and student interaction, the interplay of verbal and nonverbal elements tends to orient to a more asymmetric relationship between them. This could be noticed particularly because T often plays the role of initiating and evaluating learners' oral contribution while the students tend to respond to her requirements during the conversational turns.

On the other hand, in the student-student interaction, the interplay of verbal and nonverbal elements seems to play an interactive and, therefore, a positive role for speech production. It is mainly during pair and group activities that learners tend to express themselves with more freedom, using nonverbal elements to facilitate their interaction and helping them accomplish the oral tasks.

As for the fourth research question - which interactive sources does the teacher use to instigate learners' oral production, and what is their pedagogical implication? - results indicated that it was through the use of Discourse Markers (DMs), repeating students' answers and comments, and posing direct questions after imperative sentences that T attempted to instigate students' oral production. Often managed at the beginning of T's communicative units, mainly during an explanation about an oral task, both in pair and group activities, the direct questions followed by imperative sentences were used as a way to orient and/or motivate dialogue creation among students.

The use of DMs, particularly the 'Ok', tended to be used by T as a discursive strategy to orient a new topic, to call students' attention, to reprimand them for not having done both the homework and the class activity, and to evaluate students' responses and comments. In providing positive feedback to students' answers or comments, T often used this DM followed by positive evaluative sentences such as ' Ok, very good', ' Ok, That is it', or repeating the students' comments. In sum, such T's verbal behavior in classroom interaction with her students seemed to contribute for a more teacher-oriented learners' speech production. It was often in the form of answers that pre-intermediate learners' speech tended to emerge. Such learners' verbal procedure seemed to reflect on the T's voice and orientations.

With regard to the fifth research question - which interactive sources do the students use to produce in English and what is their learning implication concerning oral production? – the smile was the recurrent nonverbal element during students' conversations both in group and pair activities. According to results, students showed two different smiling expressions at different interactive moments, reflecting on two distinguished classroom interactions: teacher-students' interactions and student-student interactions.

In student-student interactions, students' speech production turned to be a result of the smiling expression in class conversations. When students were interacting with one another, particularly in group or pair works, the spontaneous smile (also called Duchhene smile) was used as a contextualization cue for agreement and understanding among them. It was smiling that students could agree with what was said, and could sign that they understood the message received from a positive way. Consequently, the students' spontaneous smile seemed to sign students' oral engagement, also reflecting a good atmosphere of relationship among them.

On the other hand, lack of students' speech production could be observed during T-student interaction. When in contact with T in open oral discussions and by the time T approached them to clarify their doubts or orient their activities, students tended to be more timid in expressing themselves. Consequently, they used the polite smile in the place of speech as a way to avoid interaction with T, or to express their wish for not talking. In sum, the polite smile became a contextualization cue for avoiding oral production.

This lack of students' oral production could be due to two students' learning implications. The first may be related to the lack of students' linguistic knowledge. Probably

because they did not know or did not have enough knowledge, they felt discouraged to interact with T. The second aspect may concern the students' lack of self-confidence to speak and, as consequently, feel embarrassed to be involved in oral participation. Through smiling, the learners could infer their insecurity either in answering or in having a simple conversation with T. More common with introverted students, the polite smile could reveal the students' desire in protecting their desire in not being involved with oral activities.

In what follows, some fundamental limitations of this work are explained.

6.2   Limitations of Research

Despite some motivating results obtained from all the research carried out here, it is important to emphasize that a number of limitations were also present. First, the investigated teacher gave emphasis on students' oral production of the discipline English language 1. According to her, it was that level that she was working with the speaking skill more often. For this reason, further studies should concentrate on different proficiency levels at college.

Second, this study only investigates EFL classroom interaction with a focus on conversational activities that attempted to explore students' oral production. Considering that in any foreign language classroom there are other interactive instances which concentrate on conversation, for example, future research can explore the interplay between verbal and nonverbal language by T and students during reading classes, and their contribution to the learning of EFL reading.

Third, due to research problems, this work investigated the T's speech and its relation to students' smiling expression. Because T did not allow her image in this work, but only the students, I did not have enough data to explore T's smiling expression. As a result, I needed to focus on the students' facial expression in order to find out relevant nonverbal element for that classroom interaction. Taking this aspect of research into a full account, other studies can investigate the T's facial expression and its connection with the students' oral learning.

Another important limitation of this investigation was the nonverbal element (the smile) chosen for analysis. Since the smile was noticed as a recurrent nonverbal sign used in that classroom context, I believed that would be explored during classroom interaction. Thus, having in mind that there are a variety of nonverbal elements in human communication, playing fundamental interactive roles in the production and interpretation of conversations,

future studies about nonverbal language in classroom interaction can explore other students' nonverbal signs such as eye contact, touch, distancing to see their influence in the learning of oral production.

Finally, the number of EFL teachers involved in this study came just from one public institution of the state of Paraiba, Brazil. Extensive research in other educational institutions, from other Brazilian states, and with other EFL teachers need to be further developed. All in all, these limitations of study may serve as suggestions and stimuli for future research in the area of Teaching English as a Foreign Language at college level, with regard to the development of students' oral production.

6.3   Pedagogical and Learning Implications

As shown throughout this study, a great amount of research on nonverbal language in classroom interaction has been interested in exploring the T's nonverbal elements (gestures, hand movements, proxemics, body movements and facial expressions) to discuss their teaching implications during the conversational exchanges between T and students. What these studies have revealed is the predominance of the T's pedagogical objectives through the use of nonverbal language. In other words, T's body language has often shed light either on the class content, classroom organization or the students' lack of vocabulary and grammar understandings. These studies, therefore, have found out that T's gestures or any other nonverbal element notably reinforces what is taught with an aim to regulate and organize T's speech and his/her pedagogical objectives. That is to say, T's nonverbal language tends to provide positive feedback, highlight relevant information, replace verbal language when words are unknown by learners, reprimand students and promote a funny atmosphere of interaction.

Since there was lack of research based on students' nonverbal language in classroom interaction, I attempted to investigate the students' smile for two main reasons. The first reason lies on the fact that this was the most predominant nonverbal element used by students among them and with T. The second reason is that the students' smile could be described as an important pragmatic and interactive discursive strategy. In this study, the students' smile has proven to convey fundamental interactive meanings during classroom interaction, contributing to accomplishing students' speech production or not.

With the argument previously mentioned in mind, two learning implications stems from the analysis of the students' smile. According to results, two types of smile were identified carrying with their display distinguishing learning implications for oral production. The first smile is called Duchenne or spontaneous smile. Notably identified during group and pair activities, this smile seemed to sign the students' oral engagement and a joint collaborative effort, contributing for a more spontaneous talk among them. Often managed in conjunction with other's speech, i.e. after a student's reply, help, the Duchenne smile tended to reinforce the argument, to clarify doubts or to build students' self-confidence during the oral tasks.

On the other hand, the second type of smile – the polite smile – often derived from interactions with T, resulting in lack of students' speech production. This type of students' smile was normally displayed in T-student interactions notably responding to the T's verbal posture. Commonly displayed by introverted students, the polite smile tended to convey their desire for not participating in conversations with T and their reaction in relation to the T's reprimand. According to these results, the students' polite smile tended to be a response of the T's pedagogical objectives and was also a reflection of students' learning difficulties such as lack of linguistic knowledge and self-confidence to speak.

In this work, it was my intent to raise reflections about the dialogic game of the verbal and nonverbal elements of language in a classroom environment. More specifically, I attempted to highlight the role of students' smile in classroom interaction and its relation to the development of students' oral production. Instead of complementing or emphasizing the spoken language in classroom conversations, from the data obtained and analyzed, it could be inferred that the students' smile turned out to be an important interactive nonverbal element. Its use not only favored a closer relation among students, but also signed to help them co-construct oral activities, also favoring an increase of oral interaction among them.

There are an array of aspects which contribute to an effective teaching and learning environment. They are the T and students' approaches of teaching and learning, their motivation, beliefs, desires, anxieties, frustrations, i.e. all of their implicit and explicit knowledge of how teaching and learning should be accomplished. With this definition in mind, learning becomes a result of the T and the students' joining efforts to behave and signify appropriately in the classroom environment. These efforts consists of a set of

principles, attitudes, past experiences, verbalized and non-verbalized actions and decisions about how to behave appropriately in the classroom in order to achieve effective learning.

Based on what I discussed throughout this study, it could be inferred that effective oral production derives from T and students' collaborative efforts to understand their words and actions during interactive moments of classroom interaction. The dialogic game of words and facial expressions, notably represented by T's speech and students' smile, appeared to be fundamental interactive and pragmatic aspects of face-to-face interaction which cannot be neglected during the negotiation of meanings among the participants. If, on one hand, the students' smile seemed to represent a private protection for not being engaged in interactions, on the other hand their smile could be identified as a relevant discourse strategy and contextualization cue. In other words, their smile became an indicative of their own responsibility for their learning by means of helping one another on the assigned oral tasks.

In this study, it has been my intent to reflect upon the relation between T's speech and students' smile concerning the teaching and learning of students' speech production. And more specifically, I attempted to instigate reflections about the importance of smile in classroom interactions. To smile not only represents that someone is satisfied with something or to what have heard or seen. The smile in the classroom context, seen from T's perspective, can relate to satisfaction or not. What characterizes its interactive meaning and its contribution for students' learning is the contextual aspects which surrounds the smile display. I cannot simply say that, in order to help learners interact spontaneously, we, teachers, should give an open smile to them. That is too vague.

Throughout my teaching praxis, I pondered that classroom research should have been more attentive to the T's praxis and approaches of teaching, believing that learning results from the T's efforts in applying the most appropriate techniques and methods. Nowadays, I strongly defend that learning is a result of verbalized and non-verbalized actions by both T and students, and that should work together for accomplishing a successful and harmonious learning setting. This game of producing and interpreting language in the classroom context, as shown in this work, also includes the comprehension of what a smiling expression wants to convey.

As I have pointed out throughout this work, a great amount of classroom research has been concerned to the study of teachers' verbal and nonverbal behavior and their implications

for the students' learning. Less has been investigated about students' nonverbal behavior, in particular to their smile during class activities. Although teachers have been the center of attention for most classroom researchers – for their verbal and nonverbal attitude might contribute for different learning implications – future research might also take into account which students' nonverbal features can help them develop their oral production or any learning aspect that is worked in the classroom. The students' eye contact, body movements, silence and their smile, the focus of this work, can be investigated as nonverbal indicatives that something might be wrong in their learning process.

By attempting to understand what is behind a student's smile, we teachers can become better equipped to not only interact with them, but also use their smile as a motivating discourse strategy in any class moment. Sometimes, a look or a simple smile expresses much more than words in a conversational exchange. But sometimes smiles can denote misunderstandings, if they are shown when people do not feel enjoyment in interacting with someone. In other words, the smile becomes a facial expression of politeness.

As human communication is socially learnt, so are the gestures which we manage in different instances of oral interactions. The smiling face can only represent a social and interactive meaning if analyzed as a unit of communication, when referred to a context. At first sight, it seems a hard exercise trying to decipher the smile in oral interactions. Nevertheless, finding out what emotions are revealed through a smiling face might be a transforming and motivating instrument for helping understand T and students' real intents during classroom interactions.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

THE TEACHER'S QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Where did you study English? I started When I was 10 years old with my sister at Home. After, I went to Michigan language school, then CCAA and Fisk, where I finished.

2. So, how long have you studied English? From 10 to 21 years old. Around 11 years.
3. And how long have you been teaching English? Around 13 years. 2 years and a half at Wizard, and since
    21 years old I have been teaching at High school and now at UEPB.
4. What motivated you to become an EFL teacher? To study English in small groups at Wizard.
5. And where are you graduated from? First, I graduated in Administration course , then Letters course here at UEPB.
6. Do you have any post-graduation diploma? If so, which one(s)? I have a diploma certificate in Hospital Administration, at UNAERPE, Minas Gerais and in Applied Linguistics at UFCG, Campina Grande.
7. What type of teaching approach do you believe tends to be more effective in EFL at college level? The communicative approach, even when students become resistant to talk.
8. What type of teaching approach you were exposed to when you were an EFL student? Most of them was traditional.
9. What type of learning approach do you believe tends to be more appropriate in EFL at college level? ALL kinds of different learning approaches.

APPENDIX B

STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Where did you study English before college?
2. How long have you been studying English?
3. Why do you like to study English?
4. Do you try to compare your own language to the one you study?
5. What motivated you to choose English language in the Letters and Arts Course?
6. Do you want to be an English teacher? Justify your answer.
7. Which learning strategy do you prefer to adopt in your English lessons at the Letters and Arts course?
8. Which teaching approach do you believe tend to be more effective in EFL at college level?

Answers

1. Eight students said they studied at school, while 4 at private language schools. Only 2 consider themselves autonomous (self-study).
2. 7 said for more than 3 years; 4 have been studying around 3 years and 3 for one year.
3. The importance given nowadays to English for professional reasons is the main aspect mentioned by the majority of students, and because they find it "interesting" (this is what they said.). Only one studies because of its music.
4. 12 compare; 2 don´t.
5. 13 like the language and find it interesting; 1 for professional reasons.
6. 8 yes; 3 are in doubt; other 3 prefer to listen to songs, consider teaching "troublesome".
7. 4 through reading and listening; other 4 through speaking; 3 through listening; 1 prefers to rely on other's help to learn; 1 by comparing with the native language; 1 through the teacher's help;
8. 10 prefer to use the skills – reading, listening, speaking (except writing) – to improve their oral production. 1 said that the use of translation could be used. 3 didn't answer.

APPENDIX C

TABLE OF TRANSCRIPTIONS

T	Represents the teacher
S	Represents a student
S1	One student talks
S2	Another student talks
[[	Represents simultaneous talks
[	Represents "sobreposição de vozes"
[ ]	Represents "sobreposições localizadas"
(+)	Represents pause
( )	Represents doubts and suppositions
(( ))	Analyst's comments
CAPITAL LETTER	Emphasis on a word
…	A pause in speaking
?	Sign which correspond to a question
:::::	Long vowel sound
/…/	Partial transcription
Eh, ah, oh, ih::;, mhm, ahã	Hesitation or sign of attention

APPENDIX D

THE TRANSCRIBED LESSONS

Interactive moment 1 – class 9 – 14/10/08 – semester 2008.2

((the teacher is trying to motivate the students to discuss on the film " To Sir with Love" based on a given questionnaire))

T: /… /well, according to your oral test, you have to talk about the book. Can I take it? Can I take it? Right? ((here T is near a student asking whether she can get a book or not)). Let's try to…..a gente vai discutir agora se vocês se lembrarem mais ou menos de alguns aspectos ,ok?. Let's try to talk. Ok. So, who was Mr.Thackeray?   Do you remember? Who was he? Try to talk about his profession, his education. Do you remember who he was?

S1: He was a…

T: [he was a…

S: … brilliant british black…

T: ok. What about the profession? Do you remember?

S2: He was an engineer.

T: [engineer. Ok. Remember? Don't you write now. Ok. Let's just try to talk about. Ok. Good. (+) Do you remember where he was born?

Ss: ((unaudible))

T: What about his education? Ah….he finishes a course ahhh….where?

Ss: (some) In a:::California

Interactive moment 2 – class 8 – 09/10/08 – semester 2008.2

((T advises the students on what to do in oral discussions, reminding them about their oral test. Her comment arises from one student's answer to her question))

T: Yes. In U.S.A. do you remember? So, he was an engineer, he finishes his course in U.S.A., and he was born in British Guiana. Don't you write, ok? (+) Ok. Let's go on what about…why did he decide to work as a teacher….do you remember?

S: ((unaudible))

T: ok. Why did he….decide to work as a teacher? Do you remember? Don't you remember? No? ((she asks looking at some students)) you, fulano? You don't remember? Only fulana. What about you, fulano? Do you remember why Mr. Thackeray decided to be a teacher?

S: Because… ele não conseguia arrumar emprego.

T: in English. Sorry, please. Why? Try to remember that during your oral test you have to speak everything in English. You're not going to interrupt your speech speaking in Portuguese and then come back to English. Ok? You fulana. Translate his ideas.

Interactive moment 3 – class 9 – 14/10/08 – 2008.2

((T repeats students' comments as they develop the discussion on the film))

T: ok. So. He was growing in that (+) anything like this. Ok. What kind of school did he start teaching? You, do you remember?

S1: Eh:::::

T: What kind of school was it?

S1: I think public.

T: public one. Ok. Very good. What else? You ((looking at one student))

S2: was his first job? His first JOB?

T: the first JOB?

S2: Yeah

T: yes. ah::::

Interactive moment 4 – class 9 – 14/10/08 – semester 2008.2

((another moment when she repeats students' comments))

T: ok. What else? What kind of school…kind of students…

S: ((some)) yes. Difficult.

T: ok. Difficult students.

S1: white people. Very white people there.

T: ok. That's it. Kind of prejudice. Do you understand prejudice? What kind of difficulties did he face there? (+) at least one. One difficulty.

S2: Students didn't listen to him.

T: ok. Students didn't listen to him. What else? Fulana? You. Ok what about you? ((looking at another side of the classroom)) do you remember?

Interactive moment 5 – class 9 – 14/10/08 – semester 2008.2

((according to what T requires, there are student's smile probably because of the topic: party.))

T: ok. So, try to discuss about this. Number 10 ((of the questionnaire))So, I want you to describe what happened during the party. A:::h the students sing a song to the teacher, they gave him a present. Anything like this, ok?

Ss: ((some students smile))

T: ((smile)) the:::: danced with a girl.

Ss: [laughs]

Interactive moment 6 – class 7 – 18/03/08 – semester 2008.1

((When S1 agrees with T's explanation. here, T explains that there are some verbs which cannot be used in the continuous form))

S1: Why?

T: because it' is a rule.

S1: A:::::h ((smile))

Interactive moment 7 – class 17 – 15/05/08 – semester 2008.1

((T organizes students in groups of four to create a story based on the film "To Sir with care"; during one group work, one of them is sharing the story with all as T checks out the story))

T: Ok. Who else?

S1: He continued teaching in that school (xxx) and the director said because of his patience to the students and his ability to teaching the students eh eh he was promoted to be a supervisor of the school and the after two months he married Pamela that eh they had they had eh:: three three years later they had two three children called one black called Grice one blond called Tim and the last one was (xxx) because Pamela cheated him with a Chinese man.

Ss: ((all students laugh))

Interactive moment 8 – class 17 – 15/05/08 – semester 2008.1

((T hands out a written exercise and asks Ss to discuss in pairs to create a story. After a while, she starts out going around each pair or group of students to check the stories out. With a group of students, she stopped, sat down and started the interaction))

T: Finished? Did you FInish? because I'm GOing to listen the story. ((as she talks, she walks around the students)) ((sitting down close to a group of students)) FI nished? Ok. Tell HER what you READ.

S1: ((a student smile, looking at a colleague))

T: ((T advises)) ou vocês falam ou vocês não terminam esse curso não.

S1: I know

T: /.../ ou fala ou desiste.

S1: não é vergonha

((another student looks at a colleague))

S2: e:::h a gente não sabe nem o que dizer

T: estuda em casa

Ss: ((all students smile))

T: Ah então estuda em casa

Ss: ((all students laughs))

T: só isso? Então nós temos a solução: vamos estudar.

T: OK. O que você sabe? Conta aí pra gente. ((looking at one student))

S1: As a:::h ((unaudible))

T: Vá contando pra ela ((T points out to the other colleagues as talking to this student))

((at this moment, although it was difficult to listen to the student speaking because she was very shy and spoke too low, I could see that she developed the story as she interacted with T))

APPENDIX E

QUADRO DOS SINAIS
CONVERSACIONAIS VERBAIS

SINAIS DO FALANTE

(orientam o ouvinte)

SINAIS DO OUVINTE

(orientam o falante)

Pré-posicionados		pós-posicionados		convergentes	Indagativos	divergentes
No início do do turno Ex. "olha" "veja" "bom" "mas eu" "eu acho" "não, não" "epa" "perai" "certo, mas"	No início da unidade comunicativa Ex.: "então" "aí" "daí" "portanto" "agora veja" "porque" "e" "digamos assim" "como vê"	No final do turno Ex.: "né?" "certo?" "viu?" "entendeu?" "sacô?" "é isso aí" "é ou não é?" "que acha?" "diga lá"	No final da unidade comunicativa Ex.: "né" "não sabe?" "certo?" "entende?" " de acordo?" "tá?" " não é?"	Ex. "sim" "ahã" "mhm" "claro" "pois não" "de fato" "claro, claro" " isso" "ah sim" "ótimo" "tai" etc.	Ex.: "será?" "não diga" "mesmo?" "é?" "ué?" "como?" "como assim?"	Ex.: "não" "duvido" "discordo" "essa não" "nada disso" "nunca" "perai" "calma" etc.

APPENDIX F

THE CLASSES
DISCIPLINE: ENGLISH LANGUAGE I

SEMESTER 2008.1

CLASS 1 -   21/02/08 – Getting started; presenting the textbook – New Headway Pre-intermediate; and the course Plan.

CLASS 2 – 26/02/08 – group work; exercises on verb tenses;

CLASS 3 – 28/02/08 – focus: review of present tenses; There were moments of distractions: T's jokes at the beginning of the class; In the Lab – listening and speaking skills; students were asked to develop a conversation based on daily scenes provided by the computer exercises; pair work.

CLASS 4 – 03/03/08 – individual oral correction of grammatical exercises.

CLASS 5 – 06/03/08 – focus: reading and grammar points; Text: About Oscar Niemeyer; speaking skill – pre-reading task; pair activities – students are supposed to exchange and gather information about the life of Oscar Niemeyer;

CLASS 6 – 13/03/08 – focus: oral corrections of grammar exercises; most of students' questions are done in Portuguese;

CLASS 7 – 18/03/08 – focus: grammar exercises – review of present tenses; pair work; T's procedures: she gives positive feedback when checking out students' doubts and questions in saying ' very good', ' that's it', 'ok, that's it'. Students' talk tends to be teacher-oriented.

CLASS 8 – 25/03/08- In the Lab; focus: speaking and listening skills; grammar point: definite and indefinite articles; pair activities; the task: find mistakes in the sentences, explain why they are incorrect and add a correct one; T's procedures: she often provides individual oral corrections in activities organized in the Lab;

CLASS 9 – 27/03/08 – In the Lab;

CLASS 10 – 01/04/08 – In the Lab; focus: speaking and listening skills;

CLASS 11 – 03/04/08 – continuation of the previous lesson.

CLASS 12 – 22/04/08 – discussion about the results of the first written exam; starting out the discussion on the movie 'To Sir with Love'; open oral discussion.

CLASS 13 – 29/04/08 – continuation of the previous class: discussion on the movie.

CLASS 14 – 06/05/08 – focus: reading skill with emphasis on the simple past tenses; presentation of students' oral seminars.

CLASS 15 – 13/05/08 – focus: grammar and vocabulary work; class activity: in pairs, discuss and answer a written exercise about verb tenses; T provides positive feedback when verifying students' doubts, presentation of students' Oral seminars.

CLASS 16 – 15/05/08 – Oral individual corrections; class activity: story-telling in group activities with four students; focus: use of past tenses to elaborate a story; students' smile appeared as they were interacting to one another in the group work;

SEMESTER 2008.2

CLASS 1 – 12/08/08 - Getting started: getting to know each other; gathering information about students' learning experience with English; focus: review of past tenses through pair activities.

CLASS 2 – 14/08/08 – focus: grammar exercises – form and use of past tenses; vocabulary exercise: word meanings – synonyms and antonyms; pair activities – listening tasks. T's procedures – individual oral corrections;

CLASS 3 – 19/08/08 – oral correction of grammatical exercises; pair activities – students were asked to check out their answers;

CLASS 4 – 21/08/08 - oral correction of grammatical exercises; T's procedures: while correcting students' answers and verifying their doubts, T gives them a reprimand for they did not do the homework.

CLASS 5 – 17/09/08 – Review class on verb tenses, adjectives, conjunctions and articles.

CLASS 6 – 30/09/08 – focus: vocabulary study through reading tasks; vocabulary prediction; grammar: differences between regular and irregular verb forms; pair work activities – students verify their answers with one another; T verify their answers and doubts through individual oral corrections.

CLASS 7 – 7/10/08 – Watching the movie: "To Sir with Love". Class work after the movie: say which verb tenses were most used and why;

CLASS 8 – 9/10/08 – In the Lab; Focus: grammatical exercises – coordinative versus subordinate clauses with their respective conjunctions; group oral corrections;

CLASS 9 – 14/10/08- Based on a questionnaire handed by T, students started out an oral discussion about the movie "To Sir with Love".