

CLASSROOM FEEDBACK BEHAVIOUR OF GRADE ELEVEN
ENGLISH TEACHERS



A THESIS
PRESENTED TO
THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT
OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF ARTS IN TEACHING ENGLISH
AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (T.E.F.L)

By
WOND WOSSEN TAMRAT
JUNE, 1992

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

CLASSROOM FEEDBACK BEHAVIOUR OF GRADE ELEVEN
ENGLISH TEACHERS

BY
WONDWOSEN TAMRAT

Approved by

K. B. Hicks
Advisor

[Signature]

John Morrish
Examiner

[Signature]

Oliver Hunt
Examiner

[Signature]

Rob Hicks
Examiner

[Signature]

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank my thesis advisor, Dr. R.B. Hicks, for his trenchant and helpful comments and more particularly for nursing me and my work through trying times.

It is difficult to thank adequately all my friends whose financial and moral support contributed to this work and the completion of my study, but I must specially mention the following: Assefa Worku, Fantahun Engda, Getnet Tizazu, Abas Ahmed, Akalu Geleta and Dawit Seyoum.

I am also very much grateful to W/t Debitu Mamo for typing the manuscript ^asc̄rificing her valuable time.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgments

Abstract

CHAPTER	CONTENTS	PAGE
I.	The Problem, Purpose, Significance and Organization of the Study	1
	1.1. Statement of the Problem	1
	1.2. Purpose of the Study	3
	1.3. Importance of the Study	4
	1.4. Definition of Feedback	5
	1.5. Transcription Symbols Used	5
	1.6. Organization of the Thesis	6
II.	Review of Related Literature	7
	2.1. The 'why' of Feedback Provision	7
	2.2. The Provision of Feedback in Classroom ..	14
	2.3. The Provision of Feedback in Natural Conversational Settings and Implications for the Language Classroom	28
III.	Design of the Study	34
	3.1. Selection of Schools	34
	3.2. The Corpus	35
	3.3. Recording of Lessons	36
	3.4. Criteria for Identifying Feedback Types..	37
	3.5. Model of Description	37
	3.6. Counting Exchanges and Treatment Types...	42
IV.	Presentation and Discussion of Data	52
	4.1. Introduction	52
	4.2. Presentation and Discussion of Quantitative Data	52
	4.3. Presentation and Discussion of Descriptive Data	79
V.	Conclusions and Recommendations	85
	5.1. Conclusions	85
	5.2. Recommendations	90
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	92
	APPENDICES	98

ABSTRACT

The present study was primarily undertaken to investigate the feedback behaviour of Grade Eleven English teachers. It was specifically made to find out how much of the class-time is spent on the provision of feedback, what types of feedback Grade Eleven English teachers use and to see if there exists a regular pattern in the reactions of teachers. Eight experienced English teachers were selected from the twenty-four government highschoools in Addis Ababa. A system of analysis which identifies forty-three elements of Positive, Negative and Miscellaneous Feedback was developed.

The study has shown that teachers on average spend 29.2% of the class-time on the provision of feedback. The research has also identified 539 occurrences of Positive Feedback and 336 of Negative Feedback. The most frequently used types of Positive Feedback were Simple Praise Confirmation and Positive Repetition. However, teachers showed much agreement between themselves in the use of Positive Explanation and Several Answers Solicitation without Clues. Among the various types of Negative Feedback teachers most frequently used Interruption, Simple Reproof Denial and Loop; and they showed much agreement in the use of Repetition with no change.

The success ratio computed for some of the most frequently used types of Negative Feedback showed that the use of categories like Question 3, Clues, prompt and explanation bears success in eliciting correct responses.

Based on the findings of the study it is emphatically recommended that teachers need to reflect on their behaviour in order to promote improvement on their current practices.

CHAPTER ONE

THE PROBLEM, PURPOSE, SIGNIFICANCE AND ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

1.1. Statement of the Problem

The provision of feedback is one among the different kinds of verbal or non-verbal behaviours that teachers display in classrooms. This behaviour is considered as one of the means through which a student can acquire information concerning the effectiveness of his behaviour and gain some measure of control over his behaviour (Zahorik, 1970a:410).

As has been found out by researchers, a significant amount of the class-time is taken up by evaluating students' utterances. Flanders (1970:102) reports that on average an American teacher spends 42% of his talk by reacting to the idea and feelings of students. Bellack (1966) also asserts that the reacting move constitutes 30% of the moves taken by teachers.

Apart from these findings various pieces of research have been carried out to investigate some aspects of the nature of teacher feedback and its value (Zahorik 1970a, 1970b; Holley and King 1971; Fanselow 1977; Cohen 1975; Allwright 1975 as cited in Allwright 1988; Chaudron 1979; Fanselow 1990).



Studies done in Ethiopia, albeit limited, at different levels also show that a substantial proportion of the class-time is spent on providing feedback. Abdulkadir Ali (1983:44) has found out that teachers in Grade 9 in Government Highschools of Addis Ababa devote 53.75% of their talk for the provision of feedback. Yoseph's (1990) finding indicates that 54.8% of the teacher talk (which constitutes 71.8% of the classroom language of the teacher) in Junior Highschools of Arsi is spent on providing feedback in the form of re-eliciting questions which students are not able to answer. In Tewolde's (1988) study it is again shown that a substantial part of the class-time is allotted for the provision of feedback.

Although, as has already been noted, the provision of feedback takes a sizeable proportion of the class-time, locally no research is done with the intention of bringing to light the various facets of it and their pedagogical implications (if any). Besides, the unavailability of systematic investigations into this behaviour notwithstanding, none of the studies conducted abroad has been replicated in our setting and as a result it is not known what type of feedback behaviour Ethiopian teachers exhibit in class and what implications the particular behaviours therein might have. This research is an attempt along this line which endeavours to find out how feedback is manipulated in government highschools of Addis Ababa.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present investigation is:

- (a) To find out how much of the class-time is spent on the provision of feedback (verbal and non-verbal alike);
- (b) To find out what types of feedback highschool English teachers (specifically Grade 11 English teachers) use;
- (c) To see if there exists a regular pattern in the reactions of these teachers; and
- (d) To see if some speculative suggestions could be generated which may help us modify current practices in teaching, learning and teacher training.

The procedures and rationale for this investigation were basically derived from:

1. The study made by Zahorik (1970a), Chaudron (1977), Fanselow (1977 and 1990), Allwright (1975) as cited in Allwright (1988) and Van Lier (1988).

2. The body of research accumulated in the field of educational psychology which indicates that the provision of feedback has a bearing on the learning that occurs in the classroom setting (Rosenfeld 1972; Raffini and Rosemier 1972; Davison 1972; Hammer 1972) and that it is a worthwhile

instructional practice (Pickup and Anthony 1968 as cited by Hammer 1972; Schunk 1982, 1983; Elawar and Corno 1985).

3. Suggestions made by scholars based on studies made and long years of experience in the educational area (Corder 1973 as cited by Chaudron 1977; Hendrickson 1978; Norrish 1983; Dermot 1984; Birdsong and Kassen 1988; Klassen 1991, etc.).

1.3. Importance of the Study

It has been and is still the contention of researchers engaged in the area of classroom observation that a study of teacher talk (which this study is part of will enable teachers to "understand, control and change what they do". As has been noted by Fanselow (1987:49) to prescribe change without a clear idea of what we are doing and without substituting an alternative that fills the function that the normal rule does is, in any experience, a limited strategy. The importance of such a study is not limited to the teacher as is discussed by Lier succinctly.

It must be of interest to all people involved in education in anyway (whether as parents, learners, policy makers or researchers) to know more about what goes in classrooms, not in order to eavesdrop, check or compare, but in order to understand and perhaps to promote improvement if improvement is desirable. (1984:11)

In addition, it is the belief of the researcher that if the aim of the current study is achieved, it may mean that a new dimension to what we already know about our English classes (as found out by Abdulkadir Ali 1983; Tafesse Geleta 1988; Tewolde G/Yohannes 1988; Yoseph Mekonnen 1990) will be added, which should make our theories in this area less speculative.

1.4. Definition of Feedback

By feedback here is meant teachers' remarks or expressions (verbal/non-verbal) about the adequacy or inadequacy and the correctness or incorrectness of students' statements solicited or initiated in the development of subject-matter.

1.5. Transcription Symbols Used

The following transcription symbols as used by Gaskill (1980), Schwartz (1980) and Sabrina Peck (1980) were adapted for the current study.

xx - unintelligible/indistinguishable utterance

(X2) - Indicates that preceding utterance was repeated twice.

[] - Overlap i.e., two speakers or more speaking simultaneously. The second bracket shows where the overlapped speech ends.

- // - Teacher's interruption
- SS - Students (sub-group or the whole class)
- ? - rising, question intonation
- : - Elongated sound

1.6. Organization of the Thesis

The current research is designed along the line of investigating the nature of feedback provision in the government highschools of Addis Ababa. A review of the available literature on feedback is offered in Chapter Two. To accomplish the aims already set, the research procedure outlined in the third and fourth chapter includes:

(a) Collection of data based on recordings and transcriptions of classroom discourse;

(b) Development of a system of analysis dealing with the various kinds of feedback conveyed by teachers; and

(c) Statistical analysis and discussion of the results. The conclusions arrived at and the recommendations forwarded are provided in the fifth and final chapter of the thesis.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The issue of feedback provision has largely been discussed by researchers in the field of Educational Psychology, by conversational analysts and by those interested in the classroom talk of teachers. Feedback provision could well be thought of in terms of two broad categories which are dubbed by many as Positive feedback (kinds of feedback that confirm the accuracy of previous communication) and negative feedback (kinds of feedback which show rejection or which demand readjustment of previous communication). Although there is a growing body of literature on the subject, negative feedback has received the most research attention. This is reflected in this chapter by the correspondingly large number of pages allotted for discussing this kind of Feedback.

2.1. The 'Why' of Feedback Provision

In natural conversational settings people are most often concerned with getting their message across. The essential part of this process includes the provision of feedback which plays an important role in maintaining the conversation. This is indicated by the following simple figure. (Dermot 1984:147)

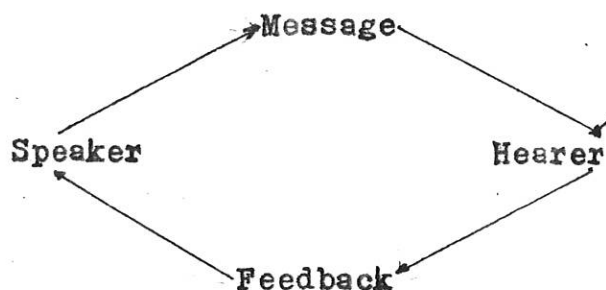


Figure 1.

Similar, though not identical, needs and procedures reside in the classroom. Feedback provision in the classroom has largely been attached to the provision of information as to whether students are 'right' or 'wrong' - "a general term used to describe informative character of the consequences of a learner's response" (Blair et al 1968:182).

Many educators and researchers believe that the ways in which the utterances of students are accepted, reformulated or rejected have a bearing on learning.

Lindgren and Suter (1985:379) say, "The principle that learning is aided by feedback is well established". Zahorick (1970a:106) argues that teacher verbal feedback can have a considerable effect on the student's learning and system control. According to him, from a teacher's verbal feedback a pupil can acquire information about the effectiveness of his behavioral output, adjust and change his future output, and gain some measure of control over his behavior (Loc.Cit.)

Vigil and Oller (1976) and Selinker and Lamendella (1979), upholding the notion that feedback is "the primary factor controlling the development of learner grammar (or interlanguage), assert that it could be predicted that learner's grammatical system will continue to develop as long as corrective feedback (which is not excessive) is there to encourage the learner to go on modifying attempts to express himself in the target language. Conversely, if the corrective feedback plummets below some minimal level or disappears altogether, the grammar or the rules no longer attended, will tend to fossilize.

Capitalizing on the functions of feedback Blair et al (1968:182) assert that,

Feedback has the dual function of providing motivation and a chance for reinforcement to work, and of giving information that will correct error. Every reaction of a teacher in response to a student's activity is a kind of feedback that has potential for both these functions.

As reported by Clifford (1981:391) an extensive review of literature on the effects of feedback or performance led Ammons (1956) to make the following observations:

1. Feedback generally increases motivation,
2. Feedback usually improves subsequent performance,
3. Generally, the more specific the knowledge of performance the more rapidly performance improves. However, excessively detailed feedback on early trials of complex tasks may prove

to be confusing and detrimental.

4. Feedback given punctually is usually more effective than that given long after the task has been completed.
5. Noticeable decreases in feedback often result in a marked decline in performance.
6. When knowledge or results are not provided, individuals tend to develop substitutes. For example, they may watch peers and decide whether their performance is better or worse.

Although many accept the need for the provision of feedback there are some who argue against the practice—specially against the practice of providing negative feedback to learners.

Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982:34) claim that correction is not a very reliable tool in helping students overcome errors for it could be 'immensely frustrating'. Krashen and Terrell (1983:177) and Krashen (1982:74) also assert that error correction (i.e. correction of form as against content) has the immediate effect of putting the student on the defensive. It is thought to encourage a strategy in which the student will try to avoid mistakes, avoid constructions, focus less on meaning and more on form. The claim of these scholars is firmly based on the belief that while acquisition

of language is a sub-conscious process, error correction and grammatical explanations are not, Gorbet (1974) as cited by Cohen (1975:418) shares a similar view:

It is not uncommon for students to adjust or even to abandon what they want to say in an effort to say it correctly, or to the teacher's satisfaction. The end product may be correct in the grammatical sense, but it is inadequate from the view point of communication.

Krashen (1982) even demands that error correction be eliminated entirely in communicative-type activities.

True, one could naturally have the aforementioned anxieties. However, it could convincingly be argued that it is not on the nature of correction itself (or in what the teacher does) but usually in the ways in which he corrects (or in how he provides feedback) that the blame largely rest. This claim could be justified by works related with the provision of positive & negative feedback and studies made to investigate if students preferred feedback than no feedback at all.

In addition to what Vigil & Oller (1976), Selinker and Lamendella (1979) said (as discussed previously), Zydatiss (1974:234) asserts that "a pedagogically orientated description of the learner's language must consider notions like "reconstruction" of deviation."

As again argued by Rod Ellis (1984), Dermot (1984) and

Theo Van Els et al (1984), it is impossible to avoid correction altogether even during communicative activities. As well put by Dermot (Op.Cit) there are times when learners make an error of fluency- When they are not handling turn-taking appropriately, when they are not giving the speaker feedback which is evident if learners in a group do not understand the speaker, and fail to say so. It becomes essential then that the teacher might provide feedback to errors of this kind.

Moreover, research works in the field of Educational Psychology have basically indicated that the provision of feedback improves learning or performance (Rosenfeld 1972; Woolfolk 1982) and that the provision of feedback has a more positive result than providing students with no feedback at all (Raffini and Rosemier 1972; Sassenrath and Gaverick 1965 as cited by Lindgren and Suter 1985; Page 1958 as cited by Blair et al 1968; Hammer 1972).

It has also been found out that from the learner's perspective the provision of feedback is expected. As cited by Hendrickson (1978) and Nunan (1989) the investigation of Catchart and Olsen (1976) which surveyed 149 learners of English indicated a strong preference for error correction. As reported by Numan, Willing's Study (1988) of learning preferences also showed that error correction is the second most highly regarded classroom activity after practicing the sounds and pronunciation of English. Besides, Allan (1991:61) reports

that "many adult students feel that the teacher is not doing his or her job properly if correction is not provided".

Although students' expectations in themselves are not evidence of feedback being 'necessary', they indicate that the practice is highly demanded by students and without it students feel that it would be difficult to proceed on what they learn. Sinclair and Coulthard also note this point:

Usually when we ask a question we don't know the answer; almost invariably the teacher does know the answer and children can get quite annoyed if he doesn't - after all that's his job. This fact enables us to explain why feedback is an essential element in an exchange inside the classroom. Having given their reply children want to know whether it was the right one. So important is feedback that if it does not occur we feel confident that the teacher has deliberately withheld it for some strategic purpose. It is deviant to withhold feedback continually, and we have a tape of one lesson where a teacher, new to a class, and trying to suggest to them that there aren't always right answers, does withhold feedback and eventually reduces the children to silence - they cannot see the point of his questions. (1975:51)

Jacquelyn Schachter (1985:168) even considers correction as an obvious source of what she terms "negative input" and regards it as one of the necessary and sufficient characteristics of input such that if it is missing language learning may not take place.

2.2. The Provision of Feedback in Classrooms

As noted earlier, the two main feedback types that are identified by scholars and researchers are positive feedback and negative feedback. In providing positive feedback, teachers acknowledge the 'correctness' of students' utterances in various ways. When teachers also use negative feedback they provide information to the learner which may indicate that his utterance was in some way unacceptable or deviant to the teacher, i.e. that it was not understandable, was not grammatically correct, was not situationally appropriate, etc. These two classes of feedback which we commonly find in classrooms are discussed below.

2.2.1. Positive Feedback

The basic assumption in the use of positive feedback has been that it will encourage increased use of correct behavior.

Ruth Clark (1975:295) citing Anett (1969), identifies the two functions of this type of feedback. These functions are that of providing reward to motivate action and that of providing information as to the adequacy of an action. Behavioral psychologists have given much attention to the motivating function. Although a great deal of information on this function is available in what are termed as 'operant conditioning' and 'contiguity learning' (learning theories

in the field of educational psychology) it is suggested that "learning does not always need to be motivated by externally applied rewards It certainly does depend on the feedback of information about the correctness of response" (Clark:Op Cit.: 296) The latter function is the most common function we may find in the classroom.

As found out by Rosenfeld (1972) studies of the application of reinforcement techniques indicated that the addition of reinforcements to a regular classroom curriculum resulted in improved performance for many students. However, when compared with the use of negative feedback, it has been found out that "an increased awareness of mistakes provides more motivation to improve performance than an increased awareness of successes. (Clifford 1984)

According to the proponents of reinforcement learning theory positive reinforcement of correct responses is necessary for effective language behaviour. Ruth Clark (1975:292) summarizes the basic assumption in this theory as follows:

If a child responds correctly to a spoken stimulus he will be reinforced, if he responds incorrectly he will not be reinforced. In this way adult utterances will become discriminating stimuli for the production of responses. The child will begin to give evidence of understanding the sound he hears, as well as being able to produce speech which is appropriate to the situation.

According to this theory, children learn language because their parents and other people in their environment reinforce it. (Klein 1987:347) The tenets of the theory believe that apart from what are termed as primary reinforcers (basic biological rewards such as food or the cessation of pain), Secondary reinforcers or verbal stimuli (For instance, words and phrases, such as 'good', 'well/done' and 'that's right') can be used by parents to establish new habits (Clark: Loc.Cit.).

Although the use of reinforcement has not totally been disregarded, this theory has mainly been criticized and rejected for an over-emphasis on the role of reinforcement. The psycholinguistic view of learning which was later developed by Noam Chomsky criticizes the reinforcement view on the following grounds:

1. The view that parents will only reward correct use of language and ignore or penalize incorrect use goes contrary to observations which show otherwise.
2. The fact that people can generate new but grammatically accurate language is difficult to explain in terms of the theory.
3. Social reinforcement is not a critical determinant of language acquisition. (Klein 1987:345-6).

Among the various ways of providing positive feedback

the most common is the use of words like 'good', 'very good' and 'ok'. This seems more so in natural conversational settings. According to Fanselow (1987:270) "the rule to say 'very good' or 'ok' after another person performs is learned very early. Apart from the frequent use of these words what is evidenced in classrooms suggests that the same words could often simply mean that the teacher is ready for another person to perform - they could simply provide transition (Loc. Cit.)

2.2.2. The provision of Negative Feedback

A great deal of research has been conducted on teacher-talk since the 1960s. This interest which might perhaps reflect the importance of such talk in language teaching (Nunan 1989:25) has included the investigation of feedback provision and more specifically of error correction as teachers' methodological practice or pedagogic strategy (Malamah - Thomas 1987:69; Cohen 1975:414). Accordingly, the literature here under specifically relates to negative feedback which henceforth will be referred to as error correction. The theories, research and practical suggestions on the subject are reviewed.

2.2.2.1. The Genesis of Error Correction: An Overview

Tracing the historical change that has occurred in the field of error correction may bring us to the unavoidable

conclusion that a change in the attitude of educators to 'errors' has necessitated a change in the approach to error correction (Hendrickson 1978; Van Lier 1988; and Johanna Klassen 1991).

In the grammar-translation days, errors were considered as an indication of inadequately learnt rules, or knowledge imperfectly assimilated. During the heyday of the audio-lingual approach, i.e. in the 1950s and 1960s, errors were regarded as sins and it was strongly recommended that "like sin, error is to^{be} avoided and its influence overcome" (Nelson Brooks (1960) as cited by Hendrickson (1978:387)). According to Hendrickson (Loc. Cit.) many foreign language educators never questioned the validity of this mechanistic approach to error prevention and error correction as a result of which the practice has continued to be used even in present day classrooms.

With the beginning in the late 1960s of "a trend away from audiolingualism and toward making language teaching more humanistic and less mechanistic "there arose a realization that errors were perhaps not, just aberrations, admissions of guilt or inadequacies, or failures in the pedagogic system, but might be evidence of the learners' creative efforts to build a new linguistic structure, in similar ways to children learning their first language (Lier 1988:161). This new area of investigation has been identified as Error Analysis. Following this new development several investigations were

made to identify the types of learner errors which are most or least indicative of learning (or 'progress'), and the ways in which errors are or should be selectively treated by the classroom teacher. Describing the current trend Klassen asserts that the field of error correction as an interactive process has in recent years been receiving increasing attention from L₂ researchers (Klassen 1991)

2.2.2.2. The Nature and Organization of Error Correction in Classrooms

As pointed out by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) feedback in classrooms is observed as an essential element in the structure of elicit. The latter category includes all exchanges designed to obtain verbal contributions from students.

According to Chaudron (1977) the basic procedures involved in error correction could be indicated in the following structure which he developed for describing corrective reactions in relation to learners' errors. The structure is basically a synthesis of the descriptive system developed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), and of Allwright's (1975) suggestions for the basic options open to the teacher in corrective reactions.

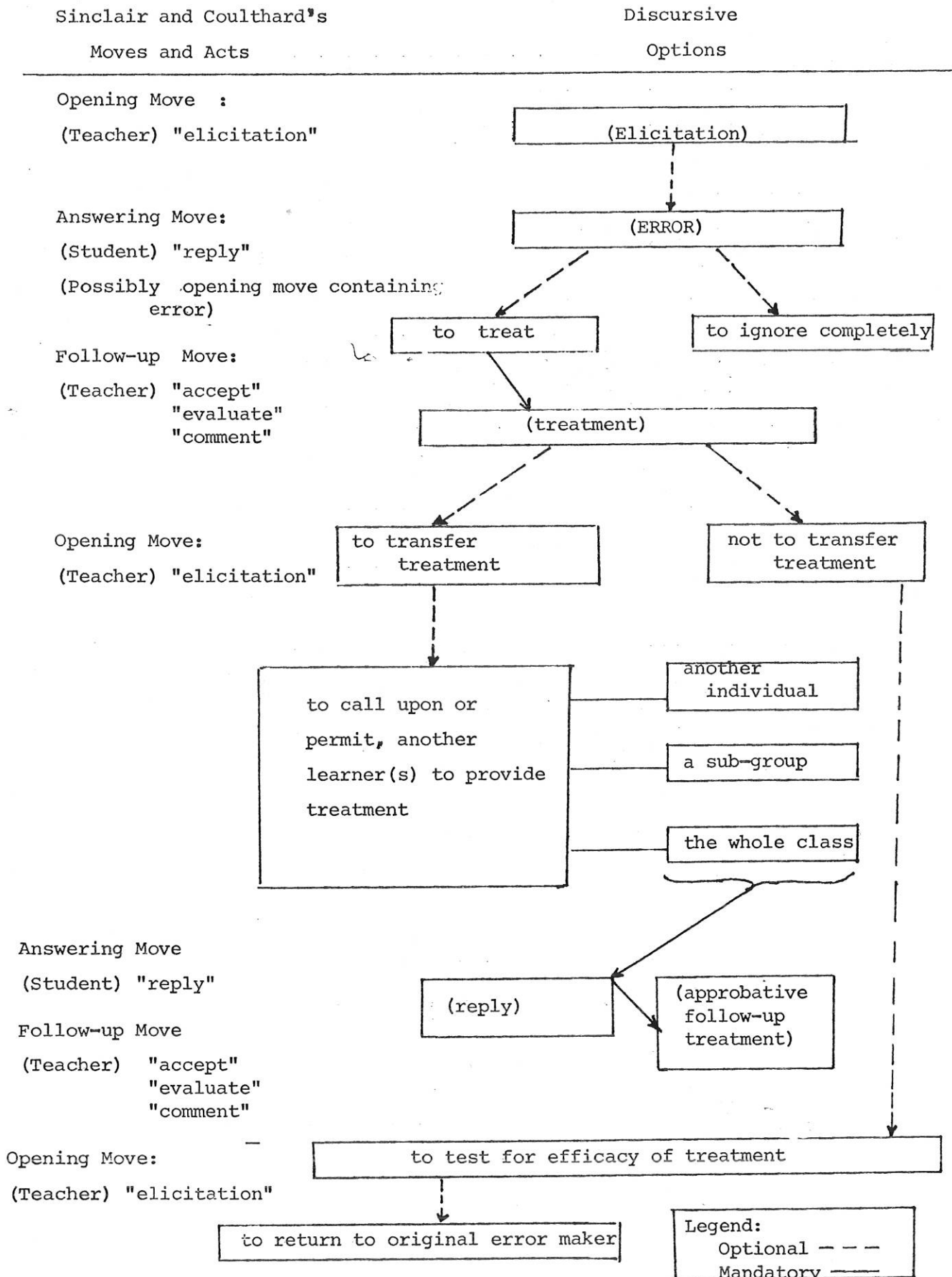


Figure - 2

As could be noticed from the above figure a simple provision of negative feedback can involve three moves after the student's error.

1. The teacher can react in an initial follow-up Move which consists of some sort of treatment that optionally, accepts, evaluates and/or comments on the error. Ignoring an error, or "exiting", may simultaneously occur.

2. Some opening move, or elicitation, will be necessary to get the student or transferred students, to respond again.

3. The student(s) will then reply again.

Correct replies may optionally be followed by two further moves: (a) a teacher Follow-Up Move offering approbation (again accepting; evaluating, and/or commenting, although positively only), and then (b) an opening Move intended to verify the understanding of the correction. (This last move is indicated by Allwright's "test for efficacy" or "return to original error maker") (Chaudron 1977:33-5).

To use Sinclair and Coulthard's terms, the basic series of Moves described above would constitute a correcting Exchange; the cyclic series of which would make up a Transaction (Chaudron: Op. Cit.) Based on this lay out Chaudron was able to develop a system of analysis for corrective reactions in the classroom. The above considerations will also be heeded in identifying the various exchanges

between sample teachers and students in the current study which involve the provision of feedback.

2.2.2.3. Fundamental Questions in Error Correction

Pieces of research conducted and theories forwarded in the area of negative feedback or error treatment address one or more of the following five fundamental questions.

- (a) Should learner errors be corrected ? (b) Which errors to correct ? (c) When should learner errors be corrected ? (d) Who should correct? (e) How should learner errors be corrected ?

The answer to the first question may be obtained from the discussion under 2.1 and needs no further comment here.

With regard to the second question, a taxonomy of the kinds of errors learners make has been given by many; and amongst the different kinds of errors many agree that global errors (i.e., errors that effect understanding of the whole message) should receive the highest priority. Additional criteria have also been suggested for establishing priorities of error correction. It has been suggested that high frequency errors (errors which occur frequently); errors at high level of generality (or errors which involve general or broad grammatical rules) rather than those dealing with grammatical exceptions; errors that have stigmatizing effect on the hearer and errors that are relevant to pedagogic

focus should follow suit (Holley and King 1971; Cohen 1975; Hendrickson 1980; Gower and Walters 1983; Norrish 1983; Clark 1987; Edge 1989; Klassen 1991) There appears to be a consensus among many language educators that correcting the first three types of errors could be essential to second language learners.

The ^{diagram on page 24} diagram on page 24 indicates a method for working out an order of priority for the provision of negative feedback to the kinds of errors identified above. It was developed by Norrish (1983:107) for describing the types of errors related with global/local and stigmatizing errors. It is modified by the researcher to accommodate the other types of errors identified.

Many scholars who dwell on the subject of 'when to correct errors' agree that an over-emphasis on correction would not benefit the individual learner. What is favoured is what George (1972), as cited by Cohen (1975:414), says "the economics of intervention" - the budgeting of correction to profit students most. Hendrickson (1978) suggests that error correction be limited to "manipulative grammar practice" and that more errors may be tolerated during communicative practice. Relating his experience Hyland (1990) also says. "I have found that error correction only improves the proficiency of L₂ learners if I correct selectively".

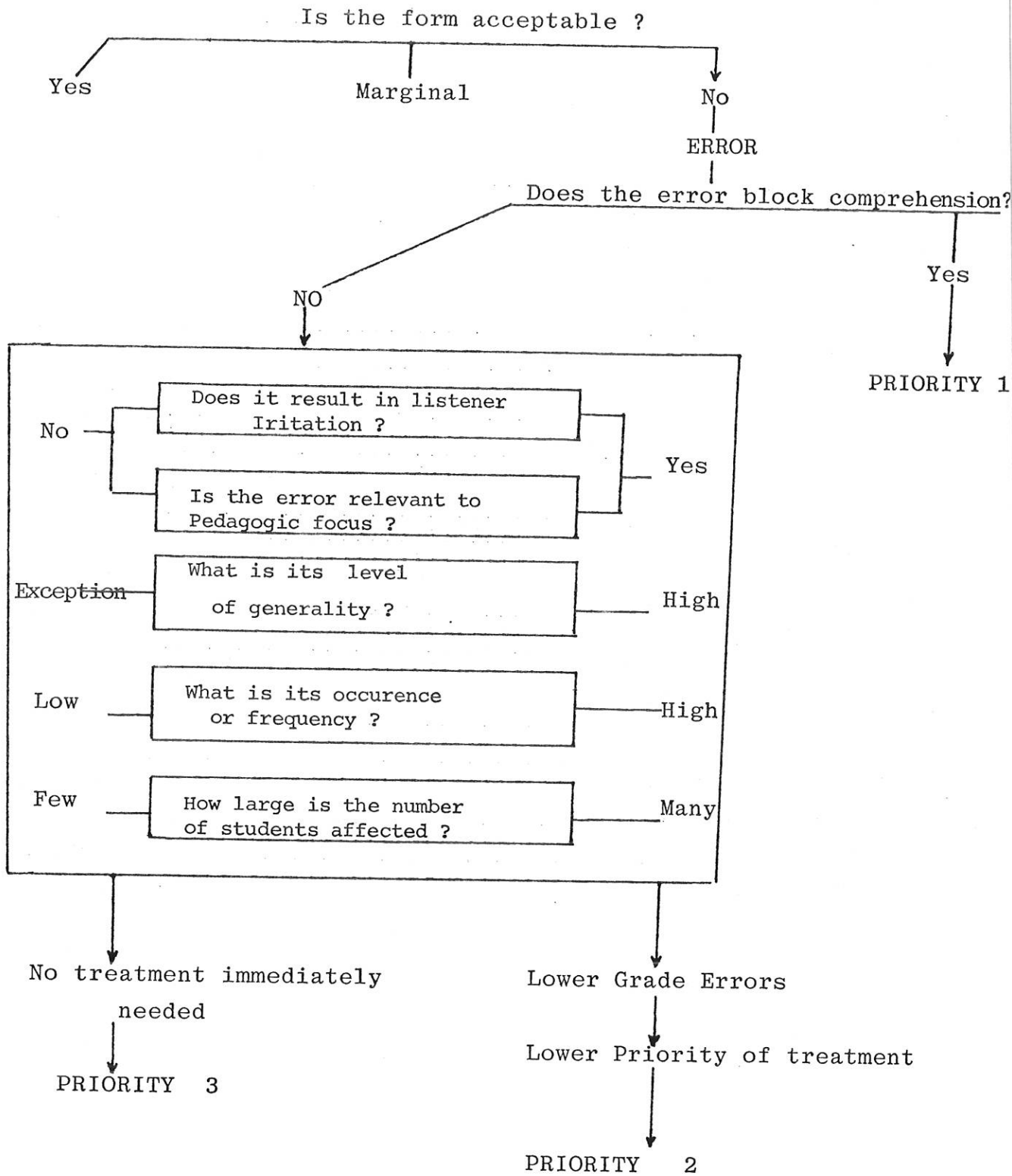


Figure 3.



As might be imagined, educators also suggest that the provision of feedback should not be expected to come only from the teacher in charge. Expressing this view succinctly Hendrickson (1978) says, "while few language educators would deny the teacher an active role in correcting errors, it has been suggested that he or she should not dominate the correction procedures". Dermot (1984:149-50) argues that learners will need to give feedback to each other, and to talk to everyone in the group, rather than each behaving, when their turn comes to speak, as if they were having a private conversation with the teacher.

In a similar demand, Birdsong and Kassen (1988:11) recommend that teachers and learners should jointly venture into the business of error treatment for such a procedure could contribute to the lowering of individual and group anxiety levels in the foreign language classroom. Clark (1987:218) asserts that such a procedure "motivates, improves the monitoring capacity of students and allows them to learn from each other". Cathcart and Olsen (1976) as cited in Hendrickson (1978), Holley and King (1971); and Zahorik (1970a) have pointed out the usefulness of the learner(s) awareness of and productive involvement in the Corrective Exchange /Transaction. Chaudron (1977:44-5) asserts that far from being a manipulative process with the teacher directing and reinforcing students' "automatic" responses, the corrective discourse usually demands an active concentration by the learner and sometimes group-dependent cooperation. It

is also the belief of Chaudron (Op.Cit:45) that learners could be sensitized to the types of teacher corrective reactions, to the function they fulfil, and to what each type expects them in return. Chaudron maintains that such an approach could take much of the guesswork out of teaching and learning.

How should learner errors be corrected ? This is one amongst several critical questions that could be raised under error correction. For some it may suggest the existence a priori of watertight prescriptions as to how all teachers should correct their students' errors. This is, however, an undesirable goal for "experience suggests that what works effectively for one teacher may not necessarily be equally effective for another" (Headrickson 1980:217). The available literature on error correction does not either indicate that teachers should be left to behave haphazardly. Based on current language learning theory, research, observation and practical experience a logical direction for error correction has been set. The main stages involved in the process of error correction are given by Gower & Walters (1983:143).

(a) Indicate that an error has been made

In so doing teachers are advised not to discourage students for this could reduce students' desire to try out the language (Dulay, Burt & Krashen 1982; Krashen 1982; Krashen

& Terrell 1983; Gorbet (1974) as cited by Cohen 1975). Carroll (1973), as cited by Hendrickson (1980:217), states that willingness to use a foreign language - and to make errors - is one characteristic of a successful language learner. The implication of this suggestion, according to Handrickson, is that teachers should create a healthier learning environment in which students recognize that making errors is a natural, indeed, a necessary phenomenon in language learning.

It is also suggested that teachers should not interrupt the student in mid-sentence, i.e., they should allow a student to complete his statement, albeit incorrect, without interruption (Holley and King 1971; Allwright 1975 as cited by Allwright 1988; Walters & Gowler 1983; Norrish 1983; Dermot 1984; Chenweth and others 1984).

(b) Show the student where the error is

Teachers are required to isolate for the students the part of the utterance that contains the error.

(c) Indicate what sort of error it is

In order to avoid confusion students need to know whether the problem is grammatical (e.g. wrong tense), syntactic (e.g. a missing work) or phonological (e.g. a wrongly-stressed word)

(d) Get the student to try again and get it right. If teachers fail to do so (e.g. by providing clues) it is probably because the student does not know how to. So they are expected to get other student(s) to help out.

(c) If there is still a failure, the teacher must assume that either the student has not understood what he is getting at or the student does not know what the correct version should be. If it is an important point and other students do not know it either, the teacher may have to teach it from scratch.

f) Although the teacher may have made the correction he can get the student to say the correct version, if possible, in its original context.

It should be noted that these procedures are not forwarded as prescriptions to be followed in the treatment of ^{every} type of error. They are rather considered as fundamental practices which could serve as guidelines in the correction of errors.

2.3. The Provision of Feedback in Natural Conversational Settings and Implications for the Language Classroom

Apart from research conducted in classrooms we find studies made on the provision of feedback in natural conversational settings. The focus of these studies has, however, been mainly on how people provide feedback when communication breakdowns occur.

Among the earliest works cited are Jefferson's (1972) and Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977). The latter work is specially considered as a pioneer study, a product which has made substantial contribution in the field of conversation^{al} analysis (Coulthard 1977).

With the belief that the phenomenon of repair (i.e. the treatment of trouble occurring in interactive language use) is systematic enough to be scientifically described, the three sociologists set out to examine how an organization of repair operates in conversation addressed to recurrent problems in speaking, hearing and understanding. Their findings, among other things, indicated that in natural conversational settings where native speakers converse the organization of conversation favors the use of self-correction over other-correction, and that there is also a preference for self-initiated repair (a repair initiated by the same speaker of a trouble source) (Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks 1977).

The work of Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks has served as a launching pad for other studies that followed. Gaskill (1980) in his article, "Correction in native speaker-nonnative speaker conversation", tried to see how far the findings of the three sociologists are true. In his own words, "More specifically I questioned whether given a greater number of linguistic errors and possibly also problems of understanding there might be a large number of corrections and also I wondered if the corrections might

be done differently" (1980:180).

Gaskill's findings concur with that of Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks. He found out the infrequent occurrence of other-corrections; their being modulated in that they indicated uncertainty; their frequent appearance after modulated other-corrections or understanding checks or their occurrence in the context of disagreement when they are modulated (Op. Cit.: 136).

Another study which supplemented on Gaskill's work was made by Chenoweth et al (1984). The latter, in studying "corrective feedback in native-nonnative discourse," have made an attempt to investigate into how native speakers provide corrective feedback in response to non-native speakers' errors. The results of the study indicated that the type of feedback provided in such a setting could either have a single interpretation (this is called on-record corrective feedback) or it may turn out to be ambiguous or open to more than one interpretation (off-record corrective feedback); that native speakers could use both kinds of feedback; and that the ambiguous nature of off-record feedback creates a situation in which this kind of feedback may be interpreted either as a corrective feedback or as a continuing contribution to the ongoing discourse. It can also assume the form of either questions or statements; if it is given as a question, it takes the form of a confirmation check.

Schwartz (1980) in his study entitled "The Negotiation for Meaning: Repair in conversations between Second Language Learners of English," describes the types of repair work which occur in conversations between second language learners and examines, in his own fashion, the use of extra-linguistic features that accompany the repairs.

Schwartz reports that the negotiations in the conversations between second language learners of English included both verbal and extra-linguistic processes. He points out that,

(a) As is true of interaction among native speakers, second language speakers in conversations give the speaker of a trouble source repeated chances to repair his own speech.

(b) The teaching nature of repair work was noticeable in conversations between second language speakers and Schwartz contends that "Second Language Learners can learn more from one another than they think they can."

(c) Schwartz points out that even the most elementary students in his study were able to deal with trouble sources and problems in understanding in their conversations by negotiating with each other to come to an agreement of meaning (Loc.Cit.).

It has thus far been indicated that in either of classroom or natural conversational settings the need for the provision of feedback is there. Of course, in both cases speakers have their own distinct ways of providing feedback.

A handful of research products reviewed thus far and other studies which are made to show how children learn language have led many to suggest that teachers have a lot to learn from the handling of feedback in natural conversational settings. True, there is a clear difference between the two settings since, as attested by Sinclair and Brazil (1977:3), "the social setting is different, and the jobs to be done are different". However, "To say classroom talk has its own specific character doesn't mean that it cannot make use of the kinds of feedback in conversational settings" (Dermot 1984:149). Accordingly, many agree on the following suggestions.

1. Teachers need to make use of what many call "wait time". This is the time given to a speaker to correct his own errors. As observed in natural conversational settings speakers of a trouble-source are not usually interrupted in mid-stream. It is held that the delaying of correction may offer an added opportunity for self-correction. Many educators favour this practice (Holley & King 1971; Allwright 1988; Walters and Gowler 1983; Norrish 1983; Chenoweth & others 1984; Edge 1989; etc.) This may indicate to us a preference, but not necessarily a frequent occurrence, in both settings of what Sacks, Jefferson & Schegloff call "self-correction."

2. The suggestion that comes out of the study made in natural conversational settings and which could perhaps



be given heed by classroom teachers may be the one which pertains to the provision of modulated correction. It is most often suggested that discouraging students openly might not have any relevance and could perhaps lead them to what is usually known as 'defensive learning'. This, as scholars suggest, could surely discourage the student from further attempts at communication, (Gorbet (1974) as cited by Cohen 1975; Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982; Krashen 1982; Krashen and Terrell 1983; Hendrickson 1978; etc.).

3. Many scholars point out that people make slips and errors in their native language, so such errors and slips are to be expected even more in using a foreign language ^{and hence} in classrooms) Teachers are advised to have error tolerance and to not reprimand students for making errors (Dermot 1984; Hendrickson 1978; Cohen 1975; Norrish 1983; etc.) Teachers need to understand that it is more important to communicate successfully in a foreign language rather than to communicate perfectly in it (emphasis added) (Hendrickson 1980).

4. As is common with speakers in natural conversational settings, learners need to be taught and encouraged to give feedback if they have no experience of doing so in the language classroom (Cohen 1975; Hendrickson 1978; Demot 1984; Birdsong and Klassen 1988; Corder 1973 as cited by Chaudron 1977).

CHAPTER THREE

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

3.0. Introduction

As has been previously noted, the purpose of this investigation is to explore the kind and nature of teacher feedback during the teaching-learning act. To achieve the aim of the study the following guide-questions were set by the researcher.

(a) What specific types of feedback prevail in Grade 11 English Classrooms ?

(b) For what percent of the classtime does the provision of feedback account ?

(c) Are there any meanings or specific functions in the kinds of feedback used by teachers ? Or could some speculative suggestions be generated for teaching, learning and teacher training ?

3.1. Selection of Schools

Eight government comprehensive high schools in Addis Ababa participated in the study. These schools were randomly selected out of the total number of 24 such schools.

No.	Name of the School
1.	Kolfe Comprehensive Secondary School
2.	Ethiopia Tikdem No. 1 " "
3.	Shimelis Habte " "
4.	Kefitegna 23 (S.O.S).
5.	Menelik II " "
6.	Yekatit 12 " "
7.	Bole " "
8.	Kokebe Tsibah " "

3.2. The Corpus

In each school a teacher was chosen randomly from a list of English teachers through the use of a table of random numbers. All teachers selected, agreed to allow the researcher and the camera-man into their classrooms. Observations of teachers and students were made and noted down by the researcher while the recording was continuing.

The study focused on an analysis of the feedback behaviour of the 8 teachers who were not made aware of the main purpose of the research. The teachers were given the impression that their students were the observation-interest, the camera-man being necessary to "record the kinds of contributions made."

Teachers were not told or given the types of lessons they teach. They were left to stick to the syllabus. From a preliminary investigation made, it was found out that the 8 teachers had been teaching for an average of 16 years with a range from eight to twenty-five years.

3.3. Recording of Lessons

The nature of the study deemed it necessary that for "catching" teacher-student interaction there be a video-camera and a tape recorder. The Video-camera was primarily needed to focus on non-verbal feedback.

The allotted class-time for a single period in government high schools is forty minutes. Among the eight teachers selected for the study two, one in Menelik Comprehensive Secondary School and one in Ethiopia Tikdem, were recorded for only 20-25 minutes of the class time. In the former's case the period was reduced to the aforementioned minutes because of a meeting that was to convene on the day of the recording - a mere coincidence. The teacher in Ethiopia Tikdem came to class 15 minutes late although informed of the recording before. Since it was the last period he could not compensate for the time lost. The latter is a fairly typical occurrence in our high schools.

There were also teachers who exceeded the normal class-time taking 15-20 minutes additionally. On an average the

eight teachers used 40 minutes of the class time. Accordingly, a recording of lessons of 320 minutes has been made. This has provided the working ground for the current study.

3.4. Criteria for Identifying Feedback Types

Formal teaching is most often considered to have a common exchange. The structure of this exchange, according to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) comprises three moves identified as I-R-F: Initiation (teacher) - Response (student) - Follow-up (teacher). Although a consideration of the I - R structure served as a basis for classifying and analysing the follow-up structure (as indicated in the appendices) the main focus of the current study rested on the Follow-up structure.

Teachers could provide feedback to their students in different circumstances. For example, feedback could be provided while the teacher is directing or checking (Op.Cit: 50 & 53). However, feedback in classrooms is basically observed as an essential element in the structure of an elicit. The latter category includes all exchanges designed to obtain verbal contributions from students. It was mainly in the context of this structure in which feedback is compulsory that the current investigation focused.

3.5 Model of Description

One task of the research has been to develop a model of description which would help achieve the purpose of the

study. This task has at times been a frustrating one for it was not possible to obtain a detailed system of analysis which handles both positive and negative feedback. The only aid in this regard was Zahorik's (1970a) model. The problem is partly the result of most of the researchers in the field being interested in negative feedback only. To solve the problem, a descriptive system which combines the best of both Zahorik's (1970a) and Chaudron's model (1977) was developed. Before being used for this study the model was tried on other available data (i.e. Yoseph 1990; Tafesse 1988; Abdulkadir 1983; Tewolde (1988) and proved workable. Zahorik's model was basically used for identifying positive feedback and Chaudron's model was employed in identifying negative feedback.

The current system identifies 14 elements of positive feedback which will henceforth be known as class I categories and 23 elements of treatments which demand adjustments of students' 'incorrect' utterances (Class II categories). Class III categories are dubbed as 'Miscellaneous Feedback'.

Since the categories identified by Zahorik and Chaudron were not considered exhaustive and mutually exclusive some changes have been made. Some categories have been thoroughly revised; some have been rejected; few have been added and more clear designations are made. Various simplified models, albeit not as main references, have served as enrich the model.



The non-verbal behaviours examined in the study were facial pleasantness (e.g. smile) or grimace, affirmative or negative head movement, and silence. The rationale for studying these and no other verbal behaviors is the lack of a detailed system which handles non-verbal behaviors.

3.5.1. Positive Feedback

As noted earlier the classification for positive feedback has been made based on Zahorik's (1970a) model which better handles positive feedback than negative feedback.

Zahorik's model has two broad classifications: direct feedback and indirect feedback. Direct feedback is defined as "Oral remarks that have a major purpose of conveying information to the pupil about the value of his behavior" and indirect feedback is defined as "oral questions and statements that have a primary purpose other than providing feedback, but questions and statements from which the child can infer the value of his behavior" (Zahorik:1970a) As a result of this classification both positive and negative feedback could be found under either of the two broad classifications. For the purpose of this study this classification has been avoided.

Out of the total 26 categories in Zahorik's model 13 categories handle positive response. All of these categories have been maintained with some slight modifications. Five sub-classes are identified. The first sub-class is termed

as 'Direct Acceptance' since all of the categories that come under it show a student that his answer is directly acknowledged. A new category (Non-verbal Acceptance) is added to this sub-class. Since Zahorik's model was developed to handle verbal treatments only it did not incorporate this feature. What Zahorik called 'Positive Answer' has been termed 'Positive Repetition' for the latter term clearly defines the category.

The three types of reproof denial in Zahorik's model (simple reproof denial, elaborate r^eproof and elaborate denial) are used under class II categories in the current system of analysis. Chaudron's (1977) single category which is alone made to handle the feature of negation is rejected in favour of the above relatively detailed categories of Zahorik.

Zahorik's two categories (Miscellaneous feedback; and praise confirmation and reproof denial) are put under class III categories in the system of analysis developed for the current study. This is basically done because these categories cannot be put either under positive feedback or negative feedback in view of the function each performs.

There are five categories of Zahorik which have altogether been dropped. These are negative answer repetition, response improvement statement, one answer solicitation without clues, one-answer solicitation with clues; and

positive answer and negative answer. Most of these categories are rejected in favour of similar but detailed and clear categories identified by Chaudron for handling negative feedback.

3.5.2. Negative Feedback

The system of analysis for negative feedback contains most of the categories identified by Chaudron. Chaudron (1977) identifies 22 types in his model of discourse. Out of these 19 have been maintained. Two categories (explanation and complex explanation) are reduced to one category (i.e. explanation) because of the same function they perform. As in the case of categories which handle positive feedback a regrouping of similar categories has been made. Accordingly, ten sub-classes have been identified. A new category (i.e. Non-verbal Rejection) has also been added. One category which Chaudron names 'negation' is abandoned and this is because it is not exhaustive enough.

This kind of feedback as a class is perhaps a new addition. It is included based on the belief that the system of analysis must have another dimension to handle utterances which may not fit into the method of description already developed. The basic idea for the inclusion of this class emanates from Flander's system of analysis (1970) whose tenth category is dubbed as 'Confusion'. Category 16.1 is put under this class for it appears difficult to put

it under either of the two main classes of feedback (i.e. positive and negative feedback).

3.6. Counting Exchanges and Treatment Types

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) classify exchanges into boundary and teaching exchange. The function of boundary exchange is to signal the beginning or end of what the teacher considers to be a stage in the lesson. Although this type is used as a signal to identify the other type of exchange it is not coded in the current study. The exchange type which is the concern of the current study is the teaching exchange. This exchange consists of the individual steps by which the lesson progresses. Sinclair and Coulthard (Op. Cit.) further divide boundary exchange into 11 sub-categories six of which are free exchanges and the remaining five are bound exchanges. The six types of free exchanges are Teacher inform, Teacher direct, Teacher elicit, Pupil elicit, Pupil inform and Check. Among these Teacher elicit is the subject of the current study since it is the only exchange which includes all exchanges designed to obtain verbal contributions from students. Among the five bound exchanges four (Reinitiation I, Reinitiation II, Listing and Repeat) have become the subject of the study.

In identifying exchanges, every exchange in the sample teachers' talk that involved the provision of feedback is

noted (as cited under 3.4) when the structure of the exchange between the teacher and student/s is 1-R-FP (Initiation (teacher) - Response (student) - Follow-up teacher). The first elicitation could involve various moves (which involve either positive or negative feedback or still the combination of both) before it ends with the teacher's remark about the adequacy/inadequacy of students' statements pertaining to it (i.e. the elicitation made first). The boundaries of the various extracts have been made by strictly adhering to this principle. But this has not always been a simple task.

In counting the various types of feedback found in the sample lessons care has been taken to avoid double-counting. A single word, phrase or sentence offered as feedback in a single utterance was not counted more than once unless it has a different function. However, a single utterance of the teacher could have two or more types of feedback. This would mean that a teacher could use the various categories in combination. Thus the data collected indicate that while there are 166 exchanges these result in 875 functions that are categorised.

Extracts are consecutively numbered for all teachers and are appended at the end. In the appendices are only that part of tapescript containing feedback. Category numbers which are consecutive for the three classes of feedback are

given at the left margin. It must be noted that a simple reading of the transcription (without observation of and repeated viewing of recorded lessons) may not always help one in identifying every type of feedback.

The full model of description is provided below together with descriptions about each category, and examples of exponent of expression. It is the hope of the researcher that this may simplify the task of understanding the fourth chapter of the thesis.

Class I Categories: Feedback types that confirm the accuracy of previous communications

Sub-class	Category No. & type	Description	Example of Exponent of Expression
I. DIRECT ACCEPTANCE	1.1. Simple Praise Confirmation	Teacher (T) confirms the accuracy of previous communication by using words like 'Yes'; 'allright'; 'yeah', 'correct', etc.	S. Senayit is so sincere as Martha T. Yes
	1.2. Elaborate Praise	Teacher's elaborate praise of the student(s) by using 'very good' 'exactly' or extended confirmation. The praise is most often directed at the student.	Eg. That's very good thinking
	1.3. Elaborate Confirmation	T offers elaborate confirmation about the correctness of the sentence. The focus is on the sentence.	S. Old tradition has deprived some people of their rights to eat meat. T. Old tradition has deprived some people of their rights to eat meat. That's it.
	1.4. Non-verbal Acceptance	T indicates 'Yes' by using non-verbal signals (Eg. Shaking head up and down)	
	1.5. Positive Repetition (optional expansion & Reduction)	T repeats S's utterance positively to indicate its being accepted	S. By the same token you can contract this SS Oughtn't T. Oughtn't
	1.6. Positive Explanation	T elaborates on or explains why the answer given by S is correct	S. didn't T. didn't, Yes. The second Part of the sentence should be 'however he didn't Exactly, Yes.

Sub-class	Category No. & type	Description	Example of Exponent of Expression
II. RESPONSE EXTENSION: DEVELOPMENT	2.1. Response development solicitation without clues	T further extends S's response without providing clues	T. What is the difference we made here ? S. Not use more T. Why ?
	2.2. Response development solicitation with clues.	T further extends S's response by providing clues	T. And the farmers are to be given what ? S. Land T. <u>They are going to be given land ... To do this to give them the land has to come from where ?</u>
	2.3. Response development Statement	T completes S's response by adding another information	
III. RESPONSE EXTENSION: IMPROVEMENT	3.1. Response Improvement solicitation without clues	T demands the S to complete the correct response the S has already began without providing clue	"Great what ?" after pupil responds with "Great" to question concerning what country princess Margaret is from) Source: Zahorik 1970a
	3.2. Response Improvement: Solicitation with clues	T demands the S to complete the correct response the S has began by providing clue	"Great what ? It's another name for England." (after pupil responds with "Great" to question concerning what country princess Margaret is from (Source: Zahorik 1970a)

Sub-class	Category No. and Type	Description	Example of Exponent of Expression
IV. SOLICITATION REPETITION	4.1. Several Answers solicitation without clues	T asks several questions without providing clues after a S has given correct answer for previous question.	T. What's the meaning of install S. establish T. What else ?
	4.2. Several Answers Solicitation with clues	T asks several questions with clues after a S has given correct answer for previous question	T. Don't retreat you should S. Resist the enemy T. And with ought to'
V. LESSON PROGRESSION	5. Lesson Progression: different topic	T asks or talks about a different topic after a S's correct response	T. This Part is what kind of clause ? S. Adverb clause of manner T. The nurse acts as though he were a doctor. Is he a doctor ?

Class II Categories: Feedback types that show rejection or demand adjustment of student's response.

Sub - class	Category No. & Type	Description	Example of Exponent of Expression
6. Interrupt	6. Interrupt	T interrupts S utterance following error or before S has completed	
7. Accept	7. Accept	Simple approving or accepting word as a sign of accepting content of utterance or usually as a sign of reception of utterance but T may immediately correct a linguistic error.	<p>S. Whether to fight for the welfare (Pron:) of the oppressed masses or not is a matter of doctrine.</p> <p>T. Yes Welfare (Pron:). Welfare is the right pronunciation of the word.</p>
8. Negation	8.1. Simple Reproof denial	T shows rejection by saying 'no' 'uh uh', 'not exactly'	<p>T. Who can tell us the meaning of offsprings ?</p> <p>S. Individual</p> <p>T. No</p>
	8.2. Elaborate Reproof	T shows rejection by verbally 'attacking' the S	<p>S. (Makes mistake related with the use of 'ought to')</p> <p>T. Should I go to a goldsmith and make a necklace where there is 'ought to' on it and put it on your neck ?</p>
	8.3. Elaborate denial	T Shows rejection by using elaborate phrase or sentence	
	8.4. Nonverbal Rejection	T indicates 'no' by using non-verbal signals (Eg. Shaking head sideways, shaking finger, etc.)	



Sub-class	Category No. & Type	Description	Examples of Exponent of Expression
9. REPETITION	9.1. Repeat	T requests S to repeat utterance with intent to have S self-correct	
	9.2. Repetition with NO CHANGE (Optional Expansion and Reduction)	T repeats S utterance with no change of error, or omission of error	T. Migrant ... Yes ? S. To move from one place to another. T. To move from one place to another. Is it ?
	9.3. Repetition with NO CHANGE except in EMPHASIS (Opt. EXP. & RED.)	T repeats S utterance with no change of error, but emphasis locates fact of error	S. They help us tomorrow T. They help us ?
	9.4. Repetition with CHANGE (Optional EXP. & RED.)	Usually T simply adds correction and continues to other topics	S. World people to safeguard AIDS T. World people should be agitated to safeguard themselves and their children from AIDS
	9.5. Repetition with CHANGE and EMPHASIS (Option EXP. & RED.)	T adds emphasis to stress location of error and its correct formulation	S. You use an electrical (Pron: <i>eliktrikal</i>) pump to rise the water T. It's not electric / <i>eliktrik</i> It's electric / <i>I'lektrikal</i>
	9.6. Loop	T honestly needs a replay of part or full of S utterance due to lack of clarity or when it is not audible	
10. QUESTIONS	10.1. Original question	T repeats the original question that lead to response	
	10.2. Altered question	T alters original question syntactically but not semantically	
	10.3. Question 3 (Opt. RED; EXP; EMP; HASIS)	Numerous ways of asking for response, often with CLUES etc.	

Sub-Class	Category No. and Type	Description	Example of Exponent of Expression
11. Negative explanation prompt & clue	11.1. Explanation	T Provides information as to cause or type of error	
	11.2. Prompt	T uses a lead-in cue to lead S to required response	S. English is less harder than Maths T. English is less ?
	11.3. Clue	T reaction provides S with the nature of immediate correction, without providing correction	T. Why did te old bus break down on the hill ? S. The old bus break down on the hill since the roads was up & down T. The answer must be given in past tense.
	12. Transfer	T asks another S or several, or class to provide correct answer	
	13. Return	T returns to original error-maker for another attempt after TRANSFER	
	14. Verification	T attempts to assure understanding of correction; a new elicitation is implicit or made more explicit.	
	15. Provide	T Provides correct answer when S has been unable to answer	

Class III Categories: Miscellaneous Feedback

Category No. and Type	Description	Example of Exponent of Expression
16.1. Undecided	Teacher gives 'undecided' response by usually using words like 'may be'; 'yes and no'; etc	
16.2 . Other	Responses of the T which could not be grouped due to inaudible S response or T response or due to their ambiguous nature.	



CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

4.1. Introduction

As previously noted, the purpose of this investigation was to find out how Grade 11 English teachers behave when they offer feedback to their students. The analysis of results obtained will be done in two phases. First the presentation and discussion of quantitative data is made, then follows the presentation and discussion of descriptive data. This procedure was chosen mainly because, as might be imagined, simple categorization and tallying may obscure some necessary pieces of information. Moreover, there is the problem of reducing into tables some realizations and insights which have come out of the observations made.

4.2. Presentation and Discussion of Quantitative Data

4.2.1. Time Spent on Providing Feedback

Data analyses for this study focused on three major questions. The first question concerns the amount of time teachers spend in providing feedback in English classes. The data in the following table go towards answering that question.

Table 1. Time Spent on the Provision of Feedback

	Duration of Recorded Lesson	Time Spent on the Provision of Feedback	
		In minute	Percentage
T ₁	20	6.2	31
T ₂	55	1.3	2.4
T ₃	60	23.5	29.2
T ₄	25	7	28
T ₅	40	15.4	38.5
T ₆	40	12.2	30.5
T ₇	40	14.3	35.7
T ₈	40	13.6	34
Total	320	93.5	29.2

The result in the above table indicates that the research has, among other things, confirmed the assertion that teachers spend a good deal of the class-time on the provision of feedback. The 8 sample teachers on average spent 29.2 of the class-time on the provision of feedback. However, there is a clear difference between the sample teachers. This difference may be ascribed to different variables like the class-time each of them used, the nature of the lesson or the type of students' responses. If the lesson is a kind which demands verbal responses from students an increase in class-time may mean a situation where more feedback provision is noted. This is evidenced in the classroom talk of T₃, T₇, T₅ and T₆ when compared with T₁ and T₄. If the lesson is the kind which does not involve asking questions the feature we noted above will completely change. T₂, for

instance, was conducting a reading lesson whose method of presentation (i.e. first asking a student to read a paragraph aloud followed by the teacher's reading the same text aloud) did not allow for the occurrence of the various feedback types.

4.2.2. Types of Feedback Teachers Used

The second and the main question that this research sought to answer was the identification of the various types of feedback English teachers use in classrooms. The various types of feedback used, their frequency and success ratio is shown in the tables that follow and then discussed. First we examine the ways in which teachers dealt with correct answers. The discussion that follows the table is made by sub-class.

Table 2. Frequency of Teacher Feedback Behaviour In Class I Categories

Sub-Class	Category Name	Cate. Numb.	T ₁		T ₂		T ₃		T ₄		T ₅		T ₆		T ₇		T ₈		TOTAL	
			Freq.	Perc.	Freq.	Perc.	Freq.	Perc.	Freq.	Perc.	Freq.	Perc.	Freq.	Perc.	Freq.	Perc.	Freq.	Perc.	Freq.	Perc.
I. Direct Acceptance	Simple Praise	1.1	9	6.4	2	1.4	45	32.1	7	5	40	28.6	9	6.4	16	11.4	12	8.6	140	
	Confirmation																			
	Elaborate Praise	1.2	3	15	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5	-	-	13	65	3	15	20	
	Elaborate Confirmation	1.3											2	50		1	2	50	4	
	Non-Verbal Accpt.	1.4																		
	Positive Repetiti.	1.5	12	5.1	4	1.7	69	29.5	9	3.8	51	21.8	21	9	23	9.8	45	19.2	234	
Positive Explanation	1.6	1	5			2	10			3	15	2	10	5	25	7	35	20		
II. Response Extension: Develop- ment	Response Dev. Soli- ciation without clues	2.1	5	8.3			20	33.3	1	1.7	8	13.3	3	5			23	38.3	60	

Cont'd....

Sub-Class	Category Name	Cate. Number	T ₁		T ₂		T ₃		T ₄		T ₅		T ₆		T ₇		T ₈		Total	
			Freq.	Perc.	Freq.	Perc.	Freq.	Perc.	Freq.	Perc.	Freq.	Perc.	Freq.	Perc.	Freq.	Perc.	Freq.	Perc.	Freq.	Perc.
	Response Development: Solicitation with clues.	2.2	1	3.8	v20	76.9	1	3.8	3	11.5							1	3.8	26	
	Response Development Statement	2.3							1	100									1	
III. Response Extension Improve-	Response Improvement Solicitation without clues	3.1			1	100													1	
	Response Improvement Solcitation with clues	3.2																		
IV. Solicitation Repetition	Several answer solicitation without clues	4.1		1	3.6	10	35.7	2	7.2	14	50	1	36							28
	Several answer solicitation with clues	4.2	2	50		2	m50													4
V.	Lesson Progression	5				1														1
	Total Frequency and Percentage of Positive Feedback		33	6.1	7	1.3	169	31.3	20	3.7	121	22.4	38	7	57	10.6	93	17.3	539	

4.2.2.1. Direct Acceptance

The six categories identified in this sub-class accounted for 418 cases or 77.5% of the total positive feedback types used by the sample teachers. Among the five sub-classes identified it was possible to observe that teachers showed a high preference for this sub-class.

Table 2 indicates that amongst the categories in sub-class I, the most frequently used are repeating pupil's response positively (1.5) and simple praise confirmation (1.1) which have a frequency of 234 and 140 respectively. All of the sample teachers used these categories while reacting to correct student responses. Teachers' behaviour in the use of these two categories most frequently is indicative of the fact that after obtaining correct answer from a student they prefer to go onto their next task rather than to allow students to build on their answers or to tell the class why a student's answer is correct.

Next to the above two categories in the same sub-class come elaborate praise and positive explanation each of which has a frequency of 20. Elaborate praise (1.2) is used by four teachers and positive explanation (1.6) is used by six teachers. By going over the recorded data it was possible to observe that elaborate praise usually occurs when a student answers a question correctly after repeated failures by other students to provide the correct response (See Extract 11, 111, 112, 121 and 125). Positive explanation is basically used to either directly state to the class why a student's response is correct (Extract 102, 109, 110, 150) or to further elaborate the correct answer (Extract 64, 144, 145, 159). This category



does not, in almost all cases, appear alone.

All of the sample teachers reacted to the correct responses of students verbally. Unlike the provision of negative feedback no non-verbal acknowledgement or praise was detected when used alone. Of course, non-verbal acknowledgements like showing agreement by moving the head up and down accompanied the verbal treatments.

The least number of occurrence in this sub-class was observed in the use of elaborate confirmation. This may partly be due to the preference of teachers for category 1.1 and 1.5.

4.2.2.2. Response extension: development

The three categories under this sub-class totally account for 87 cases or 16.1% of the total frequency computed for positive feedback.

In this sub-class one category (i.e. 2.3) was used only once. This must have either been affected by the preference of teachers to use category 1.1, and 1.5 (this effect must also be borne in mind while considering the rare or the small number of occurrence for the other class I categories) or by the type of students' responses which did not require response development statement. Teachers prefer to nominate others to provide additional answers (as seen in the use of categories 2.1, 2.2, 4.1 and 4.2) or to reject all together what students say (as observed in the use of the various class I categories) rather than developing students' responses themselves.

Six teachers used response development: solicitation without clues (2.1 and it alone accounts for 11.1% of the total frequency computed for Class I categories. This category was basically used to help students reflect on what they said after correct answers (see Extract 23, 27,

47 and 77), to lead students to a specific answer the teacher seeks to obtain (Extract 24, 67) or to relate or check past knowledge - specially knowledge of grammar (See Extract 34, 44, 48, 74, 79). In other cases it is used to further ask students what is demanded by the text. The following example may illustrate the point. It is picked from Extract 142.

T: What does it mean ? Tear oneself away from ...

S. Depart from

T. Depart from. Can you make a sentence using depart from ?

There are several instances where this category is used for this purpose specially by T₅, T₆ and T₇.

When compared with response development; solicitation without clues (Category 2.1) Solicitation with clues (Category 2.2) was used in a limited number of instances. Teachers do not seem to care about providing students with clues when teachers further develop students' responses by soliciting. In the 20 instances noted, category 2.2. was used to genuinely develop correct answers (see Extract 26, 29, 37, 40, 43) or to lead students to a single answer the teacher seeks to obtain (See Extract 32, 34, 38, 76) The latter practice may indicate that there are teachers who prefer to look for specific answers which they have in mind rather than developing or using the correct answers or the contribution of students as it is. This may develop

a feeling in the student that whatever he wants to say in the foreign language there is only one way of doing so.

4.2.2.3. Response extension: Improvement

The single occurrence and the absence altogether of response improvement solicitation without clues (Category 3.1) and with clues (3.2) should be analysed in light with the nature of students' responses and largely of teachers' solicitations. The occurrence of category 3.1 highly depends on the existence in students' responses of partly correct answers which need further elicitation by the teacher for their completion. Sample teachers strictly followed the procedure of asking questions from the book the provision of whose answers required the memorization of certain patterns and vocabulary meanings. As a result of this, students' responses were most frequently judged as 'correct' or 'incorrect'. Accordingly, the treatments that followed tended to make use of other categories that indicate 'correctness' or 'incorrectness' than response extension with or without clues.

4.2.2.4. Solicitation Repetition

The use of several answers solicitation without clues (4.1) and several answers solicitation with clues (4.2) accounts for 5.9% of the total frequency counted for class I categories. Teachers have shown the preference of using

several answers solicitation without clues than with clues. Five teachers have used category 4.1. It is consistently observed in the data that teachers as much as possible avoid the use of clues. Category 4.2 is used only in 4 instances and it is used only by two teachers.

4.2.2.5. Lesson Progression

Only one of the teachers (who only used it once) used category 5 (Lesson Progression: different topic). This indicates that teachers most often prefer to react to students' correct responses by making use of the other categories and do not go on discussing other topics before doing so.

Thus far, an attempt has been made to see the various types of positive feedback. We now examine how the sample teachers handle incorrect utterances.

4.2.3. Types of Feedback Teachers Used: Class II Categories.

Teachers' feedback behaviour in class II categories was also identified and the frequency of the various types of treatment used was computed. The following table summarizes the result.

Table 3. Frequency (F) of Teacher Feedback Behaviour in Class I Categories

Sub-Class	Sub-class	Cate. Num.	T ₁		T ₂		T ₃		T ₄		T ₅		T ₆		T ₇		T ₈		TOTAL
			F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F
VI.	Interrupt	6							14	27.4			4	7.8	31	60.8	2	3.9	51
VII.	Accept	7	1	25							2	75							3
VIII. Negotiation	Simple ReproofDenial	8.1	3	9.7			5	16.1	5	16.1	3	9.7	1	3.2	14	45.2			31
	Elaborate Reproof	8.2	2	40	1	20	2	40											5
	Elaborate Denial	8.3																	
	Non-verbal Rejection	8.4							6	23.1					20	76.9			26
IX. Repetition	Repeat	9.1	3	13					1	4.3					16	69.6	3	13	23
	Repetition with no change	9.2				1	33.3		2	66.7									3
	Rep. with no change except in emphasis	9.3	1	20					3	60							1	20	5
	Repetition with change	9.4							1	25	2	50					1	25	4
	Rep. with change & emphasis	9.5	3	25							3	25			2	16.7	4	33.3	12
	Loop	9.6	1	2.5	2	5	11	27.5	2	5	3	7.5	2	5	5	12.5	14	35	40
X. Questions	Original question	10.1				1	20		2	40							2	40	5
	Altered question	10.2				1	33.3				2	66.7							3
	Question 3	10.3	1	5.3	1	5.3	7	36.8	5	26.3	3	15.8	2	10.5					19
XI	Explanation	11.1	4	23.5	1	5.9	7	41.2							5	29.4			
	Prompt and Clue	11.2	6	20			8	26.6	6	20	1	3.3	1	3.3	4	13.3	4	13.3	30
		11.3	4	22.2			2	11.1	2	11.1					9	50	1	5.5	18
XII	Transfer	12				2	12.5	7	43.7	1	6.2			6	37.5			16	
XIII.	Return	13																	
XIV.	Verification	14	1	9.1			2	18.2	2	18.2	2	18.2	1	9.1	2	18.2			11
XV.	Provide	15	2	13.3			4	26.6	4	26.6	1	6.7			4	26.6			15
Total Frequency and Percentage of Negative Feedback			32	9.5	5	1.5	53	15.6	62	18.4	23	6.8	11	3.3	118	35.1	33	9.8	336

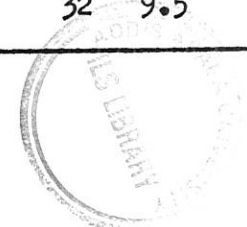


Table three gives the array of the various reactions to students' 'incorrect' utterances. In this class teachers used most of the treatments identified. There is only one category (category 13) which was not used by any of the sample teachers.

4.2.3.1. Interrupt

Against the expectation of the researcher, only half of the sample teachers used category 7 (Interrupt). Although the frequency of this category ranks first and covers 15.2% of the total number of treatments in Class II categories, it was highly used by one teacher (i.e. T₇) who used it in 31 instances out of the total 51.

Interruption in mid-sentence was basically used for three purposes: to pin-point area of students' errors (see Extract 53, 56 and 96); to ask for replay of inaudible student utterances (Extract 112, 116, 118); and to acknowledge the correctness of part of an unfinished sentence (See Extract 51, 89 and 117).

T₄ also used this category in 14 instances. This teacher only taught for twenty-five minutes of the class-time. Considering this it may be said that the teacher has a preference for the category. T₆ and T₈ used the category in only 4 and 2 instances respectively. It could, therefore, be said that only two teachers (T₇ and T₄) showed a high preference in using this category.

4.2.3.2. Accept

We have only two teachers who used the category of accept in three instances. The words used by the teachers resemble the words they commonly use while offering simple praise confirmation - words like 'Yes', 'alright', etc. However, in this category the words are used either as a sign of acceptance of utterance or as a sign of accepting the correctness of content only. Thus, teachers immediately correct linguistic errors:

S. Whether to fight for the welfare (Pron: *Walfear*) of the oppressed masses or not is a matter of doctrine.

T. Yes ... Welfare (Pron: *Welfear*), welfare is the the right pronunciation of the word...

(Extract 78)

The remaining six teachers did not use this category, perhaps because of its confusing nature or because whenever the student's utterance is correct in terms of content but has linguistic errors they only focus on the latter and do not want to acknowledge the correctness of the content. There are many instances in the data where teachers seem to be interested only in the form of the language (See Extract 48, 49, 51, 55, etc.) rather than in the content of what students say.

4.2.3.3. Negation

Direct rejection of students' incorrect utterances as designated by the sub-class 'negation' is the third largest used in class II categories. It covers 62 instances (or 18.45)

out of the total 336 occurrences. Among the four types of negation identified, the sample teachers used simple reproof denial (8.1) in 31 instances and told students their mistakes by frequently using the word 'no'. The collected data reveals that reactions which use 'no' are as rare after errors as 'good' and 'ok' or repetition of the correct answer are common after correct responses. One reason for this might be that teachers may feel the practice would be discouraging.

Next to simple reproof denial teachers used a non-verbal signal (8.4) to indicate 'incorrectness'. The most frequently used non-verbal signal is prolonged silence which is most often followed by nomination (See Extract 111, 112, 114, 121, 124, etc.) In only one instance did a teacher use grimace as a sign of disapproval (Extract 117). Non-verbal signals were used only by two teachers (T₄ and T₇). The other teachers preferred to react verbally. Although the non-verbal signals that were noted are those which were primarily used to indicate the existence of error in students' responses, signals like moving the head sideways accompanied other verbal treatments.

There were only five instances of using elaborate reproof. Most of them have a complaining nature. Here is an example:

T. You didn't follow: What have I told you? 'ought' must be followed by the full infinitive 'ought to'. Then

you write 'ought' plus 'to' and 'they'. Should I go to a goldsmith and make a necklace where there is 'ought to' on it and put it on your neck ?

(Extract 11)

The small occurrence of this category may not only be the result of teachers' preference for the other categories. The presence of the researcher together with the video-camera-man may have prevented teachers from using it. This at least suggests that teachers realise its being a poor method of feedback.

4.2.3.4. Repetitions

The six types of repetitions used by teachers cover almost 25.9% of the total reaction of teachers in class II categories. This sub-class ranks first in terms of the total frequency computed for the six types of repetition. Among the six types of repetition, Loop (9.6) was used by all the sample teachers; repeat (9.1) and repetition with change and emphasis (9.5) repetition with no change except in emphasis by four teachers (9.3), and repetition with change (9.4) by three and repetition with no change (9.2) by two teachers respectively.

Loop (category 9.6) was mainly used to ask students to repeat inaudible utterances. Although done differently, this category is the only "normal" repetition that is used outside class.

Next to category 9.6, Repeat (Category 9.1) was used to ask students to repeat their incorrect utterances with the teachers' intent to have them self-correct. However, since teachers most often used this category with no accompanying clue or explanation on the nature of students' errors it did not help students to adjust their utterances. A simple 'again' after incorrect utterance does not seem helpful (See Extract 122, 124, 130, 132, etc.).. In only three instances did teachers use the category together with some clues (See Extract 115, 135, & 156).

Repetition with no change and repetition with no change except in emphasis (Category 9.2 and 9.3) were used either to help students discover location of errors or to look for correct formulation of their response. Category 9.3 seems better in serving the latter purpose. Teachers used rising intonations while repeating incorrect utterances of students thereby indicating fact of error. The following example illustrates this:

- T. Which part is the adverb clause of manner ?
S. He were a teacher
T. He were a teacher ?

(Extract 144)

Repetition with change (Category 9.4) was used only in four instances. Teachers modeled incorrect student response, substituting grammatically correct forms where

necessary without calling attention to the correction in any other way (See Extract 65 & 66). Its rare occurrence may indicate that teachers put stringent demands on grammatical accuracy and are less interested in commending students for expressing ideas in the foreign language (This relates with the discussion under 4.2.3.2). Findings in this sub-class more or less concur with the results Chaudron (1977) obtained.

4.2.3.5. Question 3

Teachers were also observed using the three categories of questions when students failed to give correct responses. Out of 27 such instances, category 10.3 (Question 3) was used 19 times. Since this strategy provides explanation on the nature of students' errors and offers some clues on the nature of their immediate correction it seems helpful in eliciting correct responses (See Extract 10, 23, 40, 48). In 5 instances teachers simply repeated the questions they previously asked with no additional information, clue or explanation. Added to this altered question (Category 10.2) was also used in 3 instances. In function and pattern category 10.2 resembles category 9.1.

4.2.3.6. Clue, Prompt and Explanation

Teachers also provided explanations and clues indicating the cause or type of error and the nature of its immediate formulation, and also used prompts whose purpose was mainly

to serve as a lead-in cue. The sub-class accounts for 65 occurrences or 19.34% of the total frequency computed for class II categories.

In this sub-class the most frequently used category is 11.2 (prompt); This category also has the fourth largest occurrence out of the 23 categories identified. Seven teachers used this technique. They frequently reduced students' utterances and asked them to repeat utterances beginning at the point of error by at times using slight rising intonation.

18 instances of clue and 17 of explanation were also coded. Clues (11.3) were given when students did not follow instructions given (See Extract 16, 26, 124, 127) or in other cases when teachers deemed its provision necessary and helpful to adjust students' utterances. However, its success seems to depend on the kind of information it contains. Simple assertions like 'there is something wrong' do not seem helpful.

Explanations (11.1) frequently occurred when after many failures teachers provided correct answers to the students. Surprisingly, they were not given while repeated attempts are being made by students to come to the 'correct' response (See Extract 19, 27, 111, and 117). Most of the explanations given focus on grammar.

4.2.3.7. Other Categories

The remaining categories (category 12-15) were used in 42 instances.

Teachers used category 14 (verification) to assure understanding of correction by students. A new elicitation was frequently noted. This category was specially used after pronunciation errors by students (See Extract 11, 77, 79). Teachers corrected pronunciation errors rather than asking other students to supply the correct model.

In only 15 instances teachers themselves provided correct answers (or used category 15) for questions students were not able to answer. This was actually done by five teachers. The figure for this category may be a clear indication of the fact that teachers prefer to go on looking for answers from the students themselves than providing it.

The data in class II categories reveal the rigorous practice of strategies which do not seem helpful in eliciting correct responses. We observe various ordeal-like instances where students struggle to provide 'correct' responses with no or little help coming from the teacher. This observation, coupled with repeated view of the video, has led the researcher to attempt to see which among the most frequently used categories in Class II led students to correct responses. The main immediate measurement of effectiveness of any type

of corrective reaction would be a frequency count of the student's correct responses following each type (Chaudron 1977). This was computed as follows:

$$\text{Success Ratio} = \frac{\text{Number of Successes}}{\text{Number of Occurrence}}$$

It must, however, be noted that since students' discovery of correct answers cannot only be attributed to the kind of category used, the computation in Table 4 basically serves to establish an "associative link" between the kind of category used and its success in eliciting correct responses. (Op.Cit)

14 categories were identified based on their frequency. Five of these were dropped because they demand little or no effort on the part of the student to do what is expected of him. These categories are loop (9.6), repetition with CHANGE and EMPHASIS (9.5), Verification (14); and Provide (15) which is excluded because no student response comes after its provision. Accordingly, the following computation was made for 9 categories.

Table 4. Success Ratio of the Most Frequently Used Class II Categories

Categories Identified	# Occurrence	# Successes	Success Ratio(in%)
Question 3 (10.3)	19	12	63.1
Clue (11.3)	18	5	27.8
Repeat (9.1)	23	5	21.7
Prompt (11.2)	30	6	20
Explanation (11.1)	17	2	11.8
Interruption (6)	51	5	9.8
Simple Reproof Denial (8.1)	31	3	9.7
Nonverbal Rejection	26	2	7.7
Transfer	16	1	6.25

The figures in Table 4 are suggestive of a positive relationship between success and the use of Question 3 (10.3), Repeat (9.1), Prompt (11.2) and Explanation (11.1) in eliciting the needed responses from the students.

The high success ratio of Question 3 (Category 10.3) may be attributed to the fact that it incorporates the features of clue and explanation (Rf. The discussion under 3.2.3.5).

Next to Question 3 (10.3), the use of clue has provided students with a better chance of offering correct responses. The success of clues, as noted earlier, obviously depends on the kind of information they contain. For instance, clues such as 'you mispronounced this word' (Extract 14) may not help the student to get the answer right. Clues offered when students are not observing directions are effective in setting students on the right trace. (See Xtract 26, 124. etc.).

The success of repeat (9.1) more than the success of prompt may be the result of its being more clear and direct

in telling the student that there is a mistake in his/her utterance. This category seems more successful in eliciting correct responses when used together with explanation and clue (See Extract 11 and Extract 135) than when used alone (Extract 13, 111, 112, 113, etc.).

Prompt is also unsuccessful when used alone (Extract 16, 28, 51, 52, 53, 114, etc.). It may have a better chance when it is not highly reduced (Extract 104, 138) or when used together with explanation and clue (Extract 16).

Transfer is not a good strategy in eliciting correct responses. This is even^{so} when it is preceded by other categories like simple reproof denial (8.1) (See Extract 49, 91, 103, 110, 113, 115, etc.) and non-verbal rejection (8.4) (Extract 48, 50, 52, 111, 125, 134, etc.).

From the greatest number of interruptions, simple reproof denial and non-verbal rejection and yet the low success rate these categories exhibit, it could be concluded that they may not be helpful in eliciting correct responses. This seems true of transfer also.

4.2.4. Teacher Feedback Behaviour in Class III Categories

The frequency of teachers' feedback behaviour in two of class III categories was computed. The result is given hereunder.

Table 5. Teachers' Feedback Behaviour in Class III Categories

Category Number	T ₁		T ₂		T ₃		T ₄		T ₅		T ₆		T ₇		T ₈		Total
	Freq	Per	Freq	Per	Freq	Per	Freq	Per	Freq	Per	Freq	Per	Freq	Per	Freq	Per	
16.1	-	-	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
16.2	-	-	2	28.6	-	-	-	-	2	28.6	-	-	1	14.3	2	28.6	7
Total	-	-	3	37.5	-	-	-	-	2	25	-	-	1	12.5	2	25	8

This class contains only two categories one of which indicates the undecided nature of teachers while they offer feedback (16.1). From a single occurrence of this category it could be said that teachers prefer to indicate the correctness or incorrectness of students by using either Class I or Class II Categories.

A few reactions which did not lend themselves to the system of analysis developed and those reactions which could not be grouped due to inaudible utterances of students and teachers were put in category 16.2. The figures in this category indicate that except in the case of 8 reactions it was possible to code and analyse the various feedback types.

4.2.5. Computed Mean and Standard Deviation for Class I and Class II Categories

Computations of Mean (X) and Standard deviation (S) were made to see how many times on average teachers used each of the categories identified in Class I and II; and to see the difference among the teachers in using these categories. The results are given in the subsequent two tables.

The mean was basically computed to show the arithmetic average of the feedback type the sample teachers used. It must be noted that the figures have in some cases been affected

by the wide difference (range) we find between the highest and the lowest figure. For instance, if we take category 1.5 (Positive repetition) the range is 65, and for simple praise confirmation (category 1.1) the range is 43.

Table 6. Mean and Standard Deviation Computed for Class I Categories

Category No.	Mean	SD
1.1.	17.4	11.9
1.2.	2.5	3.76
1.3.	0.5	0.75
1.4.	-	-
1.5.	29.2	21.7
1.6.	2.5	2.2
2.1.	7.5	7.5
2.2.	3.4	6
2.3.	0.12	0.13
2.4.	0.12	0.3
3.2.	-	-
3.1.	3.5 b	4.6
4.2.	0.5	0.83
5 b	0.12	0.3

In handling correct responses, the eight sample teachers on average used simple praise confirmation (1.1) and positive repetition (1.5) seventeen and twenty-nine times respectively.

Positive explanation (1.6) was used by six teachers and on average sample teachers used it 2.5 times. Response development solicitation without clues (2.2), and several answers solicitation without clues (4.1) have a mean frequency of 3.4 and 3.5 respectively. These categories were used by five teachers. Elaborate praise (1.2) has a mean frequency of 2.5. The other categories which have a mean frequency below 1 (Elaborate confirmation and several answers solicitation with clues) were used only by two teachers; and a single teacher used response development statement (2.3) and response improvement solicitation without clues (3.1)

The standard deviation computed in general indicates that teachers do not vary among themselves in the use of response development statement (2.3), response improvement solicitation without clues (3.1), Lesson Progression (5), elaborate confirmation (1.3), several answers solicitation with clues (4.2) and positive explanation (1.6). A significant difference among teachers was seen in the use of positive repetition (1.5) and simple praise confirmation (1.1). With regard to these categories teachers bear resemblance with each other only in that they all used them.

From the 14 categories identified for Class I, it was possible to observe that teachers reacted most frequently by using simple praise confirmation (1.1), positive repetition (1.5), positive explanation (1.6), response development solicitation with clues (2.2) and several answers

solicitation without clues (4.1). Among these categories a great similarity is seen between teachers in the use of positive explanation (1.6). Next to this category come several answers solicitation without clues (4.1) and response development solicitation with clues (2.2).

Similar computations were also made for class II categories. The results are indicated in the table below.

Table 7. Mean and Standard Deviation Computed for Class II Categories.

Name of Category	Category Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
Interrupt	6	6.4	9.3
Accept	7	.37	.62
Simple Reproof denial	8.1	3.9	3.8
Elaborate reproof	8.2	0.62	0.7
Elaborate denial	8.3	-	-
Non-verbal rejection	8.4	3.2	6
Repeat	9.1	2.9	4.7
Repetition with NO CHANGE	9.2	0.37	0.6
Repetition with NO CHANGE except in EMPHASIS	9.3	0.62	0.9
Repetition with CHANGE	9.4	0.5	0.59
Repetition with CHANGE and EMPHASIS	9.5	1.5	1.2
Loop	9.6	5	4.5
Original Question	10.1	0.62	0.7
Altered question	10.2	0.37	0.6
Question 3	10.3	2.4	2.9
Explanation	11.1	2.1	2.1
Prompt	11.2	3.7	2.3
Clue	11.3	2.2	2.5
Transfer	12	2	2.3
Return	13	-	-
Verification	14	1.4	0.49
Provide	15	1.9	1.32

No computation was made for category 8.3 and 13 since they were not used by any one of the eight sample teachers. Teachers showed no deviation in avoiding both of these categories while they handled in correct utterances.

Most of the sample teachers preferred to offer negative feedback by frequently using category 6.9.6, 11.2, 8.1, 8.4 and 9.1. Among these categories teachers showed strong similarity in the use of category 14, 15, and 11.2. Although they are used by a limited number of teachers the sample teachers are also much alike in the use of category 9.3, 9.2, 10.2, 7, 8.2, 10.1 and 9.3. We do not see much agreement among teachers in the use of category 6, 8.4, 9.1, 9.6, 8.1, 10.3 and 11.3. These categories are idiosyncratic to teachers and perhaps signs of different styles and methods.

4.3. Presentation and Discussion of Descriptive Data

In this section an attempt is made to correlate the results from the eight classes and point out some general trends that the observation data suggest.

The whole procedure of feedback provision or the most common triad cycle in teachers' talk - Question - Answer - Comment - was done in an environment which teachers strictly defined. Almost all of the questions or elicitations were made from the Grade 11 ENE text book. Answers to questions

related to grammar were expected to confer with the rules specified in the book or with those specified by the teacher. Conformity or failure in observing these rules provided teachers with the grounds for accepting or rejecting responses. Even when students were asked the meanings of words they were expected to keep to dictionary definitions or definitions given in the textbook. There were only a few instances in which students were asked to contribute their own comments, ideas, etc. in the progression of lessons observed. However, most of the time they were only in the class to give responses to whatever the teacher asked.

In addition to this general observation, specific discussions relating to class I and class II categories are made hereunder.

4.3.1. Class I Categories

When teachers react to students' correct responses certain kinds of Class I categories occur comparatively frequently in classrooms and that other kinds are very much less common.

Teachers preferred to use category 1.1 and 1.5 more often than others when they wanted to confirm the accuracy of students' communication. Although not pointed out in the numerical tables, these two categories were repeatedly used together. The following exchange is a typical example

of the data collected.

T. What's the meaning of doctrine ?

S. Beliefs and teachings of a political party

T. Yeah, beliefs and teachings of a political party

(Extract 58)

Category 1.1, is rarely coded occurring alone although this is not always the case for category 1.5. This combination is common for the other categories also. Categories in class I generally are used in combination more than we see for class II categories

Words like 'Yes', 'alright' and 'good' which serve the function of simple praise confirmation were also used to indicate to the students that the teacher is ready for another person to perform (coded as transfer) or that he has accepted content while immediately providing correction on linguistic errors (category 7).

Teachers' preferences for category 1.1 and 1.5; and, next to these, for 2.1 and 4.1 may partly be the result of their being easy to manipulate. Categories which specially involve clues (2.2 & 4.2) seem more demanding. It has been possible to observe that teachers do not want to develop students' positive statement except that of confirming its correctness. They develop students' positive statements usually when this is required by the textbook. Teachers have also shown preference in using categories like 2.1 and

4.1 which involve no clues than categories which incorporate the feature of clue.

Apart from the fact that some categories are easy to manipulate teachers may have avoided the use of the other categories thinking that these might consume the class-time. This does not seem justified considering the high frequency of positive repetition which at times involves the repetition of long sentences.

Apart from individual differences the nature of the lesson and the time the teacher uses may go towards accounting for the variation exhibited among teachers in the use of the different feedback types. T₁ and T₄ who only used 20-25 minutes of the normal class-time have a total of 33 and 20 occurrences of class I categories in their reactions respectively - small figures compared to the other teachers.

The only teacher who used only 3 categories (this teacher has been observed consistently using the least number of feedback types identified for the study) is T₂. He was conducting a reading lesson and followed a procedure of asking students to read aloud, followed by the teacher's reading aloud the same text and explaining the gist of the various paragraphs and the meanings of words in the passage. The teacher himself frequently offered explanations to the meanings of words rather than eliciting responses from

students. This strategy left no room for asking students questions and for further observation by the researcher of the teacher's reaction.

The sum total of positive feedback is 539. This exceeds the occurrence of negative feedback by 203. This would obviously mean that in the sample classes more correct responses were noted than incorrect ones.

4.3.2. Class II Categories

Since most lessons were teaching grammar patterns or vocabulary and meaning, there was little or no tolerance of errors. Tolerance of grammatical errors was only observed in the case of T₅ and T₈ in two or three instances when they were reacting to responses after asking students to construct sentences based on words given. The long chains of elicitation and reelicitations in the course of the lessons were made to correct simple grammatical errors which were not relevant to understanding between the teacher and the learner. Teachers' assistance was not in general geared toward enabling the students to express content within specified limits but towards accuracy of response (See Extract 24, 28, 34, 126, etc.)

After errors of pronunciation, short repetition cycles were demanded by the sample teachers (see extract 11, 14,

77, 79, 153, etc.) Some eleven pronunciation errors appeared in the data. These errors were not tolerated and were rather the causes for the use of interruption. Students were required to repeat correct models after the teacher.

The data and the observation made strongly suggest that "the major goal of these lessons seemed to be to have students answer questions and use patterns in a way the teacher had planned - with no variation allowed" (Fanselow 1990:586). This seems true not only for situations in which students provided correct answers but also even when students gave correct answers. Extract 34 provides a typical example.

At times teachers begin to give corrections on individual words and immediately go on correcting the full utterance thus confusing students as to what teachers expect them to do (See Extract 111).

Concurrent with the trends seen in Fanselow's findings (Op.Cit: 587-8), many cycles in the sample classes contained instances of repeated errors due in part, perhaps, to the fact that the teachers often did not indicate either that an error had occurred or where it had occurred. Exchanges in Extract 48, 52, 124, 136 etc. reveal this.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This paper has attempted to address the significance of feedback provision in language classrooms.

True, the most common type of communication in the classroom involves a teacher's elicitation and a student's response which is followed by the reaction of the teacher (Bellack 1969; Sinclair and Coulthard 1977). As attested by Bellack (1969) "if this sequence does indeed define a general pattern of classroom discourse, it would seem to be important to investigate this sequence of moves in greater detail" the current research was conducted in this spirit.

To achieve the aim of the study eight experienced ESL teachers were selected by lot. Each of them was recorded for a single period. A model of description was developed with the use of which it was possible to classify, analyse and objectively talk about the feedback behaviour of the sample teachers.

5.1. Conclusions

We have touched on three questions that hold significant factors for achieving the main purpose of the study. These were:

- (a) How much of the class-time is spent on the provision of feedback ?
- (b) What types of feedback do teachers use ?
- (c) Does there exist a regular pattern in the reactions of teachers ?

From the analyses and observations made based on the aforementioned questions, it was possible to arrive at the following conclusions.

5.1.1. The current research has, among other things, clearly shown that teachers spend a great deal of the class-time for the provision of feedback. It has been found out that 29.2% of the class time (or almost 12.4 minutes) is spent for this purpose. Although teachers spend a great proportion of the class-time for the provision of feedback their strategies do not seem successful. Teachers do not encourage students to expand on their replies. Sometimes teachers distort the contribution of students in their demand to fit students' responses to teachers' frame of reference. Most of teachers' treatments fail to serve as a means of clarifying meanings and increasing understanding.

5.1.2. The results of this research indicate that teachers' feedback behaviour is a rigid behaviour. In both classes I and class II categories a limited number of feedback types occur comparatively more frequently than others.

These are simple praise confirmation (1.1), positive repetition (1.5), response development solicitation without clues (2.1) and several answers solicitation without clues (4.1) from class I; and interrupt (6), simple reproof denial (8.1), Loop (9.6), Prompt (11.2) and non-verbal rejection from class II categories. This does not necessarily mean that teachers showed agreement between themselves in the use of these categories. From the standard deviation computed it was possible to note that teachers showed much agreement between themselves in the use of positive explanation (1.6), several answers solicitation without clues (4.1) and response development solicitation with clues (2.2) in class I; and repetition with no change except in emphasis (9.3), repetition with no change (9.2), altered question (10.2), accept (7) and elaborate reproof (8.2) in class II categories (See Table 2, 3, 6 and 7).

5.1.3. The most frequently used categories are not necessarily the most successful ones. Computation of success ratio for some of the most frequently used class II categories supports this conclusion. It was possible to note positive relationship between success and the use of Question 3 (10.3), clue (11.3) repeat (9.1), prompt and explanation in eliciting correct responses. The use of clues, questions (10.3) and explanation has a better chance in eliciting correct answers not only when these categories are used alone but also when they are used together and when they supplement other categories like repeat (9.1), prompt and transfer.

5.1.4. Teachers strictly defined the environment in which students should operate. They also preferred to put stringent demands on grammatical accuracy and pronunciation. As a result of this practice long chains of elicitation and reelicitation in the course of the lessons were noted which were not relevant to understanding between teachers and students. This clearly indicates that teachers are most interested in the form of the language than in what students say.

5.1.5. Teachers provided feedback by using verbal and non-verbal signals. Non-verbal signals usually accompanied other categories in both classes. In class II, however, they were primarily used to indicate to the student that his utterances are not correct. However, this strategy is not effective in eliciting correct response. It has one of the least success-ratio, computed (see Table 4).

5.1.6. Most of the sample teachers waited for students to finish their utterances before beginning to provide feedback. This seems an encouraging practice compared with other findings which indicated that teachers frequently cut-off student responses before completion when they thought that the responses are incorrect (Holley and King 1971; Chaudron 1977).

5.1.7. Students generally receive little or no help from teachers in their attempt to provide correct utterances.

Teachers spend most of the class-time due to this strategy. In this regard the current finding does not concur with the findings of Fanselow (1977), Chaudron (1977) and Holley and King (1971) who reported that providing correct answers was the most popular treatment in their data. The strategy used by the sample teachers is what McHoul (1990) calls "the strategy of indicating unacceptable student answers without providing direct corrections as such." The practice of the sample teachers resembles what Hicks (1983:245) has found out about Tanzanian teachers:

They (the teachers) are simply putting pressure on the class to give an answer by using silence, repetition of the question, urging or renominating, or as a final sign of the failure of elicitation process telling them what to say.

This practice may be common due to linguistic inadequacies on the part of the teachers (rather than pedagogic ignorance) as suggested by Hicks (Loc. Cit.) and Yoseph (1990) or teachers may think that the other categories are time-consuming. Another reason may be that the above categories are easy to manipulate.

5.1.8. The results of the . . . research further revealed that teachers' feedback behaviour is complex behaviour. Teachers feedback behaviour is related to teachers' preference, the time available, the type of lesson in progression, the type of students' responses etc.

5.2. Recommendations

Conducted primarily as a descriptive study, this research did not intend to devise methods of increasing the effectiveness and efficiency of teachers' reactions. Nor did it venture to offer hard and fast prescriptions as to what particular direction the provision of feedback should take. However, going through the data and based on the observations made it is believed that a few speculative suggestions could be generated for teaching, learning and teacher training. It is in this context that the following recommendations are made.

5.2.1. One general suggestion that could be made is that teachers need to avoid using a narrow range of feedback types and are rather advised to use a wide variety of options available to them.

5.2.2. Teachers need to minimize their stringent demands for grammatical accuracy which were the causes for many of the unsuccessful chains of exchanges between teachers and students. As also found out by others (Holley & King 1971; and Hendrickson 1978) the avoidance of such a practice bears good results in helping learners communicate with the language more confidently and in producing greater participation and interaction between teachers and students.

5.2.3. Although the provision of feedback takes up a

sizeable proportion of the class-time the kinds of class II categories do not seem effective in eliciting correct responses. Hence teachers need to reflect on their behaviour so as to make some adjustments. Together with the need for using a wide variety of feedback types, teachers need to make sufficient use of feedback types like clue, explanation, and questions (10.3) which may be helpful in leading students to discover the correct answers for themselves.

5.2.5. Students could be made to actively participate in the procedure of feedback provision. Rather than to simply attempt to respond, students could be encouraged to ask questions after any task or question they do not understand.

5.2.6. The implications of research works which concentrate on teacher-talk should be given important place and their utilization should be sought by teacher training institutes which aim at increasing the effectiveness of teachers. In this regard this research suggests that a systematic approach to feedback provision would be more effective than random feedback provision.

However, there remains much to be done in this area. This research may be considered as an initial probe into the nature of the feedback behaviour of English teachers. Further investigations are warranted in the same area. As succinctly put by Fanslow (1987) our task should be "to explore not to conclude."

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Abdulkadir Ali. "Student-Teacher Interaction in English Classes in Four Schools in Addis Ababa". Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa University, 1983 (M.A. Thesis, Mimeographed).
- Allwright, Dick. Observation in the Language Classroom. London: Longman Group UK Ltd., 1988.
- Bellack, A. et al. The Language of the Classroom. New York: Teachers' College Press, Columbia University, 1966.
- Bellack, A. "The Language of the Classroom: Meanings Communicated in Highschool Teaching," The Nature of Teaching: A Collection of Readings. ed. Nelson, L.N.: Massachusetts: Blaisdell Publishing Company, 1969. 93-106.
- Birdsong, D. and Margaret Ann Kassen. "Teachers' and Students' Evaluations of Foreign Language Errors: A Meeting of Minds?" In The Modern Language Journal, Vol. 72, No. 1, Spring, 1988.
- Chaudron, C. "A Descriptive Model of Discourse in the Corrective Treatment of Learner's Errors" In Language Learning, Vol. 21, No. 1, June, 1977.
- Clark, R. Curriculum Renewal in School Foreign Language Learning. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1987.
- Clifford, M.M. Practising Educational Psychology. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1981.
- Cohen, A.D. "Error Correction and the Training of Language Teachers" In The Modern Language Journal, Vol. 59, No., December, 1975.
- Coulthard, R.M. An Introduction to Discourse Analysis. London: Longman Group Ltd., 1977.
- Davison, D.C. "Perceived Reward Value of Teacher Reinforcement and Attitude Toward Teacher: An Application of Newcomb's Balance Theory" In Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 63, No. 5, October, 1972.

- Day, R.R., et al. "Corrective Feedback in Native-Nonnative Discourse" In Language Learning, Vol., 34, No. 2, June, 1984.
- Dulay, H., M. Burt and S. Krashen. Language Two. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1982.
- Edge, J. Mistakes and Correction. London: Longman Group UK. Ltd., 1989.
- Elawar, M.C. and Lyn Corno. "A Factorial Experiment Teachers' Written Feedback on Student Homework: Changing Teacher Behavior a Little Rather Than a Lot" In Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 77, No. 2, April, 1985.
- Ellis, Rod. Classroom Second Language Learning Development. New York: Pergamon Press, 1984.
- Fanselow, J.F. "The Treatment of Error in Oral Work." In Foreign Language Annals, Vol. 10, No. 4, 1977.
- Breaking Rules. Generating and Exploring Alternatives in Language Teaching. New York: Longman Group UK Ltd., 1987.
- Flanders, N.A. Analysing Teacher Behaviour. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1970.
- Gaskill, W.H. "Correction in Native Speaker - Nonnative Speaker Conversation," Discourse Analysis in Second Language Research. ed. D. Larsen-Freeman: Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers, 1980, 125-127.
- Gower, R. and S. Walters. Teaching Practice Handbook: A Reference Book for EFL Teachers in Training. Oxford: Heinemann International, 1983.
- Hammer, B. "Grade Expectations, Differential Teacher Comments, and Student Performance" In Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 63, No. 5, October, 1972.

- Mendrickson, J.M. "Error Correction in Foreign Language Teaching: Recent Theory, Research and Practice" In The Modern Language Journal, Vol. 62, No. 8, December, 1978.
- _____. "The Treatment of Error in Written Work." In The Modern Language Journal, Vol. 64, No. 2, 1980.
- Hicks, R.B. "A Study of the Classroom Language of Tanzanian Primary School Teachers of English with Special Reference to Their Interactive Discourse Ability and Linguistic Errors." London: Institute of Education, University of London, 1983 (Ph. D. Thesis, Mimeographed).
- Holley, F.M. & J.K. King "Imitation and Correction in Foreign Language Learning". In The Modern Language Journal, Vol. 55, No. 8, 1971.
- Hyland, K. "Providing Productive Feedback" In ELT Journal, Vol. 44, No. 4, October, 1990.
- Jefferson, G. "Side Sequences", Studies in Social Interaction. ed. D. Sudnow: New York: The Free Press, 1972.
- Klassen, J. "Using Student Errors for Teaching" In Forum, Vol. 29, No. 1, January 1991.
- Klein, S.B. Learning: Principles and Applications. New York: Mc Graw-Hill Book Company, 1987.
- Krashen, S.D and T. Terrell. The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom. California, Alemany Press, 1983.
- Lindgren. H.C. and W.N. Suter. Educational Psychology in the Classroom. Belmont, California: Wdsworth, Inc., 1985.
- Malamah-Thomas, A. Classroom Interaction. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1987.

- McHoul, A.W. "The Organisation of Repair in Classroom Talk" In Language in Society, Vol. 19, No. 3, 1990.
- Murphy, D.F. "Communication and Correction in the Classroom" In ELT Journal, Vol. 40, No. 2, April, 1986.
- Norrish, J. Language Learners and Their Errors, London: Macmillan Publishers, 1983.
- Nunan, D. The Learner-Centred Curriculum. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1988.
- Oller, N.A, and J.W. Vigil. "Rule Fossilization: A Tentative Model" In Language Learning, Vol. 26, No. 2, December, 1976.
- Peck, Sabrina. "Language Play in Child Second Language Acquisition," Discourse Analysis in Second Language Research. ed. D. Larsen Freeman: Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers, 1980, 154-164.
- Raffini, J. and R.A. Rosemier. "Effect of Resultant Achievement Motivation on Post-Exam Error Correcting Performance" In Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 63, No. 3, 1972.
- Rosenfell, G.W. "Some Effects of Reinforcement On Achievement and Behavior in Regular Classroom." In Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 63, No. 3, June, 1972.
- Schachter, J. "A Universal Input Condition," Language Universals and Second Language Acquisition. ed. W. Rutherford: Amsterdam: John Benjamin's Publishing Company, 1984.
- Schegloff, E.A., et al. "The Preference for Self-Correction in the Organization of Repair in Conversation" In Language, Vol. 53, No. 2, June, 1977.

- Schunk, D.H. "Effects of Attributional Feedback On Children's Perceived Self-Efficacy and Achievement" In Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 74, No. 4, August, 1982.
- _____. "Reward Contingencies and the Development of Children's Skills and Self-Efficacy" In Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 75, No. 4, August, 1983.
- Schwartz, J. "The Negotiation for Meaning: Repair in Conversations between Second Language Learners of English," Discourse Analysis in Second Language Research. ed. D. Larson-Freeman: Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers, 1980, 138-153.
- Selinker, L. and J. Lamendalla. "The Role of Extrinsic Feedback in Interlanguage Fossilization" In Language Learning, Vol. 29, No. 2, December, 1979.
- Sinclair, J. MCH, and D. Brazil. Teacher Talk. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1982.
- Sinclair, J. MCH, and R.M. Coulthard. Towards an Analysis of Discourse, Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1975.
- Tafesse Geleta. "The Use of Vernacular in the Teaching of English : A Survey of Addis Ababa Zone Four Junior Secondary Schools". Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa University, 1988 (M.A. Thesis, Mimeographed).
- Tewolde G/Yohannes. "A Comparison of the Listening Abilities of Junior Secondary Students with the Listening Level Required of them in their Subject Areas" Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa University, 1988 (M.A. Thesis, Mimeographed)
- VanEl, T., et al, Applied Linguistics and the Learning and Teaching of Foreign Languages. Baltimore: Arnold Publishers Ltd., 1984.
- VanLier, L.A.W. "Discourse Analysis and Classroom Research: A Methodological Perspective" In International Journal of the Sociology of Language, Vol. 49, 1984.

_____. The Classroom and the Language Learner. New York: Longman Group UK Ltd., 1988.

Yoseph Mekonnen. "A Study of the Classroom Language of Junior Secondary School Teachers of English" Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa University, 1990 (M.A. Thesis, Mimeographed).

Zahorik, J.A. "Pupil's Perceptions of Teachers' Verbal Feedback" In The Elementary School Journal, Vol. 71, No. 2, November, 1970a.

_____. "Teacher Verbal Feedback and Content Development", In Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 63, No. 9, May - June, 1970b.

Zydatiss, W. "A 'Kiss of Life' for the Notion of Error" In Review of Applied Linguistics, Vol. 12, No. 3, August, 1974.

Appendix I

Extracts From the Classroom Talk of T₁

Categories Identified	Text
	<u>Extract 1</u>
1.1/1.6	T. ... who could give me an answer ? S. Adverb clause of reason. T. Yeah. Because, you know this is an adverb.
	<u>Extract 2</u>
1.1/1.5	T. So this is one pattern used to form an adverb clause of result. Can you produce a sentence in which this pattern is used. S. He is so old that he won't live long. T. Alright. He is so old that he won't ? he won't what ? S. Live long. T. He won't live long, alright.
	<u>Extract 3</u>
1.5	T. Let me give you one more examples (writes on BB) what's that ? She has grown so quickly. What's this ? S. Adverb T. It is an adverb.
	<u>Extract 4</u>
1.5	T. Use 'that', 'as', 'adjective' and then use 'such ... a' and then produce your sentences. Ok, try. You can talk of something expensive to buy. S. This is such an expensive shoe that I couldn't buy. T. This is such an expensive (writes: shoe that I couldn't buy)

Extract 5

- T. What's the result of the car being expensive ?
Yes ?
- S. XX
- 9.6 T. Yes ?
- S. He can't buy it.
- 1.5/1.1 T. He can't buy it, right.

Extract 6

- T. I ought to write to him. What is the modal auxiliary ?
- SS. Ought.
- 1.5 T. Ought.

Extract 7

- T. Can anyone tell me what they are ? What are the two types of infinitives ?
- S. Infinitives and non-infinitives.
- 9.3/11.1/1.5 T. Infinitives and non-infinitives ? We are talking about infinitives, and there is no non-infinitive. Yes, infinitives are divided into two: full infinitives and bare infinitives.

Extract 8

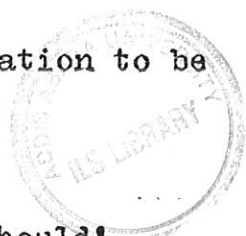
- T. I had better go. What kind of infinitive it is ?
- SS. Bare.
- 1.5 T. It's bare infinitive. An infinitive without to.

Extract 9

- T. ... what does it refer to
- SS. Future.
- T. It refers to the future, an obligation to be performed in the future.

Extract 10

- T. Instead of 'ought' who can use 'should' ...
instead of 'ought'
- S. I should to write to him.
- 11.2 T. I should ?
- S. I should to write to him.



- 8.1/11./11.3/10.3 T. No. We have said that the only modal auxiliaries followed by the full infinitives, that is by 'to' plus 'verb phrase' are 'ought', 'have', and 'used'. The rest of the auxiliaries must be followed by the infinitive without 'to'. So can you improve your answer ? I should ...
- S. Write
- 1.5 T. Write

Extract 11

- T. Who can answer the first one ? You'll read the question and you'll answer the question. Yes, please. Speak loudly.
- S. We develop (Pron: *diveləp*) new products everyday.
- 7/9.5/14 T. Yeah, develop (Pron: *di'veləp*) Listen and repeat.
- S. Develop
- 1.2/2.1 T. Very good. Yeah the answer.
- S. We should develop new products everyday.
- 1.5/2.2 T. New products. You are supposed to use both 'should' and 'ought to .' So, answer the same question using 'ought to'
- S. We ought develop new products everyday.
- 9.1 T. Again
- S. We ought develop to new products everyday
- 8.2/11.1/9.1 T. You didn't follow ! What have I told you ? 'ought' must be followed by the full infinitive 'ought to'. Then you write 'ought' plus 'to' and 'they'. Should I go to a goldsmith and make a necklace where there is 'ought to' on it and put it on your neck ? Say it again.
- S. We ought ... we ought to develop new products every day
- 1.2 T. Very good.

Extract 12

- T. The second question. Who will try the second one ? You read the question and you answer the question
- S. (Reads) They apply Mathematics in many different activities.
- 2.1 T. You answer
- S. They should apply Mathematics in different activities. They ought to apply Mathematics in different activities.

1.1. T. Good.

Extract 13

T. Who can try number three ? You need the question.

S. You use an electric (Pron: elektrik) pump to raises the water.

9.1 T. Again

S. You use an electrical (Pron: eliktrikal) pump to rise the water.

8.2/9.5/2.1 T. Do not read what's not written. It is not electric (Pron: eliktrik) It's electric (I'letrik). Alright, you answer the question

S. You should use an electric pump to rise the water. You ought to use an electric pump to rise the water.

9.5 T. To raise

SS. Raise

1.1 T. Raise, Raise means take off

Extract 14

T. Who can try number two ? Yes, you read the question and answer the question yourself.

S. You use an electric pump to raise the water
We should use an electric pump to raise the water.

11.3 T. The question has already been answered.
The next question.

S. Don't (x3) retreat. You resist the enemy.
Don't resist you should resist the enemy.
Don't retreat you ought to resist the enemy.

11.3 T. You mispronounced this word

S. (Pron: ritait)

15 T. Retreat

S. Retreat

1.1/2.1 T. Good. Now, have you answered the questions?

S. Don't retreat you should resist the enemy

8.1 T. Oh, no.

Extract 15

T. What is the short form of cannot ?

SS. Can't

- 1.5/4.2 T. Can't. By the same token you can contract this
SS. Oughtn't
- 1.1/2.1 T. Oughtn't, can you think of the negative interrogative form? Yes, please.
S. Oughtn't I
- 1.1/1.5 T. Yeah. Ought I not. This is the full form

Extract 16

- T. Now, let's go back to that question
S. Don't retreat you shouldn't resist the enemy.
- 11.2 T. Don't retreat
S. Don't retreat you (x2) ought ... you oughtn't resist the enemy
- 11.2 T. Don't retreat you should
S. To oughtn't resist the enemy
- 8.1/11.2 T. No, no. You should ... Don't retreat
S. Don't retreat. You should ... You shouldn't resist the enemy.
- 11.1/11.3/11.2 T. Aha, you make it negative. Make it positive ...
Don't retreat you should
S. Resist the enemy.
- 1.2 T. And with 'ought to'
S. Don't retreat you ought (x3) you ought to
- 11.2 T. Resist
S. Resist the enemy
- 1.2 T. Excellent.

Appendix II

Extracts From the Classroom Talk of T₂

Categories
Identified

Text

Extract 17

- T. Apartheid ... Do you know the meaning ? ...
S. XX
9.6 T. eh ?
S. Discrimination
1.1/1.5 T. Ok, now, it's a discrimination among the
whites and the non-white people.

Extract 18

- T. A ferenji (tr: a white person) woman and an
Ethiopian or a blackman they marry each other.
The son or the child between them is not either
ferenji or a black person, ok ? He is a
person of mixed blood (x2) ... How do we call
it in Amharic this person ? Iulseged
S. ቀይኛ (tr: mixed)
1.5/4.1 T. ቀይኛ and ?
S. ዲቀላ (tr: hybrid)
8.2 T. ገሰጽ ይረቅልሽ (teacher curses the student)

Extract 19

- S. (Reads a paragraph assigned to him by T and
reads ' it's ' as ' it is ')
T. Now our person said it is. When you read
this, you shouldn't read it as it is ... it's,
ok ? it's short, ok ? So as it is written
like that.

Extract 20

- T. Now, they don't have right, we said. What
do we mean by that ?
S. Freedom
9.6 T. eh ?
S. Freedom.
1.5/ 1.1 T. Freedom, yes.

Extract 21

- T. What do we mean by that ? Assembly ? Yes
S. *an'an* (tr: congregation)
- 10.3 T. Can we say that ? Another common word (x2)
in English. Assembly. Yes
S. Collection
- 1.5 T. Gathering, collecting, meeting (x3). There
~~will be~~ meeting (x2) m-e-e-t-i-n-g. Ok,
gathering. That's also possible.

Appendix III

Extracts From the Classroom Talk of T₃

Categories Identified	Text
-----------------------	------

Extract 22

- T. We can say the same ... eh ... the same meaning in how many different ways ?
- S. Four
- 1.5/1.1 T. In four, alright.

Extract 23

- T. Are we showing the difference between two things ?
- S. No
- 1.5/1.1/2.1 T. No, yes. We are doing what ?
- S. We are doing the same thing
- 11.2 T. We are showing ?
- S. The same meaning.
- 8.1/10.3 T. No. They have the same meaning, but when we are comparing the two things, are we saying that one is better and the other one is less ? Yes, please. Yes
- S. No.
- 9.6 T. Yes ?
- S. No
- 1.1/1.5/2.1 T. Yes, no. What are the same ?
- S. They are not the same
- 3.1 T. With ?
- S. White
- 1.1 T. Yes.

Extract 24

- T. What do we mean by sincere ?
- S. Honest
- 1.1/1.5/4.1 T. Yes, honest. And not only honest, but
- S. Having a straight manner.

- 1.5/1.1/4.2 T. Straight manner, alright. A person who
S. bear (Pron: bir)
- 9.6 T. eh ?
S. bear (Pron: bir)
- 9.2/10.3 T. beer ? What's beer ?
S. b - e - a - r
- 12 T. Yes ?
S. Sincere
- 8.1/11.4 T. No. Yes, you ... you're associating sincere
in write letters. Yes, there, but not that
one.
S. Obey
- 9.6 T. eh
S. obey
- 1.5/1.1/2.1 T. Obey, alright. So, sincere means honest ... eh ...
one who never tell ... tell what ? eh ... one who
never tell
S. Lie
- 1.5/2.1 T. A lie. What is the spelling of lie ?
S. L - i - e
- 1.5/1.1 T. L - i - e, yes. And one who never cheats we
call him he is sincere.

Extract 25

- T. Now, out of these persons. Who is sincere ?
Or more sincere. Yes.
- S. Martha is more sincere
- 1.1/1.5/2.1 T. Yes, Martha is more sincere than Senayit. Now
we have used which one ?
S. More
- 1.5/2.1 T. eh ? More, adjective, sincere, eh
S. Than
- 1.1/1.5 T. Yes, than.

Extract 26

- T. Use one of the structures in here (x2) Yes,
please.
- S. Senayit is more sincere than Martha.
- 11.3 T. No we shouldn't repeat
S. Senayit is less sincere than Martha.

- 1.1/1.5 T. Yes, Senayit is less sincere than Martha.
S. Senayit is not as sincere as Martha ... Senayit is not as sincere as Martha
- 1.1/1.5/2.2 T. Yes, Senayit is not (2) as sincere as Martha. Now, let's give them the same kind of ... eh ... ability here. eh ... (tr: ok)
S. Senayit is so sincere as Martha
- 1.1/4.1 T. Yes. Or
S. Senayit is as sincere as Martha.
- 1.5/1.1 S. Senayit is as sincere as Martha, alright.

Extract 27

- T. Now, let's take question number four (x2) English is not so hard as Maths ...
S. Maths is harder than English
- 1.1/2.2 T. Eh, yes. Now there is a change in comparison here. What is the difference we made here? Yes, please
S. Not use more
- 1.1/2.1 T. Yes. Why?
S. Because hard is one syllable
- 1.5/1.1/1.6/2.1 T. One syllable, Yes. With one syllable words instead of more or less we add what? 'er' and in the superlative degree?
S. e - s - t -
- 1.5/1.1/2.1 T. We add e - s - t , alright. But after it we have what?
SS. Than
- 1.5/1.1/4.2 T. Than, alright. Maths is harder than English, alright? Now we are going to have England. eh... ㄣㄣ (tr: ok.)
S. English is less harder than Maths
- 11.2 T. English is less?
S. Harder than Maths
- 11.2 T. Is less?
S. English is less hard than Maths
- 1.1/1.5/11.1 T. Yes, English is less hard. Not ... you don't say harder.

Extract 28

- T. Let us say that they are both hard (x2). Yes, please
- S. English is (x2) not so hard as Maths
- 11.2 T. English is
- S. English is so hard as Maths
- 10.3 T. Well, Yes, your sentence is correct, but what I said was what ? ... Let us say that both are the same ... They are equally hard
- S. English is not as hard as Maths
- 11.2 T. English is
- S. not as hard as Maths
- 8.2 T. You are saying the same thing what she is saying. Yes, please.
- S. English is as hard as Maths
- 1.1/1.5/4.1 T. Yes, English is as hard as Maths or ?
- S. Maths is so hard as English
- 1.1/1.5 T. Yes, Maths is so hard as English

Extract 29

- T. Before we discuss tell me the answer you gave
- S. Beliefs and teachings of a political party
- 1.1/1.5/2.2 T. Yes, doctrine is the belief and teaching of a Political Party ... What do you understand when we say the beliefs and teachings of a Political Party ?
- S. It's a Political principle that a political party XX
- 9.6 T. I couldn't hear
- S. It's a Political principle that a political party follows or pursued
- 1.1/2.2 T. Alright. Can we give examples as how a political party uses the doctrine ?
- S. XX
- 9.6 T. eh ?
- S. Propaganda
- 2.1/15 T. And what's that Propaganda ? You have to elaborate what it means (offers the answer by giving extended examples)

Extract 30

- T. Do you think these farmers will support this party ?
- SS. Yes
- 1.1/1.5 T. Yes. Will support the party

Extract 31

- T. What's policy ? (x2) Yes
- S. A plan of action made in a political party
- 1.1/1.5 T. Yes, a plan of action formulated and issued by (writes on BB) a plan of action formulated meaning has formula (x2) and issued, given by a political party.

Extract 32

- T. And the farmers are going to be given what ?
- S. Land
- 1.5/2.2 T. They are going to be given land where they can produce eh ... what ever they like. To do this ... to produce, eh, whatever they like. To do this (x2) to give them the land has to come from where ? (x2)
- S. The land has to come from the government
- 11.2 T. Eh, well, if it is a feudalist country the land is already
- S. It must be expropriated from the bourgeoisie
- 15 T. If it is a feudobourgeoisie, it is with the land owners. Then the land will be taken from the land owners and distributed among the what ? The farmers, alright ?

Extract 33

- T. Alright. So, shall we go to the third one ? ... First let's see your example ... your answer. Yes, please
- S. XX
- 9.6 T. No, I didn't hear
- S. Antagonistic attitudes between different races
- 1.5 T. Attitudes between (finishes the sentence by writing on BB)

Extract 34

- T. Now, racial. Is it noun, verb or an adjective ?
S. It's an adjective.
- 1.1/1.5/2.1 T. Yes, it's an adjective. Now, what's the noun form of racial ?
S. Race.
- 1.5/2.1 T. Race. R - a - c - e. Race. So, when we say racial, it means of what ? It means of
SS. Race
- 1.5/2.1 T. A race. What's race ? Yes
S. Mankind
- 4.5/2.2 T. Em ... Mankind. Well, mankind is a race, of course. But let's narrow it, let's bring it very XX
S. Competition between two groups
- 8.1/11.1/10.2/11.3 T. Em ... It is not a com ::: What we are saying is ... we have not discussed racial. Now, what do we mean by race ? Now, for instance, such kind of people are this race ? Alright ? How do you group people as in a race or put them in a race ?
S. XX
- 8.1/11.1/11.2 T. No, no. That's ... discrimination is different, alright ? The people, alright.
S. People who have different origin.
- 1.5/2.2 T. They have different origin. Now the difference in origin can be put together with some characteristics, alright ? What are the characteristics we have to put ? Eh ... in order to differentiate one race from the other ... *μη* (tr: o.k.)
S. Culture and language
- 1.5/4.1 T. Culture ... language and they have the same language, they share the same culture and also
S. Color
- 1.5/4.1 T. Well, color. Well, most of the time, yes. And there is another thing also
S. The attitude of different people
- 16.1 T. The attitudes, may be, yes. More or less the same
S. Religion.
- 1.5/1.1/4.1 T. Religion, yes. And there is one more
S. State of development

- 9.6 T. Yes ?
- S. State of development
- 1.5/4.1 T. State of development also. There is one more important thing
- S. Society.
- 1.5/1.1 T. Society, alright. Eh
- S. Culture
- 11.1 T. Well we have already said culture
- S. Their type.
- 12 T. ኦኪ (tr: o.k.) Yes.
- S. Sex
- 11.2 T. Now there is one thing is their geographical ...
- S. Situation
- 1.1/1.5/14 T. Yes, the situation. Now, what is the equivalent for race in Amharic ?
- S. XX
- 9.6 T. Eh ?
- S. ንሽቅደምደም (tr: running contest)
- 8.1/11.1/10.1 T. No. That is ... racing is ንሽቅደምደም (tr: running contest) But we are not talking about this one. Race in Amharic is
- S. ዘር (tr: race)
- 8.1 T. Not 'ዘር' but yes
- S. XX
- 15 T. Em ... well it could be, but ገዕዝ (tr: tribe) is much better.

Extract 35

- T. So let's take two people here, two races. Yes
- S. XX
- 9.6 T. Yes, Yes ?
- S. The Gurages and the Oromos.
- 1.5/1.1/2.2 T. The Gurages and the Oromos, right. But, eh, alright, let's take them, alright ? But they are most of the time they live peacefully. But why not take two races that are most of the time at war in our country. If you go to Harrar, there are some races that are always ... eh :::
- S. Isas
- 9.6 T. Yes ?
- S. Isas

- 1.5/4.1 T. The Isas and the ?
SS. The Afars.
1.5/1.1 T. The Afars, alright.

Extract 36

- T. So antagonistic is what ?
S. Conflict
1.5/2.2 T. It is a conflict. They don't agree. So they have antagonistic feelings (x2), alright. Now, if you have read this in your book, there is an antagonistic feeling with who ?
S. Apartheid
16.2 T. Eh ? Apartheid is n :::

Extract 37

- T. What's apartheid ... Is apartheid a doctrine or a policy ?
S. Policy
10.3 T. Is it a policy ?
S. Doctrine
1.5/2.2 T. It is a doctrine ... what are the Policy eh for apartheid ?
S. Racial segregations
9.6 T. Eh ?
S. Racial segregation
1.5/2.2 T. The racial segregation between the whites and the blacks, the non-whites. Now, apartheid is a policy ... the doctrine and the policy are the different ways of putting eh the discrimination. How do they do it ?
S. The non - whites are not allowed to participate in any political party.
1.1/1.5 T. Yes, the non - whites are not allowed to participate in any political party.

Extract 38

- T. The non - whites should show
S. The non - whites shouldn't go from one place to another

- 1.5/2.2 T. From one area to another. If they do, what do they have to show? A pass ...
- S. They have to show a
- 15/14 T. A pass book meaning he is ... now, if we take Addis Ababa if you want to go to Merkato you'll have to carry with you something. You have to have
- SS. Pass book
- 1.5 T. You'll have to show the passbook to the police.

Extract 39

- T. So this is what?
- SS. Policy.
- 1.5/2.2 T. This is their policy. A white or non-white person is not allowed to travel with a white person in the bus. This is what again
- SS. Policy
- 1.5 T. It is policy (x2)

Extract 40

- T. There is a racial or antagonistic feeling between the non-whites and the whites. Now, what ... which countries
- S. South Africa
- 1.5/2.2 T. It is South Africa. Does this mean that there is no discrimination in any other country?
- SS. No
- 1.5/2.2 T. Rh... There is discrimination. Do we have any discrimination in our country?
- S. No, we don't.
- 10.3 T. We don't have any discrimination? ... There is some kind of discrimination
- S. Racial discrimination
- 1.1/1.5/2.2 T. Yes. We have from one race to another there is some discrimination. Some people are engaged in making pots. You look at them as in what form? Not equal with
- SS. Others
- 1.5/1.1 T. The other people, alright.

Extract 41

- T. What's the meaning of domination ?
S. To control
- 1.5/1.1/4.1 T. To control, yes. In control. Not only controlling but
S. Having force
- 1.5/2.2 T. Having force on (2) on yourself or is it on somebody ?
S. On somebody
- 1.5 T. On somebody
S. To impose somebody
- 1.5 T. To impose
S. Somebody.
- 1.5 T. Somebody. Now, what's imposition ?
S. Forcing others to do something.
- 1.1 /1.5 /1.5 T. Yes, imposition means forcing others to do something unwillingly. When we are forced to do something we don't like there is imposition.

Extract 42

- T. Now let's come back to here. Domination, yes ?
S. An Authority
- 16.1 T. Eh ... domination, well, there is some kind of authority
S. Being powerful
- 4.1 T. And ? Not only being powerful but
S. XX
- 1.1 T. Yes. Now, yes.

Extract 43

- T. Which one is more in number ?
S. The non-whites
- 1.5 /2.1 T. The non-whites are more in number than the whites. And who is controlling the country ?
S. The whites
- 1.5/2.1 T. The whites. And who is powerful ?
S. The whites

- 1.5/2.2 T. The whites are more powerful than the what ?
The non-whites. Now how can we say this ?
S. The whites have got more weapons than the non-whites
- 1.1/1.5/2.2 T. Yes, the whites have weapons, everything. Are the non-whites ... are they dominating or are they being dominated ? Yes
S. Being dominated
- 1.1/1.5/2.1 T. Yes, they are being dominated. And who is dominating ?
S. The white.
- 1.5 T. The white.

Extract 44

- T. The fifth one. Is it migrant or immigrant ?
SS. Migrant
- 1.1/1.5 T. Yes, alright, Migrant. Yes ?
S. To move from one place to another.
- 8.2/10.3 T. To move from one place to another. Is it ?
SS. No
- 1.1/11.1 T. No. That's it has a different spelling for that one
S. One who moves from one place to another
- 1.1/1.5/2.2 T. Yes, it is a person who moves from one place to another. So what do you say this is ? Is it a noun or an adjective ?
S. Adjective
- 1.5 T. It is an adjective

Extract 45

- T. Ato Girma is eh an Ethiopian migrant. What does it tells us ?
S. His nationality is an Ethiopian
- 1.1/16.2 T. Yes. He has come from another country

Extract 46

- T. The non-whites we said they are not allowed to do what ?
S. They are not allowed to move from one place to another

1.1/1.5 T. Yes, they are not allowed to move from one place to another.

Extract #7

T. After they are engaged are they allowed to come back and live with their family ?

S. They are forbidden

1.5/2.1 T. They are forbidden to come back to their place.

For how long have they to stay in the area where they are ?

S. For a fixed day

1.5/2.1 T. For a fixed day ... so are these people truly migrants ?

S. No, they are not

2.1 T. Why ?

S. Because that is their country

1.1/1.5 T. Yes, because they're living in their country.

Appendix IV

Extracts From the Classroom Talk of T₄

Categories
Identified

Text

Extract 48

- T. Number 1. Why did the old bus breakdown on the hill ?
- S. The old bus break down on the hill since the roads was up and down
- 10.3 T. Is this ... Is the question in present tense or in past tense ?
- SS. Past tense
- 11.3 T. The answer must be given in past tense
- S. Since the road was worn out the old bus broke down on the hill
- 9.3 T. Broken ? Any other ?
- S. Since the road was worn out the old bus broken down on the hill
- 9.1 T. Again, please
- S. Since the road was worn out the old bus broken down on the hill
- 12 T. Sisay
- S. Since the road worked for a long time break down on the hill
- 8.4 T. (Silence) yes
- S. Since the road was up and down the old bus break down on the hill
- 10.3 T. Break or broke ?
- SS. Broke
- 14 T. Since the road was up and down the old bus
- SS. Broke down
- 1.5/1.1/2.2 T. Broke down. Yes, that's better. The old bus broke down since the road was up and down. You can bring the adverbial clause at the beginning of the sentence. Who can bring ? Yes ?
- S. Since the road was up and down, the old bus break down
- 9.3 T. Break down ?
- SS. Broke down

- 1.5/1.1/2.1 T. Broke down, yes. Where should I put the comma ?
- S. The road was up and down.
- 1.1/1.5 T. Yes, up and down.

Extract 49

- T. Why does Mintwab weep ? Is this question in present tense or in past tense ?
- SS. Present tense.
- 1.5/2.2 T. Present tense. Your answer must be given in Present tense. Eh ... Nigussu
- S. Since hers father was ... since hers father dies Mintwab weeps
- 8.1 T. No. Yes ?
- S. Mintwab weeps since her father is dead
- 8.4 T. (Silence)...
- S. Why does ... Mintwab weep ? Since her father died she was weep
- 9.3/8.1/15/10.3 T. She was weep ? No. Mintwab weeps since she is very sick. And you can give other reasons. Now who can bring the adverbial caluse at the beginning of the sentence.
- S. Since she is married Si //
- 6 T // yes.
- S. Mintwab (2) was //
- 6 T. // since Mintwab (writes the answer on BB)

Extract 50

- T. Why did you feel dizzy ? Why ? Yes ?
- S. I felt dizzy since I was sick
- 9.6 T. I felt (2) dizzy since
- S. I was sick
- 1.5/4.1 T. I felt dizzy since I was sick. Yes, another ?
- S. Since I were (x2) live in Gondar
- 11.2 T. Since ?
- S. Since (x2) I were live in Gondar, I felt dizzy
- 11.2 T. Since ?

- S. I were live in Gondar
- 8.4 T. (Silence)
- S. You did feel dizzy since
- 6 T. // No. I felt dizzy
Since the weather was bad (x2). I felt dizzy since I didn't take coffee. I felt dizzy since I ate much. So many reasons.

Extract 51

- T. The next one, why did the crew members revolt against their captain ?
- S. The crew members revolted against their cap ... captain since he was very bad leader.
- 1.5/1.1/4.1 T. Since he was very bad, yes. Any other ?
- S. The crew members revolt against since (x2) their (x2) leader was bad
- 11.2 T. The crew members
- S. The crew (x2) members revolt since their leader was bad
- 8.4 T. (Silence) Kh, yes.
- S. XX
- 12 T. Yes
- S. The crew members revolted against
- 6 T. // yes, revolted.
The crew members revolted against?
- S. Thus captains since their
- 6 T. // Thus captains ?
- S. Thus
- 6 T. // Their or thus ?
- S. Their captain since the ship was XX
- 8.4 T. (Silence) Yes ?
- S. The crew members revolted
- 9.6 T. Please read your answer loudly, please
- S. The crew (Pron: K r i : w) members revolted
- 6 T. // The crew
- S. The crew members revolted against their captain wince he was bad person
- 1.5 T. The crew members revolted against their captain since he was bad person.

Extract 52

- T. Why she insists on playing the piano ? Yes ?
S. Since she was free to work she is XX
- 11.2 T. Since she
S. Since she was free to work (x2) she insisted on playing the piano.
- 8.4 T. (Silence) yes ?
S. She insisted on playing the piano since the XX
- 12 T. Anyother ?
S. She insisted on playing the piano since XX
- 8.1 T. No
S. Since //
- 6 T. // No.
S. She insisted on playing the piano since she is great interest on it
- 9.4 T. Since she has great interest on it (x2) She insisted (x2) on playing the piano. Any other, any other reason ?
S. She insisted on playing piano. She didn't play piano.
- 12 T. (Nominates another student)
S. Since she was interested she is interested on playing (x2) ~~the~~ piano
- 8.1/15 T. No, insisted. Past form

Extract 53

- T. Why can't they help us tomorrow ? Why ?
S. They can't help us tomorrow since they were busy
- 12 T. (Nominates)
S. Since they (x2) went to //
- 6 T. // since
S. They went to
- 12 T. Nigussu. First stand properly. Since
S. Since they want to play foot ball they can't helped us tomorrow
- 11.2 T. Since
S. Since they want to play foot ball they can't helped us tomorrow
- 12 T. Em ::: (nomination)
S. They help us tomorrow since //
- 6 T. // They help us ?

- S. They
- 11.3/10.1 T. It is negative why can't they help us tomorrow ?
Why ?
- S. They can't help us tomorrow since they are
busy
- 9.2 T. Since they are busy
- S. Since they were busy they
- 6 T. // since they ?
- S. Were busy
- 8.1/15 T. No. Since they have their own problem.

Extract 54

- T. Why did Kelemwa asked for (x2) breakfast. This
one is simple question.
- S. Since I will ... since I was hungry Kelemwa
asked for breakfast
- 9.2 T. Since you were hungry (laughs together with SS).
Yes, Elias
- S. She asked for her breakfast since Kelemwa was
hungry.
- 1.5/1.1/14 T. Since she was hungry. Yeah. She asked for her
breakfast since she was ?
- S. Hungry
- 1.5/1.1 T. Hungry, yes.

Extract 55

- T. Why do you want to see a doctor ? Why ?
- S. I want to see a doctor since. I was sick.
- 11.2 T. Since ?
- S. I was sick
- 10.3 T. Is he correct
- SS. No
- 10.3 T. Is he right ?
- SS. No, no.
- S. (Another student) since I was very sick I want
to see a doctor
- 10.1/15 T. Why do you want to see a doctor ? Since I am

very sick, I want to see a doctor. The present tense.

Extract 56

- T. Why did they postpone the picnic ? Why ?
S. They postponed the picnic (Pron: P I : S)
since there was //
6 T. // Eh ? What ? Picnic ?
S. Has postponed (x2) //
6 T. // The picnic
S. The picnic since cannot //
6 T. // Cannot ? ... Em :::
S. They postponed the picnic since they XX break-
fast
15 T. They postponed (completes the answer on BB)

Extract 57

- T. Why did the students laugh ?
S. Since the teacher was laughing the students
laugh
1.5/4.1 T. Since the teacher was laughing the students,
laugh. Any other reason ?
S. Since the teacher told them a story the
students laughed
1.5/1.1 T. Since the teacher told them a story the
students laughed, yes.

Appendix V

Extracts from the Classroom Talk of T₅

Categories Identified	Text
-----------------------	------

Extract 58

1.1/1.5	T. What's the meaning of doctrine ? S. Beliefs and teachings of a political party T. Yeah, beliefs and teachings of a political party
---------	---

Extract 59

1.1/1.5	T. What's policy S. Plan of action formulated and issued by a political party T. Yes, policy we mean plan of action formulated and issued by a political party.
---------	---

Extract 60

1.1/1.5	T. Racial means what ? S. Antagonise T. Yes, racial means antagonistic attitude between different races.
---------	--

Extract 61

1.1/1.5	T. Number four, domination S. Dominating or being dominated T. Yes, domination means dominating or being dominated
---------	--

Extract 62

1.1/1.5	T. Number five, migrant means S. One who moves from one place to another. T. Yes, <u>migrant means</u> (x3) one who moves from
---------	--

one place to another

Extract 63

- T. What's antagonistic mean ?
S. Enemy
- 10.2 T. Antagonistic ?
S. Enemy
- 1.5/1.1/2.1 T. Enemy, ok. Antagonistic. When we say antagonistic idea, what does that mean ?
Antagonistic idea, yes
- 1.5/1.1 S. To be against
T. To be against, right.

Extract 64

- T. How do you use the word impose in a sentence ?
Imposed, yes
- S. Good leaders impose their interests upon the people ~~people~~
- 1.1/4.1 T. Right. What else ?
S. The government of Ethiopia imposes the income tax on the workers.
- 1.5/1.1/4.1 T. The government of Ethiopia imposes high tax on the people, alright, yes, impose
- S. I must perform that (x2) task that has been imposed upon me
- 1.1/1.5/4.1 T. Alright, imposed upon me, possible. Yes ?
S. Europeans impose African people XX
- 1.5/1.6 T. The Europeans are imposing ... the European people are imposing Africa that means they are making pressure upon our selves

Extract 65

- T. What's the meaning of to safeguard. Yes
S. Protection
- 1.5/4.1 T. Protection or yes ?
S. Defend
- 1.5/2.1 T. Defend. How do you use it in a sentence ?
S. The parents must to safeguard their children
- 1.5/1.1/4.1 T. Parents have the obligation to safeguard their

- children ... To safeguard, yes
- S. We have to safeguard our forests.
- 1.5/1.1/4.1 T. We have to safeguard our forests, right.
O.k.
- S. World people to safeguard from AIDS
- 9.4 T. World people should be agitated to safeguard themselves and their children from AIDS, yes ?
- S. We have to safeguard our country from enemies
- 1.1/1.5 T. Yes, we have to safeguard our country from enemies.

Extract 66

- T. Number 3, ruthless, yes
- S. Cruel.
- 1.5/1.1/4.1 T. Cruel, right, yes ?
- S. Unkind.
- 1.5/1.1/4.1 T. Unkind, right, yes ?
- S. Showing no mercy.
- 1.5/1.1/1.2/4.1 T. Showing no mercy, right. Good, Good explanation, yes ?
- S. Have no humanity
- 1.5/2.1 T. No humanity, right. Or a brutal... being ruthless or he is a ruthless man means he is brutal, unkind and merciless. Use it in a sentence
- S. He is so ruthless that he didn't forgive us
- 1.1/1.5/4.1 T. Yes, he is so ruthless that he didn't forgive us. Ruthless, yes
- S. The second world war Hitler follows a ruthless policy
- 9.4 T. The second world war Hitler was following a ruthless policy

Extract 67

- T. Yes, brutality, brutality, yes
- S. Cruel (Pron: kruweilo)
- 16.2 T. Alright, he said ?
- S. Cruel
- 1.1/2.1 T. Alright, How do you use it in a sentence ?
- S. The fascists treated their people brutally

- 1.1/1.5/2.2 T. Yes, the fascists treated their people brutally. The Apartheid policy ... Apartheid policy
- S. Treats
- 2.3 T. Treats the non-whites brutally. The Apartheid policy treats the black people or the non-whites brutally. That means they are treating them as sub-humanly. They don't consider them as humanly

Extract 68

- T. Alright, to undermine (x3) yes.
- S. Weaken gradually.
- 1.5/1.1/2.1 T. Weaken gradually, o.k. How do you use in a sentence (x2)
- S. The enemy force XX in undermining the unity of the revolutionary army
- 9.6 T. Say it very laud. Laud. Come on
- S. Enemy force never stops XX to undermine the unity of the revolutionary army
- 1.1/4.1 T. Alright, o.k. yes, yes
- S. Hussein was undermined by me
- 1.1/4.1 T. Alright, yes
- S. Teachers shouldn't undermine the effect of their students
- 1.1/1.5 T. Alright, teachers shouldn't undermine the effect of their students

Extract 69

- T. What's the meaning of to foster
- S. To help the growth and development of
- 1.1 T. Alright
- S. War fosters poverty and disease
- 1.1/1.5 T. Alright, war (x2) fosters poverty and disease

Extract 70

- T. Which is the right word that fills the given dash, yes.
- S. Most colonizers said that the purpose of their coming to Africa was to help the Africans, but this was not true. It was only a pretext.
- 1.5 T. It was only a pretext

Extract 71

- T. Right, number 2
- S. The whites and the non-whites in south Africa do not live in the same area. Each lives in its own reservations
- 1.5/1.1 T. In its own reservation, right.

Extract 72

- T. Number 3
- S. In Yekatit 1966, there emerged a great mass uprising. This sovereignty Aklilu Habtewold, the then Prime Minister, and his Cabinet Ministers to resign.
- 10.3 T. Is this the word to be filled in that place ? Is it sovereignty or any word ? yes
- S. In Yekatit 1966, there emerged a great mass uprising. This compelled Aklilu Habtewold, the then Prime Minister and his cabinet Ministers to resign
- 101/1.5 T. Right, compelled.

Extract 73

- T. How do you make sentence number one ? yes loudly
- S. The foreign minister made a long speech on foreign policy of the country..
- 1.1/1.5 T. Yes, the foreign minister made a long speech on the foreign policy of the country.

Extract 74

- T. Number 2
- S. If you want to safeguard the gains of the revolution, you have to install the right people in the right place
- 1.1/1.5/2.1 T. Right, the right people ... you have to install the right people in the right place. What's the meaning of install ?
- S. Establish
- 1.5/4.1 T. Establish. What else ?
- S. Appoint
- 9.6 T. Eh ?
- S. Appoint (x2)

- 9.6 T. To ?
S. To appoint.
- 1.5/4.2 T. To appoint. According to the given sentence what else ?
S. Fix a machine.
- 1.1/1.5 T. Yeah, to fix for all electrical things, for example, Plug and so and so forth. We can install in a studio.

Extract 75

- T. Number 3
- S. It is true that racial discrimination is practical in many parts of Africa
- 1.5 T. It is true that racial discrimination is practiced in many part of Africa

Extract 76

- T. O.k. Number 4
- S. Food scarcity is always used as a pretext for the increasing of food prices
- 1.1/2.2 T. Right. What's the meaning of scarcity ? Scare and scarcity (x2) Walia Ibex is a scare animal in Ethiopia and in all over the world. Scare is
S. Rare
- 1.5/2.2 T. Scare means rare. How about items of food ? What about items of food ? Intermis of food, eh
S. Shortage
- 1.5/1.1 T. Shortage, right. Shortage. Lack of availability is again shortage.

Extract 77

- T. Now, number five
- S. We are determined (Pron: ditermaid) to fight against the enemy of reactionary social customs.
- 7/9.5/14 T. Alright, we are determined (Pron: dit3: mind) Everybody determined
- SS. Determined

- 1.5/2.1 T. Alright, we are determined to fight against domination of reactionary social customs. What do we mean reactionary social customs? What are some of the reactionary social customs?
- S. Opposing social customs. Opposing
- 2.1/15 T. In what sense? (gives answer)

Extract 78

- T. Now, let's go to the sixth exercise. Number 6, yes
- S. Whether to fight for the oppressed masses or not is a matter of selfishness
- 10.3 T. It is ... Is it a matter of selfishness?
- SS. No
- 12 T. Eh
- S. Whether to fight for the welfare (Pron:) of the oppressed masses or not is or matter of doctrine
- 7/9.5 T. Yes, selfishness and welfare (Pron:) Welfare (x2) is the right pronunciation of the given word. Alright, whether to fight for the welfare of the oppressed masses or not is a matter of doctrine

Extract 79

- T. Number 7
- S. The sovereignty (Pron: səvəriti) of the country is unquestionable
- 9.5/14 T. Sovereignty. Everybody sovereignty
- SS. Sovereignty
- 1.1/2.1 T. Alright. What do we mean by the word sovereignty
- S. Unity
- 1.5 T. Unity or integrity is our sovereignty, our oneness

Extract 80

- T. O.k. number 8
- S. The patient can't endure the pain. You must get him a pain killer

- 1.5 T. The patient can't endure the pain. You must get him a pain killer

Extract 81

- T. Number 9
S. They had undergone much suffering before they told the truth
1.1/1.5 T. Yes, they had undergone much suffering before they told the truth

Extract 82

- T. Ten and the last one, yes
S. Peace and hard work foster the progress of a nation
1.5 T. Peace and hard work foster the progress of a nation

Extract 83

- T. Who can answer question number 1
S. The Whites and the non-whites do not go to the same school; this is because the law forbids them to do so
1.1/1.5 T. Alright, this is because the law forbids them to do so

Extract 84

- T. Number 2
S. The non-whites do not move from one region to another region; this is because the law forbids them to do so.
1.1/1.5 T. Yes, this is because the law forbids them to do so.

Extract 85

- T. Number 3. Yes
S. In a socialist society man does not exploit man; this is because the law forbids them to do so.

- 1.5 T. The law forbids them to do so

Extract 86

- T. Number 4. Yes
- S. In south Africa, a non-white South African cannot marry a white South African. This is because the law forbids them to do so.
- 1.1/1.5 T. Alright, In South Africa, a non-white South African cannot marry a white South African This is because the law forbids them to do so.

Extract 87

- T. Number 5. Yes
- S. In Ethiopia, people (x2) cannot own extra-houses; this is because the law forbids them to do so.
- 1.5 T. This is because the law forbids them to do so

Extract 88

- T. Number 6
- S. In Ethiopia, people cannot sell land; because of the law forbids them to do so
- 1.5 T. This is because the law forbids them to do so

Extract 89

- T. Number 8. Yes
- S. In many parts of the world, men cannot sell their offsprings because of this law forbids. So ... to do so
- 9.1 T. Say it again
- S. In many parts of the world, men cannot sell their offsprings//
- 6 T. // Eh-huh
- S. This is because the law forbids them to do so
- 1.1/1.5 T. Yes, the law.

Extract 90

- T. Who can do number 9. Question number 9. Yes, yourself.
- S. You cannot make hashish in Ethiopia; this is because the law forbids them to do so.
- 1.5 T. You cannot make hashish in Ethiopia; this is because the law forbids them to do so.

Extract 91

- T. Number 10. Ten and the last.
- S. In our country we cannot hunt as we like. This is because the law forbids us to do so.
- 1.1/1.5 T. Yes, this is because the law forbids us to do so.

Extract 92

- T. Who can tell us the meaning of offsprings ?
Any one
- S. Seasons
- 10.2 T. Offsprings ?
- S. XX
- 10.3 T. In what sense ?
- S. Being racial.
- 8.1 T. No. Yes ?
- S. Individual
- 8.1 T. No
- S. Children
- 8.1 T. Not exactly. Eh
- S. Give birth to
- 1.1/1.5 T. O.k. give birth. Eh, yes, anyone who can try
S. Its own child
- 16.2 T. Possible, but in its literal meaning it has ...
We can use it in two ways (Goes on explaining in detail)

Appendix VI

Extracts from the Classroom Talk of T₆

Categories Identified	Text
--------------------------	------

Extract 93

- T. Number 7
- S. Old tradition has deprived some people of their rights to eat meat
- 1.5/1.3 T. Old tradition has deprived some peoples of their rights to eat meat that's it.

Extract 94

- T. Number 8
- S. The law has deprived the whites and the non-whites of their right to go to the same school
- 1.5 T. The law has deprived the whites and the non-whites of their right to go to the same school

Extract 95

- T. Nine ... Yes, girl
- S. The law has deprived the capitalist countries workers of their right to get according to their ability & quality of work
- 1.5 T. The law has deprived the capitalist countries workers of their right to get according to their ability and quality of work

Extract 96

- T. Number ten. The last one
- S. The law has deprived them of their right to pursue (Pron: PRIZJU) // to ?
- 6 T.
- S. Pursue

- 1.5/1.1 T. Pursue, yes.
S. Their studies
1.5 T. Their studies

Extract 97

- T. Apartheid safeguard the interests of the non-whites. Yes
S. False
1.5/2.1 T. False. Your evidence
S. Paragraph 2.
1.1/1.5 T. Yes, it's ... the evidence is on paragraph 2

Extract 98

- T. Has apartheid made life difficult for black South Africans ? In complete sentence. Right, yes, girl.
S. Apartheid made life difficult for black South Africans
1.5 T. Apartheid made life difficult for black South Africans

Extract 99

- T. Now, foreigners on paragraph 4, for example, foreigners. Who can explain this ?
S. A person who comes from another place.
1.1/1.5 T. Yes, a person who comes from another place or country.

Extract 100

- T. Is it true or false ? Non-white Africans are citizens of all Bantustans. Come on. Yes, boy.
S. True
9.6 T. Eh ?
S. True
10.3 T. Is it true ? (x2) Non-white Africans are citizens of Bantustans. Is it true ? Non-white Africans are citizens of Bantustans. Is this statement true or false ?

- According to the reading passage. O.k. boy.
- S. False, in paragraph four
 - 1.5/14 T. It ... the statement is false according to the paragraph four. So the second one ... it is
 - SS. False
 - 1.5 T. False. Evidence is ... you can get your evidence on paragraph 4

Extract 101

- T. O.k. number 3. Is it true or false ?
- S. False. The evidence is on paragraph 6
- 1.1/1.5 T. Yes, so it is false. The evidence is on paragraph ...
- SS. Four
- 1.5 T. Four

Extract 102

- T. O.k. Four ... yes
- S. False
- 1.5/2.1 T. False. Paragraph ?
- S. Paragraph seven.
- 1.5/1.1/1.6 T. Paragraph seven. Yes, it's false. Evidence is on paragraph 7. Paragraph 7 says what ? (Open textbook) there is no equal pay for equal qualification. So this statement is false.

Extract 103

- T. O.k. five. O.k.
- S. True, Paragraph 8
- 10.3 T. Is it true ? Is it true ?
- SS. Yes
- 1.5/2.1 T. Yes, it is [true] your evidence is on paragraph ?
- SS. [true]
- S. Eight
- 1.5/1.6 T. The last paragraph I think, eight. It says what ? All peace loving countries (reads to textbook) so this statement is true.

Extract 104

- T. What are tribal reservations ?
- S. Tribal reservations are for the Africans there is no movement from//
- 6 T. // Tribal reservations are
- S. There is no movement from one//
- 6 T. // No, what are tribal reservations ? You can see it on the book. Yes ?
- S. They are forbidden to move from one place to another
- 9.6 T. Yes ?
- S. They are forbidden to move from one place to another.
- 8.1 T. No. Ok, boy.
- S. XX
- 11.2 T. Tribal reservations are places where ... who can finish it ? Yes.
- S. All Bantustans live in
- 1.1/1.5 T. O.k. Yes, tribal reservations are places reserved only for the black South Africans

Extract 105

- T. What has the law on Bantustan citizenship deprived all black South Africans of ?
- S. The law on Bantustan citizenship deprived all South Africans to go to the same school.
- 1.1/1.5/4.1 T. Yes, to go ... not ... to go to the same school. Yes, now another answer.
- S. The law of Bantustan citizenship deprived all South Africans do not move from one region another region.
- 1.1 T. Yes.

Extract 106

- T. O.k. now, five. What was the main purpose of the Bantustans ? What was it ? The main purpose of the Bantustan ? Yes

- 6 S. The purpose of the Bantu //
T. // The Bantustans
S. Was to promote tribal thinking and to
undermine the unity of the African population
in south Africa
1.1 T. Good.

Extract 107

- T. ... what are they ? Are they whites or non-
whites ? Ok. they are
SS. Non-whites
1.5 T. They are non-whites.

Extract 108

- T. Why is the word 'white' in paragraph four
put inside inverted commas ? Why is it ?
Yes
S. It does not really for whites
1.5/1.3 T. It does not really mean whites. Yes, that's
it.

Appendix VII

Extracts from the Classroom Talk of T₇

Categories Identified	Text
-----------------------	------

Extract 109

- T. Who can answer this question? Yes
- S. You should have studied Very hard. You ought have ... you ought to have studied very hard, however, you studied very hard
- 8.4 T. (Silence)
- S. You should have studied very hard. However, you didn't study
- 1.1/1.2/1.6 T. Yes, Very good (x2) you should have studied. Therefore, you have to change, right?, the first part of the V₁, simple present tense, into the past tense by using what? You should have studied very hard, however, you didn't, alright? Therefore the first ... the second part of the sentence to explain that the action did not occur.

Extract 110

- T. O.k. What about the second one?
- S. Everyone ought to have done his share of work. However, no one did
- 9.1 T. Again, again
- S. Everyone ought to have done his share of work. However, no one did.
- 1.1/1.2/1.6 T. Yes, very good. The sentence says what? Everyone ought to do his share of work. Yes, correct. Therefore, when you change 'ought' to, right, the past tense form you have to say everyone, right, ought to do ... ought to have done his share of work, however, no one did

Extract 111

- T. Number 3

- S. The janitor shouldn't have (x2) lock the door (x2) ... before the doors ... Howefer (2) The janitor didn't.
- 9.1 T. Again, please. Look say after me, the janitor should lock the doors before he leaves
- S. The janitor should have lock
- 6 T. // No. you say the statement. Please say the sentence first
- S. The janitor should lock the door
- 6 T. // the doors !
- S. The doors before he leaves. The janitor should have locked the door ... the doors before he leaves. However, the janitor didn't.
- 8.1 T. No ! no. Yes ?
- S. The janitor should (x2) have locked the doors before he leaves. However, he didn't lock
- 8.1/11.3 T. No. Yes ? There is something wrong. Yes ?
- S. The janitor (x3) should have locked the door before he leaves. However (x2) the janitor didn't lock.
- 8.4 T. (Silence) yes ?
- S. The janitor should lock the doors before he leaves. However, he did not.
- 8.4 T. (Silence) yes ?
- S. The janitor should lock
- 6 T. // The janitor
- S. The janitor shouldn't have locked the doors before he leaves. However, he did ... he didn't.
- 8.1/15/11.1 T. No. The answer should be, right ? , the janitor should have locked the doors before he left. Therefore, we did what ? Change simple present tense into what ? Past tense form, yes. The janitor ~~should~~ have locked the doors before he left, however, eh ... he ...
- S. Didn't
- 1.5/1.1/1.6/1.2 T. Didn't, yes. The second part of the sentence should be however he didn't. Exactly. Yes.

Extract 112

- T. Number 4
- S. You ought to have telled the traffic police
- 6 T. // Make your voice loud

- S. You ought to have tell the traffic police the truth about the accident but he didn't tell
- 9.1 T. Again, again
- S. You ought to tell... you ought to have tell ... you ought to have told the traffic police about the accident. However
- 6 T. // No. Anyone ?
- S. You ought to have told the traffic police the truth about the accident. However, he didn't tell
- 8.4 T. (Silence) Yes ?
- S. You ought to have told the traffic police the truth about the accident. However, you didn't.
- 1.2/1.1/1.6 T. Exactly. Very good. Yes, you ought to tell(x2) therefore have told.

Extract 113

- T. O.k. let's go to question five (x2)
- S. Amare should have submitted his application before the end of the semesters. However, didn't (x2) //
- 6 T. // Again, again say it, say the answer.
- S. Amare should have submitted his application before the end of the semester; however //
- 6 T. She didn't eh ... his work
- 8.1/8.2/15 T. No. Why did you delete the word submitted ? You have to say Amare should have submitted his application before the end of the semester; however he didn't

Extract 114

- T. Number 6
- S. I think you ought to have came at once. However, you didn't came
- 9.1 T. Again, say it.
- S. I think you ought to have came at once. However, you didn't came
- 11.3 T. Now, look. You ought (writes on BB) to have at once. First, you have to change the word think. Then you have to apply the rest of the sentence. Yes ? Yes, you.
- S. I think you ought to (x2) have come at once... came at once. He didn't (x2)

- 8.1 T. No. Yes, anyone ?
S. I think you ought (x2) to have come at once. However, I did
- 9.1 T. Again, again, again
S. I think you ought to have ~~same~~ at once. However, I did
- 8.2/11.1 T. Why don't you read the direction ? The direction says first you have to change the verb into past tense form and add another sentence to make that sure that the action did not occur. This is the direction, right ?
Why don't you do according to the direction ?
Yes
S. I thought you ought to have come at once. However, you didn't.
- 11.2 T. You ought to
S. You ought to have come //
6 T. // you ought
S. To have come at once //
6 T. // not came. Yes. I thought you ought to have come at once (x2) However, you didn't. Alright ? (x2) This is the first... the second part of the action indicates that the action didn't occur.
- Extract 115
- 8.1/8.2/9.1 T. Number 7
S. Zakarias should run out of the house. However, He didn't (x2) run out.
T. No, no, no, why do you repeat (x2) Again say it Zakarias
S. Zakarias should have run out of the house //
6 T. // However
S. However, he didn't run out of //
6 T. // full stop. No, don't add any sentence after however he didn't. Yes say it once again.
S. Zakarias should have run out of the house. However, he didn't.
- 1.1/1.2/1.5 T. Yes, exactly. Zakarias should have run out of the house. However, he didn't.

Extract 116

- T. Let's go onto question number 8
- S. We should have all learned how bread is made
- 11.2 T. We should eh ?
- S. We should have all learned how (x2) bread is made. However, you didn't (x2) learn
- 8.1 T. No. Yes ?
- S. We should have all learned how bread is made. However, we didn't
- 8.4 T. (Silence) yes ?
- S. We should have all learned //
- 6 T. // please make your voice louder. Yes, we should all
- S. We should have all learned how //
- 6 T. // Anyother, Yes, who can try. Yes
- S. We should have all learned how bread is made. However, We didn't
- 15 T. The answer should be what ? have(x2) learnt. should all have learnt, eh ? We should all have learnt how bread is made. However, we didn't.

Extract 117

- T. Number 9
- S. The baby sister should have to take care of the small children //
- 6 T. // The baby sitter
- S. Sitter should have to take care of the small children. However, he didn't
- 9.1 T. Again
- S. The baby (x2) sitter ought ... the baby sitter should have to take care of the small children ... have to take //
- 6 T. // (grimace) Yes ?
- S. The baby sitter should have taken care of the small children; however, they didn't.
- 9.6 T. Make your voice louder please. The baby-sitter ... yes
- S. The baby sitter should have taken care of the small children

- S. However, they did.
- 8.4 T. (Silence) Anyone, yes? The baby
- S. The baby sister should (x2) //
- 6 T. // sitter (x2)
- S. The baby sister should have take care of small children, however, she didn't care.
- 9.1 T. Again (x2) say it.
- S. The baby sitter should have take care of the small children. However, she didn't care.
- 11.1/15 T. What's wrong with this sentence ? Yes ? It has to be what ? have taken, yes. The baby - sitter should have taken care of the small children. However, she didn't (x2)

Extract 118

- T. Number 10
- S. You ought to have stop ... stopped //
- 6 T. // Make your voice louder. Yes, again.
- S. You ought (x2) to have stopped smoking
- 1.1/1.5 T. Yes, you ought to have stopped smoking

Extract 119

- T. Now, the first one ... yes ?
- S. You shouldn't have studied very hard
- 1.1/16.2 T. Yes, yes. Again, say it
- S. You shouldn't have studied very hard
- 1.2/1.5 T. Exactly. You shouldn't have studied very hard.

Extract 120

- T. Go back to page 31 Yes ... yes
- S. Everyone ought to have to do his share of work
- 9.6 T. What ?
- S. Everyone ought to have to do his share of work

- 12 T. Yes ?
- S. Everyone ought not to have done his share of work.
- 1.2/1.5 T. Exactly. Everyone ought not to have done his share of work, very good.

Extract 121

- T. Question number 3
- S. The janitor should not (x2) lock the doors before he leaves
- 9.6 T. Yes ? Make your voice louder
- S. The jani ... the janitor shouldn't (x2) have lock the doors before he leaves
- 8.4 T. (Silence) yes ?
- S. The janitor shouldn't have locked the door before he leaves
- 11.3 T. Doors, it says, plural
- S. Door
- 8.2 T. Why do you say door, yes ?
- S. XX
- 16.2 T. Read !
- S. The janitor shouldn't have locked the doors before he leaves
- 8.4 T. (Silence) Yes ?
- S. The janitor shouldn't have locked the doors before he left
- 1.2/1.5 T. Exactly, the janitor shouldn't have locked the doors before he left

Extract 122

- T. Number 4
- S. You ought not to have (x2) told ... to have tell the traffic police about the accident
- 9.1 T. Again
- S. You ought not to have tell the traffic police the truth about the accident.
- 11.3 T. Make the word tell (writes on BB) change the word. you said what ?
- S. They ought not to have told
- 6 T. // told, yes.

- S. The traffic police the truth about the accident.
- 1.1/1.5 T. Good. You ought to have told the traffic police the truth about the accident

Extract 123

- T. Number 5
- S. Amare shouldn't have submitted his application before the end of the semester
- 1.1/1.5 T. Yes, Amare shouldn't have submitted his application before the end of the semester.

Extract 124

- T. Number 6
- 11.3 S. I think you ought (x2) not to came at once.
- 11.3 T. What ? Number 6, I think you ...
- 8.4 S. I think you ought to not came at once
- 8.4 T. (Silence) yes, anyone ?
- 8.4 S. I think you ought to came at once.
- 8.4 T. (Silence) yes ?
- 9.1 S. I thought you ought not to have come at once
- 9.1 T. Again
- 9.1 S. I think you ought not to have came at once
- 9.5/11.1 T. I thought (x2) you ought not to have come at once. Because it says change the verb.

Extract 125

- T. O.k. Number 7
- S. Zakarias shouldn't (x2) run out of the house
- 9.1 T. Again
- S. Zakarias shouldn't run out of the house
- 8.4 T. (Silence) Yes
- S. Zak... Zakarias shouldn't have run out of the (x2) house

1.2/1.5/116 T. Exactly. Zakarias shouldn't have run out of the house.
 You have to change the past tense ... that is the correct way of doing the exercise

Extract 126

6 T. Number 8. Yes
 S. We shouldn't have all learned how bread is made
 T. we shouldn't
 We shouldn't all]
 S. learned
 8.4 T. (silence) Yes ?
 S. We shouldn't have learned how bread is made
 8.4 T. (Silence) Yes ?
 S. We shouldn't have learned how (x2) bread is made
 8.4 T. (Silence) yes ?
 S. We should all learnt how bread is made
 8.4 T. (Silence) yes ?
 S. We shouldn't have all learnt how bread is made
 8.4 T. (Silence)
 S. You shouldn't have all learned how bread is made.
 8.4 T. (Silence) yes ?
 S. You shouldn't have learnt (x2) how bread is made
 1.1/1.5 T. Yes, you shouldn't have learnt how bread is made.

Extract 127

8.1/11.3 T. Number 10 ... Nine
 S. You ought to (x2) have not stopped smoking
 T. No, number 9
 S. The baby (x2) sister shouldn't Not sister ..
 6 T. sitter
 S. Sitter should have take care of the small children
 8.4 T. (Silence) yes ?

- 8.4 S. The baby sitter shouldn't have take care of the small children
T. (Silence) yes ?
S. The baby. sitter shouldn't have taken care of the small children
1.2/1.5 T. Exactly the baby sitter shouldn't have taken care of the small children

Extract 128

- 1.2/1.5 T. Number 10, the last question
S. You ought not to have stopped smoking.
T. Exactly. You ought not to have stopped smoking

Extract 129

- 1.1/1.5 T. Number one. You should study very hard. Yes
S. Should you (x2) have studied very hard
T. Yes, should you have studied very hard

Extract 130

- 9.1 T. Two
S. Ought everyone have to do his share of work
T. Again
S. Ought everyone have done his share of work
1.1/1.5 T. Yes, ought everyone have done his share of work

Extract 131

- 8.1 T. Number 3
S. Should (x2) the janitor lock the doors before he leaves
T. No. Yes ?
S. You have the janitor (x2) should lock the doors
6 T. the examples, Again. ~~Look~~
S. Should the janitor ... Should have the janitor

- Look the doors before he left
- 12 T. Yes ?
 - S. Should the janitor have looked eh ... the doors be ... before
 - 6 T. Not looked, say locked
 - S. Locked.
 - 1.5/14 T. Locked. Say it once. Yes
 - S. Should the janitor have looked (x2) the doors before he leaves
 - 9.5 T. Say locked, not look
 - S. Should the janitor have looked the doors before he
 - 6 T. Not look, lock. say it. stand up. lock. say
 - S. The janitor ... Should the janitor have locked
 - 6 T. say it // Again
 - S. Should the janitor have locked the doors before he leaves
 - 12 T. Yes ?
 - S. Should the janitor have locked the doors before he left.
 - 1.2/1.5 T. Exactly. Should the janitor have locked the doors before he left.

Extract 132

- T. Ok. Number 4
- S. Ought not you tell the police about the accident ?
- 9.1 T. Again
- S. Ought not you (x2) told ... have told the police about the accident ?
- 11.1/11.3 T. This is a question. It is a question simply. Change the following sentences into negatives ? Change into what ? Questions by looking the examples. Yes
- S. ought not ... ought you to ... ought (x2) you have to tell... told the traffic police the about the
- 6 T. // No, no, no, yes
- S. Ought you have the traffic police the truth
- T. // ought you

- S. Have //
6 T. // To have
S. Ought to you have told //
6 T. told ... Yes ? // ought you to have
S. The traffic police the truth about the
accident.
9.1 T. Again, say it.
S. Ought you to have told the truth about
the accident
1.5 T. ought you to have told the truth about
the accident, yes

Extract 133

- T. Number 5
S. Should Amare has to submit xx
9.6 T. Again, please. Make your voice louder, please
S. Should have Amare ... Should Amare have
submitted his application before the end of
the semester.
1.1/1.5 T. Yes, should Amare have submitted his
application before the end of the semester

Extract 134

- T. Number 6
S. Ought I think you to came at once
9.6 T. What ?
S. Ought (x3) I think you to have came at
once
12 T. Yes
S. Ought I thought you to have came at once
1.5/14 T. Ought I thought you to have come at once(x2)
Say it once (x2 again
S. Ought I thought you to have come at once.
1.2 T. Exactly

Extract 135

- T. Number 7. Yes
S. Zakarias have run out of the house.

- 11.3/9.1 T. Change it. Yes, again
S. Should Zakarias run out of the house ?
1.5 T. Should Zakarias run out of the house ?

Extract 136

- T. Number 8. Yes
S. We should all learn how bread is made
11.3 T. What ? It says change the following sentences
into questions, it says
S. We should all learn how bread is made
8.1 T. No, no, no. Yes ?
S. Should they all learned how bread is made
12. T. Yes
S. Should we have all learned how bread is made
8.1 T. No, Yes.
S. Should we have all learned how bread is made
12 T. Yes
S. Should (x2) we have //
6 T. // Should we
S. Should we have learnt //
6 T. // All (x3) should we
S. Should we have all learned how bread is made
8.4/8.1 T. (moves head side ways) No. Yes ?
S. Should we have all ... Should we all have
learned how bread is made
1.1/1.5 T. Yes. Should we all have learned how ... learnt
how bread is made

Extract 136

- T. Number 9
S. Should the baby-sitter (x2) take care of the
small children ?
8.1 T. No. Yes
S. Should the baby-sitter have taken care of the
small children
1.1/1.5 T. Yes, should the baby-sitter have taken care
of the small children.

Extract 138

- T. Number 10
- S. Ought you have stopped smoking ?
- 8.1 T. No. Yes
- S. Ought you to have to stop smoking
- 9.1 T. Again, yes
- S. Ought you have (x2) to stop smoking
- 11.2 T. Ought you to have. Say it !
- S. Ought you to have stopped smoking.
- 1.1/1.5 T. Yes, ought you to have stopped smoking.

Appendix VIII

Extracts from the Classroom Talk of T₈

Categories Identified	Text
-----------------------	------

Extract 139

- T. What does the word heavy heart mean ?
S. Becoming unhappy.
1.5/16.2 T. Becoming unhappy. Is he correct ?
SS. Yes
1.5 T. Yes

Extract 140

- T. Is there any other expressions we discussed last time
S. XX
9.6 T. Say loud
S. Not sometimes
9.6 T. Not ? ... Say loud
S. Not some times
9.6 T. Not ?
S. Sometimes
9.6 T. ~~Say~~ it again. The expressions we discussed last time. Who can remember
S. In tears.
1.5/2.2 T. In tears. Say it please in tears
SS. In tears
2.1 T. So what does the word in tear means ?
S. Weeping.
1.5/1.1 T. Weeping. In tear means weeping correct.

Extract 141

- T. Any other expressions we discussed last time
S. Sobbing.
1.5 T. Sobbing. That's the same to weeping.

Extract 142

- T. What does it mean ? Tear oneself away from
S. To be separate
- 9.6 T. To be
S. Separate
- 4.1 T. Or
S. Depart from.
- 1.5/1.1/2.1 T. Depart from, good . Can you make a sentence
using depart from.
S. The man depart from Addis (x2)
- 9.4 T. A man departed from
S. Addis
- 1.1/4.1 T. Ok. anyother
S. Abebe is depart from
- 6 T. // Abebe departed from
S. The army
- 1.5/1.1 T. The army departed. O.k. yes, we can say the
boy refused to depart from his mother

Extract 143

- T. The answer will be as though he were (x2)
SS. In a hurry
- 1.5 T. In a hurry.

Extract 144

- T. Which part is the adverb clause of manner
S. He were a teacher
- 9.3/10.1 T. He were a teacher ? The adverb clause of
manner. Yes
S. As if he were a teacher.
- 1.5/1.6 T. As if he were a teacher. This part we call
them the adverb clause of manner

Extract 145

- T. Can you tell me which part is the adverb
clause of manner
S. As to which he were a doctor

- 9.6 T. Say loud
- S. As to which he were a doctor
- 9.6 T. Again. Say it loud
- S. As to which
- 6 T. // As though
- S. As though he were a doctor.
- 1.5/2.1 T. As though he were a doctor. This part is what kind of clause ?
- S. Adverb clause
- 11.2 T. Adverb clause of
- SS. Manner
- 5 T. As though he were a doctor. The nurse acts as though he were a doctor. Is he a doctor ?
- SS. No.
- 1.5/1.6 T. No, but the way he acts, the way he treats the patient this is like a doctor but he is not a doctor

Extract 146

- T. Which part is the verb ? Yes
- S. Ate
- 1.5 T. Ate is the verb

Extract 147

- T. Number 2
- S. XX
- 9.6 T. Say loud
- S. Wrote
- 1.5 T. Wrote

Extract 148

- T. Three. Sentence three
- S. Played (x2)
- 1.5 T. Played

Extract 149

- T. The adverb clause of manner modifies here modifies the word. What does the word modify mean

- S. XX
16.2 T. In English. Modify means
S. Show
1.5/1.6 T. To show or qualify. It qualifies the verb.

Extract 150

- T. Can we say in this way ? Subject and verb.
Did they agree ?
SS. No
14 T. He, were a student. Can we say in this way ?
SS. No, no.
1.6 T. We don't say. This is grammatically wrong.
This is third person singular. Rather it
should be he is or was a student rather he was
a student we say

Extract 151

- T. Is she really hungry ?
SS. No.
1.5/1.6 T. No. That's the way she eats. We are talking
the way she eats, but she is not hungry.

Extract 152

- T. Who can read this example ?
S. He read as I read
9.6 T. Say it again
S. He read as I read
9.6 T. He read as
S. I read
1.5/2.1 T. He read as I read. O.k. Tell me the subordinate
Clause
S. As I read.
1.5/2.1 T. As I read. As I read is what kind of clause
SS. Subordinate clause
16.2 T. One by one, raise your hand
S. Subordinate Clause.
1.5/2.1 T. Subordinate clause. Which one is the conjunction
which introduces this clause ?

- S. The word as
1.5 T. The word as

Extract 153

- T. Read the whole sentence first.
S. Do not (x2) trouble to change your shoes, come just as you are.
1.5/2.1 T. As you are. Do not trouble to change your shoes; come just as you are, which part is the subordinate clause?
S. As you are
9.6 T. Say loud
S. As (Pron: æs) you are.
1.5/2.1 T. As (Pron: əz) you are. Say it again. As
SS. As you are.
1.5/2.1 T. So as you are is subordinate clause. Which one is the conjunction which introduces the clause
S. As (Pron: æs)
9.5 T. As (x2) say it as
SS. As

Extract 154

- T. Number 2. Read loud
S. The mechanic walks as (2) if he were lame.
1.5/2.1 T. The mechanic walks as if he were lame. O.k. Is he really lame?
SS. No
2.1 T. Is he really lame?
SS. No.
1.1/2.1 T. No. But the way he acts. O.k. which part is the subordinate clause
S. As if he were lame
1.5 T. As if he were
SS. Lame
2.1 T. And the conjunction
S. As
9.5 T. As ... not only as ... as if (x2)

Extract 155

- T. Three
S. XX
- 9.6 T. Read loud
S. The dresser acts (x2) as if (x2) he were a doctor
- 1.1/2.1 T. O.k. which part is the adverb clause of manner ?
S. As if he were a doctor.
- 1.5/1.1/2.1 T. As if he were a doctor. Good, good. o.k. which one is the conjunction which introduces the clause ?
S. As if
- 1.5 T. As if

Extract 156

- T. Number 4
S. He frowned as though (Pron: su :) he were hungry
- 9.1 T. Say it again
S. He frowned as though (Pron: su :) he were hungry.
- 9.5/9.1 T. He frowned as though he were hungry. Say it as though
S. As though (Pron: so) he were hungry
- 9.1 T. Say it again
S. As though (Pron: s ə u) he were hungry
- 1.1/1.5/2.1 T. Yeah. That is he were hungry. As though he were hungry. What kind of clause
S. As (x3) though
- 10.1 T. What kind of clause
S. As (x2) Adverbial clause of manner.
- 1.5 T. Adverb clause of
S. Manner.
- 1.5/2.1 T. Manner. The conjunction ?
S. As
- 11.2 T. As
S. As though
- 1.5 T. As though

Extract 157

- T. Number 5
- S. The wounded (x2) soldier lay down as if he were deaf
- 11.2 T. O.k. ?
- S. As if he were dead
- 11.2 T. Is ?
- S. As if he were dead
- 11.3 T. Is What kind of clause ?
- S. Adv ... Adverbial clause of manner.
- 1.5 T. Adverb clause of manner.

Extract 158

- T. O.k. Six
- S. XX
- 9.6 T. Say it again
- S. The woman spoke as though she were an American
- 2.1 T. Which part is the adverb clause of manner
- S. As though she were an American.
- 1.5/2.1 T. As though she were an American. The conjunction ?
- S. As though.
- 1.5/2.1 T. As though. But is she an American?
- S. No.
- 1.5/1.6 T. No, but the way she pronounces is like an American

Extract 159

- T. How did he teach (x3) The answer will be what?
- S. As if he were a teacher
- 9.6 T. Say loud
- S. As if he were a teacher.
- 1.5/1.1/2.2 T. As if he were a teacher, correct. Can you ask of using how ? (x2) Biruk
- S. How did he act ?
- 1.5/1.1/2.1 T. How did he act ? Good. The answer will be
- S. As though he were a doctor.
- 1.5/1.6 T. As though he were a doctor. So, from this we understand (x2) that the adverb clause of manner answers the question 'how'.

Extract 160

- T. Which part do you think is the main clause and which one is subordinate clause
- S. The student taught, main clause
- 1.5/1.2 T. The student taught, very good.
- S. As if he were a teacher subordinate clause
- 1.5/1.2 T. As if he were a teacher subordinate clause or adverb clause of manner. Very good

Extract 162

- T. She is a student (x2) Is this a sentence ?
- SS. Yes.
- 1.1/1.5/2.1 T. Yes. This is a sentence because (x2) it gives
- SS. Meaning.
- 1.5/1.1 T. Meaning, yes. Because it gives complete meaning

Extract 163

- T. Does it give complete meaning if I say as if he were a teacher ? This part
- SS. No
- 1.5 T. No

Extract 164

- T. Which part is the main clause and which part is the subordinate clause ?
- S. Ayelech ate main clause. As though she were hungry subordinate clause
- 1.2/1.3/1.5 T. Very good. That's right. Ayelech ate this is main clause. As though she were hungry subordinate clause

Extract 165

- T. Two
- S. Doncha wrote main clause. As (x2) if he were in hurry subordinate clause
- 1.3/1.5 T. That's right. Doncha wrote that's main clause. As if he were in hurry that is subordinate clause.

Extract 166

- T. Last sentence, which part is the main clause ?
- S. The nurse acts main clause. As though he were a professional subordinate clause
- 1.5 T. As though he were a professional that is subordinate clause.

DECLARATION

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

Name: Wondwosen Tamrat

Signature: 

Place: Institute of Language Studies,
Addis Ababa University

Date of Submission: June 8, 1992