

THE NATURE OF EXPLANATIONS
GIVEN BY GRADE TEN
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS

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Weldu Michael
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By

Weldu Michael

APPROVED BY:

Gebremedhin Simon
Advisor

B. B. Hicks
Examiner

Hailem Bantegaga
Examiner

Examiner

[Signature]

B. B. Hicks

[Signature]

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ABSTRACT

This study is carried out to describe the nature of explanations given by grade ten English language teachers. Specifically, it is meant to investigate the amount of class time spent on giving explanations, to find out the kinds of explanations grade ten English language teachers give (classified according to type, time and reason), and to see the disparity, if any between what the English teachers actually do and what they are expected to do. Six experienced grade ten English language teachers from six schools found in the five zones in Addis Ababa are selected. To analyse the video-recorded lessons, a three-dimensional classification of explanations and a checklist have been employed.

Results of the study show that the sample teachers on average spent 40.01 per cent of the class-time on giving explanations. A total of 122 explanation instances have been identified. The most frequent explanation types are descriptive explanations according to type, those given in the middle of the lesson according to time, and those used to confirm correct answers given by students according to reason. Teacher-initiated explanations also constitute a significant proportion.

The study has also found out that the sample teachers on average only sometimes manifested the verbal behaviours when giving explanations. The non-verbal behaviours, however, seem to have been exhibited by the sample teachers frequently.

Based on the findings of the study, it is recommended that the awareness of teachers in regard to giving explanations be raised through various means so that the explanations they give can be improved.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.1 Background of the Study

In the Ethiopian educational system, the English language is not only taught as a school subject, but also used as a medium of instruction both in junior and senior secondary schools as well as higher levels of learning. Teachers of English as well as those of other school subjects use the English language when they carry out their teaching duties.

Studies conducted in classroom language suggest that most of the talking is done by the teacher. (Bellack et.al, 1966; Flanders, 1970; Kyriacou, 1991; Tilahun, 1976). This has also been found out to be true in the Ethiopian context (Abdulkader, A. 1983; Yosef, M. 1990; Meselech, H. 1991; Wandwossen, T. 1992).

Taking the aforementioned points into account, the need for closer investigation of the talk made by teachers seems to be important. If teachers are said to take the lion's share of the class time, it is absolutely essential to look into the classroom language so as to see what the teachers' talk looks like. It is also through the teachers' talk that acquisition is facilitated. In terms of acquisition, teacher talk is important because it is probably the major source of comprehensible target language input the learner is likely to receive (Nunan, 1991).

Teachers carry out a number of activities and have different purposes when they talk in their classes. Sinclair and Brazil (1982), in relation to this, suggest that teachers talk in the classroom for a number of reasons such as telling things to pupils, getting pupils to do things, getting pupils to say things, and evaluating the things that pupils do. Of all these purposes, of this study focuses on the first one where informing pupils, and describing and explaining things to them are included.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

As aspects of teacher talk, verbal explanations accompanied by non-verbal behaviours constitute a significant proportion of the talk that teachers make in their classes. As features of teacher talk, explanations are considered as 'epitome of the teacher's role' (Chaudron, 1988).

Explanations are the main components of teaching which require deeper investigation. Although giving explanations is one of the major component of the pedagogical function of teacher talk, it has not been studied or investigated thoroughly (Nunan, 1989, 1991; Chaudron, 1988; Brown, 1978; Duffy et al, 1986).

Hence, the major purpose of this study is to look into the nature of explanations that are given by grade ten English language teachers.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this study is to describe the nature of explanations that are given by grade ten English language teachers. The specific objectives include the following:

- Investigate the amount of class time that is devoted to explanations given by the sample teachers;
- Find out the kinds of explanations that the English language teachers give;
- Look into when explanations are given;
- See how teachers give explanations.

1.4. Significance of the Study

The results of the study may provide the following contributions:

- Sufficient studies of this kind have not been carried out in our context and hence, it is hoped that the results of this study will shed some light on better ways of giving explanations;
- The study may also be significant to teacher educators to make their trainees aware of the nature of explanations they will give when they become teachers.
- High school teachers may also benefit from the

results of the study since it can make them aware of the amount and kinds of explanations they give in their language classes;

- The study can also serve as an addition to the body of research conducted around the language of the classroom, particularly the language of the teacher and initiate future researchers to make further related studies.

1.5. The Scope of the Study

This study is limited to the description of explanations given by grade ten English language teachers. Because of time constraints, the study is restricted to six teachers selected from six schools in the five zones in Addis Ababa. The sixth zone is purposely excluded again because of time limitations since it is very far away. Instead of it, however, a second school is taken from Zone 4, which consist of nearly one-third of the schools in Addis Ababa.

1.6. Methods and Procedures

The study involves video-recording six teachers while introducing new language. The recorded lessons are transcribed verbatim so as to obtain the necessary data for the study. To do this a three-dimensional classification

of explanations, i.e., classification according to type, time and reason is used. Besides, a checklist for both verbal explanations and non-verbal behaviours accompanying them is employed. With these, it is attempted to answer the three basic questions mentioned in 1.3 of this chapter. These may also enable to provide an overall picture of the nature of explanations given by English language teachers.

1.7. Definition of Terms

Explanation:

An aspect of teacher talk designed to clarify any idea, rule, procedure or process not understood by a students. It is meant for giving understanding, and involves such things as describing, interpreting, defining, relating, exemplifying, questioning, reason-giving and so on.

Effective:

Refers to doing things on acceptable standards or principles so as to produce intended outcomes.

Prerequisite knowledge:

Things that learners know about something prior to the introducing and teaching of the new language.

Fundamental concept:

Basic concept that help to understand subsequent ideas.

Advanced organizers:

Preliminary information about the structure of the material to be learnt. These brief outlines are intended to give direction to learning and show students the plan of the lessons before the content of instruction is revealed.

Non-technical language:

Ordinary language devoid of terms specific to a certain discipline.

Interactive:

A situation where a teacher and a student/students are actively engaged in making explanations. It usually involves the asking and answering of questions.

Restructuring hooks:

Verbal cues which serve as sequence signals for organizing information.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of Related Literature

As has been pointed out, the main purpose of this research is to look into the nature of explanations given by grade ten English Language teachers. If someone reads a book on effective teaching in general, it is very likely that a chapter is devoted to explanations. This shows the importance of explanations in teaching. It is in fact very rare to see lessons where there are no explanations of some sort. Explanations are given not only where there is more teacher domination, but also in student-centred classes. They can be manifested even when there is teacher-student or student-student interaction. Borich (1988) suggests that explanations are multifaceted presentations that involve not only a large amount of verbal talk but also teacher-student interactions involving questions and answers, review and practice, and the correction of students' errors and so on.

In this section, a review of the related literature, and research conducted in the area will be presented.

2.1 The Why of Explanations

Teachers rely heavily on explanations in their lesson presentations their main purpose being to give

understanding to their students (Brown, 1978). The importance of explaining behaviour extends far beyond the classroom in the sense that explanations are encountered in every aspect of our personal lives (Cooper, 1986). In the classroom context as well, teachers use the explanation technique as a means of imparting knowledge to their students. In this whole process, the teacher is the explainer, and the students recipients of the explanation. Besides, concepts, facts, rules, principles and so on may be labelled things to be explained. As aptly put by Brown (1978:7),

... the act of explaining involves an explainer, 'explainees' and something to be explained. The last may be thought of as a problem, and thus the explanation has to present or draw out a series of linked statements, each of which are understood by the explainer and which together lead to its solution. These linked statements can be labelled 'keys' since they unlock understanding.

The duty of the teacher in giving explanations is, therefore, to breed understanding in the students. However, for explanations to be fruitful, a cumulative effort of the explainer, (the teacher) and the explainee (the students) is required. This results in the achievement of the intended learning goals.

As a teacher behaviour, "explaining refers to planned teacher talk designed to clarify any idea, procedure, or process not understood by a student" (Cooper, 1986:15). Cooper further states that a good way to begin to acquire skill in explaining is first to understand the underlying purpose of an explanation. According to him, an explanation generally speaking may have any of four different underlying purposes:

- To show a direct cause-and-effect relationship;
- To show that a particular action is governed by a general rule or law;
- To illustrate a procedure or process; and
- To show the intent of an action or process (1986:122).

As quoted by Cole and Chan (1994), Brophy and Good, and Rosenshine and Stevens assert that research studies have shown that if teachers spend considerable amount of time on explanations and demonstrations accompanying them, high student achievement is likely to result. Cole and Chan (1994) contend that time is not the only variable of importance. The quality of the explanations is also crucial in bringing about high student achievement.

Teachers are therefore expected to give quality explanations whenever they feel that it is helpful to their students to introduce or clarify new concepts or modify misconceptions .

Learning takes place when students come across new experience or make some modifications to their former knowledge. As quoted by Duffy et al (1986), Anderson and Pearson suggest that learning occurs when a person encounters experiences which cause a new schema to be created or an old one to be modified. This can be obtained by means of giving effective explanations to the students. By using the explaining technique, teachers can not only familiarize their students with new facts, concepts, principle, rules and procedures but also correct misconceptions they might have had. "Interactive explanations help students understand new content and prevent student misconceptions" (Bellon et al, 1992:260).

Interactive situations involve activities whereby teachers elicit and respond to students' efforts to comprehend new information. The use of eliciting and responding techniques makes teacher explanations more interactive than teacher-fronted unidirectional presentations.

The general purpose being to give understanding to students, teachers give explanations for a number of reasons. Teachers might, for instance, take the initiative and give explanations assuming that students need to know something about a certain language point when introducing a lesson or a stage in a lesson. Teachers may also give

explanations in response to questions students ask. "Teachers offer explanations as part of the development of new content or in response to student questions" (Bellon et al., 1992:248)

Teachers give explanations when they feel that they are introducing a new concept, idea, rule or procedure. Likewise, they may give explanations when they are asked questions by their students. In this case, they may give the explanations to provide a solution to the students' problems.

As mentioned above, explanations are considered as aspects of direct instruction on the one hand and as means of providing feedback on the other hand. The use of explanations as a means of providing feedback is not limited to giving answers to questions raised by students. Teachers may also give explanations when students fail to answer questions or when they give wrong answers to teachers' questions. Quoting Herrmann, Bellon et al (1992) further state that when teachers find out that there is misunderstanding on the part of the students, they may re-explain or clarify what they want them to understand. Student feedback is used here until teachers are satisfied with the level of their students' understanding. Bellack and associates (1966) also suggest that explanations are frequently given in response to questions asking why or how

some events occur. The 'why' and 'how' may be explicit (i.e., in a preceding question) or implicit in the context of the statement. They further add that the word 'because' is frequently a verbal cue indicating the explanatory nature of the statement.

Similarly, Duffy et al (1986) suggest that based on students 'responses to teachers' subsequent questions about presented information, teachers may assess how the information is being used and on the basis of this assessment, they may elaborate with additional information as necessary. It is to refer to this point that Bellon et. al (1992:236) write, "Teachers interact with students to diagnose and correct faulty concepts during explanations".

Teachers also give explanations in order to assure that the answer given by a student is correct. This is a kind of positive feedback (Wondwossen, 1991). In attempting to make their explanations interactive and to assess students' understanding, teachers forward a series of questions to their students. When students answer the questions correctly, teachers may give additional explanations for confirming the right answers of their students. This is meant to justify why the answer given by the student is correct.

2.2. Types of Explanations

Different educator classify explanations differently. According to Brown (1978), there are three types of explanations: the interpretive, descriptive and reason giving' which approximate the questions 'what?', 'how?', and 'why?' respectively.

Interpretive explanations have the main purpose of specifying or defining the central meaning of a term or statement, or they clarify an issue while descriptive explanations aim at describing processes, structures and procedures. Reason-giving explanations ,however, involve principles or generalisations, rules, motives, obligations or values as well as causes. A particular explanation may involve either one or all of these three types. It is the aim of the explainer that causes this to happen.

Classification is also made between procedural and content explanations. The former are types of structuring of lesson activities while the latter are explanations of concepts, names for things, and grammar rules. Of these two types, procedural explanation are said to consistently comprise the majority of teachers' explanations (Chaudron, 1988). The focus of this paper will, however, be on content explanations because they are related to the actual language point to be introduced while procedural explanations are concerned with the structuring of lesson

activities.

Yee and Wagner, as quoted by Chaudron (1988) distinguished between planned and unplanned explanations. The latter are those which are generated by sudden questions students may ask and for which teachers may not have ready made answers requiring explanations. However, planned explanations are intentional and tend to co-occur with certain other features like framing and focusing, examples, and restatement of what has been said (Chaudron, 1988).

As quoted by Nunan (1989), Allwright suggests that many teachers' explanations do not make sense. They are either confusing or simply wrong. Referring to unplanned explanations, Allwright further comments that it is usually unreasonable to expect teachers to provide coherent explanations or points of language when put on the spot by learners. If teachers plan their explanation, however, they can be in a better position to provide coherent and clear explanations to their students.

2.3. Aspects of Effective Explanations

2.3.1. Qualities of Effective Explanations

Direct instruction, of which explanations are the main components, has not been favourably viewed by some educators. The common reason for this is that its main purpose is information transfer. However, there is no way of ensuring whether or not such information has been

acquired by the target learners. As expressed by Duffy et al (1986;203), "Information giving in teaching has often been viewed disparagingly because it is reminiscent of the 'empty vessel' approach to learning". Nevertheless, teachers cannot only impart new knowledge but also modify students' schema by providing information. Hence, information giving is important and should not be undervalued in teaching.

The information-giving process can also be made in such a way that the students not only attend to what the teacher explains, but also react to it. Again according to Duffy and associates(1986), effective explanations are characterized by four properties. These are a responsiveness to student restructuring of information, an effort to put students in conscious control of information, a presentation of declarative, conditional and procedural information which is conceptually accurate, explicit and meaningful, and an attempt to assist student effort to build understanding by sequencing and providing restructuring 'hooks'.

In effective explanations, the information giving process is responsive in nature. In order to do this, the teacher has to review pre-requisite knowledge of the students about the language point to be introduced. This helps the teacher to modify earlier schemata of the

students on the one hand and build additional or new knowledge on the already existing ones on the other hand.

As pointed out by Bellon et al (1992:150), "In good explanations teachers are explicit about what they want students to know. They base their explanations on an accurate assessment of students' prior knowledge". This view is also recommended by Cole and Chan (1994:145):

"Always review prerequisite knowledge and fundamental concepts before introducing new subject matter. Learners who have the necessary prerequisites achieve at a far higher level than those who have not acquired the required knowledge and understanding".

Roseshine and Stevens (1986) as well suggest among other things that beginning a lesson with a short review of previous, prerequisite learning is a quality of effective explainers.

For explanations to be effective, teachers are also expected to acquire certain skills. Quoting Brown and Armstrong, Kyriacou (1991) mentions five basic skills involved in effective explaining. These are clarity and fluency (through defining new terms clearly and using explicit language appropriately), emphasis and interest (by making good use of voice, gesture, materials and paraphrasing), using examples which are appropriate in type

and quality, organisation (logical in sequence and use of link words and phrases), and feedback (offering a chance for pupils to ask questions and assessing learning outcomes).

Similarly, Cole and Chan (1994) suggest that effective explanations are based on certain principles of efficient communication and forward several dimensions of effective explanations. Some of these important categories are meaningfulness, clarity, variety, interest value, simplicity and concreteness both in subject matter and examples.

2.3.2. Components of Effective Explanations

One of the most important variables in giving explanations is checking whether or not students are listening. The teacher is expected to give an interesting introduction in order to gain students' attention. If students' attention is not maintained, very little learning is likely to take place. Supporting this view, Cole and Chan write,

"Provide an interesting introduction to lessons to gain students' attention. Students will actively attend if a teacher can arouse interest and curiosity during the early stages of explanations and demonstrations" (1994:146).

Kyriacou (1991) also suggests that one of the functions of teacher exposition at the start of a lesson is to elicit and sustain pupils' attention and interest in the lesson. Establishing a positive attitude at the start of the lesson provides a good spring board for what follows. To create a positive mental set, it is important to ensure that pupils are paying attention when the teacher begins the lesson. Attention is, therefore, important in attending to explanations.

Another important condition which is closely related to the provision of an interesting introduction to gain students' attention is the provision of advanced organisers for learning activities to be treated in a lesson. This enables the students not only to see the direction of learning but also to show them the plan of the lesson before the actual explanation and its content is revealed. Students are therefore advantaged if the teacher provides preliminary information about the structure of the material to be learned (Cole and Chan, 1994). This view is also strengthened by Brophy and Good (1986) who assert that achievement is maximized when teachers not only actively present material, but structure it by beginning with overviews, advance organizers, or review of objectives; outlining the content and signalling transitions between lesson parts, calling attention to main ideas; summarizing

sub-parts of the lesson as it proceeds; and reviewing main ideas at the end.

Cole and Chan further suggest that it is advisable for teachers to sustain the attention of their students by insisting that they pay close attention to main points during explanations. This can be viewed in line with the use of verbal markers to assist students to differentiate what is important (or more important) from what is not (or less important) (Anderson, 1991). In other words, when teachers insist that students pay attention, the students may realize that the teacher is going to make an important point. This can put the students in a conscious control of their own learning.

Examples are also basic component of effective explanations. It is with the help of examples that complex aspects of subject matter can be understood and the applicability of rules and processes can be realized (Cole and Chan, 1994).

There are two basic approaches to the use of examples: the inductive and deductive approaches. The former is when one starts with examples and makes an inference or generalizations based on them, while the latter is when the generalization comes the first and is then applied to a number of examples. Each has its own merits and it is hard to say one is superior to the other (Perrott, 1982).

Having said this, Perrott further suggests some guidelines for the effective use of examples:

1. Start with the simple examples and work toward more complex examples;
2. Start with examples relevant to pupils' experience and level of knowledge;
3. Relate examples to the principle, idea or generalization being taught;
4. Check to see whether you have accomplished your objective by asking the pupils to give you examples which illustrate the point you were trying to make (1982: 39).

As quoted in Brown (1978), Gage and his associates, having carried out a series of studies on over forty teachers, came up with certain major findings which consisted of some basic components of effective explanations. Some of these are: emphatic gestures and movements, relatively short simple sentences, appropriate pauses, appropriate use of the blackboard to indicate essential points, variation in the pace of delivery and so on.

Prompted by the aforementioned studies, Brown (1978) had also tried an experimental course with the help of newly appointed lecturers. The first and last explanations of each were compared. By the end of the training programme, Brown came up with the following findings: the last explanations given were clearer, more fluent, and contained fewer irrelevant technical terms and fewer complex sentences. The final explanations also had well-

defined keys which were related to their topic, more concise points, examples and summaries. The teachers looked at their audience more often in the final explanations; they also used pauses more appropriately before key points and employed gestures and verbal emphatics. Brown's final comment is that teacher trainees can be trained to become effective explainers.

2.3.3. Non-verbal Behaviours Accompanying verbal Explanations

It is strongly believed that non-verbal behaviours that accompany verbal explanations are equally important in fostering students' understanding. Research has shown that teachers who exhibited certain non-verbal features produced better outcomes than others who did not. Some of the desirable non-verbal qualities as obtained from studies carried out by Gage et al (1972) and Brown (1978) are the following:

- pausing, looking around the group and waiting until they are ready;
- looking at members of the group and watching their reactions;
- using some gestures to emphasize points;
- If need be, moving about a little;
- when using visual aids, making sure they can be

seen;

- pausing before making an important point or asking a question and looking at the audience;
- Trying to vary the pace of delivery.

On the other hand, some non-verbal behaviours have been found out to obscure understanding and hence need to be avoided by teachers when giving explanations if students are to follow what is being explained. Some of these are like marathon walk, starting when only one or two are listening, dropping the voice and examining the toes when saying something important and using uniformly slow or high-speed deliveries (Brown, 1978).

2.4. When Explanations are Given

In almost all lessons or learning sequences, teachers are expected to present information and ideas for the purpose of introducing topics, summarizing the main points of the learning activity and stimulating further learning. In order to carry out all these activities the teachers require the use of explanations at various points in the learning sequence. The main point is that they should not take up much of the lesson time (Perrott, 1982).

As stated above, teachers may give explanations at any stage of lesson: at the beginning, somewhere in the middle

or at the end of a lesson presentation. This is when the teacher feels that it is appropriate. According to Kyriacou, the quality of teacher exposition at the start of a lesson can be particularly important as it serves a number of purposes or functions:

- It must elicit and sustain pupils' attention and interest in the lesson;
- It is useful to indicate what the purpose of topic for the lesson is and its importance or relevance;
- It may be usefully used to alert pupils to any links with previous lesson and to best prepare them for what follows (1991: 36).

Bellon and her associates (1992) also suggest that explanations are given during lectures and presentations as part of the development of a new content.

Explanations may also be given toward the end of a lesson presentation. This is in the form of a summary for the purpose of enabling the students to grasp what has been taught, and also to ensure that they have understood the main points of the lesson. The main purpose of explanations as a lesson summary is to provide a clear synopsis of the key concepts treated in the lesson, and show the links between and among them. This helps the students to gain understanding of key ideas presented in the lesson (Cole and Chan 1994).

2.5. Language of Explanations

Explanations are basically verbal although they are usually assisted by non-verbal behaviours. Unlike demonstrations, explanations can hardly be given without verbal language. Hence, the quality and amount of language used when giving explanations is important for bringing about better understanding on the part of the students. Bellack et al (1966) assert that few classroom activities would be carried out without the use of language. This is also true with explanations. The explainer, in the case of the classroom usually the teacher, needs appropriate language in order to give explanations which are concise and to the point. Callahan and his associates (1988), having discussed the importance of explanations as valuable tools in teaching, suggest that teachers are likely to be tempted to talk too much.

Similarly, Kyriacou (1991) suggests that explanations should, among other things, try to be grammatically simple, explicit, and make good use of examples, define any technical terms and, most importantly, not go on for too long. In other words, the language of explanations should not be too complex to understand. If teachers use a lot of technical terms in their explanations and if their sentences are too long, their explanations are not likely to be understood by the students. Teachers should,

therefore, be aware of their language when giving explanations. Cole and Chan (1994) as well advocate the idea that explanations should be concise and to the point because long or convoluted explanations rarely promote understanding. They suggest that protracted explanations should not be used for two reasons. One relates to the attention span of the students, the other relates to interest.

Teachers are also expected to avoid the use of jargon when giving explanations. If the use of technical terms is inevitable, teachers should make sure that they do not obstruct students' understanding. Harmer (1987; 1990) suggests that an explanation might present problems to students if there are technical terms. He further suggests that abstract (grammar) explanations might be a lot more comprehensible said in the mother tongue. The amount of the mother tongue that we use in English classes should, however, be taken into account, i.e., little of it should be used and only when appropriate.

2.6. Role of Questioning in Giving Explanations

The role of questioning in giving explanations is multifold. Questioning and explaining behaviours are said to occur simultaneously. Both skills lead to a common ultimate goal, i.e., achieving understanding. It is in

fact argued that questioning is one of the most essential components of teaching that greatly assist explanations given by teachers. Kyriacou (1990: 36) asserts, "Explaining often goes hand-in-hand with questioning, with the teacher switching from one to the other as and when appropriate." This shift enables the teacher to make the explanations more interactive in the sense that they not only check students' comprehension of what is being taught but also encourage the learners to contribute what they know to the explanations being given by the teacher. This way students' efforts to comprehend what is being explained can be maximized. It is to refer to this point that Bellon et al write, "A good explanation is much more interactive than a presentation. Teachers must elicit and respond to students efforts to comprehend new information"(1992: 248).

Moreover, questioning enables teachers to win the attention of their students which is very important in following up the explanations they give. It puts the students in conscious control of the language point being treated in the lesson.

The nature of questions teachers ask when giving explanations requires careful scrutiny. The teacher has to vary the type of questions on the one hand and make sure that they serve different purposes on the other hand. If the teacher clutters his/her explanations, for instance,

with wh-questions meant for simple recall of facts only, very little learning is likely to result. Biadgilign Ademe (1995) in his study of questioning techniques came up with the recommendation that the tagging of explanations with wh-words should be avoided for the reason that such questions are likely to obscure learning.

An attempt should also be made to use questions for the purpose of brushing up the prerequisite knowledge of the students. This in a way helps the teachers to gear their explanations to the level of their learners so as to facilitate maximum student learning. Besides, questions should not be used for the purpose of testing only. They can also be used for teaching purposes as in explanations. "Questions should enable and teach rather than test" (Jean, 1990: 43).

Cooper (1986) also states that effective questioning is an aspect of effective teaching as is effective explaining. Teachers need to recognize the fact that different questions have their own distinct characteristics serving various functions and creating different levels of thinking. It is therefore necessary to learn the different kinds of questions with varying functions so as to be able to use various types of questions effectively when giving explanations.

Since there are obvious limitations to the attention span of the students, questioning can be used to ensure that the learners do not sit passively throughout the entire explanation sequences. Asking the students questions amidst explanations can be taken as an example of a technique designed to create pupil involvement (Perrott, 1982).

2.7. The Role of Teachers and Students in Explanations

At the surface level, giving explanations is viewed as the sole role of the teacher. However, as has been pointed out earlier, for explanations to be effective, a joint effort of the explainer and explainees is required. Both the teacher and the students have their own specific roles to play. In a broader perspective, the teacher intends to explain something to his students. The students, on the other hand, strive to understand. They are both involved in active processes leading to the ultimate objective, i.e., unlocking understanding (Brown, 1978).

The roles of teachers and students in constructing explanations have been discussed by Bellon et al (1992) at length. According to them, some of the roles of teachers are giving explicit information, providing factual, conditional and procedural knowledge, being responsive to student thinking, presenting information that is

conceptually accurate, explicit, meaningful and useful, and modelling the reasoning process. On the other hand, students are expected to explain their thinking, delineate their reasoning process, tell how the process can be used, restructure their knowledge base to accommodate new learning and apply the new processes in real situations. "In general, teachers monitor and shape student understanding as they generate explanations students can use to reformulate their mental networks of knowledge" (Bellon et. al., 1992: 249).

2.8. Studies Made on the Language of the Classroom in the Ethiopian Context

Certain studies have been carried out in the Ethiopian context on the language of the classroom particularly on the language of the teacher.

Abdulkadir Ali (1983) conducted research to find out the kind and frequency of verbal and non-verbal behaviours that transpire when teachers and students interact. One of the findings he came up with was that three out of the four teachers (who were his subjects) did 75% to 84% of the talk in the class. This coincides with what research has found out regarding teacher talk in the sense that most of the talking is done by the teacher. The kind of influence teachers had on the students was more direct than indirect.

This is also important for this study since explanations are considered an aspects of the direct influence.

Tewolde Gebre Yohannes (1988) in attempting to compare the listening abilities of junior secondary school students with the listening level expected of them tried to analyse the instructional language of the teachers. The study was based on Sinclair and Coulthard's system of analysis (1975). He concluded that the language of the teachers was far beyond the listening abilities of the students. Secondly, he found out that of all the exchanges he identified, inform exchanges are on the whole the most frequent, and of the various functions he identified definition, an aspect of explanations, is again the most frequent. On the basis of his findings, Tewolde concludes that the language of the teachers is full of errors and unsatisfactory and he recommends that further training be given to the teachers in the language of the classroom. Tewolde's study was, however, on subject areas.

Yosef Mekonnen (1990) also tried to identify the language functions most commonly used by junior secondary school teachers of English and the linguistic errors that occurred in the language functions. He also tried to investigate the language functions that teachers found most difficult to handle. Yosef came up with important findings. For instance, explaining, exemplifying and

summarizing (informing in general) took 26.1% of the lesson time which is a significant proportion. He also found out that the functions of explaining, summarizing and evaluating (in general explaining meaning or putting over information) and giving instructions were the most difficult ones to handle. Besides, Yosef recommended that appropriate training be given to teachers of English on the function of explaining meaning or putting over information which is the concern of the present study.

Wondwossen Tamirat (1992) in his attempt to investigate the feedback behaviour of grade 11 English language teachers found out that his subjects showed much agreement among themselves in the use of positive explanations, equivalent to the explanations labelled in this study explanations for confirmation.

Messelech Habte (1991) as well undertook a study to describe the methods employed by senior secondary school English language teachers. She came up with findings relevant to this study. According to her findings the lessons were dominated by teacher talk and grammar explanations. Her results show that 15.9 per cent to 30 per cent of the class time, which is a significant proportion, was spent on meta language explanation, while the time spent on practice is minimal, i.e., about half of the time spent on giving explanations.

CHAPTER THREE

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

As has been previously stated, the main purpose of this study is to explore the nature of explanations given by grade ten English language teachers when introducing a new language. To achieve this main purpose, three specific questions were raised:

- a) How much of the class time do teachers devote to the provision of explanations?
- b) What kinds of explanations do grade ten English language teachers give in their classes?
- c) What aspects of effective explanations do these teachers exhibit in their classes as opposed to undesirable behaviours?

These questions are believed by the researcher to serve as guidelines to look into the nature of explanations given by grade ten English language teachers.

3.1 Selection of Schools

There are twenty five secondary schools in the six zones in Addis Ababa. The sixth zone is not included because it is very far away. Instead of it, a second school was selected from zone four which consists of 28 per cent of the total schools in the region. Out of the rest five zones, one school is randomly selected from each.

Hence, six government secondary schools in Addis Ababa are involved in the study.

<u>Zone</u>	<u>Name of Schools</u>
1	Higher 4 Senior Secondary School
2	Shimelis Habte Comprehensive Secondary School
3	Nefas Silk Comprehensive Secondary School
4	Kokebe Tsibah Comprehensive Secondary School
4	Entoto Academic, Technical and Vocational School
5	Black Lion Senior Secondary School

3.2. Selection of Teachers

From each of the six schools mentioned above, a teacher was randomly selected out of the tenth grade English language teachers. The teachers were asked for their willingness to be video-recorded and all agreed to allow the researcher and the video-man into their classes. Each of them was observed for three consecutive days prior to the actual recording of the lessons.

The teachers were not made aware of the main purpose of the research prior to the recording of the lessons. It is only after the recording that the researcher discussed the purpose to raise their awareness on the one hand and to ensure their reasons for giving explanations on the other hand.

The teachers were also asked when they would deal with the structure part of unit sixteen in the textbook. They were all recorded while introducing the language point in that particular unit as per their programmes. This was done in order to control the topic variable.

The teachers have reported that their teaching experience ranged from 16 to 26 with an average of 21 years.

3.3. Recording of Lessons

As the study is basically descriptive and since it is concerned with the nature of explanations English language teachers give, the data gathering instrument has been recording the lessons of the selected grade ten English language teachers.

The nature of the study itself makes it necessary to use a video-camera with a built in sound mechanism. With this, it has been possible to gather the required data for the study. The video-camera is preferred to a tape-recorder for detecting the non-verbal behaviours that teachers exhibit along with the verbal behaviours when giving explanations.

3.4. Analysing the Recorded Lessons

Since the area has not been sufficiently studied, the researcher has faced a problem in procuring or developing a system for analysing the nature of explanations given by the sample teachers.

In order to fulfil the objectives of the study, the video-recorded lessons have been transcribed verbatim so as to identify the explanations given by each of the sample teachers which would be important for the purpose of the study.

To analyse the explanations given by the sample teachers, a three-dimensional classification of explanations and a checklist have been employed. The former is used in order to identify the kinds of explanations given by the sample teachers according to type (interpretive, descriptive or reason giving), time (at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end), and reason (teacher-initiated or learner-initiated). The latter, however, is meant to see how teachers give explanations.

3.4.1. Classification of Explanations

As has been point out, explanations have been classified in three ways in the study. Brown's (1978) classification has been used as the basis for these where

three types of explanations are identified: interpretive, descriptive and reason-giving explanations. This being the first dimension, the explanations which prevailed in the video-recorded lessons have also been classified according to when and why they are given.

Classification of Explanations

- I. Types of Explanations:
 - 1.1 Interpretive (What?)
 - 1.2 Descriptive (How)
 - 1.3 Reason-giving (Why?)

- II. When explanations are given:
 - 2.1 At the beginning of the lesson;
 - 2.2 In the middle of the lesson;
 - 2.3 At the end of the lesson.

- III. Why explanations are given:
 - 3.1 To introduce a lesson or a stage in a lesson with teacher's own initiative;
 - 3.2 In response to students' questions;
 - 3.3 To correct wrong answers students give;
 - 3.4 To confirm correct answers students give;
 - 3.5 In response to silence.

The following extracts from the lesson transcript of Teacher 6 can make the three type of explanations clear:

1. Interpretive (see Appendix 1-F:1)

T: Defining and non-defining clauses [twice] This topic has another name. It is called restrictive and non-restrictive clauses. Restrictive clauses is the same as to say defining clauses and non-restrictive clauses is the same as to say non-defining clauses.
[Here, the teacher simply specifies the other names of defining and non-defining clauses.]

2. Descriptive (see Appendix 1-F:7)

T: Another point.
The relative pronouns who and which are used. We use who with people and which with what?

SS: With things [in chorus]

T: With things
We can use the relative pronoun that instead of who or which. That is to say the relative pronoun that is used with people and also with things.
[Here, the teacher describes the use of the relative pronouns.]

3. Reason-giving (see Appendix 1-F:5)

T: We cannot omit the defining clause.
If we omit it, the entire sentence will be meaningless. The boy who came from Harar won the game. Now, the boy is well identified. It is well known. We are talking about the boy ... only who came from Harar, not the boy who came from Tigray or the boy who came from Illubabor., Now, the boy is well identified. This defining relative clause has given full meaning to the main clause.
[Here, the teacher gives a series of reasons supporting the assertion at the beginning.]

3.4.2. Explanation Checklist

A checklist developed by Cole and Chan (1994) has been adapted for the purpose of the study. It is specifically meant for observing how teachers give explanations. The checklist Cole and Chan developed consists of twenty-five items (see Appendix 2). I have omitted some items which do not have direct relevance to the study and retained those items which are relevant. Those omitted items have been replaced by some other items found out to be aspects of effective explanations by some other writers. Cole and Chan's checklist was also designed for explanations and demonstrations encountered in content area subjects rather than English. So, the items which have been omitted are those which are more appropriate for subject areas rather than English. Besides, their checklist doesn't include non-verbal behaviours that accompany verbal explanations. This study, however, consists of a couple of checklists, one for verbal and the other for non-verbal behaviours.

A behavioural item is rated 5 if it occurs very frequently or if it is exhibited very satisfactorily through out the explanation sequence. It is rated 4 if it is done frequently or satisfactorily. 3 is for those behaviours which are manifested only sometimes. Those behaviours which occur rarely are rated 2, while those

which do not occur at all or which are done very unsatisfactorily are rated 1.

In order to see the reliability in rating, two of the recorded lessons, the first and the last, have been rated by two raters: the researcher and another independent rater. For the first lesson, the correlation between the two raters is .88, while the last lesson the inter-rater reliability is .94. This means that the two raters showed much agreement in rating the teachers using the checklist. It can, therefore, be reasonably said that the rating of the lessons is reliable.

3.3.2.1. Explanation Checklist for verbal Behaviours

No.	Verbal Behaviours	5	4	3	2	1
1.	The teacher has provided an interesting introduction to gain students' attention.					
2.	The teacher has provided advanced organisers for learning activities.					
3.	The teacher has reviewed pre-requisite knowledge and fundamental concepts before introducing the new language point.					
4.	The teacher has ensured that explanations could be heard by all students.					
5.	The teacher has insisted that students pay close attention during explanations.					
6.	The teacher has acted to keep explanations concise and to the point.					
7.	The teacher has avoided digressions and tried to stick to the point.					
8.	The teacher has used non-technical language and has avoided overemphasising complex aspects of subject matter.					
9.	The teacher has avoided cluttering anyone explanation with too much content or too many examples.					
10.	The teacher has used examples appropriately.					
11.	The teacher has provided information which is conceptually accurate, explicit and meaningful.					
12.	The teacher has tried to make the explanations interactive.					
13.	The teacher has tried to make the explanations responsive to student restructuring of information.					
14.	The teacher has attempted to assist students' efforts to build understanding by sequencing and providing restructuring hooks.					
15.	The teacher has used verbal markers to help students learn to differentiate what is important (or more important) from what is not (or less important).					
16.	The teacher has tried to make explanations clear and understandable.					

3.3.2.2 Checklist for Describing Non-verbal Behaviours Accompanying Verbal Explanations

No.	Non-verbal Behaviours	5	4	3	2	1
1.	The teacher has had constant eye-contact when giving explanations.					
2.	The teacher has looked at every direction in the classroom.					
3.	The teacher has looked at students and watched their reactions constantly.					
4.	The teacher has moved a little when he wanted to.					
5.	The teacher has used the blackboard appropriately to indicate essential points.					
6.	The teacher has used visual aids other than the blackboard.					
7.	The teacher has employed gestures to emphasise important points.					
8.	The teacher has varied the pace of delivery of explanations.					
9.	The teacher has used pauses more appropriately before making important points.					

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0. Introduction

As previously stated, the general purpose of this study is to look into the nature of explanations given by grade ten English language teachers. To put this into effect, three basic questions are specifically raised:

- a) How much of the class time is devoted to giving explanations?
- b) What kinds of explanations do English language teachers give?
- c) What verbal and non-verbal behaviours do English teachers manifest when giving explanations?

The purpose of this chapter is, therefore, to address these main questions and discuss the results. To carry out and fulfil the main purpose of the study, a three-dimensional classification of explanations and a checklist are employed. The former is meant to look into the types of explanations given by English language teachers and consists of three categories, i.e., classification according to what the explanations are (Table 2), classification according to the phase of the lesson at which the explanations are given (Table 3), and classification according to the reasons that trigger explanations (Table 4). It is also attempted to see the interrelationship among these three systems of classification (Tables 5-7).

The explanation checklist which consists of two parts, verbal and non-verbal, is designed to see the disparity, if any, between what teachers actually do and what they are expected to do.

As can be observed in Tables 2 - 6 a total of 122 explanation instances have been identified from the lesson transcripts of the sample teachers. These are 38, 12, 19, 23, 10, and 20 for the six teachers respectively. These are the actual data for the study. Now presentation of results and discussion of findings will follow.

4.1. Time Devoted to Giving Explanations

One of the basic questions of the study is to investigate the amount of time that English teachers devote to the giving of explanations. Table 1 shows the amount of time the sample teachers spent on giving explanations vis-a-vis the total lesson time.

Table 1. Time spent on Giving Explanations Vis-a-Vis the Duration of the Recorded Lessons

Teacher	Duration of Recorded Lesson In Minutes	Time Spent on Giving Explanations	
		In Minutes	In Percentage
1	36	21:49	59.69
2	36	7:30	20.28
3	35	18:07	51.63
4	33	16:54	50.12
5	16	4:12	25.75
6	37	12:06	32.59
Total	193	80:06	100
Mean	31:16	13:26	40.01

The above table reveals that the sample teachers spent thirty-two minutes on average for the actual teaching out of the forty-minute lessons. Of this, they devoted 13:26 minutes to giving explanations on average which accounts for 40.01 per cent of the total lesson time. This coincides with what research has found out so far that a considerable amount of time is spent on giving explanations. This is contrary to the current pedagogic view that explanation should not take much of the lesson time which could be used for some other more fruitful activities such as for practising the language (Perrott, 1982).

4.2. Kinds of Explanations Given

The second basic question that this study aims to answer is to find out the kinds of explanations English teachers give. In order to investigate the kinds of explanations given by the sample teachers, a three dimensional classification has been employed. It consists of classification according to what the explanations are, when they are given and why they are given. Each will be presented below.

4.2.1. Classification According to What Type the Explanations are

In this sub-section, the explanation extracts have been classified into three categories based on Brown's (1978) classification where explanations fall into either interpretive, descriptive or reason-giving.

Table 2. Types of Explanation

NO.	Explanation Types		T1		T2		T3		T4		T5		T6		Total	
			F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1	Interpretive		5	13.2	3	25	2	10.2	11	47.8	1	10	9	45	31	25.4
2	Descriptive		20	52.6	4	33.73	6	31.6	10	43.5	4	40	9	45	53	43.4
3	Reason-giving		13	34.2	5	41	11	57.9	2	8.7	5	50	2	10	38	31.2
	Total		38	100	12	100	19	100	23	100	10	100	20	100	122	100

Table 3. Phase of the lesson at which explanations are given.

NO.	When Explanations are given		T1		T2		T3		T4		T5		T6		Total	
			F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1	At the beginning		6	15.8	3	25	4	21.1	8	34.8	3	30	11	55	35	28.7
2	In the Middle		11	28.9	9	75	13	68.4	14	60.9	6	60	9	45	62	50.8
3	At the end		21	55.3	-	-	2	10.5	1	4.3	1	10	-	-	25	20.5
	Total		38	100	12	100	19	100	23	100	10	100	20	100	122	100

Table 2 shows the relative frequency of the three types of explanations. Although there are individual differences among the sample teachers, descriptive explanations seem to be the dominant types constituting 43.4 per cent of the total explanations given by the sample teachers, followed by reason giving explanations (31.2 per cent), and interpretive explanations (25.4 per cent).

4.2.2. Classification According to When the Explanations are Given

This sub-section presents the phase of the lesson at which the explanations are given: at the beginning, in the middle or at the end of the lesson.

Table 3 reveals that almost half of the explanations are given in the middle of the lesson. With the exception of Teacher 6, who gave about 55 per cent of the explanations at the beginning, the rest offered the majority of their explanations as their lessons progressed. Teacher 6 was, however, deductive in approach. He started the lesson with a series of explanations from the outset.

The fact that about half of the explanations are given in the middle of the lesson could be attributed to the information in Table 4 which depicts that 65.6 per cent of the explanations are student generated rather than teacher-initiated. Sufficient number of explanations are also given at the beginning as well as at the end of the lessons as shown in Table 3.

4.2.3. Classification According to Why the Explanations are Given

Teachers give explanations for a number of reasons. In this study, five reasons have been identified which the different explanations fall into. Of these one is teacher-initiated, while the other four are generated from students' reactions. To ensure whether the sample teachers gave explanations for the reasons suggested in this study, brief discussion was conducted with each of the teachers. This has helped in strengthening the degree of certainty as to why the sample teachers gave the explanations in their respective lessons.

Table 4 deals with some of the reasons that trigger explanations. The reasons here are of two types. Item 1 is teacher initiated, whereas items 2 - 5 consist of explanations given as a kind of feedback which, taken together, constitute 65.6 per cent of the explanations given by the sample teachers. Of these, explanations given for confirming correct answers given by students take the lead, i.e., 36.9 per cent followed by teacher-initiated explanations meant for introducing a lesson or a stage in a lesson constituting 34.4 per cent of the lesson time on average. The fewest are explanations given to correct wrong answers given by students which rarely occurred in the video-recorded lessons.

Table 4. Reasons for Giving Explanations

NO.	When Explanations are given	T1		T2		T3		T4		T5		T6		Total	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	Teacher takes the initiative	7	18.4	5	41.7	5	26.3	11	47.8	3	30	11	55	42	34.4
2	In response to students' questions	20	52.6	-	-	-	-	1	4.4	-	-	1	5	22	18.0
3	To correct wrong answers students give	-	-	2	16.6	-	-	1	4.4	-	-	1	5	4	3.3
4	To confirm correct answers students give	11	29	5	41.7	9	47.4	6	26.1	7	70	7	35	45	36.9
5	In response to silence	-	-	-	-	5	26.3	4	17.3	-	-	-	-	9	7.4
	Total	38	100	12	100	19	100	23	100	10	100	20	100	122	100

Table 5 Explanation Types seen in Relation to the time they are Given

NO.		Beginning		Middle		End	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
1	Interpretive	14	11.48	16	13.11	1	0.82
2	Descriptive	17	13.93	21	17.21	15	12.30
3	Reason-giving	4	3.28	25	20.49	9	7.38

Table 5 deals with the phase of the lesson at which the three types of explanations are given. It shows that 20.49 per cent of the explanations are reason-giving given during the progress of the lesson. These are followed by descriptive explanations given in the middle of the lesson constituting 17.21 per cent.

The fewest are interpretive explanations given at the end with only 0.82 per cent and reason giving explanations given at the beginning, 3.28 per cent. The fact that fewer reason-giving explanations occur at the beginning and more of them in the middle and some of ^{them at} the end suggests that for these types of explanations to occur, there has to be some kind of reaction from the students.

Table 5 also shows that descriptive explanations can occur at any phase of the lesson. Interpretive explanations, however, occur more at the beginning and in the middle than at the end. This could be due to the fact that teachers may finish stating the points at the beginning and in the middle and may not have any more left toward the end of the lesson.

Table 6 Reasons for Giving Explanations Seen in Relation to Types of Explanations

No.	Teacher Initiated		In Response to students' questions		To Correct Wrong answers Students give		To confirm Correct Answers Students' give		In Response to silence	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	10	8.2	1	0.82	-	-	17	13.93	3	2.46
2	22	18.03	13	10.66	4	3.28	12	9.83	2	1.64
3	10	8.20	8	6.56	-	-	16	13.11	4	3.28

Table 7 Reasons for Giving Explanations Seen in Relation to Time

No.	Teacher Initiated		In Response to students' questions		To Correct Wrong answers Students give		To confirm Correct Answers Students' give		In Response to silence	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	24	19.67	-	-	1	0.82	8	6.56	2	1.64
2	17	13.93	1	0.82	3	2.46	35	28.69	6	4.92
3	1	0.82	21	17.21	-	-	2	1.64	1	0.82

Table 6 is also meant to show the three types of explanations seen in relation to one of the five reasons mentioned. It shows that teacher-initiated descriptive explanations are the most observed, i.e., 18.03 per cent of the total explanations. This could be attributed to the reason that teachers are tempted to give more and more explanations. It might also be due to the little involvement of the students in the process of giving explanations. Interpretive and reason-giving explanations meant to correct wrong answers given by students are not encountered at all. Again this could perhaps be due to the nature of the lessons. These kinds of explanations occur when there are exercises for students to do. In the sample lessons, however, with the exception of occasional questions asked by the teacher during the lesson presentation, there were no exercises given to the students. It was only Teacher 6 who attempted to give exercises to his students after presenting the language point. Interpretive explanations in response to students' question, and descriptive explanations in response to silence are hardly observed.

Table 7 is intended to show which of the reasons for giving explanations occur at which phase of the lesson. Results show that explanations for confirming students' answers in the middle of the lesson constitute 28.69 per cent of the total explanations. This could be because of the tendency of the teachers to give positive feedback. These are followed by teacher initiated explanations at the



beginning of the lesson which constitute 19.67 per cent. It is expected that most of the explanations given at the beginning of a lesson are likely to be teacher-initiated. This is because it is the stage of the lesson at which teachers introduce the new language. Secondly, all of the sample teachers except one (Teacher 3) are deductive in approach which implies that most of the explanations are likely to be given at the beginning mainly with the teacher taking the initiative. On the other hand, explanations in response to students questions at the beginning and those meant to correct wrong answers at end have not been observed at all.

4.3. Results of the Explanation Checklist

The explanation checklist was specifically meant for investigating the disparity, if any, between what teachers actually do and what they are expected to do (see chapter 2-section 2.3, chapter 3-section 3.4.2 and Tables 8 & 9). Each of the sample teachers has been rated on a scale of five points where one is the lowest and five is the highest. A behavioural item is rated 5 if it occurs very frequently or if it is done very satisfactorily, 4 if it occurs frequently or is manifested satisfactorily, 3 if it occurs sometimes or is done partially, 2 when it occurs only rarely or is done unsatisfactorily, and 1 if it never occurs at all or is done very unsatisfactorily.

Table 8 Results of the Explanation Checklist for Verbal Behaviours

	The teacher has:	T	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	Sum	Mean
1	provided an interesting introduction to gain students' attention.	2	1	3	2	1	1	10	1.67
2	provided advanced organisers for learning activities.	5	2	3	3	3	3	19	3.17
3	reviewed pre-requisite knowledge and fundamental concepts before introducing the new language point.	5	2	1	5	3	1	17	2.83
4	ensured that explanations could be heard by all students.	5	5	4	5	4	5	28	4.67
5	insisted that students pay close attention during explanations.	4	2	2	3	1	2	14	2.33
6	acted to keep explanations concise and to the point.	3	3	3	4	3	4	20	3.33
7	avoided digressions and tried to stick to the point.	5	4	5	5	4	5	28	4.67
8	used non-technical language and has avoided overemphasising complex aspects of subject matter.	4	3	3	3	3	3	19	3.17
9	avoided cluttering anyone explanation with too much content or too many examples.	4	4	4	5	4	5	26	4.33
10	used examples appropriately.	5	3	5	5	3	5	26	4.33
11	provided information which is conceptually accurate, explicit and meaningful.	4	3	4	5	2	5	23	3.83
12	tried to make the explanations interactive.	4	4	4	4	3	3	22	3.67
13	tried to make the explanations responsive to student restructuring of information.	3	3	5	4	2	3	20	3.33
14	attempted to assist students' efforts to build understanding by sequencing and providing restructuring hooks.	3	2	4	3	2	4	18	3.00
15	used verbal markers to help students learn to differentiate what is important (or more important) from what is not (or less important).	3	2	3	2	1	2	13	2.17
16	tried to make explanations clear and understandable.	5	3	4	5	2	5	24	4.00
Total		64	47	58	63	42	57	331	54.50
Mean		4	2.9	3.6	3.9	2.6	3.5	20.4	3.41

The checklist consists of two sections. The first presents results of the verbal behaviours, while the second presents results of non-verbal behaviours accompanying verbal explanations.

Table 8 shows that the sample teachers differed in exhibiting the behaviours in the checklist when giving explanations. Two out of the six teachers (T1 and T4) exhibited the behaviours "frequently" or "satisfactorily" on average. Two are (T3 and T6) in between "sometimes" and "frequently" while the other two (T2 and T5) are in between "rarely" and "sometimes".

The verbal behaviours that transpired very frequently through out all the teachers are in items 4 & 7, i.e., the sample teachers seem to be loud enough to be heard by their students. Similarly, they all seem to stick to the point avoiding digressions when giving explanations. The sample teachers also appear to avoid cluttering their explanations with too much content or too many examples frequently.

The behaviour that rarely occurred in the recorded lessons seems to be the provision of an (interesting) introduction to gain students' attention. Verbal markers are also rarely given by the sample teachers.

Overall, the verbal behaviours seem to be exhibited by the sample teachers only partially or sometimes when explanations are given. The sample teachers report that they are not aware of most of the behaviours in the checklist when giving explanations.

Table 9 Results of the Checklist for Describing Non-verbal Behaviours Accompanying Verbal Explanations

No.	ITEMS	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	Total	Mean
1	The teacher has had constant eye-contact when giving explanations.	5	5	4	5	4	5	28	4.67
2	The teacher has looked at every direction in the classroom.	5	5	4	5	4	5	28	4.67
3	The teacher has looked at students and watched their reactions constantly.	4	3	4	4	3	4	22	3.67
4	The teacher has moved a little when he wanted to.	5	5	5	5	5	5	30	5.00
5	The teacher has used the blackboard appropriately to indicate essential points.	5	4	5	4	4	5	27	4.50
6	The teacher has used visual aids other than the blackboard.	1	1	1	2	1	1	7	1.17
7	The teacher has employed gestures to emphasise important points.	4	4	4	5	3	4	24	4.00
8	The teacher has varied the pace of delivery of explanations.	3	3	3	4	3	4	20	3.33
9	The teacher has used pauses more appropriately before making important points.	5	5	4	5	4	5	28	4.67
Total		37	35	34	39	31	38	214	35.68
Mean		4.1	3.89	3.78	4.33	3.44	4.22	3.96	3.96

Table 9 reveals that the sample teachers seem to be high users of non-verbal behaviours that accompany verbal explanations. Of the six sample teachers, Teacher 4 seems to be a very high user. Of all the items, item 6 (use of visual aids other than the blackboard) seems to be the least exhibited. This could perhaps be because of the nature of the topic, i.e., restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses in chapter 16 of ENE Grade 10. This non-verbal behaviour never occurred in the lessons of the sample teachers again with the exception of Teacher 4 who attempted to use chalk of different colour to underline the relative clauses in his example sentences.

4.4. Discussion

4.4.1 The Openings of Lessons

In any lesson presentation, including explanations, the opening stage of the lesson is said to have its own influence in helping students to better understand the lesson. This is mainly by winning the attention of the learners. In this regard, the sample teacher exhibited different styles in starting their lessons. Three different styles have been observed. The first one is starting the lesson by asking questions about the topic under question (Teachers 2, 4 and 5). The second is by giving the topic and example sentences first so that students can deduce rules from them (Teacher 3). The third one is by directly giving explanations about the language point (Teachers 1 and 6). (See appendices 1A-F)

In all the three categories, all the sample teachers went straight to the topic for that period. This is contrary to what is said about lesson openings, i.e., the provision of an interesting introduction to gain students' attention (Cole and Chan, 1994; Brophy and Good, 1986).

Secondly, a behaviour which is closely related to the giving of an interesting introduction is the provision of advanced organisers for learning activities. These are preliminary outlines that show the structure of a lesson. With the exception of Teacher 1, the other sample teachers simply gave the topics without some of the sub-topics and activities to be dealt with through out the period. Teacher 1, however, attempted to give some of the sub-topics to be treated in the lesson. The following extracts show how the teacher did this:

T: Today, in this period we are going to deal with adjective clauses.
 Now! Before I go to the main topic, I'm going to brush what adjective is and what adjective clauses are.
 [Teacher first discusses what an adjective is.]

Next to this, we shall try to see what an adjective clause is.

Ok! Now, I shall go to the main topic and the topic that we are going to deal with in this period is the restrictive and non-restrictiv adjective clauses.
 (See Appendix 1A

The extracts show how students are likely to be advantaged if a teacher provides preliminary information about the structure of the topic to be learnt. Such

outlines give direction to learning on the one hand and show students the plan of the lesson before the contents of the actual instruction are revealed (Cole and Chan, 1994).

Lastly, reviewing the fundamental concepts and prior knowledge of students is believed to be important for giving effective explanations. This enables the teacher to assess what his students know based on which he can adjust his explanations to the level of his students. Going straight to the new language without preparing the preliminary steps and reviewing the prior knowledge of the students would not only complicate the explanations to be given but also put the students in a position where they do not know the direction of their learning (Bellon et al, 1992; Cole and Chan, 1994).

One way of reviewing fundamental concepts and pre-requisite knowledge of students is discussing some language points which should precede the topic in question. The fundamental pre-requisite points for the topic the sample teachers taught (relative clauses) could be adjectives, clauses, and relatives. A teacher can, therefore, briefly discuss these points before commencing the new topic to be taught. Teachers 1 and 4 attempted to do this. Teacher 5 also did this partially. The other teachers, however, did not do this at all. (See Appendices 1A-F)

Another way of doing this is by asking students what they know about the topic. Based on the response obtained from the students, teachers can identify what level their students are and the extent they know about the topic.

This enables teachers to design their explanations in such a way that they are suitable to the level of their students. Teachers 2, 4 and 5 attempted to do this. (See Appendices 1B, 1D, and 1E)

4.4.2. Involving Students When Giving-Explanations

Considering it as an aspect of direct instruction, opponents of the explaining behaviour express their fear that students might remain passive during explanations. Adherents of the explanation technique, however, suggest that this problem can be overcome by making the explanations interactive and responsive to student restructuring of information (Bellen et al, 1992). The following extract can help to show how this can be done:

- T: You want to say something? So you are welcome.
Yes!
- S: Restrictive clauses are a part of sentences that give important information about the sentence.
- T: Ok! So we say just to put some more points, eh here defining clause is an essential part of the sentence. [T writes this point on the b/b]
Do you agree or do you oppose this eh point? Any something to say? Yes!
- S: Another point is in the defining or restrictive clause, no comma is needed to separate the clause.
- T: Ok!
- S: But, in the non-restrictive, we need a comma.
(See Appendix 1C: §)

This way, teachers can make sure that their students are actively involved in making the explanations rather than solely giving the explanations themselves. Teacher 3

seems to have employed an inductive approach. He gave the class three examples under two categories. Providing brief explanations, he attempted to elicit the explanations from the students themselves. In doing this, he was also responsive to students' restructuring of information. He was for instance slightly amending the explanations given by his students. Note how he restructures the explanation a student attempts to give below:

- T: Another! Number four. Here what do we add? One more. Somebody?
Ok! [T. nominates a student]
- S: It is connected by relative clauses such as who ...
- T: I beg your pardon?
- S: It is connected by relative pronouns such as who, whose, that.
- T: Good! Let me put it in another way. All relative clauses I mean all relative, all relatives are used.
Very good! All relatives are used - who, whom, whose, which, that
[T. Writes these points on the b/b.]
It is a beautiful point. ...
And here?
What do we say?
[T. Points to the b/b. Students remain silent.]
Now! Ok. All rela all these relatives except, all except /that/ (3). (See Appendix 1C: 18/19)

This extract shows how teachers can make their explanations interactive, and how teachers can be responsive to students' restructuring of information. This is by developing explanations based on those of students.

There were also instances in the recorded lessons where there existed lack of responsiveness. Compare the

extract above with the following one:

- T: Can you tell me what is the meaning of restrictive? What do we mean when we say restrictive the word itself?
Yes! [T. nominates a students.]
- S: Infinitive
- T: I don't think eh the meaning of restrictive is not infinitive.
[T. nominates another student.]
- S: Take an object
- T: Take an object-restrictive-take an object
[T. nominates another student.]
- S: Modifies a sentence.
- T: Modifies a sentence. /How?/ (3)
- S: The sentence is defining
- T: Yes?
- S: Defined
- T: Say it again! Stand up!
- S: The sentence is defined
- T: The sentence is defined. It is restrictive means when we say restrictive eh tending to restrict or (limiting) very important.
(see Appendix I. E. 4)

In this extract, the teacher has neither tried to give appropriate corrections nor attempted to restructure what the students said. He eventually gave them something they never treated in their answers to the question he raised. He was expecting from the students the ready made answer he had in mind.

Teachers can also make their explanations interactive by allowing their students to answer each other's questions.

- T: Ok? Kibrom! [S raises his hand and T gives him the chance to ask.]
- S: If the sentence are identifies the class of Abebe,
- T: Yes! Stand up! Ok.
- S: If the sentence identifies the class of Abebe, could we say the sentence is restrictive-just when we say Abebe, who stood first in ten 5 class,

- has got a scholarship?
 T: Alright! who can answer this question?
 Abebe, who stood first in ten 5 class,
 has got scholarship. This sentence
 could be restrictive or non-
 restrictive?
 SS: Restrictive! [in chorus]
 T: Ok! Melaw. [S continues speaking]
 (See Appendix 1B ?)

The sample teachers, however, didn't do this. They simply answered the questions themselves instead of giving the students the opportunity to do so.

4.4.3. Use of Examples

As far as use of examples is concerned, each of the sample teachers seem to give appropriate ones. The problem with two of the sample teachers (Teachers 2 and 5) was that they were not able to appropriately use the examples they used for explaining the grammar point. The following extract clearly reveals this problem:

- T: Now! Let me give you another example
 look this sentence. Abebe, /who stood
 first in the class/ (2) has got a
 scholarship.
 [T. writes this example on the b/b.]
 Ok! Could you eh know who Abebe is in
 particular? There could be many Abebes
 as well as it does not explain which
 class it is. So what kind of sentence
 is this one?
 SS: Non-restrictive! [in chorus]
 T: Why? Why is it non-restrictive?
 S: Because it does not identify what Abebe
 which Abebe is got this scholarship
 because there are different classes in
 our school and different Abebes. Abebe
 is I can say a common name in our
 country. Therefore we can't identify
 who Abebe is.
 T: Very good. Therefore we are not
 talking eh exactly or precisely about

Abebe. If someone asks me 'who is that Abebe?' well, I don't know but I know that Abebe, who stood first in class, has got the scholarship.

(See Appendix 1-B:7.8)

This extract shows that the teacher has brought to the class a relevant example. He, however, couldn't explain it appropriately. In fact, it resulted in confusion on the part of the students and later on, on the teacher himself. It continues:

- S: If the sentence identifies the class of Abebe, could we say the sentence is restrictive-just when we say Abebe, who stood first in ten 5, has got a scholarship?
- T: Alright! Who can answer this question? Abebe, who stood first in ten 5 class, has got a scholarship. This sentence could be restrictive or non-restrictive?
- SS: Restrictive. [in chorus]
- T: Ok! Melaw.
- S: Oh! yes no ten five class means eh in different schools there are ten 5 classes. When if we clarify the school, that would be that could be, but if not it is non-restrictive.
- T: Yes! If you say, what Melaw says is if you just do not describe the name of that school, it could not be restrictive. Is that what your answer says?
- Ok! Another? Abebe, who stood first in ten 5 class, has got a scholarship. Yes! Ok. Is it restrictive?
- S: Yes
- T: Why?
- S: Because in the other school, there is no the number. That means ten 1, ten 2. But there is ten A, ten B, ten C.
- T: Oh! but I said, Abebe, who stood first in ten 5 class.
- S: Yes.
- T: Which school?
- T: In our school
- T: I didn't say in our school.

(See Appendix 1-B:9)

According to what the teacher says, if the school had

been mentioned, the clause in the example sentence would have been restrictive. This is, however, a faulty reasoning.

Some students seem to have been misled with the teachers' explanations. As a result of this, they were giving wrong explanations, too. Look at the extract below which is a continuation of the preceding part:

- S: But I think it is restrictive because it describe the class, his name and the one who has who has got the scholarship.
 eh I think it is restrictive.
 T: eh but it doesn't describe specifically the school , and I didn't say in our school. I simply said in the class.
 (see Appendix 1B-10)

The student has given a similar explanation as that of the teacher. What the teacher used as a criterion for restrictive clauses is the noun to be modified rather than the clause itself. So did the student. In this case, the faulty explanation the teacher gave made the student to have misconception and give faulty explanation.

Teacher 5 had also had a similar problem. The following extract shows this difficulty.

- T: Here is an example.
 My brother, who is very fat, says that there will be a good crop this year. We have all agreed that this is non-restrictive. Why? Can you tell me the reason? It is stated in the book itself. It is given as an example to non-restrictive.
 Why do we say that it is non-restrictive?
 Yes! [T. nominates a student.]
 S: It take who?

- T: Yes?
 S: It take who.
 T: Is that the only reason you see there?
 Actually you are right, but eh!
 [T. nominates another student.]
 S: Because it is not limited.
 T: It is not limited. Out big point is
 that to differentiate non-restrictive
 and restrictive is that limiting point.
 Here, my brother, who is very fat ...
 my brother who is very fat. Is it
 identified from the others? It is not
 identified or it is not limited because
 it is not limited because there can be
 many brothers who are fat. [T. writes
 this on the b/b.]
 (See Appendix I-E:10)

Both Teacher 2 and 5 seem to have the same understanding of the grammar point. Both of them have given similar faulty explanations based on their examples. The rest teachers, however, used appropriate and relevant examples in attempting to explain the language point.

4.4.4. The Language of Explanation Teachers Used

The sample teachers show similarities in their use of language when giving explanations. It could perhaps be due to the nature of the topic itself, i.e., restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses that a lot of technical language is used. To illustrate this point, consider the following excerpt from Teacher 4:

- T: Well! The difference the main difference /between/ (2) a defining and non-defining clause is not only that the non-defining clause is bounded by commas but it also eh as far as meaning is concerned eh this is only an

additional information about eh the antecedent.

The antecedent is as you see as you can see the noun which is represented by the whole clause here, restrictive or non-restrictive. That is the antecedent.

/So any information/ (2) not necessarily vital about the antecedent is called a non-defining clause. But any information given by an adjective clause given by about the antecedent to avoid confusion and the like is called a defining or restrictive clause. (See Appendix 1-D:15)

In the above excerpt, the teacher uses technical terms which are likely to complicate the explanations he gives which could have been expressed using ordinary language. The above explanation can be compared with a similar explanation give by Teacher 3. The explanations are similar in content but different in the use of words:

T: ... defining clause is the restrictive clause is an essential part and we can't omit it. But here is merely an additional information or/an additional inclusion/(2). (See Appendix 1-C:11)

In the extract from Teacher 4, the use of jargons like 'antecedent' wouldn't help in making the students understand the explanations given. The teacher introduces the word and starts explaining what it is instead of simply explaining the difference between the two types of clauses. Teacher 3, however, tries to explain the difference using terms which are relatively non-technical.

A second important point that requires discussion is the nature of sentences in the explanations. The sample teachers use in their explanations sentences that are difficult to understand. Some of the sentences they used to explain lack clarity. Certain excerpts from the lesson transcripts of the sample teacher are given below:

T: So eh Ok!
 Restrictive as the word indicates limits or clarifies or points out the item being discussed-means at the first utterance of the speaker the learner or audience must be able to understand what he means. (See Appendix 1-C:3)

Teacher 2 as well uses an explanation similar to that of Teacher 3:

T: Ok! Any other? What do we mean by defining? /to define?/ (2)
 S: To make it clear.
 T: To make it clear or to make it known.
 To make something known is defining.
 So restrictive relative clause eh a restrictive clause is a clause that explains eh explains the exact idea of an expression. [T writes this on the b/b.] (See Appendix 1 B:2)

In the above two extracts, the nature of the sentences used doesn't seem to be direct in enabling the students understand the point being discussed.

Teacher 5 on the other hand uses the dictionary definition of the word restrictive to explain the meaning of the grammar point. This is likely to make the explanation less comprehensible:

- me 'which man', isn't it?
- S: [in chorus] [tr. yes]
- T: Exactly! So, her father [tr. or]/My father/(2), who is a teacher, is sick [tr. If I say,] which father [tr. You won't say this.] /You don't/(2).
 You don't ask me which father, because I have only one father. Don't you think so?
- SS: Yes! [in chorus.] (See Appendix 1-D:11)

This teacher occasionally uses the mother tongue that might help in making the meaning clearer. It was also very brief. This is likely to promote understanding on the part of the students without any effect on the target language (Harmer, 1987/1990). The rest teachers, however, never used the mother tongue at all. (This could perhaps be because of my presence.)

CHAPTER FIVE

Summary of Findings, Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1. Summary of Findings and Conclusion

This study is conducted to investigate the nature of explanations given by grade ten English language teachers especially when introducing a new language. The data necessary for this study consist of 122 instance of explanations.

Results show that a considerable amount of time is spent on giving explanations which accounts for more than 40 per cent of the actual class time.

Of the different kinds of explanations raised and discussed, descriptive explanation have been found to constitute more than half of the explanations gives in the sample lessons. When we see the explanation types from the time perspective at which they are given, nearly 50 per cent of the explanation are provided during the progress of the lesson. As far as the reasons for giving explanation are concerned, it has been found out that those that are given to confirm correct answers given by the students account for about 40 per cent of the total explanations followed by explanations given by the teachers' own initiative which constitute about 34.4 per cent.

Results from the explanation checklists also show that the sample teachers on the average exhibited the verbal behaviours necessary for giving explanations only sometimes. With the non-verbal behaviours

accompanying verbal behaviours, however, the sample teachers seem to exhibit the sample teachers seem to exhibit almost all of them satisfactorily. This suggests that they are high users of the non-verbal behaviours on average.

In sum, the importance and inevitability of explanations has been observed in this study. The main point that requires further investigation is looking for better ways of doing it so as to achieve the intended learning outcomes.

5.2. Recommendations

Based on the results of the study, the following recommendations are made:

- 1) The use of explanations in lesson presentations seems to be inevitable. Despite this reality, teachers do not appear to give effective and relevant explanations. This might be attributed to the kind of training they passed through. English teachers should, therefore, be given proper training so that they can give explanations properly to their students bearing in mind the behaviours, verbal as well as non-verbal, that are important to give effective explanations.

- 2) Active participation of the students is said to be important for explanations to be effective. Hence, students should be made to actively participate in the process of providing explanations. They should be encouraged to ask questions, give explanation, and answers each of the questions.

3) Although it is tempting to give more and more explanations, teachers should also strive not to give convoluted explanations assuming the side effects of such kinds of explanation. They should attempt to make their explanations as much brief as possible.

4) Teacher trainers are also expected to design courses specifically meant to orient their trainees to reduce the talk of the teacher, and if at all it is necessary, to make it in such a way that students do not sit passively.

5) It is also recommended that more workshops be organized similar to those conducted by the Department of Foreign Language and Literature in collaboration with the British council and the Institute for Curriculum Development and Research. If such kinds of workshops are held, English teachers, in service, can be made aware of the nature of explanations they give so that they can be in a better position to become effective explainers.

6) Teachers might also be dictated by the textbooks which are basically grammar-oriented and which may affect the nature of explanations teachers are likely to give. Curriculum developers and syllabus designers should, therefore, render some help to teachers so that teachers can prepare their own supplementary materials which reduce explanation but promote more student participation in order to arrive at the desired learning goals.

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APPENDIX 1

LESSON TRANSCRIPTS

Symbols and Abbreviations used in Transcription

T = Teacher tr = translation equivalent

S = Student [] = comments by the researcher

Ss = Students //(x) = number of times part is repeated

b/b = blackboard

Appendix 1-A

TEACHER 1

Restrictive and non-restrictive adjective clauses

[T. writes this on the blackboard.]

T. Alright! Take out your books and open the paper, and look through /page 281/

Eh. Today, in this period, we are going to deal with adjective clauses

Now! Before I go to the main topic, I'm going to brush what adjective is and what adjective clauses are.

[1]

As all of you may remember, an adjective is a word that modifies or qualifies a noun, or a pronoun. I hope that you have read what I had given you previous: possessive adjective, demonstrative adjective, distributive adjective, interrogative adjective and others.

[2]

Now! We may could form or adjectives can be driven from different kinds of parts of speech. An adjective can be formed from another adjective, and I'll try to give you some examples: Example from the word good we can form goodsih, black-blackish. Of course you can form adjectives from nouns, other parts of speech.

[3]

Next to this, we shall try to see what an adjective clause is. An adjective clause functions like any

adjective in a given sentence. An adjective clauses modifies nouns or pronouns. It usually consists of a subject, a verb, other modifiers, etc.

Now! The thing that we should have to bear in mind is that when we deal with clauses. a clause is sometimes known as a sentence in a sentence. Remember! A clause is a sentence in a sentence.

Now! What are the two different parts of parts of eh a clause? I have said that a clause could be classified into two. What are the two parts? Yea! [T. nominates a student to answer the question.]

S: If clause and main clause.

T: Eh?

S: If clause and main clause.

T: He said if clause and main clause. Is this /right?/(2)
Right? eh?

[T. nominates another student.]

S: Main clause and subordinate clause.

[4]

T: Good! She has said that any adjective any clause could be classified into two. They are the main clause and the subordinate clause. Sometimes eh... it is said the subordinate clause a dependent clause.

[5]

The Subordinate clause does not function alone. It does not stand alone, but it should have to depend on.

Ss: On the main clause [in chorus.]

T: On the main clause.

[6]

Ok! Now, I shall go to the main topic and the topic that we are going to deal with in this period is the /restrictive and non-restrictive adjective clauses,/(2)
Now! eh... the first is the restrictive clause - defining clause [T. writes this on the b/b.]

Now! A restrictive adjective clause is one that is essential in defining or limiting a noun or a pronoun. A restrictive clause is a clause that defines or limits

the noun or the pronoun that it modifies.
 Now! Consider the following sentence.
 The man who told me this refused to give to give me his
 name. [T. says this twice and writes it on the b/b.]

Now! Now! This is an example for restrictive clause.

Could you read the restrictive clause given in this
 sentence? Could you identify the restrictive clause in
 this sentence?

T: Read! /*fi*/ [tr: ok!] [T. nominates a student. Another
 student interrupts.]

S: I have an objection to this sentence.

T: Eh... which one [Inaudible]

S: It is something to be like it is a non-restrictive
 clause or non-defining clause.

T: Eh!

S: Because it is eh it says so.

T: Now! Look at the blackboard.

Now, I am dealing with a restrictive clause. And I've
 tried to give you an example for restrictive clauses.

[T. refers to his notes/book.] I think am right! What
 is the restrictive clause in this sentence?

T: Eh! [T. nominates a student to answer his question.]

S: Who told me this refused.

T: Who told me this.

S: Refused.

T: No! eh! [T. nominates another student.]

Yea!

S: Who told me this.

T: /Who told me this/ (2)

[7]

Now! The man who told me this refused to give me his name. This is a restrictive clause. The underlined words are restrictive clause.

[T.writes this on the b/b.]

Why? Why do we say that the underlined words are restrictive clause? Why?

[8]

T: Remember! A restrictive clause ... eh?

S: because they modifies the noun man.

T: because it modifies.

S: the noun man.

T: Say it once again.

S: Because it modifies the noun man.

T: Because it modifies the noun man. Another?

S: [Inaudible] so that eh cur...

T: [Inaudible] Another? eh? [T. nominates another student.]

S: Because it tell us eh... more information about the man.

T: Because it tells us more information about.

S: the man.

T: the man.

[9]

T: Remember that I have said a restrictive clause is one that is essential in defining or limiting a noun or a pronoun.

[10]

In this sentence, the noun that we have used to ... the noun that we have used here is "the man". The restrictive clause, Who told me this modifies the noun 'man'.

[11]

It is essential in this sentence because /it gives/ (2) information about the man.

S: Yes.

T: If we avoid or omit the restrictive clause in this sentence, the sentence itself cannot be completed by itself. For example, the man refused to give me his name. Who is this man? Do you have any additional information?

Ss: No! [in chorus]

T: No. So, because of this it is very important in the sentence and sometimes we call this essential part of

the given sentence.

[12]

Another... What is the relative pronoun that we have used to introduce the restrictive clause in this sentence? What is the relative pronoun that we have used in this sentence?

T: hm? [T. nominates a students to answer his question.]

S: the man.

T: No! What is the relative pronoun that we here used in this sentence?

Yes! [T. nominates another students.]

S: Who

T: Again

S: Who

T: Who. Who is the relative pronoun that we have used here. [T. writes on the b/b: 'The relative pronoun used here is "who"'].]

[13]

Ok! Do we have comma here? Do we have comma in this sentence?

Ss: No! [in chorus]

T: So, we don't need comma in a restrictive clause.

[T.writes on the b/b: no comma is used.]

The non-restrictive clause (non-defining)

[T. writes this on the b/b.]

[14]

Now! A non-restrictive adjective clause is one that is not essential in defining or limiting a noun or a pronoun. Let's consider the following example: Apple trees, which are both beautiful and productive, do not live for ever.

[T. writes this example sentence on the b/b.]

Who can read this sentence? [twice]

Hm! [T. nominates a student.]

S: Apple trees, which are both beautiful and productive, do not live for ever.

T: for ever.

Good! Now, let's see the difference between restrictive

the given sentence.

[12]

Another... What is the relative pronoun that we have used to introduce the restrictive clause in this sentence? What is the relative pronoun that we have used in this sentence?

T: hm? [T. nominates a students to answer his question.]

S: the man.

T: No! What is the relative pronoun that we here used in this sentence?

Yes! [T. nominates another students.]

S: Who

T. Again

S: Who

T: Who. Who is the relative pronoun that we have used here. [T. writes on the b/b: 'The relative pronoun used here is "who"'].

[13]

Ok! Do we have comma here? Do we have comma in this sentence?

Ss: No! [in chorus]

T: So, we don't need comma in a restrictive clause.

[T. writes on the b/b: no comma is used.]

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Now! A non-restrictive adjective clause is one that is not essential in defining or limiting a noun or a pronoun. Let's consider the following example: Apple trees, which are both beautiful and productive, do not live for ever.

[T. writes this example sentence on the b/b.]

Who can read this sentence? [twice]

Hm! [T. nominates a student.]

S: Apple trees, which are both beautiful and productive, do not live for ever.

T: for ever.

Good! Now, let's see the difference between restrictive

and non-restrictive clause. I have tried to give you an example. The example is "Apple trees, which are both beautiful and productive, do not live for ever". Could you tell us or read the restrictive clause given in this sentence?

[T. nominates a student.]

S: The non-restrictive clause is which are both beautiful and productive.

T: Good! Which are both beautiful and productive.

[15]

Now! See the difference between the restrictive and non-restrictive clauses. In the first sentence, we have said that "who told me this" is the restrictive clause, and in the second sentence "which are both beautiful and productive" are is a non-restrictive clause.

Now! Why do we say that this eh is non-restrictive clause or non-defining clause? Why do we call this non-restrictive or non-defining clause?

Here, this modifies the subject man.

[T. points to the b/b], but why do we say that "which are both beautiful and productive" is a non-restrictive clause? What is the reason for this? eh? [T. nominates a student.]

S: We know that apple trees are productive and beautiful. Any kind of vegetations are beautiful. So we don't have to say that or to locate eh apple trees are beautiful and productive. It is not necessary.

[16]

- T: Good! Right!
 Here! The underlined words which is a non-restrictive clause is not important or essential in this sentence, because any apple tree cannot live for ever, but the clause that we have used here is eh an additional information about the apple that we have used here. - Remember! Apple trees do not live for ever. To add the non-restrictive clause to the subject, or to the noun that is used here is to give additional information. We can omit it or we can avoid it. We can simply say "Apple trees do not live for ever". This is an additional information in this sentence. So, from this we can conclude that non-restrictive clause is not so much important or essential in this sentence. Clear?
- Ss: Yes! [in chorus]
- T: Now, eh the clause is not important, but gives additional information - clear? [T. writes this point on the b/b.]

What other difference do you see between the first sentence and the second sentence? eh? eh? [T. nominates a student.]

- S: In the first sentence, eh comma is used.
- T: In the first sentence?
- S: Comma is used, but in the second sentence, eh. comma not used.
- T: Is she right?
- Ss: No! [in chorus]
- [T. nominates another student.]
- S: In the first sentence, comma is not used.
- T: Good!
- S: In the second sentence, comma is not used.

[17]

- T: Right!
 Now! Look at the blackboard all of you. Before and after

these clauses, the comma is used in order to separate the non-restrictive clause from the other part of the sentence. Clear?

Ss: Yes! [in chorus]

[T. writes on the b/b: 'comma is used here']

T: Right!

Alright!

Do you have any questions please?

Yes! [T. gives a student the chance to ask.]

S: Can it be a non-restrictive clause if we use a comma in the first sentence?

T: Say it again!

S: If you use a comma in the first sentence, can it be non-restrictive clause or restrictive?

[18]

T: No! Remember!

The man who told me this refused to give me his name. The man refused to give me his name. You could say like this, but there is something which we lacks in this sentence.

If you don't add the restrictive clause in this sentence, if you don't have the restrictive clause in this sentence, it does not give clear and sensible information about the noun that it qualifies or modifies. So, remember that the rule that we apply in this sentence or in this clause is that when we apply the restrictive clause, we don't use comma, but when we use a non-restrictive clause, we always use comma in order to separate the clause from the other parts of the given sentence.

[19]

And eh addition eh, the thing that I want to add here is that with the non-restrictive clause/(2) it is not so much important, but is simply to give additional information about the noun or the pronoun that it qualifies. Means we can omit it if we want.

[20]

I have said that apple trees do not live for ever. This is a natural phenomena, but in order to give additional information, in order to make our sentence more flowery, in order to make it more sensible, attractive, we can add this and other words.

[21]

Now! eh before I give you another eh classwork, I would like to remind you that eh the relative pronouns that we use to introduce both restrictive and non-restrictive clauses are /that, which/(2) and who. [T. writes on the b/b: "The relative pronouns used to introduce these clauses that, which and who]
Clear?

Ss: Yes! [in chorus]

T: Another question?

S: Ato Tilahun, our teacher, is very clever. When our teacher is separated by commas in this sentence, can be or can't be restrictive eh clause?

[22]

T: Ok!

Now, in this kind of sentence, the post modification is separated from the subject or from the predicate or from the other part by using commas and eh is it the same to use the post modification form with the non-restrictive form? Remember /that we should have always/(2) eh be alert that clauses could be introduced in any given sentence in their different forms. Now, when we go to grade 11, you may come across this point, but in order to introduce a clause into a sentence, there are certain rules that we apply. For example, in the restrictive and non-restrictive clauses, the relative pronouns that we used to introduce this clause is are that, which and who, but according to her question, there are there are simply some words that are used in order to make or in order to give eh the subject of the sentence more clear.

For example, in her question, in her question, /Ato Tilahun,/(2) eh our teacher, our teacher, is /very clever./ (2).

[T. writes this sentence on the b/b.]

All of you! Look at the blackboard!

Ato Tilahun, our teacher, is very clever.

Now! Ato Tilahun, comma our teacher, comma is very clever. Now! Ato Tilahun is very clever.

Now! Who is Ato Tilahun?

Ss: Our teacher! [in chorus]

T: You are right according to this sentence, but supposing let me say that I omit the teacher, do we have any information about Ato Tilahun?

Ss: No! [in chorus]

[23]

T: No. We simply say that Ato Tilahun is very clever. We don't know whether Tilahun is a teacher, eh or a driver, or a student. In order to get in order to have more information, we are forced to use post-modification in this sentence.

[24]

And of course, as you may remember, we had tried to deal with the pre-modification, clear? The pre-modification is the word that comes eh?

S: before the subject.

T: before?

S: the subject of the sentence

T: Before the head of the sentence, and the post modification is the word or words that come after the head of the sentence.

[25]

Now! Let's see the difference between this sentence and this sentence.

Now! In this sentence, Ato Tilahun is the subject of the given sentence, /our teacher,/(2). Now! This is a noun phrase because an adjective-our, teacher of course it's used her. This words are used in order to give more information.

Ss: about Tilahun [in chorus].

[26]

T: about Tilahun. We don't have any introductory word. We

don't have any conjunction here. We don't have any connective word here. But, when we come here, which are both beautiful and /productive,/(2) this words are what? They are clause a clause.

[27]

It is a subordinate clause. We say it is a subordinate in this sentence, because we have used the introductory word which, but here we don't have an introductory word here.

[28]

Of course, a phrase and a clause resemble each other, but there is a slight difference between them.

[29]

Here, it is simply /when two/(2) or more words come together... of the same type, example in the given phrase, noun phrase, verb phrase, Ok? When two words which match each other or which are of the same kind come together in a given sentence, we say it is a phrase. But when we use words which are used or introduced by introductory phrases such as introductions, connectives or sometimes we call them signals, we say they are clauses.

[30]

A clause cannot stand alone, but it is part of a given sentence. So, a clause, especially a subordinate clause, cannot stand alone. It stands, it gives sense with the main clause. And the main clause sometimes needs some time needs the support of the subordinate clause. It cannot stand alone. So, my intention is simply to show you or to introduce to you that this these are the words that are used in order to to give more information about Tilahun.

[31]

So this is right but it's not a clause. But, this is a clause because it modifies the noun trees here and because it is introduced by an introductory word 'which'.

Have I answered your question?

S: Yes!

T: Thank you.

[A student raises her hand and teacher gives her the chance to answer.]

T: Yes!

S: I have a question. I can't see the difference between the first sentence and the second sentence because the first sentence says the man who told me this refused /to give me his/(2) name. So, eh in this sentence, who told me this eh eh is a restrictive you said as you said and in the second sentence, apple apple trees /which are both beautiful and productive,/(2) explains eh apple trees about apple trees. What kind of apple trees? They are beautiful and productive. So, that I can't see the difference without eh eh the second sentence, yes it has a comma, but there is no difference in this. I can't see.

T: Ok! Thank you. The girl has a question. She couldn't see the difference between the first and the second sentence, but what she only sees here is that in the first sentence, we have not used comma, but in the second sentence, we have used comma.

Well! Of course eh eh she is right, but let me try and make it more clear. Let me read my notes for you. [T. reads out some notes from his books.]

[32]

Restrictive clause is essential in defining or limiting a noun or a pronoun that is used in a sentence. Restrictive clause is essential in defining or limiting a nouns or a pronoun that is used in a sentence.

[33]

Now! The man who told me this refused to give me his name. Now! Let me see this. The man refused to give me his name. Now! Which man is this? Is he the teacher, is

he the pilot, the driver, the director or who is he? Here, the restrictive clause is defining or limiting the man who gave us information. Clear? So, in this sentence, we I I hope that it is clear to you that the main the subordinate clause who told me this is used in order to modify the noun the man.

[34]

Of course we can use the man refused to give me his name, but who is this man? Who is this man? The man who told me this. So, because it gives more information about the man that we are talking about, the restrictive clause that we have used is important.

[35]

But, when we come to this sentence, apple trees, which are both beautiful and productive, do not live for ever, we can omit the non-restrictive clause that is used here, because it is natural that apple trees, do not live for ever. Do you think so? Do apples live for ever?

S: No!

T: No!

[36]

But, simply the non-restrictive clause that is used in this sentence is to give additional information about the apple that we are used used here, about the apple that we have used here, about the noun that we have used here.

[37]

So, this is simply to inform you that here, this gives more information about the man, and this gives additional information. This is more information, this is additional information. [T. points to the two types on the b/b respectively]. You can omit or you can leave it, and as you have said, we don't use comma with restrictive clause, and we don't we use comma with non-restrictive clause.

T: [T. gives a students the chance to ask a question.]

S: In the textbook, it said that Tolla scored the goal that brought us to victory */y!l!l/* [tr. says].

T: No No No Don't speak in ...

S: In this sentence, it used that. But here [S. points to

the b/b.] we used who. Why?

[38]

T: Do you remember? Here, the relative pronoun used to introduce these clauses, I mean the two clauses - restrictive clauses and the non-restrictive clauses, so we could use who, that and which according to the construction of the sentence.

Thank you!

Alright! Thank you very much.

[End of recording]

Appendix 1-B

TEACHER 2

T: What is our topic today?

[1]

Ok! Restrictive and non-restrictive. In other way this restrictive could be it could be defined as, defining yes or in the other way defining and non-defining non-defining. [T. writes this on the b/b.]

Ok! what do we mean by defining? Sorry! what do we mean by defining. Yes! Is there anyone who can just eh describe what defining means? to define?

Ok! Yes! what you know-defining?

[T. nominates a student to answer the question.]

S: The thing we are talking about is not eh actually known.

T: Ok! Any other? What do we mean by defining? to define? to define?

S: To make it clear.

[2]

T: To make it clear or to make it know. To make something known is defining. So /restrictive/ (2) clause eh a restrictive clause is a clause that /explains/ (2) the exact alright idea of alright that explains the exact the exact idea of an expression. Restrictive clause is a clause that explains the exact idea of an expression. [T. writes this on the b/b.]

Alright! let me give you an example.

The car that I bought is a new model. [T. writes this on the b/b.]

Now! If I ask you which car? Which is the new model car? Yes!

[T. nominates a student.]

S: The car that I bought.

T: The car that I bought. So when I say that car that I bought, it means that I am just identifying in

particular... in particular something of that car which that I bought. eh? Therefore have I defined the car? Have I defined it?

Ss: Yes. [in chorus]

T: Yes! Whose car is it? Which car is it? It says the car that I bought. Now! which car?

S: The car that I bought.

T: Whose car is it?

S: It is mine.

T: That car that I bought is a new model - defining. [T. writes this on the b/b.]

Another example: /The teacher/ (2) whom I spoke teaches in our school. Who is the teacher?

S: [Inaudible]

T: Oh! Yes, please. eh when you answer, stand up!

Ok? and speak with loud voice. Do no speak softly.

Yes! you again.

S: Whom I spoke to

T: Alright! where does he teach?

S: He teaches in our school.

T: Is it so eh have I defined about that teacher?

Ss: Yes! [in chorus]

[3]

T: Yes! because if I say the teacher who I spoke, it means I am just describing or explaining in particular about that teacher. So you know something about that teacher. If you ask me who who is that teacher, the teacher whom I spoke. Therefore, this is a defining sentence.

Now again eh I am going to ask you to make defining and non-defining sentences-oral sentences. So please try to make the exact eh statement of these two different clauses. Second. Alright! Let me give the last example of defining clauses. [T. writes the example sentence on the b/b.]

Ok! /The police who caught the thief is my neighbour./

(2) Kibrom! Who is that police?

S: Who caught the thief

T: Alright! eh and where does he live?

S: He is my neighbour

T: Is my neighbour. Is it defining clause or non-defining clause?

S: Yes! You have already defined

T: Yes! We have defined about the policeman. Yes?

S: Yes!

T: Just I know that he is my neighbour and he also has caught the thief. Very good!

Now! Who can make sentence? In this way we make defining clause. Who can make a sentence? When you say a sentence, please speak louder. Who will speak more loudly?

Yes! [T. nominates a student.]

S: The dog that I bought barked all night.

T: Ok! Is that...the dog that he bought barked all the night. Is that a restrictive clause? Yes?

Ss: Yes!

T: Very good! Another sentence Another

OK! Yes! [T. nominates another student.]

S: The old man who was very sick.

T: What happened to him?

S: The old man who was very sick is my father

T: Again?

S: The old man who was very sick my father is my father.

T: Still you are speaking very very softly I'm sorry I just think another student who can speak more loudly. Ok!
/louder/ (2) Yes!

S: The camera-man who came in our class is my father
[laughter]

T: Oh! Oh! very beautiful sentence. The video-man that has come to our school is my father. Is he your father?
/Yes! Say it again/ (2)

S: The camera-man or the man who come in our class is my father.

T: Very good sentence. Ok! Lastly one more sentence one more sentence. Ziad! [T. nominates him.]

S: The woman who has failed in the mud was my teacher.

T: /Again!/ (2)

S: The woman who has failed in the mud ... made ... mud was

my teacher.

T: Ok! Good! One more sentence. Ok! That girl! yes! that girl.

S: The fat boy whom I spoke is my brother.

T: Again!

S: The fat boy whom I spoke is my brother.

T: The fat boy whom I spoke is my brohter.

T: Alright! Now eh let's come to non-restrictive.

Non-restrictive

Ok! First of all I would like one student to come out and write a sentence of restrictive clause on the blackboard. Yes! restrictive before we start non-restrictive. Who can write a sentence of restrictive clause? Kibrom! Yes! Any sentence.

S: [S. writes this sentence on the b/b: 'The little boy who were with my last night is my uncle's son.']

T: Wait! Is this sentence correct? [T. asks the class.]

Ss: No!

T: Is there anyone whose oppose about this sentence? Yes? Who? Ziad! Come out and correct. Wait Kibrom! You will have to wait there. Quick! Quick, please.

Oh! yes! The little boy was writing /who was with me/ (2) last night is my uncle's son.

Very good! One more sentence /another/ (2) one person

Ok! Yes! Quick! [T. nominates a student.]

Next is one girl ok?

Oh! where are you writing! you continue

[A student writes out his sentence on the b/b.]

T: You read it ok! Read loudly.

S: The girl whom I quarreled is my sister.

T: Oh! Beautiful sentence! One more sentence.

Ok! [T. asks the student to write a second sentence, and the student writes 'The baby who cries is belonged to Mr. Girma.' He reads it out.]

T: The baby who cries is belonged to Mr. Girma. Ok! one more sentence /among girls/(2). Alright, but your voice is not so loud. I think you speak softly. Yes? Could you speak loudly?

S: I will try

T: Alright! come out, you you will have to write your sentence. Quick!

[S. writes out her sentence] Oh! /please/(2) Now you read it.

S: The man /who I was last night/ (2) was her husband.

T: /Again!/ (2)

S: The man whom I was last night was her husband.

T: Is that a correct sentence?

S: Yes.

T: The man whom I was last night was her husband whom I was or what? Not whom I was eh?

S: [Inaudible]

T: Whom I whom you saw better, yes? The man whom you saw,
correct your sentence.

So ok! Thank you. Enough!

Now! who can read eh sentence - the first sentence.

When you are asked to read or answer question, why not
you raise your hand and answer?

Most of you are very dizzy and you are not just raising
your hands. As you are all student you must have your
full participation.

Ok! Now read the first sentence last boy-corner.

S: The car that I bought is a new model.

T: Again!

S: The car that I bought is a new model.

T: Ok! Again /number two/ (2)

S: The teacher whom I spoke teaches is in our school

T: /Again!// (2)

S: The teacher whom I spoke teaches is in our school

T: Ok! /Three/ (2) /yes!// (2). That girl-next to last.

S: The policeman who caught the thief is my neighbour.

T: The policeman who caught the thief is my neighbour.

Whose sentence is this one?

S: Kibrom

T: You read it again!

S: The little boy who was with me last night is my uncle's

son.

T: Whose sentence is this? How yes!

S: The girl whom I quarreled is my sister.

[4]

T: Ok! Thank you! Now! I need one student to dust blackboard.

Alright! The second non-restrictive. It is non-restrictive or non-defining. Ok! non defining. A word, phrase, or clause that does not explain exactly what it expresses /is called/ (2) non-restrictive or non-defining.

[T. writes this on the b/b as he speaks.]

Ok! example one

What is non-restrictive?

A word, phrase or clause does not explain exactly which does not sorry which that does not explain exactly what it expresses is called non-restrictive. That means it does not define clearly eh what it expresses about. It does not describe exactly about what it is talking or expressing.

[5]

Example one. The teacher, alright, the teacher who teaches English in our school is very clever. The teacher, who teaches English in our school, is /very clever/ (2).

Now! Alright! There could be a lot of English teachers as well as there are many teachers in that school. Then you could not identify in particular who that teacher is.

[6]

So this kind of sentence, what do you call it?

Restrictive or non restrictive?

S: Non-restrictive

T: Why is it non-restrictive? Why? Why?

Ok! Ziad. Why is it non-restrictive?

S: It does not describe the person whom we.

T: Whom we are talking about

S: Yes!

T: Alright! Any other additional? Yes! [T. nominates a student.]

S: It does not give emphasize who the teacher who teaches English in school

T: Yes! It doe not give emphasis to the teacher who teaches in the school or or yes! [T. nominates another student.]

S: There are many English teachers in our school which

English school is it, I don't know.

T: You don't know. Then what do you call such kind of sentences.

S: Non-restrictive.

T: What do you call then? Yes!

Ss: Non-restrictive [in chorus]

T: Very good!

[7]

Now! Let me give you another example.

Look this sentence. Abebe, /who stood first in the class,/(2) has got a scholarship.

[T. writes this example sentence on the b/b.]

Ok! could you eh know who Abebe is in particular?

There could be many Abebes as well as it does not explain which class it is. So what kind of sentence is this one?

Ss: Non-restrictive [in chorus]

T: Why? Why is it non-restrictive?

[Students keep silent.]

Don't worry about the fluency of the language you just speak out or just try to answer in anyway you can explain or you can express.

Yes! [T. nominates a student.]

S: Because it does not identify what Abebe which Abebe is scored this scholarship because there are different classes in our school and different Abebes. Abebe is I can say a common name in our country. Therefore we can't identify who Abebe is.

[8]

T: Very good. Therefore we are not talking eh exactly or precisely about Abebe. If someone asks me who is that Abebe? Well, I don't know but I know that Abebe, who stood first in class, has got the scholarship. Therefore, this kind of sentence does not describe eh Abebe, in which class he learns. Ok eh Ok? and how he

could get the scholarship it express because he stood first, isn't it? For that matter he has got the scholarship, but if you just ask /who is Abebe/ (2), it is not just defined.

Ok? Kibrom. [Kibrom raises his hand and T. gives him the opportunity to ask a question.]

S: If the sentence are identifies the class of Abebe,

T: Yes! stand up! ok!

S: If the sentence identifies the class of Abebe, could we say the sentence is restrictive just when we say Abebe who stood first in ten five has got a scholarship?

T: Alright! who can answer this question?

Abebe, who stood first in ten 5 class, has got a scholarship. This sentence could be restrictive or non-restrictive?

Ss: Restrictive [in chorus]

T: Ok! Melaw [T. nominates a student.]

S: I think it is not again it is non-restrictive because there are many ten five classes.

T: Named

S: Yes

T: Named eh named Abebe

S: Oh yes no no ten five class mean eh in different schools there are ten 5 classes. When if we clarify the school, that would be that could be. But if not it is non-restrictive.

[9]

T: Yes! If you say, what Melaw says is if you just do not describe the name of that school, it could not be restrictive. Is that what your answer says? Ok!

Any other? Abebe, who stood first in ten 5 class, has got a scholarship.

Is it restrictive or non-restrictive? Abebe, who stood first in ten 5 class, has got a scholarship.

Yes! eh Ok! yes! Is it restrictive?

S: Yes

T: Why?

S: Because in the other school there is no the number.

That means ten one, ten two. but there is ten A, ten B, ten C.

T: Oh! but I said Abebe, who stood first in ten 5 calss.

S: Yes

T: Which shcool?

S: In our school

T: I didn't say in our school. Therefore, yes!

[A student raises her hand and T. gives her the chance.]

S: But I think it is restrictive because it describe the class, his name and the one /who has/ (2) got the scholarship. Eh I think it is restrictive.

[10]

T: Eh but it doesn't describe specifically the school, and I didn't say in our school. I simply said in the class.

[11]

Ok! Anyway you could identify a sentence to be restrictive or non-restrictive specially the

modification is just separated by comma if it is just identified by commas, the modification, this is non-restrictive. Ok?

Eh Abebe, who stood first in this class, this is the modification of Abebe. Yes? [T. points at the b/b.]

So this modification just eh is identified by using commas. Yes?

Therefore, in this way such kind of modifications could not be eh could not be restrictive sentence or restrictive clause or restrictive, sentence clauses.

Ok! one last example. Eh my friend, Ok my friend, who works in the Ministry of Education, eh always /complains about his work./(2)

[T. writes this on the b/b.] What about this sentence?

Ok! My friend, who works in the Ministry of Education, always complains about his work. Alright! Yes! Always only Kibrom is raising his hand. Yes! At the back! [T. nominates another student.]

S: Non-restrictive

T: Why is it non-restrictive?

S: Because he could have so many friends who works at the Ministry of Education.

T: Yes!

S: And it has also commas.

T: It has also?

S: Commas

[12]

T: Yes, it has also the comma as well as he says who works in the Ministry of Education. He didn't explain specifically who that person is. Ok? He only says my friend, he only to say my friend who works in the

Ministry of Education. There are a lot of workers in the Ministry of Education. Therefore who is that worker? As well as what in his name? What is his job description? It is not identified.

Is that right?

Ss: Yes! [in chorus]

T: Yes! Therefore this sentence is called what? Kibru!

S: Non-restrictive

T: Non?

S: Restrictive

T: Very good!

Shall I include more sentences?

Ss: No, [in chorus]

T: Is it enough?

Ss: Yes! [in chorus]

T: Ok! Now who can make sentence in non-restrictive non-restrictive?

Ok! That girl! Yes! If you would like to come out and write on the blackboard, you are welcome...

Yes! [A student writes this on the b/b: 'The policeman, who was hit by the car, died.']

T: Till then you just jot down sentences...

[Inaudible] Any sentence that you will have to write on the blackboard. Alright! You read it.

S: The policeman, who was hit by the car, died.

[The student reads out her sentence and wants to go to her seat.]

T: /Wait!/(2) no no wait, please

Just again.

S: The policeman, who was hit by the car, died.

T: Ok! Is the wait! Is her sentence correct or wrong? Yes?

S: Wrong

T: Wrong. What is her mistake?

S: She must be put was before died

T: Ok! who can go and correct it?

[A student comes out to the b/b and corrects the sentence.]

T: The policeman who was hit by the car was died. Is he right? Yes?

Eh simply she said the policeman who was hit by the car died. You can say that was died or simply has died or died as it is you can say that.

Ok! /one last sentence/ (2)

Yes! yes!

[A student goes to the b/b and writes: 'He who will disturb the class shall receive slap on the face' said he.]

T: You read it! ok?

S: 'He who will disturb the class shall receive slap on the face' said he.

T: You are just talking about direct speech, eh? Ok. It is enough.

Thank you a lot on behalf of the guests for your full participation.

[End of Recording]

Appendix 1-C

TEACHER 3

[Teacher starts the lesson by simply writing on the blackboard. He writes the following:]

Relative Clauses

They are classified into two main parts.

(1) Restrictive (defining) clause

1. A student who respects his teachers is gentle.
2. This boy whose sister Amaha married is gentle.
3. The words he spoke killed me.

(2) Non-restrictive (non-defining)

1. Boset, who stood 1st from the last is my yonger brother
2. Our monitor, who taken attendance, didn't come.
3. My wedding ring, which I bought for a hundred birr, has lost.

T: Ok! Boys and girls eh as I have told you at the beginning, we have to start the topic from the beginning eh because it will be unwise to cut it from the middle. So, let us discuss what relative clauses means eh I have written three examples under each variety eh.

[1]

Number one restrictive means defining so under this defining or restrictive, let us examine or analyse there three examples.

Number one says a student who respects his teachers is gentle. This boy whose sister Amaha married is frail.

The words he spoke killed me. Now, these three examples

will will tell us what this restrictive or defining clause means. (T. points to the b/b.) Beginning from these examples, we would come to some rules or some points where there two clauses are similar or different.

[2]

On the other side is the non-restrictive which means non-defining.

Compare this. Boset, who stood first from the last is my younger brother. Our monitor, who takes attendance, didn't come. My wedding ring which I bought for a hundred birr has lost. Now! let us examine these three examples. And let us see what relative or what I mean what restrictive clause and what non-restrictive clause means, because to start with examples is a more wise than starting with rules or theoretical eh points. We can deduct or we can draw some points with these two or where there two differ or are similar.

[3]

So eh ok! Restrictive as the word indicates limits or clarifies or points out the item being discussed-means at the first utterance of the speaker the learner or the audience must be able to understand what he means. So, a student who respects his teachers is gentle. Now! the relative clause around here 'who respects his teachers' [T. underlines it] and the sentence 'A student is gentle' when somebody says a student is gentle, well! The reader or the learner would ask, which student is gentle? There are many students here or there over the world. So, in order to avoid this eh misunderstanding or ambiguity, who respects his teachers in this particularly it can be a general but all. A student who respects his teachers is gentle. So, this relative clause here modifies what? the subject a student. So now it is a relative clause. I mean a restrictive or a

defining clause defining its subject to its possible point.

[4]

Whereas when we compare this sentence with 'Boset , who stood first from the last, is my younger brother. [T. underlines the non-restrictive clause]. Here, you do have the non-restrictive clause. Boset is my younger brother. Well! The sentence is clear. Without this restrictive clause or non defining part of the sentence, no one would raise any question. eh Who is your younger brother or who is Boset? Just the speaker may clear himself about what he is talking. So, now! This part is a mere inclusion or a mere inclusion of additional information. Of course, it may help us to know something about Boset. On the way these restrictive clauses eh magnify Boset's behaviour, colour or whatever appearance. But, that is not the most important part to tell us who Boset is or about whom we are talking.

So, when we compare these two sentences at least now we can come to the point what restrictive or defining clause means. On the other hand what non-restrictive or non-defining clause means. Then now we can come to some rules or some theoretical points, rules, regulations and then come to the points. First you go directly or direct to the language. Just make sentence. Then that sentence about that sentence then you eh take certain points or sentence means. This I mean the sentence this and that so forth. So, eh here we do have this two sentence. And before we come to the other points, if there is anyone who wants to say about these two, example one of this one and example one of this one. [T. points to the examples on the b/b.] I don't mean the others are different from these, but just to eh look at

the example step by step. So, if anyone student wants - who wants to comment or say something about these two, eh first examples from both sides, he or she is welcome. ...Somebody who wants to say something. [students keep silent.]

[5]

T: Lets have further - further more. Here for example 'This boy whose sister Ameha married is frail'. Now again the relative clause 'Ameha married', and then 'This boy is frail'. Again this restrictive part, if this part is removed from this sentence, again the sentence itself will remain frail conveying nothing or just confusing the hearer or the learner. So that in restrictive part always the modification must be the essential part, most important part that enumerate the subject itself. So, this whose here modifies this subject, because it is possessive but in all it is again restrictive.

[6]

So let's compare again this part with here. Our monitor, who takes attendance, didn't come today. let's add some more..., today [T. adds the word 'today' to the sentence.] This part is the restrictive part, in the non-restrictive, no! who taken attendance ... somewhere here [T. underlines 'who takes attendance didn't come and rubs the line under 'didn't come'.] Our monitor didn't come today. Suppose a speaker that's some speaker from this class, when somebody outside, the boss, director or the unit leader comes "where is your monitor? Well our monitor didn't come today. You don't need to add who taken attendance or who nugs us or who punishes us. All the other informations about him eh won't help in making the sentence clear or in making the director understand what you mean. The moment you say our monitor didn't come today, that part will suffice to convey your ideas clearly to the hearer, but as I have said earlier 'who takes attendance' is additional information and tells us what the duty of that particular monitor is. So, when we omit or take out this point of the sentence, again the sentence remains clear to the hearer or to the learner or to the reader.

So, when we compare these two examples, at least eh. I

hope you might have a clear idea what restrictive or defining clause versus what a non-restrictive or non-defining clause means. Then the rest are all the same.

[7]

The only difference is just to show you the different relative clauses. Here, who somewhere here whose - possessive, somewhere the words the... Sorry boys and girls that here that, herealso who. Here my wed my wedding ring which and so on. [T. Underlines the relative pronouns.] Just right the examples are needed to show you some elongated relative clauses. Even some are left out, may be whom you can use it whenever you can use who. Boset that was give. Our moritor whom ... not possible just we can have another sentence with whom. That is not a problem.

So now, from this point of view and from this point of view, let as come to a point, [T. points to the two sets on the b/b.] How do define relative eh restrictive clause and non-restrictive clause? What difference do they have? What similarities do they have? Now let as have eh distinctions between them. [T. writes 'distinctions between them' on the b/b] let's have distinction between them. Here we can have non-defining, defining clause or just defining clause there and here non-defining clauses. [T. writer these heading on the b/b.] You want to say something? So you are welcome Yes! [T. nominates a student.]

S: Defining clauses are a part of sentences that that given imp...important information about the sentence.

[8]

T: Ok! So we can say just to put some more points, eh here defining clause is an essential part, an essential part of the sentence. [T. writer this point on the b/b.] Do you agree? or do you oppose this eh point? Just we are coming to get the distinctions or the differences between these two points. So, that little boy has suggested that defining clause is an essential part of the sentence.

Any objection to this idea? or any amendment? From these examples, we are not, don't need any science or we don't need any philosophy. Just from the points here, we can come to a conclusion. We don't need any philosophisation but just from the point.

[9]

Now, this point most probably is here, it might have come from this. If we remove or omit this part, then the sentence will be, I mean not clear. /So that/ (2) he suggested defining clause is the essential part of the sentence. One point. Any something to say? Yes! [T.nominates student.]

S: Another point is in the defining or restrictive clause, no comma is needed to separate the clause.

T: Ok!

S: But, in the non-defining, we need a comma.

[10]

T: Just let us take. [T.writer the point on the b/b.] /No commas are needed, no commas are needed/ (2) because from the sentence itself, it is quite true we don't use any comma anywhere. So, no commas are needed. So, this can be one basic point. No commas are needed under /defining/ (2) clause or we can say the defining clause is /not enclosed/ (2) just to make it, not enclosed between commas [T. writer it on the b/b.] Not enclosed between commas.

Good! somebody still to eh say something, you are free.

Eh is the essential part of the sentence. Somebody might have an idea where I didn't see or these two boys didn't see. So, just come, participate, say something. Object or amend or give some other point, because now we are forming rules. We are going to set a rule between restrictive and non-restrictive clause, because those are just examples. These points will be our guidelines later on to write out all sentence or to at least to know about this two points. These examples are examples only but just these will be our guidelines. So, some other points?

[11]

Now, let us come here Ok! one is an essential part of the sentence. What can we put here?

Yes! [T. nominates a student.]

S: It given an additional information to the sentence.

T: It gives let us say it gives an additional information. Ok! /is merely an additional information./ (2) [T. writer this point on the b/b.] meaning this defining clause is the restrictive clause is an essential part and we can't omit it. But here is merely an additional information or an additional inclusion, is merely an additional inclusion. Just it is included.

Any objection or amendments on these points? Somebody who wants to say something? Yes! [T. nominates a student.]

S: The suggestion is correct because when we see the example in the non-restrictive or non-defining clause example one, eh Boset, who stood first from the last, is my younger brother. If we omit the non-restrictive

clause, who stood first from the last, the sentence skill have a clear meaning. If we ask a question who is my brother or who is my younger brother, eh a listen can answer, 'He is Boset'. So, it is correct.

T: Thank you so, we can take this as right. Will help us what non-defining clause is.

Some more! We'll continue on both sides whenever you can see. So far we have formulated two points here, one point here. [T. points to the b/b.]

So. Yes? [T. nominates a student.]

S: It is enclosed between commas.

T: I beg your pardon.

S: It is enclosed between commas.

[12]

T: Good. Right! As we can see is enclosed between commas. [T. writes this point on the b/b.] Any objection concerning this one? Anyone who objects? Is enclosed between commas or put between commas. Is enclosed-may be this word is not clear for you. Is put between commas, put within commas. Put just enclosed means put. Just like that. As eh put, you can see here. Here you have comma, open comma and you close the comma here. [T. shows this on the b/b.] So, just that part is enclosed between commas.

Ok! someother points? Yes! [T.nominates a student.]

S: [Inaudible]

T: This one is merely additional information or inclusion.

S: It must be it is unnecessary additional information. Unnecessary the word merely must be changed by unnecessary additional information.

[13]

T: Ok! Here eh suggestion or amendment. Instead of the word merely, it is an unessential means eh here an unessential part. You want the word unessential essential. Well, that is eh ok, no matter, we are about to eh language. English language is rich, you can use so many words.

So, Ok! I can accept that as ins instead of the word merely is an unessential addition. Well! so let's the first be. I do accept. you are right. But, makes no difference. So just because of this canceling, rubbing and so on. Is merely an additional information or is merely an inclusion of information. That way it won't have a problem. Anyway, it is true. He tried to amended the wording or eh sentence changes.

Some more please. Some other points? /We may need some other points./ (2) So, please [students remain silent.]

T: I know so many tough girls in this ... boys and girls in this class but today?

T: Some more points. I do have some more or two or three points eh yet not mentioned. Is as enential part of sentence; no commas are needed; what else here. Three. Just you look at the examples, analyse here. What points do we need to to identify these two clauses. What else.[Students remain silent.]

[14]

For example here, ok! the restrictive clause cannot be omitted. One suggestion can't be omitted. We cannot omit it. can't be omitted. If you omit that part, meaning if you omit who respects his teachers, a student is gentle, that it will remin not clear. So that we cannot omit the restrictive clause in the restrictive sentence.

[15]

If we said that there, [T. points to the restrictive part] then what can we say here? What can we say here?

- S: Can be omitted.
 T: Can be omitted.
 S: Can be omitted.
 T: Can be omitted. [T. writes this on the b/b.]
 Ok, Further explanation. can be omitted. why?
 Why do we omit it?

That is the most important point. What would follow if we omit this? Yea! Yea someone who did not have the chance there. Are you ready?

- S: No!
 T: Ok! [Inaudible]
 S: The sentence will be meaningless.
 T: The sentence will remain meaningless.
 Ok! additional information? Ok! [T. nominales another student.]
 S: The sentence is meaningful but it is not clear. Who or eh about who or about which is talking about.

[16]

- T: Yea. Something good indeed. /What he said is/ (2) the sentence can be sentence, but it will remain vague-not clear. That is correct. His is the best. When we say 'a student is gentle', grammatically correct sentence. But the problem is, it is vague about /who is that student?/ (2) So the sentence may remain a sentence, but the idea that the speaker wants to convey becomes blur - not clear. So that way I think its better. But also what he said is good.

Ok! and here, why not it can be omitted? Why? Just reason, reason out. We see ... somebody? That boy ... you got the chance. Excuse me sir. This girl didn't get the chance.

S: [Inaudible]

T: I beg your pardon?

S: It is only additonal for additonal information.

[17]

T: Yea - What she said is, because it is eh merely additonal information. If we miss that information, we can understand what the speaker means - so that we can omit it.

Eh Another! Number four, here what do we add? One more Somebody. Ok! [T. nominates a student.]

S: It is connected by relative clauses such as who...

T: I beg your pardon?

S: It is connected by relative pronouns such as who, whom, that

[18]

T: Good. Let me put it in in another way. All relative clauses I mean all relative all relatives are used. Very good! All relative are used - who, whom, whose, which, that just to enumerate, who/whom/whose/that. [T. writes these on the b/b.] It is a beautiful point. All relatives, we can use all relatives there. [T. points to the defining clauses.] All relatives are included.

And here? [T. points to the non-defining clauses.] What do we say? What do we say here? Just it will be our last point. [Students remain silent.]

[19]

T: Now! Ok! All rela all these relatives except /all except that/, (3).

So these things can tell us or hint us what restrictive clause and what non-restrictive clause means. So here

after, I hope any student eh be ready to construct his own sentence and understand sentence of that type in every way-spoken or written language.

So just we wind up here today's lesson.

[End of Recording]

Appendix 1-D

TEACHER 4

T: Page two hundred and eighty-one Adjective clauses.
[T.writes 'ADJECTIVE CLAUSES' on the b/b and underlines it.] Adjective clauses. Now! We already know what an adjective is, yes? /What is an adjective?/(2) Yes!
Bethel

[T. nominates Bethel.]

S: To describe nouns

[1]

T: Yea! An adjective is a noun which describes a noun eh eh a word which describes a noun or another word. Ok! Alright! [T. nominates another student.]

S: Modify noun or pronoun

T: An adjective is a noun which modifies a noun and another word.

Kasshun!

S: Adjective is a word which used to modify pronoun or other words like noun.

T: Yea! Alright! Now! Good! Now!

Let's define again what a clause is.

What is a clause? What is a clause? Kassahun!

S: A group of words with a subject and verb.

[2]

T: Very good! So, a clause is group of eh eh a word eh a group of words in a sentence with a subject and a verb, but it is not eh it does not have as equal eh an equal status with a sentence actually. It is eh part of sentence which depends for its meaning to the main clause eh to its meaning. So, a clause is eh that part of a sentence with a subject and a verb.

T: Now! what is an adjective clause then?

What is an adjective clause? [Students keep silent.]

So, we've defined what an adjective is and we have defined what a clause is. What is an adj... what do you think an adjective clause is? So, I think it should be very very easy for you to guess what eh an adjective eh clause would be.

Yea! [T. nominates a student.]

S: A word or eh a word eh which have subject which have which have subjects and eh which eh which have subjects which used for modify.

[3]

T: If cannot be a word. It can - Kassahun - it can only be a clause. An adjective clause is rather a clause that eh /that has a function of an adjective itself!/ (2).

For instance, let's see. Let us eh eh let me give you eh an example. [T. writes on the b/b: 'The man whom you saw yesterday is my uncle.']

Don't write! /Don't write anything!/ (2). Just attend.

[4]

Now! The man whom you saw yesterday is my uncle. This is a sentence. Now! eh where eh we have an adjective clause. Where do you think? Where eh which one do you think is eh... which one is the subject of the sentence for example eh in the first place? Which one is the subject of this sentence?

Yes! Dinkneh. [T. nominates Dinkneh.]

S: The man

T: The man is the subject of the sentence

Which one is the verb-the main verb of this eh sentence?

- Yes, Tsion!
- S: Saw
- T: The the man eh! [T. nominates another student.]
- S: Whom
- T: eh?
- S: Whom
- T: No!
- Yes! [T. nominates another student.]
- S: Is
- T: Is. Yes! This is known the man is my uncle. Now... This you can-can't you, /Don't you think that you have two sentences in this sentence itself?/ (2) in this eh sentence in this whole sentence itself?

[Ss remain silent]

[5]

So let's make this - /The man is my uncle./ (2) Alright! The man is my uncle. The man is my uncle. This is the main sentence. It is what we call the main sentence. The man is my uncle. Now! in Amharic, if you if if somebody tells you /*səwiyəw agote nəw*/ [tr. The man is my uncle.] what won't you eh want to ask that fellow something? Eh? /*səwiyəw agote nəw*/ if somebody tell you, won't you want to ask something about eh that eh eh about that sentence? /*and nəgəf yəmititəyikut nəgəf wəyīnīm mətītə and səw 'səwiyəw mətə'ko' biləfuh*/ [tr. If someone comes and tells you 'the man has died'] eh don't you want to ask something?

- Ss: Yes! [in choruns]
- T: /*mīn* / [tr. what?] what?
- T: Eh? [T. nominates a student by pointing at him.]
- S: Who is the person?
- T: Who is the person? Which man? Very good!

[6]

So! The man is my uncle. Which man? The man who you saw yesterday. So, this is called the adjective clause-whom you saw yesterday. The man who you saw yesterday is my uncle. The man is my uncle. Which man? The man whom you saw yesterday is my uncle. /*tinənt yəyəhəw səwiye agote nəw aydələm*/ clear! [tr. The man whom you saw yesterday is my uncle, isn't he?]

S: Yes!

T: This is called adjective clause. [T. underlined it.]

Now! Adjective clause is connected, there are connectors, we have already know known or discussed the pronouns.

Ss: Yes! [in chorus]

T: The pronouns are the connectors are which one is eh eh which one is eh the connector? Which one is the word which connected this two eh sentences? For instance or which one is the ... eh? [T. nominates a student.]

S: Whom

[7]

T: Whom! This is called relative what? relative pronoun. This is the one which con eh connects this two sentences. The man whom you saw yesterday is my uncle.

Let me give you an another example. Forget about this.

[T. rubs this out from the b/b: 'The man is my uncle.']

Similar example.

I remember that day I'm sorry [T. rubs out 'that' and 'day' from the b/b.]

/I remember the day/(4) /that I first met her/ (2) [T. says and writes this simultaneously.]

So this is again ... /can you/(3) show us eh which one is eh again the relative pronoun and which one is the eh adjective clause and which one is the main eh clause?

Can you show me? Who will show me? Who will tell me?
 Same thing as eh the eh the previous sentence. [students
 remain silent.]

So, I remember the day ... if somebody tells you I
 remember the day, won't you ask ask the fellow
 something? You will ask I'm sure you will ask him eh
 about the day. You will simply ask the fellow who
 said this, /'which day are you talking about?'/ (2)

[8]

The day that day I first met her. /This is the adjective
 clause./ (2) So this is that is eh eh eh the connector
 and relative pronoun. It relates the two sentences
 together.

So now write! Adjective clauses.

Write down! Adjective clauses. [T. wants to dictate some
 notes to the students but couldn't because of rain]
 [pause]

Ok! probably may be we take some more some more before
 we write what an adjective clause is. Probably we take
 some more eh some more eh sentences like this. For
 instance, let's say eh eh let's take another.

/Her father/ (3) who went to London ... Ok! her father
 who went to London has just come back. [T. says and
 writes this at the same time.]

Now! eh Do you see eh the third sentence here?

What is, eh what do you think is the difference between

'The man whom you saw yesterday is my uncle' and eh 'Her father who went to London has just come back'? What what do you think is is eh Do you see any difference between this two? of course this is /which one/ (2) is the relative adjective here?

Ss: Who went to London. [in chorus]

[T. underlines it.]

T: Eh! Do you see any difference between the first sentence eh and the third sentence? Or the second sentence and the third sentence? Do you see anything?

[9]

Here we said the man is my uncle. You will automatically eh eh eh you will automatically raise a question - which man are you talking about? And I remember the day - which day are you talking about? You will automatically raise a question.

Now! How about the case of the first sentence? The third sentence, I am sorry. The third sentence. Yea!

[T. nominates a student.]

S: The first is without comma.

[10]

T: The first is without comma and the third is with comma. Good! eh but eh don't you see /any other/ (2) eh difference between the two sentences? Apart from commas of course! comma is one difference, Ok! meaning, as far as meaning is concerned, as far as clarity is concerned - what do you see?

Kassahun! [T. nominates him.]

S: Her father who wants to know the meaning, which girls? Which girls? The father is whom this father, we don't

know. And also that one is restrictive and that one is non-restrictive as we see from the comma.

T: Well! That I think you you already know from your last eh which unit was it? Unit 6 or 7 you already know about restrictive, but unit 6 eh Alright! but as far as meaning is concerned as far as clarity is concerned eh what is the difference? [Students keep silent.]

[11]

Now! I told you here, /if somebody/ (2) this, if somebody tells you this, you will automatically ask, 'which man are you talking about?' and the second sentence, 'which day are you talking about?' but can you raise a question like this here? ... Her father, who went to London, has just eh come back or for instance, /my/ (3) father /who is a teacher/ (2) is sick. [T. writes this example sentence on the b/b.] /My father is sick *biyə bîlafuh* / (2) *yətiŋaw abatih tîləŋaləh səwiyəw mətwal biyə bîlafuh gin yətiŋaw səwiye tîluŋalafuh ayidələm*/ [tr. If I say my father is sick, will you ask me who is your father? But, If I say the man has died, you will ask me who is that man, isn't it?]

Ss: /awo/ [tr. yes] [in chorus]

T: Exactly! so, her father / *wəyinim* / [tr. or] /my father/(2) who is a teacher is sick /*biyə bîlafuh* / [tr. if I say,] which father / *atîluŋim* / [tr. you won't say this!] /you don't/ ask me which father because I have only one father. Don't you think so?

Ss: Yes! [in chorus]

[12]

T: Everybody has only one father. /This is/(2) adjective clause, but different from this one. This one is adjective clause, this one is also adjective clause, this one is also adjective clause, but his one is... this one is also adjective clause, but they are different, [T. points to the sentences on the b/b as he says all these.] This one in which you can ask questions which one, what person, what thing is called a defining or defining clause or relative clause. You understand now?

Ss: -Yes! [in chorus.]

T: Yea! Defining [T. writes on the b/b: Defining (Restrictive) clause] so, /any clause/(2) similar as similar to eh sentence or the second sentence in which

you can in which some somebody can raise questions like which one, what person is called a defining or restrictive clause. The second one in which you cannot raise any question, you cannot ask me which father. My father who is a teacher is sick /*bíyə bílɔ́fuh* / [tr. if I say,] you cannot ask me which father, because I have only one father. Therefore such a clause is called non-defining or restrictive clause [T. writes on the b/b: Non-defining (Restrictive) clause, but corrects himself immediately.]

Non-restrictive. I'm sorry! Non is it clear?

Yea! Non-restrictive clause. Is it clear?

Ss: Yes! [in chorus]

T: Ok! Now! write down!

Ok! /we can/ (3) write some definitons about adjective clause, defining clause or restrictive clause and non-restrictive clause, but but now just write write these sentences as ex as examples under defining and restrictive clause and this ones under non-defining and non-restrictive. [T. tells students to copy the first two examples under restrictive and the last two examples under non-restrictive clauses.]

T: Ok! go on now! write down!.../*gíls nəw ayídələm yətíqaw ləyətíqaw ʔindəmitisífu*/ [tr. It is clear, isn't it? which one you are going to write for which?]

I can give you some more examples. [T. writes on the b/b some more example sentences under each variety and students copy down after him.]

[Long pause]

[13]

Well! The difference the main difference /between/ (2) a

defining clause and non-defining clause is not only that the non-defining clause is bounded by commas but it also eh eh far as meaning is concerned eh this is only an additional information about eh the antecedent.

[14]

The antecedent is as you see as you can see the the the noun which is represented by the whole clause here, restrictive or non-restrictive. That is the antecedent.

[15]

So, any information not necessarily vital about the antecedent is called a non-defining clause. But any information given by an adjective clause given by about the antecedent to avoid confusion and the like is called a defining or restrictive clause. [T. gives

students time to copy down examples from the b/b.]

[Pause]

T: Ok! Are you ready? [T. dictates them.]

Ss: Yes! [in chorus]

T: Yes! write now. Let's eh now let's take some some definition or make some definitions about each of there terms. Adjective clauses now An adjective clause is write!

[16]

An adjective clause is well! This eh could have been taken earlier but eh could have been taken earlier but eh no problem.

An adjective clause is a clause which can take the place of an adjective... in a sentence. Adjective clauses ... answer the question. Which person, ... slash things which person or thing or what person or thing. Yes?

[17]

The adjectives may be introduced...introduced spelling i-n-t-r-o-d-u-c-e-d. The adjectives may be introduced by relative pronouns..., that the relative pronoun that t-h-a-t you know all the relative pronouns. Yes? that, who w-h-o, whose, whom or which ...or relative adverbs...where and when and why.

[18]

For this reason..., adjective clauses... are also called relative clauses.

Now! eh so something about these /relative clauses/ (2).

Now! /on page/ (2) /two hundred and eighty one/ (2).
 You have all the relative clauses, eh /the relative
 pronouns/ (2) used used eh eh as well nominative,
 accusative and possessive, eh so this deta details we
 shall go on eh. eh with /this details/ (2) tomorrow.

T: But, now, today I Want to ask you one question.

Now! /what do you think/ (2) eh if a what do you think
 will happen or what would eh be the change in meaning if
 I write, 'my sister, who lives in Awassa, is married'?

[19]

Now! This is bounded by a comma. We said that this is
 this clause is non-defining because it is not eh this
 does not help eh what my sister is. It is only an
 additonal information about my sister.

[20]

But eh we say that eh this clauses can be written
 without, sometimes without...in this case [T. points to
 the b/b on which examples for defining clauses are
 written.] of course when /they are/ (2) defining. My
 sister who lives in Awassa is married.

Now! /Do you think/ (2) this is possible? What do you
 what you account for this? Is there anything /you can/
 (2) guess eh is this possible?

Ss: /awo/ [tr. Yes] [in chorus]

[21]

Non-defining /?ina/ [tr. and] defining / *mfn ?indəhɔnə
 bəkoma*/ [tr. What it is , by a comma] bind /?indəmihɔnu
 yih tətʃəmari/ [tr. as they become, this additional]
 information / *?indʒi ohun* / [tr. but now] William
 Shakespeare, who had a bold head, was a great poet and

dramatist /*bibal* / [tr. if said] which William Shakespeare / *bilo yəmitəyik*/ [tr. asks] stupid /*tiyake linɔr ayiɸɸlɪm*/ [tr. there won't be] my sister / *kətəbalə gɪn* / [tr. if said] ...

Now! what do you account of this, the account for this?

Do you see any anything here? [students remain silent.]

T: No? Yes, Mitin. [T. nominates Mitin.]

S: [inaudible]

T: Which sister? eh?

S: /*sɔst arət ʔihitɔf kaluwat*/ [tr.if she has three or four sisters.]

[22]

T: /Very good!/(2)

In this case, my sister who lives in Awasa.

In this case, we simply mean here it is only one sister. [T. points to the example with comma.] It is known, but if you say my sister like this, [T. points to the example without commas] /*lik ʔindəzih kətəbalə*/ [tr. if said like this], it simply means you have more than one sister and this is possible. /*aydələm ʔinde*/ [tr. isn't it?]

Ss: Yes! [in chorus]

T: It is possible! so it is this is in such cases this two possibilities there /*ləmələt nəw*/ [tr. it means]

Do you have any questions before we ...?

Yes Kassahun! [T. nominates Kassahun.]

S: [Inaudible] the difference between the two sentences?

[23]

T: There is a difference!

In this case you simply mean that /it is understood that/ (2) /this fellow/ (2) the one who says this may have more than one sister. But, sometimes if you say /my father,/ (2) who is a teacher, if you leave that without a comma, it is not possible, because you cannot have more than one father, but /you can/ (2) have more than eh one sister. This is possible! /*aydələm ʔinde*/

[tr. isn't it?]

Ok! Thank you! Good bye!

[End of recording]

APPENDIX 1-E

TEACHER 5

English (on page 281)

Adjective Clauses

Restrictive and non-Restrictive Clauses

[T. writes these on the blackboard.]

T: What is the meaning of an adjective? Can you answer for me please? Raise your hand and tell me the answer. What is adjective before we are going to discuss in detail?

S: Adjective is a word that adds to the meaning of noun.

T: Adjectives that...

Ss: modifies a noun.

[1]

T: Modifies a noun. [T. writes this on the b/b.]
In short adjective modifies a noun.
Can you tell me an example? Can you tell me an example how does it modify a noun in a sentence? Yes! [T. nominates a student.]

S: He had a red pen.

[2]

T: He had a red pen. [T. writes this on the b/b.]
This is a sentence and there is an adjective. Which one is an adjective in this sentence? Ok! [T. nominates another student.]

S: red.

T: Yes?

S: red. [T. underlines it and writes 'adjective' below it.]

T: And why did you say red is an adjective? You should have a reason, and you said red is an adjective and you are alright. It is correct. Why?

S: Red is modify pen.

[3]

T: Yes! It modifies the noun pen. Red! It is an adjective because it modifies the noun pen. [T. writes this on the b/b.]

So, about adjective it is enough for us. Before I am going to discuss what is restrictive and non-restrictive, I need to deal with adjective. Then I am going to eh see what is restrictive clause and non-restrictive clause. Can you tell me what is the meaning of restrictive? What do we mean when we say restrictive - the word itself? [T. writes 'restrictive' on the b/b.]

S: Infinitive.

T: I don't think eh the meaning of restrictive is not infinitive. [T. nominates another student.]

S: Restrictive take an object.

T: Yes!

S: Take an object.

T: Take an object - restrictive take an object.

[T. nominates another student.]

S: modifies a sentence.

T: modifies a sentence. /How?/(3)

S: The sentence is defining.

T: Yes!

S: Defined.

T: Say it again! stand up!

S: The sentence is defined.

[4]

T: The sentence is defined. It is restrictive means when we say restrictive eh tending to restrict or (limiting) very important. [T. writes this on the b/b.] Restrictive means tending to restrict or limiting /*ondin nāgər məwəsən maləj nəw*/[tr: It means limiting something] Restrict means /to limit the point/(2) How?

[5]

It is using that. Restrictive uses that that for defining [T.writes on the b/b: Restrictive (that) - defining.] Restrictive uses that for defining.

For example look that eh as you are looking in your book on page two hundred eh eighty one. Tolla scored the goal. Look at this sentence. Let us see first in eh one sentence. Example: Tolla scored a goal [T.writes this example sentence on the b/b] Look at this sentence. Tolla scored a goal. Is it restricted? [Inaudible] Tolla scored a goal.

S: Not restricted.

T: It is not restricted. Why? Really it is not - restricted. Why? Yes! [T. nominates a student.]

S: Because it is not defined.

[6]

T: Because it is not defined. This is not /it is not restricted/(2) because it is not defined. [T. writes these on the b/b.]

But, look at this sentence again.

Tolla scored a goal. Tolla scored a goal or the goal I said that brought us to victory. [T. writes this sentence on the b/b.] Tolla scored a goal which brought us to victory.

Is it non - restrictive or restrictive? Raise your hand and tell me the answer. Yes! [T. nominates a student.]

S: Restrictive.

T: It is restrictive. It's alright! Can you tell me the reason why he said restrictive? or do you have your own reason?

S: Because it is restrictive.

T: It is restrictive. Why?

S: Because it is restrictive.

T: Because,

S: It is restrictive - defining.

[7]

T: It is defined. Yes? Tolla scored a goal, which goal? This is the big question when you are identifying the difference between restrictive and non-restrictive. The big question, which goal? Tolla scored a goal. It is not restrictive. It is not restricted because it is not defined. But, in this case, Tolla scored the goal.

/Which goal?/(2) Yes! [T. nominates a student.]

S: The goal that brought to victory.

[8]

T: That the goal that brought us to victory./ It is restrictive because it is defined./ (2). [T. writes this on the b/b.] It is defined. If I am going to ask a question, Tolla scored a goal /which goal?/(2). It is defined. This goal is defined different from another goals. By what?

Ss: by brought us to victory.

T: Yes! [T. nominates a student.]

S: It brought us to victory.

[9]

T: Yes. It brought us to victory. It is defined from another goals. It is different from another goals. So, I think what is restrictive you have understood.

And eh in the second phase eh eh eh look at /non-restrictive,/(2). Who non-defined. Non-restrictive. This one is the first one and the second one is eh non-restrictive (who) non-defining [T.writes this on the b/b as well as the example sentence.] Two non-restrictive (who) - non - defining and an example, my brother, who is very fat, says that there will be a good crop this year. Look at this sentence. Now! we are eh discussing about the non-restrictive non-defining. eh we have seen the first one restrictive - that - defining. You can say the first one is opposite to the second one and the second one is opposite to ..

Ss: The first one [in chorus]

T: The first one. Here is an example. My brother who is very fat, says that there will be a good crop this year. We have all agreed that this is /non-restrictive/(2). Why? /Can you tell me the reason?/(2) Why it is non-restrictive? Can you tell me the reason? It is stated in the book itself. It is given as an example to non-restrictive. Why do we say that it is non-restrictive? Yes! [T. nominates a students.]

S: It take who

T: Yes!

S: It take who

[10]

T: Is that the only reason you see there?
Actually you are right, but eh!

[T. nominates another student.]

S: Because it is not limited.

T: It is not limited. Our big point is that to differentiate non-restrictive and restrictive is that limiting point. Here, /my brother, who is very fat/(2). Is it identified from the other? It is not identified or it is not limited because it is not limited because because there can be mary brother who are fat. [T. writes this on the b/b.] Yes!

[End of Recording]

Appendix 1-F

TEACHER 6

T: Unit 16

Defining and non-defining clauses

[T. writes this on the b/b.]

[1]

T: /Defining and non-defining clauses/ (2). This topic has another name. It is called restrictive and non-restrictive clauses. Restrictive clauses is the same as to say defining clauses and non-restrictive clauses is the same as to say non-defining clauses.

[2]

The first point that we get from this topic is that most relative clauses are defining clauses and some relative clauses are non-defining clauses.

[3]

As you know, /a relative clause,/ (2) begins with relative pronouns like who, which, etcetera. [T. writes these notes on the b/b]

[4]

Now! let's define the topic itself. First, the defining relative clauses [T. writes on the b/b: "A Defining relative clauses"] As the name indicates here, a defining' clause defines the main clause. It defines the main clause. [T. writes this on the b/b.] That is to say, it adds meaning to the main clause. That is to say the defining relative clause is necessary to understand the meaning of the main clause... Let me give you an example. [T. writes the sentence on the b/b.] In the sentence which says "The boy who came from Harar won the game," the defining relative clause is who came from Harar. [T. underlines it.] This re this defining relative clause defines the main clause. It defines the boy. It gives meaning. It gives complete meaning or full meaning to the entire sentence.

[5]

We cannot omit, we cannot omit the defining clause. If we omit it, the entire sentence will be meaningless. The boy who came from Harar won the game. - Now, the boy is well identified. It is well known. We are talking about the boy. only who came from Harar, not the boy who came from Tigray or the boy who came from Illubabor. Now, the boy is well identified. This defining relative clause has given full meaning to the main clause.

[6]

Another point is that the defining relative clause has its own identification [T. writes this point on the b/b]

and that identification is there is no pause or comma. That is to say a comma is not needed before and after the defining relative clause. [T.writes this point on the b/b.]

[7]

Another point - The relative pronouns who and which are used. - We are who with people and which with what?

Ss: with things [in chorus]

T: with things

[8]

We can use the relative pronoun that instead of who or which. That is to say the relative pronoun that is used with people and also with things. [T. writes these notes on the b/b.]

If this is clear for you, let me go to the second part.

The second part is /the non-defining/ (2) clause relative clause [T. writes on the b/b: B- Non-defining relative clause".]

[9]

As you simply understand from the given topic itself, a non-defining relative clause is that type of clause which does not define the main clause. [T. writes this point on the b/b.] We can even omit it out. We can even leave it out.... It is only there. The non-defining relative clause is there only to give some information and that piece of information is not that much useful. We can leave it out. Even if we leave it out, we get a sentence which means something. Therefore, it is not that much important.

[10]

Just like the defining relative clauses, the non-defining relative clauses has its own identification. It has its own identification. [T. writes this on the b/b.] That is to say there is comma before and after the non-defining relative clause. Just simply by looking at the given sentence, you can identify or you can tell whether that sentence is or whether that clause is a non-defining relative clause or not. There is a comma before and after the non-defining relative clause.

[11]

We cannot use or we don't use the relative pronoun which is called that. That is to say the relative pronoun that is not used in a non-defining relative clauses. We use the relative pronouns who, which, whose etcetera but

we don't use the relative pronoun that in non-defining relative clauses.

Well! The blackboard is not enough. Please, eh write this /very quickly/(2). [T. writes the first exercise on the b/b and students copy it down.] [very long pause.]

And let's do the first exercise-exercise A, and the instruction says identify the relative clause. You are asked only to identify the clause. Number 1 The girl who sells bananas is Abebe's sister. Who can identify, who can tell us the clause? Well! whenever you answer a question, please stand up and give your answer.

Yes! [T. nominates a student]

S: Who sells bananas

T: Say it again!

[12]

S: Who sells bananas

T: Very good! who sells bananas is the relative clause.

Sentence 2 - That is the bar which stays open till ten.

Who can tell us the relative clause?

Yes! [T. nominates a student.]

S: Which stays open

T: Stand up! Look at the entire sentence. Look at the entire sentence. Say it again!

[13]

S: Which stays open

T: Ok! That is the bar/which stays open/(2)/till ten/(2) which stays open till ten is the relative clause.

Ok! sentence number three. Here is the newspaper that I found on the seat. Yes! [T. nominates a student.]

S: That I found

T: Say it again!

[14]

S: That I found in the seat

T: Very good! /That I found on the seat/(2) is the relative clause.

Sentence number 4- The first game comma, which went on for a long time comma, wasn't exciting. [Two students stand up simultaneously.]

T: I gave the chance to the girl, Ok!

S: Which went on for a long time

T: /speak louder/ (2) and say it again!

[15]

S: Which went on for a long time.

T: Very good! which went on for a long time is the relative clause.

The last number-number 5. His neighbour comma whom he likes comma works for the Ministry of Agriculture. [T. nominates a student]

S: Whom he likes

T: Say it again!

[16]

S: Whom he likes

T: Whom he likes is the relative clause. Very good!

Ok! Go on writing. Have you finished this? this part?

Ss: Yes! [in chorus]

- T: Very good! [T. writes the second exercise on the b/b.]
[Long pause]
- Ok! eh please stop writing please stop writing. Let's do exercise B and the instruction says identify each sentence as defining or non-defining relative clause. If it is a defining clause, you can write letter D in brackets or if it is a non-defining relative clause, you can write letters ND in brackets. Is that clear?
- Ss: Yes! [in chorus.]
- T: Good! So who can do the first one? The man who robbed her has been arrested. Yes! [T. nominates a student.]
- S: defining relative clause
- T: /speak louder!/(2)
- [17]
- S: Defining relative clause
- T: Very good! It is a defining clause. So you write letter D. Defining relative clause.
- T: The second one! The girls who serve in the shop are the owner's daughters. Yes! [T. nominates a student.]
- S: Defining relative clause
- T: Defining relative clause-D.
- T: Sentence number 3 says "Apple trees comma which are both beautiful and productive comma do not live for ever. Yes! [T. nominates a student]
- S: Non-defining relative clause
- T: Non-defining relative clause. Very good! ND.

s: Non-defining relative clause [The student repeats his answer.]

T: Yes! You are right! non-defining relative clause.
Have you finished this part?

Ss: Yes! [in chorus.]

T: Question? Yes! [T. gives the chance to a student to ask]

S: What do you want to say at the end of this paragraph?

T: Yes?

S: at the end of this paragraph?

T: Which paragraph?

S: This paragraph. [The student points to the b/b]

T: Could you read that out?

S: We don't eh the relative pronoun that. What do you want to say?

[18]

T: We don't use we don't use the relative pronoun that with non-defining relative clause. Thank you for your correction. I forgot to write the word use. We don't use.

Ok! Have you finished this part? [T. points to the b/b.]

Ss: Yes! No! Yes! no! [in chorus.]

T: Some say yes and some say no. Ok!

Let me rub it upto this one [T. cleans the top part of the b/b.] Long pause] [T. writes some more questions for exercise B on the b/b and students copy down after him.]

T: [T. reads out the remaining sentences under exercise B.]
4 the woman that you helped in our neighbour. Number 5.

/The new Hotel comma in Arbegnoch road comma which everyone is talking about,/ [2] is very popular. Number 6 -Belayneh comma who hasn't been feeling very well comma has gone to see the doctor. Number 7 -Hanna comma whose children are at school all day comma is trying to get a job... Not this one [T. rubs something from the b/b.] Number 8 -Everyone who knew her likde her.
[pause]

T: Shall we continue doing? Ok! /Number 4/(2). So many hands this time. Yes friend! [T. nominates a student.]

[19]

S: Defining relative clause

T: The woman that you helped is our neighbour is a defining relative clause. Very good!

Number 5! The new Hotel, in Arbegnoch road, which everyone is taling about, is very popular with young people. Yes! [T. nominates a student.]

S: Defining relative clause

[20]

T: The new Hotel. Is it defining? At least you can guess by its identification. We, I told you that you can simply or easily identify the sentence whether it is defining or non-defining just by looking at the sentence itself. We said that a comma is not used in in defining relative clause and in this particular sentence, we have used commas before and after the main clause. [T. moves his hands left to right as he says this.] Therefore, it is not a defining relative clause. If it is not a defining relative caluse, then it is eh?

Ss: non-defining [in chorus.]

T: A non-defining relative clause. Ok! ND

Number 6 - Belayneh, who hasn't been feeling well lately, has gone to see the doctor.

Well/ (4) yes! [T. nominates a student.]

S: non-defining

T: ND non-defining

Number 7. Hanna, Hanna, whose children are at school all day, is trying to get a job.

Yes! [T. nominates a student.]

S: non-defining

T: non-defining relative clause and the last one the last one Number 8. /Everyone who knew her liked her./ (2)

Yes! [T. nominates a student.]

S: defining

T: defining relative clause. Very good!

Ok! /For further information,/(2) refer to your textbook starting from page 281 two hundred and eighty-one.

Refer to your textbook.

Ok! [T. points to the door to mean we can go.]

[End of Recording]

✓ Explanation and demonstration checklist

	Frequently	Sometimes	Never
1. The teacher has informed students of the goals of learning and the procedures they should use to achieve them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. The teacher has reviewed prerequisite knowledge and fundamental concepts before introducing new subject matter.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. The teacher has provided advanced organisers for learning activities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. The teacher has provided model and topic frameworks for learning.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. The teacher has provided an interesting introduction to gain students' attention.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. The teacher has avoided hurrying instruction when explaining or demonstrating, particularly when dealing with new subject matter.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. The teacher has analysed the key features in subject matter to be explained and highlighted the correspondence between these key features and relevant elements in examples used for illustrations.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. The teacher has used non technical language and has avoided over emphasising complex aspects of subject matter.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Frequently	Sometimes	Never
9. The teacher has used simplified diagrams, charts, line drawings and concrete models to illustrate subject matter.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. The teacher has ensured that presentations can be seen and heard by all students.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. The teacher has insisted that students pay close attention during all explanations or demonstrations.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. The teacher has been sensitive to the reactions of students and has been ready to adapt explanations and demonstrations if these do not produce positive responses.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. The teacher has provided verbal or figural mediators to help students build associations among ideas.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. The teacher has acted to keep explanations concise and to the point.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. The teacher has demonstrated the use of subject matter in a variety of contexts to show its generalisation and application.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. The teacher has chosen appropriate examples to make explanations or demonstrations intelligible to students.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. The teacher has encouraged students to adopt the role of tutor and explain subject matter to other students.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Frequently	Sometimes	Never
18. The teacher has emphasised meaningfulness in the choice of examples.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. The teacher has used concrete and high imagery examples to explain or demonstrate subject matter.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. The teacher has used a variety of examples in all explanations and demonstrations.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. The teacher has avoided cluttering any one explanation or demonstration with too much content and too many examples.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. The teacher has varied the use of explanation or demonstration techniques.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. The teacher has developed a lively and enthusiastic style of exposition.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. The teacher has developed a warm and responsive teaching style.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. The teacher has used a relaxed and purposeful style when explaining or demonstrating.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

(Cole and Chan, 1994: 166-168).

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis is my work and that sources of materials used for this thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Name: Weldu Michael

Signature:  _____

Place: Department of Foreign Languages and Literature,
Institute of Language Studies,
Addis Ababa University

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