

A STUDY OF THE CLASSROOM LANGUAGE  
OF JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL  
TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

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Yoseph Makonnen

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BY  
YOSEPH MAKONNEN

Institute of Language Studies

Approved by \_\_\_\_\_

Tilahun Gamta  
Advisor

JOHN MORRIS  
Examiner

JOHN MORRIS  
Examiner

\_\_\_\_\_  
Examiner

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## A C K N O W L E D G E M E N T S

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is basically to identify the language functions most commonly used by junior secondary school teachers of English in the classroom. In addition, the study aims at identifying the linguistic errors that occur in the language functions and along with this it attempts to show which language functions the teachers find most difficult to handle and which they manipulate with ease.

Four government junior secondary schools were selected for the study. From the twelve teachers of English working in these schools eight were selected and recorded while teaching English in the classroom. The recorded lessons were then transcribed and analysed on the basis of the system of analysis developed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) with a slight modification made by this researcher.

The results of the analysis of the findings showed that the most common language functions used by these teachers were:

- a) Asking questions (Eliciting and Re-eliciting) which took 59.3% of the lesson time;
- b) Explaining, Exemplifying, summarizing (Informing in general) which took 26.1% of the lesson time;
- c) Giving instructions and orders (Directing) which took 9.3% of the lesson time;
- d) Opening and closing the stages of the lesson (Framing and Focusing) which took 4.5% of the lesson time; and
- e) Checking students' understanding of the lesson which took 0.8% of the lesson time.

The results also showed that there were 577 errors (grammatical and pronunciation errors) which were classified into 17 categories. Of these errors, 39.5% were identified in Elicits, 36.4% in Informs, 14.2% in Directs, 6.6% in Boundary exchanges, and 3.3% in Checks. Further, it was found that the ratio of errors to exchanges is much greater in Informs than in any one of the other exchanges. There were nearly three more errors in every Inform exchange than in every one of the other exchanges.

In addition, the results showed that the functions of explaining, summarizing, evaluating (in general explaining meaning or putting over information) and giving instructions were the most difficult ones for the teachers to handle while asking questions (particularly re-eliciting by nominating or prompting or looping) and checking students' understanding were the ones the teachers found easy to manipulate.

On the basis of the findings it was recommended that junior secondary school teachers of English need to be given appropriate training in these language functions particularly in the functions concerned with explaining meaning or putting over information, rephrasing and simplifying unanswered elicits, and giving instructions. In addition, it was recommended that improvements should be made in the textbooks in a way that would minimize teachers' over-reliance on them and provide enough chances of using these language functions as frequently and meaningfully as possible.

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## Chapter One

### 1. Introduction

#### 1.1 Purpose of the Study

In the Ethiopian government school system the junior secondary school is the level at which English begins to be used as a medium of instruction.

It is generally believed that both students and teachers face problems pertaining to the language. Although their comments are not backed by statistical data or tests, quite a lot of Ethiopian and foreign experts of education admit that students' English language performance in the junior secondary school is highly inadequate. John Rogers (1967) critically observes that after four years of inadequate teaching of English, it is doubtful that most grade seven students are linguistically capable of studying every subject (except Amharic) in English.

The problems at the junior secondary school can certainly contribute to the problems later in the higher levels. More frequently than before teachers at the junior secondary schools and above are heard complaining about students' poor performance in English. Similarly, many students are heard admitting frankly that their poor academic performance is due to predominantly their weak English language command. The studies made so far (for example: Abdulkadir Ali 1983; Getachew Fantaye 1984; Tewolde Gebreyohannes 1988) on college and secondary school students confirm these views.

But the studies made so far concentrate on students and look at the problem from the students' side. Few attempt to look

at the problem from the teachers' side. It is no wonder that this is so because as Cheryl L. Champeau de Lopez (1989) points out, today the emphasis in education is on the student as the focus of learning. Yet, she stresses that the teacher is the person specially trained to guide the student and help him achieve his goal.

This researcher strongly believes that a lot of research into the classroom needs to be conducted in order to find out what goes on in the language classroom. Only when we have a knowledge of this can we be in a better position to prepare corrective measures to improve conditions in the language classroom.

Looking into the teacher's classroom language in particular can provide useful information concerning the problems pertaining to the teaching of English. Paul Lennon (1988) says that language teachers for their part have a wealth of information that has not been exploited yet. This wealth of information is due to the fact that most of the classroom hour as A.D. Edwards and V.J. Furlong (1978) indicate, is used up by the teacher in giving out information, instructions, reproofs, and assessments, etc. Studies in classroom interaction (for example: Bellack et al., 1966; Flanders 1970) show that teachers' talking time is far greater than students' time. This is particularly true for the Ethiopian EFL teacher in the Ethiopian government school classroom (Tewolde, 1988).

In discussing the role of the teacher in today's language classroom, Champeau de Lopez notes the following:

Today knowledge of the linguistic structure of the language is only one of the requirements of a good language teacher. Teachers

should also have a broad background knowledge of the social environment that influences their students, different pedagogical techniques being taught, and techniques for diagnosing certain psychological characteristics of learners.... Language is a form of communication among individuals in a specific social context. But even more than that language is a way of thinking and processing information (1989:5).

This clearly implies the question which research should answer: Do language teachers have the knowledge of both the formal and the functional aspects of the language? or do they equally recognize the importance of what a language does (function) as well as what it is (structure)? This and similar questions call for an investigation into the classroom language of the teacher - an endeavour which this research aims at.

Therefore, this study is designed to identify the language functions most commonly used by the junior secondary school teacher of English in the classroom. An attempt will also be made to identify major linguistic errors, if any, that occur in the language functions.

## 1.2 Significance of the Study

This study is significant because the results can be used as a basis for making decisions on the sort of language to be taught when training teachers. It also indicates the sort of language courses such teachers can teach at the level of their interlanguage. In addition, the study can serve as a springboard for making further investigation into the classroom language of the teacher.

### 1.3 Scope of the Study

This study concentrates on identifying basically the language functions most commonly used by the eight teachers of English in the eight language lessons recorded by the researcher in the four junior secondary schools of Asella area, namely, Asella, Chilalo, Gonde, Iteya.

The study also attempts to provide a side-show of the linguistic errors that may correlate to the language functions used. The errors refer to grammatical errors and also errors in pronunciation, i.e. mispronunciation of words that cause difficulty in understanding.

In connection to this it will also show which functions the teachers find most difficult to handle and which they can operate with ease.

### 1.4 Limitations of the Study

The most challenging constraint faced by the researcher was the size of the corpus. The eight teachers were recorded for thirty minutes each while teaching English. The recorded eight lessons were then transcribed and analysed. This was a job which required much extra time and overwork.

2. Review of Related Literature

2.1 Introduction

The attempt to identify the language functions most commonly used by junior secondary school teachers of English and the effort to indicate the linguistic errors that occur in the functions involves the consideration of works done in discourse analysis (particularly that of Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975), classroom interaction, and error analysis. Discourse studies and classroom studies dependent on them can provide us with a description of what goes on in the classroom. In other words, to be able to find out the types of language functions teachers use in the classroom it is necessary to review some of the relevant works in discourse analysis. Similarly, in order to examine what goes wrong from a linguistic view-point it is necessary to consider studies made in error analysis. The main concern in this study being the teacher's classroom language, that is, how to describe and correct it, we need to consider both what goes on and what goes wrong linguistically.

The researcher has endeavoured to explore some of the important contributions made by some of the experts in the areas mentioned above. Their ideas are briefly treated below. However, no research has been done with the aim of identifying the language functions most commonly used by junior secondary school teachers of English in Ethiopian schools. Neither has any study been done on identifying the linguistic errors of these teachers. In that sense it could be claimed that the present research is an original work.

## 2.2 Discourse Studies

M. Coulthard (1977) in his 'Introduction to Discourse Analysis' mentions that attempts were made earlier by linguists like Firth (1951), Harris (1952), and Mitchel (1957), but it was not until after the dawn of the 1960s that actual work in discourse analysis began.

The man whose ideas helped to lay the theoretical base was J.L. Austin (1962) who distinguished two types of verbs: performative verbs, i.e. verbs which perform actions (for example, 'I apologize....; I warn....) and constative verbs, i.e. verbs which describe or record a fact.

But later Austin dropped his idea of the distinction between the verbs and considered all verbs as performative. He listed three acts that a speaker may perform within any one utterance. These are: the locutionary act (uttering the word with its reference), the illocutionary act (the act performed by uttering the word), and the perlocutionary act (the effective result of the action).

Austin saw the first two acts as having the same force. He was then able to distinguish between the sentence form and the act - a distinction which is essential for analysing classroom interaction and discourse. R.B. Hicks (1983) notes that this makes the study of language look at the whole speech act rather than just the formal sentence.

J.R.Searle (1969) who developed and modified Austin's ideas applies the speech act theory as a basis for the analysis which

describes the communication process. He points out that the speech act is the basic unit of communication and the connection between the speaker's words, his intention, and what the listener understands is the basis of the speech act. Where the connection between these and the utterance fails, breakdown in communication occurs due to linguistic inadequacies. Hicks (1983) confirms that within a situation of non-native speakers breakdowns in communication can occur due to ignorance of rules.

Searle (1969), therefore, provides us with a fundamental way of seeing language out of which develops most of the work in linguistic studies of interaction such as Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) whose system of analysis is used in this study by the researcher.

In relating the speech act theory to the classroom Hicks (1983) remarks that if one is to understand the speech act as exemplified in the language classroom, it becomes essential to study not only the interaction but also the linguistic errors that may lead to failure in the act. This view strongly reflects the underlying basic characteristic of the present study even though the scope of the study is limited to the identification of language functions and linguistic errors that have major roles in the classroom language of junior secondary school teachers of English.

### 2.3 Language Functions

In dealing with the question of the functions of language M.A.K. Halliday (1973:7) begins as follows:

A functional approach to language means investigating how language is used: trying

to find out what are the purposes that language serves for us, and how we are able to achieve these purposes through speaking and listening, reading and writing. But it also means more than this. It means seeking to explain the nature of language in functional terms: seeing whether language itself has been shaped by use, and if so, in what ways - how the form of language has been determined by the functions it has evolved to serve.

This view of Halliday clearly and briefly shows the functional basis of the origin and development of language. In addition, it implies that language functions constitute the most basic component of discourse. It is true that any form of discourse (written or spoken), whether in the classroom or elsewhere, calls for one or more types of language functions that are realized through the interweaving of linguistic units in various functionally meaningful fashions.

This question of language functions or in the words of Sinclair and Coulthard context-dependent meanings have been treated in different ways by various linguists. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) cite Bloomfield (1933) who observes that the statement of meanings is a weak point in language study and thus he undermines the importance of language functions.

On the other hand, Dell Hymes (1972:xviii) sees the problem of language functions as a challenge and an opportunity for the advancement of linguistics itself. He says that progress in understanding language in the classroom is progress in linguistic theory.

Hymes (1972:xii-xiii) argues that understanding how language is structured is not so important as understanding how

language is used. He further expands his view that for language in the classroom what we need to know goes far beyond how the grammar of English is organized as something to be taught. It has to do with the relationship between a grammar of English and the ways in which English is organized in use by teachers and students.

Further, Hymes stresses that understanding language in its social context requires understanding the meanings that social contexts and use of language have for their participants; and students of language are to a large extent in the same position as participants in the classroom in this matter.

Hymes concludes that the functions of language in the classroom are a special case of the general problem of the study of language in its social context.

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) mention the attempt made by Katz and Postal (1964) to build the illocutionary force or function of sentences into deep grammar. This is based on the analysis of the sentence 'You will go' which can be interpreted as a command equivalent to 'I order you to go' or as a declarative statement.

In addition, Sinclair and Coulthard mention the role modal verbs play in determining the function of an utterance. They cite Boyd and Thorne (1969) who discuss the illocutionary force of sentences containing such verbs. What Boyd and Thorne say is that the semantic deep structure of declarative surface structures is not always that of a statement. For instance, they argue that the modal verb 'will' is an indicator that the illocutionary force of the sentence is a prediction.

Sinclair and Coulthard say that although the deep structure provides part of the meaning of an utterance and a basis for all occasions of use, it is not necessary for the complete meaning of an utterance to come from the deep structure together with the lexical meaning. They add that isolated sentences serve little purpose, if any, and a large part of the meaning of a sentence must always be determined by its context which realizes the function of the language.

Let us now briefly see the various language functions some linguists have identified and see how the ones identified by the researcher relate to the others. Of course, not all the functions identified by Halliday, Wilkins, Coulthard, and Van Ek can be found in the language used in the classroom. On the other hand, all the language functions mentioned by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), Hughes (1981), and Sinclair and Brazil (1982) do refer mainly to the language used in the classroom. So, their works in particular do throw light showing the need for more investigations into the functions of language in the classroom. Thus these works are relevant to this study in so far as they deal with the identification and analysis of language functions.

### 2.3.1 Classifications of Language Functions

As discussed in the preceding pages, language is basically meant to serve various functions. This is well expressed by various linguists such as E.Sapir (1966:2,5,36), M.Copi (1966:27-31), Halliday (1973:7; 1975:37; 1985:xiii), Widdowson (1978:52), and Norrish (1983:2) just to name a few.

Halliday in particular, in his ' Explorations in the Functions of Language ' (1973), discusses in detail the fact that there are various functions which language serves. He says that the demands we make on language as speakers and writers, listeners and readers are indefinitely many and varied. He further points out that this functional plurality is built in the structure of language and forms the basis of its semantic and syntactic (grammatical and lexical) organization.

On the basis of his functional approach he interprets the origins of language development as the learning of a set of functions, each with its associated meaning potential. He notes that the system is a functional one in which the concept of functions of language for the child is synonymous with that of use while for the adult the two are distinct. Based on this view he provides us with two classes of categories of language functions that characterize child and adult language systems.

In the first class there are seven categories of language functions which characterize the child's language. They are listed in the order of their developmental sequence. These functions are briefly outlined as follows:

1. Instrumental: includes the expressions of desire. It is also referred to as the ' I want....' function.
2. Regulatory: refers to the use of language to regulate the behaviours of others. It can be equated with the function of giving direction in the corpus. For example, ' No any talking; take your place....' (see Appendix I - H: ).
3. Interactional: includes meanings such as generalized

greetings, 'Hello', 'Pleased to see you', and responses to call and the like. In the corpus of this study this function can be matched with the functions of responding to nominates and the expressions 'Good morning' and 'Good afternoon'.

4. Personal: refers to functions involving the expressions of personal feelings, participation and withdrawal, interest, pleasure and disgust. In the classroom language of the teachers in this study such functions usually accompany the functions of evaluating which follows a student's response. For example, 'Sleepy, are you sick?' This is an expression of disgust made when a student gave a wrong answer (see Appendix I - H: ).

5. Heuristic: refers to the function of asking questions. At the early stage it begins with questions like 'What is your name?'. Later it develops into the whole range of question forms. It refers to language as a means of investigating reality, a way of learning about things. This can be compared to the function of eliciting and checking in the corpus.

6. Imaginative: refers to the function of language whereby the child creates his own environment - a world initially of pure sound but which gradually turns into one of story and make-believe and let's pretend, and ultimately into the realm of poetry and imaginative writing. Halliday refers to this function as 'let's pretend' function of language.

7. Representational or Informative: refers to the giving of information. It is the realm of the declarative affirmative and the declarative negative. This is the same as the function of informing in the corpus.

Of these seven functions the initial ones are instrumental,

regulatory, interactional, and personal; these are then followed by the heuristic and imaginative functions which are then followed by the representational or informative.

Each item in the language is a simple context expression pair and there is no level of linguistic form (no grammar). Wilga Rivers (1981:192-4) comments that this analysis can act as a useful guide for teachers of a second or third language who wish to provide their students with a well-honed instrument that they can use for all kinds of purposes. She further observes that although the adult uses these simple functions for the most part in combination in macro-functions, understanding the acquisition of the mechanism of the simple functions is essential if use of the new language is not to remain confused and mysterious.

In the second class there are three broad categories of language functions. These are referred to as macro-functions which take the form of grammar. Halliday observes that the grammatical system provides the mechanism for different functions to be combined in one utterance in the way the adult requires. He further notes that the innumerable social purposes for which adults use language are not represented directly one by one in the form of functional components in the language system as are those of the child.

These three macro-functions or global functions as McDonough (1981:78) calls them, are: 1) the 'Ideational' which expresses content and which not only specifies the available options in meaning but also determines the nature of their structural organizations; 2) the 'Interpersonal' which expresses the relationship that the speaker sets between himself and the listener in

particular, the communicative role he adopts of informing, question-  
ing, greeting, and persuading and the like; 3) the 'Textual' which  
is instrumental to the other two functions whereby language is  
enabled to meet the demands that are made on it. It is concerned  
with the internal organization of the sentence and with its meaning  
as a message both in itself and in relation to the context.

Halliday's classification provides us with the idea that  
language can be classified into the various functions it is meant  
to serve. It is perhaps the first systematic classification of  
language into its various functions based on research directed  
towards investigating the developmental acquisition of the various  
functions in children as well as in adults. Although the aim of  
Halliday differs from that of this researcher, his work does  
indicate that some of the major language functions this researcher  
has identified could be labelled under some of the functions  
Halliday has identified, particularly his macro-functions. In the  
light of this view his work is relevant to this thesis.

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) identify three most commonly  
known language functions - statement, question, and command. These  
functions are realized in declarative, interrogative, and imperative  
forms. They point out that the relationship between these functions  
and forms in actual language use is more flexible. For instance, a  
declarative form can be used to make a request or give a command.

D.A. Wilkins (1976:44) proposes six types of language functions  
1) judgement and evaluation 2) suasion 3) argument 4) rational  
inquiry and exposition 5) personal emotions 6) emotive relations.  
He then subclassifies each function; for example, argument includes

information asserted, information sought, information denied, agreement, disagreement, and concession.

Wilkin's proposition is criticized because of certain shortcomings. For example, some of the categories overlap while some of the realizations sound odd. Besides, there are no suggested realizations for the functions 'sympathy and flattery'. Of course, Wilkins himself admits that in the light of further research his proposition can be refined.

Coulthard (1977:154) cites one of the earliest published courses Abbs et al. (1975) in which the language functions that are recommended to be taught to students are given. These include: identifying people and places; expressing personal tastes, emotions moods, and opinions; giving information; making suggestions; and giving advice.

J.A.Van Ek (1985:25,37-9,45-9) gives us a list of seventy five language functions for the 'Threshold Level' under the following six categories: 1) imparting and seeking factual information 2) expressing and finding out intellectual attitude 3) expressing and finding out emotional attitude 4) expressing and finding out moral attitude 5) getting things done (suasion) 6) socializing. Van Ek admits that this list is by no means exhaustive and adds that it is unlikely that one can draw up a complete list. Further, he says that at higher levels more functions will be added.

G.S,Hughes (1981:9-11) provides us with a list of language functions related to classroom management grouped under key headings and expressed in terms of what the teacher should be able

to do. He says that the headings are suggestive only but they may be useful to Teacher Training Institutes in the preparation of syllabuses aimed at teaching classroom competence.

The language functions Hughes identifies appear to be more relevant to this thesis because they refer directly to the classroom language of L2 teachers. So, his map of the functions is summarized as follows:

- A. ORGANIZATION -
  - 1. Giving instructions (instruct, control pupils' behaviour)
  - 2. Sequencing (sequence lesson, check, introduce)
  - 3. Supervision (direct attention, warn)
- B. INTERROGATION -
  - 1. Asking questions (on specific tasks and freely)
  - 2. Replying to questions (confirm verbally, give feedback in drills)
- C. EXPLANATION -
  - 1. Metalanguage (define, paraphrase, summarize, instruct for exercises)
  - 2. Reference (give factual information, comment)
- D. INTERACTION -
  - 1. Affective attitude (express anger, interest, appreciation, etc.)
  - 2. social ritual (express greetings, apologies, thanks, etc.)

Sinclair and Brazil (1982:22), in dealing with 'Teacher Talk', point out that classroom activities make different selections from the possible kinds of language functions. They summarize the various language functions teachers use in the classroom into four classes as follows:

1. telling things to pupils: this includes giving information, describing things, explaining process, demonstrating experiments and effects.

2. getting pupils to do things: includes ordering them, instructing them in how to do things, and organizing the teaching-learning process.

3. getting pupils to say things: includes questioning and probing for answers, stimulating various kinds of talk, involving pupils by getting them to commit themselves.

4. evaluating things that pupils do, i.e. acknowledging their responses and giving them indications of their progress and achievements.

Sinclair generalizes that most of the time the teacher's activity in the EFL classroom is verbal and falls within one or more of the types 1-4 mentioned above.

While the three macro-functions of Halliday can embrace all other classes suggested by the other language experts including the functions identified by this researcher, the functions of classroom language identified by Hughes (1981) and Sinclair (1982) provide us with a more specific classification of functions closely related to the ones identified in this study. What is not clearly known in Sinclair's classification is whether he has completely ignored the functions of checking, framing and focusing or included them in the third and first classes respectively.

To provide a comparative view of the various classifications of the language functions identified by the above mentioned language experts the language functions are shown in Table 1.

The purpose of this comparison is to enable us to see whether the functions identified in this study are completely unrelated and new or just similar in any way. However, as indicated earlier, the major concern of this study is limited to finding out the kind of language functions used by junior secondary school teachers of English and not to make a comparative analysis of the classifications of the language functions.

Table - 1

A comparison of the language functions identified by the above mentioned experts

Functions concerned with informing	Functions concerned with asking Qs.	Functions concerned with giving command	Identified by
Statement Inform	Question Elicit & Check	Command Direct	Sinclair and Coulthard(1975)
Instrumental, Interactive, Personal, Imaginative, Informative.	Heuristic	Regulatory	Halliday(1973/5)
Judgement and evaluation, Argument, Personal emotion, Emotive relation.	Rational inquiry and exposition.	Suasion	Wilkins(1976)
Imparting information, Expressing intellectual, emotional and moral attitudes; Socializing.	Seeking information, Finding out intellectual, emotional and moral attitudes.	Suasion	Van Ek(1975/85)
Identifying people and places, Expressing tastes and emotions; Making suggestions, Giving advice	Identifying people and places.	Making suggestions, Giving advice.	Abbs et al.(1975) as cited by Coulthard(1977)
Sequence, Explain, Interact.	Interrogate	Instruct, supervise.	Hughes(1981)
Inform students and evaluate their work.	Get students to say things.	Get students to do things.	Sinclair(1982)

It can be seen from Table-1 that in general giving or passing information holds the largest amount of time of the functions which language is meant to serve. However, whether this holds true for the classroom language of the teachers in this corpus is something that must be confirmed from the results of the analysis.

#### 2.4 Works on Classroom Language and Interaction

Since the middle of the first half of the 20th century, there has been a growing interest in what goes on in the classroom specially between the teacher and his students. Consequently, a lot of research has been conducted to systematically analyse teacher-student interaction in the classroom.

R.B.Hicks (1983) divides all classroom studies on the basis of whether they are descriptive or have a strong corrective purpose arising out of the description and according to the unit of analysis used. Table-2 shows the divisions.

Table - 2

#### Studies of Classroom Language

	Time based categories	Linguistically based categories
Descriptive	Wragg	Sinclair and Coulthard, Bellack, Fanselow
Corrective	Flanders Moskowitz	Barnes Stubbs

Let us now briefly review these studies.

### 2.4.1 Flanders Time-based Analysis

Flanders' system of analysis has its origin in education rather than linguistics and is more concerned with describing what is happening in the classroom in order to improve on it.

The system is based on a three-second time interval. The observer who is using this system divides the lesson into three-second intervals and classifies each three seconds according to the ten categories shown in Table-3. The observer can analyse the lesson as it happens. Seven of the categories refer to the teacher while two of them concern the student. The last one refers to the condition of silence and confusion.

The system is evaluative rather than descriptive and hence it is useful in evaluating the teaching performance from the view point of the teacher's classroom behaviour.

Table - 3

Flanders' Ten Categories

TEACHER	1. accept feeling 2. praise or encourage 3. accept or use idea of pupils
	4. ask questions
TALK	5. lecturing 6. giving directions 7. criticising or justifying authority
PUPI L	8. pupil response
TALK	9. pupil initiation
SI LENCE	10. silence and confusion

(Flanders, 1970:34)

Flanders' system has been used by many researchers and some have made modifications to it (for example, Wragg, 1970 and Moskowitz 1976). It has also been criticized for its shortcomings; for example it is not related to linguistic structure as it is based on the unit of time and it ignores the content of the lesson. Therefore, due to lack of this linguistic measure the researcher has found it inappropriate to his study.

#### 2.4.1.1 Wragg (1970) and Moskowitz (1976) /as cited by Hicks (1983)/

Both Wragg (1970) and Moskowitz (1976) have used Flanders' system in the second language classroom. Wragg with a descriptive aim doubles up the categories except silence to classify whether the unit is in the target language or first language.

Moskowitz compares the best teachers with other teachers and isolates some form of product process in teaching styles. She distinguishes between first and target language use and introduces more categories like jokes, and subdivides questions, lecturing and criticism.

#### 2.4.2 Linguistic-based Studies

2.4.2.1 Barnes (1969): His study focuses on how much the questions asked by the teacher help to enhance the participation of students and their conceptual development. He classifies questions according to whether they are factual, open, social or reasoning, and according to the amount of student participation they encourage. He criticizes teachers for asking a limited range of questions and for limiting students' potential contribution because of their pre-conceived answers. He also discusses the skills teachers need in

the classroom.

2.4.2.2 Stubbs (1976): He focuses on the language of control. He outlines eight language functions: attracting and showing attention, controlling the amount of speech, checking or confirming understanding, summarizing, defining, simplifying, editing what is said, and correcting and specifying topics. He explains that one utterance may involve more than one of the functions at the same time. These functions provide a useful way of examining how a teacher controls and manipulates classroom interaction.

While the works of Barnes and Stubbs have mainly corrective purposes the works of Bellack (1966), Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Fanselow (1987) have primarily descriptive aims.

2.4.2.3 Bellack et al. (1966): At first their analysis was designed for educational aims. But it also provides a functional and structural analysis. It presents a hierarchical structure for lessons with four units: the game, the sub-game, the cycle, and the move. The move is of four types: soliciting, responding, structuring, and reacting, each of which has a different discourse function. These moves are briefly described below.

1. Structuring moves: serve the pedagogical function of setting the context for subsequent behaviour by either launching or holding - excluding interaction between students and teachers.

2. Soliciting moves: are designed to elicit a verbal response to encourage pupils to attend to the lesson or to elicit a physical response.

3. Responding moves: maintain a reciprocal relationship to soliciting moves and occur only in relation to them.

4. Reacting moves: serve to modify or expand or rate positively or negatively what has been said during the responding moves.

Moves which describe the verbal behaviour of both teachers and students are said to occur in classroom discourse in certain cyclic patterns or combinations which are designated 'Teaching Cycles'. Bellack et al. say that any typical teaching cycle consists of a teacher solicitation followed by a pupil response which in turn is followed by the teacher's reaction to the responding move. Table-4 shows the ratio of the distribution of the pedagogical moves.

Table - 4

The Ratio of the Distribution of the Pedagogical Moves

Pedagogical moves	% of moves by the teacher	% of moves by the student
Structuring	66	12
Soliciting	86	14
Responding	12	88
Reacting	81	19

The teacher's moves are mainly soliciting and reacting. Bellack found out that 48.6% is soliciting, 39.2% is reacting, 7.7% is structuring, and 5.5% is responding move. Students' most frequent move is the responding move. The involvement of students in the various moves are: 11.3% in soliciting, 65.4% in responding, 1.8% in structuring, 15.1% in reacting, and 6.4% is not codable.

2.4.2.4 Sinclair and Coulthard (1975): They developed their own system in which they attempted to keep their analysis purely linguistic by avoiding the pedagogical categories of earlier systems.

They use a rank scale similar to Bellack's unit of analysis, the move. At first they started with two ranks, utterance and exchange. Utterance is defined as everything said by one speaker before another began to speak while exchange refers to two or more utterances.

The ranks consist of: the lesson, the transaction, the exchange, the move, and the act. Move is defined as the smallest free unit although it has a structure in terms of acts. They say that acts and moves in discourse are similar to morphemes and words in grammar. Discourse acts are defined as typically one free clause plus one subordinate clause.

These five ranks of discourse are compared to units of non-linguistic organization consisting of the course, the period, and the topic on one side and the unit of grammar on the other (the sentence, clause, group, word, and morpheme). However, they indicate that there is no one to one correspondence between these levels. Table - 5 shows the correspondence of the levels.

Table - 5

A comparison of levels and ranks

LEVELS AND RANKS		
Non-linguistic org.	Discourse	Grammar
Course	_____	_____
Period	Lesson	_____
Topic	Transaction	_____
_____	Exchange	_____
_____	Move	Sentence
_____	Act	Clause
_____	_____	Group
_____	_____	Word
_____	_____	Morpheme

Some researchers who have used this system have modified it to suit their aims. For example, Hicks (1983) criticizes it for its shortcomings that led to his modification. He says that adopting the five ranks highly complicates any comparative analysis with linguistic errors and communication breakdowns. In addition, it complicates the two functions of direct and elicit in connection with verbal and non-verbal responses. Hicks further cites other shortcomings as well. Yet, he confirms that the system is an objective way for describing language skills used in the classroom.

2.4.2.5 J.F.Fanselow (1987): With the aim of generating and exploring alternatives in language teaching Fanselow found it useful to use an observation system. He believes that an observation system helps to discover rules, generate alternatives, and see the extent to which rules that are broken by the speaker raise questions about his preconceived notions.

The system of observation that Fanselow devised is known as 'FOCUS'. FOCUS is an acronym for 'Foci for Observing Communications Used in Settings'. It is used to describe both linguistic and non-linguistic communications that take place in classrooms and outside classrooms. The system helps to clarify actual communications that occur in the classroom and it is designed to be used to code communications in both teaching and non-teaching settings.

FOCUS contains categories to note five different characteristics of communications. The first two characteristics - the source/target and move type answer the question 'What is being done?' while the other three, i.e. the medium, the use, and the content help to answer the question 'How is it being done?'. These five

characteristics of communications are briefly described as follows.

1. The Source/Target of communications: refers to both the teacher and the student in and out of classrooms. Teacher refers to both a person who is paid to teach and who assumes that role in any situation. Student refers to one attends to a teacher as well as to peer or equal. For the category of communications coming from noises, labels on cars, or road signs, and books, etc. the term 'Other' is used.

2. The Move type: refers to the purpose of communications and is of four types.

i) Structuring moves: refer to announcements of what we are going to do or have done.

ii) Soliciting moves: refer to the setting of tasks by asking questions, issuing commands, or making requests.

iii) Responding moves: refer to replying to solicits.

iv) Reacting moves: refer to the comments that are made by a speaker.

Fanselow comments that although the four move types cover most of what have been considered important in observing in classroom, they do not cover all possibilities. So, he adds a fifth one known as 'Bearing moves' to refer to idiosyncratic communications that many teachers make while teaching. For example, some people shake change in their pockets as they teach or listen in a conversation. Others scratch their heads, smoke or constantly touch their ears.

Fanselow suggests that if one finds the move too small a unit of analysis for the entire description of communications, larger units can be used. One of the ways to look at a unit

larger than the individual move is to look at cycles of moves and sequences of cycles. A teaching cycle is defined as a series of moves beginning with a structuring or soliciting move that is not preceded by a structuring move. It ends with the move before a new structuring or a new soliciting move that is not preceded by a new structuring move. Once the cycle is identified, the sequence of cycle types can be described together with the source and target of the cycles and sequence of cycles.

3. The Medium: refers to the means of communications.

Fanselow places it in one of four major categories - linguistic, non-linguistic, paralinguistic, and silence. These are again subdivided into 'aural/oral, visual, and other' mediums.

4. The Use: refers to how the mediums are used to communicate content. Different uses of mediums are easily made by noting whether the mediums are taken in or produced.

5. The Content: refers to the message communicated by the medium used in different ways. Fanselow identifies three major categories of content. These are: life, procedure, and study. 'Life' includes expressions of personal feelings, personal information, greetings, leave-taking, polite expressions, general knowledge, etc. 'Procedure' refers to language used in calling the roll, discipline students, give directions, or give a rationale for particular exercises. 'Study' concerns the condition where the target language is being communicated as an area of study - as information set apart and studied, tested, or practised for its own sake.

Fanselow mentions the works of Bellack et al. (1966) as having served as a basis to develop FOCUS and he acknowledges that the move and source in particular are directly borrowed from them.

The five characteristics of communications are summarized in Table - 6.

Table - 6

The five characteristics of communications

What is being done?		How is it being done?		
Source/Target	Move type	Medium	Use	Content
teacher		linguistic	attend	life
	structure		characterize	
student	solicit	non-linguistic	present	procedure
		para-linguistic	relate	
	respond		reproduce	
	react	silence	—	study
other			set	

(Fanselow, 1987:42)

## 2.5 Error Analysis - A Brief Review

### 2.5.1 Introduction

The study of learners' language with emphasis on their errors has a comparatively long history in linguistics. Teachers have always been concerned with errors their students make and with finding causes for them.

Hicks (1983) indicates that major studies concerned with errors have two main purposes: 1) remedial, i.e. a description of learners' errors can be used as a basis for teaching them how to eradicate the errors and to provide more efficient teaching materials to avoid the more practicable ones; 2) psycholinguistic,

i.e. a study of learners' errors will give insight into language learning process which may be equally relevant to language acquisition.

### 2.5.2 Importance of Errors

Dulay et al. (1982) point out that studying learners' errors serves two major purposes: 1) errors provide data from which inferences about the nature of language learning process can be made; 2) errors indicate to teachers and curriculum developers which part of the target language students find difficult to produce correctly and which error types detract most from a learner's ability to communicate effectively. P.Corder (1981) adds that errors for the learner are a way he has of testing his hypothesis about the nature of the target language he is learning.

This is what makes it necessary almost for any classroom language research particularly those with corrective aims to give due consideration to errors. The aim of this study in giving attention to errors by way of dealing with language functions can thus be clearly understood from the above mentioned basic points.

### 2.5.3 Causes of Errors

In order to be able to prescribe corrective measures for errors it is important to know why errors occur. Corder (1981) stresses that an understanding or explanation of errors is essential for improving the learner's language. So, the major causes of errors are briefly outlined below.

#### 2.5.3.1 First language interference: The view that learners' errors

result from first language interference with learners' attempts to learn new linguistic behaviour is based on the theory of contrastive analysis which developed out of the behaviourist view of learning (James, 1980:11-25; Dulay et al., 1982:96-117). The whole idea is based on the hypothesis that prior learning affects subsequent learning. In this study, all the sample teachers being non-native speakers, a high degree of first language interference in their language is not wrong to expect.

2.5.3.2 Intralingual or Overgeneralization: This covers instances where the learner creates deviant structures on the basis of his experience of other structures in the target language. Richards (1974) explains that overgeneralization reflects the general characteristic of learning such as faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules, and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply.

2.5.3.3 Universal rules: E.Tarone (1978) explains that there are certain universal patterns underlying all languages. She further says that the target language may have sophisticated basic features but the learner will be induced into error by reducing or simplifying the language to the basic universal patterns.

2.5.3.4 Strategy of simplification: Widdowson (1978) reduces Richards' and Tarone's ideas into what he calls 'Strategy of simplification'. This is a strategy which the learner uses at any stage of his learning to simplify his language so as to communicate. Widdowson says that when the learner finds that the taught rules (rules of usage) are too complex for him to use in a given conversational situation, he will fall back on generalized rules

in order to facilitate communication.

2.5.3.5 Strategies of communication: P.Corder (1981) gives a working definition of these saying that they are systematic techniques employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faced with difficulty. Difficulty refers to the inadequate command of the language used in the interaction. Corder clarifies that when the learner faces a difficult situation in which his linguistic resources do not permit him to express his ideas fully, he can either tailor his messages to his resources or attempt to increase his resources to realize his communicative intentions. The attempt to expand his resources usually results in errors.

2.5.3.6 The monitor theory: S.Krashen (1981) states that errors result from the absence of the monitor in a situation where the learner has not acquired but only learned the target language. Dulay et al. (1982) define the monitor thus: 'It is an internal mechanism which enables the learner to use the target language properly and correctly by making constant reference to the rules and patterns he has already learned.' They point out that whenever conscious linguistic processing takes place, the learner is said to be using the monitor. For example, when a learner performs a drill that requires conscious attention to form or when he memorizes a dialogue, conscious processing is taking place and the monitor is being used.

Krashen (1981 and 1987) draws a distinction between the acquired knowledge and the learned knowledge by saying that a speaker normally relies on his acquired knowledge, but given the right circumstances he is able to monitor his output using the

learned rules. He outlines three constraints on the use of the monitor: 1) to be able to refer to the learned system the learner needs time to think about the appropriate rules. In normal conversation this cannot exist; 2) the learner should be concerned about the need to be correct in stead of thinking about the meaning of what he wants to say; and 3) the learner should know the rule in order to apply it. Krashen concludes that all the three conditions are rarely fulfilled, for example, when the learner is doing a grammar test or the teacher is preparing a language lesson.

2.5.3.7 Interlanguage: This describes the condition that prevails on the way towards acquiring the target language by the learner. It is simply a manifestation of the language learning process through which the learner has to go in order to achieve the target language. While Selinker (1972) refers to this system as the learner's 'Interlanguage', P.Corder (1981) calls it the learner's 'Idiosyncratic Dialect'. Corder says that it is a learning strategy employed by the learner to achieve his goal. Researchers in the field of language learning and acquisition explain that a learner's interlanguage is in a constant state of flux and thus it is illogical to talk of errors within the interlanguage as they are only errors in relation to the target language. Further, it is observed that the learner's interlanguage system is a consistent and logical system and his errors are systematic and symptomatic of his present level of interlanguage. Any study of learners' errors is, in fact, a study of interlanguage or in the term used by Corder (1981) their 'transitional dialect'.

As S.N.Srinidhar (1981:228) points out, the most central fact

that any description of interlanguage must account for, according to Selinker (1972), is the phenomenon of fossilization. This refers to the condition in which speakers of a particular native language retain certain linguistic items, rules and the like of their first language in the target language despite constant training or exposure to the target language.

However, despite the consistent nature of errors in the interlanguage system of the learner, inconsistencies can arise as a result of the use of the monitor. As mentioned above, the level of interlanguage is the learner's acquired system. But on occasions when the learner monitors his output, some regular errors will be corrected or not appear at all.

Although it is difficult to say the degree of fossilization found in the language of the sample teachers in this research, it is clear that this condition of fossilization is an important feature of their interlanguage in so far as they are non-native speakers.

## 2.6 The Situation in Great Britain

The development of classroom research in Great Britain was progressing at a slower rate than it was in America. One of the factors that affected the rate of adoption for American ways was the difference in the relative strength and independence of social psychology in the two countries.

But despite this, a vast area of research into what happens in the classroom has been compiled. Hicks (1983) cites Galton (1979) as having listed over a hundred studies in Britain alone to which

more have been added since. Most of these studies have been conducted in the last twenty years. But few examples exist of studies in second language learning classrooms and Long (1980) lists twenty such studies, each using a slightly different system of analysis. Of these, few have been indicated as major research projects (for example, Barnes, 1969 and Wragg, 1971). A majority on the other hand, have resulted only in short articles with very limited conclusions and are one-off studies which are not easily accessible.

The most noticeable feature of British classroom research as indicated by Abdulkadir (1983), is its neglect by sociologists of education. As quoted by Sara Delamont (1976), Rob Walker (1972) observes that British sociologists of education have concentrated attention on the analysis of input and output to different institutions and assumed to keep the balance of the educational process.

#### 2.7 The Study in Tanzania

In 1983 R.B.Hicks made 'A study of the classroom language of the Tanzanian primary school teachers of English with special reference to their interactive discourse ability and their linguistic errors'.

The study is based on a corpus of eleven lessons recorded and transcribed. Following the analysis the various factors that affect the classroom language of the teacher and students' understanding of the lessons are given in detail. From the corpus, 558 errors in a body of 1529 exchanges are identified and put under

28 categories. Of these errors, 66 are errors in preposition which occupy the biggest frequency.

In discussing the importance of measuring the influence of errors on exchanges, Hicks says that the function of giving information brings about a big number of errors. He further remarks:

... if, however, these are all minor errors and elicitation gives rise to fewer errors overall but more errors affecting communication, then it would be the latter function that needs training. So, having a way of measuring error gravity with some objectivity is essential (p, 167).

It is shown in the analysis of the results of the corpus that the greatest proportion of serious errors are very clearly found in the exchanges concerned with giving information and explaining or simplifying meaning. This is expected to be true of the findings in this study. Thus, it can be concluded that the teachers linguistic inadequacies are most inhibiting in these exchanges. In contrast, the greatest number of minor errors, especially predictable errors, occur in exchanges concerned with routine formulaic expressions and this is where a marked fossilization of interlanguage can be observed.

Hicks concludes by recommending that: 1) a formal syllabus based on terminal language need specifying structure and functions should be set; 2) the teacher training programme should aim at improving the model of language given by the teacher.

## 2.8 Studies Made on Ethiopian Junior Secondary School

The main reason why students learn English in Ethiopian schools is to be able to use it as a medium of instruction. In

Ethiopia, English is taught as a subject in elementary schools (grades 3-6) and suddenly becomes a medium of instruction in the junior secondary school level (which begins from grade 7).

The transition from Amharic to English has a serious problem. Stanley (1970 memo) tells us that in Ethiopia English language transition problems have been recognized and are being dealt with by language experts. However, due to lack of funds and similar other problems a resolution of the prevailing problems is still some way off.

John Stoddart (1986), in his report for the Ministry of Education, 'The use and study of English in Ethiopian schools', writes that the inadequate knowledge of English of students in the secondary schools does not enable them to learn other subjects through it. Because of their poor English, students can neither understand what they hear or read in English.

In 1981 workshop concerning English language teaching problems in Ethiopia, which was held in Addis Ababa, the participants pointed out that most of the Ethiopian teachers used the vernacular in stead of English as a medium of instruction in the junior secondary schools. Taffesse Geleta (1988 M.A. thesis) in his research on the use of the vernacular in English classes, supports the above view. Some do this because they find that their students cannot understand lessons in English. Others do this because they themselves have no confidence in their knowledge and command of English.

Although not supported by statistical evidence, Tsegaye Shanko (1980), in a seminar on 'Language and Education' conducted

at Addis Ababa University, says that students in the junior and senior secondary schools are unable to study through the English medium for which reason many fail. Dendir Densamo (1981) similarly states students' inability to learn through English.

Tewolde Gebre Yohannes (1988), in his study on the listening abilities of grade seven Ethiopian students, found it necessary to base his study on the investigation of the teachers' classroom language, particularly the language functions used by the teachers. Although his investigation of language functions does not involve the English language teachers, it is nonetheless relevant to this study in so far as it deals with the English language of the teacher. Based on Sinclair and Coulthard's system of analysis of 1975, Tewolde has identified five types of exchange within the stages of the lesson. These are inform, elicit, direct, check, and boundary. The results of the study show that of the various functions he has identified, 'definition' within informs is the most frequent. Inform exchanges are, on the whole, the most frequent of all the exchanges he has identified.

On the basis of his findings Tewolde concludes that the teachers' language is full of errors and unsatisfactory and he recommends that further training should be given to the teachers in the language of the classroom.

This researcher highly values the recommendation given by Tewolde. But he strongly recommends that before plunging into setting training courses and remedial programmes, a deeper investigation covering a wider range of the language of the classroom must be undertaken. This study is one among many with such aims.

### 3. Plan of the Study

#### 3.1 Selection of Schools

For this study, of the forty seven junior secondary schools found in Arssi administrative region, Asella area schools have been selected by purposive sampling rather than by random sampling. This is because the schools outside of Asella area are not easily accessible due to transportation difficulties - a factor which would have made regular observation which must be carried out by the researcher before the tape-recording impossible. In other words since the researcher had to visit a selected school repeatedly to establish normal rapport with the teachers, it would have been very hard to do so if the schools had been in the remote parts of the region.

On the other hand, of the 47 schools found in the region, 63.8% of them, i.e. 30 are located in Asella area. This means the exclusion of the other schools does not over-affect the aim and findings and results of the study.

Then, of the 30 schools, 4 were selected by random sampling. The 4 junior secondary schools are: Asella, Chilalo, Gonde, and Iteya.

#### 3.2 Selection of Teachers

In the selected four schools there are 12 teachers assigned to teach English. After graduating from the various Teacher Training Institutes, these teachers went through three summers of in-service training in English in the Teacher Training College of Kotebe, Addis Ababa. Their present level as recorded in the Asella area education

office register of the current year, is equivalent to one full academic year of college education. But of these 12 teachers, 2 have an educational level equivalent to two years of college. So they have been excluded automatically as they do not fit into the homogeneous oneness of the rest of the teachers. These teachers had all studied English for eleven years including six years of English medium education. Besides, they have served as teachers of English for more than ten years. So, more or less they have a homogeneous language background.

Of these 10 teachers (2 have already been excluded) 8 have been selected by random sampling for the study. Table - 7 shows the number of teachers selected from each school.

Table - 7

Number of teachers selected for the study

NAME OF SCHOOL	NO. OF TEACHERS FOUND(TOTAL)	NO. OF TEACHERS SELECTED
Asella	4(1 excluded)	3
Chilalo	3	2
Gonde	2	1
Iteya	3(1excluded)	2
TOTAL	12	8

### 3.3 Establishing Rapport with Teachers

Before taking the final recording of the lessons, these teachers were observed by the researcher for more than three weeks while they were teaching English. The main objective of the observation was to develop a reasonably good rapport with the

teachers and students so that normal classroom behaviour could continue to prevail despite the presence of the researcher. Each time the researcher went into the classes he placed the recording equipment on the table in front of the students and pretended to record the lesson. It was not long before they got used to the intruders and hardly noticed their presence afterwards.

Thus any unnatural tension was reduced as far as possible. To further obviate teachers' and students' uneasiness the aim of the recording was clearly explained to them. The teachers thus knew that the lessons recorded would not be used for assessing their teaching or deciding their promotion in jobs.

#### 3.4 Equipment Used in Recording

In order to record the lessons an RX-1490 model National Panasonic tape recorder with an internal microphone was used. All the lessons were recorded on C-60 tapes. It was necessary to use a medium size tape recorder as any elaborate equipment would have been impracticable. Since the classrooms had no electricity, a 1.5v dry cell batteries were used throughout the recording.

#### 3.5 Recording of Lessons

The actual recording was made only after making sure that the teachers' and students' feeling of uneasiness and nervousness had been eliminated and after the establishment of good rapport.

The tape recorder was always placed at the front of the class. This positioning resulted in some students' utterances being very faint or lost altogether and very occasionally the teacher's utterances being lost if made from the back of the class. However,

only a small proportion of the utterances are affected as the teachers do most of their teaching from the front of the class.

As C-60 tapes were used, no recording is more than thirty minutes. The last few minutes of the lesson are not recorded. This in no case amounts to more than a few minutes and the fact that the actual teaching duration didn't exceed thirty minutes more than compensated for this loss.

There is some amount of background noise on the tape, for example, bell ringing, children clapping and answering in chorus in the other rooms, people passing by outside the classroom, students' coughing, and chairs scraping. However, these are no more than the normal background noises of the classroom and, in fact, a considerable amount of noise has been filtered out by the recording equipment.

### 3.6 Analysing the Recorded Lessons

To fulfil the objectives of this study, that is, to be able to identify the language functions most commonly used by the teachers in the lessons recorded and also to look for errors that occur in the functions, the lessons are analysed based on the system of analysis developed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). The system of analysis has been adopted by the researcher with slight modifications.

#### 3.6.1 Sinclair and Coulthard's System of Analysis

Sinclair and Coulthard analysed their texts on the basis of a rank scale system consisting of five units: lesson, transaction, exchange, move, and act. Table-8 shows the chain-like relationship

of the levels and the various functional categories through which the levels are realized.

Table - 8

## Discourse Ranks

LEVELS OF DISCOURSE	FUNCTIONAL CATEGORIES
Lesson	Lesson
Transaction	Informing, Directing, Eliciting
Exchange	Free: Direct, Elicit, Inform, Check Bound: Reinitiate, Repeat, Listing
Move	Opening, Answering, Follow-up
Act	Marker, Starter, Elicitation, Check, Directive, Informative, Prompt, Clue, Cue, Bid, Nomination, Acknowledge, Reply, Comment, Accept, Evaluate, Silent stress, Meta-statement, Conclusion, Loop, Aside

(Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975:25-60)

Sinclair and Coulthard define the ranks as follows:

1. The lesson: is the highest unit of classroom discourse consisting of one or more transactions (S & C P.23).
2. The transaction: is a unit of discourse above the exchange. Exchanges combine to form transactions. It is related to a change in topic by a boundary exchange (S & C P.22).
3. The exchange: is a combination of two or more utterances. An utterance is everything said by one speaker before another began to speak (S & C, P.21)
4. The move: is the smallest free unit although it has a structure in terms of acts (S & C, P.23).
5. The act: is the unit at the lowest rank of discourse (S&C, P.27)

Sinclair and Coulthard's system of analysis followed an accepted structural rank system in which the unit above is formed by one or more units of the rank below it except the last rank - act. But not all combinations of the units are possible. In the structure of the sentence, for instance, the accepted order is, subject-verb-object. But we cannot have the order, object-subject-verb. Similarly, in an elicit exchange the accepted order of the units of move is, opening-answering-follow-up. But we cannot have follow-up-answering-opening. It can thus be seen that, at least, there must be one impossible combination of the units.

### 3.6.2 A Comparison of Sinclair and Coulthard's and the Researcher's Systems

Table - 9 shows the comparison of the two systems.

Table - 9

A comparison of discourse ranks

Sinclair and Coulthard's system of analysis	Researcher's system of analysis
Lesson	Lesson
Transaction	Transaction
Exchange Free- inform, direct, elicit, check. Bound- reinitiate, repeat, listing	Exchange Free- inform, direct, elicit, check. Bound- re-elicite
Move opening, answering, follow-up	Move opening, follow-up
Act	Act/Function

As can be seen from Table-9, the researcher has made slight modifications at the level of exchange. He has put re-elicite in stead of reinitiate and repeat. This is to rephrase and simplify in order

to avoid confusion. At the level of move, answering is omitted because it is mainly concerned with student's language which is not the aim of this study.

### 3.6.2.1 A Comparison of Analysis at the Level of Acts

Table - 10 shows the comparison at the level of acts.

Table - 10

#### A Comparison between Act and Function

Act (S & C)	Act/Function (Researcher)
Elicitation Directive Check Reply Conclusion Clue	Elicitation Directive Check Reply Conclusion Clue
Comment	Included under inform to avoid confusion between comment and inform
Starter and Meta-statement.	included in inform
Marker, Cue, Bid, Acknowledge, react, Silent stress, aside.	omitted because they don't occupy any central place in the linguistic output
Loop, Nominate	Included in Elicitation
Prompt	Included in Directive
Inform	Inform classified into definition, meta-explanation, exemplification, calling attention, contrast, summarization, introductory information

As can be seen from the table, particularly, in the last six parts some modifications are made.

Sinclair and Coulthard discuss the structure of moves in terms of the linguistic units -acts. But this study is mainly concerned with the functions of language rather than entirely the linguistic structure. Nevertheless, in treating linguistic errors by way of identifying language functions, the linguistic structure will be given due considerations in so far as errors are involved in the study.

The various inform acts classified by the researcher are briefly explained below.

1. Definition: An explanation or statement of what a word or phrase or sentence means.
2. Meta-explanation: Statement expressing structural rules and their application.
3. Exemplification: Model sentences or expressions showing application of structural rules or patterns.
4. Calling attention: Expressions or utterances used to focus students' attention during explanation of structural rules.
5. Contrast: Comparison made to show difference.
6. Summarization: A presentation of main points.
7. Introductory information: Statement recalling previous lesson.

The main reason why more attention has been given to inform exchange here is because as can be ascertained from the findings of the study it is an area where teachers face the most serious difficulty in handling the functions in the classroom for which reason most of them tend to avoid it as much as possible.

This analysis as mentioned earlier, is at the level of exchanges and the major points in the analysis of the recorded texts are:

1. The page is divided into three columns: column 1 - Text  
column 2 - Acts/Functions; column 3 - Exchange.
2. Exchange boundaries are marked by single lines and transaction boundaries by double lines.
3. Non-verbal discourse reactions are represented by NV.
4. Absence of response to an elicitation is represented by NR.
5. If a student makes an opening move, that is, if there is a student-initiated elicitation exchange, it will be labelled p-elicit.

To give us an idea of how an analysed text looks like here is an extract from one of the analysed texts in the study.

TEXT	ACTS/FUNCTIONS	EXCHANGE TYPE
Now The next one is about 'What', 'Which', and 'Whose'.	frame focus	Boundary
You know 'What' is used for asking question to get personal (pause). No the things the subject of the thing and we can also get object when we ask with 'What'. With 'Which' we are going to choose things. For example, if I say, 'Which one do you want?' or 'Which pen do you want, the red one or the blue one?'		Inform
You see here? (NR)	ch	Check
I use what? (NR) Which. O.K. Which.	el evaluate	Elicit
And 'Whose' is used to ask for possessive adjective you know.	explanation	Inform
So les try to fill in the words in the dashes,	focus	Boundary

(see Appendix, I-E)

4. Results of the Analysis of the  
Language of the Classroom

This chapter will discuss the results of the analysis of the classroom language of the teachers.

4.1 Types of Exchange

The two major levels observed in the analysis of the teachers' classroom language are exchanges and functions. The types of exchanges identified within the stages of the lesson are: Inform, Elicit, Re-elicit, Direct, Check, and Boundary. The frequency and percentage of occurrence of these exchanges in the lessons conducted by the eight teachers is indicated in Table - 11.

Table - 11

Frequency and Percentage of Exchanges

	TYPES OF EXCHANGES											
	Inform		Elicit/Re-		Direct		Check		Boundary		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
T1			85	87.6	10	10.3			2	2.1	97	100
T2	8	8.4	58	61.0	17	7.9	3	3.2	9	9.5	95	100
T3	11	7.7	80	56.3	20	14.1	19	13.4	12	8.5	142	100
T4	6	12.8	34	72.3	1	2.1	--	--	6	12.8	47	100
T5	17	10.3	123	74.5	10	6.1	5	3.0	10	6.1	165	100
T6	4	3.0	109	80.1	14	10.2	4	3.0	5	3.7	136	100
T7	6	5.2	88	76.5	11	9.6	5	4.3	5	4.3	115	100
T8	10	9.0	75	67.6	15	13.5	3	2.7	8	7.2	111	100
TOTAL	62	6.8	652	71.8	98	10.8	39	4.3	57	6.3	908	100

As can be seen from Table - 11, the elicit exchanges occupy the widest area within the stages of the lessons given by each of the eight teachers. They account for 71.8% of the total frequency of all the exchanges. The other four exchanges combined together are much less than the elicit exchanges and they account for 28.2%. This clearly shows much of what the English teachers did in the classrooms; They read the questions in the textbooks to the students and more frequently than anything else they used prompts, loops and the like to re-elicite unanswered questions. But only rarely did informs occur before or after elicits. This is a fact which was also observed by the researcher while the lessons were conducted.

In addition, the time taken by each type of exchange was measured in seconds. A stop watch was used to measure the time taken by each type of exchange as it occurred. Then the seconds taken by each exchange in each lesson were added. Silence and student elicits and responses were disregarded as they were not the concern of this study. Table - 12 shows the approximate time taken by each type of exchange.

Table - 12

The approximate time taken by each type of exchange  
(in seconds)

	Inform		Elicit/Re-		Direct		Check		Boundary		Total	
	S	%	S	%	S	%	S	%	S	%	S	%
T1	-	-	325.5	84.8	57.0	14.8	-	-	1.5	0.4	384.0	100
T2	211.0	18.1	725.5	62.3	163.5	14.0	4.0	0.3	61.0	5.3	1164.5	100
T3	250.0	26.0	538.8	56.0	129.5	13.4	24.5	2.5	20.0	2.1	962.3	100
T4	556.0	57.6	347.5	35.9	31.5	3.3	-	-	31.0	3.2	966.0	100
T5	267.5	31.1	515.0	59.8	5.0	0.5	4.0	0.5	70.0	8.1	861.5	100
T6	90.5	18.7	350.0	72.3	28.5	5.8	3.0	0.6	12.5	2.6	484.5	100
T7	123.5	14.7	573.0	68.1	122.5	14.6	4.5	0.5	17.5	2.1	841.0	100
T8	267.5	24.5	632.5	57.9	92.5	8.5	11.5	1.1	87.5	8.0	1091.5	100
TOTAL	1766.0	26.1	4007.8	59.3	629.5	9.3	51.5	0.8	301.0	4.5	6755.8	100

From Table - 12 it is clear that nearly 60% of the lesson time was consumed by the elicit exchanges. The time taken by the rest of the exchanges combined is only 40.7%. This finding seems to go in line with Hughes' (1981:34) view that question-asking takes a large proportion of the teacher's time. Tollefson (1989:6) similarly says that questions are one of the commonest types of utterances in ESL classes. He mentions White and Lightbown (1984) as having discovered in a study that a single ESL teacher asked 427 questions in a 50-minute class.

Only in the lesson of T4 can we see that informs took more time (57.6%) than elicits (35.9%). As mentioned earlier, we have student-initiated exchanges in the lessons of four teachers and these are very few and scarcely noticeable.

The fact that the frequency and percentage of the elicit exchanges are far greater than the rest and the fact that much of the lesson time is devoted to this type of exchange shows that the method of teaching followed by the teachers is primarily based on the textbooks which tend to present isolated grammatical items mostly devoid of context. This dependency on the presentation of grammatical items followed by the textbooks relieves the teachers of the effort to devise a better and a more motivating method of presenting the items in meaningful contexts. In addition, it also seems to save the teachers from falling victims to committing errors if they try to use the language freely. As could be seen from the transcribed texts, (see Appendix, I-A to H), the teachers' language became awfully erroneous and difficult to understand whenever they tried to evaluate a student response and also to inform before and after an elicit. So most of the time they would choose to stick to

reading the questions from the text and to using prompts, loops, and nominates in order to avoid making errors. This is evident in most of the lessons. Moreover, the researcher has witnessed this during his observation. In fact, this clearly indicates that the teachers themselves need to improve the poor level of their English language command.

Further, it can be seen from the transcribed lessons how the teachers remained very careful throughout their lessons not to rephrase or simplify or explain the questions whenever the students failed to answer them. They either renominated or simply repeated each word a student responded until they came to the last word in the answer. But any attempt to indulge into explaining or rephrasing was sure to bring about erroneous utterances that were difficult to understand. The following extract is a good example of this condition. (See Appendix I-H).

- |    |   |
|----|---|
| A. | Number one. When will the Asmara plane arrive arrive? T- <del>elicit</del><br>Yes..... nominate<br>Do you when...(pause)..... p-reply   |
| B. | Clear <u>ading indisama</u> (Amharic meaning 'Make it audible') Re- <del>elicit</del><br>Do you know when the Asmara plane (pause)..... p-reply   |
| C. | Plane?..... Re- <del>elicit</del><br>Plane arrive...(pause)..... p-reply  |
| D. | <u>Isti Isti</u> (Amharic meaning 'again') again please.<br>plane and Asmara Asmara and plane are the same..... Re- <del>elicit</del><br>Do you when...Do you when...(pause)..... p-reply |

This is the way an unanswered elicit is dealt with by the teachers almost always. Here the teacher has ended up in confusing the matter by trying to rephrase or explain the initial elicit (Look at text - D).

The duration of time for each recorded lesson as mentioned earlier is thirty minutes. However, as can be observed from Table-12,

the number of seconds in each lesson is less than thirty minutes because the p-elicits and responses and silence are not accounted.

To give a summary of the frequency of the exchanges they are put in the order of their frequency in Table - 13.

Table - 13

Types of exchanges in the order of their frequency

Elicits/Re-	Directs	Informs	Boundary	Check	Total
652   71.8%	98   10.8%	62   6.8%	57   6.3%	39   4.3%	908   100%

A summary of the frequency of the exchanges in terms of time is shown in Table - 14 according to the order of the amount of time taken by each exchange.

Table - 14

Exchanges in the order of the number of seconds

Types of exchanges	Number of seconds	Percentage
Elicits/Re-	4007.8	59.3%
Informs	1766.0	26.1%
Directs	629.5	9.3%
Boundary	301.0	4.5%
Check	51.5	0.8%
Total	6755.8	100%

#### 4.1.1 Types of Elicits

Six types of elicits can be observed in the analysis of the teachers' language of the classroom. But we have also a seventh group of elicits which is rather difficult to identify with the other

six. However, since the utterances in this group have the purpose of eliciting responses from students, they are classified under 'Miscellaneous'. 'Miscellaneous' includes nominating, prompting, looping, giving clues, and statements and directs serving the function of eliciting. Table - 15 shows the types and frequency of the elicits identified in the classroom language of the teachers.

Table - 15

Types and frequency of elicits

	WH- Questions		Yes/No Questions		Questions with Rising Intonation		Match Questions		Fill-in the blanks		Re-write Questions		Miscellaneous Qs.		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
T1	4	4.7	5	5.9	1	1.2	-	-	7	8.2	-	-	68	80.0	85	100
T2	5	8.6	5	8.6	22	37.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	26	44.8	58	100
T3	10	12.5	-	-	38	47.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	32	40.0	80	100
T4	6	17.6	1	2.9	-	-	7	20.6	-	-	-	-	20	58.8	34	100
T5	32	26.0	3	2.4	18	14.6	11	8.9	5	4.1	15	12.2	39	31.7	123	100
T6	15	13.8	4	3.7	34	31.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	56	51.4	109	100
T7	30	34.1	13	14.8	17	19.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	28	31.8	88	100
T8	30	40.0	-	-	14	18.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	31	41.3	75	100
Total	132	20.2	31	4.8	144	22.1	18	2.8	12	1.8	15	2.3	300	46.0	652	100

As can be observed in Table - 15, the highest number of elicits come under what we have called 'Miscellaneous'. 80(26.7%) of these 'Miscellaneous' questions are initial elicits while 220 (73.3%) are re-elicits. The teachers found these easier to manipulate than the others because they didn't require the knowledge of grammar rules. They involved the use of only single items

such as yes, another, again, ah spoken with a falling intonation, very short utterances which served in prompting students to respond for example, say it or say it again, repetition of a word or part of a student's response with a falling intonation, nominations and non-verbal initiations. From the observation made by the researcher and from the investigation of the recorded lessons it was evident that this way of asking questions, i.e. nominating or prompting, looping or using non-verbal initiations, etc. were the easiest and the teachers frequently used them because they didn't demand the construction of long sentences or full sentences which would have called for the use of correct tense, word order etc. In addition, they seem to be more used to initiating or continuing the classroom discourse through this type of elicitation rather than others.

The second highest number of elicits was that of questions marked with rising intonation. These questions cover 22.1% of the total frequency. These also didn't require the knowledge of grammar either. That was why six of the teachers found them easier to manipulate just as they did the ones mentioned above. These questions mostly demanded the repetition of a word or phrase of the pupil's response or a statement said with a rising intonation.

Wh-questions covered 20.2% of the frequency of elicits and they are the third highest. These include the questions taken directly from the textbooks. Although Wh-questions require the use of correct tense, word order, subject-verb agreement, etc., it was observed that whenever the teachers wanted to expand original questions or rephrase them or simplify them, they preferred to use Wh-questions; and each time they used them they committed errors of various types. The most common feature observed by the

researcher in Wh-questions of these teachers was that the Wh-word often occurred at the end of the question. The following examples are taken from the recorded lessons.

- In stead of very you put what? (See Appendix I-E)
- Indirect answer will be what? (See Appendix I-G)
- The answer should be what? (See Appendix I-H)
- Reach on time means what? (See Appendix I-C)

Yes/No questions come next to Wh-questions and they cover 4.8% of the elicits. While two of the teachers completely avoided them, the rest altogether used 31 such questions. These questions are mostly restricted to questions beginning with the auxiliaries 'is and can' (for example, 'Isn't it? Can you say?'). This was not because such questions were unnecessary but it was because these questions required the knowledge of the rules of grammar such as subject-verb agreement, word order, and tense - a knowledge which the teachers were not sure of having.

The last three, i.e. Matching (2.8%), Fill-in the dashes (1.8%), and Re-writing or Transforming (2.3%) are questions that directly come from the textbooks. These and some Wh-questions are the major sources of the numerous re-elicits that have resulted from the failure on the part of the students to respond correctly to initial elicits and teachers' repair strategies.

As regards types of questions, Hughes (1981:34-5) roughly divides the types of questions L2 teachers ask into two: 1)

what he calls 'Language questions and Comprehension questions'. In the second type he has 'Lesson progress questions and Opinion and Reference questions'. Of this four, 'Language questions' are the most frequent and major questions that we find in the classroom language of the eight teachers. If we look at the example provided by Hughes, we will find that almost all the questions asked by these teachers are nearly like that.

Here is an example: What is the past tense of 'to sing'?

Is this right?

What is the answer to number six?

#### 4.1.1.1 Elicits and Re-elicits

Because of the high frequency elicits occupy in general (i.e. 71.8%) in the classroom language of the teachers, it has been found appropriate to divide elicits into 'Initial elicits' and 'Re-elicits' in order to see how many of them are fresh questions and how many are repetitions.

Table - 16

Frequency and percentage of Initial elicits and Re-elicits

	T1		T2		T3		T4		T5		T6		T7		T8		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Initial elicits	18	21.2	26	44.8	30	37.5	20	58.8	69	56.1	60	55.0	36	40.9	36	48.0	295	45.2
Re-elicits	67	78.8	32	55.2	50	62.5	14	41.2	54	43.9	49	45.0	52	59.1	39	52.0	357	54.8
Total	85	13.6	58	8.9	80	12.3	34	5.2	123	18.9	109	16.7	88	13.5	75	11.5	652	100

From Table - 16 it can be observed that of the 652 elicits

295 (45.2%) are Initial elicits while 357 (54.8%) are Re-elicits or repetitions. Except for three teachers (i.e. T4, T5, and T6) all the rest used more Re-elicits than Initial elicits. To provide a clearer view of this condition Initial elicits and Re-elicits are treated separately below.

#### 4.1.1.1.1 Initial Elicits (Fresh Questions)

Two major sources of Initial elicits can be observed in the analysis of the teachers' language of the classroom. These are teachers' own questions and questions directly taken from the textbooks. Table - 17 shows the types and frequency of both categories of Initial elicits.

Table - 17

Types and frequency of Initial elicits or Text/Teacher-based questions

	WH-Qs.		Yes/No		RI SING INTON.		MATCH Qs.		FILL- IN		RE- WRITE		MISCEL- LANEOUS		TOTAL	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
TEACHER Qs.	74	25.1	12	4.1	54	18.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	80	27.1	220	74.6
TEXTBOOK Qs.	30	10.2	-	-	-	-	18	6.1	12	4.1	15	5.1	-	-	75	25.4
TOTAL	104	35.3	12	4.1	54	18.3	18	6.1	12	4.1	15	5.1	80	27.1	295	100

As can be seen from Table - 17 teachers's own questions which account for 74.6% of Initial elicits, are much greater than the questions from the textbooks, which account for only 25.4% of these elicits. Of the 220 questions of the teachers 36.4% are questions which have been categorized under one group as 'Miscellaneous' since they cannot be included in any one of the

other types of elicits that have been identified. These are nominates which account for 9.1%, prompts and clues which account for 20.9%, and statements and directs serving the purpose of the function of eliciting which account for 6.4%. Here are some examples of such elicits.

- Twenty four. Question eight--nominating to elicit  
She polish her...(pause).....p-reply  
(See Appendix I-A)
- All right let us change into as the same  
form..... T-elicit  
This ox is the same as the same price as  
that ox..... p-reply  
(See Appendix I-B)
- Number three..... T-elicit  
She used she used to the hot weather in  
Assab..... p-reply  
(See Appendix I-C)
- Non-verbal initiatin (NV)..... T-elicit  
Because it is raining.....p-reply  
(See Appendix I-E)
- O.K. Use again cruel the word cruel.  
Come on..... T-elicit  
Abebe cruel but..... p-reply  
(Appendix I-F)
- Another. Use old. Using old..... T-elicit  
Ato Kebede is old but Bekele is young....p-reply  
(See Appendix I-F)
- Yes yes Kibru..... T-elicit  
Do you know when Hailu will (pause)..... p-reply  
(See Appendix I-H)

The second highest number of fresh questions asked by the teachers is that of Wh-questions (25.1%). Questions marked with a rising intonation come third with a frequency of 18.3% while Yes/No questions account for 4.1%.

As mentioned earlier, the fresh questions taken directly from the textbooks are 75, i.e. 25.4% of the total frequency. 10.2% of these are Wh-questions, 4.1% Fill-in the blanks, 6.1%

Matching, and 5.1% Re-writing or transformation questions.

#### 4.1.1.1.2 Re-elicits (Repeated Questions)

The types and frequency of Re-elicits are shown in Table - 18.

Table - 18

Types and frequency of Re-elicits

	Wh- Questions		Yes/No Questions		Rising Intonation		Miscellaneous Qs.		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
T1	3	4.5	1	1.5	1	1.5	62	92.5	67	100
T2	-	-	2	6.3	17	53.1	13	40.6	32	100
T3	-	-	-	-	30	60.0	20	40.0	50	100
T4	2	14.3	1	7.1	-	-	11	78.6	14	100
T5	8	14.8	2	3.7	12	22.2	32	59.3	54	100
T6	3	6.1	4	8.2	9	18.4	33	67.3	49	100
T7	6	11.5	9	17.3	12	23.1	25	48.1	52	100
T8	6	15.4	-	-	9	23.1	24	61.5	39	100
TOTAL	28	7.8	19	5.3	90	25.2	220	61.6	357	100

Unlike the Initial elicits all Re-elicits come from only one source, i.e. the teachers. From the observation made by the researcher in the classrooms as well as from the findings, it can be confirmed that any failure on the part of the students to respond to an Initial elicit would surely bring about one or more Re-elicits intended to prompt students to arrive at the desired response. As can be seen in Table - 18, all in all 357 Re-elicits were observed in the analysis of the teachers' classroom language. This is equal

to 54.8% of the total frequency of all elicits.

Just as in Initial elicits, the class of Re-elicits referred to as 'Miscellaneous' holds the highest frequency, i.e. 220 (61.6%) of which 53 (24.1%) are nominates, 91 (41.3%) prompts and clues, 7 (3.2%) statements and directs serving the function of eliciting, and 69 (31.4%) loops. The other types of questions are much less than this group of elicitations. 28 (7.8%) are Wh-questions, 19 (5.3%) Yes/No, and 90 (25.2%) questions with rising intonation.

#### 4.1.1.1.3 Initial Elicits and Re-elicits Summarized

As can be observed from Tables - 15, 16, 17, and 18, in both Initial elicits and Re-elicits the frequency of nominates, prompts and clues, loops, and statements and directs meant to function as questions, is much greater than any one of the other types of questions identified in the classroom language of the teachers. Out of the total number of Elicits and Re-elicits (i.e. 652), 300 (46%) accounts for this class of questions referred to as 'Miscellaneous'. This is no wonder because nominating or prompting, looping or giving short clues provided the teachers with an easy way out of the problem of rephrasing or simplifying which could lead to various errors.

In addition to the fact mentioned just above reading questions from the textbooks was seen to be the other best alternative each teacher always had in beginning a new question. As long as there was the chance all the teachers preferred to read the questions direct from the textbooks. This was because that would free them from the trouble of constructing sentences of their own which could result in various errors.

#### 4.1.2 Breakdowns into Functions within Inform Exchanges

As mentioned in chapter three, the functions identified within inform exchanges are seven types. They are: Calling attention, Contrast, Definition, Exemplification, Introductory information, Meta-explanation, and Summarization. Table - 19 shows the frequency and distribution of these functions within inform exchanges.

Table - 19

Types and frequency of functions within inform exchanges

	Call At.		Contrast		Def.		Exemplif.		Int. Inf.		Meta-exp.		Summarize		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
T1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
T2	-	-	-	-	2	25.0	2	25.0	-	-	4	50.0	-	-	8	100
T3	-	-	-	-	6	31.6	4	21.0	-	-	6	31.6	3	15.8	19	100
T4	4	12.1	2	6.1	-	-	9	27.3	1	3.0	14	42.4	3	9.1	33	100
T5	1	4.8	-	-	-	-	4	19.0	-	-	14	66.7	2	9.5	21	100
T6	-	-	-	-	1	33.3	-	-	1	33.3	-	-	1	33.3	3	100
T7	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	12.5	1	12.5	6	75.0	-	-	8	100
T8	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	25.0	1	8.3	8	66.7	-	-	12	100
TOTAL	5	4.8	2	1.9	9	8.7	23	22.1	4	3.8	52	50.0	9	8.7	104	100

The nature of the information the teachers taught their students is reflected in these functions. It can be observed from Table - 19 that meta-explanations accompanied by exemplifications play a major role in the inform exchanges that occurred in the eight lessons. The rest of the functions occupy 28% of the inform exchanges. A close observation of Table - 19 shows that T1 completely avoided any inform exchange whatsoever. In fact, from the transcribed lesson of this teacher it can be seen that she never made any attempt to simplify or rephrase the questions. The only thing she did was call one roll number after another despite the students' showing that

they didn't know the answer to the questions. On the other hand, T4 used more informs than any teacher in the corpus. As can be confirmed from Table - 12 he spent more time in informs than elicits. Although his language was, generally speaking, much better than that of the rest, he provided few chances for the students to participate. As Barnes (1969) says, students participation was not only hampered but the lesson was also made dull.

As mentioned earlier, the teachers, as much as possible, avoided involving in free language use even if it was necessary to give further information about the topics they were discussing. This was probably because of their poor language command and the fear of making errors.

#### 4.1.3 Directs, Boundary Exchanges and Checks

In the corpus, directs cover 9.8% of the total frequency of exchanges. The directs given to students were not so varied. For example, 'Look here; Be loud; Read it again; Please try to do this;' are some of the most frequent ones. Often the directs used are short and involve a small number of errors.

With the exception of T1's lesson the beginnings and ends of the rest of the teachers' were marked by more than two boundary exchanges characterized by the functions of framing and focsing. These exchanges occupy 6.3% of the total number of all the exchanges. Except in few instances these are usually short and they manifest only a small percentage of the errors committed.

Checks cover a negligible portion (4.3%) of the frequency of all the exchanges except in the lesson of T3. Two teachers, i.e.

T1 and T4 did not use any check at all. Checks were often given to make sure whether students understood an explanation or a question or not. These were always short and no errors of serious nature were identified in them. In general, checks were rarely used by the teachers and this probably shows the fact that the teachers were not so much concerned whether their students learned the lessons or not. On the other hand, using checks often, as in the case of T3, may not necessarily justify concern because it was observed that this teacher sometimes used checks simply out of sheer habit.

#### 4.2 Results of the Analysis of Errors within Exchanges

##### 4.2.1 Aim of the Analysis

Experts in the field of language teaching agree that the main purpose of error analysis is to be able to design a course for remedial teaching. The aim in this study of providing a more or less complete list of the errors of the teachers is to enable us to measure the levels of their interlanguage and also the seriousness of the errors so that recommendations can be made for corrective measures.

In general errors can be put into two major classes based on the question as to which ones need correction. Researchers agree on the following two types of errors that need to be isolated: 1) errors which cause miscommunication; 2) errors that don't affect communication and occur most frequently (Dulay et al., 1982:189; Hicks, 1983:163; Norrish, 1983:98-108).

Both types of errors are identified in the lessons of the

eight teachers. The researcher has provided a list of all the utterances containing these errors (See Appendix IIA-IIH and III). The utterances are arranged according to the exchanges in which errors occur. This list can provide information and a way of estimating which errors need most emphasis in any programme of remedial teaching or training.

#### 4.2.2 The Frequency of Errors

Out of the total of 908 exchanges made, 577 errors were identified. The researcher has used in a somewhat generalized way the error classification system that is based on the linguistic category described by Dulay et al. (1982:147-154). In fact, in this analysis the number of categories has been reduced. There are 17 categories of errors classified under the five types of exchanges of inform, elicit, direct, check, and boundary. Table - 20 shows the 577 errors that have occurred within the 908 exchanges.

Table - 20

## Types and Number of Errors in Terms of Exchanges

Types of Errors	NUMBER OF ERRORS IN THE EXCHANGES					Total
	Inform	Elicit	Direct	Check	Boundary	
1' Omission or Addition of Articles (a, an, the)	49	51	5	1	5	111
2 Omission or Addition of Object	8	12	11	1	5	37
3 Misordering of words (miscellaneous)	21	28	2	-	4	55
4 Omission or Addition of Copula	11	6	6	-	3	24
5 Omission or Addition of Subject	3	12	-	2	1	18
6 Omission or Addition of Auxiliary verb	5	16	2	8	-	31
7 Wrong Tense	8	6	1	-	1	16
8 Wrong Number	20	9	3	1	3	36
9 Omission or Addition of Preposition	11	12	13	-	5	41
10 Sentence structure (miscellaneous)	32	8	3	-	-	43
11 Omission or Addition of Adjectives	7	9	6	-	2	24
12 Omission or Addition of the Apostrophe ('s)	-	1	-	-	1	2
13 Omission or Addition of Wh-words & Pronouns	2	2	1	1	-	6
14 Omission or Addition of Verb	1	6	12	-	1	20
15 Omission or Addition of word/phrase/etc.	19	36	13	2	4	74
16 Wrong Question Tag	-	-	-	3	-	3
17 Pronunciation	13	14	6	-	3	36
T O T A L	210	228	82	19	38	577

As can be observed in Table - 20 the errors committed by the eight teachers are classified in 17 categories in terms of the five exchanges. These errors are the most visible ones of all that

occurred in the lessons. The errors involve errors that caused or affected the classroom discourse and those that didn't hamper the teaching-learning process much. The errors in the use of articles occupy the highest frequency and percentage (i.e. 111 out of 577 or 19.2%). The failure to use articles properly was particularly dominant in the language of T2 and T8. The high frequency of article errors would suggest that these should be given priority in any remedial programme. But this may not be the best generalization as frequency may not always mean that such an error hinders communication. This is clear from the fact that very few of the article errors could be seen as causing breakdowns in communication. A communication breakdown may occur when one participant fails to react appropriately because he may not know the answer or he may not understand the question or command, or he may not have the language needed to respond properly. As far as article errors are concerned, hardly did any breakdown in the classroom discourse occur due to them. For example, sentences like 'It is good example of verb 'to be' (See Appendix IB) were observed as causing no breakdowns of interaction between the teacher and the students. The students produced the desired reactions after the teacher's utterances. However, eliminating article errors would eliminate 19.2% of these teachers' errors and this will surely contribute to the improvement of their model of English to the students. In other words, if we could eliminate these article errors, it would give the teachers a 19.2% error-free performance in the classroom.

The second most frequent errors are errors of miscellaneous nature related to the omission or addition of a word or phrase or

clause. They account for 12.8% of the frequency of errors. Errors in the order of words come third covering 9.5% while errors in sentence structure of miscellaneous nature cover 7.9%. Pronunciation errors account for 6.3%. The above mentioned four types of errors are the ones which are observed as causing misunderstanding in the students.

#### 4.2.3 Errors in Relation to Functions

Of the 577 errors that were committed the highest number of errors occurred in elicit exchanges - 228 or 39.5%. This is not surprising because quite often errors occurred in the teachers' own Initial elicits and also in the evaluations (they made after students' responses) in which they had to use the resources of their knowledge of the language. Whenever they did so, they became victims to one or another type of error. Table - 21 can give us an idea of the distribution of errors in Initial elicits and Re-elicits. There are nearly four times as many errors in Initial elicits as in Re-elicits.

Table - 21

The distribution of errors in Initial elicits and Re-elicits

	Errors in Initial Elicits		Errors in Re-elicits		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
T1	1	16.7	5	83.3	6	100
T2	40	81.6	9	18.4	49	100
T3	16	94.1	1	5.9	17	100
T4	12	85.7	2	14.3	14	100
T5	18	78.3	5	21.7	23	100
T6	20	57.1	15	42.9	35	100
T7	20	100.0	-	-	20	100
T8	51	79.7	13	20.3	64	100
TOTAL	178	78.1	50	21.9	228	100

The second highest number of errors occurred in the inform exchanges - 210 or 36.4%. In fact, when we consider the frequency of elicits, i.e. 652 and that of informs, i.e. 62, we may expect more errors in the elicits than in the informs. Of course, we do find that the frequency of errors in elicits is greater than in informs. Nevertheless, a closer investigation would reveal the fact to be a different one. So it is important to consider the ratio of errors to exchanges. Then it will be easy to understand how often or frequently errors have occurred in each exchange. Table - 22 shows the ratio of exchanges to errors that occurred in the five types of exchanges.

Table - 22

Ratio of exchanges to errors  
(Error frequency and exchange distribution)

	INFORM		ELICIT		DIRECT		CHECK		BOUND.		TOTAL	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
EXCHANGES	62	6.8	652	71.8	98	10.8	39	4.3	57	6.3	908	100
ERRORS	210	36.4	228	39.5	82	14.2	19	3.3	38	6.6	577	100
RATIO OF EXCHANGES TO ERRORS	1:3.4		1:0.3		1:0.9		1:0.4		1:0.6		1:0.6	

Note: Ratio is represented as one exchange to the average number of errors. For example, 1:3.4 means an average of one exchange having three errors.

As can be seen from Table - 22, an average of 3.4 errors are found in every inform exchange while only an average of 0.3 error is found in every elicit exchange. In fact, all the average number of errors found in the four exchanges is much less than that of inform exchanges. Furthermore, the Table reveals that the ratio of the number of errors to the number of exchanges in each exchange of the other four is greater than that of the elicit exchanges.

This is quite obvious because in the four exchanges of inform, direct, check, and boundary the teachers had to rely mainly on their own linguistic resources to conduct their lessons. However, in the elicit exchanges, as can be confirmed from the transcribed and recorded lessons (See Appendix IA-IH), they depend entirely on the materials in the textbooks except when they rephrased or simplified the questions and made evaluations.

As mentioned earlier, the categories of inform, direct, check and boundary are numerically much smaller than that of elicit. In fact, they are numerically too small for us to make any clear conclusions as to how far the teachers are linguistically able to inform and direct students as well as to check their understanding. On the other hand, the teachers' reservedness from making use of the language for these functions is a clear indication of their linguistic inadequacy. This can be confirmed from the heavy concentration of the errors that occurred in this four exchanges as shown in Table-22 and Figure - 1. Figure - 1 in particular can give us a clearer view of the concentration of errors in the five exchange types.

In addition, to have a wider and better view of the amount of concentration of errors it is worth considering the percentage of the frequency of errors in each exchange. Table - 23 can provide us with this information.

Table - 23

The percentage of the frequency of errors in each exchange

	I N F O R M	D I R E C T	B O U N D A R Y	C H E C K	E L I C I T	T O T A L
NO. OF ERRORS	210	82	38	19	228	577
NO. OF EXCHANGES	62	98	57	39	652	908
PERCENTAGE OF ERRORS	338.7	83.7	66.7	48.7	35.0	63.5

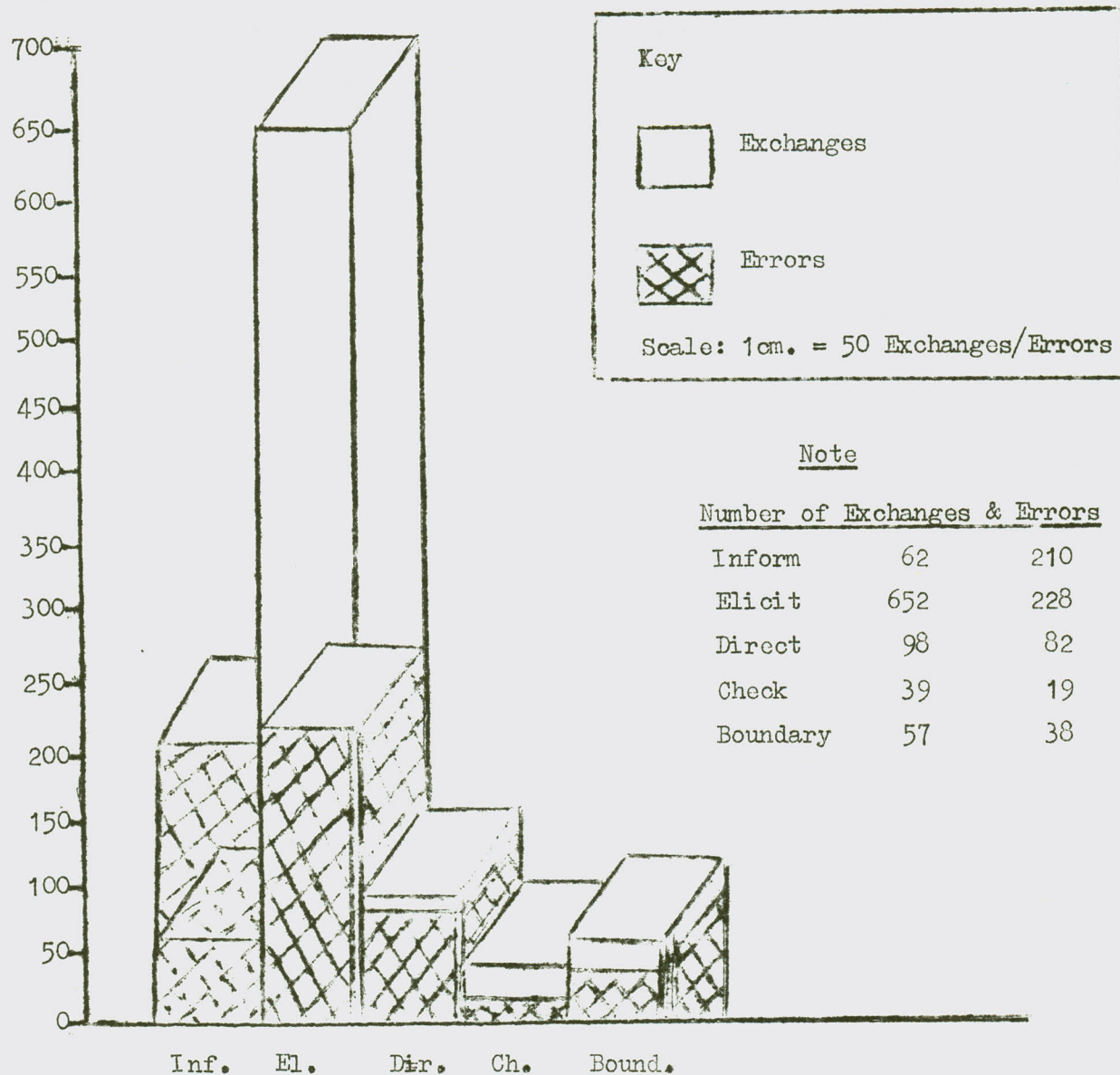


Figure - 1 A Comparison of the frequency of errors in the five exchanges

As can be seen from Figure - 1, the Inform exchanges are completely engulfed by the high concentration of errors (210 errors in 62 exchanges). Similarly, there is a high concentration of errors in Directs, Checks, and Boundary exchanges. On the contrary, a greater proportion of the Elicit exchanges is error-free.

In connection with the identification of errors within exchanges, an attempt has also been made to see the distribution of errors in the classroom language of each of the eight teachers. Table - 22 shows the various types of errors committed by each of the eight teachers.

Table - 24

Types and number of errors committed by each of the eight teachers

Types of Errors	Number of Errors of Individual Teachers								
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	Total
1 Articles (a,an,the)	—	29	1	9	5	10	9	48	111
2 Object	—	6	5	10	3	5	2	6	37
3 Misordering of words	—	2	15	2	7	3	12	14	55
4 Copula	—	1	2	4	2	5	3	7	24
5 Subject	—	6	4	1	2	—	2	3	18
6 Auxiliary verb	1	5	15	—	6	—	—	4	31
7 Wrong tense	1	—	4	1	4	—	1	5	16
8 Wrong number	—	2	3	13	2	2	3	11	36
9 Prepositions	—	15	5	3	7	2	4	5	41
10 Sentence structure	—	2	7	12	1	5	—	16	43
11 Adjectives	1	4	—	14	1	3	1	10	24
12 The apostrophe	—	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	2
13 Wh-word and pronouns	—	1	3	—	—	1	—	1	6
14 Verbs	—	5	2	1	—	8	—	4	20
15 Word/Phrase/etc.	—	5	7	15	6	25	3	13	74
16 Wrong question tag	—	—	2	—	—	—	1	—	3
17 Pronunciation	3	4	3	2	8	3	3	10	36
T o t a l	6	88	79	77	54	72	44	157	577

From Table - 22 it can be seen that T8 has committed the highest number of errors. As can be confirmed from the transcription of his recorded lesson (See Appendix - IH), this is mostly the result of his attempt to evaluate students' response and give comments

more often than any one of the other teachers. In fact, he was observed trying to use the language more freely than the others. This is perhaps the main reason for his committing the highest number of errors. Of course, the actual cause of the errors could be lack of proper monitoring or absence of the monitor or any one of those mentioned in chapter two.

on the other hand, T1 has committed the least number of errors which appears to be negligible in the light of the number of errors committed by the other teachers. However, as shown in Tables 11 and 19, this teacher did not use any informs at all and hardly did she use initial elicits of her own. In addition, she made no attempts to rephrase or simplify questions that students found difficult to understand. As discussed earlier in the same chapter, this teacher was mostly limited to the functions of nominating and prompting throughout the lesson. This condition seems to confirm the fact that the less frequently the teachers used functions concerned with giving information or explaining, rephrasing or simplifying the less frequently they committed errors. Perhaps this condition could be attributed to the fact that whenever the teachers wanted to avoid errors they avoided these functions. In other words, this may be the result of the teachers' error-avoidance strategies.

In addition, it can be observed from Table - 25 that those teachers particularly T3, T4, T5, and T8, who spent more time on inform exchanges have more of their errors in these exchanges than in the elicit exchanges. This shows that the more the teachers attempted to use the functions which called for their linguistic resources the greater became the number of errors they committed.

Briefly, the teachers in the corpus made the most errors when they were trying to give any kind of information to the class - a function essential to teaching in general, with an exchange to error ratio of 1:3.4 as against 1:0.3 when attempting to elicit a response.

So we can assume that the teachers found giving information, directing, and checking the most difficult functions to handle. As mentioned earlier, one must not be misled by the astonishingly big number of elicits (652) as compared to the rest. Quite a lot of the 652 elicits are re-elicits. For example, the first elicit exchange initiated by T1 in the beginning of the lesson has 20 re-elicits characterized by the calling out of one roll number after another until a response was obtained and by continuously prompting a student until the desired answer was arrived at.

The frequency and distribution of errors in the various exchanges in the lessons conducted by the eight teachers is provided in Table - 25.

Table - 25

The frequency and distribution of errors in the classroom language of each of the eight teachers in terms of exchanges

Exchange Types	Number of Errors of Individual Teachers								TOTAL
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	
INFORM	-	9	35	58	20	11	11	66	210
ELICIT	6	49	17	14	22	35	20	64	228
DIRECT	-	16	14	2	3	25	11	11	82
CHECK	-	-	13	-	1	1	2	2	19
BOUNDARY	-	14	-	3	7	-	-	14	38
TOTAL	6	88	79	77	54	72	43	157	577

#### 4.2.4 The Gravity of Errors

As mentioned earlier, 577 errors occurred in the whole corpus. But not all the errors are serious errors, that is, errors that would cause breakdowns in communication. However, as Hicks (1983) points out, the more difficult it is to reconstruct and label an error the more serious is its communicative effect. The worst errors from a communicative view-point are those which come under 'Miscellaneous', for example, let us look at the following sentences extracted from some of the recorded lessons.

- Now when we say you see what you have to understood here is this pronouns (See Appendix - IC).
- Remember that when we use 'Our parents never used to read and write but they do now' now you begin never used to means that you will not do something (See Appendix - IC).
- This all are can be taken as what we can say 'to infinitive' and can be answered the question 'why' (See Appendix - ID).
- Starting of indirect answer is I don't know (See Appendix IH).
- In the same way given the I don't know answer to the following question (See Appendix - IH).

It is quite clear that it is not so easy to reconstruct the above sentences or label the errors involved. In contrast, it is very easy to detect the errors and reconstruct the following sentences.

- Look to page eighteen please (See Appendix - IC). Here 'to' is wrong. It is a prepositional error. The teacher should have said, 'Look at page eighteen please.'

- You know what countryside means? (See Appendix - IC). Here the auxiliary 'Do' has been omitted. It should have been, 'Do you know what countryside means?'

- Where you are? (See Appendix -- ID). It is an error in the order of words. It should have been, 'Where are you?'

- The coffee is very sweet for us to drink it (See Appendix -- IE). Here the pronoun 'it' and 'very' are wrongly used. The sentence should have been, 'The coffee is too hot for us to drink.' Such errors are easy for the researcher to record and analyse. They are also easy for the listener to understand without any comprehension problems.

In discussing the degree of the seriousness of gravity of errors Dulay et al. (1982) cite Burt and Kiparsky (1972) as having classified errors into two major classes: Global errors and Local errors. Their ideas correspond to what Stig Johansson (1973:102-113) discusses as principles of error evaluation.

#### 4.2.4.1 Global Errors and Local Errors

Global errors are errors that affect the whole sentence and hinder communication. The examples cited on page 73 do have errors that affect the whole sentence make up and hence cause breakdowns in communication. In this corpus those teachers (particularly T3, T4, T5, and T8) who spent more time on informs, directs, and evaluations after students' responses fell victims to such errors.

On the other hand, Local errors are errors that affect single elements in a sentence and these do not usually hinder communication. These include errors in noun and verb inflections, articles, auxiliaries, the formation of quantifiers, etc. In our corpus a majority of the errors come within this class. However, as mentioned earlier, in the light of the fact that the teachers should provide

the students with the correct English language model, these errors need to be eliminated by somekind of a remedial programme. In addition, what the researcher would like to argue about strongly based on his observations and findings is that although these errors may be classified under Local errors, if there are too many of them in a sentence they can combine to form global errors. Let us just have a look at the following simple example:

-- Now in the answer was and Almaz change the place to each other  
(See Appendix -- IH).

In the above sentence we can at least detect three errors of different forms: 'The' (article error); 'Place' (wrong number); 'To' (preposition error). When these combine they make the sentence confusing, i.e. difficult to understand.

In the corpus of this study the greater proportion of serious errors are found in the exchanges concerned with giving information and explaining or simplifying meaning. It can thus be concluded that the teachers linguistic inadequacies are most inhibiting in these exchanges.

5. Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusions

Based on the findings the following conclusions can be arrived at.

5.1.1.1 Language Functions

As can be observed in Tables - 11 and 12, the results of the study show that the language functions most commonly used by the teachers are asking questions, giving directions, giving information, and checking students' understanding. However these functions are not used by the teachers equally. They spend most of the time on the function of re-eliciting based on the exercises given after each language item in the textbooks. The second most common function these teachers use is the function of directing characterized by telling students to read questions and say answers loudly and also to do classwork and homework. The third commonly used function is that of giving information which they want to avoid as much as possible. The least common function these teachers use is that concerned with the checking of students understanding. The most frequent expressions they use are, 'Is it clear?' and '(Do) you understand?' often said with the self assurance that they will get an affirmative response. So this is the least used function in the classroom language of these teachers.

5.1.2 Errors

In the 908 exchanges a total of 577 errors have been identified (See Tables - 20, 24, and 25). This, in other words,

means that 63.5% of the 908 exchanges have erroneous utterances. This reveals the fact that most of the time the teachers' classroom language is characterized by one or more types of errors categorized in Table - 20.

Based on the linguistic classification of errors described Sulay et al. (1982), in general, 17 categories of errors have been identified in the classroom language of the eight teachers. Of these errors, errors in the use of articles are the most frequent. It can be concluded that even if the teachers' language becomes free from other errors, it cannot be free from errors in the use of articles (a, an, the). These errors appear to enjoy a marked degree of fossilization in the language of these teachers. It is more natural for the teachers to omit these articles just as it is to say 'This' for both the singular and plural forms of the word.

Errors related to the omission or addition of a word or a phrase or a **clause** are the second most frequent types of errors identified in the language of the teachers. For example, in the following utterance, 'In this structure one with because six structures' (See Appendix - IE), while the word 'one' is unnecessarily added, the **clause** 'there are' is wrongly omitted.

One of the other most recognizable categories of errors these teachers often commit is that of the order of words particularly in elicits involving the use of a Wh-word. This is a common feature of their language. For instance, they say, 'Then we must omit what?' (See Appendix - IE); 'When you say I am used to drinking tea without sugar means what?' (See Appendix - IC). Here again one can observe some degree of fossilization that may have

resulted from first language interference. For example, in Amharic, 'Your name is what?' is the right order of the words; but in English it is the other way round, 'What is your name?'. The teachers simply carry the first language system over to English. This can also be the result of lack of monitoring.

Errors related to sentence structure, preposition, object, number, etc. also characterize the teachers' language and cannot be ignored in so far as they contribute to the teachers' failure to present a correct model of the language for their students to copy. In particular, errors in sentence structure (like the ones given on page 72) do hinder comprehension of the lessons by the students.

The teachers' English language also suffers from a lot of pronunciation errors resulting mainly from first language interference. However, such errors do not so much affect communication in the classroom. But the errors related to long and short vowel sounds, for example, /i:/ and /I/ as in 'it' and 'eat'; and consonant sounds, for example, /z/ and /s/ as in 'these' and 'this'; /t/ and /0/ as in 'tank' and 'thank' (See Appendix - III) can certainly cause misunderstanding.

### 5.1.3 Errors in Relation to Functions

In the classroom language of these teachers errors most frequently occur in the functions having to do with explaining, summarizing, evaluating, and giving directions. These are the most serious errors. Errors are also more frequent in initial elicits than in re-elicits. As mentioned earlier, this is because

although re-elicits are far greater than initial elicits, they are mostly nominates, prompts, and loops. There are only very few cases of rephrasing or simplifying. Errors least frequently occur within the check category.

#### 5.1.4 Teachers' Repair Strategies

Ineffective attempts to repair breakdowns in communication take a big proportion of the lesson time of the teachers. In the lessons of particularly T1, T3, T5, and T7 (See Appendix - IA, IC, IE, and IG) it is common to find quite a number of re-elicits coming after an initial elicit with the aim of rephrasing it or arriving at the desired answer. For example, T1, with the attempt to repair the broken first elicit produced 20 re-elicits before she could get the students arrive at the answer. What mostly happens is that the teachers, in an attempt to repair breakdowns, usually depend on repeating of the questions in the ways discussed above and urging students to respond. But they provide few extra clues and other information that could lead students to understanding the questions or the answers.

#### 5.1.5 Teachers' Error Avoidance Strategies

The avoidance of exchanges that require language not written in the textbooks and likely lead to errors is the most obvious strategy the teachers use. The technique they apply is restricting themselves to reading aloud the questions in the textbooks and repeating students' responses giving little chance to informative functions to come into play in their classroom language.

Further, the teachers concentrate entirely on exchanges

focusing on the form and as much as possible avoid focusing on meaning. This seems due to their deficient linguistic power.

On the other hand, these teachers do best when they concentrate on drilling and choral repetition with much of the lesson consumed by re-eliciting and directing. On the contrary, they perform least well whenever they attempt to involve in the most difficult task of giving information which predominantly appears during informs and evaluations with comments after a student's response to an elicit or re-elicite.

On the whole, the teachers are not able to give explanations of meaning or to put over information. They are also unable to repair initial elicits that have broken down. They can never easily operate outside their planned lesson, and even within the plan presentation of meaning is very difficult for them to achieve. Since they seem to lack the language, they avoid any teaching exchanges which would involve these structures. Thus, explanation of meaning is replaced by trying to teach meaning through examples of in sentences. Since it will lead the teachers into English sentences and words unknown to them, real communication cannot take place in the classroom.

## 5.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings the following recommendations are made regarding the classroom language of the eight junior secondary school teachers of English.

1. A remedial training programme designed to help the teachers to properly manipulate the use of these functions

with priority accorded to the functions they find most difficult is essential. In particular, due consideration should be given to the functions concerned with explanation of meaning or putting over information, rephrasing and simplifying difficult questions, and giving directions.

2. If the teachers are required to provide a correct model of English to their students (which the researcher believes to be their basic responsibility), then they should improve their classroom English to an appropriate standard.

3. Based on the language skills students are required to develop at this stage, the materials in the textbooks should be presented in a way that will allow more student participation and help the teachers avoid relying entirely on the language written in the textbooks. The methodology followed by the textbooks should make demands on the teachers to improve their English through various ways.

4. Finally, further research into the classroom language of the teacher based on the main objective of teaching English needs to be conducted on a wider scale to provide a better picture of the situation so that appropriate corrective measures could be taken.

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Appendix - IA  
Teacher - 1  
Transcription and Analysis of the Recorded  
Lesson

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
(Inaudible)	d	Direct
Are you ready?	el	Elicit
Yes.	class-reply	
Instruction: Complete each sentence with a suitable word from the passage.	d	Direct
Question one. The (inaudible) surface causes the same dash.	el	Elicit
Number forty two. Number forty two. Question one.	nominate	
(inaudible response)	p-reply	
Forty Three. (NR). <u>arba sost kutir yelam?</u> (Amharic meaning Is number forty three not there?)	nominate	Re-elicit
Awo. (yes)	class reply	
Forty four. Question one.	nominate	Re-elicit
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Surface	prompt	Re-elicit
Surface	p-reply	
Causes	prompt	Re-elicit
Causes	p-reply	
Stem	prompt	Re-elicit
Stem to to	p-reply	
To what? What you have in the dash?	el	Re-elicit
To	p-reply	
Which word do you use in the dash?	el	Re-elicit
P-I-S-S-O-N-U	p-reply	
Forty five. Forty five. Question one.	nominate	Re-elicit
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	

Text	Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
	The cold surface. (NR)	prompt	Re- <del>elicit</del>
	Forty six. (NR)	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
	Forty seven. Yes forty seven. (Inaudible response).	nominate p-reply	Re- <del>elicit</del>
	Forty eight. Question one. (Inaudible response).	nominate p-reply	Re- <del>elicit</del>
	Forty nine. Question one. A cold.....	nominate p-reply	Re- <del>elicit</del>
	The cold surface	prompt	Re- <del>elicit</del>
	The cold surface	p-reply	
	Fifty. Question one.	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
	The cold surface close	p-reply	
	Causes (Inaudible response)	prompt p-reply	Re- <del>elicit</del>
	Causes	prompt	Re- <del>elicit</del>
	Causes the same	p-reply	
	The stem	prompt	Re- <del>elicit</del>
	The stem to..... the thing.	p-reply	
	Spell it	el	Re- <del>elicit</del>
	<del>C-O-N-D-E-N-S-I-N-G</del>	p-reply	
	Yes condensing. Correct. The cold surface causes the stem to condensing. <del>C-O-N</del> <del>C-O-N-D-E-N-S-I-N-G</del> .....	evaluate	
	Correct your answers please. <del>C-N-D?E-N-S-I-N-G</del> . <del>C-N-D-E-N-S-I-N-G</del> . The cold surface causes the stem to condensing.	d	Direct
	Question two. If you If you water your garden at noon,most of the water dash.	el	Elicit
	Fifty one. Question two. If you water.....	nominate p-reply	
	Your Your garden	prompt	Re- <del>elicit</del>
	Your garden at	p-reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Noon	prompt	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Noon	p-reply	
Most	prompt	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Most of the water	p-reply	
Most of the water dash (Inaudible response)	prompt p-reply	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Spell it the word that you use in the dash. Spelling <sup>o</sup> <del>e-v-a-p-o-r-a-t-i-n-g</del>	el  p-reply	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Yes evaporating correct. Evaporating. If you water your garden at noon most of the water evaporating evaporating <del>e-v-a-p-o-r-a-t-i-n-g</del>	evaluate	
Shall we pass the third question? Yes.	el class reply	Elicit
(Shall we continue?) <u>AWO.</u> (yes)	el class reply	Elicit
The task of a metal is a difficult job. It requires a very high temprature. Fifty two.	el nominate	Elicit
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Read it again please. Your reading is not clear. Try to read clearly. (Inaudible response)	d p-reply	Direct
Fifty three. Fifty three. (hamsa sost) (NR)	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Fifty four. Question three. (Inaudible response)	nominate p-reply	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Fifty five. Question three. (NR)	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Fifty six. Question three. The meeting of.....a..... meta...	nominate p-reply	Re- <del>elicit</del>

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Metal	prompt	Re- <del>elicit</del>
a meatl is difficult	p-reply	
Job.	prompt	Re- <del>elicit</del>
job it re..re..re..	p-reply	
requires	prompt	Re- <del>elicit</del>
requires a very.....	p-reply	
It requires a very high a very high	prompt	Re- <del>elicit</del>
a very high	p-reply	
temprature	prompt	Re- <del>elicit</del>
temprature.	p-reply	
Yes melting is correct. Melting.	evaluate	
The melting of a metal is a difficult job. It requires a very high temprature. Melting. m-e-l-t-i-n-g. m-e-l-t-i-n-g. melting. The melting of a metal is a difficult job. It requires a very high temprature. Melting.		
Fifty seven. (NR)	nominate	Elicit
Fifty eight. Question four.	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
At north pole the sea dash hard in some places and icebergs form.		
At north pole the sea.....	p-reply	
freezes	prompt	Re- <del>elicit</del>
freezes hard in some pla.....	p-reply	
places	prompt	Re- <del>elicit</del>
places and .....	p-reply	
icebergs	prompt	R <sub>e</sub> - <del>elicit</del>
.....form.	p-reply	
form. Yes freezes is correct.	evaluate	
F-R- double E Z-E-S. Freezes.		
At north pole the sea freezes hard in some places and icebergs form.		

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Fifty nine. Question five. Water dash salt.	nominate	Elicit
Water dissolve salt.	p-reply	
Yes. Water dissolves salt.	evaluate	
Dissolve. <del>D-I-S-S-O-L-E</del> ..... SOLVE. <del>D-I-S-S-O-L-V-E-S</del> Dissolves. <del>D-I-S-S-O-L-V-E-S</del> .		
Water dissolves salt.		
Number sixty.	nominate	Elicit
<u>Yelan.</u> (He is not present.)	class reply	
Sixty one. Sixty one. Question six. The meal is used for dash.	el	Elicit
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Raise your voice please.	d	Direct
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Number thirty nine. Thirty nie. (NR)	nominate	Re-elicit
Thirty eight. Question six. This.....	nominate	Re-elicit
coffee beans. Read it again. Read it again please. This beans, this means, or this meal?	d	Direct
This meal is (Inaudible response)	p-reply	
coffee beans	prompt	Re-elicit
coffee beans	p-reply	
Your answer is correct but your reading is not this much. Why don't you read clearly? This mill is used for grinding coffee beans. Grinding. Correct.	evaluate	
Question seven.	el	Elicit
Number thirty seven. Thirty seven. seven.	nominate	
<u>Yelan.</u> (He is not present)	class reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Thirty six. Question seven. The dash of .....takes place when.....are burried in moist soil.	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
The (Inaudible rrsponse)	p-reply	
Thirty five. Thirty five. <u>selassa amidst</u> (NR)	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Thirty four. Question seven. The (Inaudible response)	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Thirty three. <u>selassa sost.</u> Thirty three. (NR)	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Thirty two. (NR)	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Thirty one. Question seven. (Inaudible response)	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Thirty. Question seven. The (Inaudible response)	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Read it again please. The (Inaudible response)	d	Direct
/Teacher said the following in Amharic/ (Your answer is correct but your reading is not clear)	el	Re- <del>elicit</del>
(O.K. again)/in Amharic/ The (Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Twenty nine. Twenty nine. (NR)	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Twenty eight(haya simint). (NR)	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Twenty seven. Question seven. The (Inaudible response)	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Twenty six(haya sidist). (NR)	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Twenty five. Question seven. The (Inaudible response)	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
takes place	prompt	Re- <del>elicit</del>
takes place where.....	p-reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
burried	prompt	Re-elicit
burried in.....	p-reply	
in moist	prompt	Re-elicit
in moist.....	p-reply	
moist	prompt	Re-elicit
soil	p-reply	
soil yes. The decays.....	evaluate	
The decay of (Inaudible response) takes place when (Inaudible response) are burried in moist soil. Decay. D-E-C-A-Y Decay.		
Twenty four. Question eight.	nominate	Elicit
She polish her.....	p-reply	
spoons	prompt	Re-elicit
spoons	p-reply	
daily	prompt	Re-elicit
daily you can	p-reply	
You can see no	prompt	Re-elicit
You can see no .....	p-reply	
What you have in the dash? rust on them.	el	Re-elicit
Yes rust. She washes and polishes her spoons daily. You can see no rust on them. Rust. Rust.	p-reply evaluate	
Twenty three. Question nine.	nominate	Elicit
Tell your student to break up into groups of four.	p-reply	
Yes break up is correct. Tell your students to break up into into groups of four.	evaluate	
B-R-E-A-K-U-P. Break up. break up.		
Twenty two. Question ten. The government has a plan dash transportation facilities.	nominate	Elicit

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
The govern..... The government has(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
transportation	prompt	Re-elicit
transportation.....	p-reply	
Facilities	prompt	Re-elicit
facilities.	p-reply	
Yes. The government has a plan to improve transportation facilities. I-M-P-R-O-V-E. Improve. Improve.	evaluate	
All right.	frame	Boundary
We have finished the word practice.	focus	
What about comprehension? (NR)	el	Elicit
Did we take it as a homework?		Re-elicit
Comprehension part?	el	
No. Yes. No.	class reply	
No? /Then in Amharic Teacher said the following/ (Let us be sure. Is there any one who would say that we didn't take?)	el	Re-elicit
Reply in Amharic(We didn't take)	class reply	
Ah-?	el	Re-elicit
(We didn't take)	class reply	
All right.	frame	Boundary
Comprehension.	focus	
Two choices are given for each question. Choose the correct one. You have to do this exercise by using the choice which is given in the bracket. Two choices are given for each question and you will do it by choosing one of the two. Lets try one of two as a class work.	d	Direct

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
(We will do questions 1-5)		
Have you finished?	cl	Elicit
No.	class reply	
END OF RECORDING		

Appendix - IB  
Teacher - 2  
Transcription and Analysis of the Recorded  
Lesson

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Good afternoon grade seven	el	Elicit
Good afternoon teacher	class reply	
Please sit down. (NVR)	d	Direct
All right.	frame	Boundary
Our today's topic is the past participles or participles. We will just ..... about the topic participles.	focus	
Ah in past participles we have ah two ways. It is the first one is verb to have and the second one is verb to be.	explanation	Inform
Let us look the first one.	d	Direct
Ah our verb verb to have. Verb to have means have, has, had. Again verb to be. When we say verb to be am, is, are, was, and were.	definition definition	Inform
All right. This are verb to verb to have nad this are verb to? be.	el class reply	Elicit
This are verb to be.	evaluate	
All right.	frame	Boundary
Let us construct sentences using the two forms.	focus	
First let us give let us give example to verb to have. Now please the class participation is very important here.	d	Direct

	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
All right. Can anybody give me example using verb to have? Can anybody give me example using verb to have?	el	Elicit
Yes	Nominate	
She has given me.....	p-reply	
She has?	el	Re-elicited
given	p-reply	
Ah-?	loop	Re-elicited
given me a book.	p-reply	
She has given me a book. She has given me a book. Very good.	evaluate	
Another example. Another example. Another example. She has given me a book. Here is the verb to have plus past participle given. This this is verb to have. Another example of verb to have?	el	Elicit
Yes	nominate	
I have (Inaudible response)	p-reply	
I have-?	el	Re-elicited
a book	p-reply	
I have taken a book. Very good.	evaluate	
I have taken I have taken a book. Yes this is the correct example of verb to have. Here verb to have plus past participle taken.		
This take the present of the I mean the present of taken is take. The past took.	explanation	Inform
And past participle is-ah?	el	Elicit
taken	class reply	
taken. This is the correct example of verb to have. Very good.		

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Another example of verb to have please. Who can give me another example of verb to have?	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
He has.....	p-reply	
He had or He has?	el	Re-elicit
had	p-reply	
He had written a letter.	evaluate	
Very good. He had written a letter. He had written a letter.		
What is the present form of written-? Let us start from present Ah? Write Ah?	el	Elicit
Wrote	class reply	
write the past	evaluate	
And the past participle?	el	Elicit
Written.	class reply	
Written. Very good.	evaluate	
<del>Write-Wrote-Written.</del>		
All right.	frame	Boundary
Ah we can give more examples about verb to have.		
Please another example. Add another example. Give give us another example-Ah?	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
The banana are eaten..... children.	p-reply	
The bananas are eaten by the children. The bananas are eaten..... No 'b. This is verb to be not verb to have.	evaluate	
I want example with verb to have.	el	Re-elicit
Yes.	nominate	
(Inaudible response)	class reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Ah-?	loop	Re- <del>elicit</del>
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Not to have.	evaluate	
Is he correct? Can we say he have a book?	cl	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Ah-?		
had.	p-reply	
He has he has he has a book.	evaluate	
No, this is not verb to have.		
This is not verb to have.		
Use the correct formula please.	clue	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Yes.	nominate	
He has he has....	p-reply	
He has.....about it. He has told me about it. This is the correct example of verb to have. He has told me about it. Very good.	evaluate	
O.K. Look	d	Direct
Tell-Told-Told. The past form of tell is the present form tell; the past told; and the past participle told again.	explain	Inform
All right. He has told me. He has told me. He has told me about? He has told me about.	cl	Elicit
Ah?		
it.	class reply	
about it. Very good.	evaluate	
Now	frame	Boundary
This examples are enough for verb to have.	focus	
Now	frame	Boundary
Let us try another ah examples of other examples of verb to be.	focus	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
All right. Who can give an example yes on verb to be?	el	Elicit
Yes. (Inaudible response)	nominate p-reply	
Uh-?	el	Re- <del>elicit</del>
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
We are give we are give. Can we say that? Can we say like that? We are.....?	el	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Yes. I am reading a book. I am reading a book. No this is present continuous tense.	nominate p-reply evaluate	
Yes. We are reading the books. We are... We are reading the books. No.	nominate p-reply evaluate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Yes. We are taught English. We are taught English. We are taught English. This is the correct example of verb to be. We are taught. We are taught English. We are taught English.	nominate p-reply evaluate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
All right. Number two. Example number two. Yes. (Inaudible response) give the book.	el nominate p-reply	Elicit
We are given-?We-? We.....	el p-reply	Re- <del>elicit</del>
We were-? (Inaudible response) No. No. No.	el p-reply evaluate	Re- <del>elicit</del>

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Yes.	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
The letters were <del>...</del>	p- <del>reply</del>	
The letters were written by the students. Very good. The letters were written by the students. The letters were written by the students. The letters were written by the students. This is the correct example of verb to be. <u>This is the correct example of verb to be.</u>	evaluate	
Yes.	nominate	Elicit
The banana-(Inaudible response)	p- <del>reply</del>	
The banana is eaten by the students or by the boy. Very good. The banana is eaten by the <del>...</del> . Banana is eaten by the boy. This is the correct example of verb to be. By the boy <del>...</del> very good.	evaluate	
Another example please.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
I am given I am given some work to do.	p- <del>reply</del>	
I am given some work to do or I am given homework to do. I am given <del>I am given</del> some or I am given homework. I am given homework. That's enough we can say. I am given homework. I am given homeworks.	evaluate	
Yes another example please.	d	Direct
Class participation is very important. It has got its own mark please.		
Yes.	nominate	
(Inaudible response)	p- <del>reply</del>	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
The boy was <del>was</del> ? (Inaudible response) by the dog.	cl class reply	Re- <del>elicit</del>
The boy was bitten by the dog. Very good.	evaluate	
It is good example of verb to be. The dog. The boy The boy was bitten by the dog. The boy was bitten by the dog. It is the correct example of verb to be.		
All right. What is that?	cl	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
The(Inaudible response) by the grandfather.	p-reply	
The what?	loop	Re- <del>elicit</del>
The story is told by the grandfather.	p-reply	
The story is told by the grandfather. The story is told by the grandfather. Good example of verb to be. The story is told by grandfather.	evaluate	
All right ah any questions please on verb to be or this past participles or verb to have and verb to be? Any questions? Any questions (NR)	cl	Elicit
No questions at all? (NR)	cl	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Is it clear please?	ch	Check
Yes.	class reply	
Is it clear?	ch	Check
Very good. Very good.	evaluate	
Now	frame	Boundary
You are <del>are</del> (pause) I am going to give you some work to do-home <del>work</del>	focus	
please please do exercise exercise d six six two. Exercise six.		Direct

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
tasartual tasartual,(It is done. It is done)	p-inform	Inform
Aha aha Is it so?(NR)	el	Elicit
Now all right	frame	Boundary
Let us-(Inaudible response)	focus	
Did we check it-? Is it--?(NR)	el	Elicit
Oh very good. very good. very good.	evaluate	
Clean the blackboard please.	d	Direct
Clean the blackboard please. (NVR)	p-reply	
Thank you	evaluate	
All right.	frame	Boundary
Let as the I mean the structure as-as as-as structure.	focus	
All right. before we write the example of before we write the example we must know something about as-as.	d	Direct
Sometimes we compare two things which are approximately equal or the same.	explanation	Inform
Therefore, now let us look at these examples please. The bed room is as wide as the living room as wide as the living room. Now let us change this example into as the same as the same form as the same form.	d	Direct
Now please you can look you can look at page fifty. Please open page fifty and look the examples. Page fifty. (NVR)	d	Direct
The bed room is as wide as the living room. Now how to change to the sameform please? Page fifty page fifty please page fifty. (NR)	class reply	
	el	Elicit

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
All right look.	d	Direct
The bed - The bedroom- The bedroom is -The bedroom is as the same width - The bedroom is as the same width with as the living livingroom livingroom. (Writing on blackboard)	exemplification	Inform
According to this example please, ah to do the review two please open page please open page sixty page sixty page sixty. It says, 'Change or the underline underlined words into as-as form into as-as form.	d	Direct
All right now if you look at this question 'This ox is the same price as that ox', This this ox is (pause) Aha no no I'm sorry. Yes yes. 'This ox is the the same ah-?	cl	Elicit
(Inaudible response)	class reply	
the same price price as-?	clue	Re-elicit
that ox.	class reply	
that ox. All right.	evaluate	
Please change it into the as-as form. Yes anybody?	cl	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
The ox is as the same price as that ox.	p-reply	
No. No.	evaluate	
Change it into as-as form not to the same as. Change it to as-as form as-as form. Ah-?	cl	Re-elicit
Yes.	nominate	
This ox- (Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Very good.	evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
This ox is as as ah-? the same.	cluc class reply	Re-licit
Yes. No, you cannot say as the same.	evaluate	
This ox is as ah-? same.	cluc class reply	Re-licit
No. Price.	evaluate	
When you change it into as-as form it has-?	cl	Elicit
Yes. Yes. Cheap. Expensive. Very good. Cheap or expensive. This ox is cheap or expensive. This ox is as cheap as that ah that ox. Very good.	nominate p-reply evaluate	
Please look another example. Look at -- look please. This Pan-This pan is the same size that pan. This-This-This pan is -- This pan is the same the same size the same size as as that pan as that pan. (Writing on blackboard)	d	Direct
Yes-? Yes-?	prompt	Elicit
This pen is--	p-reply	
Pan. This-This pan is-? as cheap as the--	cluc p-reply	Re-licit
No. It is no no not price. Size size size.	evaluate	
When it is size please remember.	d	Direct
Yes. This pan is as as big as that. Very good. This pan is as big as that pan. This pan is as big as that pan. Very good.	nominate p-reply evaluate	Re-licit
Number three please. This cat is the same size as that cat. (NR)	cl	Elicit

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
All right look at the example numbe five please. The dog is the same as that cat. The dog is the same as that cat.	d	Direct
Yes try please.	prompt	Re-elicite
Yes.	nominate	
The dog is as old as that cat.	p-reply	
Very good. The dog is as old as that cat.	evaluate	
Let us look. Let us take example number six. The sheep is the same size as the goat. The sheep is -- The sheep-The sheep is the same size---. The sheep is the same size as the goat as the goat.	d	Direct
All right yes-?	prompt	Elicite
The sheep is the same -- small as the goat.	p-reply	
Very good. She can say small or big.	evaluate	
The sheep is as small as-ah? the goat.	clue	Re-elicite
as the-?	class reply	
goat.	loop	Re-elicite
goat yes.	class reply	
	evaluate	
Now	frame	Boundary
Substitue into as-as form as-as form. All right now please now let us change this as-as form into as the same as form into as the same as form as the same as form as the same as form.	d	Direct

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
This ox is the same price as that ox. Look please. This ox is the same price yes this ox is as cheap as that ox. This ox is -- This ox is as cheap as that ox.	exemplification calling attention	Inform
All right. Let us change into as the same form.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
This ox is the same as the same price as that ox.	p-reply	
This ox is-ah? as the same--	loop class reply	Re-elicite
as the same the same what-? price. price. Very good. price as that ox.	el p-reply evaluate	Re-elicite
I sit clear please-? Yes Very good.	ch class reply evaluate	Check
Another example. Now this pan is (pause) No. This pan is as big as that pan. This pan is a as big as that pan. This pan--as big--as that pan (writing on blackboard). All right please change it into as the same as form.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
This pan is--	p-reply	
This pan is-? (writing on blackboard) as the same as--	prompt p-reply	Re-elicite
As the as -- the same-Ah? the same size--	prompt p-reply	Re-elicite
Very good. As the same--This pan is as the same size size as--	evaluate	
END OF RECORDING		

Appendix -- IC  
 Teacher -- 3  
 Transcription and Analysis of the Recorded  
 Lesson

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
O.K.	frame	Boundary
Page eighteen	focus	
Open your book to page eighteen- the structures. Let me see the structure yes(pause) used to past habitual and then never used to. This is A page eighteen. Then on page nineteen you find yes never used to. This is B. You will find on page nineteen. See examples please first of all. Watch out.	d	Direct
O.K. now	frame	Boundary
Let me please(Inaudible words)	focus	
Look to page eighteen please. See the examples Ato Begashaw in brackets that doesn't any longer any longer. Now you complete this sentences using used to plus the verb in brackets. See this one: Ato Begashaw used to smoke but he doesn't any longer.	d	Direct
Did you see the example?	ch	Check
Yes.	class reply	
Now	frame	Boundary
Let us take another example.	focus	
Now the question is: Many years ago many years ago-?	el	Elicit
I play.	class reply	
I play. Yes-?	prompt	Re-elicite
(Inaudible response)	class reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
One by one. Yes you read. Read the question.	d	Direct
Many years ago I play football.	p-reply	
Comma comma but I don't any longer. but I donot any longer. but I don't any longer any longer.	clue p-reply evaluate	Re-licit
Now who can change this sentence used to please? Who can change? Who can change? Yes yes. The girl. No yes. Many years many years I used to play football comma but I donot any longer. Very good. Yes. Many years ago look here this is the answer; many years ago I used I used to play I used to play football football comma but I don't.	el  nominate p-reply  evaluate	Elicit
I do not--? any longer. any longer any longer	el class reply evaluate	Re-licit
Following this example who can do number two? All right. Read out the question first and then do it. First read the question first yes. When I was young, I run(Inaudible response) comma but I do not any longer. Yes.	  p-reply  evaluate	Direct
Which will it be the answer now? When I was young.. When I was young used to run...	cl p-reply	Elicit
At--? used to No.	loop p-reply evaluate	Re-licit

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
I used to-?	prompt	Re-elicit
I used to run races but I comma	p-reply	
I don't any longer.		
Yes. When I was young I used to run races but I do not any longer.	evaluate	
Yes number three number three.	el	Elicit
Aha	nominate	
This old man be strong but...	p-reply	
No.	evaluate	
<u>malgun naw?</u> (Do you mean the answer?)	p-elicit	Elicit
Yes just the answer please.	t-reply	
This old man used to be strong but he isn't any longer.	p-reply	
Very good. Thats right. <sup>1</sup> his old man used to be strong comma but he isn't any longer.	evaluate	
Yes number four. Who will try? Who will try number four	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
My father used to touch mathematics comma but he doesn't any longer.	p-reply	
Yes. My father used to teach mathematics but he doesn't any longer.	evaluate	
Yes number five.	el	Elicit
Aha yes.	nominate	
<u>When we were in the car...</u>	p-reply	
countryside	prompt	Re-elicit
countryside we used to ride horse but we do not any longer.	p-reply	
Yes. When we were in the countryside we used to ride horses but we do not any longer.	evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
You know what countryside means? gatar. (rural area)	el class reply	licit
In English countryside means rural area.	evaluate	
Yes-? rural area.	prompt class reply	Re-licit
Yes in the rural area.	evaluate	
All right-?	ch	Check
Yes.	class reply	
So you have understood, I hope, isn't it?	ch	Check
Yes.	class reply	
So you can follow this and do this one 1-5.	d	Direct
Now B.	focus	Boundary
This is the opposite of this one now. Now when we say you see what you have to understood here is this pronouns. Did we say I, we, they; yes-? This takes what-? do. I used to play football but I donot any longer. And you can do this one. You used to play football but you do not any longer. All take this do. And this is positive. The first sentence is what? Positive. But here it takes what? The negative form. I do not do any longer means that something you are accustomed to it but you do not do now.	explanation exemplification exemplification explanation definition	Inform
Understand?	ch	Check
Yes.	class reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Now in never used to this is the opposite of this one, which you do not do first but you are going to accustom to it now. Let me see page ninety. Look here.	explanation	Inform
Atto Mengesha never used to spoke but he does now.	exemplification	
Atto Mengesha never used to spoke but he does-ah?	el	Elicit
No.	class reply	
Now. Not no. Now.	evaluate	
O.K.	frame	Boundary
Complete each sentences using never used to plus the verb written in brackets.	d	Direct
Now who can do number one? Who can do number one?	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Our parents never used to read and write comma by they do now.	p-reply	
Yes. Our parents our parents never used to read.	evaluate	
used to-?	el	Re-elicited
read.	class reply	
read-?	prompt	Re-elicited
and write.	class reply	
And write-?	prompt	Re-elicited
comma.	class reply	
comma-?	prompt	Re-elicited
but they (Inaudible response)	class reply	
One by one.	d	Direct
but they-?	prompt	Re-elicited
they do now.	class reply	
they do now. Yes, this is the answer. They do now.	evaluate	
You write the question and answer please. All right? Write the question and answer (NVR)	d	Direct

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Now who can do number two? Who can do number two?	el	Elicit
Yes. Yes. (Inaudible response)	nominate p-reply	
Loudly. Many people never used to read the new(pause)	d p-reply	Direct
Very(Inaudible response)	evaluate	
Many people never used to read the newspaper the newspaper but they do...	prrompt p-reply	Re-elicit
Yes. Many people never used to read the newspaper but Ah? they do now.	evaluate	
You know what newspaper means? <u>Addis Zaman</u> (Addis Zemen-Amharic daily)	el class reply	Elicit
Ah-? <u>kurach warakat</u> (piece of paper)	loop p-reply	Re-elicit
No. No.	evaluate	
NV <u>Gazetta Addis Zaman Gazetta</u> (Newspaper, Addis Zemen)	prompt class reply	Re-elicit
Yes. Ethipian Herald is a newspaper. Addis Zemen is a newspaper. You know. Berrissa is a newspaper. Yes. All this are newspapers.	evaluate	
You understand newspaper means? You must know newspaper. (Gazetta malat naw) Is it clear?	ch	Check
Yes.	class reply	
Yes who can do number three? Number three-?	el	Elicit
Aha?	nominate	
Your sister sister never used to work very...	p-reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Very hard.	prompt	Re-licit
very hard but she does now.	p-reply	
Yes. Your sister never work...	evaluate	
Your sister never used to work very hard but she does now.		
Yes number four.	el	Elicit
Ah.	nominate	
I never used to like that kind of food but I don't (pause)	p-reply	
I do now.	prompt	Re-licit
but I do now.	p-reply	
Yes I never used to like that kind of food but I do now.	evaluate	
The last one number five.	el	Elicit
Aha.	nominate	
(Inaudible response)	class reply	
Yes-?	loop	Re-licit
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
he does now.	prompt	Re-licit
he does....	p-reply	
Yes. He never used to reach school on time but he does now.	evaluate	
You know what reach means?	el	Elicit
Reach on time means what? (NR)		
Come on time-reach.	definition	Inform
Reach. Reach on time.		
You know what on time means? (NR)	el	Elicit
When you exactly on time, it is you come to school not late that means.	definition	Inform
Understand-?	ch	Check
Yes.	class reply	
So he never used to reach school on time but he does now.	focus	Boundary
And then	frame	Boundary
'C' will be your homework.	focus	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange TYPES
Look here your classwork your homework. Now look here 'C'. 'C' repeat the following sentences. Now just read the example. At first the noise of the train irritated me but now I am accustomed to it. I am used to the noise of the train.	d	Direct
Can you see-? Yes. Thats how its used. So be used to. You see?	ch class reply evaluate	Check
When we say ah when we say you see I am accustomed, ah lets see exercise 2-1 Ah substitute(pause). You write the you see we write just from the book this one.	explanation	Inform
Now you let me see one sentence; I am accustomed to drinking tea without sugar.	d	Direct
When we say I am accustome to... I am accustomed to-? to dranking. Not dranking. drinking drinking tea without sugar.	el class reply evaluate	Elicit
Now I am accustomed. This is number one. I am accustomed to drinking tea without sugar means just I have a habit of drinking tea without sugar. But when you change this one now, look here. Now we will do this one. I amah used to I am used to drinking I used to drinking tea without sugar. Now this means you know more about it this one. Yes you understand	definition explanation	Inform

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
that means you have the habit. (Inaudible response). You are accustomed. Now when you are used to, when you say I am used to drinking tea without sugar means what? You have already practised that means. This is on your exercising; on your learning; on your knowing about it.	definition	
You understand the difference between two sentences?	ch	Check
Yes.	class reply	
Ah-?	ch	Check
Yes.	class reply	
must understand here. This s shows habit. This means when you know the habit when you get the habit.	explanation	Inform
It it clear?	ch	Check
Yes.	class reply	
So I am accustomed to drinking tea without sugar. I am used to drinking tea without sugar.	summarization	Inform
You see the difference?	ch	Check
Yes.	class reply	
Who can change in the same way number two? The nurse is not accustomed to go and to take (pause). The nurse is not accustomed to go and to take—	el	Elicit
Yes-?	nominate	
The nurse used to ...	p-reply	
No.	evaluate	
NV	prompt	Re- <del>elicit</del>
is not.	p-reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
is not-?	prompt	Re-elicit
used to going to bed late.	p-reply	
Yes. The nurse is not used to (pause) The nurse is not used to going to bed late.	evaluate	
Number three.	e1	Elicit
Aha-?	nominate	
She used to She used to the hot seathering Assab. Assab.	p-reply	
Yes. She is She is used to the hot weather in Assab.	evaluate	
Don't write 'to' 'to' twice please. I used onely once. I am not used to drinking te without sugar. So you follow this example and do.	d	Direct
You understand?	ch	Check
Yes.	class reply	
Yes.	frame	Boundary
I want to see your work, your previous work. Show me A and B in the class. Yes you do exercise C. Begin in from A and do it. (NVR)	d	Direct
Silent <u>Inde</u> just work out the exercise. Do the exercise now. 'C' will be your homework. Do A and B now.	d	Direct
A and B was given to you before, isn't it? (NR)	ch	Check
<u>Inditsaru satichachihu nabar</u> <u>yihenan, aydalam ?</u> ( a translation of the above check) awo. (yes)	ch	check
Becareful of you spelling when you write please.	d	Direct

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Now the exact(pause) look to the exact answer of $\Delta$ used to, yes-?	el	Elicit
Who can tell me again? Let do write the exact answers. Who can tell me number two? $\Delta$ number two? Yes please tell me the answer. Number two? When I was young-? Number two-? $\Delta$ number two-? When-?		
When I was young.....	p-reply	
When I was young-?	prompt	Re-elicite
I used to	p-reply	
I used to	prompt	Re-elicite
aces	p-reply	
No. I used to what? ran races. ran races.	evaluate	
Aha?	prompt	Re-elicite
comma	p-reply	
comma but-?	prompt	Re-elicite
I	p-reply	
I	prompt	Re-elicite
don't any longer.	p-reply	
I don't any longer. I don't any longer.	evaluate	
Yes number three number three.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
This old man(pause)	p-reply	
This old man? his old man?	prompt	Re-elicite
used to	p-reply	
used to-i	prompt	Re-elicite
be strong	p-reply	
used to be-?	prompt	Re-elicite
strong	p-reply	
comma but-?	prompt	Re-elicite
he does not	p-reply	
No. Does	evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
but-?	prompt	Re-licit
but he does not	p-reply	
No No. He isn't. You the word be is there.	evaluate	
but he isn't-?	prompt	Re-licit
any longer.	p-reply	
any longer any longer.	evaluate	
Yes number four.	el	Elicit
Tsahai. No No the other one. yes.	nominate	
My father(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Yes-?	loop	Re-licit
My father used to (pause)	p-reply	
My father-?	loop	Re-licit
used to be	p-reply	
used to-Ah -?	prompt	Re-licit
mathematics	p-reply	
used to teach-? teach-?	prompt	Re-licit
mathematics	p-reply	
mathematics	evaluate	
NV	prompt	Re-licit
comma	p-reply	
Aha-?	prompt	Re-licit
but does(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
but-?	prompt	Re-licit
he doesn't (Inaudible response)	p-reply	
he doesn't any longer but he doesn't any longer.	evaluate	
Yes number five number five.	el	Elicit
Yes number five?		
When we were-?		
When we were(Interrupted)	p-reply	
Not you moniter. Sit down	d	Direct
please. Not you. Sit down.		
Yes-?	el	Elicit
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Loudly Ah-?	d	Direct
When we(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
When-?	prompt	Re-elicit
were. we(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Ah-?	loop	Re-elicit
were in the	p-reply	
countryside. When we were in the countryside in the countryside,Ah-?	clue	Re-elicit
used to	p-reply	
we used to-?	prompt	Re-elicit
read	p-reply	
ride?	prompt	Re-elicit
horse	p-reply	
we used to ride horses horses-?	prompt	Re-elicit
comma but	p-reply	
comma but-?	prompt	Re-elicit
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
but we do not(Inaudible response). we do not any longer. but we do not any longer.	evaluate	
Just this is A answer.	focus	Boundary
Is it clear-?	ch	Check
Yes.	class reply	
Now	frame	Boundary
Question number two. Who can answer? Yes with never used to?	cl	Elicit
Yes	nominate	
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
That is done. Yeah.	evaluate	
Number two - Ah?	cl	Re-elicit
Many peole(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
nespaper	clue	Re-elicit
nespaper but(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
they do now. they do now. Yes.		
Many peole many peole never used to read never used to	evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
read the newspaper the newspaper.		
but Ah-?	prompt	Re-elicit
they do now	p-reply	
they do now they do now.	evaluate	
Yes number three number three.	cl	Elicit
Yes	nominate	
Your sister never used(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Loudly	d	Direct
Ah?	p-elicit	
loudly	p-reply	
Your sister never used to work very hard comma but she does now.	p-reply	
Your sister your sister never used to your sister never used to work very hard but she does now but she does now. Yes.	evaluate	
Number four number four.	cl	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
I never used to like(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
I never used to like that kind of food. I never number four I never used to like that kind of food that kind of food, but I do now but I do now.	evaluate	
Yes number five number five.	cl	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Yes loudly.	d	Direct
He(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
reach school on time.	clue	Re-elicit
on time(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
but he..... but he does now.		
He never used to reach school on time but he does now but he does now. Yes.	evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
O.K.	frame	Boundary
This are the exercises with never focus used to.		
You understand-?	ch	Check
Yes.	class reply	
Now	frame	Boundary
Remember that when we use 'Our parents never used to read and write but they do now', Now you begin never used to means that you will not do something. But when you say I,we do now, they do now, means what-? They are accustomed to it that means now.	summarization definition definition	Inform
Is it clear-?	ch	Check
Yes.	class reply	
(Inaudible response)	evaluate	
So remember if the first sentence is negative, it is finished with what?	el	Elicit
(Inaudible response)	class reply	
positive.	evaluate	
Is it clear?	ch	Check
Yes.	class reply	
Try to remember this one.	d	Direct
And for third person he, she takes what-? does or doesn't any doesn't any more. No. does now or do now we said. (Inaudible response) He, she, does now or I do now, You do now, we do now, They do now. Look here used to	explanation	Inform
Many years ago I used to play football but I do not any longer. It can be placed with what? You,	exemplification	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
We, They.		
Is it clear?	oh	Check
Yes	class reply	
Here it can be for example, here, 'This old man Ah lets say another one. Ah third person.	summarization	Inform
Yes. This old man used to be strong but he isn't any longer.		
You see this is for third person.		
So in the same way here you used to read and write. Our parents used to read and write but they do now.		
<u>END OF RECORDING</u>		

Appendix -- ID  
 Teacher-----4  
 Transcription and Analysis of the Recorded  
 Lesson

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Yesterday we did passage about the result of hard work and homework was given from that <u>part.</u>	Introductory information	Inform
<u>Let us do that homework</u>	focus	Boundary
Part three question one. Those who are opposed to progress. Those who are opposed to progress. Yes. Reactionary Reactionaries. Yes, you are right. Reactionaries. The word which match the meaning meaning with that word with that sentence is reactionary.	ol   nominate p-reply evaluate	Elicit
Two. Yes. Irrigate. Irrigate. Yes, you are right. <u>Irrigate.</u>	ol  nominate p-reply	Elicit
Three. Tried out methodically. Tried out methodically. Yes. Experimented. Experimented with. Experimented with.	ol  nominate p-reply evaluate	Elicit
Four. Ways and means. Ways and means. method. method method.	ol  p-reply evaluate	Elicit
Five. Fierce storm of wind and water.	ol	Elicit

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Tempest	p-reply	
Tempest. Yes, tempest.	evaluate	
Six.	el	Elicit
Who is number six? Number six himself. Where is number six?	nominate	
(He is not present.)	class reply	
Yalam? (Isn't he present?)	nominate	Re-elicite
Awo (Yes)	class reply	
Sixteen. Who is sixteen?	nominate	Re-elicite
O.K. what is your answer?	el	
Question six-of that vicinity-Ah?		
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
What-?	loop	Re-elicite
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
No.	evaluate	
Yes.	nominate	Re-elicite
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Yes, Neighbouring, Neighbour, Neighbouring.	ovalauate	
Question seven. More than necessary-in excess.	el	Elicit
Seventeen. Who is seventeen?	nominate	
Where you are?		
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
What?	loop	Re-elicite
surpl-	p-reply	
No. Pronunciation(pronaunsie n).	ovalauate	
Surplus.		
Eight. Uncultivated.	el	Elicit
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Yes, barren barren.	evaluate	
Nine. Large (Inaudible words) buildings.	el	Elicit
Number nine. Who is number nine?	nominate	
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
What?	loop	Re-elicit
Block—	p-reply	
No.	evaluate	
NV	nominate	Re-elicit
Block—	p-reply	
What?	loop	Re-elicit
Blocks—	p-reply	
Blocks Blocks. Yes. You see—	evaluate	
Blocks.		
The last question.	el	Elicit
Where is number fifty?	nominate	
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Whst? What?	loop	Re-elicit
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Error yes.	evaluate	
Lets come to the second part.	focus	Boundary
The second part C		
The words are given or listed and the blank space are given in the sentence.	introductory information	Inform
Question one. Read the whole sentence please when you answer.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Pronunciation(pronaunsie n) is very...	evaluate	
We shall succeed succeed only if we work together because our strength lies only in our unity.		
Two	el	Elicit
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Good. The only way to cultivate hilly land is to terrace it so as to contain the soil you have collected.	evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Three.	el	Elicit
Yes? Who is number thirty three? Thirty three? (Inaudible response)	nominate  p-reply	
What is your answer? Say only your answer please. (Inaudible response)	el  p-reply	Re-elicit
Ah? He has worked very hard. Pronunciation (pronaunsie n) is very poor when you speak. He has worked very hard since 1974 when he replaced his previous boss previous boss.	loop  p-reply  evaluate	Re-elicit
Question four. Eh-? (Inaudible response) O.K. The villagers of Fitcher fought against terrible ox.	el  nominate  p-reply  evaluate	Elicit
The last question. Yes. Everyone knows.....the best way succeed succeed as a young man is to study hard and Good. That's right. Everyone knows that the best way to succeed as a young man is to study hard and play hard.	el  nominate  p-reply  prompt  p-reply  evaluate	elicit  Re-elicit
This are the answers.	summarization	Inform
Any question? Any question? Any doubt you can raise question. (NR)	el	Elicit
If there is no question, lets go through our today's lesson.	focus	Boundary

<u>Text</u>	<u>Acts/Functions</u>	<u>Exchange Types</u>
'To infinitive, lets say, plus something. To infinitive something. Now to express purpose purpose we can use infinitive phrase. We say (Inaudible response) to answer the question 'Why' it is possible to use 'What'. The infinitive phrase this pattern- 'to' and 'infinitive' plus something.	explanation	Inform
Now look: She went to Addis Ababa She went to Addis Ababa to buy to buy a new dress. She went to Addis Ababa to buy a new dress. With this one, 'to buy a new dress' it is infinitive phrase. 'To buy' and then what? 'To' here, buy infinitive something can be taken as a new dress.	exemplification	
Now you can ask question, 'Why did she go to Addis Ababa?' 'Why did she go to Addis Ababa?' 'To buy a new dress. Now this one is purpose. This one is purpose. What is the purpose of going to Addis Ababa? To buy a new dress, It is taken as infinitive phrase.	explanation	
Or we say here, 'He ran He ran fast to catch the first bus. 'To' then what? catch. To and To and catch infinitive and the first bus is taken as (Inaudible response) or we add one here.	exemplification	
	explanation	



Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
They are different objects here. When you join this one by using <u>and</u> , we can make it like this.		
This one as it is and we can join like this: She bought a book and some eggs. Now this is all what we use <u>and</u> . That how we can summarization join by using 'not only but also'.contrast		
We can say: She bought a book not only a book not only a book but also what? some eggs.	explanation	
Look: To give more emphasize to give more emphasize we say she bought not only. Position.	calling attention	
Please take care of the position of not only. It is followed by what? Noun-a book. Here again, some eggs-noun. his one is noun and this one is also noun. But also is followed by noun. Not only is also followed by noun.	explanation	
Now this sentence and this sentence are the same. Same I mean, She bought a book and some eggs; and she bought not only a book but also some eggs. We you	exemplification	
take as in meaning wise, that this one is give more emphasize or he has done, she has done well the meaning will be to you she has done well.	explanation	
Let us take another example or another sentence. She, what we say, She took a taxi. She took a taxi-one. The other one lets say here, She caught She caught the first bus the first bus-	exemplification	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
<p>another sentence. We have here two sentences. She took a taxi. She caught the first bus. The verb are different. Take this one-took, and this one-caught.</p>	explanation	
<p>The subject is the same. Object is different Of course here the verbs are also different.</p>	explanation	Inform
<p>Now when you join by using and we move <u>she</u> from this one and we can say simply, you need full stop. She took a taxi and caught the first bus. She took a taxi and caught the first bus. When you join this one using not only but also, you can say like this: She not only took a taxi but also we say she caught the first bus but also caught the first bus. Look: position-not only then verb We have here took. The other one but also then caught. Now look the position of the caught verb. Not only is given here. Now we can join the sentence like this: She not only took a taxi but also caught the first bus.</p>	contrast	
	calling	
	attention	
	calling	
	attention	
	summarization	
<p>Who can join this sentence?</p>		Elicit
<p>She read a newspaper. She read a newspaper. The other one is here, She read what you can say an old book. She read an old book. Now who can join using <u>and</u>?</p>		
<p>Who can join? She read a news newspaper She read an old book.</p>	p-reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Very good. She read a newspaper and an old book. The same.	evaluate	
Look: the same subject and the same verb.	calling	Inform
You need this one. Then you say what? She read a newspaper and an old book.	explanation	
Who can join using not only... but also not only...but also?	ol	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
She read not only a newspaper but also an old book.	p-reply	
Good. You say here, 'She read not only a newspaper a newspaper but also an old book.	evaluate	
O.K.	frame	Boundary
Lets take another one.	focus	
This is the same verb and the same subject. When we change the verb lets take here, Abebe gave him some money or we say gave me some money-one sentence. The other one is here, Abebe bought me a new shirt.	exemplification	Inform
Yes who can join using <u>and</u> ? Who can join using <u>and</u> ? Abebe gave me some money. Abebe bought me a new shirt. Combine this two sentences.	ol	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Abebe gave me some money and lend me a new	p-reply	
No.	evaluate	
Yes.	nominate	Re-elicit
Abebe give me some money and bought me a new shirt.	p-reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
a new shirt shirt. He said, 'Abebe gave me some money and bought me a new shirt. You said this one and you said <u>and</u> <u>and then bought me a new shirt.</u>	evaluate	
Who can join using not only... but also? She took a taxi. She caught the first <del>bus</del> . She not only took a taxi but also caught the first bus.	el	Elicit
Yes. Abebe give me Abebe give me not only ....	nominate	
<u>No not.....</u>	evaluate	
Yes. Abebe not only give me some money but also bought me a new shirt.	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Yes. Thats right. You say, 'Abebe not only gave me some money but also bought me a new shirt.'	evaluate	
<u>O.K.</u>	frame	Boundary
Please do this classwork. Use not only..but also. Use not only...but also. Yes, it is sentence:	d	Direct
She bought some eggs.		
She sold two kilos of sugar.		
They played football.		
They visited their friends.		
He helped his mother.		
He helped his brother.		

<u>Text</u>	<u>Acts/Functions</u>	<u>Exchange Types</u>
Not only...but also, don't use <u>and</u> . Not only but also. Do this. Not only...but also.		
<u>END OF RECORDING.</u>		

Appendix -- IE  
 Teacher -- 5  
 Transcription and Analysis of of the Recorded  
 Lesson

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Good morning class(not recorded)	cl	Elicit
Good morning teacher(not recorded)	class reply	
Sit down.(NVR)	d	Direct
All right	frame	Boundary
Yesterday we have seen about countable and uncountable noun and we have seen about also about the to-do structure and I have given homework on the to-to structure.	introductory information	Inform
So les try to do(Inaudible words ...). Lets see...	focus	Boundary
The coffee is very sweet we cannot drink it.	cl	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
The coffee is too sweet for us to drink.	p-reply	
Thas right. The coffee is very sweet for us to drink it.	evaluate	
Now yesterday I have told you in stead of very you put what-? too. too.	cl class reply evaluate	Elicit
And here we must add what-? for. for.	cl class reply evaluate	Elicit
And we must change the pronoun to-? us. object us.	cl class reply evaluate	Elicit

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
And in stead of cannot-? to. to.	el class reply evaluate	Elicit
Then we must omit what-? cannot. can't	el class reply	Elicit
Ah-? can't It. So the sentence must be 'The coffee is too sweet for us to drink.	loop class reply evaluate	Re- elicit
Number two. The top of the window is very high. She cannot touch it. Yes. The top of the window is too (Inaudible response) to touch.	el nominate p-reply	Elicit
Ah-? (Inaudible response) No. Yes-? The top of the window is too high for her to touch.	loop p-reply evaluate nominate p-reply	Re- elicit
For her-? touch. For her-? The top of the window is too high for her to touch. Thats right. The top of the window is too high for her to touch.	prompt p-reply prompt p-reply evaluate	Re- elicit
Number three. This book is very long. They cannot read it. Yes. The book is to (Inaudible response) for them to read. The book is-? too long	el nominate p-reply evaluate p-reply	Elicit Re- elicit

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
The book is too long for them to read. The book is too long for them to read.	evaluate	
It is very wet. We cannot go out.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
It is too wet for us to go out.	p-reply	
Good. It is too wet for us to go out.		
Good. It is too wet for us to go out.	evaluate	
This orange is very soft. She cannot eat it.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
This orange is too soft for her to eat.	p-reply	
Thats right. This orange is too soft for her to eat.	evaluate	
Now	frame	Boundary
The next one is about 'what, which, and whose'	focus	
You know 'what' is used for asking question to get personal (pause).	explanation	Inform
No. The things the subject of the thing and we can also get object when we ask with 'what'. We can get object and the subject of the name of things. With 'which' we are going to choose things. For example, if I say, 'Which one do you want?' Or 'Which pen do you want, The red one or the green one?	exemplification	
You see here-? (NR)	ch	Check
I use what-? (NR)	el	Elicit
Which. o.k. Which	evaluate	
And 'whose' is used to ask for possessive adjective you know.	explanation	Inform

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
So lets try to fill in the words in the dashes	focus	Boundary
<sup>n</sup> One. Dash your name-?	el	Elicit
<sup>n</sup> Yes.	nominate	
What is your name?	p-reply	
What is your name? What is your name?	evaluate	
Dash pencil is this, Kebede's or Duguma's?	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Whose pencil is do you want, Kebede's or Duguma's?	p-reply	
Whose pencil is this, Kebede's or Duguma's?	evaluate	
Number three. Dash pen you want, the red one or the blue one?	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Which pen do you want?	p-reply	
Yeah?	loop	Re-elicite
the red one or the blue one?	p-reply	
Which pen do you want, the red one or the blue one? Have you seen here? We are choosing from the two.	evaluate	
Dash basket is this? Is it yours or hers?	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Whose basket is this (pause)	p-reply	
Again.	loop	Re-elicite
Who basket is this?	p-reply	
Ah-?	loop	Re-elicite
Whose basket....	p-reply	
(Yes). Whose baket is this? Is it yours or hers?	evaluate	
I dono dash bag is it.	el	Elicit
I dono whose bag it is.	p-reply	
Good. I dono whose bag it is.	evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
The next structure is about (pause) 'because'	frame	Boundary
Because is the connector of two sentence. You know and it is connecting the reason with the effect. If we ask a question with 'why', You can have an answer with because. You can have an answer with because.	explanation	Inform
In this structure with because six structures	explanation	Inform
So let's try to read this structure first. Then we will try to see the next also.	d	Direct
Who can read it? read it? because it is too heavy. Because....	el p-reply	Elicit
Wait one moment. Because it is too heavy. Because it is too heavy.	d	Direct
Number two. Because he is tired. Tired. Because he is tired. Say it.	el p-reply evaluate prompt	Elicit  Re-elicit
Because she is tired. Because she is tired.	p-reply evaluate	
Number three. Yes. Because there is no ink in.... Because there is no ink in it.	el nominate p-reply evaluate	Elicit
Yes. Because it is too hot. Because it is too hot.	nominate p-reply evaluate	Elicit
NV Because it is raining. Because it is raining.	el p-reply evaluate	Elicit

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
NV	nominate	Elicit
Because I am hungry.	p-reply	
Because I am hungry.	evaluate	
Now	frame	Boundary
Choose the right one to answer each of the following 'why' questions. First, say them and then write them down in your exercise book. It says here, First lets say 'why' then we will go to 'E' again and see the answer.	focus	
All right-? (NR)	ch	Check
For example, 'Why are you let let today?' 'if I write or ask you this, 'Why are you let today?', this is a question. You see now to answer this question we must start from itself from the question itself. Look this is the subject of the sentence (pointing to the sentence on the blackboard) You you are or I can change this. You must be changed to I. This is the question, 'I am let today ah because (cause).	exemplification  explanation  calling attention  explanation	Inform
Now from exercise 'E' which one is the answer for this question? Which one is the answer? Yes. Because it is raining. Number five. Because it is raining.	el  nominate p-reply evaluate	Elicit

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
'Why are you late today?' If I am asked, If I am asked like this, I must answer, 'I am late today because it is raining.'	exemplification	Inform
This is the cause. This is the effect. (showing the sentence on the blackboard)	explanation	
I am late today is the effect Because it is raining is the cause.		
Find for this. Why are you eating bread?	el	Elicit
Yes. because I am hungry.	nominate p-reply	
Please try to answer this question fully. Full answer?		Re-elicit
Because he is ...	p-reply	
Ah-?	loop	Re-elicit
I am eating bread because (pause)	p-reply	
NV I am eating I am eating bread because I am hungry.	nominate p-reply	Re-elicit
That's right. Have you seen number six? The answer for number two is number six. Why are you eating bread? I am eating bread because I am hungry.	evaluate	
Number three. Why is your sister sitting down?	el	Elicit
Yes. My sister is sitting down because she is tired.	nominate p-reply	
Very good. My sister is sitting down because she is tired. number two number two is the answer.	evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
You see your sister must be changed to my sister. You must be changed to I or we(pause). We is ah(pause). We are asked with we and I. This must be changed to you o.k.? when you answer the question.	explanation	Inform
Number four. Why don't you write with your pen? Why don't you write with your pen? Yes.	el nominate	Elicit
Why don't you write with your pen? because there is no ink in it.	p-reply	
Can you answer it in full? Can you answer it in full like you have answered here? Yes you.	clue nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
I am don't you write with your pen.	p-reply	
Ah?	loop	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Because it is too(interrupted by the teacher)	p-reply	
Can you say? What do you say please? What do you say? I am don't....	el p-reply	
Ah? Ah?	loop	Re- <del>elicit</del>
I don't you write with your pen because....	p-reply	
I don't write? write	loop p-reply	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Ah? write	loop p-reply	Re- <del>elicit</del>
I don't write? I don't write(Inaudible after this)	prompt p-reply	Re- <del>elicit</del>

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
with-I don't write with. because it is too heavy.	prompt p-reply	Re-elicit
No. that's not the answer	evaluate	
Yes. I don't write with my pen because there is no ink in it.	nominate p-reply	Re-elicit
Very good. That's right. I don't write with my pen. You know you must be changed to my pen because there is no ink in it. The answer is on number three. on number three.	evaluate	
Number five. Why don't you carry that bag?	el	Elicit
Yes. I don't carry that bag because it is too heavy.	nominate p-reply	
Very good. I don't carry that bag because it is too heavy.	evaluate	
Number six. Why don't why don't you drink your tea? Why don't you drink your tea? I don't I don't drink my tea because it is too hot. Good. I don't drink my tea because it is too hot.	el  p-reply	Elicit
Do you understand?	oh	Check
Yes.	class reply	
You see when you are asked with 'why' the answer you give is because. The answer must be because.	summaization	Inform
Now Let go to 'F'. Complete this sentence with past tense of each of the verb.	frame  focus	Boundary

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Now there are two kinds of past tenses.	explanation	Inform
Regular and <del>Ah</del> -?	el	Elicit
Irregualr.	class reply	
Irregular.	evaluation	
For regular verbs we add what-?	el	Elicit
<del>e-d</del> . We change we change.	class reply	
For regular? For this one?	el	Re-elicit
We don't change.	class reply	
We don't change. We add only	evaluate	
<del>e-d</del> on the verb or d.		
For regular verbs the forms of the verb <del>Ah</del> ?	el	Elicit
We can change.	class reply	
The form of the verbs can be changed. can be changed.	evaluate	
For example, If we say 'go', what is the past tense of 'go'?	el	Elicit
went.	class reply	
went.	evaluate	
And the past participle of go?	el	Elicit
goes.	class reply	
<del>Ah</del> -?	loop	Re-elicit
goes.	class reply	
<del>Ah</del> -?	loop	Re-elicit
goes.	class reply	
Goes-?	loop	Re-elicit
goes.	class reply	
gone.	evaluate	
If we say call, what is the tense of call.	el	Elicit
called.	class reply	
We add only <del>Ah</del> -?	el	Elicit
called. called.	class reply	
<del>e-d</del>	evaluate	



Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
They sleep all night. Take care.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
They sleep all night.	p-reply	
Ah-?	loop	Re- <del>elicit</del>
They sleep.	p-reply	
No.	evaluate	
NV	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
They sleep all night.	p-reply	
No.	evaluate	
NV	nominate	Re- <del>elicit</del>
They slept one night	p-reply	
That's right.	evaluate	
What is the spelling of slept?	el	Elicit
s-l-e-p-t	class reply	
Like this. (pointing to a word on the bb)	evaluate	
This is irregular verb. So it changes the form. Right? Note we don't add e-d to it.	explanation	Inform
Gultie ran away to the bush.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Gultie ran away to the bush.	p-reply	
Very good. ran ran.	evaluate	
This also irregular verb. run- present, ran-past, run-past participle.	explanation	Inform
The soldiers polished in brackets their guns.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Soldiers polished their guns.	p-reply	
Is it regular or irregular?	el	Elicit.
regular	class reply	
Ah-?	loop	Re- <del>elicit</del>
regular.	class reply	
regular. polished/t/. polished.	evaluate	
The soldiers polished their guns.		

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Mohammed flee from Mecca to Medina. Flee is in the bracket.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Mohammed(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
How do you speel? How do you spell fled ah?	el	Re-elicit
Spell fled.		
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Good. Thats right. Fled past tense. Mohammed fled from Mecca to Medina.	evaluate	
The water flow flow is in the bracket out of the tank.	el	Elicit
The water (Inaudible response)	p-reply	
The water-?	loop	Re-elicit
The water flowed from the tank.	p-reply evaluate	
Flowed spelling? How do you spell it?	el	Re-elicit
f-l-o(Interrupted)	p-reply	
f-l-o-w-e-d. This is regular.	evaluate	
The fly in bracket from Nirobi to Addis Ababa.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
They fly from Nairobi(Interrupted)	p-reply	
They w <del>hat</del> ? Ah?	loop	Re-elicit
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
How do you spell the word?	el	Re-elicit
f-w-(Interrupted)	p-reply	
No No.	evaluate	
Yes.	nominate	Re-elicit
They flew from Nairobi	p-reply	
(Interrupted)		
That's right.	evaluate	
How do you spell it?	el	Re-elicit
f-l-e-w	p-reply	
f-l-e-w. flew. They flew from to Nairobi	evaluate	
Addis Ababa.		

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Almaz lose, lose is in the bracket, her purse yesterday.	el	Elicit
Almaz lost her (Interrupted) her purse purse.	p-reply evaluate	
How do you spell it? l-o(Interrupted)	el p-reply	Re-elicited
<del>l-o</del> good. Almaz lost her purse yesterday. lost. lost.	evaluate	
Last week, they, in the bracket, spend too much much money on 'ktikala'.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Last week they spent too much money on 'katikala'.	p-reply	
<del>on 'katikala'.</del>	<del>evaluate</del>	
How do you spell it? (Inaudible response)	El class reply	Re-elicited
NV	nominate	Re-elicited
s double n	p-reply	
No, one spent. <del>s-p</del> spent.	evaluate	
O.K. Do you understand this?	ch	Check
Yes.	class reply	
Now	frame	Boundary
Let's take 'C' Give the opposite of the words. Give the opposite of the words.	focus	
What is the opposite of happy? sad.	el class reply	Elicit
sad.	evaluate	
What is the opposite of cruel? kind	el class reply	Elicit
kind	evaluate	
What is the opposite of high? low.	el class reply	Elicit
low.	evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
What is the opposite of rich?	e1	Elicit
poor.	class reply	
Ah-?	loop	Re-elicited
poor.	class reply	
What is the opposite of landlord?	e1	Elicit
tenant.	class reply	
Ah-?	loop	Re-elicited
tenant	class reply	
Turn by turn please.	d	Direct
Yes.	nominate	Re-elicited
landless.	p-reply	
Landless means what?	e1	Re-elicited
tenant	p-reply	
tenant. tenant	evaluate	
What is the opposite of war?	e1	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
happy.	p-reply	
What-?	loop	Re-elicited
happy.	p-reply	
Happy?	e1	Re-elicited
Yes.	nominate	
peace.	p-reply	
Ah-?	loop	Re-elicited
peace.	p-reply	
How do you spell peace?	e1	Re-elicited
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Ah-?	loop	Re-elicited
p-e-a-c-e.	p-reply	
What is the opposite of men?	e1	Elicit
women.	class reply	
Yes-?	loop	Re-elicited
women.	class reply	
women.	evaluate	
But they are not exactly	explanation	Inform
opposites.		

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types.
What is the opposite of old?	el	Elicit
young new.	class reply	
Ah-?	loop	Re-elicit
young.	class reply	
New or?	prompt	Re-elicit
young.	class reply	
You can say both, new or young.	evaluate	
What is the opposite of large?	el	Elicit
small	class reply	
There must be 'e' there- large.	evaluate	
Add 'e' (pointing to the word on the bb). small.		
Little-?	p-elicit	Elicit
You can also say little.	t-reply	
Enemy?	el	Elicit
Friend.	class reply	
Friend. Friend.	evaluate	
Mother?	el	Elicit
Fther.	class reply	
Father.	evaluate	
Three.	el	Elicit
here.	class reply	
Dead.	el	Elicit
Aliv.	class reply	
We have read-Ah?	prompt	Re-elicit
Aliv. <sup>A</sup> live	class reply	
Alive. Alive. Landlord Gultie is caught	evaluate	
alive. We say.		
O.K.? (NR)	ch	Check
Up	el	Elicit
Down	class reply	
Down	evaluate	
Big	el	Elicit
small	class reply	
Small	evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
near	el	Elicit
Far	class reply	
Heavy	el	Elicit
Light	class reply	
Light	evaluate	
Daughter	el	Elicit
Son	class reply	
Son	evaluate	
After	el	Elicit
Before	class reply	
Before	evaluate	
Right	el	Elicit
Left	class reply	
Left	evaluate	
Now	frame	Boundary
We must do sentence with this words.	focus	
For example, in our book it says complete the fo-(pause). Oh.	exemplification	
Now make sentences of your own		
END OF RECORDING		

Appendix -- IF  
 Teacher --- 6  
 Transcription and Analysis of the Recorded  
 Lesson

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
O.K.	frame	Boundary
Take out your homework.	d	Direct
Last time we learned the past tense and the past participle form of regular and irregular verb.	introductory information	Inform
Clear-?	ch	Check
Yes.	class reply	
O.K. who can tell me the past tense of the word miss.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
missed.	p-reply	
missed.	evaluate	
And past participle or verb three?	el	Elicit
missed missed.	class reply	
It is the same. missed.	evaluate	
O.K. What is the word? (pointing to a word on the blackboard). Is it regular or irregular verb or irregular?	el	Elicit
(Inaudible response)	class reply	
Is it regular or irregular?	el	Re-elicited
regular.	class reply	
Yes-?	loop	Re-elicited
irregular.	class reply	
It is regular verb.	evaluate	
Because the past tense and past participle is formed by adding what-?	el	Elicit
e-d.	class reply	
d or e - d. o.k.	evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Who can give me another example of regular verb?	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
switch.	p-reply	
switch. switch.	evaluate	
And past?	el	Elicit
switched.	p-reply	
switched.	evaluate	
And past participle?	el	Elicit
switched.	class reply	
switched switched.	evaluate	
O.K.? (NR)	ch	Check
Now who can give me example of irregular verb? This are regular verbs(pointing to the words on the bb) and irregular?	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
sleep	p-reply	
sleep good sleep	evaluate	
Verb two or past form?	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
slept	p-reply	
slept	evaluate	
And past participle?	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
sleep.	p-reply	
slept. It is the same.	evaluate	
Another example of irregular verb?	el	Elicit
ran.	p-reply	
run.	evaluate	
run? Ah? What is the past tense of run run?	el	Elicit
ran.	p-reply	
ran.	evaluate	
And past participle or verb three?	el	Elicit
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Spell it.	prompt	Re-licit
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Say it. What is the spelling of run?	prompt	Re-licit
ran.	p-reply	
Spell it.	prompt	Re-licit
r-a-n.	p-reply	
r-a-n is the past tense.	evaluate	
Please I asked you the past participle or verb three form.	el	Re-licit
Yes.	nominate	
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
r-u-n.	evaluate	
O.K.	frame	Boundary
Now this are irrigular verbs. Examples of irrigular verbs. We change or we form the past tense or past participle by adding or changing the spelling by changing the spelling. Here the regular verbs are past tense and past participle formed by adding d or e-d.	summarization	Inform
Now	frame	Boundary
Let us go to our homework correction.	focus	
Yes what is the instruction?	el	Elicit
Give the opposite of the following words.	p-reply	
Be loud. Loud.	d	Direct
Yes.	nominate	
Give the opposite of the following words.	p-reply	
O.K. give the opposite of the following words.	evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Now number one number one.	el	Elicit
You.	nominate	
happy.	p-reply	
happy.	evaluate	
Opposite?	el	Elicit
Yes	nominate	
sad.	p-reply	
sad.	evaluate	
Or another word?	el	Re-elicited
Yes	nominate	
unhappy.	p-reply	
unhappy. happy-unhappy. We can say it also sad.	evaluate	
Two number two.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Say it.	prompt	Re-elicited
cruel.	p-reply	
cruel cruel cruel.	evaluate	
Opposite?	el	Elicit
Yes you.	nominate	
kind.	p-reply	
kind.	evaluate	
Three.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
high high.	p-reply	
high.	evaluate	
Opposite?	el	Elicit
Yes you	nominate	
low.	p-reply	
low.	evaluate	
Four.	el	Elicit
rich	p-reply	
rich	evaluate	
Opposite?	el	Elicit
You.	nominate	
poor	p-reply	
Say it	prompt	Re-elicited
poor	p-reply	
poor	evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
NV	el	Elicit
landlord landlord	p-reply	
Be loud (pause) landlord.	d	Direct
landlord.	p-reply	
O.K.	evaluate	
Landlord?	el	Elicit
Yes	nominate	
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Be loud please.	d	Direct
tenant.	p-reply	
Say it.	prompt	Re-elicite
tenant	p-reply	
tenant.	evaluate	
Six.	el	Elicit
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
(Inaudible response)	evaluate	
O.K. the opposite of war is?	el	Elicit
Opposite?		
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Say it.	prompt	Re-elicite
pace.	p-reply	
It it pace? What is the corect pronunciation	el	Elicit
(Inaudible response)	class reply	
Yes?	loop	Re-elicite
peace.	p-reply	
peace.	evaluate	
Seven.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
me.	p-reply	
Say it again.	prompt	Re-elicite
man. o.k.	evaluate	
Men or man?	el	Elicit
men.	class reply	
men. Good. men.	evaluate	
Men opposite?	el	Elicit
Yes	nominate	
women.	p-reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Women or what?	el	Re-elicit
women	class reply	
Sat it correctly please. The correct pronunciation.	el	Re-elicit
You.	nominate	
women.	p-reply	
women. men-women.	evaluate	
Loud.	el	Elicit
old.	p-reply	
old	evaluate	
O.K. opposite?	el	Elicit
You.	nominate	
new.	p-reply	
new or?	prompt	Re-elicit
young young.	p-reply	
Another.	prompt	Re-elicit
young young	class reply	
young. It can be new or young.	evaluate	
NV	nominate	Elicit
mother.	p-reply	
Say it again.	prompt	Re-elicit
mother.	p-reply	
mother mother	evaluate	
Large.	p-inform	Inform
O.K. What is number nine?	el	Elicit
large.	class reply	
Large?	el	Elicit
small.	class reply	
We can say small.	evaluate	
Number ten.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
enemy.	p-reply	
Say it.	prompt	Re-elicit
enemy.	p-reply	
enemy.	evaluate	
Enemy opposite?	el	Elicit
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Loud.	d	Direct
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Can you hear? Can you hear?(NR)	ch	Check
Yes be loud.	d	Direct
Friend.	p-reply	
Say it.	prompt	Re-elicited
/fraind/	p-reply	
/fraind/ or /frend/ ?	cl	Re-elicited
/frend/	p-reply	
/frend/	evaluate	
Eleven.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
mother	p-reply	
I can't hear. Yes?	el	Re-elicited
mother	p-reply	
NV	nominate	Re-elicited
mother.	p-reply	
mother	evaluate	
O.K. opposite?(NR)	el	Elicit
Simply raise your hand. (NVR)	d	Direct
Yes?	nominate	Re-elicited
father.	p-reply	
say it father.	evaluate	
Number twelve.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Say it.	prompt	Re-elicited
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
there. there.	evaluate	
Opposite?	el	Elicit
her.	p-reply	
Her or what? Who can pronounce it correctly?	cl	Re-elicited
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Here. There Here.	evaluate	
Yes.	nominate	Elicit
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Yes say it.	prompt	Re-elicite
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Dead?	clue	Re-elicite
Died.	p-reply	
Dead not died.	evaluate	
Dead? Dead?	el	Elicite
Yes at the back.	nominate	
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
What?	loop	Re-elicite
alive.	p-reply	
alive.	evaluate	
Yes?	nominate	Elicite
up up.	p-reply	
Say it.	prompt	Re-elicite
up.	p-re-reply	
Loud.	d	Direct
up.	p-reply	
up.	evaluate	
Up opposite? Up?	el	Elicite
Yes.	nominate	
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Be loud.	d	Direct
down.	p-reply	
dOwn.	evaluate	
NV.	nominate	Elicite
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Say it again.	prompt	Re-elicite
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
(Inaudible response)	loop	Re-elicite
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
I didn't hear.	loop	Re-elicite
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Is it? Say it again.	prompt	Re-elicite
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Big good.	evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Big? Opposite of big?	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Small.	p-reply	
<del>small or you can say little</del>	<del>evaluate</del>	
Yes number sixteen.	el	Elicit
Near.	p-reply	
Near.	evaluate	
Near opposite?	el	Elicit
Far.	p-reply	
Loud.	d	Direct
Far.	p-reply	
Far.	evaluate	
Seventeen.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Heavy ( /havi/ )	p-reply	
Say it again.	el	Re-elicite
Heavy/havi/?	p-reply	
Is it /havi/ ?	el	Re-elicite
No.	class reply	
So who can make it correct?	el	Re-elicite
Yes	nominate	
Heavy/hevi/	p-reply	
Heavy/hevi/ Heavy.	evaluate	
So heavy opposite? What is the opposite of heavy?	el	Elicit
lazy.	p-reply	
Say it.	prompt	Re-elicite
lazy.	p-reply	
Heavy-lazy, it it?	el	Re-elicite
O.K.	nominate	
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
O.K. light is correct. Good.	evaluate	
Heavy-light.		
Yes.	nominate	Elicit
Daughter daughter.	p-reply	
Daughter.	evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Daughter daughter opposite?	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Son.	p-reply	
son.	evaluate	
NV	nominate	Elicit
After After After.	p-reply	
After.	evaluate	
O.K. after opposite?	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Before.	p-reply	
Before. Very good.	evaluate	
The last one.	el	Elicit
Right Right.	p-reply	
Right. Good.	evaluate	
Right opposite?	el	Elicit
O.K. you.	nominate	
Left.	p-reply	
Left.	evaluate	
Or another?	el	Re-elicite
Yes.	nominate	
Wrong.	p-reply	
Yes you can say left I mean right-left or wrong.	evaluate	
Left-wrong wrong. O.K.		
Right-Righthand, Lefthand you can say; and right means correct. Wrong means which is not correct. So it can be right or left or wrong.	definition	Inform
O.K. ?(NR)	ch	Check
This are the correct opposites.	focus	Boundary
And check your work please.	d	Direct
Make it correct(pause)—the spelling and the correct opposites. Yes look at your work. Look at your work and		

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
and check your mistakes. If there is any mistake you can check and correct.		
Now	frame	Boundary
We can make sentences with this words using the opposite.	focus	
O.K. for example, we can say, 'landlord Gultie landlord Gultie war rich but Tenant Belew was poor'. So the opposites of this rich and poor are used. Rich-Poor. So just like this you can make sentences of your own.	exemplification	Inform
Yes who can make his own sentence?	ol	Elicit
Use(pause) happy happy. Abebe is?		
happy.	class reply	
happy but Kebede is unhappy you can say.	evaluate	
Who can make his own sentence?	ol	Elicit
Please come on try.		
Gultie is a rich landlord.	p-reply	
Below is a tenant		
This is the same.	evaluate	
Another?	prompt	Re-licit
(Inaudible response) a poor man but (Inaudible response) was king.	p-reply	
Another. Use happy the word happy happy.	ol	Re-licit
Abebe is happy but Almaz is unhappy. Just like this you can make your own sentence.	olue	
My father is(Inaudible response) my mother is happy.	p-reply	
It's good. Exactly correct.	evaluate	
But I aksed you to use the word happy.		

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Use the word happy very good again.	prompt	Re-elicited
My father is happy but my mother is unhappy	p-reply	
Very good. Excellent. My father is unhappy (pause) I mean happy. My mother is unhappy. Good.	evaluate	
Ah ?	el	Elicit
Kebede is stand up. Almaz is(interrupted)	p-reply	
No.	evaluate	
Use happy happy please. Happy come on.	prompt	Re-elicited
My father is happy but my sister is unhappy.	p-reply	
Good. It is the same .	evaluate	
O.K. Use again cruel the word cruel come on.	prompt	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Abebe is cruel but(interrupted)	p-reply	
Abebe is a ?	prompt	Re-elicited
cruel boy	p-reply	
cruel boy ?	prompt	Re-elicited
and Kebede is kind.	p-reply	
Kebede is kind. Good.	evaluate	
Another.(pause)cruel.	prompt	Re-elicited
Samson is a cruel man.	p-reply	
Samson is a cruel man good ?	prompt	Re-elicited
Adane is a kind man.	p-reply	
Adane is kind. Good.	evaluate	
Another use old. Use the word old.	prompt	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
My mother is old but my brother is young.	p-reply	
Good. My mother is old but my brother is young. Good. He used the opposite. O.K.	evaluate	
Another use old. Using old.	prompt	Elicit
Samson.	nominate	
Ato Kebede is old but Bekele is young.	p-reply	
Ato kebede is old but Bekele is young. Good.	evaluate	
END OF RECORDING.		

Appendix -- IG  
Teacher-----7  
Transcription and Analysis of the Recorded  
Lesson

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Good morning class.	el	Elicit
Good morning teacher	calls reply	
Sit down please	d	Direct
O.K.	frame	Boundary
Exercise three, four, and five...four, five six.	focus	
All right. O.K. a direct question has indirect answer.	explanation	Inform
Now turn the following questions or give the indirect answer ah question number two to five.	d	Direct
O.K. Why is Abraham sad? Why is Abraham sad?	el	Elicit
O.K.	nominate	
I don't I don't any Abraham sad.	p-reply	
Shi Shi Sit down.	d	Direct
Why is Abraham sad? Again Again	el	Re-elicit
I don't know any Abraham.	p-reply	
Is it right?	el	Re-elicit
No.	class reply	
You	nominate	Re-elicit
I don't know why Abraham is sad.	p-reply	
Right. I don't know why Abraham is sad	evaluate	
O.K. Number three. Why is Bayissa laughing?	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
I don't know why Beyissa is laughing.	p-reply	
Laughing. Right. I don't know why Beyissa is....	evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
O.K. Why is Geleta so quiet?	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
I don't know why Geleta is quiet.	p-reply	
Is it right?	el	Re-elicite
No.	class reply	
Say it again please. Say it again.	el	Re-elicite
I don't know why why is Geleta so quiet.	p-reply	
No. It is not right.	evaluate	
Ah?		Re-elicite
I dono	p-reply	
Shi Shi keep quiet. Let him say.	d	Direct
I dono Geleta I dono Geleta is	p-reply	Re-elicite
No.	evaluate	
(Inaudible response)	el	Re-elicite
I don't know Geleta is	p-reply	
I don't know why Geleta is so quiet. Right-is so quiet.	evaluate	
O.K. The last question. Why are Beyene and Mariam Why are Beyene and Mariam whispering together?	el	Elicit
You o.k. (NR )	nominate	
Shi Shi. Now shi there is no- Shi Stand up. Just stand up or sit there.	d	Direct
O.K. Number five.	el	Re-elicite
I don't know why Beyene and Mariam are whispering.	p-reply	
Whispering. Yes he is right.	evaluate	
I don't know why Beyene and Mariam whispering together.		

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
What is the meaning of whispering?(NR)	el	Elicit
Do you know the meaning of whispering?	el	Re-elicit
Ah ? Whispering? Whispering? To whisper? Whispering? Ah ? For example some of you are whispering now. Ah ? Shi Shi Shi. What does it mean whiapering? (Inaudible response) mawrat(talking), no.	p-reply evaluate	
Ah ? (Inaudible response) manshokashok(whispering). She is right. Whispering means manshokashok. Shi Shi Shi whisper ah. Most of you are whispering now.	prompt p-reply evaluate	Re-elicit
O.K. Now you will turn the following questions.	frame focus	Boundary
They are direct questions. They are direct questions.	explanation	Inform
You will turn them into indirect ? questions. indirect questions.	el class reply evaluate	Elicit
Now when we are turning sentences into indirect questions we start with what? with what? Ah ? Do you.	el class reply	Elicit
Do you Ah ? know. know.	prompt class reply evaluate	Re-elicit
O.K. Number one. (NR)	el	Elicit

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Number two. Number two.	class reply	Inform
Number one is done in class Ah?	ch	Check
Yes.	class reply	
O.K. Number two. When will Ahmed come back? When will Ahmed come back?	el	Elicit
O.K. You Do you know when Ahmed come back?	nominate p-reply	
Do you know when Ahmed come back?	el	Re-elicit
Is it right?		
No.	class reply	
What is wrong Ah--?	el	Re-elicit
Do you know when will Ahemd come back?	p-reply	
Do you know when will Ahmed come back come back.		
O.K. Number three. When will Idris come home? When will Idris come home?	el	Elicit
Do you know when Idris come home?	p-reply	
Again.	el	Re-elicit
Do you know when will Idris come home ?		
O.K. Do you know when? when?		Re-elicit
will will	class reply	
No...?		Re-elicit
Will be will be	class reply	
When?		
Will will be	class reply	
When Idris --?		Re-elicit
will come	class reply	
will come home. Will come home. Will come home. Do you know when Idris will come home? Will come home question mark.	evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Yes. You are put question mark at the end of the sentence.	explanation	Inform
Isn't it?	el	Elicit
Yes.	class reply	
O.K. Number four. When will Hailu go to Jimma? When will Hailu go to Jimma?	el	Elicit
O.K. Ah.	nominate	
Do you know when will Hailu go to Jimma	p-reply	
Is it right? right?	el	Elicit
Yes.	class reply	
Right or not?	el	Re-elicit
Yes.	class reply	
Yes it is right.	evaluate	
O.K. Number five. When will the rains stop? When will the rains stop?	el	Elicit
Do you know when will the rain stop?	p-reply	
Do you know when -- ?		Re-elicit
(Inaudible response)	class reply	
Ah--?	loop	Re-elicit
(Inaudible response) the rain stop.	class reply	
The rain stop?	prompt	Re-elicit
(Inaudible response)	class reply	
Again. Read it again.	el	Re-elicit
Do you know when will the rain the rain stop.	p-reply	
Do you know when ---?	prompt	Re-elicit
the rain stop.	p-reply	
Is she right? Ah? Is she right?	el	Re-elicit
Yes.	class reply	
No. She says do you when the rains stop. Is it right?	el	Re-elicit

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Something is missing.		
O.K.	nominate	
Do you know when the rain rain stop?	p-reply	
No. Again it is not right.	evaluate	
Ah - ?	nominate	Re-elicite
Do you know when will the rain stop?	p-reply	
No. — Do you know when will the rains stop?	evaluate	
O.K. Now.	frame	Boundary
Now you will answer indirect.	focus	
(Inaudible response) and indirect?	el	Elicite
Question.	class reply	
Question. Indirect question	evaluate	
So you will give two answers. First you will turn the sentence into indirect answer and then into indirect questions. So for one question we will give two answers.	d	Direct
Now first turn into indirect answer. When did the rain stop? Now you have to be careful with the verbs. O.K. Indirect answer will be what?	ol	Elicite
I don't know when the rain stop	p-reply	
I don't know when — ?		Re-elicite
the rain stop	class reply	
the rains — ?		Re-elicite
stop.	class reply	
stopped yes.	evaluate	
You must change the verb into past tense because the question is asked past tense form.	explanation	Inform

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
So stop when it is changed into verb two or past tense — ?	el	Elicit
Stopped.	class reply	
double p. Stopped yes. Stop-	evaluation	
Stopped. So do you(pause) I don't know when the rain stopped.		
O.K. What will be the indirect question. What will be the indirect question?	el	Elicit
Do you know when the rain	p-reply	
Do you know when the rains stopped? Stopped again.	evaluate	
O.K. Number two. When the Asmara plane arrive?	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
I don't know when the Asmara plane arrived.	p-reply	
I don't know when the Asmara plane arrived arrived.	evaluate	
O.K. What will the indirect question?	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Do you know when the Asmara plane arrives?	p-reply	
Do you know when the Asmara plane arrived. Right.	evaluation	
O.K. Number three. When did Idris come home? What will be the indirect answer?	el	Elicit
O.K.	nominate	
I don't know I don't know when did Idris come home?	p-reply	
What? Say it again Say it again. loop		Re-elicited
Let him say again.		
I don't know when did Idris come home.	p-reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
I don't know when did Idris come home	el	
Is it right? Ah-?	el	Re-elicite
No.	class reply	
No.	evaluate	
O.K. What is wrong? What is wrong? Again.	el	Re-elicite
I dono I don't know when Idris come home.	p-reply	
I don't know when Idris — ? Come home.	prompt class reply	Re-elicite
Well what is the spelling now? You said come Ah-?	el	Re-elicite
o-o-m-e	class reply	
C - Ah?		Re-elicite
O	class reply	
Is i t right?	el	Re-elicite
No	p-reply	
Ah-?	loop	Re-elicite
C-a-m-e	p-reply	
Yes. C-a-m-e. I don't know why Idris came home.	evaluate	
Now this is present tense. two form is what?	el	Elicite
Came	class reply	
Came. So you are to change the form of the verb into past tense. So I don't know when Idris came home.	evaluate	
O.K. Number four. When did— Ah-? Indirect question?	el	Elicite
Indirect question? form?		
O.K. O.K.	nominate	
I don't know when Ahmed	p-reply	
Change it into indirect question.	el	Re-elicite
Indirect?	p-el	
Ah yes.	t-reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Do you know when Ahmed	p-reply	
No	evaluate	
Keep quiet	d	Direct
Number three. Question number three. Now we said now which question has two answers? Now the indirect answer is already given. Now the indirect question form of question - Ah?	el	Elicit
I don't know when Idris came home.	p-reply	
Again		Re-elicit
Do you know when Idris came home?	p-reply	
Yes, Do you know when Idris came home?	evaluate	
O.K. Number four. When did Ahmed pass the grade eight exam	el	Re-elicit
Yes.	nominate	
I don't know when Ahmed passed the grade eight exam.	p-reply	
Yes. I don't know when Ahmed passed the grade eight exam.	evaluate	
Passed. Right		
O.K. How about the indirect question	el	Elicit
Ok you.	nominate	
Do you know when Ahmed (Inaudible response) the grade eight exam.	p-reply	
No. It has been already answered. I think.	evaluate	
Is it? Isn't it? Ah - ? (NR )	ch	Check
Question number four four.	el	Re-elicit
O.K. Say it again.	nominate	
Do you know when Ahmed passed the grade eight exam?	p-reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
She is right. Do you know when Ahmed passed the grade eight exam.	evaluate	
O.K. Number five. When did Hailu go to Jimma?	el	Elicit
O.K.	nominate	
I don't know when... Jimma...	p-reply	
Ok -- say it again. Let him say it again.	prompt	Re-elicite
I don't know when when Hailu --	p-reply	
O.K. Is it right?	el	Re-elicite
No.	class reply	
Ah--?	loop	
No.	class reply	
It is not right. Yeah.	evaluate	
O.K.	nominate	Re-elicite
I don't know when Hailu go to Jimma	p-reply	
I don't know when Hailu go to Jimma. Now what is wrong with it? There is something wrong. Ah - ?	el	Re-elicite
I don't know when Hailu gone to Jimma	p-reply	
No.	evaluate	
This word go, Now gone is verb what?	el	Elicit
(NR ) (Inaudible B-response)		
Isn't it Ah - ?	el	Re-elicite
Yes.	class reply	
Ah-?	loop	Re-elicite
Yes.	class reply	
Now what is the verb two form of go?	el	Elicit
Now verb three or past participle he said gone. Ah what is that verb two form of		

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
gc? Ah-?		
I don't know when Hailu (Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Again	el	Re-elicit
I don't know when Hailu went to Jimma.	p-reply	
Yes. Yes. I don't know when Hailu went to Jimma.	evaluate	
<del>Go-Went-Gone.</del> This is the past participle form of the verb to go. The verb to or the past tense form of verb <del>go-went.</del> <del>Go-Went-Gone.</del> So the correct answer is I don't know when Hailu went to Jimma.	explain	Inform
O.K. What will the indirect question form of this sentence?	el	Elicit
O.K. You try.	nominate	
<del>Do you know when Hailu went to</del>	<del>p-reply</del>	
Again		Re-elicit
Do you know when Hailu went to Jimma.	p-reply	
Right. Do you know when Hailu went to Jimma? Good.	evaluate	
In exercise five question number three.	p-el	F-Elicit
Exercise five question number three.	T-reply	
When will Idris come home?		
Is it the question?	el	Elicit
Yes.	p-reply	
O.K. Exercise five question number three the question says, 'When will Idris come home?' O.K. This the question.	evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
So what is your answer your question What do you want?	el	Elicit
What do you want to say? What is your question?		
In the second question the answer is (Inaudible response)	p-reply	
What?	loop	Re-elicite
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Now you turn this into what? Indirect question. Change then into indirect question. O.K.	explain	Inform
Now. Do you know when -- . After when comes what?. After when come comes the subject. The subject must come after when. When you turn this sentence into indirect question you begin with, 'Do you know'. O.K. This is the indirect question form.		
Do you know what comes next?	el	Elicit
When when -- ?		
Idris	p-reply	
The subject comes first 'when Idris will come home'. The auxiliary verb and the main verb comes together. Will come home. Now Do you know when Idris will come home?	evaluate	
The difference between -- ?	p-el	Elicit
The difference between ?	p-el	
(Inaudible response)		
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Ah -- ?	t-el	Re-elicite
Question number (Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Question number -- ?	t-el	Re-elicite
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
It must also be like this. Question number two is the same also. It is the same as this.	explanation	Inform
It must be answered like this, 'Do you know when Ahmed will come back?' Always when you change into question into indirect question after when the subject comes.	exemplification	
The subject in a sentence comes after when.		
Do you know when Idris will come home?	exemplification	
Question number two, 'Do you know when Ahmed will come back?' You will answer like that.		
Now	frame	Boundary
Open your book page thirty eight unit five.	d	Direct
Now this is the continuation of the first part of the passage. The result of hard work is part two.	introductory information	
Isn't it? (NR)	el	Elicit
Now you read this passage at your home. You read all of you.	d	Direct
O.K.?	ch	Check
After reading copy the following words or vocabulary into your exercisebook. B page forty B question number 1,2,5,7,8,10.	d	Direct
How many of how many words are there?	el	Elicit
Six.	class reply	
Six.	evaluate	
Copy them in your vocabulary exercisbook. (Inaudible) while reading the passage.	d	Direct
O.K.	frame	Boundary
That's all for today.	focus	
(Inaudible question)	p-elicit	P-elicit
Yes comprehension part A. First we will read it in the class. Then you will do it after reading the passage in the class. You will do it again.	T-reply	
END OF RECORDING.		

Appendix - IH  
 Teacher --- 8  
 Transcription and Analysis of the Recorded  
 Lesson

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Inaudible greeting.	el	Elicit
Good morning teacher.	class reply	
Sit down please.	d	Direct
All right.	class reply	
No any talking. Take your place. No any talking any more. (NVR)	d	Direct
Yes thank you.	evaluate	
Now	frame	Boundary
Take out your books and exercise-books and continue the next topic on page thirty six.		
Let us remember the last topic.		
Just what was the last topic?(NR)	el	Elicit
There is some noise please. Be silence. (NVR)	d	Direct
The last topic was(pause). The last topic was just you have learned that direct statement change into indirect statement. You have learned that topic. Direct statement changed into indirect statement. Direct statement change into indirect statement. (said while writing on blackboard)	introductory information	
Yeah	frame	Boundary
That what we have learned last year last week	focus	
Today's topic is two topics. Almost the same. That means direct just we can get(Inaudible response) direct question.	focus	Boundary

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types...
Direct question has what-? (Inaudible response)	el class reply	Elicit
Indirect question. Indirect answer. Indirect answer. Now direct question has indirect answer indirect answer.	evaluate	
The next one ---The next one direct question direct question becomes becomes indirect-? answer.	el class reply	Elicit
Not answer. (pause)	evaluate	
Look your books. Indirect question. Look your books.	d	Direct
Just direct question becomes indirect question. Yes indirect questions. Question and questions. The first one question answer. The second one question and question. The first one direct question has indirect answer indirect answer. The next one direct question becomes indirect question indirect question.	explanation	Inform
So let us see what the answer.	d	Direct
You see indirect answer-? what we mean by indirect answer-? (NR)	ch	Check
Just(pause). Starting of indirect answer is I don't know. I don't know. I don't know. Then that means starting of indirect answer is I don't know. While starting of indirect question should be 'Do you know? Do you know? Do you know?' The answer	explanation	Inform

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
should be continued.		
Then now the formula of this one ' why plus verb plus-? subject.	el class reply	Elicit
Yes.	evaluate	
Subject and verb should change the place. Subject and verb should be change with each other the place.	explanation	Inform
Subject what-? plus	el class reply	Elicit
Plus-? verb	loop class reply	Re-elicite
Verb. verb. verb. This is the formula.	evaluate	
Now	frame	Boundary
Let us see the question. Let see the direct question and let us try that to change into indirect answer.		
Why was Almaz late? This is the direct question. Why was Almaz late? This is the direct question.	exemplification	Inform
The direct question has what? The answer should be what? Indirect answer.	el class reply	Elicit
Indirect-? answer. answer. Indirect answer.	el class reply evaluate	Re-elicite
Very good.		
(Inaudible response) change into indirect-	el	Elicit
Yes (Pointing at at a student)	nominate	
I don't know why Almaz was late.	p-reply	
I don't know why Almaz was late.	evaluate	
Yes.		

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Now change of the place (Inaudible Words ). It was was before. Now in the answer was and Almaz change the place to each other.	explanation	Inform
Then the answer should be (Inaudible Words ). Let us start from there. I don't know. Now what is there? Why? Almaz. Almaz. Very good yes. That's the answer what why Almaz was was late. Very good. Late late. Why Almaz was late why Almaz was late. (said while writing on blackboard)	el  class reply	Elicit
(Inaudible question) Yes-? Yes-? (Inaudible response) Very good. Thank you. Yes. Good. Now I don't know why Almaz was late.	p- <del>elicit</del> t- <del>elicit</del> p- <del>reply</del> evaluate	Elicit
Now then look your books now. There are five questions there and let us try to give the answer on page thirty six.	frame  focus	Boundary
Yes number one. Now what is said is now in exercise four yes in the same way given the I don't answer to the following question. Why was Bekele was angry-? Why was Bekele angry?(NR)	el	Elicit
Yes there don't chatter like third grade students. (NVR)		Direct

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Let us start from someone side.	el	Re-licit
Yes you girl.	nominate	
I don't know why Bekele was angry.	p-reply	
Very excellent. I don't know why Bekele was angry. Bekele and was change the place. I don't know why Bekele was angry. Very excellent. Very good. Very nice. Today's this year student very some very very nice yes than the others last year's.	evaluate	
Why(pause). Number two. Why is Abraham sad? What is Abraham sad?	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
I don't know why Abraham is sad.	p-reply	
Very excellent. Very excellent.		
I don't know why Abraham is sad.		
Who knows some problem.		
Number three. Why is Beyene laughing? Why is Beyene laughing?	el	Elicit
Yes you. Good girl. You are brave one.	nominate	
I don't know why Beyene is laughing.	p-reply	
I don't know why Beyene is laughing. Very excellent. I don't know why Beyessa is laughing.	evaluate	
Number four. Why is Geleta so quite? Why is Geleta so quiet?	el	Elicit
I don't know why Geleta is so quiet.	p-reply	
Quite, yes. Very good. I dono why Geleta is so quite. Very good.	evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Number five. Why are Beyene and Mariam whispering together?	el	Elicit
That is a boy and a girl whispering. What was that? It should be given for good purpose.		
Yes I see you this girl yes now	nominate	
I don't know(pause) I don't know(pause)	p-reply	
Eh-?	loop	Re-elicite
I don't know what bi....Beyesh and	p-reply	
Beyene. Beyene and Mariam-? and Mariam wi....wish.	clue p-reply	Re-elicite
What about verb? Where is verb? Now go back to the verb.	clue	Re-elicite
are.	class reply	
Yeah.	evaluate	
Again. Read again from beginning. I dono-I dono-start from I dono. Ah-?	loop	Re-elicite
I don't - Be.....Beyene...and Not that please.	p-reply evaluate	
Correct your answer and change. Beyene...Mari...and... Sit down please.	el p-reply d	Re-elicite Direct
Yes monitor. Yes monitor.	nominate	Re-elicite
I don't know why Beyene and Mariam are	p-reply	
Mariam are-? are Whispering together. together. Very good. I dono....Yes you are monitor but you should have to know what they are talking/su-su-su-su/. They are boy and girl. Yes let us the talking.	clue p-reply evaluate	Re-elicite

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
We dono thr reason. I dono why Beyene and Mariam are whispering together. Good. Very good.		
Is it clear please?(NR)	oh	Check
Now	frame	Boundary
Let us try again so that it will be easy for you when you write down ah in your exercise-book. So that it will be clear let us just again more let us read more one more.	focus	
Number one number one. Why was Bekele angry? Why was Bekele angry?	el	Elicit
Yes you.	nominate	
I dono why Bekele was angry.	p-reply	
Very good. Yes you are good and become brave and now you are becoming quite student	evaluate	
Before you were somewhat 'RABASH'.		
Number two. Why is Abraham sad? Why is Abraham sad?	el	Elicit
Yes good boy good student.	nominate	
I don't know (Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Yes? Ah-? ( ) Again please.	loop	Re-licit
I don't know why Abraham is sad. sad yes. I don't know why Abraham is sad. Very good yes.	evaluate	
Number three. Why is Beyessa laughing? Why is Beyessa laughing?	el	Elicit
I don't know Beyessa is laughing.	p-reply	
Ah-? (again again).	loop	Re-licit
I don't know Beyessa is		

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
What about 'why'? Where is 'why' -?	clue	Re- <del>elicit</del>
I don't know why Beyessa is laughing.	p- <del>reply</del>	
Yes. I don't know why Beyessa is laughing. Yes. He has just written. He have done. He He has done already. It is good yes.		
Number four. Why is Geleta so quite? <del>So</del> quite?	cl	Elicit
Yes you big boy.	nominate	
I don't know why Geleta so —	p- <del>reply</del>	
Ah-? Ah-? Where is verb? Again correct it ah?	clue	Re- <del>elicit</del>
I don't know Geleta...I don't,,, know why Geleta is so quite.	p- <del>reply</del>	
Yes Very good. Yes. Don't be afraid.	evaluate	
Number five. Last. Why Beyene is not (Inaudible Words )	cl	Elicit
Yes good. <sup>t</sup> he girl.	nominate	
I don't know why Beyessa (pause)	p- <del>reply</del>	
Beyene. Beyene-?	prompt	Re- <del>elicit</del>
Beyene and Mariam are whos— (pause)	p- <del>reply</del>	
Whispering. Whispering. together.	prompt	Re- <del>elicit</del>
together.	p- <del>reply</del>	
	evaluate	
O.K. now.	frame	Boundary
Let us try now. Let us go down. Now the second part. yeah.	focus	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
That means direct question becomes indirect question. Question and question. Direct question becomes indirect question. Both are questions. The direct question becomes the indirect question. Now then let us see the example now. This also the same changing of the places. Verb and subject are change the places. Now for example, direct question now ah' when will he finish? With what? With finish we don't know what he is going to finish. When will he finish? (said while writing on blackboard)	explanation	Inform
This is what kind of question? Direct or indirect question? Direct question. Direct question. Very good... Direct question.	el  class reply evaluate	Elicit
Now this direct question becomes what? Indirect question. Indirect question.	el  class reply evaluate	Elicit
Now when will he finish? Now let us see the formula. Let us see see now. Don't be in a hurry.	d	Direct
The formula is now, 'when' plus? verb.	el class reply	Elicit
Verb plus-? subject. subject. Very good. subject.	el class reply evaluate	Re-licit
Now(Inaudible Words ) becoms what-? when.	el class reply	Elicit

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
When plus-? subject. subject. Very good.	el class reply evaluation.	Re-elicit
Plus-? verb. verb. verb.	el class reply evaluate	Re-elicit
Now which is the verb in the sentence? Which is the verb? Which is the verb? Which is the subject?	el	Elicit
Yes. Yes.	nominate	
Will.	p-reply	
Yeah-? will.	loop p-reply	Re-elicit
When ah-? (Inaudible response)	loop p-reply	Re-elicit
Which is the subject of the sentence? he. He yes. Very good. Yes he is the subject. and then will is the verb- main verb main verb.	el class reply evaluate	Re-elicit
This also finish verb. Will is the main verb. Yes we talking about will and he yes. Now in the first one verb and he is the subject. Now it becomes when as it is when when the starting. When plus subject (Inaudible Words )that means he he is the subject. Finish is the first. Then will be the last one.	explanation	Inform
So now when we answer or when we change into indirect question how can we start-? With what shall we start-?	el	Elicit

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Yes.	nominate	
(Inaudible response)	class reply	
Yes. Very good. Do you know... that means subject now...when he will finish. Very good.	evaluate	
Right. That is question also... question again right. Do you know when he will finish? Do you know when he will finish? It was before 'When' will he finish? Do you know when will he finish? He and will change the place.	explanation exemplification	
Now	frame	Boundary
By this example now let us read the next five questions.	focus	
Change into questions.	d	Direct
Again question change into question. That means direct question and change into indirect question.	explanation	Inform
Exercise five in the same way given the do you know question for the following direct question.	d	Direct
Number one. When will the Asmara plane arrive arrive-?	ol	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Do you when...Do you know when (Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Clear (Make it audible)	d	Direct
Yes.	nominate	
Do you know when the Asmara plane....	p-reply	
plane	oluc	Re-licit
plane arrive.	p-reply	

Test	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
plane	clue	Re-licit
plane arrive.	p-reply	
Again please. plane and Asmara Asmara and plane are the same ( )	loop	Re-licit
Do you know when...Do you know when the Asmara will (pause)	p-reply	
plane Asmara plane.	clue	Re-licit
arrive.	p-reply	
PLANE (What comes after plane)	cl	Re-licit
(Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Very good. Where is the verb? (NR)	cl	Re-licit
Now please take care. Silence.	d	Direct
She tried but...smowhat...	cl	Re-licit
Yes.	nominate	
Do you know when the Asmara the Asmara plan will (pause)	p-reply	
plane plane will	clue	Re-licit
will.	p-reply	
will arrive. Yes. Very good.	evaluate	
Do you know when the Asmara plane will arrive? That is correct. That is right just.		
Next number two.	cl	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Do you know when Ahmed will come back?	p-reply	
Again please. One again.	loop	Re-licit
Do you know - Do you know when Ahmed will come back?	p-reply	
Very good yes. Do you know when Ahemed will come back?	evaluate	
Do you know when Ahmed will .... Yes that is right.		

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Number three. When will Idris come home? Idris come home?	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Do you know when Idris will come home?	p-reply	
Very excellent. Yes good. Do you know when Idris will come home?	evaluate	
Very good.yes.		
Number four. When will Hailu go to Jimma? When will Hailu go to Jimma?	el	Elicit
Kassech, why don't you try please.	nominate	
I don't know when Hailu...	p-reply	
Oh, Oh where are (Inaudible response)	evaluate	
Are you thinking of about (or crsses-Ah?		
Ah-?	loop	Re-elicit
Do you know when Hailu....	p-reply	
Aha Aha again please.	loop	Re-elicit
Do you know when Hailu go to Jimma?	p-reply	
Are you sick?		
<del>Sh-sh-sh-sh</del> please don't disturb.	d	Direct
Yes you back boy.	nominate	Re-elicit
Do you know -- Do you know when Hailu will go to Jimma?	p-reply	
Jimma yes. Yas thats right. Do you know when Hailu will go to Jimma? Yes somewhat yes. If you think it it will be easy but somewhat also be difficult.	evaluate	
Yeah.		
Number last. Number five. When will the rains stop?	el	Elicit
(o.k.) Wondosen.	nominate	
Do you know when the rains will stop?	p-reply	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
stop. (yes) .....stop		
yes.		
Now	frame	Boundary
Please....just slowly let us repeat once to that it will easy when you do your homework.	focus	
Now let us start from this...what.. this side.	d	Direct
Number one again. Please one. Number one.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Do you know when the Asmara will....	p-reply	
Asmara plane Asmara plane	clue	Re-elicited
Asmara plane and will the arrive...	p-reply	
Aha Aha again please 'the' /in Amharic- za keyet matta/ (where did 'the' come from?)	loop	Re-elicited
Do you know when Asmara....	p-reply	
The Asmara /andlai/.....(both together)	clue	Re-elicited
the Asmara....	p-reply	
plane	prompt	Re-elicited
plane will arrive arrive. Good yes. That's right. Do you know when the Asmara plane will arrive? That's right. Yes.	p-reply evaluate	
Number two. Number two.	el	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Do you know when Ahmed come....	p-reply	
Ah-? Ah-?	loop	Re-elicited
will come back.	p-reply	
Again please.	loop	Re-elicited
Do you know when Ahmed will come.. back back. Yes, question mark as it question Good yes.	p-reply evaluate	

Text	Acts/Functions	Exchange Types
Number three. Number three.	cl	Elicit
Yeah.	nominate	
Do you know Idris will come home?	p-reply	
will come home. Very good.	evaluate	
Very nice. Yes. Do you know when Idris will come home? Good.		
Yes yes Kibru.	nominate	Elicit
Do you know when Hailu will- (Inaudible response)	p-reply	
Very excellent. Good Kibru. Very nice. Do you know when Hailu will go to Jimma? Yes.	evaluate	
Number last. Number last.	cl	Elicit
Yes.	nominate	
Do you know when the rain will stop?	p-reply	
Very good yes. Do you know when the rains will stop stop stop.		
Will it be difficult to work now?	ch	Check
Is it easy? Ah-?/He then said this in Amharic/ class answered in Amharic (yes)	class reply	
Go on. /He then instructed them in Amharic saying that they should continue writing the exercises/ If there is (Inaudible response) you ask me./He then said in Amharic, 'If there is any problem, ask me. Those of you who don't bring books be careful./ Ask me question./in Amharic, 'Don't be bored./	d	Direct
END OF RECORDING.		

Appendix - IIA  
Teacher - 1  
Erroneous Utterances

<u>Exchange Type</u>	<u>The Utterances Having Errors(Samples from lesson)</u>
1. Elicit	What you have in the dash?
2. Elicit	Spell it the word that you use in the dash.
3. Elicit	Your answer is correct but your reading is not this much.

Appendix - IIB  
Teacher - 2  
Erroneous Utterances

<u>Exchange Type</u>	<u>The Utterances Having Errors(Samples from lesson)</u>
1. Boundary	Our today's topic is the past participles.
2. Inform	In the past participles we have two ways. It is the first one is verb to have and the second one is verb to be.
3. Direct	Let us look the first one.
4. Inform	When we say verb to be am, is, are, <del>was</del> , and were
5. Elicit	This are verb to have and this are verb to be.
6. Direct	First let us give example to verb to have.
7. Elicit	Can anybody give me example using verb to have?
8. Elicit	What is the present form of written? Let us start from present.
9. Boundary	We can give more example about verb to have.
10. Elicit	This verb to be not verb to have.
11. Elicit	I want example with verb to have.
12. Inform	The past form of tell is the present form tell.
13. Boundary	The examples are enough for present for verb to have.
14. Boundary	Let us try another examples of other examples of verb to be.
15. Elicit	Who can give an example on verb to be?
16. Elicit	This is the correct examples of verb to be.
17. Elicit	It is good example of verb to be.
18. Elicit	The story is told by the grandfather.
19. Elicit	Any questions please on verb to be or this past participles?

<u>Exchange Type</u>	<u>The Utterances Having Errors(Samples from lesson)</u>
20. Direct	Now let us change this example into as the same form.
21. Direct	Please on page fifty look the examples.
22. Elicit	Now how to change to the same form please?
23. <del>Direct</del>	Please open page sixty.
24. Direct	Please look another example.
25. Boundary	Substitute into as - as form.
26. Elicit	Let us change into as the same form.

Appendix - IIC  
Teacher - 3  
Erroneous Utterances

<u>Exchange Type</u>	<u>The Utterances Having Errors(Samples from lesson)</u>
1. Direct	Open your book to page eighteen.
2. Direct	This is B you will find on page <del>nineteen</del> .
3. Elicit	Who can change this sentence into using used to please?
4. Elicit	Which will it be the answer now?
5. Elicit	You know what countryside means?
6. Inform	When we say you see what you have to understood is this pronouns.
7. Inform	All take this do.
8. Inform	I do not do any longer means that something you are accustomed to it but you do not do now.
9. Inform	Ato Mengesha never used to spoke but he does now.
10. Direct	Complete each sentences using never used to plus the verb written in brackets.
11. Elicit	All this are newspaper.
12. Check	You understand newspaper means?
13. Elicit	Reach on time means what?
14. Inform	When you come exactly on time it is you come to school not late that means.
15. Inform	When we say you see I am accustomed let see exercise two, substitute(pause)you write the you see we just from the book this one.
16. Inform	...now this means you know more about it ths one.
17. Inform	When you say I am drinking tea without sugar means what?

<u>Exchange Type</u>	<u>The Utterances Having Errors(Samples from lesson)</u>
18. Inform	You have already practised that means.
19. Inform	This is on your exercising on your learning on your knowing about it.
20. Check	You understand the difference between the two sentences?
21. Elicit	Who can change in the same way number two?
22. Direct	Don't write twice please. I used only once.
23. Check	A and B was given to you before, isn't it?
24. Elicit	Look to the exact answer of A.
25. Elicit	Let do write the exact answers.
26. Elicit	Just this is A answers.
27. Elicit	Question number two who can answer?
28. Boundary	This are the exercises with never used to.
29. Inform	Remember that when we use 'Our parents never used to read and write but they do now' now you begin never used to means that you will not do something.
30. Inform	But you say I we do now, they do now means what?
31. Inform	They are accustomed to it that means now.
32. Elicit	So remember if the first statement is negative, it is finished with what?
33. Inform	The third person he, she, take what?
34. Check	So you <del>have</del> understood I hope, isn't it?

Appendix - IID  
Teacher - 4  
Erroneous Utterances

<u>Exchange Type</u>	<u>The utterances Having Errors(Samples from lesson)</u>
1. Inform	Yesterday we did passage and homework was given.
2. Elicit	The word which match the meaning....?
3. Elicit	The word which match the meaning with that word with that sentence is reactionary.
4. Elicit	What is your answer question six?
5. Inform	...and blank space are given in the sentence.
6. Inform	This are the answers.
7. Elicit	Any doubt you raise question.
8. Boundary	Lets go through our today's lesson.
9. Inform	With this one 'to buy a new dress' it is infinitive phrase.
10. Inform	'To' here 'buy' infinitive something can be taken as 'a new dress'.
11. Inform	You ask question, 'Why did he took the money?'
12. Inform	This all are can be taken as what we can say to infinitive and can be answered the question 'why'
13. Inform	This what we can find infinitive phrase.
14. Boundary	How we can join using this or this conjunction two sentences.
15. Inform	Now this is all what we use <u>and</u> .
16. Inform	That how we can join by using not only but also.
17. Inform	To give more emphasize....
18. Inform	When you take as in meaning wise, that this one is give more emphasize.

<u>Exchange Type</u>	<u>The Utterances Having Errors(Samples from lesson)</u>
19. Inform	He has done well or she has done well the meaning will be to you she has done well.
20. Inform	The verb are different.
21. Inform	Look the position of the caught verb.
22. Elicit	Who can join this sentence?
23. Inform	This is the same verb and the same subject.
24. Direct	Yes it is this sentence. (The teacher is referring to five sentences)
25. Direct	Don't use <u>and</u> <u>not only</u> <u>but also</u> .
26. Elicit	Where you are?

Appendix - IIE  
Teacher - 5  
Erroneous Utterances

<u>Exchange Type</u>	<u>The Utterances Having Errors (Samples from lesson)</u>
1. Inform	Yesterday we have seen about countable and uncountable noun and we have seen about also about the 'too-to' structure and I have given homework on the 'too-to' structure.
2. Boundary	Les....(to mean let us)
3. Elicit	The coffee is very sweet for us to drink it.
4. Elicit	Now yesterday I have told you in stead of very you put what?
5. Inform	You know 'What' is used for asking question to get personal(pause). No, the things the subject of the thing and we can also get object when we ask with 'What'. We can get object and the subject of the name of things. With 'Which' we are going to choose things.
6. Inform	'Whose' is used to ask for possessive adjective.
7. Inform	'Because' is connector of two sentences.
8. Boundary	In this structure one with because six structures.
9. Elicit	Which one is the answer for this question?
10. Inform	You see when you are asked with 'why' the answer you give is because. The answer must be because.
11. Inform	So 'go' is irregular and 'call' is regular verb.

Appendix - IIF  
 Teacher - 6  
 Erroneous Utterances

<u>Exchange Type</u>	<u>The Utterances Having Errors(Samples from lesson)</u>
1. Elicit	because the past tense and the past participle is formed by adding what?
2. Elicit	This are regular verbs
3. Inform	We form the past tense and the past participle by adding or changing the spelling.
4. Inform	The regular verbs are past tense and past participle formed by adding....
5. Elicit	Give the opposite of the following words.
6. Elicit	We can say it also sad.
7. Elicit	You can say left I mean right left or wrong.
8. Elicit	Righthand lefthand you can say.
9. Direct	Make it correct the spellings and the correct opposites.
10. Direct	If there is mistake you can check and correct.
11. Inform	So the opposites of this rich and poor are used.
12. Elicit	Kebede is unhappy you can say.

Appendix - IIG  
Teacher - 7  
Erroneous Utterances

<u>Exchange Type</u>	<u>The Utterances Having Errors (Samples from lesson)</u>
1. Inform	A direct question has indirect answer.
2. Direct	Turn the following questions or give the indirect answer.
3. Elicit	What does it mean whispering?
4. Elicit	When we are turning sentences into indirect question.....
5. Elicit	Do you know when will Ahmed come back?
6. Inform	You are put question mark at the end of the sentence.
7. Direct	First you will turn the sentence into indirect answer and into indirect question.
8. Inform	You must change the verb into past tense because the question is asked past tense form.
9. Elicit	We said now which question has two answers?
10. Elicit	Now 'gone' is verb what?
11. Elicit	What will the indirect form of this sentence?
12. Elicit	The auxiliary verb and the main verb comes together.
13. Inform	Always when you change into question into indirect question after when the subject comes.
14. Direct	Open your book page thirty eight unit five.
15. Elicit	'Stop' when it is changed into verb two or past..?
16. Elicit	What will the indirect question?
17. Check	It has already been answered, I think, isn't it?

Appendix -- IIH  
 Teacher -- 8  
 Erroneous Utterances

<u>Exchange Type</u>	<u>The Utterances Having Errors (Samples from lesson)</u>
1. Direct	No any talking. No any talking any more.
2. Inform	The last topic was just you have learned that direct statement change into indirect statement direct statement change into indirect statement.
3. Boundary	That what we have learned last week.
4. Boundary	Today's topic is two topics, almost the same.
5. Elicit	Direct question has what?
6. Direct	Look your books.
7. Inform	Just direct question become indirect question. Yes indirect question. The first one question answer. The second one question and question. The first one direct question has indirect answer. The next one direct question becomes indirect question.
8. Check	You see indirect answer? What we mean by indirect answer?
9. Inform	Starting of indirect answer is I don't know.
10. Inform	Subject and verb should change place.
11. Boundary	Let see the direct question and let us try that to change into indirect answer.
12. Inform	Now in the answer <u>was</u> and <u>Almaz</u> change the place to eachother.
13. Elicit	In the same way given the I don't know answer to the following question.

<u>Exchange Type</u>	<u>The Utterances Having Errors (Samples from lesson)</u>
14. Elicit	Let us start from someone side.
15. Elicit	Bekele and was change the place.
16. Elicit	Very excellent, very good, very nice.
17. Elicit	Today's this year student very some very very nice yes than the others last year's.
18. Elicit	That is a boy and a girl whispering. What was that? It should be given for good purpose.
19. Elicit	What about verb? Where is verb?
20. Elicit	Read again from beginning.
21. Elicit	You are monitor but you should have to know what they are talking. They are boy and girl. Let us them talking we dono the reason.
22. Boundary	So that it will be clear let us just again more let us read one more.
23. Elicit	Yes you are good and become brave and now you are becoming quite student. Before you were somewhat <u>RABASH</u> (meaning naughty).
24. Elicit	Yes good boy, good students(referring to one boy)
25. Inform	This also the same changing of the place.
26. Inform	Verb and subject are change the place.
27. Inform	This also finish verb.
28. Inform	Now in the first one verb and he is subject. Now it becomes when as it is when starting.
29. Elicit	...Asmara and plane are the same.
30. Elicit	Again please, one again.
31. Elicit	Where are you thinking of about crosses?
32. Elicit	If you think it, it will be easy but somewhat also be difficult.

Appendix -- III  
Samples of Pronunciation Errors

Wrongly Pronounced Word	Teacher's Pronunciation Transcribed According to O'Connor's System	O'Connor's (1988) Pronunciation
Polishes		
Suitable		
Cold		
These/This		
Here/Hear		
Sometimes		
Let's/Less		
Too/To		
Whose		
Four/For		
Peace/Piece		
Eat/It		
Thank/Tank		
Know/Now		
Question		
Quiet/Quite		
Whispering		
Sentence		
Someone		
Run/Ran		

As mentioned earlier, these pronunciation errors have been found to be errors that could affect the comprehension of the lesson. Quite a lot of mispronunciations which have occurred were found to be the result of first language interference and this did not so much hamper the classroom discourse.

