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**IMPACTS OF TEACHER TALK IN PROMOTING STUDENTS'
COMMUNICATIVE SKILL: The case of Misrak Goh Secondary
School**

BY

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This is to certify that the thesis prepared by Belen Ketema entitled Impacts of Teacher Talk in Promoting Student's Communicative Skills: The Case of Misrak Goh Secondary School and submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree o Master of Arts (TEFL) complies with the regulations of the University and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

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ABSTRACT

Teacher talk is an indispensable part of the Foreign language classroom. According to Krashen(1985),the language used by teachers in the classroom determines whether a class will succeed or not. Many studies have focused on the quantity of Teacher Talk, however, the quality of Teacher Talk and its impact on learners' communicative skill has not been given much attention. This study attempts to explore the quality of the teachers' oral input learners are exposed to by focusing on The Lexical Variation, Language Functions and Communicative Features of teacher talk.

The data for the study was gathered through audio-tape recording and classroom observation. Next, the recorded data was transcribed and analyzed. The research followed a quantitative qualitative approach to analyze the data. In order to determine the variety of lexical items the students were exposed to, the Lexical Variation adopted by Meara, Lightbown and Halter was used. The distribution of language functions was determined by coding the teacher talk into the six categories of functions developed by Bowers (1980).The qualitative analysis was based on communicative features suggested by Thornburry(1996) and Cullen(2002).

The study discovered that Questioning and Explaining are the most frequently used functions in the Teacher Talk while Sociating or establishing and maintaining classroom rapport was the least. A further analysis of the questions asked showed that display questions dominated where as the amount of referential questions was very insignificant. The teacher talk was also characterized by low lexical variation, dominated by technical terms, which indicated that the teacher talk was not rich in lexical items that are necessary in communication. In addition the qualitative analysis of the teacher talk indicated that the feedback given focused on form and the follow-up to students' response did not encourage interaction and communication.

Overall, the result of the study implies that teachers are not aware of the impact and importance teacher talk has on the language classroom. Therefore, teachers should focus on maximizing the potential of Teacher Talk without drastically reducing it.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

Since the 1960s, there have been extensive investigations into the types and relative quantities of participation by the teacher and the students, and the functions and forms of language performed in the interaction (Chaudron, 1988). However, the recent theoretical attention to 'comprehensible input' has led to a substantial amount of research on teacher speech, often referred to as 'teacher talk'. The notion of teacher talk has probably existed for as long as there has been teaching and the attitude towards it has changed depending on the methodology in fashion. Therefore, teacher talk has either been favored, as in teacher-centered approaches, or considered to be bad, as in learner-centered methodology over the years.

Hadley (1993) refers to 'teacher talk' as 'a type of listening material that contributes to the acquisition of the language'. The Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics defines teacher talk as "that variety of language sometimes used by teachers when they are in the process of teaching ".In trying to communicate with learners, teachers often simplify their speech, giving it many of the characteristics of foreigner talk and other simplified styles of speech addressed to language learners (Richards, 1992).

One of the principal questions addressed by the researches on teacher talk is whether or not teachers adjust their speech to the learner in a qualitative way. The interest in studying how effectively they are able to promote the interaction in the language classroom is more focused, while the dominance of teacher speech is considered to be undesirable (Cullen, 1998). One of the convincing reasons is that if the teachers devote large amounts of time to explanations or instructions, or spend much time in drills or drill-like questioning, the learners may thus have less opportunity to evaluate input or produce creative target language

The discussions of teacher talk have become more acute, especially over the last 10 – 15 years as a consequence of the popularity of communicative methodology. The followers of CLT argue that teacher talk should be minimized so that students have as many opportunities to speak in a lesson as possible. And failure to follow this recommendation, as Bowen and Marks (1994) state, is a frequent source of teacher guilt. Moreover, until comparatively recently, teacher talk in the EFL classroom was considered to be something of a danger area for language teachers. Thus, teacher talk, according to some quite firmly established CLT beliefs, deprives students of the chances to improve or practice their own speaking skills. In the attempt to evaluate the quality of teacher talk, recent communicative approaches have suggested that the modification of teacher classroom speech and the functional distribution of teacher talk in terms of pedagogical goals should be considered (Seedhouse, 1996)

For foreign language learners, language classrooms are the main, if not the only place, where learners are frequently exposed to the target language. Language classrooms can be seen as sociolinguistic environments in which interaction is believed to contribute to learner's language development. Regarding this, Hall and Verplaetse (2000:10) explain.

It is in their interactions with each other that teachers and students work together to create intellectual and practical activities that shape both the form and the content of the target language as well as the processes and outcomes of individual development.

According to Krashen (1985), the language teachers use in the classroom determines to a larger degree whether a class will succeed or not. Many scholars found that teacher talk makes up around 70% of classroom language (Cook: 2000, Chaudron: 1988).

According to second language theories both teachers and students should participate in language classes actively. Teachers have to face two tasks in language classrooms.

The first one is to offer enough high-quality English language input and the second to offer more opportunities for students to use the target language.

That's why distribution of teacher talk, as an important factor that affects language learning, has been concerned by many scholars. Ellis (1985) points out that classroom interaction, both in the form of meaningful interaction and in the form of linguistics rules, may influence the rate of acquisition. Teachers can influence the kind of interaction that occurs in their own classrooms. Therefore successful outcomes may depend on the type of language used by the teacher. In other words, input plays a critical role. There is no learning without input. The language used by the teacher affects the language produced by the learners, the interaction generated and hence the kind of learning that takes place.

English is taught in Ethiopia as a subject starting from first grade and as a medium of instruction starting from seventh grade. However, local studies conducted on students' language competence indicate that students' performance is not satisfying when it comes to using the language. Regarding this, John Stoddart (1986) in his report for the Ministry of Education entitled "The Use and Study of English In Ethiopian Schools" writes that the inadequate knowledge 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 nor read in English.

Even though most of the studies conducted tried to study the problem regarding the use of the language by focusing on the students' language competence, as a major participant of what goes on in the classroom teacher's language and its impact on students' communication has not been given much attention. Yosef Makonen, on his study of the classroom language of junior secondary schools teachers of English, reports that English teachers language is full of linguistic error and the majority of their talking time is spent by asking questions and explaining the content. These findings imply that as a valuable source of input, teachers' language and how it could benefit learners has not been given much attention. A similar study on teachers' use of vernacular language during English classes by Tafesse Gelata(1998,MA Thesis)

indicates that most teachers use the vernacular instead of English as a medium of instruction in the junior secondary schools. He explains that the two main reasons are the students' poor language command and at times the teachers' lack of confidence in his or her language ability.

In a period where the communicative use of language is emphasized and encouraged, studying the teachers talk will help study the input the teacher is providing in order to achieve this goal. So far, only a local study has been conducted on teacher talk. However, this study differs because it tries to explore the language functions used by high school teachers in Addis and analyzing the type of language used in terms of its richness, variety of dictions, communicativeness, etc. In that sense, this research claims to be original.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In a period where acquiring or learning English language has its social as well as academic benefits, researchers are focusing on how to develop the language competence of students learning the language as second or foreign language. In countries like Ethiopia, where English is learned as foreign language, acquiring the language is no easy task. That's why studies on how to develop learner's proficiency on the language are given much emphasis.

Since classrooms are the biggest platforms students have to learn the language, a lot of research into what goes on in English classrooms needs to be conducted. It is only then, that we can have a better knowledge and understanding on how to improve the language classroom conditions and ultimately correct the hampering factors.

One of the classroom factors that plays a vital role in the language learning process is the language used by the teacher. In other words the language used by the teacher is what students are usually exposed to and consider as one of the main sources. Looking into the teachers talk or language can provide insight into how effectively they are able to facilitate learning and promote communicative interaction in their classroom through,

for example, the kind of questions they ask , the speech modifications they make when talking to learners (Nunan: 1989)

Teacher talk, as its name implies, is simply the language used by the teacher in the language classroom. It's the type of language teachers use to address classroom language learners. According to Ellis (1994), the way language teachers address learners differs greatly from the way subject teachers do. Language teachers make adjustments to both language form and language function in order to facilitate while subject teachers are more concerned with getting the content across. These adjustments made by the language teacher are referred to as 'teacher talk'. Teacher talk is very important for both organization and students' language learning in the process of foreign language learning and second language acquisition because teacher talk is an instrument of implementing teaching plan.

Regarding its significance in the language classroom (Cullen, 1998), explains teacher talk is "the valuable source of comprehensible input for the learner or the kind of questions teacher ask, can significantly affect the quantity and quality of student interaction in the lesson". Moon also emphasizes that teacher talk increases the amount of exposure pupils get to English and that it "provides real reasons for using English to communicate .For example, in giving instructions, getting information from pupils"(Moon ,2000)

Teaching is considered primarily in terms of methodological problems and practical solutions to these problems. As a result teachers in training spend considerable time acquiring the basis of sound methodological habits for the presentation, practice and testing of learning items. It is, however, often forgotten that the classroom, procedures derived from a particular method always have to be verbalized. In other words, instructions have to be given, groups formed, time limits set, questions asked, answers confirmed, discipline maintained, and so on. The role of this linguistic interaction is perhaps the least understood aspects of teaching, but it is clearly crucial to the success of the teaching learning process.

It is therefore necessary to value the importance of the teachers' talk, to become aware of its benefits and to encourage teachers to analyze their talk in order to examine to what extent their utterances could promote learning.

Hence, this study is designed to identify the language functions most commonly used by the Secondary School teachers of English in Misrak Goh High School. The research questions proposed are;

1. Does the language used by English teachers in the classroom provide enough input to promote students' communication?
2. What are the most commonly used language functions by secondary school teachers of English?
3. What is the effect of the language functions used by the teachers on student's communication skills?

1.3 Objective of the Study

This research has the following main and specific objectives.

1.3.1. Main objective

Generally the study aims at;

- Identifying the commonly used language functions By Secondary School English teachers.
- Examining the effects teacher talk has on the communicative skill of the learners.

1.3.2 Specific objective

Specifically, the study aims at;

- Analyzing the lexical richness of the verbal language used by the teacher..
- Studying the communicative features of the teacher talk.
- examining the types of questions teachers use to elicit response from learners

1.4 Significance of the study

This study is significant because it provides information about the type of oral language used by teachers in high schools. It can also reveal much about how teachers can improve their teaching practices by investigating actual language use in the classroom, and how students can learn language through exposure to different types of language functions. In addition, it can also serve as a springboard for making further investigation into the classroom language.

1.5 Scope

The study was conducted in one school, Misrak Goh Secondary School. It involved four English teachers with the same qualification and the analysis of the transcript of one lesson from each of them. Transcribing and analyzing more than one lesson from each teacher requires more time so the study is confined to only one lesson per teacher.

The study concentrated on identifying the language functions most commonly used by the four teachers in the four lessons recorded in four different language classes in Misrak Goh Secondary School. In addition, it examined the lexical richness provided by the teacher.

1.6 Limitation of the study

The lessons were recorded under normal classroom conditions with ordinary equipment. As a result, background noise, simultaneous speech, and other types of inferences at times, made the transcribing process difficult.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

During the past twenty years, teacher talk has become a focus in the research area of second language acquisition. Pioneered by Gaies (1977,1979) and Henzl (1979),the research on teacher talk began in the 1970's followed by Long(1981,1983),Long and Sato(1983), Welche and Ready(1985), Ellis(1985) and Chuadron(1985),who made studies of teacher talk in college classrooms.

In recent years, teacher talk has drawn more attention from scholars and researchers worldwide. These studies focus their attention mainly on classroom conversation features; talk turns between teachers and learners, amount of teacher talk and communicativeness of teacher talk.

In this area of communicative language teaching, analysis of teacher talk typically focus on the characteristics that make or fail to make such talk communicative. For many years researchers have been concerned to analyze the communicativeness of the classroom by comparing it to communication in the real world. In most cases the criteria for communicativeness are taken from what is felt to constitute communicative behavior in the real world outside the classroom. This, on the other hand ignores the reality of the classroom context and the features which make for communication within that context.

Recent research has revealed that the classroom should be viewed as a content in its own right or rather a series of interrelated contexts, jointly created and defined by the participants; the teacher and learners(Johnson;1985,Seedhouse;1996, Van Lier ;1988). Cullen (1997) argues that analyzing teacher talk by comparing it with communication in the real world is unhelpful to teachers since it attempts to characterize communicativeness only in terms of features of authentic communication which pertains outside the classroom. There are a number of good reasons for this shift in view .Firstly; teacher talk is now generally recognized as a potentially valuable source of

comprehensible input for the learner. Since this is essential for language acquisition (Krashen; 1981) getting teachers to reduce the amount of their talk would not necessarily be in the interest of the learner. Secondly, so far all attempts by teachers to root out the teacher talking time phenomenon have failed. This is particularly true in parts of the world where the teacher's role is traditionally one of a transmitter of knowledge and value and where reducing it would be unrealistic. Thirdly, there is evidence from classroom research that aspects of teacher talk such as the kind of questions teachers ask can significantly affect the quantity and quality of student interaction in the lesson (Brock; 1986, Long and Sato; 1983)

2.2 Related Theories

Research on second language learning and instruction reveals that to be successful learners need both rich and varied input in the target language and opportunities to use the language (VanPatten; 2003). While Krashen (2003) put emphasis on the importance of input, Swain (1995, 2005) and others reveal the importance of interaction as well. Other Language Acquisition researchers like Gass and Mackey (2006) also build on input and output in outlining their interaction hypothesis. A substantial body of research evidence highlights the interdependence of interaction input, output and the need for negotiation for meaning (Long; 1983, 1996, Swain; 1985, 1995, Pica; 1994). While the current position on the precise nature of the link between negotiation for meaning and language acquisition is still murky, its very existence is surely a powerful indicator of the need to pay attention to the relationship between teacher language and learning opportunity. Generally, all these researchers imply that teachers need to provide students with rich input in class, opportunities for output and interaction in practice and helpful feedback on their foreign language use.

2.2.1 Input Hypothesis

According to Krashen's input hypothesis, learners acquire language only by understanding or receiving comprehensible input. He considers the idea that language

learning is propelled by the receptive skills rather than by the productive ones. The input hypothesis gives the answer to the question of how a language learner develops competency over time. This competency is possible due to interpreting the context of the language we are hearing or reading and our knowledge of the world. The learners need input that contains good examples of language forms to make second language acquisition successful.(quoted in Ellis 157).The input hypothesis tells us how a language acquirer develops competency over time. A language acquirer who is at level 1, should get input at i (level $i+1$),in other words, only when a language acquirer understands language that contains structure one step ahead of what they know. If the communication is successful Teacher talk actually serves as the main source of input of language exposure in classroom learning, which is more crucial for second language learning and so teachers should make their input comprehensible and in the adequate quantities.

According to SLA theory, plenty of high-quality input is the necessary element for successful language learning. There is no learning without input. "If the second language is learnt as a foreign language in a language class in a non-supportive environment , instruction is likely to be the major or even the only source of target language input" (Stern, 1983:400). In this context instruction refers to teacher talk.

2.2.2 Output Hypothesis

Swain's output hypothesis puts forward an argument that only comprehensible input is not sufficient but comprehensible output is also needed for learner's grammatical competency. Besides giving adequate input, teachers should provide opportunities, give learners more time to practice, pressure the learners to produce the second language. Both input and output are essential for a learner to learn and produce second language. In particular, Swain (1995) proposes three ways in which talk contributes to second language acquisition

1. Talk plays a noticing role; it triggers a consciousness-raising function with respect to language structures

2. Talk performs a hypothesis testing function; it represents the speaker's guess and with feedback learners modify their input

3. Talk performs a metalinguistic function; students use language to reflect on language.

In classroom setting student talk provides teachers with data to guide their teaching and performance of the student. If opportunities are not provided for students to produce the target language, it is difficult for teachers to know how to monitor their progress and to responsive to their particular need

2.2.3 Interaction Hypothesis

Wagner-Gough and Hatch (1975) were among the first second language researchers to consider the role of conversation in the development of a second language. Their work was followed by pioneering work of Long (1981), who refined the notion of conversational structure, showing differences between NS/NNS conversations and NS/NS conversations.

The line of research that focuses on the interactional structure of conversation was developed by many researchers. (Gass and Varnois; 1985, 1989, Long; 1981, 1983, Pica and Doughty; 1985) to mention a few. The emphasis is on the role which negotiated interaction between native and non-native speakers and between two NNS plays in the development of a second language. That early body of research as well as the more recent work has taken as basic the notion that conversation is not only a medium of practice, but also the means by which learning takes place. In other words, conversational interaction in a second language forms the basis for the development of language features. This has been most recently expressed by Long (1996, pp.451-2)

Negotiation for meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the NS or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways.

Much of the research focused on investigating the direct relationship between interaction and learning .In what follows, two studies by Gass and Varonis(1985) and Mackey(2006) are highlighted because they represent a progression in the kind of research that has been conducted on the effects of interaction on production and development respectively.

These two studies were selected for their similarity in goals and because they illustrate a progress in the development of this area of inquiry.In both studies,the researchers were concerned with the potential effects of interaction on language development.However,there are significant differences which ,in a sense,reflect the development of the field.In the Gass and Voaronis study,learning was operationalized in terms of comprehension and production,whereas the study attempted to measure particular learning effects through a pre-test/post-test design.The Gass and Varonis design was such that little specific information could be obtained on the change over time of particular grammatical structures.The goal was to gain an overall picture of the effects of interaction.Mackey's design,which focused specifically on question formation,was able to isolate certain developmental features of questions,enabling her to provide answers on the issue of development.

In sum,these two studies both address the same questions,albeit at a distance of five years,and both show the effects of interaction on production and learning.

Interactions in EFL classes

The development and success of a class depends to a greater extent on the interactions between the teacher and students (Tsui, 1995). Interaction is the collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings or ideas, between two or more people. Through the interaction with teachers, students can increase their language store and use the languages they possess. Interaction is an important concept for English language teachers. Long (1996) argues that interaction facilitates acquisition because of

the conversation that occur in such discourse that provides learners with the input they need. Additionally, they could get more input and more opportunities for output.

In language classroom settings, the teacher-learner interactive pattern in language classes is the most traditional pattern. In this pattern of interaction, the teacher plays the role of an expert, providing learners with direction and doing most of the talking and commenting (Lemke, 1990).

Fillmore (1982) in one of her researches investigated how classroom interaction affects the rate of SLA. Her study also suggests that both the quantity and the quality of input is influential in determining the rate of SLA. Learners will learn well when they are given enough chances to interact in classroom conversation.

2.2.4 Incidental Vocabulary Learning

Theories of second language acquisition have claimed that language input has a consistent positive effect in improving proficiency. These theories maintain that the input has to be comprehensible to the learner and modified through interactions. In vocabulary acquisition, the Input Hypothesis (Krashen 1981, 1982) has inspired studies of incidental vocabulary learning through reading and listening and analysis of teacher's talk as oral input. Elley (1989) conducted an experiment with children aged seven to eight concerning incidental vocabulary acquisition from listening to stories. Elley found that these children, despite their varied ability, gained 15% of the vocabulary without teacher explanation and 40% with teacher explanation. The highest gains were nouns and there was less improvement with adjectives and verbs. The follow-up tests showed that the incidental vocabulary learning was relatively permanent.

Elley identified three features that best predicted successful incidental vocabulary acquisition. They were the frequency of the word in the text, the depiction of the words in illustration and the amount of redundancy in the surrounding context. In a more recent study, Vidal (2003) studied first-year university EFL students on their academic

listening of lectures as lexical input for vocabulary expansion. She found that listening to lectures resulted in vocabulary gain. Greater vocabulary gain was highly correlated with lecture comprehension, frequency of word occurrence, word elaborations and types of vocabulary. These studies threw light on incidental vocabulary acquisition from oral input, indicating that contextual variables, extent of elaboration, treatment of word and interactivensess are critical in determining whether teachers can produce effective language for incidental acquisition.

2.3 Teacher Talk

Many definitions of teacher talk have been given from different perspectives. One definition goes that teacher talk is the language in the classroom that takes up a major portion of class time employed to give directions, explain activities and check students' understanding (Sinclair and Brazil; 1982). Having studied second language acquisition for many years, Rod Ellis (1985) has formulated his own view about teacher talk. He describes it as "the special language that teachers use when addressing second language learners." Richard Johnston described 'teacher talk' as a 'problem reducing strategy' which teachers exploit to allow them to teach French in French, to teach Spanish in Spanish, to teach Arabic in Arabic and to teach English in English.

Teacher Talk (TT) is the language typically used by foreign language teachers in the process of teaching. Allwright and Bailey claim that "talk is one of the major ways that teachers convey information to learners, and it is also one of the primary means of controlling learner behaviour" (Allwright and Bailey,1991,). Studying the instructor's classroom speech has been the focus of attention for several reasons. Firstly, teacher talk is the major source of comprehensible target language input in the instructed language learning environment, thus it plays an integral role not only in the organization of the classroom but also in the processes of acquisition (Nunan, 1991).

Secondly, empirical data obtained in EFL settings suggest that teachers dominate classroom speech; on average teacher talk accounts for between one half and three quarters of the talking done in foreign language classrooms (Allwright, and Bailey, 1991). In the major part of the language lesson teachers dominate classroom speech by using the I-R-F framework (teacher's initiation – student's reply – teacher's follow-up). When the 'target language' is also the language of instruction, teachers clearly cannot rely on the students' total fluency in that language. Teachers therefore adopt a style of speech which exploits mime, body language reference to real objects, pictures, etc. which the students can understand in spite of their limited knowledge of the language of instruction. Teachers also structure their speech with regular pauses to allow the listeners to 'catch up' with their comprehension, with repetitions and paraphrases to give the listeners more chances to comprehend. Teachers constantly 'self-monitor', carefully selecting words which will be familiar to their listeners.

2.4 Characteristics of Teacher Talk

As an indispensable part of foreign language teaching, teacher talk has its own feature that both the content and the medium are the target language. The language employed by teachers in language classes serves as the source input of language knowledge. It also plays a very important role in the teaching process as an interactive device. As in any institutional discourse setting, participants in the EFL classroom are to a large extent restricted in their choice of language by the prevailing features of that context. Some of those features are listed below Chaudron (1988)

1. Teachers largely control the topic of discussion;
2. Teachers often control both content and procedure;
3. Teachers usually control who may participate and when;
4. Students take their cues from teachers;
5. Role relationships between teachers and learners are unequal;
6. Teachers are responsible for managing the interaction which occurs;

7. Teachers talk most of the time;
8. Teachers modify their talk to learners;
9. Learners rarely modify their talk to teachers;
10. Teachers ask questions (to which they know the answers) most of the time.

According to Hu Xuewen (2003), teacher talk is regarded as a special simplified code with double features. The first one refers to the form of teacher talk, such as the speed, pause, repetition, modifications of teacher talk. The second one, functional features, refers to the features of the language that teachers use to organize and control classes. It includes the following aspects: the quality and quantity of teacher talk; the questions teachers use; interactional modifications and teachers' feedback.

2.4.1. Formal Features

Teacher-talk" is defined as speech used by teachers that is characteristically modified in four areas: phonology, lexis (consisting of morphology and vocabulary), syntax, and discourse. The characteristics of teacher-talk has captured the attention of researchers for some time. Numerous studies (Chaudron 1988: 21) have been devoted to its description and analysis.

- i. **Phonological:** exaggerated articulation, extended pauses, slower rate of speech, less reduction of vowels and consonant clusters, louder delivery, more standard "literary" pronunciation.

In phonology, the adjustments usually take the forms of slowing down the rate of speech, separating words / syllable articulation, using more careful pronunciation, giving heavier stress, and increasing volume on key words. In line with this, Gaies (1979) states that among the phonological features of teachers' speech is that it is characterized by the reduction of speech rate, clear articulation, exaggeration of stress and intonation pattern.

The underlying principle of these features is that by slowing down the rate and producing clear articulation, it is expected that the utterance can be heard clearly. Thus, learners can easily understand the speech. Fluent and faster speech is more difficult to understand because of the lack of recognizing word boundaries (Cole: 1981). By producing the speech in such a way, therefore, clear separation of words can be recognized, and thus, the speech can be easily understood.

This is logically acceptable because slow rate will "allow more processing time and clearer segmentation of the structures in the input" (Chaudron 1988:154). It will also make the speech sound salient. Hence, the talk becomes simple and easier to understand, because exaggerated articulation will make it more perceptible, and thus the learners are capable of recognizing the words easily.

- ii. Lexis: more basic vocabulary, fewer colloquial expressions, fewer indefinite pronouns, fewer contractions, stylistically neutral.

In lexical use, moreover, modifications are in the forms of using restricted vocabulary size, replacing difficult items with more frequently occurring ones, using fewer pro-forms, and repeating words, etc. Long & Porter (1985) claim that among the lexical features of teacher talk is the use of higher frequency vocabulary items and the avoidance of using idiomatic expressions. Gaies (1979), on the other hand, states that it is characterized by the use of vocabulary of generalized reference, and reduced type-token ratio.

In relation to the variety of vocabulary, experience suggests that when teaching the class of beginners, teachers tend to repeat the words more frequently, thus using less varied vocabulary items. Repeating the same words, rather than using their equivalence, to express similar concepts is, in fact, intended to serve the simplicity. However, it seems to have two fold advantages in regard to the context of teaching a language to beginners. First, attending to less varied vocabulary is easier because in that way the learners would not exert more energy to attend to symbol-meaning associations. Thus, they can easily recognize the words, and understand the meaning

of the speech. Second, by repetition, the words might be easily memorized, and hence, acquired.

The use of more frequently used words is also likely in teacher talk. This is in agreement to Chaudron's statement that speech can be lexically simplified by using the words of common usage (Chaudron: 1982). In sum, the use of less varied vocabulary and words of common usage seem to be typical features of teacher talk.

- iii. **Syntactic:** fewer subordinate clauses, fewer words per clause, shorter length of utterance, higher proportion of simple present tense, higher proportion of well-formed sentences, delivery rate one-half to one-third slower.

In syntax, furthermore, the modifications might appear in terms of using fewer contractions, shorter utterances, making grammatical relationship more explicit, and using coordination more than subordination, using less pre-verb modifications, etc. Long & Sato (1983) states that ESL teachers use present verbs more than non-present verbs. Similar finding is also claimed by Wesche & Ready (1985).

Other previous studies confirm that teacher talk addressed to learners of low language proficiency consists of shorter sentences than those of higher proficiency (Chaudron 1988). This is understandable for the reason that shorter sentences tend to be easier than longer ones, because long sentences usually contain more complicated concepts and ideas. Thus, they become complex and more difficult to perceive. In order to simplify the speech, consequently, teachers usually produce shorter sentences consisting of less complex ideas.

Besides that, the use of coordination and subordination is less frequent when the addressees are less proficient (Chaudron: 1988). In other words, teacher talk is likely to consist of fewer clauses per sentence when addressed to low proficiency learners than to the higher ones. This is logical because the more clauses the sentence contains the more complex the ideas carried. Hence, the speech becomes more difficult to understand.

- iv. .Discourse: more first person reference, fewer functions per time unit, more teacher-initiated moves, more conversational frames, more self-repetitions more verbalization per function

In the level of discourse, the modifications of teacher talk are usually manifested in the forms of using more here-and-now topics, more self-or-other repetitions, and more expansions, etc. (Ellis 1986, Pica, Young, and Doughty :1987) maintain that redundancy in input is an important factor in comprehension. The redundancy, in this case, refers to both formal or functional characteristics.

Formal redundancy is manifested in terms of repetitive use of certain items or forms, such as repetitive use of certain words to express certain ideas, or that of certain structures to convey certain purposes. Functional redundancy, on the other hand, refers to the repetition of semantic clarification in order to clarify the meaning of certain utterance, such as the repetitive use of elaboration, paraphrases, expansions, etc.

Long (1981) similarly claims that when learners show lack of comprehension, messages are repeated or recoded. In other words, in order to achieve learners' comprehension of the meaning communicated by the teachers, negotiations are generally performed. Therefore, negotiations of meaning between teachers and learners frequently occur during classroom interaction.

Such negotiations may be realized in terms of teachers' checking learners' comprehension, requesting the clarification of their utterances, asking their confirmation of what the teachers have heard or understood, and so forth. In short, teachers always try to make themselves understand and be understood. Otherwise, communication fails.

In general, the modifications in the level of discourse may be manifested in terms of the use of some interaction strategies, such as comprehension, confirmation checks, clarification requests, self and other repetitions, corrections, expansions, feedback, and modeling.

Comprehension checks are frequently used by teachers in interaction with the learners of low language proficiency to ascertain that the learners really understand the speech, and to make sure that communication is successful. Confirmation checks are used in order that teachers do not misunderstand the communication. They need to be confirmed that they really understand and hear the learners' utterances correctly, and grasp the meaning accurately.

To summarize briefly, the speech that teachers use with their students is shorter, simpler, and more carefully pronounced than typical speech. Since the research focuses on oral form of teacher talk more of functional features will be discussed.

2.4.2 Functional Features of Teacher Talk

i. The amount of TT.

According to second language acquisition theories, both teachers and students should participate in language classes actively. Teachers have to face two tasks in language classrooms:

- 1) Offer enough high-quality English language input;
- 2) Offer more opportunities for students to use the target language.

So the distribution of teacher talk time, as an important factor that affect language learning, has been the concern of many scholars. An important issue is whether the amount of teacher talk influences learners' L2 acquisition or foreign language learning.

Researches in language classrooms have established that teachers tend to do most of the classroom talk. Teacher talk makes up over 70 percent of the total talk. (Cook, 2000; Legarreta, 1977; Chaudron, 1988) It is evident that if teachers devote large amounts of time to explanations or management instructions, student talk will be indeed severely restricted. In such an environment, students have little opportunity to develop their language proficiency. In order to avoid the overuse of teacher talk, many scholars tend to maximize student talk time (STT) and minimize teacher talk time (TTT). Harmer points out that the best lessons are ones where STT is maximized. Getting students to

speak -- to use the language they are learning -- is a vital part of a teacher's job (Harmer, 2000).

On the contrary, American scholar Wong-Fillmore put forward her finding that is different from others after observing primary language classrooms for three years. She found all the success in SLA occurred in teacher-dominated classes. In contrast, little SLA took place in classes with too much interaction among students. Fillmore explained these results in terms of the type of input which was received in the different classrooms. In successful classrooms the teachers serve as the main source of input, the learners can receive enough and accurate input. However in student-centered classrooms, the pupils did not receive so much teacher input, and tended to use the L1 when talking among themselves. Therefore, Fillmore argued the amount of TT should not be decreased blindly. If do so, she suggested two conditions .The first one is the students must have high-level language proficiency so that they can communicate with their teacher and among themselves. The second is there must be enough students who want to communicate in class. If the two conditions do not exist in classrooms, the decrease of teacher talk time won't lead to successful language learning.

ii. Teachers' questions

Questioning is one of the most common techniques used by teachers (Jack C. Richards & Charles Lockhart, 2000) and serves as the principal way in which teachers control the classroom interaction. The tendency for teachers to ask many questions has been observed in many investigations (Chaudron, 1988). In some classrooms over half of class time is taken up by question-and-answer exchanges (Richards & Charles Lockhart, 2000). Teachers' questions have attracted considerable attention from researchers of language classroom.

The Longman Dictionary of English language provides the following definition for a question: "a command or interrogative expression used to elicit information or a response, or to test knowledge." Lynch (1991), however, criticizes the last aspect of it, that is, to test knowledge.

Long and Sato (1983) and Brock (1986) have investigated the role of questions in second language learning in the classroom environment. They have worked on the role

of teacher's question types (especially display and referential questions) and their impact in facilitating learning. Van Lier (1988) believes that classroom questions of whatever sort are designed to get the learners to produce language. Brock contends that referential questions increase the amount of learner output; therefore, an increased use of referential questions by teachers may create discourse which can produce a flow of information from students to the teacher, and may create a more near-normal speech. On the other hand, it is believed that display questions require short or even one-word answers and hence are less likely to get learners to produce large amounts of speech.

Lynch (1991) quotes a number of researchers who investigated the balance between referential questions and display questions in the foreign language classroom and summarizes their findings as follows:

- **Referential Questions** (information-seeking) are questions which predominate in NS-NNS conversation outside classrooms (76% of all questions asked) made up a 14% of questions asked by teachers.

Further qualitative distinctions were made by Long and Sato (1983) who suggest that learner responses would differ not only quantitatively but also qualitatively, depending on the type of questions. Referential questions, which seek information unknown to the speaker, were thought more likely to elicit longer, more authentic responses than display questions, for which responses are predetermined by lesson content. This hypothesized effect of a process variable was tested both in a simulated classroom interaction (Brock, 1986) and in a natural classroom experiment (Long, 1983). The results suggested that referential questions elicited slightly longer and more student utterances.

- **Display Questions:** Display questions refer to ones that teachers know the answer and which are designed to elicit or display particular structures Van Lier (1988), however, discarded the importance of drawing a distinction between referential and display questions and argued that "what distinguishes instructional questions from

conversational (non-instructional) ones is therefore not their referential or display nature, but rather their eliciting function" (Van Lier 1988 in Nunan, 1989b).

Functions of teachers' questions

The pervasiveness of teacher questions in the classroom can be explained by the specific functions they perform. These functions can be grouped into three broad areas: diagnostic, instructional, and motivational (Donald, K & Paul D. Eggen, 1989).

As a diagnostic tool, classroom questions allow the teacher to glimpse into the minds of students to find out not only what they know or don't know but also how they think about a topic.

A second important function that questions perform is instructional. The instructional function focuses on the role that questions play in helping students learn new material and integrate it with the old one. Questions provide the practice and feedback essential for the development. Questions alert students to the information in a lesson.

A third function that classroom questions perform is motivational. Through questions teachers can engage students actively in the lesson at hand, challenging their thinking and posing problems for them to consider. From a lesson perspective, a question at the beginning can be used to capture students' attention and provide a focus for the lesson. In addition, frequent and periodic questions can encourage active participation and provide opportunities in the lesson for continued student involvement.

iii. Teacher's feedback

Providing feedback to learners on their performance is another important aspect of teaching. Feedback is teachers' evaluation of the student response (Cook, 2000). Feedback can be either positive or negative and may serve not only to let learners know how well they have performed but also to increase motivation and build a supportive classroom climate. In language classrooms, feedback on a student's spoken language may be a response either to the content of what a student has produced or to the form of an utterance. Feedback can be given by means of praise, by any relevant comment or action, or by silence (Richards, J. & Lockhart, 2000). Therefore, teachers' feedback plays a significant part in an individual's motivation.

2.5 Features of communicative Teacher Talk

In practicing communication in the classroom, there are a number of characteristics of teacher talk considered communicative by some scholars. For instance (Nunan: 1991, Thornbury: 1996, Van Lier: 1988, Cullen: 2002) suggest the following criteria.

2.5.1 Referential questions

These are genuine questions for which the teacher does not know the answer: rather than display questions, whose primary purpose is to allow the students to display their knowledge of language. This is probably one of the features of teacher talk that has been most thoroughly researched, and there is plenty of evidence (e.g. Long and Sato 1983) to suggest that the vast majority of questions teachers ask are display questions, whereas in 'real life', of course, most questions are referential. Nunan (1989) suggests that 'it is not inconceivable that the effort involved in answering referential questions prompts a greater effort and depth of processing on the part of the learner'. I would go further, and argue that the effort involved in asking referential questions prompts a greater effort and depth of processing on the part of the teacher.

2.5.2 Content Feedback

Feedback on content involves responding to the content of what learners are saying, rather than commenting solely on the form. After all, there is not much point in asking referential questions if no attention is paid to the meanings the learner is expressing. Examples for content feedbacks are personal reactions to comments made by learners: reacting to a comment made and making use of humour. Given that one of the teacher's stated aims is 'to provide oral fluency practice', the teacher's use of language strongly resembles utterances found in the 'real world' and reinforces the aim of promoting oral fluency. Appropriate use of conversational language creates an atmosphere which is

conducive to learning and is likely to promote learner involvement. Feedback on the message rather than its form is also more conducive to genuine communication.

2.5.3 Wait Time

'Wait time' is the time teachers allow students to answer questions, before, for example, asking another student, rephrasing the question, or even answering their own question themselves. Nunan (1991) quotes studies showing that when teachers are trained to wait three or four seconds, instead of the customary one, not only do more students respond, but there is an increase in the average length of their responses. The proportion of student-initiated questioning also increases. Extended *wait-time*, the time allowed by teachers to answer a question (Nunan, 1991), not only increases the number of learner responses, it frequently results in more complex answers and leads to an increase in learner/learner interaction.

2.5.4. Student-initiated Talk

If, as is argued by proponents of a communicative approach, acquisition is facilitated by the negotiation of meaning in interaction, it follows that learners should, at least some of the time, be asking the questions. 'A significant source of motivation and attention is lost when turn talking is predetermined rather than interactionally managed by the participants' (Van Lier 1988: 133). Slimani (1989) has also suggested that although there is usually much less learner-initiated than teacher-initiated content in classrooms, it is from the former, rather than the latter, that learners claim to have learned the most.

2.5.5 The Initiation –Response-Follow up (I-R-F) Structure

As traditionally practiced, the teacher providing the great majority of the Initiation moves, has been the target of some criticism in the communicative language teaching movement, on the grounds that it fails to give the students opportunities to ask

questions themselves, nominate topics of interest to them, and negotiate meaning (Nunan 1987, Thornbury 1996). In short, it is associated with a heavily teacher-centered classroom methodology. Nevertheless, it seems to have survived the communicative revolution, an observation made by Nunan (1987).

According to Cullen (2002) it is arguably the third part of this cycle, the F-move, which distinguishes classroom talk most obviously from many speech events outside the classroom. In the classroom context, on the other hand, a teacher's follow-up is normal and expected, as Sinclair and Coulthard (1975: 51) argue:

So important is feedback that if it does not occur we feel confident in saying that the teacher has deliberately withheld it for some strategic purpose. It is deviant to withhold feedback continually.

Based on the purpose of the follow-up move, Cullen (2002) classifies them into two, the first one is the Evaluative follow-up. This type of follow-up focuses on the form of the learners' response. Its function is to provide feedback about the performance of individual learner. The second type of follow-up is the Discursive follow-up. In contrast to Evaluative follow-up, it focuses on content rather than form. Discursive follow-up focuses on building interaction based on students' contributions.

2.6 Communicative Micro Strategies

As Savignon (1991: 272) rightly argues, 'in our effort to improve language teaching, we have overlooked the language teacher'. While considerable attention has been directed to designing communicative syllabuses and producing communicative materials, very little has been done into identifying strategies that will help teachers prepare themselves to be communicative teachers. Kumaravadivelu (1992) suggests a framework to help assess how far the teacher becomes genuinely communicative.



2.6.1 Macrostrategy 1: Create Learning Opportunities in Class

This is based on the popular belief that we cannot really teach a language: we can only create conditions under which it will develop in its own way. Kumaravadivelu argues that learning opportunities are not necessarily restricted by a prearranged syllabus or textbook for the reason that it is the product of the cooperative involvement of those participating in the teaching learning process. Thus, learning opportunities can be created in the classroom by the teacher as well as the learner.

2.6.2. Macrostrategy 2: Utilize Learning Opportunities Created by Learners

This is closely linked to the first one and is based on the premise that teachers and learners are co-participants in the generation of classroom discourse. Though the teacher is a participant of greater competence and authority in the classroom, he should not ignore the importance of contributions from others. The teachers as well as the students are equal participants and partners that work together in order to accomplish classroom lesson. It is therefore crucial for the teacher to show a willingness to make use of learning opportunities created by the learner.

2.6.3 Macrostrategy 3: Facilitate Negotiated Interaction between Participants

This macrostrategy refers to meaningful learner-learner and learner-teacher interaction in class. Negotiated interaction requires the learner's active involvement in communicative features such as clarification, confirmation, comprehension, requesting, repairing, and reacting. Most importantly, the term *negotiated* implies that the learner should have the opportunity to initiate interaction, not just respond to and follow-up what the teacher says.

2.6.4. Macrostrategy 4: Activate the intuitive heuristics of the learner

This is based on the premise that all normal human beings automatically possess intuitive heuristics. This is to mean that, everyone is born with conscious and unconscious cognitive processes that help them notice and understand patterns and rules of linguistic behavior. One way of activating this intuitive heuristics is by providing the necessary input so that the learners can infer and internalize fundamental rules from their use in different communicative situations.

2.6.5 Macro strategy 5: Contextualize Linguistic Input

This is based on the psycholinguistic insight that comprehension and production involve rapid and simultaneous integration of syntactic, semantic, and discourse phenomena. Pedagogically, it means that linguistic input should be provided to students in chunks of discourse so that learners can benefit from the interactive effects of various linguistic components. Introducing isolated sentences will deny learners of indispensable pragmatic cues, thereby making the process of meaning-making harder.

2.7. Classifications of Functions of Teacher Talk

Naturally, language is meant to serve different functions. This is well expressed by scholars such as E. Sapir (1966), M. Copi (1966), Halliday (1973), Widdowson (1978) and Norrish (1983). Halliday in particular, in his 'Explorations in the functions of language' (1973) elaborates the fact that there are various functions which language serves. He believes that the demands we make in 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.

Halliday (1975), advocates that language is basically a social phenomenon. The child constructs a system of meaning from events that happen in contact with others. According to Halliday (1975), the social context is the main source of the meanings that

are learnt. Therefore, it is very important to focus on the functions that the child employs to make meanings, rather than the structures used to make those meanings manifest.

Halliday explains that the system of language learning 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. According to Halliday (1975) Children acquire these models of language as a result of direct experience with what the language does for them in their lives (Halliday, 1973,). *The Four I's Rubric* simplifies Halliday's seven models into four broad communicative functions that can be easily understood and used by a second language teacher. (Thompson, 1994)

Imperative: The imperative function expresses the most basic or "imperative" needs of the second language learner to control his or her environment. The imperative function combines two of Halliday's models: the instrumental, which serves the child's material needs and includes expressions of desire ("I want"), and the regulatory ("Do as I tell you") model of language. (Halliday, 1975,) The imperative, then, is the function of causing and controlling.

Interpersonal: The interpersonal function is drawn from Halliday's interactional ("me and you") model, which enables individuals to initiate and maintain social contact, and to create a sense of identity for the self and the group (1975). Included in the interpersonal function are the expression of social status through titles and other forms of address, "ritualistic communication" such as greetings, and characteristic markers of jargon or accent which identify an individual as a member of a social group (Hazelton, 1985). The interpersonal may be remembered as the function of establishing contact and identity.

Informational: The informational function describes the sharing of information to increase knowledge, or talking "about" something. It encompasses three of Halliday's models: the personal ("here I come"), the heuristic ("tell me why"), and the representational ("I've got something to tell you"). The child first develops the ability to express feelings and attitudes (personal), then explores the environment outside the

self (heuristic), and finally is able to convey messages that have a specific reference to something in the real world (representational). (Halliday, 1975) For the second language learner, the various kinds of information sharing, whether about one's personal feelings, or about something observed in the real world, may be combined. (Thompson, 1994) Therefore, the informational function is one of exchanging knowledge, which includes both ideas and feelings.

Imaginative. The imaginative function reflects the ability to use and appreciate language as a creative medium. It draws on Halliday's imaginative ("let's pretend") model, in which "the child creates an environment of his own," first in sounds, stories, and make-believe, and finally through poetry and creative writing. The imaginative function of this rubric allows the second language learner to play in and with the target language, and includes the use of puns, rhyme, alliteration, and other poetic and literary devices. It is the means by which the learner can reflect on language as an object, as well as the vehicle through which the learner can conceive of and express new ideas. The key purpose of the imaginative function is to create and consider possibilities.

Willga Rivers (1981) 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-horned' 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 macrofunctions, understanding the acquisition of the mechanism of the simple functions is essential if the use of the new language is not to remain mysterious and confused.

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) proposes six types of language functions;

- | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------------|
| i) Judgment and Evaluation, | iv)Rational inquiry and Exposition |
| ii) Suasion | v) Personal emotions and |
| iii)Argument | vi)Emotive relations. |

He then sub classified each function, for example, argument includes information asserted, information sought, information denied, agreement, disagreement and concession.

Wilkins'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) cites one of the earliest published courses Abbs et al.(1975) in which the language functions 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 .

G.S,Hughes (1981)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.

Table 2.1: summary of language functions

Language Function	Sub Categories
1.Organization	• Giving instructions • Sequencing • Supervision
2.Interrogation	• Asking Questions • Replying Questions
3.Explanations	• Metalanguage • References
4.Interaction	• Affective Attitudes • Social Rituals

Bowers (1980) cited in Malamah-Thomas identified six categories of classroom verbal behavior. The identification was made through a process of classroom observation and analysis of lesson transcripts.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. Questioning or Eliciting | 4. Organizing or Giving Instructions |
| 2. Responding to students' contributions | 5. Evaluating or Correcting |
| 3. Presenting or Explaining | 6. Sociating or maintaining and establishing |
| | Classroom Rapport |

Sinclair and Brazil (1982) in dealing with teacher talk point out that classroom activity 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 follow:

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: this involves acknowledging their responses and giving them indications of their progress and achievements.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents an overview of the research methodology. It contains an account of the procedures used in the study, including research design, selection and description of the participants, setting, instruments used for data collection, data analysis and trustworthiness of the study.

3.1 Research Design

Since the present study aimed at responding to research questions of qualitative and quantitative nature, data collection and analysis techniques from both methodologies were implemented. Thus mixed-method approach was chosen as the design of this research. Quantitative-qualitative approach enabled the researcher to answer research questions regarding quantity and amount while the qualitative approach helped describe aspects the quantitative data cannot address. Using both forms of data allowed simultaneously generalizing results and gaining a deeper understanding.

3.2 Sampling

For the study, the ten Kifle Ketemas in Addis Ababa were listed and Kirkos Kifle Ketema was selected randomly. Next, all the secondary schools in Kirkos were alphabetically ordered and, Misrak Goh was selected by drawing its number from the list. The subjects of the study were volunteer teachers who agreed to take part on the study.

3.2.1 Setting

The study was conducted in Misrak Goh Secondary School, a government school providing education for ninth and tenth grade students. The school accepts ninth grade students that completed eighth grade in different elementary schools so they come from different environments and backgrounds. There are eighteen sections in ninth grade with an average of fifty students for class. Six teachers are assigned to teach the specified grade, all of them teaching the same number of classes per day.

3.2.2 Teachers

Before contacting potential participants for the study, the researcher paid an initial visit to the school to seek administrative approval. After getting the necessary permission to observe and audio-record volunteer teachers, the researcher approached six ninth grade teachers. The selection of these teachers to participate in this research was based on several factors. On the practical level, the teachers' availability and willingness to be studied were primary considerations in the selection process. Furthermore, the choice of participants was based on similarity of the grade level, the equal number of classes they teach per day, and the demand of sufficient sample. As a result, four teachers assigned to teach ninth grade were selected.

On the other hand, the availability of the researcher to observe in person was another practical reason to choose the particular classes. Therefore, the researcher obtained the class schedules of the four teachers and discussed with them about the time available for observation. This helped in selecting classes that allowed the researcher to be present in every observation all the time without causing clash in the schedule.

To ensure anonymity, the real names of the teachers were concealed and coded as T1, T2, T3 and T4. The following table briefly summarizes the information about the three teachers.

Table 3.1 Summary of Teacher's Profile

Teachers	Qualification	Experience
T1	BEd in English teaching	Two years
T2	BEd in English teaching	Six years
T3	BEd in English teaching	Three years
T4	BEd in English teaching	Three years

3.3 Instruments

The data gathering instruments used for this research were non participant classroom observation and a Tape Recorder.

3.3.1 Tape Recorder

The main data for the study was collected through recording. One full lesson has been recorded for forty minutes by placing the tape recorder on the teacher's table. In order to gather data that could be missed while the teacher moved around, the researcher was present and took some notes.

3.3.2 Classroom Observation

Collecting data through observation allows the close study of a phenomenon as it occurs naturally. One of the advantages of the observational approach is that since the findings are derived from natural settings, the collected data are likely to be valid for the real world. The first step in the collection process was class observation. The researcher was present in the classroom and observed the student-teacher interaction for two weeks. The classroom observation aimed at establishing rapport with the teacher and preventing potential effects caused by the presence of the researcher on the day of data recording. The aim of the present study was neither brought to light to the teachers, nor to their students.

3.4 Data Transcribing and Analysis

The data recorded was transcribed using some guide lines of conversation analysis. The main reason was that the patterns of language which occur in a second language classroom are socially constructed by the participants (Prabhu:1992, Seedhouse:1996;) in the same way that any naturally occurring conversation is constructed by turn-taking, sequencing of acts, topic shifts, and so on.

Once the data was transcribed, a qualified and experienced teacher was invited to serve as a second coder. He is currently an MA student and has experience teaching English. The category of language functions for coding was adapted from the list of categories of classroom verbal behavior in Bowers (1980), cited in Malamah-Thomas (1987). The list of categories of language functions used for the study was defined as follows:

Table 3.2 list of categories of language functions

CODE	CATEGORY	DEFINTION
01	Questioning or Eliciting	Includes the different techniques used by the teachers to elicit the correct form from the students.
02	Responding to students' contribution	Involves giving praises or comment the content of their response
03	Presenting or Explaining	Includes giving appropriate background information, a summary or definition
04	Organizing or Giving Instruction	Involves sequencing the lesson, giving appropriate instruction related to recurrent classroom activities.
05	Evaluating or correcting	Entails giving feedback on the student's performance.
06	Maintaining or Establishing rapport	Entails recurrent social situations like greeting, leaving ,apologizing ,thanking and etc.

Before proceeding to the coding step, the researcher explained the coding scheme using definitions and examples, and discussed any questions or comments the other coder had about the coding scheme. Next, the researcher and the second coder independently coded the transcribed teacher talk based on the above list of categories. In order to obtain reliable data, the intercoder reliability of the codes determined by the two coders was measured. Intercoder reliability measures the extent to which two coders, operating individually, reach the same coding decisions. The researcher measured the intercoder reliability of the data by using the formula developed by Cohen(1960).Cohen's approach to calculating intercoder reliability was selected because it takes into consideration the probability of two coders placing data segments at the same category by chance.

The formula for calculating Cohen's Kappa is: $K = \frac{P_o - P_e}{1 - P_e}$

where K is degree of agreement

P_o refers to observed or actual agreement

P_e stands for expected agreement

The expected agreement for Cohen's kappa is further computed using the formula

$$P_e = \frac{1 \sum P_{mi}}{n^2}$$

where $\sum$ refers to the sum total

n stands for the total number of cases

P_{mi} stands for each coder's respective totals, or marginals, within each coding category.

The intercoder reliability (ICR) for each coded teacher talk was calculated and the result was as follows

Table 3.3 result of intercoder reliability for individual teacher

	P_e	K
T1	0.027	0.928
T2	0.021	0.893
T3	0.056	0.97
T4	0.018	0.927

* P_e = expected agreement

* K = Kappa

The intercoder reliability for the total coded data was computed by taking the average kappa of the summation of each kappa. The obtained value for the reliability was 0.93.

Krippendorff (1980) provides a guideline for the interpretation of the intercoder agreement. According to Krippendorff, a kappa with value less than 0.67 should be dismissed. If the agreement falls between 0.67 and 0.8 tentative conclusions could be made while variable values of 0.8 and above could be used to draw definite conclusions. Therefore, the obtained value suggested that the coding was reliable and the agreement between the coders was high.

After identifying the language functions present in each teacher talk, the different functions were tallied in order to determine which were the most frequent and which the least. Then the result from each teacher talk was calculated in percentages in order to get a wider picture of the language functions common in English classes as a whole. The extent to which teacher talk provided a lexically rich environment for incidental vocabulary acquisition was also examined. The focus rested on the variety and the frequency level of the teacher input. The teacher talk was extracted from the lesson transcript and examined using the measure of lexical variation (LV) adopted by Meara, Lightbown and Halter (1997) and Brown, Sagers and LaPorte (1999) to assess the lexical richness of teacher talk. LV is the type-token ratio, and was chosen as an indicator of lexical richness .

$$LV = \frac{\text{no. of Types} \times 100}{\text{no. of Tokens}}$$

In this study, Types were defined as all the different words in the corpus while tokens were the total number of running words. Types include both the base form and all its derivations, despite any differences in orthography and pronunciation. The validity of the LV measure can be affected by differences in text length (Richards 1985; Laufer and Nation, 1995) therefore a second calculation based on the first 805 words of the teacher talk was also made to show more reliable and comparable LV scores.

In order to determine the extent to which teacher talk was communicative in terms of creating interaction with the teacher, the amount of referential and display questions were qualitatively analyzed. In addition, the communicativeness of the oral instruction was analyzed in terms of the feedback given to students' response and the follow-up move in the I-R-F.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS

The following chapter of the study deals with the presentation and analysis of the data gathered from the four classes. The analysis chapter has two sections. The first one deals with the quantitatively analyzed data. It includes analysis of the lexical variation of the teacher talk, frequently used language functions and analysis of commonly used type of questions by the teachers. The second part provides qualitatively analyzed data. It comprises individual analysis of each teacher talk in terms of the effects of the questions asked, the feedbacks given and the follow-up move in the I-R-F structure. It also includes results from the classroom observation

4.1 Analysis of Lexical Variation and Language Functions

4.1.1 Lexical Variation

Table 4.1 below shows that the LV ratio of the four teachers varied greatly. Although the ratio rose in some individual lessons, this only reflected the instability of the ratio due to size of the corpus. The relatively low LV ratio implies that the teacher talk was not lexically rich. In other words, the teacher talk does not contain variety of words which could lead students to incidental vocabulary learning. Learners not only have scarce exposure to the L2 outside classroom, they also have limited extensive exposure to the target language inside the classroom as well.

Table 4.1: lexical variation of the four teachers

Teacher	Type	Token	LV
T1	240	1134	21.16
T2	376	1729	21.74
T3	197	805	24.47
T4	331	2914	11.36

As mentioned, the difference in the length of the teacher talk or quantity of words in lessons has significant impact on the LV ratio. In order to validate the LV ratio and assure the reliability of the study, the first 805 words from each teacher were extracted for further analysis. When the length of the corpus was limited to 805, the LV ratio of the four classes had relatively similar results, with Teacher 2 and showing comparatively higher score.

Table 4.2: lexical variation of individual teachers with corpus of 805

Teacher	Type	Token	LV
T1	198	805	24.6
T2	236	805	29.32
T3	197	805	24.47
T4	156	805	19.38

Teacher 4 who spoke a lot of words in a lesson did not provide a rich lexical environment for learners to “pick up” other words from the speech. Yet, the large number of tokens and a low LV ratio suggest that there had been lots of repetition and recycling of word. Generally, the teacher was able to create a favorable acquisition environment for learners to encounter the words. On the other hand, T2 had the highest lexical variation thus providing a variety of words.

A closer look at the words spoken by the teacher shows that there was excessive use of basic words that did not help in enriching the students’ vocabulary power.

4.1.2 Language Functions

4.1.2.1 Language Functions Frequently Used by Individual Teachers

Attempts were made to investigate the language functions frequently used by the teachers. The transcribed teacher talk was coded into the six language functions categorized by Bowers (1980). Figure 4.1 shows the distribution of language functions in individual teacher's talk.

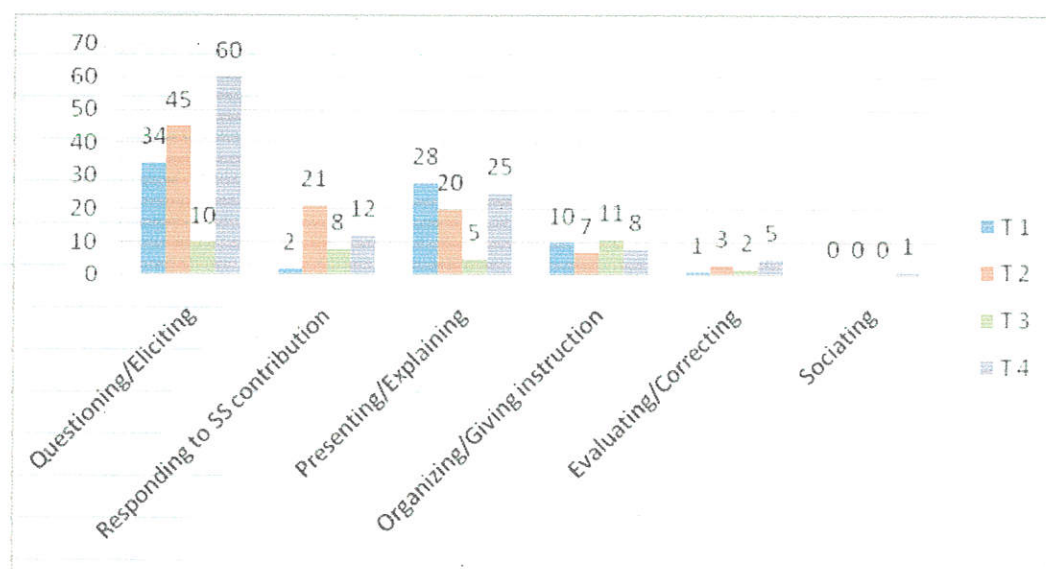


Figure 4.1. The amount of language functions used by each teacher

As the above figure shows, the function frequently used by the four teachers is questioning or eliciting. This could be attributed to the fact that the lessons focused on summarizing the previously learned language structures. According to figure 4.1, the second most frequently used function is explaining or presenting with the exception of T2 and T3. For T2 and T3 the difference between the language function of explaining and responding to student's contribution is not significant. The least used language function was sociating and was used only by T4. This unbalanced distribution of language functions shows that the students usually are exposed to those functions that focus on metalanguage and not in using the language for different social purposes that could help them further exercise the language they are learning. The overall distribution of language functions of the four teacher's talk is summarized as follow

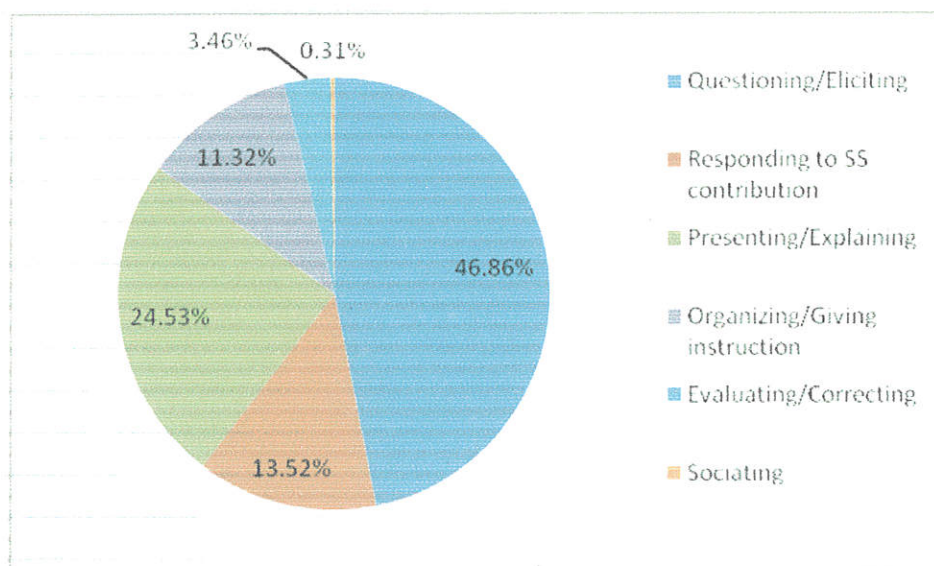


Figure 4.2. The total language functions used by the four teachers

The above chart shows the overall percentage of the language functions used by the teachers. The chart emphasizes the significant difference between the two very dominating functions, questioning and explaining respectively, compared with the rest of the functions. Questioning accounted for 46.8% while sociating was less than 1%. This unbalanced distribution indicates that the students were exposed to a very limited function of language. The insignificant frequency of the sociating function implies that students were not exposed to functions that promote social rituals. Generally, it is possible to say that the figures indicate the dominance of a few language functions and the disregard of the others. As a result, the teacher talk lacked variety in terms of exposing students to different language functions that could prepare them to use the language for different functions.

4.1.2.2 Analysis of Questions Asked

As part of the attempt made towards gaining insight into the nature of the questions dominating the teacher's talk, the questions were further analyzed. According to Long and Sato (1983) learners' responses differ not only quantitatively but also qualitatively, depending on the type of questions. Therefore the amount of referential and display questions on the teacher's talk was calculated.

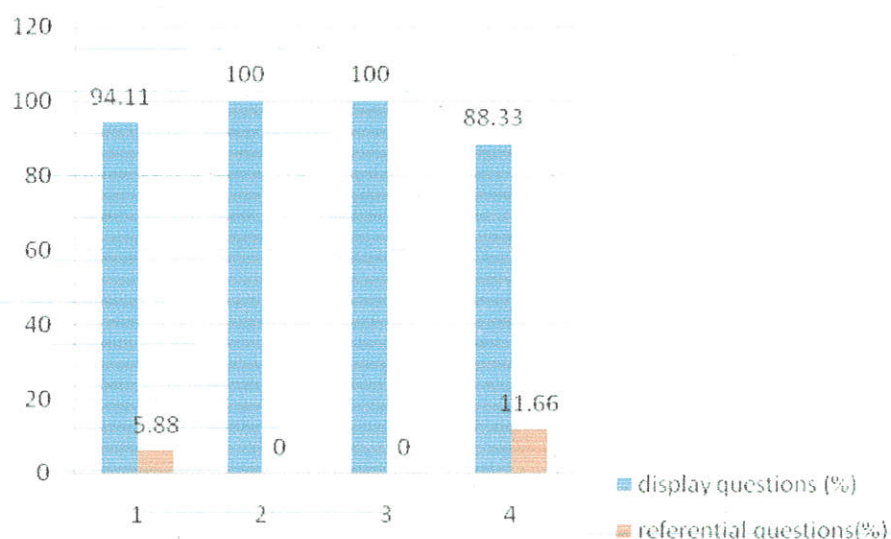


Figure 4.3. Amount of display and reference questions asked by individual teachers

As seen in figure 4.3, display questions were highly favored by the teachers. Even though T1 and T4 tried to ask some referential questions, it only accounted for 5.8% and 11.6% of the total questions raised in their respective classes. On the other hand, T2 and T3 asked 100% display questions. The excessive use of display questions implies that though the teachers seem to give opportunities for students to use the language by asking several questions, the responses do not demand or allow them to use the language expressively. In addition, the disproportionate number of display questions suggest that of display questions might indicate that the teacher ?

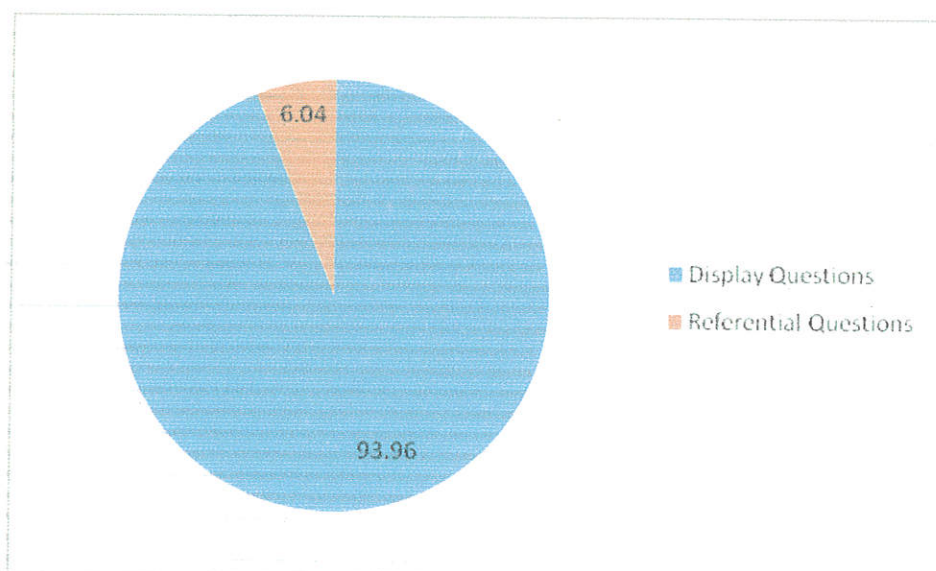


Figure 4.4. Amount of questions in the four teacher talk

The above chart summarizes the overall percentage of display and referential questions asked in the four classes. It is clearly seen that the display questions add up to more than 90% out of the total questions asked. This disproportionate number of display and referential questions show that with regard to communicativeness, the questions raised did not foster learners' communication skill. Thus, generally, the teacher talks lacked questions that encourage communication in the part of the students.

4.2 Analysis of Individual Teacher Talk

This section of the study analyses three main features of each individual teacher talk. The first feature is the effect of teacher's questions on student's communication skills. The second focuses on the feedbacks given and their effect on communication skills. Last but not least, the I-R-F structure of classroom discourses with a special emphasis on the last or follow-up move.

4.2.1 Teacher 1

The first notable feature of this lesson (see appendix) is the huge imbalance between the amount of teacher talk and learner utterances. As previously discussed this study is not interested in the amount of teacher talk but its quality and significance in promoting learners' communicative skills.

As the transcript below and figure 3 shows, many questions were raised by the teacher. The majority of the questions aim at eliciting responses that are very short and usually confined to a word or two. The following extract is a sample extracted from teacher 1.

Excerpt 1

- T1: Number seven. Because it's your birthday, you dash help wash dishes today. This is also the (inaudible) comes from the third person*
- 81 *student 1: [have to] student 2: [have not]*
- 82 *T1: Yes? Read the question (moves around) Ok! Listen the question. Because it's your birthday, you dash help wash dishes today.*
- 83 *student 1: have to*
- 84 *T1 : (pause) because it's your birthday, You dash ,uh?*
- 85 *student 1: [have not]*
- 86 *student 2: [have not]*
- 87 *T1: have not, because it's his birthday /her birthday (explains in Amharic)yes? so that is .. (inaudible)number eight. We dash tell lies or cheat. It's wrong. We dash tell lies or cheat. It's wrong.*
- 88 *student 1: [have to]*
- 89 *student 2: [must]*
- 90 *T1: it's is self imposed.*
- 91 *student 2: must not*

Excerpt 2

(Teacher starts to explain in Amharic) so you will classify them. If it is a noun ,you will write it in the noun part. You know what noun mean?

93

Students: yes

94 *T1: You know what adjective is?*

95

Student 1: [yes] student 2: [yes]

96 *T1: You know what adverb means, so you know what verb is. So you will classify them into the verb, noun and adjectives.(bell rings.)*

The two extracts show the type of questions common in the classroom. As seen from the excerpt all the questions were accuracy-focused and did not lead to interaction or any sort of expression on the part of the students. They did not demand students to give elaborated responses and were easily answered without understanding on the part of the students. Some of the responses given by the students' above are indicative of students' random responses. Generally, the amount of interaction created by the teacher's questions was observed to be negligible during the whole lesson. Therefore, it can be concluded that, the majority of the questions were asked to check students understanding of the language structure. As a result, the response of the students' was short and the communication required very minimum.

FEEDBACK

Except 3

T1: Number seven. Because it's your birthday, you dash help wash dishes today. This is also the (inaudible) comes from the third person

81

student 1: [have to] student 2: [have not]

82 *T1: Yes? Read the question (moves around)*

Ok! Listen the question. Because it's your birthday, you dash help wash dishes today.

83

student 1: have to

84 *T1 : (pause) because it's your birthday, You dash, uh?*

85

student 1: [have not]

86

student 2: [have not]

87 T1: *have not, because it's his birthday /her birthday (explains in Amharic) yes? So that is... (in audible)number eight. We dash tell lies or cheat. It's wrong. We dash tell lies or cheat. It's wrong.*

88 student 1: *[have to]*
89 student 2: *[must]*

90 T1: *it's is selfimposed.*

91 student 2: *must not*

92 T1: *Must not, yes? We must not tell lies or cheat. It's wrong.ok lso(switches to Amharic) fill in the blanks. Let's do something else.*

As for the feedbacks provided, they were all accuracy or form based. Feedbacks were given for both correct and incorrect responses in terms of explanation of what the rule of the language was.

As can be seen in line 90 , the feedback given for incorrect response was a technical explanation of why the answer was not acceptable. The same can be said for the feedback given to correct responses. Both feedbacks focused on the form of the language not the content. This way of giving feedback did not encourage the use of the target language but a memorization of how to use the language. As a result, the students at time answered the correct form but failed to produce meaningful sentences. A good example for this is the reply in line 89.The student responded 'must' for the sentence 'we must not tell lies or cheat. It is wrong.' Therefore, it can be said that these form focused feedbacks are uncommunicative and do not promote communication.

The total amount of feedback given by the teacher and its focus is summarized as follow.

Table4.3: Results of total amount of Form and Content feedback given by T1

	Amount	Amount in percent
Form focused feedback	7	100%
Content focused feedback	0	0
Total	7	100%

Initiation-Response-Follow-Up

One of the common characteristics of classroom discourse is the Initiation—Response--Follow up structure (I-R-F). According to Cullen (1997), it is not the first two stages but the last stage that is very important in determining the communicativeness of the structure. Therefore, the follow-up was analyzed to determine how communicative it was.

Table 4.4: Amount of the Discursive and Evaluative follow-up of T1

	Amount	Percentage
Discursive	1	4.34%
Evaluative	22	95.6%
Total	23	100%

The follow-up structure is very significant in language classrooms in serving pedagogical functions as well as communicative ones(Cullen:2002).As mentioned in the literature the evaluative follow-up is about the form of the language the learners use while discursive follow-up focuses on the content of the learners' response.

Table 4, shows the amount of follow-up given by the first teacher. The difference between the two types of follow-up was significant and it is indicative of the excessive focus on form rather than communication. Though the evaluative follow-up brings the learners to give attention to the language their using, it hampers their communicative skills by ignoring the real use of language. Overall, the table illustrates that the teacher has completely ignored the communicative aspect of the language.

4.2.2 Teacher 2

The second lesson was a revision class. The students' number was higher than the previous class and a bit noisier. The lesson seemed like a revision session but lacked flow and clarity because the teacher did not have clear plan.

Similar to the first teacher's talk, the second teacher's class was dominated by the teacher talk and the students' response was limited to few words. As figure 4.3 shows all the questions asked were of display type. The following sample extracts represent some of the questions raised and their effect on students' response.

Excerpt 4

...if I say 'my mobile was stolen'. If I say. Don't write (turns to board and reads out loud while writing) 'My mobile was stolen.' if I say, which one is present perfect and what its function? in a given sentence which word is past participle and the what is its function? (pause)

- | | | |
|----|--|-----------------------------------|
| 51 | | <i>student 1: stolen</i> |
| 52 | <i>T2: stolen is what?</i> | |
| 53 | | <i>student 2: past participle</i> |
| 54 | <i>T2: no, you should have raised your hand. What is the function?</i> | |
| 55 | | <i>students: simple past</i> |
| 56 | <i>T2: Are you sure? Is that simple past? simple past, by the way, simple past, the case is simple past. What is the name of the simple past? What is the category? We may categorize simple past sentences into, ... into active and passive. The active is what? simple past. active voice the passive what? passive voice. is that not? you are right! what kind of simple past? (teacher moves around) yeah?</i> | |

From the above extract, it can be deduced that the questions asked focused on the form of the language and students' knowledge about technical terms such as "the function of the simple past", "name of the simple past" "the category". However, these questions neither meet the purpose of stressing form nor help in advancing the students

awareness of the language. Thus, it can be inferred that some of the questions not only fail to encourage communicative skills but also did not serve the purpose of checking students' knowledge of the form of the language.

Excerpt 5

- 103 T2: *into proposition. by the way, also last time, I mean,*
before a week, we mentioned what? Adjectives of
- 109 T2: *salty, salt is noun. Salty.*
- 110 *student: sour*
- 111 T2: *Wow! I ate delicious food! Is that clear? The*
food I had this morning is what? *tasty... .. (inaudible)*
ok! what else?
- 112 *student: sour (without raising hand)*
tastes such as (pause while waits for the students)
adjectives of tastes. Tell me adjectives of tastes!
- 104 *student: bitter*
- 105 T2: *bitter, bitter*
- 106 *student: salt*
- 107 T2: *Uh?*
- 108 *student: salt*
- 113 T2: *sour, what, what does mean sour? shhh*
- 114 *student: the taste of grawa*
- 115 T2: *the taste of what? in chemistry, the taste,*
the taste of what? the
- 116 *student1: [base]*
- 117 *student2: [acid]*

The above excerpt shows how a question raised by the teacher led to an opportunity for real communication. For example, on line 113 the teacher asked about the meaning of 'sour' and a student responded with an example of something sour. However, instead of encouraging it, the teacher avoided it by giving his own example from a chemistry lesson. Overall, this instance demonstrates that opportunities for real communication arise but is not given attention.

In general, the two examples illustrate that the main purpose of the questions asked was to check students' knowledge of the form of the language. As a result, the responses from the students were restricted to very short utterances. Furthermore, it

could be said that the questions did not meet their required purposes because they focused on the students' knowledge of the metalanguage. As a result, there was no meaningful interaction created from the questions.

Feedback

The following excerpt shows the way T2 gave feedback to students' responses

Excerpt 6

35 T2: *eh.sorry ok! let me read some 'points,some important points from what we have previously learned,ok?*

(writes on the board 'past participle')what is past participle? what does that mean? what is past participle?only a student?only two students? you learned past participle ..before ten days like that,isn't it?past participle

36 T2: *verb three,is that enough?have we said that?is that enough?is that the definition?(pause) ask yourself that is where you are now,where you are now?what does,what is the use of past participle?what is the condition of past participle?(pause)uh?*

student:verb three

37 *student:past participle are used to use perfect tenses*

38 T2: *to use!thank you very much!to make perfect tense.you know!said nicely,another?*

39 *student: to talk about past*

40 T2: *sorry?*

41 *student: to talk about past*

42 T2: *this is what you have learned?nothing else I asked you new.
(Silence and teacher starts moving around)
that is surprising!it is meaningless my repeating now and then.my repeating again and again has no value. You have written on your exercise book and you can read...(inaudible)as well as on your text book. This is what? some of questions that will appear on your exam.*

The above extract illustrates the feedbacks given by the teacher. The feedbacks were not used effectively and in a constructive way .As seen in line 36 and 42, instead of giving feedback for the students' response, the teacher was seen criticizing students for failing to meet his expectations. This type of feedback was common in this class. It had neither pedagogical nor communicative purpose.

Excerpt 7

103 T2: *into proposition. by the way, also last time, I mean,
before a week, we mentioned what? adjectives of
tastes such as (pause while waits for the students)
adjectives of tastes. tell me adjectives of tastes!*

104 *student: bitter*

105 T2: *bitter, bitter*

106 *student: salt*

107 T2: *Uh?*

108 *student: salt*

109 T2: *salty, salt is noun. salty.*

The feedback provided here focused on the form of the language used by the learner. The teacher is seen explicitly correcting the learners' response by commenting on the form not the content of what is said. Also the feedback contained a technical term, 'noun' which was not of relevance to the learner. This kind of inclusion of technical terms was common throughout the feedback given in this class. The following table summarizes the type and proportion of feedback given in the class.

Table 4.5: Results of total amount of Form and Content feedback given by T2

	Amount	Percentage
Form focused feedback	8	80%
Content focused feedback	2	20%
Total	10	100%

In general, the form focused feedback was more dominant in the class. It was four times greater than the content focused. This excessive attention to the form of what was said affects the communicative use of language in the class by forcing the students' to pay more attention to how they are saying something rather than to what they are saying.

Initiation-Response-Follow-up

Here the follow – up move of the teacher was examined. The analysis focused on the distribution of Discursive and Evaluative follow-up employed by the teacher.

Table4.6: Amount of the Discursive and Evaluative follow-up of T2

	Amount	Percentage
Discursive	4	12.1%
Evaluative	29	87.8%
Total	33	100%

The most dominant type of follow-up was the evaluative one. As this clearly indicates, 87.8% of the follow-ups were aimed at the language used by the students not the content of their response. This type and amount of follow-up does not encourage the use of language for communication but accuracy. Consequently, it impedes the learners' communicative skills by overemphasizing form not meaning.

4.2.3 Teacher 3

The third class was a speaking class that aimed at giving learners opportunity to orally practice the language structure that they have learned, the zero conditional. The class started with a warm up question about the previous lesson. What differentiated this class from the previous ones was that unlike the other classes, learners were given some time to work and communicate in groups. Nonetheless the focus of this study was the teacher talk so the effectiveness of the group work was not analyzed. In addition, the transcription of the third teacher talk was the shortest because the teacher started late due to students' disciplinary issues.

Analysis of Teacher's Questions

As seen in the table summarizing the type of questions asked in the class, all the questions raised by the teacher were display questions. Similar to the other classes, the third class was also highly dominated by the teacher. However, interestingly; the transcribed data showed that the students' response was longer than the previous classes in some occasions.

Excerpt 8

- 1 T3: uhh(clears throat)ok!take out the text book
on page 86.last time,we begin language focus ,
zero conditional .Before beginning today's lesson
to say something about last time lesson. First,
who can summarize the last time lesson in short,Ruth,
- 2 student :we learned about zero conditional.
it's ...(inaudible)
- 3 T3:Good!
- 4 Student: in the previous class, we discussed
about zero conditional. We use the zero
conditional to talk aboutsituations that
are always true such as scientific facts or
general truth.
- 5 T3:that's good!uh?.....i want you to say something
(waits)
- 6 Student: (inaudible)
- 7 T3: We can use in zero conditional, uh we have seen
the structure of zero conditional. We can begin a
sentence in what?subject.
- 8 Student: when the if clause come first,
coma is usually used .when the if clause
comes in the place of the main clause,we
don't use comma

As the extract shows, there were questions asked by the teacher that generated longer responses from the students. This, however, is not to say that the questions had led to communication or interaction between the teacher and the learner but that with display

questions the responses are not always necessarily short. Similar to the previous teacher talks, the questions focused on eliciting responses about the form of the language not about actual use of the language. However, those were the only questions asked by the teacher so it could not be analyzed further.

Feedback

The following extract is an example of the feedback given by the teacher.

Excerpt 9

....ok! who can give me one example using the first one? one example to the whole class. I want you... Ruth.

14

student: if you..if a person become infected with HIV, he must protect himself.

15 T3: That's good! but I want you to only use one phrase.

16

Student: (Inaudible)

17 T3: Yeah, that's good! If you for example, if you make unprotected sex, you become infected with what? with HIV/AIDS. again follow me and look the given phrases. if you make unprotected sex, you become affected with HIV/AIDS. you become affected with HIV/AIDS is what? given to you. you are what? you are only... (inaudible) Uh! Who can give me other? who can add one more?

18

Student1: if you wash your hand always, you can protect yourself from other diseases.

19 T3: yeah! again, look what ... (inaudible) says and how can he construct a sentence. again, I want you to listen him. say it again.

As can be seen from the excerpt above the teacher started the feedback by giving positive complement to what the students said. What made these feedbacks different from those given by the other teachers was that the feedback was less explicit. In other

words, when correcting the students, the teacher did not dismiss what was said when it was wrong and did not offer too much explanation on the form. The following table summarizes the amount and type of feedback given.

Table 4.7: Results of total amount of Form and Content feedback given by T3

	amount	Percentage
Form focused feedback	3	37.5%
Content based feedback	5	62.5%
Total	8	100%

As can be seen from the table, there is a fair distribution of the two types of feedback. This shows that the teacher tried to balance between the right form of the language used and the content of what was said. Also, the teacher encouraged communication and he did not do so at the expense of form. In addition, the students' response was more elaborate than the previous classes. In general, it is possible to say that the implicit and less technical use of language in the feedback helped in encouraging students construct sentences without placing too much emphasis on form.

Initiation-Response-Follow-Up

The type of follow-up used by the third teacher was analyzed and summarized as follows

Table 4.8: Amount of the Discursive and Evaluative follow-up of T3

	Amount	Percentage
Discursive	-	-
Evaluative	14	100%
Total	14	100%

The summary of the overall use of follow-ups indicates that evaluative follow-up dominated the class. This shows that though the teacher feedbacks focused on the

content of what was said, he did not incorporate students' contributions into the flow of the classroom discourse in order to sustain and produce interaction between the teacher and the students. Thus it could be said that the excessive attention given to the performance of the students' responses negatively affects the flow of communication by restricting interaction and meaningful exchange of ideas into bits and pieces of utterances that do not help in developing interaction between students and the teacher.

4.2.4 Teacher Four

The fourth class was a revision class that focused on summarizing the previous learned language structures. The class was different from the others because the students were more active and involved the lesson. The number of students was also higher than the rest. This was due to the high attendance of the learners. Overall the class was more energetic; the lesson had a clear objective and a smooth flow from topic to topic.

Analysis of teacher's questions

The following extract is an illustration of the types of questions asked by T4.

Excerpt 10

After having said about the form, let's talk about the function of present perfect. The function of present perfect. Can you tell me the function or the use of present perfect tense?

20

student: used to express an action just completed

21 *T4: ok, very good indeed! we use the present perfect tense to express an action which has recently been what? completed. Can you tell me an example of this kind, for example, an example of this kind?*

22

student: I have, for example, he has just come.

As seen from the above excerpt, the questions focused on the form of the language. However, instead of requiring students to respond in a word or two, they demanded the

learners to reply in full sentences. Furthermore, the teacher asked students to back up their responses by providing examples. Though this cannot be an example of communicative interaction, it required students to construct sentences of their own so it gave them the opportunity to say more. This indicates that display questions can also be used in a way that involve longer production.

Excerpt 11

... Is it possible to say? Is it possible to say the train has left at three o'clock? I told you that the function, the other function of present perfect tense is to express an action which, which what? completed but whose time of completion, completion is not definitely stated. We said this thing. Then, is it possible to say the train has left at three o'clock? Is it possible? yes?

42

student: no

43 T4: why? why?

44

student: no because we use the ..the, we use present perfect tense without the expression of definite time.

45 T4: ok, yes! then the problem is what? mentioning

46

student: on the time

This other excerpt shows how the teacher tried to communicate with the students by giving them chance to justify their answers. This helps in preventing the students from guessing responses that could be the result from excessive use of display questions. Over all, even though the questions were dominantly display questions that focused on the form of the language, there was a certain amount of interaction and communication created as a result.

Feedback

The two common feedbacks employed in the classroom are summarized as follows.

Table 4.9: Results of total amount of Form and Content feedback given by T3

	Amount	Percentage
Form focused feedback	0	-
Content focused feedback	17	100%
Total	17	100%

Interestingly, though the class was a revision class, the teacher was not concerned about the correct form of the language used by the students. When asked to justify or elaborate their responses, the students replied in longer sentences. The feedbacks given from the teacher were all focused on the content of what was said. Unlike the other teacher, the third teacher usually started his feedbacks to errors with encouraging words like 'good', 'very good' and the students seemed relaxed when replying. Generally, it can be said that though much of the content of the students' responses was about the form and use of the language, the students were given feedback about what they said not how they said it.

Initiation-Response-Follow-Up

The type of follow-up used by T4 is summarized as follows

Table 4.10: Results of total amount of Form and Content feedback given by T4

	Amount	Percentage
Discursive	5	10.8%
Evaluative	41	89.1%
Total	46	100%

As discussed in the literature, the follow-up move is very important in establishing genuine communication and interaction with the teacher. As seen in table 10, out of the total 46 follow-up moves made by the teacher 41 were evaluative. This indicates that the teacher was evaluating the correctness of the students' responses not reformulating and elaborating on the students' contributions in order to create dialogue and

communication. This might be due to the fact that the majority of the questions were display questions and the main objective of the lesson was on establishing the language structures learners have learned before

4.3 Observation

Observation of T1

Date: 18/01/12

Time:3:26 – 4:08

Period:Second

Number of students:24

Focus of the lesson:Unit Revision

When the teacher and the researcher got to the class,it was vacant the because the students had been moved to another room.After being informed about the temporary change,the researcher and teacher headed to the fourth floor where the students were already inside.The researcher followed the teacher into the room,placed the tape recorder at an empty desk at the front of the class and sat at the back. The students kept talking to eachother even after the lesson had began so the teacher had to repeat herself many times to get their attention.There were few interruptions for the first ten minutes by tardy students but the class went on smoothly afterwards.

Physical Condition

The class was medium sized. The window glasses were half tinted so the room looked dim. The students were seated in two, three and alone sometimes. Though the desks were arranged in a row of four, the moving space between the middle rows was so small that it was practically impossible for the teacher to move around between them.The number of students was the lowest compared to the other three studied classes.According to the teacher these numbers drop significantly in the afternoons,as low as thirteen at times.Throught out the observation, the researcher had noticed that there was always low turn out of students all the time.at all times.The students sat dispersed and alone at times therefore there were several empty desks.

Lesson

The teacher began the lesson by discussing the right answers to the test taken on the previous class. The content covered comparative and superlative forms of adjectives, verb forms and changing active voice sentences into their passive forms. During the discussion, the students knew the right answer for the different forms of the verbs and adjectives so there were instances where they tried to correct the wrong corrections given by the teacher. However, they had difficulty answering the questions regarding active voices. Therefore the teacher had a lot of explanations to give and at the end provide the correct answer herself.

After the discussion ended, the teacher proceeded to giving correction on the homework. The homework required students to choose and fill in some sentences with the correct modal verb. The teacher started reading the sentences as well as the alternatives aloud and the students usually answered in chorus. When the students got the answer wrong, the teacher repeated the sentence to indicate that the answer was incorrect. In addition, the feedbacks or explanations given for the correct answer were rules of the language. There were many questions asked but almost all demanded students only to call the modal verb so there was no meaningful output at all on the side of the students. Although the teacher gave many explanations in English and Amharic on how to use the modal verbs, it is possible to say that the students did not know how to use it in a meaningful way.

The last activity of the day was categorizing a list of words into their word class. Even though the activity could be found on the text book, the teacher wrote all the twenty words on the blackboard because the majority of the students did not bring their text books. However, according to the information gathered by the researcher, every student had received a book at the beginning of the year. During the observation period the researcher noticed that it was common to see one book in a desk or between two desks. While the teacher was elaborating the instruction both in Amharic and English to ensure that the students knew what to do, the bell rang and the period ended.

Summary

Overall, the class was very teacher dominated. There was no active students involvement. As a result, the teacher did most of the talking. Based on the observation, it could be said that there was no interactive use of the language between the teacher and the learners. The teacher talk was dominated by questions which did not provide the students with the opportunity to express themselves in a meaningful way. Furthermore, the teacher's explanation and feedback were full of technical terms that focused on form not meaning. As a result, the students had difficulty using what they learnt in a context.

Observation of T2

Date : 18/01/12

Time: 4:23— 5:05

Period: Third

Number of student: 33

Focus of the lesson: Revision

The researcher went into class together and the teacher put the tape recorder in a suitable place at the front while the researcher sat at the back. Since the teacher moved around a lot, some of the teachers talk as well as the students was inaudible. In addition, compared to the other studied classes, it was the noisiest of all.

Physical Condition

The physical condition of the class was similar to the previous one. The class was clean and with a few empty seats. The students sitting arrangement consisted of two or three students per desk.

Lesson

The teacher started the lesson by asking students what they learnt in the previous class. A few students tried to answer but their voice was very low and inaudible because of the background noise. After listening to the students response, the teacher summarized the content by explaining the difference between direct and indirect

questions. Then he turned to the board and wrote a question on the board regarding reported speech. The students started calling the letters of the given alternatives. After taking some of the students' responses, the teacher started explaining how they can answer the question by simply looking at the punctuation marks. Without clearly saying what the correct answer was, he moved to another question about subject verb agreement. Similar to the first question, students called the letters from the alternative. After several attempts by the students, the teacher started explaining and stopped to add a fifth alternative realizing that the correct answer was not given. Immediately, the students started calling the last added alternative as the correct answer.

Next, the teacher wrote "*Past Participle*" on the board and began asking "*What is Past Participle?*". A student answered "*verb 3*", however, the teacher responded by expressing his dissatisfaction and went on to ask a different question. He praised a student who responded and scorned another who attempted to answer. Following that he gave a long explanation both in Amharic and English. After that he wrote a question on the board and asked students to identify the past participle verb and its function. Without giving clear feedback, the teacher gave several similar examples while explaining the answer. Abruptly the teacher shifted into adjectives. He wrote a sentence and asked students to identify the adjectives, saying that similar examples would be in their exam. After long explanations about adjective and the words they modify, the topic changed into articles and instances in which they could be used as adjectives.

Following that the teacher proceeded to discussing misspelt words and how they can easily be identified. The following discussion consisted of propositions and went back to adjectives again. The teacher asked the students to list some adjectives of taste and use them in comparative sentences. In the middle of his explanation, the bell rang and the class was dismissed.

Summary

Generally, the class was very teacher dominated. The lesson had no clear objective and the teacher seemed unprepared. In addition, the class was noisy and students were seen working on homeworks from other subjects. Many questions were raised by the teacher but most of the time they were unclear, confusing and lacked pedagogical purpose. Furthermore, students were not given appropriate feedbacks to their responses. On the other hand, when students made mistakes, the teacher made condescending remarks in Amharic. This might be one of the reasons why many students seemed uninterested. There were a few instances where opportunities for interaction were created but the teacher failed to seize them. Overall, the teacher talk was not communicative, thus failed to generate interaction.

Observation of T3

Date:

Time: 2:44– 3:25

Period: first

Number of students: 48

Focus of the lesson: Zero conditional (Speaking)

Since it was the first period, when the teacher and the researcher got to the class the students were outside in the balcony. Even though the teacher tried to get them inside, they did not listen to him. Finally, another teacher came and they all entered the class.

By the time the researcher entered the class, the teacher was ordering the students to stop talking and take their seat. The researcher decided to sit at the back as usual after placing the tape recorder in the front around the center of the class where the teacher usually stood. After wasting a significant amount of time, the students settled down and the teacher began the lesson. As a result, it became the shortest lesson of all the studied classes.

Physical Condition

The physical condition of the class was similar to the others. The students were seated in two, three and alone sometimes. Though the number of students in the class was not

small, there was a noticeable amount of empty desks. Overall the class was neat and had enough space on the front for the teacher to move around.

Lesson

The teacher began the class by going straight to the topic. He wrote "*Language Focus, Zero Conditional*" on the board and introduced the topic. Following that, he gave the students opportunity to summarize what they learnt last time. A reasonable number of students raised their hands and participated by offering explanation about the content and form of the zero conditional. One of the reasons for the active involvement of the students could be the encouraging feedback from the teacher. Another possible explanation might be the waiting time he gave the students until they came up with the response. The teacher tried to address students by name which could imply that they have a pleasant relationship. After summarizing what the students said and emphasizing key points, the teacher went straight to the day's activity and began telling students to form a group based on their interest.

Following the instructions, students started forming groups of three or more. Some moved around looking for their friends, others formed groups with their seating partners. Even though each student had received text books at the beginning of the academic year, there was only one book per desk or for two desks. Once students formed their groups, the teacher brought up the first question as an example to check if they understood what they were expected to do. Although different students attempted to answer, they could not get it right so the teacher explained the answer. Next, he added the second question as another example and a student at the front got the correct answer. In order to bring the structure of the zero conditional into attention, the teacher demanded the student to repeat his answer several times. After several repetitions, the teacher ordered the whole class to start working on the group activity. He told them to do it on a piece of paper and then select a representative who would read it to the class. He later promised to give ten points to the group that did well.

As expected in a language lesson, the class got a bit noisier. Though few students began working on the task, many were chatting. After a few minutes, the teacher announced that

they had been given only five minutes. Before the students finished their task, the bell rang and the period ended.

Summary

In general, the teacher talk was dominated by the medium of instruction, English, except for the times he was talking to individual students in small groups. Even though the class was a speaking session, the students did not have the opportunity to use the language in a communicative way. In addition, the activity required them to write and read, not write. The small group activities were designed to create a chance for interaction, but it was not effective because the students used it to chat with their friends in their mother tongue. Though looking at the transcript it might seem that there was a certain amount of output by some students at the beginning of the lesson, the students' responses were mostly definitions and technical terms, thus it is difficult to classify it as interaction. Therefore, taking into account the ineffective use of time and nature of the given activity, it can be said that the students were exposed to very little teacher talk and very little opportunity to use the language in a communicative and effective way.

Observation of T4

Date: 18/01/12

Time : 7:26 — 8:08

Period: Sixth

Number of students : 33

Focus of the lesson: Present Perfect and Simple Past (Revision)

When the teacher and the researcher got to class, the students were inside waiting. The teacher put the tape recorder on his table and the researcher sat at the back. Since the teacher was also the homeroom teacher, he took attendance before beginning the lesson.

Physical Condition

(similar to the other classes)

Lesson

First the teacher wrote “ *Present Perfect*” on the board along with three examples containing the present perfect form. After that he turned to the class and introduced the lesson of the day. He asked the students to look at the sentences on the board and identify their similarities. Several students took turn in answering and the teacher gave positive feedback and praises to each of them. Following that, he summarized the students response by emphasizing key points they should keep in mind. Next, students were asked to list different situations in which the present perfect tense could be used. Each time, the teacher asked the students to justify or explain their response by giving examples of their own. In addition, the teacher gave contextualized examples and discussed their meaning.

After a very long discussion, the teacher wrote “*Simple Past*” on the blackboard followed by three simple past tense sentences. Again, he asked them to identify similarities they notice in their structure. Then a discussion about the regular and irregular forms of some verbs followed. Students explained some differences that exist between them and based on their response, the teacher gave a short summary along with examples.

Afterwards, the teacher moved the discussion on the functions of the simple past tense by taking examples raised by the students. At times the teacher tried to elaborate using his own examples. Next the teacher wrote a short exercise on the blackboard as a classwork. Later on the teacher explained that the reason the questions were all written on the board was because they were not from the textbook but from his own. After giving a reasonable time to do the answer, the class started discussing the answer. Learners were asked to explain their answer and their interpretation of the meaning. The bell rang before the correction for the two sentences were given however the teacher continued and before leaving the class thanked them and said goodbye.

Summary

Overall the class was very active and the students were very involved. There was eagerness on the part of the students to participate. One of the reasons for this could be the positive feedback the teacher gave whether the response was right or wrong. The teacher talk dominated the class but the students response was also long and elaborated. Therefore, it could be said that the questions asked by the teacher were effective in generating output from the students. Unlike in the other classes, the participating students were not limited to the front but were fairly distributed to other parts of the class. There was good rapport between the teacher and the students and the class was energetic. Generally, the teacher was well prepared and though dominant, the questions and explanations raised in the class were clear and rephrased several times in order to ensure communication.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to study teacher talk and its effect on students' communicative skills. The research was conducted on Misrak Goh Secondary School. The participants were four volunteer ninth grade English teachers. Four classes were selected, one from each teacher and were observed two weeks. On the last week, lessons from each class were recorded and transcribed. The transcription and coding of data was done by two coders to ensure the reliability of the results. Then the data gathered was analyzed by calculating the lexical variation of the teacher input, determining the most frequent language functions and analyzing its quality in terms of communicativeness.

Based on the data interpretation and discussion made in the previous section, the following conclusions have been made.

- The teacher talk was lexically poor. Even though some of the teachers used a lot of words per lesson, most of the words were repetitive. In addition, most of the words were basic words so students did not have much opportunity to meet unfamiliar words or words beyond their level.
- The most frequently used language function was questioning or eliciting. Though asking questions seemed to give the students opportunity to speak, the transcribed material showed that the students reply was limited to a word or two most of the time. The second most frequent function was explaining or presenting. Though teachers asked questions most of the time, they also spent too much time explaining and elaborating language forms.
- Regarding the type of questions dominating the teacher talk, the findings indicate that the display type of questions outnumber the referential ones by far. As a result, meaningful interaction between the teacher and the students was very low. However, there were very rare cases where the students were required to give elaborated responses.

- When giving feedback, teachers usually concentrated on the form of the language used by the students rather than on the content. Therefore, the teacher talk used when giving correction to the students had too much metalanguage.
- Classes usually followed the Initiation–Response–Follow up. The last move of this structure is important in maintaining communication with the learner by balancing between discursive and evaluative follow-up. The study showed that the teacher talk in the follow-up move did not focus on establishing communication but rather on evaluating the correctness of students' responses.

5.2 RECOMMENDATION

Based on the above drawn conclusion, the following recommendations have been made

- The researches on teacher talk have suggested that the amount and type of teacher talk are contributory factors to learners' target language proficiency. So teachers should pay much attention to the quantity and quality of their talk. However, it is worth noting that teachers should not decrease the amount of teacher talk blindly. According to the Input Theory mentioned in Literature Review, enough and accurate input is the preliminary element to foreign language learning.
- It is revealed in the study that the teachers tend to ask more display questions, which serves to facilitate the recall of information and check the understanding of knowledge rather than to generate students' ideas and classroom communication. Display questions tend to elicit short answers as a result they would have less communicative involvement in producing a meaningful interaction. Thus, referential questions will help develop learners' output by demanding expressive response from the learners.
- There exist a lot of factors affecting teaching quality. For many years, teachers have focused on the learning of teaching methods and techniques. Most of them

just follow teaching methods or technique without taking into account the role Teacher Talk has on the success of Foreign Language Learning. As a result, Teacher Talk has not been given the necessary attention. In the actual teaching, few teachers are aware of the importance of teacher talk and use it unconsciously. Therefore teachers should take into account that their talk is as much important to the students as the lesson they are teaching.

- As mentioned in the literature, teacher talk is characterized by the use of basic or simple words. However, in order to enrich learners' vocabulary, teachers have to introduce new words so that learners would have the opportunity to pick up words incidentally. Last but not least, teachers should use different language functions in the classroom in a balanced way so that the students could be exposed to a language use that resembles the natural one.

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Appendix A

TRANSCRIPT 1

Lesson of teacher 1

- 1 T1: The test (students chatter in Amharic).
Ok. Let's see the answer .Byniam !(students chatter).ok .Let's see the answer (students talk).
Ok. Let's see, let's try the answer. (Students chatter).
Question number one was (students talk is heard on the background. Teacher writes on the board)
- 2 T1: ok so adjective has two forms. They are comparative and superlatives. But when we change them into comparative and superlative we use two methods. The first one is, we add -er, -er if the letters ends with the light, I mean the y letter we cancel the y letter and we add -ier. if it is superlative or we add -er ,ier. But if the adjective is irregular,what does we do ?
- 3 students:change
- 4 T1:irregular.this is regular adjective.yes?
yes?for example.it is good,the adjective is (pause)
- 5 students:better
- 6 T1: yes? better and best (writes on board).
So the question was, what is the comparative (noise) the comparative (noise)form of (noise) good so the answer will be
- 7 student:bitter
- 8 T1:better not bitter. The answer will be (noise).The answer will be better. What about question number two ?
- 9 students:(noise)
- 10 T1: The answer is this one .The answer is better.
- 11 students: (argue in Amharic that their question is about the adjective 'bad'.)
- 12 T1: ok,the adjective was bad. Ok so I mean bad.
- 13 students:worse
- 14 T1:(teacher writes on the board worst and worse.)
So the answer will be C worst.
- 15 students:(murmur in objection)
- 16 T: number two .what is the past participle

- or verb three of drink?(silence)Yes?
- 17 student:drank.
- 18 T1: drink will be
- 19 students:drank
- 20 T1:drank .so verb three(inaudible) .This
one is a preposition. Question three was a
- 21 students:(interrupt to say that their
question was not about drink but draw)
- 22 T1: so draw verb three will be will be drawn.
Ok question number three? (pause) yes?
- 23 student:(interrupts to ask the correct
answer)
- 24 T1: drawn verb two will be drew .So verb three
will be drawn.Ok question number three, the
famine was ,I mean there was famine dash
the war. Yes?during , across,on ,at .So,the
answer will be "during".Ok,question number
four,the students dash English subject.
- 25 students:[doesn't],[,didn't], [do like]
- 26 T1: yes? doesn't like because it is plural.
- 27 student: plural so we use does.
- 28 T1:ok, Let's see the (pause)this one
is to change the active voice into the
passive one. So the question was 'we
should accept their demand' .(repeats).
This is a passive voice so when we change
it to the ,I mean this is active voice so
you need to change into
- 29 student: passive
- 30 T1: passive ,so how can we change
it?how can we change it ?Yes?teklemariam?
Hailemariam,sorry!
- 31 student:their de,their demand
- 32 T1: demand, uh?
- 33 student:(silence)
- 34 T1: should be accepted.yes?(teacher writes on board
and reads aloud.)Their demand should be accepted.
so ,this is the (unaudible). The next one is "my
work satisfy my boss."(writes on board)so,
how can we change this question?(noise)
my work satisfy my boss,my work satisfy
my boss.(silence)First,you have to know which
one is the subject,the object and the verb. Then,
in passive sentence,we give emphasis for the

35 object. So ,yes Abraham?uh?addis?uh?yes?
 36 T1:the?
 37
 38 T1: My boss satisfied (writes on board)
 my boss satisfied with my work. So,this is
 how you change it.S0 this was the test .So
 if you have any question,yes?
 39
 40 T1: yes,the modal verb question. Fill
 the blank spaces.Ok,tell me the the question.
 41
 42 T1:Ok,so how do you change this
 question?i mean
 43
 44 T1: not you!Yes?Eyerus, try this question..Uh?
 45
 46 T1:transmit by
 47
 48 T1: [HIV], first of all,we find the object.(pause)
 49
 50 T1:transmit, Yes?.....
 51
 52 T1::uh? So “blood contact, uh?(pause)
 can transmitted(writes on board).this is how
 we say it,blood contact can transmitted HIV.
 So this is was the questions,isnt’t it?
 Yes? ok! So , let me(inaudible) two questions,
 yes?ok the questions are here in your text book.
 the questions on the test that I gave on the test all
 the questions are in this text but you
 didn’t read it that’s why (switches to Amharic)

 T1:let’s see did I give you homework?.....
 the(inaudible)was this one,not this .
 page 91(long pause while teacher moves around
 to make sure they’re following up)
 the question, complete the sentence using
 have to,must and must not. So let’s see the
 questions. The first question is ,cars dash stop
 when the traffic llights are red.
 53

student:the boss satisfy my

students:my boss(corrects)

students:(tell the teacher there are other questions.)

students:HIV transmit(noise while teacher writes on board)

student :HIV

student:HIV

student:[HIV].....(inaudible)

student:HIV

student:HIV subjecttransmit verb

student 1:[must] student 2:[must]

54	T1: must, the answer will be		
55		student : must	
56	T1: So cars must stop when traffic lights are red. The next question?		
57		student: [must]	student 2: [must]
58	T1: You dash cross the road when the traffic lights are red.		
59		student: have to	
60	T1: have to because this suggestion comes from the third person . Didn't I tell you about their use? must, is it comes from self impose or the obligation come from (pause and noise). so must , we use must when the obligation comes from the person or from the speaker but the second question is , 'you dash cross the road when the traffic lights are red' so , this obligation is not come from the speaker so we use what? What does we use?		
61		student: have to	
62	T1: we use		
63		student 1: [have to]	student2: [has to]
64	T1: So the answer will be 'have to'. Question number three, ' We are going to visit our friends, so we dash take the bus to Addis Ababa. The choose are, I mean, the modal verbs that you should use, 'have to , don't have to , must and must not.'		
65		student: [have to]	
66	T1: So what will be. (teacher explains in Amharic). We are going to visit our friends so we dash take the bus to Addis Ababa.		
67		student : [have to]	
68	T1: why? (pause) the obligation come from the speaker. So the answer will be		
69		student : must	
70	T1: must. Question number four, students dash be late for school in the morning. must not, yes? the students must not be late for school in the morning. number five, my father is ill with AIDS. so I dash help look after him. the choose are		
71		student: must	
72	T1: must, have , have not and must not . so what will you choose? (noise from outside		

and roar of laughter follows) My father is ill with AIDS.so I dash help look after him.	
73	student 1 :must student 2:must
74 T1:I must help look after him. Number six,you dash wash your hands before a meal. You dash, you dash wash your hands before a meal.	
75	students:have to
76 T1: You have to differentiate must and have to .You have to differentiate the use. (pause)Can you explain Addis?	
77	student:(answers in amharic)
78 T1: Just both of them...(inaudible)obligation but	
79	student:have to is third person
80 T1: but the obligation come from the third person.this(pointing to the word 'must' written on the board.)come from the speaker. So this question is you dash wash your hands before a meal, have to (explains in amharic) T1: Number seven. Because it's your birthday, you dash help wash dishes today. This is also the (inaudible) comes from the third person	
81	student 1:[have to] student 2:[have not]
82 T1:Yes? Read the question (moves around) Ok! Listen the question. Because it's your birthday, you dash help wash dishes today.	
83	student 1 :have to
84 T1:(pause)because it's your birthday, you dash,uuh?	
85	student 1: [have not]
86	student 2: [have not]
87 T1: have not,because it's his birthday /her birthday(explains in amharic)yes? so that is .. (in audible)number eight. We dash tell lies or cheat. it's wrong. We dash tell lies or cheat. It's wrong.	
88	student 1: [have to]
89	student 2: [must]
90 T1:It's self imposed.	
91	student 2: must not
92 T1: Must not,yes?we must not tell	

lies or cheat. It's wrong. Ok Iso (switches to Amharic) Fill in the blanks. Let's do something else. (teacher starts writing a list of words on the board. students start asking in Amharic whether to write it or not) so if you have a text. There are quizzes. You will classify these words into noun, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. If the word is a noun, you will write it in the noun part. If it is a verb, or an adjective, you will write it in the noun part. If it is adjective, you will write it on the adjective. This is how you do. These are the words so you will classify them into verbs, adjective, noun and adverb. This is the exercise so do it now. (Teacher starts to explain in Amharic) so you will classify them. if it is a noun, you will write it in the noun part. you know what noun mean?

93

94 T1: You know what adjective is?

95

96 T1: You know what adverb means. So you know what verb is. So you will classify them into the verb, noun and adjectives. (bell rings.)

Students: yes

Student 1: [yes] student 2: [yes]

Appendix B

TRANSCRIPT 2

Lesson of teacher 2

- 1 T2:Exercise,topic of discussion is (classroom
noise)nothing else. What I am tell you..(in audible)
I gave you yesterday...(noise ,laughter so teacher
starts moving around)
Ok! Shhh (noise in and outside the class)wakjira?
- 2 student: we learn about indirect question
- 3 T2: Yesterday, we were talking about indirect
questions. What did you say?
- 4 student: (inaudible student talk)
- 5 T2:somebody else?(noise.students at the front attempt
to answer while the rest of the class keeps talking.
Teacher switches to amharic)
ok!shhh.yesterday we start learning about indirect
question or indirect question.(pronounces indirect
in two different ways).By the way,we may categorize
questions into direct as well as indirect. Look when you
ask somebody direct question,what is your name?
this is direct question.I asked a person and he said
directly.what is your name?(teacher asks a student)
- 6 student:wakjira
- 7 T2:ok!how do you eat injera?(pause)I asked
indirectly.Wakjira did not tell me or has not told
me how he is eating injera.(inaudible talk while
teacher turns to the board)
T2:ok!(pause)Write.(teacher starts writing
a question on the board and students start copying)
(reads aloud the question)Tomas has told me
when dash. His mother arrives fullstop,His mother
arrives question mark,Did his mother arrive fullstop,
his mother arrived exclamation mark.
- 8 students:(raise their hands)
- 9 T2: your answer,uh?(moves around and talks
to a student)this is not the period of mathematics
ok?yeah!(to another student)
- 10 student 1: A
- 11 T2: Are you sure? What is the answer?
- 12 student 1 :[(repeats) A]
- 13 student 2:[A]

- 14 T2: Are you correct?
 15
 16 student 1:[yes]
 student 2: [yes]
- 17 T2:Are you sure?
 18
 19 student 1: [yes]
 student 2: [no]
- 20 T2:Asking indirect question, we begin
 with subject, and subject. Then we use what?
 Normal sentences then we end with period.
 Having said this much about this, let me ask
 you what.....(inaudible)at the end.(long pause
 while teacher writes another question on
 the board)
- 21 students:(start raising their hand yelling
 'me' in Amharic)
- 22 T2: uh? Which one? Sorry?
- 23 student:the answer is A
- 24 T2:Alright no problem,No problem! At the
 end of the time,last time I mean,yesterday at
 the end of the period ,I tried to mention this
 thing what is in your book(moves around) A?
- 25 Student: A because that is singular
- 26 T2:Ha hauh?
- 27 Student 1:[C]
 Student 2:[C]
 Student 3: [the answer is C]
- 28
- 29 T2:All right! When we compare 'the number
 of 'and 'a number of', 'the number of' and 'a
 number of', 'the number of plus plural subject',
 'a number of plus plural subject'. When they
 depart, both of them take plural subjects. I say
 the number of teachers; I can't say a number
 of teachers. Also this is true, I can say a number
 of nurses, nurses, the number of nurses. Here,
 they are the same, they go together. Both of
 them take plural subjects, plural noun, proper
 nouns but 'the number of is 'is singular verb,
 it takes singular verb, why? 'a number of take
 plural therefore what the answer?
- 30 Student 1: [A]
 Student 2: [A]
- 31
- 32 T2:Uh? (Switches to Amharic and students
 start guessing different answers by yelling
 different alternatives)

- T2:sorry!...Sorry!drivers was(adds as an alternative)So the answer is what?
- 34 students: E
- 35 T2:eh.sorry ok!Let me read some 'points',Some important points from what we have previously learned,ok?
(writes on the board'past participle')what is past participle?what does that mean?what is past participle?only a student?only two students? you learned past participle ..before ten days like that,isn't it?past participle
- 36 student: verb three
- T2:verb three, is that enough? Have we said that? Is that enough? Is that the definition?(pause) Ask yourself that is where you are now,where you are now?what does,what is the use of past participle?what is the condition of past participle? (pause)uh?
- 37 student: past participle are used to use perfect tenses
- 38 T2: to use! thank you very much! To make perfect tense.you know!said nicely,another?
- 39 student: to talk about past
- 40 T2:sorry?
- 41 student :to talk about past
- 42 T2:this is what you have learned?nothing else I asked you new.(Silence and teacher starts moving around)that is surprising!it is meaningless my repeating now and then.my repeating again and again has no value. You have written on your exercise book and you can read...(inaudible)as well as on your text book. This is what? some of questions that will appear on your exam.
ok!i have said that past participle ,what we commonly say on the old book is... ..is arrangement , vertical arrangement ,a verb which eh! written on the third eh?column,commonly they are verbs (switches to Amharic)The use of past participle we want to make perfect tenses,perfect tenses there are so many perfect tenses. And another second use is to make passive voices,passive voices. By the way,your knowledge of knowing passive voice,to make passive voice to make that and this is not important.for example, If I say Daniel has broken the glass,is what?by

- the way, what does that mean? daniel has broken the glass, daniel has broken the glass. Which word is past participle and what is the function of past participle, in this case., yeah? (to a student)
- 43 student 1: broken
- 44 T2: broken is past participle. What the function?
- 45 student 2: it tell us mm.... the past of
- 46 T2: (Chuckles) uh?
- 47 Student 3: it tell us about the broken glass
- 48 T2: No, No, No .It Uh?
- 49 student 3 :the position
- 50 T2: it did what? In this case, it is present perfect tense , 'has broken'. still your knowledge of present perfect is not enough. By using the example 'I have already eaten my lunch' employed what? the present uh? past participle. if I say 'my mobile was stolen' if I say. Don't write (turns to board and reads out loud while writing) 'my mobile was stolen.' if I say, which one is present perfect and what its function? in a given sentence which word is past participle and the what is its function? (pause)
- 51 student 1: stolen
- 52 T2: stolen is what?
- 53 student 2: past participle
- 54 T2: no, you should have raised your hand. What is the function?
- 55 students: simple past
- 56 T2: are you sure? Is that simple past? simple past, by the way, simple past, the case is simple past. what is the name of the simple past? What is the category? We may categorize simple past sentences into, ..into active and passive. The active is what? simple past . active voice the passive what? passive voice .Is that not? you are right! what kind of simple past? (teacher moves around) yeah?
- 57 student: (inaudible)
- 58 T2: (chuckles and talks in Amharic)
- 59 student: past passive voice
- 60 T2: yeah! simple past passive voice .I don't want to kill my time here. Write this one (starts writing on the board) The underlined word is what? In your national examination, it will become like this, A past participle b, present participle c, and so on. Abebech

got the broken glass. The underlined word is, I don't need to give you choice. (teacher moves around while students raise hands. then proceeds to give examples in Amharic)	
61 62 T2: Uh? Past participle, right? The underlined word is past participle. What is the thing in the glass? It's honey. What's the use of honey? It is used to supply energy. What is the use? (starts using Amharic) After we know to identify the use of past participle, we can simply employ or use it conversational in speaking as well as writing. What is the use? shhh! the underlined word is past participle used as adjective. It is not adjective used as, like adjective. (pause and then switches to Amharic) (writes on board and reads aloud) meron has bought the new brown rectangular china plate. In this sentence how many adjective we have? how many adjectives we have? Before, that what is the name of adjective? What is the use of adjective? I mean, what is the use of adjective? what does adjective? (calls a student)	students: past participle
63 64 T2: yes, it is any word which tell us more about a noun or a word which modifies, to modify means what?	student: a word that tell us more about a noun
65 T2: to describe is what? to qualify, is any word or a word which modifies, qualifies or tell us more about noun is said to be adjectives. Therefore, in this given sentence, in the given statement, how many adjectives we have? and what are they? (pause) meron has bought the new brown rectangular china plate.	students: describe
66	student: new
67 T2: new, one	
68	student: [brown]
69 T2: [brown, two]	
70	student: rectangular
71 T2: rectangular, china, china plate. Let me, let me please, let me write each word. By the way you found noun? yeah?	
72	student: meron

73 T2:meron is noun.you are right!you are right!which one is the modified noun?(underlining the adjectives on the board)four adjectives. All four adjectives speak about what?

74

student:noun

75 T2: do they speak about,No ,about what ?do they speak about meron?no,not at all!(pause)..yeah?

76

student 1:[china]

77

student2:[plate]

78 T2:plate.by the way,plate,you know plate. plate is what?

79

student: 1: [dish].

80

student2: [dish]

81 T2:dish!listen to me ,this is adjective of quality (pointing to new).adjective of quality. What you are call this?(pointing to plate)

82

student:noun

83 T2:adjective of quality is modifying noun.Oh my God! Qualities are adjectives.qualities of what?.. (inaudible)what you call this(points to rectangular) shapular adjectives,shape.What was this(points to china)proper what?proper adjectives.proper adjectives are,they were born from what?from proper noun. We have like,we have proper adjectives. (writes on the board)which one is adjective?she gave me a book.she gave me a book.Which one is adjective in this sentence?

84

students:(raise hand)

85 T2:articles, you find different articles are adjectives. Does the word, let me ask you one thing,Let me ask you one thing. She gave me one book ,she gave me one book if I say,which word is adjective?

86

student1: [one]

87

student 2: [one]

88

student 3. [all numbers are adjectives].

89 T2:therefore what is the implication?, what is the meaning 'a book'?a book means one book meaning what?any book meaning what ?every book meaning what?each book.Nathnael, please!She gave me a book means what?she gave me one book? anybook.....'a ' is what? adjective.Another example (writes believe on the board and pointing at it) Is this,is this correct spelling?Is this word has been written correctly or spelt correctly?believe

90

91 T2: 'i'(elabotates in Amharic)I'll tell you,another way
some systematic way to handling things. 'believe'
is correct,correct!what about this?(writes eight
on the board)

92

93

95

96 T2:what does mean 'believe'by the way ?believe

97

98

100

101 T2:are you sure ?

102

104

105 T2:bitter,bitter

106

108

109 T2:salty,salt is noun,salty.

110

89

- 112 student:sour(without raising hand)
- 113 T2:sour,what,what does mean sour?shhh
- 114 student:the taste of grawa
- 115 T2:the taste of what?in chemistry ,the taste ,
the taste of what?the
- 116 student1:[base]
- 117 student2: [acid]
- 118 T2:acid,be careful the taste of base.My big question is
not on this. My big question is how to make the
comparative and the superlative degree.
Once you know which and which are adjectives,
adjectives of taste.the (inaudible)similarly,
Once you know which are or what are adjectives of taste.
You can make it all of them three ways.in what,
in comparative degree and as ,as superlative degree.
That means if you are clear with this sentence,I mean
this work,you can be clear with those words
let's see,Can you make(switches to Amharic)Can
you make comparative degree to or one or these
adjectives of taste in to two ways. Yes,Eden! Am
looking at you
- 119 student:Grawa is mm...
- 120 T2:shhh!speak up! Grawa is
- 121 student:Grawa is bitterer than milk
- 122 T2:bitterer than(praises in Amharic) Sweeterer than .
The word itself....er it says what?the regular
comparative forms of some words....(inaudible)to
make comparative degree ,they add 'er' unless
'ier'.another case,the word ..(BELL RINGS)

Appendix C

TRANSCRIPT 3

Lesson of teacher 3

- 1 T3: uhh (clears throat)Ok!take out the text book
on page 86.Last time, we begin language focus ,
zero conditional .Before beginning today's lesson
to say something about last time lesson. First,
who can summarize the last time lesson in short,Ruth,
- 2
- 3 T3:Good!
- 4
- 5 T3: that's good! uh?.....I want you to say something
(waits)
- 6
- 7 T3:We can use in zero conditional, uh we have seen
the structure of zero conditional.We can begin a
sentence in what?subject.
- 8
- 9 T3:that's good!yeah,we learned last time zero
conditional. We can use this conditional for what? for
things that always true and for scientific facts and
when we see the structure of this uh..Zero conditional
uh! it's what? Both clauses are simple present ,
simple present and we can begin also sentence using
what? we can begin a sentence 'when' , 'unless' .
'Unless' we can use 'when' ,if it is a sentence. If it's
what?if it is the 'if clause ' is what ?negative. We can
use instead of saying uh!if not we can use unless.
Today, we will see uh .It's speaking. How can we give
advice to young children. Last time also we begin but
we can not do more.I want you now, to form a group ...
uh this activity is done in a group.so you will have to
arrange a member of four or five students.first, I want

student :we learned about zero conditional.
it's ...(inaudible)

Student: in the previous class, we discussed
about zero conditional. We use the zero
conditional to talk aboutsituations that
are always true such as scientific facts or
general truth.

Student: (inaudible)

Student: when the if clause come first, coma
is usually used .When the if clause comes
in the place of the main clause,we don't use
comma .

you to what ?form a group. Yes ,make yourself in group depending on your interest.

10 students: (start moving around and forming groups)

11 T3: ok! work in a small group to make sentence using zero conditional tenses. Use the phrase in the box below. You can look example ,it is given to you. If people keep their illness secret,this leads to what?fear and suspension.now ,I want you to use the information that are listed down in a box.use those phrases and make zero conditional. Now in your group,you can what?you can chat,you can discuss ,you can speak and try to make your own sentences using what?using the given information in the box.you have the right ,start to say.you can ... (inaudible) to have the right to speak in your seat. you have the right,you have the right.you have the right ,don't be silent.

12 students :((keep talking in groups)

13 T3:all the given information are what?facts or general truth, facts or general truths or what?scientific facts. So we can what?we can make conditional sentence. Zero conditional sentence. And the structure is both clause are simple present,simple present. what clause is what given to you? (pause while students are working together) ok!who can give me one example using the first one?one example to the whole class.I want you... Ruth.

14 student:if you..If a person becomes infected with HIV,he must protect himself.

15 T3: That's good! but I want you to only use one phrase.

16 Student: (Inaudible)

17 T3:Yeah, that's good! If you for example, if you make unprotected sex,you become infected with what? with HIV/AIDS.Again follow me and look the given phrases.If you make unprotected sex ,you become affected with HIV/AIDS. You become affected with HIV/AIDS is what?given to you. You are what?you are only... (inaudible)Uh! Who can give me other? who can add one more?

18 Student1: if you wash your hand always, you can protect yourself from other diseases.

19 T3: yeah!again , look what(inaudible)says and how
can he construct a sentence .again, I want you to
listen him.say it again.

20

21 T3: yeah!if you wash your hand before meal,you
protect yourself from any disease. Again!just look
what is given to you and how can we construct
zero conditional .Again,say it !if you

24

25 T3:if you wash your hand

26

27 T3: before meal

28

29 T3::you can protect yourself from any disease,uH!

30

31 T3::uh!you are right .say it loudly.I want
you to say it loudly.

32

33 T3:if you not wash your hands,

34

35 T3:you can get disease. Yeah! Those are facts, general
truth .it's good! uh?

36

37 T3;if you are learnt

38

39 T3:uh!yeah?it's good !now ,I want you to do this ,the
whole .I want you to do it and I want you to select
your representative and have its own mark. It is have
at least ,I give you ,if you satisfy me,I give you ten
points. This mark(writes on the board).write it on a
paper, select your representative and your representative
is what?is going to present and read..I
want you to do it.

40

41 T3: only I give you five minutes, five minute,You
have only five minutes.I want you to chat on the
given phrases.I want you to construct your own
sentence.Your sentence must be fact s or reality or
or(inaudible)or scientific facts. Be careful for the

student1: if you wash your hand
always, you can protect yourself from
other diseases

student1: if you wash

student 1: before meal

student 1: you can protect yourself

student 1: if you not wash your
hands,you can get disease .

student 1: if you not wash your hands ,

student 1: you can get disease.

student :if you are learnt....if you are
learnt

student:you can take care of HIV
patients

students: (start working in groups)

structure. The structure must be simple present,
simple present both clauses. Don't be silent. You can
chat, you can discuss because you have a right.
this section is discussion section. (pause)
now, you have only two minutes. (pause) uh? time is
up! I want you to summarize. Only I give
you one minute. Choose your representative. I want
you to choose your representative .. (BELL RINGS)

Appendix D

TRANSCRIPT 4

Lesson of teacher 4

- 1 T4: your attention please, your attention! ok.today ,
today we are going to have a revision class about
present perfect tense and simple past tense,
simple past tense.ok !let's have ok,First of all, can
you tell me the form,the form of present perfect
tense? or let me ask you one question,uh...,what
similar thing they do have ?what similar things
these three,these three sentences have?what
similarities ?what do you think they do have in
common?do these three sentences have in common?
(Pointing at three sentences written on the board)
- 2 student: what the three sentence
have,the word have
- 3 T4: ok,the word have ,very good! The word have.the
word have,very good!yes? whatelse...whatelse?what
similar thing do they have ?do they have?
- 4 student:verb three verb.
- 5 T4:they do have past participle,past participle.Whatelse?
whatelse?what thing do they have in common?yes?
- 6 student:they do have subject
- 7 T4: they do have, yes!subject.Very good!subject..
subject,subject plus
- 8 students:have
- 9 T4:have or has plus
- 10 students :past participle
- 11 T4:past participle is what? the form of
- 12 students:present perfect
- 13 T4:the form of present perfect tense,the form of
present perfect tense. Come on! Let's see the affirmative
form of present perfect tense, the affirmative form
of. When we say 'affirmative', it's to mean...yeah?
- 14 student:positive
- 15 T4:positive.it's to mean positive.nNow,the affirmative form
of present perfect tense is this one(pointing to the board)
I have played.I have played.and the negative form is what?
they have not ,they have not.not is what?
- 16 students:negative
- 17 T4:the negative marker of course. The negative marker.

The interrogative, the interrogative form of present perfect tense is what?

18 students: have they

19 T4: Have they played question mark. Have they played question mark. Look, look! when you look at affirmative and negative sentence, affirmative and negative sentence, the subject comes first, alright! the subject comes first but in the case of interrogative question, I mean, in the case of interrogative, 'have' comes first alright? and the subject comes after the, after what?... (inaudible) mark and the past participle, alright! and then past participle. good, good!

After having said about the form, let's talk about the function of present perfect. The function of present perfect. Can you tell me the function or the use of present perfect tense?

20 student: used to express an action just completed

21 T4: ok, very good indeed! we use the present perfect tense to express an action which has recently been what? completed. Can you tell me an example of this kind, for example, an example of this kind?

22 student: I have, for example, he has just come.

23 T4: 'He has just come, has just come. he has just come. He has just come back.' now, just is what? an adverb. What kind? An adverb of time or it is a word which indicates what? time. just is to mean what? just is to mean what? very short time ago. It's to mean very short time ago. Then we use present perfect tense to express an action which has recently been what? completed, completed. What do you think then is the other use of present perfect tense, the other use of present perfect tense?

24 student: my sister has just.....

25 T4: ok! this is an example. thank you very much! but what is the other function of present perfect tense, the other function, yes?

26 student: to express an action in the past

27 T4: ok! to express an action which began some definite time and still continuing until the time of speaking. Can you tell me an example of this kind. An example of this kind?

28
29 T4: uhh, not of course! This can't be an example for this

30
31 T4: I haven't seen him lately, not of course, not! uhh...,
for example, eh... for example, for example, I can
say that I have, I have taught English for ten years.
I have taught English for ten years. It's to mean, it's
to mean that I have taught, I have, I've started
teaching English but since what?

32
33 T4: since (switches to amharic). It's to mean what?
I still, I still... I am still teaching English. I am still
teaching English. I started teaching English ten
years before, that means ten years ago... I am still
what? teaching English. Then, it expresses an action
which began some definite time in the past and
still continuing up to the time of speaking. can
you tell me the other use of present perfect,
the other use?

34
35 T4: excellent one! Very nice indeed! We use the present
perfect tense to express an action which has been
completed but whose effect is still continuing up to
the time of speaking. Can you tell me an example of
this kind? can you tell me? for example, I can say, I... I
bought my dinner, dinner (writing it on the board) Ok! It
says "I bought my dinner. Can you tell me the effect?
What is the effect? What is the effect? We said that we
use present perfect to express the completed action but
whose effect is still continuing up to the time of speaking.
Now, can you tell me then the effect from the given
sentence? I bought my dinner, I bought my dinner.

36
37 T4: I don't need to eat anything. That means I am
satisfied all right! That means I am satisfied. Now,
I have had my dinner. Now, the action is completed
all right! The action is completed. He, he ate what? He
ate his dinner, but the effect is, .. he is satisfied so he
don't need what? or he doesn't need what? to eat
another thing. Another thing, it is to mean like this
or I can say that I cut my finger. I cut my finger.
The action is already completed but the effect is

student: I (inaudible) my dinner.

student: I haven't seen him lately.

student: ten years

student: to express an action which is
completed but the effect is still
continuing.

student: I do not need to eat anything.

my finger is still what? bleeding, all right? My finger is still bleeding. This is what effect is to mean. Can you tell me another use of present perfect tense? The other use of present perfect tense, yes?

38

39 T4: of course we said it .Thank you so much! We said it, yes?

40

41 T4: and continues. We said it, but we use present perfect to express an action. An action whose time of completion is not definitely stated, alright! is not definitely stated. For example, I can say uh... the train has left (writing it on board) I can say the train has left, the train has left. But do you think it's possible to say the train has left at three o'clock? Is it possible to say the train has left at three o'clock? Is it possible? Is it possible to say? Is it possible to say the train has left at three o'clock? I told you that the function, the other function of present perfect tense is to express an action which, which what? completed but whose time of completion, completion is not definitely stated. We said this thing. Then, is it possible to say the train has left at three o'clock? Is it possible? yes?

42

43 T4: why? why?

44

45 T4: ok, yes! then the problem is what? mentioning

46

47 T4: mentioning the particular or the specific time, right! mentioning, so we don't need, we don't need. There's no need to mention the specific time. In the case of what? present perfect tense but, but if we are interested about the specific time that the action performed, it's better or preferable for us to use what? simple past tense rather than what? rather than present perfect. alright? rather than present perfect tense. It's possible to mention the specific time, the specific time that the action is committed in the case of what?

48

student:.....(inaudible)

student: to express action that past but still continues.

student: no

student: no because we use the..the, we use present perfect tense without the expression of definite time.

student: on the time

student: in the case of simple past.

49 T4:in the case of simple past tense,In the case of simple past,allright?In the case of simple past tense.Ok,after having said this ,after having said this about present perfect tense.,let's move on to ,let's move on to the next part about simple past tense.and then I'll try to give kind of classwork ok?(silence while teacher writes) simple past,Come on!(reads aloud while writing three examples on board)Now,I want you to look , to take a look at the example ,allright?The examples , what...what similar things do they have then?What thing do they have in common?what thing do they have in common?what?

50

student:they have subject plus

51 T4;uh,uh!what thing ,thing do they have in common.yes?

52

student:they have subject and also they have

53 T4:yes,subject ,subject,subject. Yes,look in this case 'they' is the subject and again 'they'is the subject here, and they is also the subject in here,right?what else do they have in common,then?

54

student:v2

55 T4:v2,v2..very good indeed!v2,subject plus v2,very good!v2,uh..ok,then let's talk about ,let's talk about regular and irregular verbs.Can you tell me the difference between regular and irregular verbs ?By the way,in some text books ,in some books, it says subject plus verb plus -ed but it is impossible of course ,there are situations in which this form is not what?true all right?Is not true in the case of simple past tense.Can you tell me what ..what ?let me tell you in some books it says that the form of simple past tense is ,subject plus verb plus -ed,it says .But there are situations under which this form is what?falsified.Can you tell me the situation?

56

student:yes,there are reasons ..when we see regular and irregular verbs,first when we see irregular verbs but first when we see regular verbs,they ask -ed when they changed in that part but when we see in the regular,irregular verbs they didn't add -ed but for example ,when we see 'take' the past is 'took'...eh..In

this case it is not -ed. It has another part changed.

57 T4: Very good, indeed! excellent! what you said is right.
Can you tell me the v2 form of make? can you tell me the
v2 form of

student: made

58
59 T4: made and v3, ... v3

students: made

60
61 T4: made again, alright! What about last?

students: lasted

62
yes, for example, made is an example of irregular verb,
all right? make is an example of irregular verb. As she
said, as she said, irregular verbs are verbs that have
their own special word when they are changed into
what? simple past tense or past participle. For example,
as you can see here, when we, when we make the
simple past tense of make, it has its own special
word, when it is changed into what? simple past
tense and

students: past participle

64
64 T4: past participle, all right, past. but when we take ..
when we take the ... the verb last, it has regular rule,
of course, it's followed regular rule when it's changed
into what? simple past tense and past participle.
Regular verbs are verbs that have -d or -ed at the
end of what? the verb when they are changed
into what? simple past tense or past participle. Well
last is an example of what? an example of, yes?
Regular verb ok? As you can see here, the subject
in the case of affirmative and negative sentence,
the subject comes first, alright? the subject comes
first and what? the verb comes next to what? the
subject. i mean, the subject comes first and the verb
comes after what? but in the case of what?
interrogative, in the case of interrogative, the
helping verb comes first alright? the helping verb
comes first and then the subject comes and what?
the main verb comes after what? The subject alright?
you have to look at the structure. You have to look at
the structure.
let's talk about the function of subject. The function of
simple past tense, function. function (reads aloud
while writing) can you tell me the function of simple
past tense, yes?

- 65
- 66 T4:completed!can you give me an example of this kind?
for example?
- 67
- 68 T4:played. 'I played.' is an example of what?an example
of present perfect tense.present perfect tense.yes?
- 69
- 70 T4:I met her this morning.i met her this morning.
Now,this morning is a time indicator!Specific
time indicator ,allright?Don't forget!when
we talk about present perfect tense,present
perfect tense,I told you that,I told you .We said
that we use present perfect tense to express
an action which is completed in the past but
whose time of completion ,completion is not
stated with it but if we would like to give due
attentionfor the specific time that the action
performed. We prefer to use what? Simple past
tense.all right,simple past tense.As she said 'I
met her this morning',This morning is what?
Specific time indicator,specific time indicator.
Excellent you are!.What is the other use of
simple past,simplepast tense,yes?
- 71
- 72 T4:with the help of auxiliary verb 'used to'.It says
'used to ','isn't it?We use simple past tense
to express what?to express
- 73
- 74 T4:habitual action in the past which is no longer
exhibited in the present time,all right?which is
no longer exhibited or seen in the present time.
Can you give me an example .ok!let me give you
the example and then you 'll tell me the answer,
You'll tell me the answer.for example,I can say
that 'I used to smoke cigarette'if I say,what do
you think is the meaning of this sentence? I
used to smoke cigarette',if I say ,what do you
think is the meaning of this sentence.yes?
- 75
- 76 T4:still up to the present time that means
- student:the action is completed or past
- student:I ...played.
- student:I met her this morning.
- student:we use the simple past for the
habitual action in the past with the help
of the auxiliary verb 'used to'.
- student:habitual action is in thepast.
- student:the meaning of the sentence 'I
used to smoke cigarette, you always
smoked cigarette and

77

78 T4:ok!no not ofcourse,yes?

79

80 T4:I stopped smoking what?cigarette .it's to mean like that because we use the simple past to express what? past habit, alright? past habit and I said that which is no longer exhibited or seen at the present time. I said, at the present time so 'used to' when we say, it expresses what ?It expresses past habit alright? past habit and habit is not exhibited at the present time,alright ? when I say 'I used to smoke cigarette(L1 translation) I used to smoke cigarette and I used to play football,if I say(L1 translation)but the action is no longer exhibited at the present time.After having said this ,let me try to give you a kind of classwork so that you can possible practice the difference.uh?

81

T4:You can, you can It is a revision class work, of course. It's revision class. Let me give you four questions.(teacher starts writing)
ok!Let's do it together .please,,let's do it together.
What is the answer for the first question?what should be.what's the correct form of the verb in bracket and why?and why?yes?Ilet me give you the chance.

82

83 T4:I have visited.have visited or had visit?

84

85 T4:have visited?

86

87 T4:visited,have visited Awassa many times. What's your reason to say so?

88

89 T4:but let me ask you one question .Is it possible to say'I visited Awassa many times'?.Is it possible to say?

90

91 T4?why?

student:yes,still up to the present time I smoke

student:first time I used the cigarette but this time I didn't use it now.

Student :(ask in Amharic)

student:the answer must be 'I have visit Awassa many times'.

student:have visited

student:have visited

student:because when we change into present perfect tense,we must add 'have' or 'has'. Then we change the noun,the verbs into past participle.

student:no

92

93 T4:but I ordered you,I ordered you to change the verb in bracket into either simple past tense or present perfect tense,all right?simple past tense or present perfect tense.So you prepare,you prefer the present perfect tense but what is the reason behind,what is the reason behind? This is the basic question that I would like to know. Have a seat,please!(to the student attempting to answer the question)let me ask some other student.yes ?What is your answer first?

94

95 T4:have visited,why?

96

97 T4:uh!what you said is right !the answer is right! but the reason is not right.yes?

98

99 T4:ok.

100

101 T4:when you say the definite time, The definite time is not what?mentioned.it says many times,many times.Does it express,does it indicate the specific time?does it indicate definite time?

102

103 T4:It doesn't indicate ,of course.they,we use present perfect tense to express an action which is completed and whose time of completion is not definitely stated.We say.what you say is right, good!Let's do number two,Let's do number two. I visit ,I visit awassa two years ago.It says two years ago and the answer should be what?

104

105 T4:I... I went ,what the correct form of verb in

student:because the form or present perfect tense should have 'have' or 'has'.



student 1:have visited

student1:because my reason is when we see 'I have visite..eh.....(inaudible) the action is done in the past but it has effect on us that meansI didn't want to go to Awassa because I have wented to awassa many times.

student2:my answer is 'I have visited awassa many times'

student 2:because we use have,I used have to indicate ...(inaudible) because the time is not mentioned.the time is not mentioned,the time is not mentioned.

students:no

student:I went to awassa

- 106 bracket?what's the correct form of the verb 'visit'?
- 107 T4:simply we add -ed ,why?
- 108
- 109 T4:the action is completed and ..and... and..and
- 110
- 111 T4:it indicates,very good indeed!two years ago
indicate what?specific or definit time that the
action is what?completed,allright?I visited,allright!
I visited Awassa two years ago.Now,in this sentence,
in this sentence there is what?specific time indicator,
right? Specific time indicator two years ago.Let's, let's
do question number three together.
In 1985, it says in 1985 we dash ,I mean we...uh .
the verb we have in the bracket says live in Dembidolo,
but since then we ,the verb in bracket says 'move' to
awassa.the answer should be what?the first blank
space,the first blank space?
- 112
- 113 T4:the reason is
- 114
- 115 T4:yes!in 1985 is what?Specific time or definite time
that the action is performed.so we must use or we
should use what?
- 116
- 117 T4:yes,simple ,simply ,we simply add what? -ed alright?
We visited ,we visited,I mean lived in Dembidolo but
since then we what?we what?an answer could be what?
- 118
- 119 T4:the action is ,has just completed.....(inaudible)
but since then,since then,since then that means
uh the answer could be (BELL RINGS).
Still they're in what ?still they are, still they are
living ,they are living in what?
- 120
- 121 T4:still they are living in awassa so we have to use
what?we have to use what?present perfect tense to
indicate an action which began some time in the
- student:[visited]
- students:because the action is
completed,
- student:... (inaudible)
- student:in 1985,we lived in dembidolo
because
- student:the reason is thespecific time is
indicated.
- student:simple past
- student:have moved
have moved.what is your reason then?
student:my reason is the action is just
completed so we
- students:awassa

past and still continuing up to the present moment,
allright?so we have to use ,we have to use 'have
moved',allright?

What about question number four, what about
question number four?Ilast,I mean,I last go to
Cairo three years ago but I dash it says. The answer
could be what?The answer could be what?yes, Addisu,
the answer is what?

122

123 T4:go?go?is that?

124

125

126 T4:I last what?

127

128 T4:went,ofcourse!went,I last went to Cairo three
years agoTthere is what?time,specific time
indicator,Three years ago.and then what?

129

130 T4:and by this we have come to end of the day's
lesson ,Thank you for your attention, good bye!

student 1:I last ,I last go to Cairo.

student 1:I last ,last go

student2:went

student 2:went

student:haven't ,I haven't gone there,,I
haven't gone there since

APPENDIX E

Coding Agreement for T1' s categories

Coder 1								
Coder 2		01	02	03	04	05	06	Total
	01	30						30
	02	4	2					6
	03			28				28
	04				9			9
	05				1	1		2
	06							0
	Total	34	3	28	10	1	0	75

Coding Agreement for T2' s categories

Coder 1								
Coder 2		01	02	03	04	05	06	Total
	01	45	3					48
	02		18					18
	03			13				13
	04			7	7			14
	05					3		3
	06							0
	Total	45	21	20	7	3	0	96

Coding Agreement for T3' s categories

Coder 1								
Coder 2		01	02	03	04	05	06	Total
	01	9						9
	02	1	8					9
	03			5				5
	04				11			11
	05					2		2
	06						0	0
	Total	10	8	5	11	2	0	36

Coding Agreement for T4' s categories

Coder 1								
Coder 2		01	02	03	04	05	06	Total
	01	55						55
	02	5	12	3				20
	03			22				22
	04				8			8
	05					5		5
	06						1	1
	Total	60	12	25	8	5	1	111

APPENDIX F

Lexical representation of T1

Freq. Level	Families	Types	Tokens	Coverage (tokens)%	Cum%
K1 Words :	154	186	991	87.39	87.39%
K2 Words :	20	24	49	4.32	91.71%
K3 Words :	5	6	28	2.47	94.18%
K4 Words :	3	3	7	0.62	94.80%
K5 Words :	3	4	17	1.50	96.30%
K6 Words :	2	2	11	0.97	97.27%
K7 Words :	1	2	12	1.06	98.33%
K8 Words :				0.00	98.33%
K9 Words :				0.00	98.33%
K10 Words :				0.00	98.33%
K11 Words :				0.00	98.33%
K12 Words :	2	3	4	0.35	98.68%
K13 Words :	1	1	1	0.09	98.77%
K14 Words :	1	2	3	0.26	99.03%
K15 Words :				0.00	99.03%
K16 Words :	1	1	1	0.09	99.12%
K17 Words :				0.00	99.12%
K18 Words :				0.00	99.12%
K19 Words :				0.00	99.12%
K20 Words :				0.00	99.12%
Off-List:	?	6	10	0.88	100.00%
Total	193+?	240	1134	100%	100%

Words in text (tokens):	1134
Different words (types):	240
Type-token ratio:	0.21
Tokens per type:	4.72

Pertaining to onlist only

Tokens:	1124
Types:	234
Families:	193
Tokens per family:	5.82
Types per family:	1.21

Lexical representation of T2

Freq. Level	Families	Types	Tokens	Coverage (tokens)%	Cum%
K1 Words :	219	290	1500	86.76	86.76%
K2 Words :	29	38	76	4.40	91.16%
K3 Words :	9	11	22	1.27	92.43%
K4 Words :	6	9	15	0.87	93.30%
K5 Words :	5	6	24	1.39	94.69%
K6 Words :	4	5	14	0.81	95.50%
K7 Words :	1	2	33	1.91	97.41%
K8 Words :				0.00	97.41%
K9 Words :	1	1	2	0.12	97.53%
K10 Words :				0.00	97.53%
K11 Words :				0.00	97.53%
K12 Words :				0.00	97.53%
K13 Words :				0.00	97.53%
K14 Words :	1	1	2	0.12	97.65%
K15 Words :				0.00	97.65%
K16 Words :	1	1	19	1.10	98.75%
K17 Words :				0.00	98.75%
K18 Words :				0.00	98.75%
K19 Words :				0.00	98.75%
K20 Words :				0.00	98.75%
Off-List:	?	14	22	1.27	100.00%
Total	276+?	378	1729	100%	100%

Words in text (tokens): 1729
Different words (types): 378
Type-token ratio: 0.22
Tokens per type: 4.57

Pertaining to onlist only

Tokens: 1707
Types: 364
Families: 276
Tokens per family: 6.18
Types per family: 1.32

Lexical representation of T3

Freq. Level	Families	Types	Tokens	Coverage (tokens)%	Cum%
K1 Words :	140	166	734	91.18	91.18%
K2 Words :	18	19	47	5.84	97.02%
K3 Words :	4	4	5	0.62	97.64%
K4 Words :	4	6	15	1.86	99.50%
K5 Words :				0.00	99.50%
K6 Words :				0.00	99.50%
K7 Words :				0.00	99.50%
K8 Words :				0.00	99.50%
K9 Words :				0.00	99.50%
K10 Words :				0.00	99.50%
K11 Words :				0.00	99.50%
K12 Words :				0.00	99.50%
K13 Words :				0.00	99.50%
K14 Words :				0.00	99.50%
K15 Words :				0.00	99.50%
K16 Words :				0.00	99.50%
K17 Words :				0.00	99.50%
K18 Words :				0.00	99.50%
K19 Words :				0.00	99.50%
K20 Words :				0.00	99.50%
Off-List:	?	2	4	0.50	100.00%
Total	166+?	197	805	100%	100%

Words in text
(tokens): 805
Different words
(types): 197
Type-token
ratio: 0.24
Tokens per type: 4.09

Pertaining to onlist only

Tokens: 801
Types: 195
Families: 166
Tokens per
family: 4.83
Types per
family: 1.17

Lexical representation of T4

Freq. Level	Families	Types	Tokens	Coverage (tokens)%	Cum%
K1 Words :	220	280	2669	91.59	91.59%
K2 Words :	17	22	84	2.88	94.47%
K3 Words :	4	4	60	2.06	96.53%
K4 Words :				0.00	96.53%
K5 Words :	2	3	26	0.89	97.42%
K6 Words :	1	1	1	0.03	97.45%
K7 Words :	3	3	9	0.31	97.76%
K8 Words :				0.00	97.76%
K9 Words :				0.00	97.76%
K10 Words :	1	1	1	0.03	97.79%
K11 Words :				0.00	97.79%
K12 Words :	1	1	2	0.07	97.86%
K13 Words :				0.00	97.86%
K14 Words :				0.00	97.86%
K15 Words :				0.00	97.86%
K16 Words :	1	1	9	0.31	98.17%
K17 Words :				0.00	98.17%
K18 Words :				0.00	98.17%
K19 Words :				0.00	98.17%
K20 Words :				0.00	98.17%
Off-List:	?	15	53	1.82	100.00%
Total	250+?	331	2914	100%	100%

Words in text
(tokens): 2914

Different
words (types): 331

Type-token
ratio: 0.11

Tokens per
type: 8.80

*Pertaining to onlist
only*

Tokens: 2861

Types: 316

Families: 250

Tokens per
family: 11.44

Types per
family: 1.26

Lexical representation of T1's first 805 words

Freq. Level	Families	Types	Tokens	Coverage (tokens)%	Cum%
K1 Words :	129	157	717	89.07	89.07%
K2 Words :	18	20	39	4.84	93.91%
K3 Words :	4	5	15	1.86	95.77%
K4 Words :				0.00	95.77%
K5 Words :	3	4	12	1.49	97.26%
K6 Words :	1	1	2	0.25	97.51%
K7 Words :	1	1	5	0.62	98.13%
K8 Words :				0.00	98.13%
K9 Words :				0.00	98.13%
K10 Words :				0.00	98.13%
K11 Words :				0.00	98.13%
K12 Words :	1	1	1	0.12	98.25%
K13 Words :	1	1	1	0.12	98.37%
K14 Words :	1	2	3	0.37	98.74%
K15 Words :				0.00	98.74%
K16 Words :	1	1	1	0.12	98.86%
K17 Words :				0.00	98.86%
K18 Words :				0.00	98.86%
K19 Words :				0.00	98.86%
K20 Words :				0.00	98.86%
Off-List:	?	5	9	1.12	100.00%
Total	160+?	198	805	100%	100%

Words in text (tokens):	805
Different words (types):	198
Type-token ratio:	0.25
Tokens per type:	4.07

<i>Pertaining to onlist only</i>	
Tokens:	796
Types:	193
Families:	160
Tokens per family:	4.97
Types per family:	1.21

Lexical representation of T2's first 805 words

Freq. Level	Families	Types	Tokens	Coverage (tokens)%	Cum%	
K1 Words :	159	197	722	89.69	89.69%	
K2 Words :	12	17	26	3.23	92.92%	
K3 Words :	5	6	12	1.49	94.41%	
K4 Words :	2	2	2	0.25	94.66%	Words in text (tokens): 805
K5 Words :	3	4	16	1.99	96.65%	Different words (types): 236
K6 Words :	3	4	5	0.62	97.27%	Type-token ratio: 0.29
K7 Words :				0.00	97.27%	Tokens per type: 3.41
K8 Words :				0.00	97.27%	
K9 Words :				0.00	97.27%	
K10 Words :				0.00	97.27%	
K11 Words :				0.00	97.27%	
K12 Words :				0.00	97.27%	
K13 Words :				0.00	97.27%	
K14 Words :				0.00	97.27%	
K15 Words :				0.00	97.27%	
K16 Words :	1	1	13	1.61	98.88%	
K17 Words :				0.00	98.88%	
K18 Words :				0.00	98.88%	
K19 Words :				0.00	98.88%	
K20 Words :				0.00	98.88%	
Off-List:	?	5	9	1.12	100.00%	
Total	185+?	236	805	100%	100%	

Pertaining to onlist only
Tokens: 796
Types: 231
Families: 185
Tokens per family: 4.30
Types per family: 1.25

Lexical representation of T4's first 805 words

Freq. Level	Families	Types	Tokens	Coverage (tokens)%	Cum%
K1 Words :	119	141	751	93.29	93.29%
K2 Words :	5	6	13	1.61	94.90%
K3 Words :	1	1	16	1.99	96.89%
K4 Words :				0.00	96.89%
K5 Words :				0.00	96.89%
K6 Words :				0.00	96.89%
K7 Words :	1	1	6	0.75	97.64%
K8 Words :				0.00	97.64%
K9 Words :				0.00	97.64%
K10 Words :				0.00	97.64%
K11 Words :				0.00	97.64%
K12 Words :	1	1	2	0.25	97.89%
K13 Words :				0.00	97.89%
K14 Words :				0.00	97.89%
K15 Words :				0.00	97.89%
K16 Words :	1	1	5	0.62	98.51%
K17 Words :				0.00	98.51%
K18 Words :				0.00	98.51%
K19 Words :				0.00	98.51%
K20 Words :				0.00	98.51%
Off-List:	?	5	12	1.49	100.00%
Total	128+?	156	805	100%	100%

Words in text (tokens):	805
Different words (types):	156
Type-token ratio:	0.19
Tokens per type:	5.16
.....	
<i>Pertaining to onlist only</i>	
Tokens:	793
Types:	151
Families:	128
Tokens per family:	6.20
Types per family:	1.18

Lexical representation of T4's first 805 words

Freq. Level	Families	Types	Tokens	Coverage (tokens)%	Cum%	
K1 Words :	119	141	751	93.29	93.29%	
K2 Words :	5	6	13	1.61	94.90%	
K3 Words :	1	1	16	1.99	96.89%	
K4 Words :				0.00	96.89%	Words in text (tokens): 805
K5 Words :				0.00	96.89%	Different words (types): 156
K6 Words :				0.00	96.89%	Type-token ratio: 0.19
K7 Words :	1	1	6	0.75	97.64%	Tokens per type: 5.16
K8 Words :				0.00	97.64%	
K9 Words :				0.00	97.64%	
K10 Words :				0.00	97.64%	
K11 Words :				0.00	97.64%	<i>Pertaining to onlist only</i>
K12 Words :	1	1	2	0.25	97.89%	Tokens: 793
K13 Words :				0.00	97.89%	Types: 151
K14 Words :				0.00	97.89%	Families: 128
K15 Words :				0.00	97.89%	Tokens per family: 6.20
K16 Words :	1	1	5	0.62	98.51%	Types per family: 1.18
K17 Words :				0.00	98.51%	
K18 Words :				0.00	98.51%	
K19 Words :				0.00	98.51%	
K20 Words :				0.00	98.51%	
Off-List:	?	5	12	1.49	100.00%	
Total	128+?	156	805	100%	100%	

APPENDIX C
List of Informants

No	Name	Age	Sex	District	Kebele
1	Amanu Ejeta Jarra	70	M	Nunu Kumba	Tibbe
2	Amensisa Negaasa Jarra	67	M	Nunu Kumba	Hambalta
3	Amelu Abara Dame	49	F	Nunnu Kumba	Hambalta
4	Banti Waga Mulata	73	M	Guto Gidda	Horo Aleltu
5	Bashatu Nagari Dingo	56	F	Nunnu Kumba	Wama
6	Bekele Isa Yadesa	72	M	Gidda Ayana	Gaba Arbi
7	Bariya Jano Amayu	63	M	Gidda Ayana	Bosetti
8	Cherinet Wakwoya Galata	47	M	Guto Gidda	Anger Aleltu
9	Dadhitu Kumsa Galata	54	F	Gidda Ayana	Qoqorse
10	Dasse Irena Moroda	52	F	Jimma Arjo	Lalo Negeso
11	Dhabbasa Negeri Danu	57	M	Jimma Arjo	Busano Negeso
12	Ejeta Bechera Kedida	70	M	Jimma Arjo	Jarso Kiltu
13	Bisinge Wodajo Moroda	65	F	Jimma Arjo	Hindhe
14	Hindhibu Ayana Tucho	48	M	Gutu Gidda	Jato
15	Indalu Fufa Jiren	39	M	Guto Gidda	Ukke
16	Itefa Terfa Mirressa	56	M	Nunu Kumba	Hambalta
17	Jaleta Dhangya Tola	72	M	Guto Gidda	Qoqorse
18	Gudeta Lamessa Boru	67	M	Gidda Ayana	Lebu
19	Kulani Boru Dayasa	47	F	Gidda Ayana	Ejere
20	Miresa Wodajo Kumsa	71	M	Gidda Ayana	Lebu
21	Mudaye Kedida Ejerso	60	F	Nunnu Kumba	Wama
22	Bultu Kajela Gemechu	38	F	Guto Gidda	Ukke
23	Kumbe Tolasa Danno	45	F	Jimma Arjo	Badho
24	Bijigdu Sirata Dhuguma	42	F	Guto Gidda	Sandabo
25	Woyesa Ragasa Dhangiya	66	M	Jimma Arjo	Jarso Gindo
26	Dabela Irena Tolina	55	M	Jimma Arjo	Wayu Warke

DECLARATION

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

Name: **BERHANU BEKELE SURA**

Sign:  _____

Place: Addis Ababa University, Institute of Language Studies

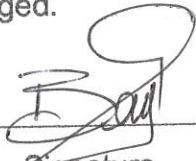
Date of Submission: 16, June 2008

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declared that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university and that all sources of materials used for the thesis have been acknowledged.

BELEN KETEMA

Name


Signature

22/06/12

Date

This thesis has been submitted with my approval as a University Advisor

ALEMU HAILU(PHD)

Name

Signature

Date

