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TEACHER'S FEEDBACK – EFFECTS ON STUDENT'S BEHAVIOUR DURING ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOM LESSON

GUNADEVI JEEVI SUBRAMANIAM

THIS PROJECT PAPER IS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULLFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT OF THE MASTERS DEGREE IN EDUCATION (TESL)

LANGUAGE FACULTY
UNIVERSITI PENDIDIKAN SULTAN IDRIS

2008

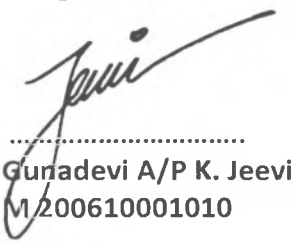
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DECLARATION OF ORIGINAL WORK

I, hereby declare that the work in this dissertation is my own except for quotations and summaries which have been duly acknowledged.

Dated: 10 April 2008 Signature,



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Gunadevi A/P K. Jeevi Subramaniam
M200610001010

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my lecturer, Dr. Abdul Ghani Abu for his encouragement and support during the preparation of my project paper. I deeply appreciate his constructive comments given throughout the supervisory sessions and his willingness to spend time to read my project paper at various stages.

I would like to thank English Language Lecturer Puan Fathimah Bt Abdullah and her students from Semester 2 who allowed me to video-record their lessons and interview them. The sessions with them gave me valuable insights into their daily encounter in the classroom.

I am greatly indebted to all others to give support to finish up my project paper successfully.

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Abstrak

Kajian ini memeriksa kesan maklumbalas guru terhadap perlakuan pelajar semasa pelajaran Bahasa Inggeris dijalankan. Kajian ini adalah satu kajian kes yang melibatkan seorang guru Bahasa Inggeris dan satu kelas pelajar semester 2 di sebuah Politkenik di Malaysia. Teknik yang digunakan untuk mengumplu data ialah perakaman video dan temuabual. Tiga pelajaran Bahasa Inggeris dirakamkan. Guru dan beberapa orang pelajar ditemubual selepas tiap-tiap pelajaran tamat. Semua temuabual dirakamkan secara audio. Rakaman pelajaran dan temubual kemudiannya ditanskripsikan. Dapatan kajian ini menunjukan bahawa maklumbalas guru member motivasi kepada pelajar untuk mengambil bahagian dalam bilik darjah, menggalakkan pelajar, membimbing pelajar membentulkan kesilapan dan menggalakkan pelajar member pendapat. Dengan menambahkan lagi kesedaran tentang cara member respons kepada jawapan pelajar, guru dapat mempertingkatkan lagi proses pengajaran dan pembelajaran.

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Abstract

This study examines the effects of teacher's feedback on students' behaviour. It is a case study involving an English Language and a class of Semester 2 students. The techniques used to collect data were video-recording and interviewing. 1 English Language lesson was video-recorded. After the recording the teacher and a few students were interviewed. The interviews were audio-recorded. The recordings of the lessons and the interviews were then transcribed. Analysis of the lessons showed that the teacher provided feedback explicitly and implicitly. Explicit feedback was expressed verbally and non-verbally. Verbal feedback comprised of that made linguistically as well as non-linguistically. Linguistic feedback given was categorized further into acceptance, non-acceptance, check, elicitation, correction and opinion. The findings showed that teacher feedback motivated students to participate in classroom discourse, encouraged students to think critically, provided information to the students, guided students to correct their errors and encouraged students to give opinions. As a result of teacher feedback students contributed information, confirmed information given contradicted

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

SAT	=	Speech act theory
SR	=	Model
S	=	Stimulus situation
R	=	organism's response
I-R-F	=	Initiate – Respond – Follow-up
I	=	Initiating move
R	=	Response from the class
F	=	Follow-up comments
T	=	Teacher
S	=	Student
SS	=	Students
S1-S42	=	Arrangement of students code.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

Feedback plays an important role in human communication. The use of feedback to check comprehension of a message is common in everyday discourse. The listener provides feedback to show that he is listening to the speaker, at the same time, the speaker can give clarification on certain unclear information. With regard to correction of mistakes, in most social encounters outside the classroom no one participant is specified as having the automatic right to impose judgment on the other's behaviour (Chaudron, 1988:132). As teachers, in classroom discourse, teachers do make correction and give feedback to the students. As teachers, in the classroom they are expected to execute their vested instructional authority to evaluate any and all the student's behaviour (Chaudron, 1988:133)

According to Chaudron (1988) feedback is used as a tool in daily classroom. It is used to correct student' errors and also provide additional information about certain topics, to reinforce learning and to motivate students. Feedback is an important ingredient in classroom discourse. Feedback is an inevitable component of classroom

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interaction. Students derive information about their response from feedback given by the teacher.

In view of the variety of situations in which feedback is used, it is proper to look at feedback from various perspectives.

1.1 The concept of feedback

According to Fisher and Ellis (1990:63) any behaviour performed by a person after receiving a source's message is naturally interpreted as a feedback response. Feedback responses are usually is done during a communicative event. Feedback responses are constantly occurs throughout an interaction among individuals. A message which is sent travels along a channel to another person, the receiver, who reacts to this message. The receiver 'feeds back' information to the sender who interprets it as feedback because it is interpreted as a response to the message transmitted earlier (Fisher and Ellis, 1990). According to Fisher and Ellis (1990: 63) any behaviour performed by a person after receiving a source's message is naturally interpreted as a feedback response.

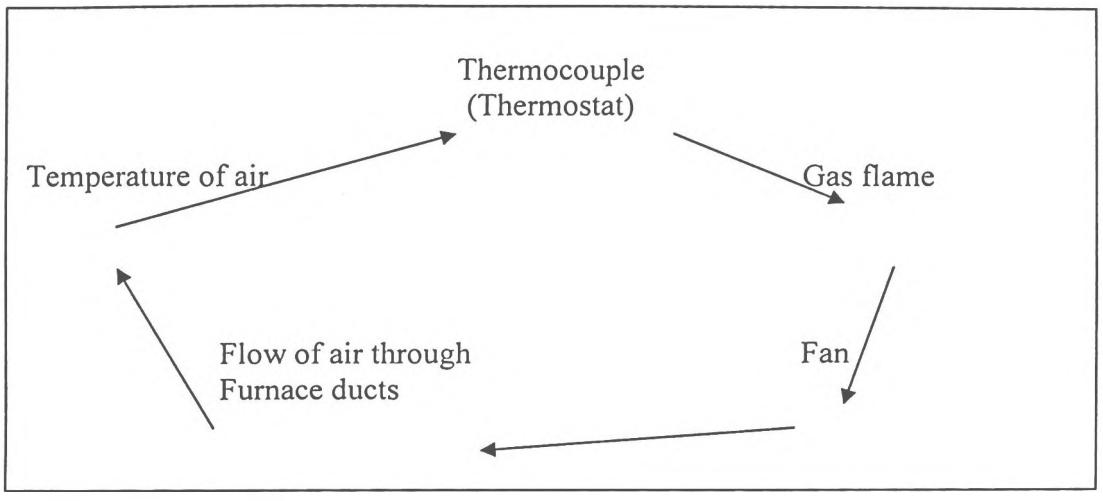
The term 'feedback' has been derived from the field of cybernetics which deals with the study of control, that is, how machines and humans normally function and how they control any deviation from the normal path (Fisher and Ellis, 1990: 103). To illustrate the concept of cybernetics figure 1.1 is referred to.

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Figure 1.1

The feedback cycle of a thermostat



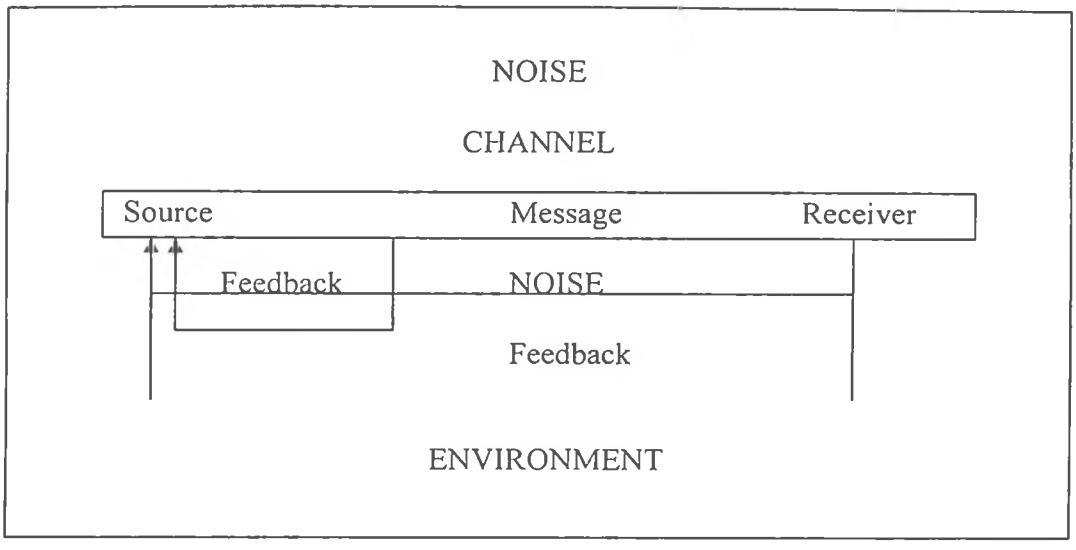
In human communication, feedback is the component in the communication process that allows the source to monitor the receiver's response to the message (Seiler, 1984:8) also state that feedback supplies a means for insuring accurate communication exchanges and indicates whether or not the communication has been received and understood, Seiler et al (1984) presents a model of communication where feedback is a component as shown is figure 1.2.

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Figure 1.2

Feedback as a pedagogical device



In a classroom teaching, teacher asks students questions and students answer them. Teacher then provides feedback to the students regarding their performance. The feedback that the teacher gives can be either positive or negative. If a positive feedback is given, then the exchange ends, but if the teacher gives a negative feedback, the student is required to respond to it.

1.1.1 Effects of feedback

The solicitation of feedback from teachers as a course unfolds (*interim* feedback) is essential for students to improve their learning in response to teachers teaching in the classroom. This type of feedback allows teachers to see "where [they have] been and where [they are] progressing" (Lewis, 1969, p. 33), in turn allowing them to modify their

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teaching methods rapidly and continuously. The nature of the feedback provided by the teacher helps improvement in teaching.

According to Tunku Mohani (1996), teacher feedback produces a variety of student responses. It is apparent that teacher feedback has produced effects which are motivational to the students.

In another study along the same lines, Ainol Marziah Zubairi from Centre for Language and PreUniversity Academic Development International Islamic, UM, (1995) states that proposed to make teaching more effective and attractive by teacher giving feedback orally. One study looked at the tone used by a teacher when communicating and the words gives and changes the student's behaviour. She reported that teacher as the instructor in a classroom should be less formal with their students. Classroom-based communicate with students will make students respond spontaneously.

According to Kulhavy and Wager (1993), feedback enables students to correct errors, confirms the correct responses they have made and helps them to conform to the requirement of the lesson. These effects show the observable response of the students. Using a model which have constructed, Kulhavy and Stock (1989) explain that students conduct a mental evaluation of the feedback provided to them. They compare their answer to the answer that is given as correct. Kulhavy and Stock (1989) believe that the time and effort students spend on processing feedback depend on how great the discrepancy is between their answer and the correct answer given.

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1.2 Classroom Discourse

In a classroom, spoken language is used as the medium of teaching. Therefore, it is necessary to examine classroom discourse in order to understand how the teacher provides feedback, the types of feedback the teacher give and why it is given.

It is undeniable that teacher talk is necessary in the classroom as the teacher uses it to impart information and to direct students learning such as asking questions and giving instructions. Hoey (1991) believes that 'the real reason that language teachers should consider how discourses are organized is that it will help them to judge better the effectiveness of what they are doing.

According to Behaviorist approach, connectionist learning theories describe and explain behaviour using SR-model. The connection is established between a stimulus or stimulus situation (S) and the organism's response (R) to this stimulus. In behaviorist psychology, the emphasis is on behaviour which may be learned by both humans and animals. The theory explains the learning behaviour of all animal as well as humans. The observable factors would be like plans, intentions, attitudes, etc.

The main representative of this approach to the study of learning behaviour of students as teacher gives feedback during English language is the theory where Ivan Pavlov had initial research about stimulus response (Potter and Wetherell, 1987:78). According to Ivan Pavlov's research it is a classical conditioning, whereby, he believed that he had discovered how animals learned, even in the wild. He said that in order to survive, every animal needed two kinds of reflexes. The sort that was herniated and fixed for life. In the research done by Pavlov with dog, where he used food to stimulate the dog to respond, each time he stimulates the dog with food, the dog responds. By applying the

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same approach in English learning classroom, where when the teacher gives feedback, the students behaviour changes, they respond to the teachers accordingly. For example if the students are give good or positive respond, they would participate more in the class, if they receive negative responds they refuse to participate actively in the class.

According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) in their well-known analysis of classroom discourse, as the third move in the I-R-F (Initiate-Respond-Follow-up) exchange structure, where 'I' represents an initiating move, such as a question posed by the teacher, 'R' is the response from the class- usually from an individual student- and 'F' is the follow-up comment by the teacher. The three moves are illustrated in Example 1 below:

T: What's the boy doing? (I)

S1: He's climbing a tree. (R)

T: That's right. He's climbing a tree. (F)

After the teacher has provided feedback, students normally knows their response is right or wrong.

1.3 Statement of the problem

Feedback given by teachers to students and students responding is one of the communication discourses in English language classroom. Teacher faces problem in how to give feedback and how the students behaviors towards it. There are different ways of improving performance in language learning, but consistent and reliable feedback is a

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vital. (William & Sperber; 1981).Besides that teachers don't really know the different types of feedback and how their feedbacks change their students' behaviour. Feedback can take different forms. For example, we can see our own performance critically and try to improve through try and error, or we can ask someone to help by analyzing the perfect and suggesting ways in which it can improve (William & Sperber; 1981). One of the aims of the English Language Programmed in Malaysian schools is to enable the students to communicate in certain everyday activities. It is stated in the English Language syllabus (Pusat Perkembangan Kurikulum, 1992).

Allwright (1984) views communication practice in the classroom as pedagogically

useful because it represents a necessary and productive stage in the transfer of classroom language to the outside world. Communication practice in this study refers to a term which is the result of a combination of the terms "communication' meaning talking to each other face-to-face, each of the participants alternately playing the roles of speaker and hearer. A verbal interaction between the learner and teacher is what called as communication.

Teacher-fronted structured teaching can provide the necessary input for learners and this would solve the problem of deviant input, and therefore be more efficient than group activities (Bygate, 1988). This study therefore focuses on communication between the teacher and the students, in other words teacher-fronted activities.

Students usually respond to how the teacher organizes the lesson in the classroom. When the teacher applies questioning strategy in the course teaching, the students are accepted to answer. As the students had answered, they aspect respond from the teacher.

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After the student response another question is asked by the teacher. This question asked by the teacher informs the student who responded to the previous question that her answer has been accepted by the teacher. The following question acts as feedback to the students' previous answer.

There are several ways of providing feedback. They include giving verbal feedback, showing performance which has been videotaped or audio taped and giving tests of written comments. In this study verbal feedback of the teacher in a teacher-fronted classroom will be considered.

According to Hewings (1987) less attention has been given to the form of feedback provided by the teacher and a consideration of its possible influence on language learning. This study is therefore, to look at the effects of student's behaviour when getting feedback from their teachers. Feedback becomes meaningful only when the complete teaching exchange is examined. This study examined the following questions of classroom interaction which constitute a teaching exchange:

a. What are the types of feedback the teacher gives to the students?

b. How do the students response towards the teachers' feedback?

c. Do the Feedback teachers provide subsequent to the students response?

d. How are the student's reactions as a result of teacher feedback?

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1.4 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to describe the nature and type of feedback the teacher provides after a response made by the students and the subsequent reaction of the students. The questions intended to be answered are:

a. What are the types of feedback the teacher provides following responses made by students?

b. What is the nature of teacher feedback in response to an answer given by a student?

c. What are the types of responses the students make as a result of feedback given by the teacher?

d. What are the effects of teacher feedback on student behaviour?

This research is based on the assumption that the investigation of the ways in which the teacher provides feedback and the effect it has on student behaviour can lead to useful insight into the language teaching-learning process.

As stated earlier in this study the aim of the English Language Programmed is to enable the students to communicate. Communication is of utmost importance in the teaching and learning situation and it entails a message, a party to transmit the message, a party to receive the message which in this study is the space between two speakers (Celce-Murcia, 1984). In terms of classroom discourse these interactive aspects are known as initiation, response and feedback respectively and these terms will be used in this study.

Another reason for focusing on feedback is the assumption that it contributes to

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learning a second language. Chaudron, (1977) found that teacher feedback that helped to identify an error for students helped them to correct that error. Herron and Tomasello, (1988) discovered structures; feedback given by the teacher helped them locate and identify errors. They were thus able to learn better this way than when they merely receiver a series of correct examples of the new structures.

If feedback is given insufficiently by the teacher or if the teacher does not pay attention to the effect of her feedback, confusion may arise. In his analysis of the teacher's treatment of error Allwright (1988:208) provides an example where the teacher's inconsistency could lead to confusion.

1.5 Significance of the study

The results of this study are meant to provide information to teachers regarding the types of teacher feedback and their effects on the students. The analysis of teacher feedback as related to the student's subsequent response will increase the teacher's awareness of the type of feedback they should use in the classroom to encourage student participation.

By giving a picture of the interaction that occurs in the classroom, teachers can recognize their own strategies in providing feedback to students. The strengths and weaknesses in providing feedback can be detected. This study will be able to direct attention to aspects of teacher feedback which may require changes.

Looking at the student's behaviour which results from the feedback given by the

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teacher, teachers will be able to know how to deal with the student's behavior through their linguistic repertoire. This study also helps to improve the teaching strategies.

Feedback can be sought throughout a course, or in class sessions specifically devoted to interim student-teacher feedback (Harold Pashler,Nicholas J & John, 2005). In such scheduled feedback sessions, the instructor typically prompts students for information about their progress in the course, and their attitudes toward it. The instructor can later use the data to tailor the course to each student's particular learning needs (Harold Pashler,Nicholas J & John, 2005); make incremental changes to instructional delivery, student grouping, or activities/tasks; and facilitate conceptual change (Pica & Doughty, 1985). The instructor's act of requesting and listening to the students' ideas gives them a sense of importance (Lightbown, 2002), indicates the instructor's trust in them (Mackey & McDonough, 2000), and provides them with important metacognitive and affective outlets (Wai King Tsang, 2004). At the same time, the feedback encourages the instructor to reflect on his or her own instruction (Wai King Tsang, 2004). In learner-centered educational environments that aim to accommodate students who are culturally and academically diverse, feedback is especially important, especially when data are systematically and regularly collected (Harold Pashler,Nicholas J & John, 2005). Different forms of feedback occur depending on how educators solicit input from their students, and on the types of feedback that students

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1.6 Limitations of the study.

This study focuses on what happens in a classroom during English Language lessons. The sample is limited to one teacher only and the data may not reveal what may have happened in other teachers' classrooms. The behaviour described is that of one particular teacher and the reaction of students in response to teacher feedback is typical of that particular group of students who are very well accustomed to this teacher's behaviour. The results of this study therefore are not generalized.

1.7 Summary.

This study the aim of the English Language classroom is to enable the students to communicate. Teachers play important role in making the students communicate. One way of making the students communicate is by given feedback. In the following chapter will provide the theoretical framework and different views given by various researchers.

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CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

This chapter provides a theoretical framework which has given direction to conceptualization within which the analysis of data was done. The theoretical framework covers a number of theories as an eclectic approach to analyzing data is advocated. The various theories put forward are meant to be complementary and the topic can thus be studied from the various perspectives.

The studies referred to relate to the topic of this study to some extent. However the approaches taken by them are somewhat different from that taken in this study.

2.1 Interpretation of utterance

The meaning of an utterance is understood within the context of the communication that takes place. The type of communication that is focused in this study is that which transpires between the teacher and the students in a classroom. According to Seedhouse (1994:304).

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> As far as communication is the language classroom is concerned... it has an essential characteristic which distinguishes it from other forms of communication, and that this characteristic is the connection between the pedagogical purposes which underlie different classroom activities and the linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which result from those classroom activities.

The concept of communication in this study also takes into consideration a component included by Dance (1970) in his definition of communication and that is intention. According to Dance (1970:208).

> In the main, communication has its central interest those behavioural situations in which a source transmits a message to a receiver with conscious intent to affect the latter's behaviours.

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Hence in the classroom the teacher presents a lesson with the intent of having the students receive information, and the students listen as they want to learn the information being presented (Seiler et al: 1984) which naturally requires understanding the information. The students also need to recognise the intent of the teacher's utterance in order to respond in an appropriate manner. The teacher may want her students to do some work and her utterance may take the form of a question, for example, 'can you do this exercise as homework?' This utterance is meant to be a command requiring the students to comply to it. Wardhaugh (1989) explains that you must react to the intent of what was said, not just the form in which it was said, if there is to be no misunderstanding.

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Central to the understanding to teacher feedback and its effects is interpretation of the related utterances, namely feedback given by the teacher and the responses make the student (if any), which are mainly linguistic in nature. The utterance produced as feedback may sometimes be direct and can be interpreted semantically based on the proposition stated. An example of teacher feedback following an answer given by a student is 'good'. In the following exchange 'good' expressed by the teacher is evaluative.

(1) T: So they were all happy that night, were they? Anna?
P: No, they weren't at all.
T: No, indeed they weren't. Good.

(Sinclair and Brazil 1982:49)

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The student knows that the answer given is correct and the teacher makes this clear by repeating the response given by the students. The student does not make any addition to the communication discourse as the exchange is closed by the repetition of the answer and is correct. However at times feedback given by the teacher is ambiguous. Students may not be communicatively competent enough to interpret it and hence the effect of such feedback remains unsolved. An example of such an occurrence is evident in an excerpt taken from Mohtar (1988:88).

(2) T: Why do you think he is selfish?
S: He looks like he's going to beat the girl.
T: He looks like he's going to beat the girl. OK

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The repetition of the student's answer is followed by 'OK' which shows 'accept' a term used by Sinclair and coulthard (1978) in providing feedback. However it is followed by the utterance 'if you think so' which throws doubt on the acceptability of the answer by the teacher. This utterance can be correctly interpreted if the intention of the teacher were known. Sbisa (1992) argues that 'if the utterance displays some illocutionary ambiguity, the response it is given can be used for disambiguating its force, for letting it count as a definite illocutionary act' (p.102). However, in the actual situation the student did not ask for any clarification. Hence the illocutionary force could not be confirmed. The student might have felt that it was the norm in the classroom and she did not have the right to question the teacher. This explanation can be supported by Sinclair and Brazil's (1982:45) statement:

> A speaker who is allowed or even expected to make extended follow-ups has to be one in a rather privileged position, because it confers much authority on the pronouncements. Teachers are in this position but students are not, and even in quite informal classrooms it would be difficult for a student to follow up without giving offence.

In the example given 'if you say so' may imply the teacher's acknowledgement of the student's answer but it may not agree with the teacher's version of the answer. The function of that utterance can be explained by examining the speaker's (teacher's) intention (meaning). Wardhaugh (1989) feels that sometimes it is necessary to be explicit about the nature or function of an utterance so that a listener is left in no doubt as to its intent.

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It is not easy to ascertain the effect of teacher feedback on student behaviour by merely studying the exchange given. Several factors that influence the production of the utterance have to be examined before the utterance can be said to have conveyed a particular message or to have served a particular language function. It is for the purpose of determining the functions of utterances within an oral interaction that the speech act theory is considered. This theory is used as a starting point in establishing a theoretical framework within which the findings of this study are discussed. It also serves as a focal point to which other theories or approaches are linked.

2.1.1 Speech Act Theory (SAT)

Speech Act Theory (SAT) is considered in this study to provide a framework within which what is being done, when something is said by a speaker, can be characterized as a particular act in an on-going communicative discourse. The term 'speech act' needs to be defined so that SAT becomes comprehensible. To put it in simple terms as expressed by Littlejohn (1988:118), speech act is

> A basic unit of language expressing meaning. It is an utterance that expresses an intention. Speech act can be a sentence, word or phrase so long as it follows the rule necessary to accomplish the intention.

The place of the speech act as part of a communication phenomenon derives from the early work of Austin (1962) where he takes into account the use of speech acts. Austin (1962) explains that a speech act directed at a listener depends on the listener's

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understanding of the meaning and force of the utterance for the speech act to be manifested as such. Austin (1962) distinguishes between utterances which he terms as 'constantives' and those which are 'per formatives'. The constantive expression (speech act) is a statement or a proposition that is open to confirmation or denial as it can be true or false, for example. 'The King of France is bald' (Coulthard, 1988:13). It is not intended to record or impart information about facts, but merely to evince emotion, or prescribe conduct or to influence it in special ways (Coulthard, 1988). The performative, on the other hand, is a proposition by uttering which the speaker performs the act. For example, by saying 'I promise to come' the speaker is in fact performing the act of promising. The performative utterance produces an expectation which the listener recognizes and which the speaker intends should be recognized by the listener. Austin (1962) classifies the performatives into three and out of the three the perlocutionary act which is the response or reaction show by the listener as a result of something said by the speaker.

In order to overcome the problem of how to 'make sense' of what a speaker is saying, we must take into account how listeners 'make sense' of what is said (McGregor, 1986). One way of interpreting what the speaker says is to consider the response made by the listener. In producing an utterance the speaker intends to convey a message to the listener. The meaning of the utterance as is intended by the speaker and perceived by the listener is the illocutionary force of the utterance. The utterance made produces an effect on the listener. This effect is a response (verbal) or reaction (non-verbal) by the listener and is termed the perlocutionary act (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969). Such acts have an effect in the actions, thoughts, beliefs or feelings of hearers (Austin, 1962; Searle 1965).

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For example by arguing I may persuade or convince someone, by warning him I may scare or alarm him (Searle, 1969). Examples of perlocutionary acts are convincing, persuading, frightening, annoying and amusing. The acts named by these verbs occur as a result of something that is said.

In this study the effect of teacher feedback counts as the perlocutionary effect which is seen in the response provided by the students. The perlocuationary intent an explanation of which is taken from Manabe (1984:46). In the classroom, the teacher's initiating utterance and its illocutionary force has to be interpreted by the student in order to provide the correct response. The student in turn needs to know whether the teacher has understood her (student's) response. This entails a further contribution or feedback from the teacher. If the teacher intends to make the student understands her (teacher's) intention in the feedback given. Feedback or the follow-up move is a very important element in an exchange in classroom discourse as well as in conversation (Tsui, 1994) as it is the element on which further interaction is based (Tsui, 1994:34).

2.1.2 Rules governing speech acts

More significant work on speech act theory has been done by Searle (1965) who has attempted to specify some of the rules that govern the effective production of certain speech acts. These rules can be used to interpret uttering a sentence, the speaker not only intends a particular illocutionary act but that the hearer can recognize the illocutionary act intended. The speaker can in certain instances use words which constitute the relevant

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acts such as promising, warning, requesting and predicting. For example, in the utterance 'I promise I'll take care of it', the act of promising is done.

Based on Searle's (1976) explanation, illocutionary acts can be interpreted according to certain rules. Searle expounds two rules which influence interpersonal verbal behaviour. They are regulative and constitutive rules. According to Searle (1969) regulative rules regulate independently existing forms of behaviour. For example, rules of etiquette regulate inter-personal relationships which exist independently of the rules. Regulative rules regulate all the strategies involved during a verbal exchange such as the initial exchange of greetings between speakers; who chooses the topic to speak about, who interrupts whom, how and when; they also regulate the turn taking and negotiation for understanding (Kramsch,1981). Constitutive rules on the other hand, as explained by Kramsch (1981:3)

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> Control the way in which a given utterance of a given form is heard as realizing a given illocutionary act. They determine which verbal and non-verbal behaviour must be used by the speaker if he or she wants to be understood as promising something, issuing a warning or giving an order.

Littlejohn (1988) clarifies the concept of constitutive and regulative rules in the following manner: constitutive rules are essentially rules of meaning, used by communicators to interpret or understand an event. Regulative rules are essentially rules of action, used to determine how to respond or behave. Littlejohn (1988: 126-127) gives the following example of a child trying to get back a ball after accidentally having thrown it through a neighbor's window. The adult begins with the following rule structure:

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> Constitutive rule: If i say, 'Is this ball yours?' in a stern fashion, this act will be taken as anger, a demand for a confession, and a threat.
>
> Regulative rule: My act taken as anger will elicit crying and apologies. I, in turn, will become less angry and will give back the ball.

Both the regulative and constitutive rules are important in communication discourse. Searle (1969) supports this claim in the concluding words of his book "Speech Acts" in this manner: speaking a language – as has been the main theme of this book – consists of performing speech act according to rules, and there is no separating those speech acts from the commitments which form essential parts of them.

Since constitutive rules 'create or define new forms of behaviour' (Searle, 1969:33) apart from regulating it, they are used to interpret the bahaviour of the teacher and the students within the context of the classroom. These rules 'take the form: X counts as Y in context C' (Searle, 1969:33). In other words, there must be certain necessary and sufficient conditions prevailing for the performance of particular types of speech acts. These conditions enable both the teacher and the students to interpret the utterance as a particular type of speech act and hence the students are able to respond accordingly.

In this study both types of rules are used as communication discourse analysis is concerned with both the regulative and constitutive rules, for they form the basis of verbal interaction (Kramch, 1981).

Regulative rules are 'rules which are used to guide behaviour down appropriate pathways' (Potter and Wetherell, 1987:72). As far as these rules are concerned, classroom communication discourse indicates adherence to them. The teacher

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is always the initiator of classroom communication discourse. Students provide the response after teacher initiation and teacher feedback normally follows students' response. The students usually answer the teacher's questions with answers which they feel the teacher wants to hear. This statement represents the view of students expressed in an interview in this study. Since communication discourse in based on rules, in the classroom students response because rules of classroom interaction indicate the exchange structure to be consisting of teacher initiation (I), student response (R) and teacher feedback (F). Therefore, withholding feedback is considered deviant behaviour as feedback is a compulsory element in the teacher exchange (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975).

Sometimes however, feedback is not overtly given by the teacher. The teacher goes on to initiate another exchange. Students then need to understand whether or not feedback is implied. Grice (1975) terms this 'implicature'. It requires cooperation between the teacher and the students for this implicature to be understood.

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Thus in order to understand what is implied in an utterance, factors involving the principles of cooperation need to be looked into, so that the appropriate speech act can be ascertained. Linguistic elements alone may not be sufficient to provide clues as to the type of illocutionary acts involved. Rules governing conversation may also pose problems in interpreting utterances. As alternatives to the notion of conversational rules, notions of conversational principles and maxims will be looked into. A theory which helps to illuminate conversational principles and maxims is that of Grice (1975).

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2.1.3 Grice's Theory

Related to SAT is the notion regarding the organization of conversation particularly that proposed by Grice (1975) in set of principles termed 'conversational maxims'. According to Grice (1975) there is a code of cooperative behaviour which organizes the way interlocutors interpret each other's speech. Since speakers expect their interlocutors to share this code, each of them interpret what the other says based on the assumption that his partner is following the 'Cooperative Principle' (Grice 1975:45).

Fundamental to Grice's theory (1975) is the distinction between what is 'said' and what is 'conveyed' in an interaction. According to this theory what is said is the logical content of the sentence which contains all the information that is necessary to satisfy it s truth conditions. Anything more that is conveyed can be attributed to the workings of some general principles that govern a piece of conversation. Conversations are cooperative ventures (Hatch, 1992) in the sense that the speaker and hearer tacitly agree to these principles and the procedures and strategies involved when engaged in a conversation. Grice (1975) believes that to maintain conversations as cooperative ventures the cooperative principle must be followed. This principle is based on four maxims prescribed by Grice (1968:45-6):

Quantity
1. Make your contribution to the conversation as informative as is required.
2. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

Quality
1. Do not say that you believe to be false
2. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence

Relation
1. Be relevant.

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Manner

1. Avoid obscurity of expression.
2. Avoid ambiguity
3. Be brief.
4. Be orderly.

Hence in an interaction the interlocutors are expected to say nothing more or less than what is required. This will satisfy the maxim of quantity. To preserve the maxim of quality the interlocutors should make their contributions genuine and true. As far as the maxim of relation is concerned the interlocutors' contributions should be appropriate and relevant to the immediate needs at each stage of the transaction (Grice, 1975:47). The maxim of manner is observed when the interlocutors express what they need to say clearly.

Communication discourse in the classroom may not reveal adherence to all these maxims. The teacher usually provides a lot of explanation to ensure that all the students understand a point she makes. The teacher often repeats or rephrases what she says and also provides examples. To make her contribution as informative as possible she thus cannot he brief.

As far as the maxim of quality is concerned, the teacher as well as the students says what they believe to be true in order to complete a lesson. The teacher regulates communication discourse in the classroom so that what is said is relevant to the lesson.

The maxim of manner is often violated in the classroom as students sometimes provide vague answers to questions asked by the teacher.

According to Fraser (1983:47), determining what the speaker says is a preliminary step to determining what direct illocutionary act has been intended. Analogously, what is implicated, in Grice's terms, is what is indirectly said.

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Hence in the example of teacher student interaction given (refer 2.1 (2)) the teacher's feedback 'O.K. if you think so' suggests that answer given is acceptable according to the student's judgment but may not be acceptable according to the teacher's opinion. Such an utterance violates the maxim of manner as there is ambiguity in the utterance. It is not clearly stated whether or not the answer is correct and acceptable by the teacher. In this case it is up to the student to interpret what is implicated in the utterance.

In order to interpret the meaning of an implicative, Grice (1975:50) believes the hearer has to rely on five kinds of data namely:

1. The conventional meaning of the words used together with the identity of any references which may be involved;
2. The cooperative principle (CP) and its maxims;
3. The context, linguistic or otherwise, of the utterance;
4. Other items of background knowledge;
5. The fact (or supposed fact) that all relevant items falling under the previous heading are available to both participants, and that both participants know or assume this to be so.

Grice (1975:50) puts forward the following procedure for comprehending or interpreting an implicative: ('p' is the proposition, 'q' is the inference made and 'CP' the cooperative principles).

(a) He has said that p;

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(b) There is no reason to support that he is not observing the maxims, or at least the CP;

(c) He could not be doing this unless he thought that q;

(d) He knows (and knows that I know that he knows) that I can see that the supposition that he thinks that q is required;

(e) He has done nothing to stop me thinking that q;

(f) He intends me to think, or is at least willing to allow me to think, that

(g) And so he has implicated that q.

In applying Grice's theory the student's comprehension process, after hearing the teacher's remark (refer to 2.1 (2)) 'OK', if you think so' would be:

(a) The teacher has said that it was all right if I (student) thought so;

(b) There is no reason for me to suppose that the teacher is not observing the maxims, or at least the CP;

(c) The teacher could not be doing this unless she thought that I (student) was correct;

(d) The teacher knows that I (student) can see that the supposition that she (teacher) thinks that she has to accept my answer;

(e) The teacher has done nothing to stop me (student) thinking that she has accepted my answer;

(f) Therefore the teacher intends me (student) to think or is at least willing to allow me to think that she has accepted my answer;

(g) And so the teacher has implicated that she has accepted my answer.

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2.1.4 Ethnography of Speaking

Knowing the function of what is said is crucial in an interaction so that one can react appropriately. An utterance can be interpreted in various ways depending on the context in which it occurs. The utterance can you correct your mistake by a teacher to a student is a directive, if the teacher says it after having heard an incorrect answer, given by the student. This utterance can mean checking out whether or not the student has problems with his work if the teacher says it when the student has shown poor performance in his work. The student who is the listener has to be able to understand the role of the teacher, the situation and various factors within the environment of the classroom to determine the 'pragmatic meaning' (meaning which words take on in a particular context) rather than semantic meaning (the fixed context-free meaning). Thus, within an interaction the meaning of an utterance has to be examined within the large frame of reference of communication which is known as ethnography of speaking (Hymes, 1962). The aim of this ethnography of speaking is to describe and systematize the interpretive rules used by members of a given speech community (Kramsch, 1981) when they interact. Hence rules of language use or rules of speaking, that is, ways in which speakers associate particular modes of settings and activities (Hymes, 1972) are crucial. The basic components of a speech event involve the setting, participants, events, acts, key instrumentation, norms and genre. A speech event is restricted to activities or aspects of activities that are directly governed by rules or norms for the use of speech (Hymes, 1972:56). Such events include interviews, lectures, arguments, quizzes, casual conversations, trials, press conferences, school lessons and so forth. Hymes (1972) has discussed various components which must

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be considered in a complete ethnographic description of the act of speaking. These components are referred to where relevant in the analysis of classroom discourse.

1. Setting and situation :

The setting includes the place such as the classroom, its physical setup and the time. The situation in this study refers to the lesson in progress.

2. Participants :

They refer to the speaker (s) and hearer (s) in the interaction. In the classroom the participants are the teacher and the students.

3. Ends:

They refer to the purposes and goals of the speech even i.e. the accomplishment of the lesson or interaction.

4. Act sequences:

They include the message form (how things are said based on certain rules) and message content (what is said). Message form and message content are central to the speech act and the focus of its 'syntactic structure' and can be labeled jointly as 'act sequence' (Hymes, 1974).

5. Key:

This refers to the tone, manner or spirit of the act. What is said can thus be interpreted literally, ironically, seriously or playfully.

6. Instrumentalities.

They refer to the mode in which a message is given. It can be written, spoken, written but read aloud, recited. They also include the non-linguistic mode such as a nod. The variety of language used is also referred to here.

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7. Norms:

They include norms of interaction and norms of interpretation. When interacting, rules governing speaking should be adhered to. These are rules that regulate speaking turns, interrupting a conversation and others. Rules of interpretation are required to understand what is said and to enable inferences to be made.

8. Genre:

This refers to the style or category in which a message is conveyed that could identify the event to be a prayer, lecture or lesson.

The structure of a communication discourse in a speech event, as in this case a classroom lesson, will include each of these components of speaking. Each component contributes to the understanding and interpretation of an utterance especially between the teacher and the students. It can make them more aware in a communication discourse the importance of the setting, the roles and status of each participant, the key and so forth. The behaviour of the teacher and students thus aligns itself to these aspects of the social context of the classroom (Kramsch, 1994).

Within the classroom the context of learning is shaped by the teacher and students in terms of these eight aspects of the speech situation: the speech genre the participants are engaged in; the norms of interaction and interpretation which are called for; the code and register which are appropriate, key they believe they share; the type and level of sequence they believe they should attend to; the ends or purpose they attribute to the exchange; the role they play as participants and the meaning they attribute to the whole setting or scene (Kramsch, 1994).

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Thus if students view the lesson as a formal situation, the language used would be formal and the speech would be of the informative type, that is providing answers which they think the teacher wants. The lexical items and sentence structures used do not reflect the genre of casual conversation. Norms of interaction followed would henceforth be according to the role relationship the participants assume, that is as students and teacher or as conversational partners. Their roles within an interaction would enable them to interpret their speech. Generally in the classroom situation the teacher is the one with authority. She controls the speaking rights in the classroom. Students then need to be highly sensitive to the various ways words interact with the context to suggest meanings and hence understand what is conveyed by the teacher.

According to ethno methodologists, in a speech event participants are aware of the rule relevant to the situation in which they find themselves a participant's response to another participant's behaviour (Taylor and Cameron, 1989:102). Participants follow the rule because they know that however they perform they will be held 'reflexively accountable by their co-interactants' (Taylor and Cameron, 1989). This phenomenon is explained by Taylor and Camereon (1989) in the following manner:

> So if replying to your utterace, said, 'I'm sorry. I don't have a watch', I would thereby manifest my understanding of your utterance as a request for the time... Thus, if you said in third position 'No, not the time, a dime' you would display your understanding both of my reply as well as of your original utterance and what would have been an appropriate response to it. A simple 'too bad' on your part, however would have confirmed my 'displayed' interpretation of your original utterance as a request for the time.

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(p.104-105)

In this case the respondent's reaction prompts the speaker to reflect on what he said in order to allow the hearer to correct the response.

The notion of reflexive accountability is relevant in communication discourse between the teacher and her students. It is particularly important when the teacher provides feedback. Feedback is always related to a response generated by a question (Wager and Mory, 1993:70) and the meaning of feedback is dependent upon its context in the instruction (Wager and Mory, 1993:70). Hence students need to understand what is uttered in teacher feedback in order to react to it appropriately and thereby producing 'sequential relevance' (Taylor and Cameron, 1989) in their action. In other words students need to know the function of the teacher's utterance within the context it is produced to be able to give the appropriate response.

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2.2 Related studies

A number of recent studies have brought attention to the role of feedback in second or foreign language learning. Its importance in this area is reflected in the findings of the studies made.

Crick and Ralph (1980) made an analysis of language in a Further Education classroom. They discovered that the lecturers used the follow-up move or feedback to evaluate, accept or comment on answers offered by their students. A few of them used feedback to elicit further information from the students because they wished the students

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to probe their own answers and to develop them further. Crick and Ralph (1980) provide an example in the following extract;

(4) Teacher : What about the rent you pay for a council house and the rent you pay for a private house in the same area?
Student: It's a lot lower.
Teacher: It's a lot lower; but why is that then?

(p.48:1990)

Nystrand and Gamoran's (1991) study of teacher-student communication discourse in 58 eighth-grade English literature classes revealed that when the teacher's evaluation was of a high level, that is, it involved more than 'good', 'good idea' or a mere repetition of a student's answer, the students' contribution was substantial. They discovered that substantive engagement, that is when the student's participation was sustained, produced a strong, positive achievement.

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2.3 Conclusion

Conducted on teacher feedback have revealed its importance in the instructional process. The effects teacher feedback has on the students have been reported in terms of student participation in the classroom and performance in tests. In this study examined detailed account of their performance in terms of language use and and their perception of the feedback given by the teacher will be presented.

The speech acts described, based on the theories put forward, have been limited to examples which are brief fragments of exchanges in the classroom and they are

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not contextualized in terms of socio cultural setting or of some large social activity or organizational framework (Cicourel, 1980).

Blimes (1988) claims that an utterance is not a speech act upon its production but only as a result of the interaction between the interlocutors. What kind of speech act the utterance will turn out to be is contingent on subsequent interaction. Hence, Blimes (1988) maintains that an utterance cannot be classified as a certain type of speech act simply by examining it in its context that is the sentence. Its categorization depends on the interaction which takes place. According to Blimes (1988) categories of utterances are instructionally defined. The categories of utterances are defined according to how the participants interact. Other factors which should also be considered are mutual knowledge, the situation, and the type of participants, the speaker's intention and so forth.

SAT has been based primarily on contrived isolated sentences, it has therefore ignored the ways in which illocutionary acts may be cooperatively constructed across different speakers' utterances (Stubbs, 1987).

For purposes of this study all the theories presented will be used as it is felt that if one theory is inadequate to explain the phenomena in this study, the other theories can be applied. Interaction between the teacher and her students will be closely examined to determine the categories of acts used.

2.4 Summary

Looking at the various types of studies carried out related to the teacher's feedback which gives effects on students behaviour, during English classroom lesson, shows that teacher

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support in by asking questions and teacher giving feedback make student respond in the class. The following chapter will discuss the research methodology in carrying out this study.

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CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This study is basically descriptive or qualitative in nature. It is concerned with obtaining a detailed description of observed phenomena which in this study refer to the language used by the teacher in giving feedback and the subsequent reaction of the students. There is no manipulation of variables as that done in an experimental research, and things are taken as they are.

3.1 Research Method

The research method employed in this study is the qualitative case study. A case is selected because it is an instance of some concern, for example "an instance drawn from a class (Adelman, Jenkins, and Kemmis.1983:3). An instance can be a child, a specific programme or a school. In this study it is a classroom. Mcmillan and Schumacher (1984) state the focus of research in a case study is on one unit of analysis such as a classroom.

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The choice of a qualitative case study stems from the fact that researchers are interested in insight, discovery and interpretation rather than hypothesis testing (Merriam, 1990). By concentrating on a single phenomenon or entity ('the case') this research aims to uncover the interaction of significant factors characteristic of the phenomenon (Merriam, 1990), that is teacher feedback. Further support of the case study is provided by Guba and Lincoln (1981) who state that the purpose of a case study is to reveal the properties of the class to which the instance being studied belongs.

3.2 Techniques

It is felt that in a qualitative case study such as this, ethnographic techniques would be most appropriate for collecting and analyzing data. According to LeCompte and Gegos and Ulichny(1988) ethnography is defined by the use of participant and non-participant observation, a focus on natural settings, use of subjective views and belief systems of the participants in the research to structure that research, and an avoidance by the investigator of manipulating the study variables. Watson- Gegos and Ulichny (1988) support the use of 'thick' explanation and going beyond description to analysis, interpretation and explanation and not just description. 'Thick' refers to the importance of taking into account all of the factors which may have an effect on the phenomenon under investaigation (Nunan, 1993). In second language research, ethnography is a tool consisting basically of unstructured observation (Van Lier, 1988).

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In this study non-participant observation is employed. It is the most common form of classroom observation (Van Lier, 1988). Non-participant ethnography rejects methods using instruments for observation such as those used by Flanders (1970) because it violates two basic requirements of ethnography which are a concern for the social context, or the whole picture, and the need to take participants' perspectives as a basis for description. The technique requires familiarity with the setting and intensive immersion in the data (Van Lier, 1988). Familiarity with the setting in this study is ensured by the researcher's experience as a subject teacher to semester 5 commercial students. It is also ensured by the number of lessons during which the researcher acted as observer in this study. To fulfill the need to take participants' perspectives as a basis for description a series of interviews was held between the researcher and the teacher and students involved. It was also conducted to gain the subjects' trust as ethnography is based on trust. 'Only with trust and openness will people yield the knowledge of themselves that ethnography seeks' (Krishenblatt-Gimblett, 1982:26).

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3.3 Validity and Reliability

Questions regarding validity and reliability often arise in the discussion of a research design. In so far as this study is concerned internal validity is safe-guarded by triangulation. Triangulation in terms of data collection is achieved through two techniques which are video-recording and interviewing. For data analysis theoretical triangulation is ensured. It draws upon alternative theories in preference to utilizing one viewpoint only (Best and Khan, 1986). Furthermore, there is an absence of any single

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conceptual framework or adequate shared vocabulary for describing classroom events and processes (Edwards and Westgate, 1987:11).

With regard to external validity or the extent to which the findings can be applied to other situations, Merriam (1990) feels that if viewed in the traditional sense, the case study indicates a limitation of the method. Merriam (1990) argues that applying generalizations to individuals (in this case an individual teacher) is hardly useful. Van Lier (1988) express the view that

> Classroom research in a field setting and therefore it will have to tackle the context of the classroom as it is. As a result, it cannot be judged by standards of generalizability and prediction (or proof), but rather by its power to create an understanding of how things happen the way they do, why they make sense to the people involved in making them happen that way. There is therefore no point in judging classroom research by criteria of internal and external validity developed for the purpose of evaluating experimental research, just as it is unrealistic to expect experimental research to shed much light on the social context in which learning takes place (p.52).

Reliability is another factor which merits consideration. Internal reliability refers to the consistency of data collection, analysis and interpretation. To guard against threats to internal reliability Lecompte and Goetz (1982) suggest the use of low inference descriptors which describe bahaviour which is easy for independent observers to agree, for example, 'wait time' and 'use of factual questions' rather than 'students lack interest in activity' which is subjective and requires inference of unobservable mental state. In addition they suggest the use of mechanically recorded data. In a later publication Goetz and LeCompte (1984) suggest certain techniques to make the results of the study reliable.

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Among the techniques they have suggested which are used in this study are triangulation which refers to multiple methods of data collection and analysis and the definition of the investigator's position. The latter refers to an explanation of the assumptions and theories behind the study, the researcher's position in relation to the group, being studied, the basis for selecting informants and a description of them and the social context from which data are collected.

As far as external validity is concerned, Merriam (1990) expresses the view that replication of a qualitative study will not yield the same results. Merriam (1990) explains that a qualitative study seeks to describe and explain the word as those in the world interpret it. since there are many interpretations of what is happening, there is no bench-mark by which one can take repeated measures and establish reliability in the traditional sense'(Merriam, 1990:170).

Since reliability in the traditional sense seems inappropriate when applied to qualitative research, Lincoln and Guba (1985) put forward the notion of dependability or consistency. They claim that the results of the study should make sense, that is, they are consistent or dependable.

This study takes into consideration issues involving reliability and validity. The notion of external reliability is more appropriately referred to as dependability as expounded by Lincoln and Guba (1985). In so far as internal validity and reliability are concerned, steps have been taken to ensure that they are observed. The subsequent chapters will illuminate the extent to which validity and reliability are upheld.

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3.4 System for classification of communication discourse

Data collected in this study comprise of communication discourse between a teacher and her students in the classroom. Analysis of this communication discourse is thus conducted following procedures which constitute a methodology known as discourse analysis.

Communication discourse analysis has been accepted as part of the methodology of second language research for a long time and its procedures have become standardized to a certain extent (Crookes, 1990). Discourse analysis refers to a variety of procedures for examine chunks of the spoken form of language and the term covers many analytical processes which range from coding to qualitative interpretations (Allwight and Bailey, 1991).

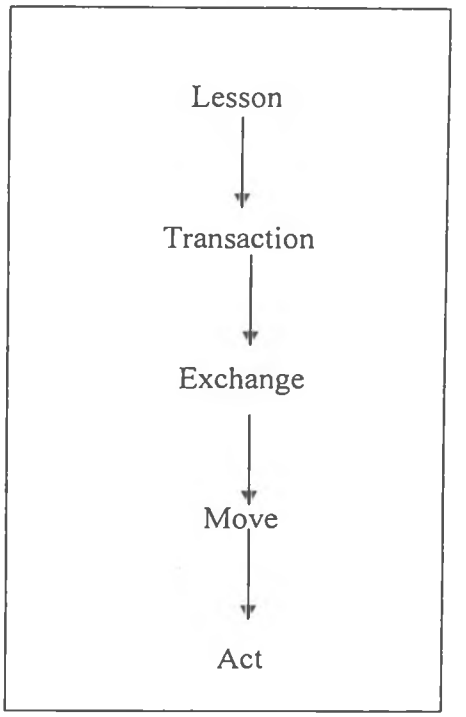
The structure of a lesson consists of sequences of hierarchically related units of communication discourse. To explain how one unit is related to another Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) descriptive system is adopted. This system is one of inclusion, that is, the larger units contain smaller units, which consist of smaller units still, unit elements can no longer be broken down into smaller communication discourse units (Van Lier, 1988:51). Based on Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) system the transcript of a lesson can be segmented into smaller units called transactions. These transactions can be segmented into sequences of speaker turns or part speaker turns which are termed exchanges. The exchanges can be segmented into individual speaker turns or part speaker turns called moves. These moves are then segmented into functional units which are termed acts. Diagrammatically the structure of a lesson is as follows (figure 3.1):

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Figure 3.1

Structure of a lesson



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The structure of a lesson shows the Link between one rank and the next one below, the lowest of which is the act.

3.4.1 The Act

An important preliminary stage in discourse analysis is the identification of units relevant analysis is the identification of units relevant to the investigation within the communication discourse to be analyzed. There are a number of options available for the division of speech into smaller units. Some of these analytical units are based on linguistic structures, for example the utterance, the turn, and the T-unit, and others on

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language functions, for example clarification, repair and repetition (Chaudron, 1988). For operational purposes in this study the act units developed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) will be used. The act is considered the smallest unit of speech and the basic unit of analysis in this study. This is selected as it is deemed the most appropriate for the purposes of this study in the sense explained by Chaudron (1988:41);

> Their segmentation of the classroom discourse into act units and higher ranks follows from considerations of grammar, of the situation – dependent function and meaning, and of the 'tactical' placement (according to the expected discourse structure) of any utterance or position of an utterance.

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975:21) use the term utterance toeverything said by one speaker before another began to speak and exchange as two or more utterances. They initially used the utterance as the basic unit of speech, but in dealing with examples such as that which they called a move was required.

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(5) A: Can you tell me why do you eat all that food?
B: To keep you strong.
C: To keep you strong, yes, to keep you strong.
Why do you want to be strong?
(Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975:21)

As explained in Coulthard (1977), A's second utterance contains two moves. The definition of an utterance has been extensively investigated. It can be both a structural unit and a functional unit. As a structural unit it is defined as;

> A complete thought, usually expressed in a connected grouping of words, which is separated from other utterances on the basis of content, intonation contour, and/or pausing. (i) content. A change in content is used as one criterion for segmenting

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> utterances ... (ii) Intonation Contour. A falling intonation contour signals the end of an utterance. A rising intonation signals the end of an utterance if it is a question... (iii) Pauses. Pauses are used in conjunction with the above two criteria to segment utterances. (Shewan,1988:124)

An utterance may contain a clause on one occasion, a set of clause on another, and a single word at another time (Crookes, 1990).

3.4.2 The move

The move is made up of acts. According to Sinclair and Coulthard, (1975) system, there are five classes of move. They are firstly framing moves. Framing moves indicate the end of one stage of a lesson and the beginning of another. They are realized by a marker, such as Right followed by a short silence.

Framing moves are frequently followed by focusing moves. The function of the focusing move is to tell students what is going to happen or what has happened. Both the framing and the focusing moves are found in a boundary exchange. The following example from Sinclair and Coultard (1975:45) illustrates the structure of the boundary exchange (Table 3.1).

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Table 3.1

A boundary exchange

Classes of Move		**Classes of Act**
Framing	Right	marker
Focusing	Now, What we've done what We've just done is given Some energy to this pen	marker conclusion

The moves which are more important in this study are those in the teaching exchange. One is the opening or initiating move, the function of which is to cause others to participate in a lesson. The purpose of an opening move may be to provide information, direct an action or elicit a fact. Its function is to bring about active participation by others in the communication discourse. This participation is expressed by an answering or responding, move. The function of this move is to give an appropriate response to the opening move. The follow-up or feedback move comes after the answering move. It is significant in the sense that it occurs not only after an answering move made by a student but also after an opening move made by a student. The student opening move occurs when a student initiates an exchange by asking a question or providing information. The teacher then accepts the unelected contribution from a student in terms of its relevance to the communication discourse (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975). The function of a follow-up move is to let the student know how well he/she has performed.

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3.4.3 The exchange

The teaching exchange can be broadly defined as that comprising individual steps by which the lesson progresses (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975:49). Based on the classes of exchanges described by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) the teaching exchange in this study is divided into four groups which are categorized according to their functions in the communication discourse. These groups or teaching exchanges are those initiated by the teacher and they are informing, directing, eliciting or checking exchanges. These exchanges are identified by the type of act which is realized in the initiating move of the exchange. The act of informing in an initiating move indicates the informing teaching exchange. The act of directing in an initiating move indicates an eliciting exchange and the act of checking in the initiating move indicates the checking teaching exchange.

In the case of an informing exchange the sequence of speaker's turns requires only the teacher's contribution. An example from (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975:71) illustrates this point:

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Table: 3.2

An informing exchange

Class of Move		**Class of Act**
Opening	And-when I can find my chart – here it is	aside
	Here are some of the Symbols that they used	inform

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In this exchange there is no student response and as such no teacher follow –up or feedback. In a checking exchange a student response follows the teacher's opening move. The response is sometimes given in the linguistic form and at other times the non-verbal form is used (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975:71).

Table: 3.3

A checking exchange

Class of Move		**Class of Act**
Opening	Finished Joan?	check
Answering	(Non-verbal)	reply
Follow-up	Good girl	evaluate
Opening	And Miri?	check
Answering	Yes	reply
Follow-up	Good	evaluate

In the case of a directing exchange, the sequence requires only the teacher's contribution. Student response is obligatory and often non-verbal in nature, (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975:71).

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Table: 3.4

A directing exchange

Class of Move		**Class of Act**
Opening	The first quiz is this.	starter
	Can you fill in this sentence?	starter
	See if you can do it in your books.	Directive

Feedback is not essential in this type of exchange although it frequently occurs (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975). It is only in the case of an elicitation which is the type of exchange that induces the students to give a verbal response that the teacher obligatorily provides feedback. If it is not, (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975:5) feel that the teacher has deliberately withheld it for some strategic purpose. An example of an eliciting exchange where feedback is provided is as follows: (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975:71).

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Table: 3.5

Eliciting exchange

Class of Move		**Class of Act**
Opening	Read us what you've written, Joan	elicit nominate
Answering	The cat sat on the rug.	reply
Follow-up	Yes, that's right	evaluate
	I changed the last word	comment

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The eliciting exchange appears to be the most relevant one in this study as feedback is a compulsory element in this structure (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975). However feedback may occur in the other types of exchanges. Therefore in this study, feedback will be studied in whichever type of exchange it occurs.

3.4.4 The Transaction

Transactions are topically coherent units (Langford, 1981:19). They are identified by the topics or themes in a communication discourse. A transaction in made up of a series of exchanges. It begins with the teacher making a statement about what would be involved in the transaction thus providing a focus for the pupils' attention. The teacher ends the transaction with a concluding statement about the subject in the transaction. During the transaction the teacher would direct the pupils to perform tasks, elicit from pupils verbal contribution to the ongoing talk or provide information.

In their study Sinclair and Couthard (1975) noticed that there were points in their transcript where the significance of the teacher's utterances had to do with making the beginning or end of a coherent sequence of talk on a topic. These points were the boundary points of transactions (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975:66).

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Table: 3.6

The boundary

Exchange type		Move
1 Boundary	Right	frame
	So that's the first and I think you got that all right	focus
2 Boundary	Right	frame
	Here's the next quiz and Then if you're ready	focus

In the example given in table 3.6, the word 'Right' denotes a frame. Other words which can be included under this term are 'well', 'now', 'ok' and 'good' which are spoken with a falling intonation. The first boundary exchange marks the end of a preceding transaction and the teacher makes a concluding statement about that transaction. The second boundary exchange indicates the beginning of another transaction.

3.5 Subjects

The choice of subjects in this study has been based on non-probability sampling as this is the method of choice in qualitative studies (Merriam, 1990) and this method is logical as long as the data not used to answer questions like 'how much' and 'how often' but to solve qualitative problems such as discovering what occurs, the implications of what occurs and the relationships linking occurrences (Honigmann, 1982).

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The subjects involved in this study were a teacher and her students in a polytechnic in Behrang, Perak. The choice of the subjects was made based on the language phenomena which would be investigated namely teacher feedback and the subsequent student behaviour. It was felt necessary to g et a class where interaction between the teacher and the students frequently occurred during normal classroom sessions. It was crucial that naturally-occurring data were obtained.

A particular teacher was selected as she agreed to be observed and she had not been affected by the observation. The students were reported to be responsive and their level of proficiency in English was average. This was actually confirmed later in the research.

The teacher selected had been teaching English for more than ten years. She had been teaching this set of students for 2 semesters and that is for about 8 months. In spite of this short period the rapport she had with the students was excellent as was manifested in the interaction she had with the students. It was very obvious particularly in one lesson on the interpretation of sounds, which evoked a lot of laughter in the classroom.

The students were mixture of boys and girls whose ages ranged between twenty to 22 years old. There were forty-two of them in semester three commercial students. They performed well in English in the past two semester exam. They proficiency in the English language was average as demonstrated by the responses they made in the lessons analyzed. The students were of diverse ethnic origins namely Malay, Chinese and Indian.

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3.6 Procedures

As mentioned earlier in this chapter this research is a descriptive study, and in line with some studies on classroom research conducted (Khoo, 1988; Woods, 1989) a combination of methods was used to collect data. The methods included ethnographic observation of lesson, video-recording and informal interviews with the teacher and the students. Ethnographic observation here refers to a detailed investigation of patterns of social interaction (Gumperz, 1981) and is non-participant in nature (Van Lier, 1988). In this study it was enhanced by video-recording. Following the development in recent years more reliance is being placed on the study of recorded events as an extension of observation (Van Lier, 1988). Video recordings of the lessons were crucial as they provided the source of data which were retrievable. The lessons could be viewed repeatedly and the process of transcribing was facilitated.

Before 'gaining entry to the field' (Allwright and Bailey, 1991:322) the researcher was well aware of the fact that:

> Classroom research of any kind is very likely to be a sensitive business, however carefully it is done, because being investigated in any way is anxiety-provoking, to say the least, and being closely observed, recorded and analysed is enough to put anyone on the defensive.

Prior to the recording of the lessons the teacher concerned was contacted. She was told that the purpose of the study was academic in nature and that the procedure for collecting data involved video-recording of her lessons and interviewing her and the

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students. She was assured that the study was a descriptive and not an evaluative one. She was told about the type of equipment that would be used in the classroom and that a cameraman and the researcher would be in the classroom. It was only after securing her permission and being certain that she would not in any way be affected by the presence of the video-camera and two strangers, the researcher and the cameraman, during her lessons that the recording was made. It was necessary to have a cameraman so that the researcher could concentrate on the interaction in the classroom and note points to be brought up during the subsequent interview. The researcher was also introduced to the students who were told about the video-recording of their lessons and the interview with them.

3.6.1 Video-Recording

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Two English language lessons were video-recorded. These complete lessons, each of which lasted about forty minutes. The lesson was those which the teacher had planned to teach according to her normal teaching schedule. The lessons which were dealt were as follows:

Lesson 1: Report Writing.

The teacher started this lesson by asking students questions to enable them to see the relevance of report writing in everyday life. The students were then asked to identify the main features of report writing and the procedures involved in writing a report. The teacher provided the answers when the students failed to give the correct response.

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Lesson 2: Vocabulary in Context.

At the beginning of the lesson students were asked how meanings of words could be understood by speakers in the course of communicating with one another. The students were then required to read a passage containing nonsense words and they had to replace them with the correct words. The teacher then discussed the answers with the students. The lesson continued with the teacher discussing the types of vocabulary exercises students were required to do in the examination, students were asked questions regarding strategies used to do these exercises.

There was a lot of interaction between the teacher and the students during each lesson. A great part of each lesson involved oral interaction between the teacher and the students. This was a great advantage to the researcher as the lessons provided a lot of data. Nothing in the lesson was pre-empted by the researcher. What went on was the teacher's own strategies.

The video-recording was done under normal classroom conditions and only one video camera was used. As the camera was fixed in one position that is at the back of the classroom it was not possible to record the student's facial expressions. The audio-recording of the interview between the researcher and the teacher as well as students was done outside the staffroom as there was no special room to go to where noise around the polytechnic could be obliterated. Thus certain parts of the interview were muffled.

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3.6.2 Interviewing

Immediately after each lesson the teacher and a few students were interviewed. The students, particularly those who were responsive during each interview, were requested to participate in the interview. The number of students who volunteered ranged from four to six. The students were given permission to leave the class by the subject teacher who came into the class after each English lesson.

The interview was conducted immediately after the recording of each lesson as it was felt that the subjects involved would be able to recollect vividly what they did during the lesson and to give reasons to account for their verbal or non-verbal behaviour.

The interview was conducted to achieve a measure of triangulation (Stubbs,1987) so that the teacher's and students views could be obtained to confirm those of the researcher.

The interview was held in an empty classroom. It was an informal interview. It was just like having a conversation with the students. They were thus able to talk feely and without inhibitions. In fact, they were very casual in spite of their teacher being present.

The students were not interviewed individually as it was felt that such a situation would resemble a formal oral interview test and it might stifle the student's response. In addition, as the questions would be directed at most of the students, interviewing individual students would not be economical in terms of time.The same question would not be economical in terms of time. The same questions would have to be asked as each student was interviewed. A group interview was thus employed.

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The students were asked questions which were mainly meant to elicit the effects of feedback given by the teacher. The questions mainly dealt with the following areas:

a. how they interpreted teacher feedback, that is, whether it was meant to be a correction, a rejection or an acceptance.
b. How they viewed the different types of feedback given by the teacher such as writing their responses on the board, pausing, repeating their replies and repeating her question.
c. The types of responses they made and the reasons.

The following extracts in the interview:

R: Did you understand what the teacher wanted the teacher wanted?

S1:Not at the beginning.

R: Not at the beginning.

S1:Probably because I wasn't paying attention

R: What about you, (name of student)?

S2:Oh, I mean… I thought I understood… a bit vague.

S3:I understood, you see, but I didn't know how to…

what…(name of teacher) wanted… the answer. I didn't know how to put it into words

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3.7 Summary

Chapter three covers on researchers' methodology. It explains on the techniques used, the validity & reliability of the researchers design, the choice of subjects and the procedure used to carry out the research. After collecting the data needed, the following chapter would discuss about the analysis of the types of feedback.

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CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter deals with the analysis of the data obtained. It examines the data to discover answers to the following questions:

1. What are the types of feedback the teacher provides following responses made by students?
2. What is the nature of teacher feedback in response to an answer given by a student?
3. What is the nature of student response following teacher feedback?
4. What are the effects of teacher feedback on student behavior?

The lessons transcribed have been analyzed in terms of the categorization system propounded by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). Each lesson is divided into transactions each of which revolves around a topic. A transaction is divided into exchanges and each exchange into moves and move into acts. The terms used to indicate the types of acts have been adopted from those used by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Edmonton (1981). The descriptions of the acts have been based on the system used by Sinclair and

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Coulthard (1975), the Speech Act theory (refer to 2.1.2) and Grice's theory (refer to 2.1.3).

The analysis made is mainly descriptive in nature. The frequency counts used are merely tokens of occurrences. As stated in chapter three, frequency counts of observed behaviors have been found to be inadequate to gain an understanding of significant classroom events. This inadequacy is reflected best in rarely occurring events which nevertheless have significant implications for classroom life' (Psacharopoulos, 1985:3580.

4.1 Types of Teacher Feedback

In this study discourse between teacher and students in the classroom has produced various types of teacher feedback and student responses. The most predominant type of feedback is that which is expressed linguistically. It thus warrants a more detailed analysis.

4.1.1 Non-Verbal Feedback

The non-verbal form of feedback occurs when the teacher responds to an answer given by a student by writing it on the board. The teacher's reaction constitutes feedback as it shows a repetition of the student's answer. This form of feedback occurs frequently during two lessons (1 and 3) and less frequently during lesson 1 and lesson 2. An exchange from transaction of lesson 3 shows one example:

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(1)

				Move
3	T	:	For example	I
4	S1	:	Conversation that you hear?	R
5	T	:	Conversation that you hear?	F
6	S1	:	Gangster	R

In extract (1) the teacher accepts each student's reply by writing it down on the board. Feedback given is linguistic in nature and is explicit. It is however in the non-verbal form. Further examination of non-verbal feedback has shown that it can also be in the non-linguistic form.

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4.1.2 Non-Linguistic Verbal Feedback

This form of feedback is not expressed in words, phrases or sentences. It is manifested in the form of a sound for example, 'huh', which is not linguistic in nature. An exchange from transaction 1 of lesson 1 appears to be the only case of this kind:

(2)

				Move
22	S 30	:	When you are reading it helps you finish your study half the time spent otherwise.	
23	T	:	Huh.	F

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In everyday life all the time you are doing summary. Sure you say for example a girl is not in class today. Right. When she comes back she asks 'What did you do yesterday?' You're not going to give her word for word of everything. No.

In the above example (2) the non-linguistic verbal feedback indicates a negative evaluation of the student's reply. The teacher has avoided using words to indicate this. However the explanation she provides following the 'huh' is the answer to the questions asked. The student has obviously not given the answer which the teacher wants. Instead of telling the student the answer is wrong the teacher has merely said 'huh' with a falling intonation and this is followed by an explanation which is copiously given.

The non-linguistic type of feedback also appears in the non-verbal form. It is found to occur in a few transactions.

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4.1.3 Non-Linguistic and Non-Verbal Feedback

This type of feedback has been noticed to occur twic3 in lesson 1 and three times in lesson 3. It has been expressed by nodding in lesson 3 (1 case only) and smiling in lesson 4 (3 cases). An example of this type of feedback is extracted from transaction 11 of lesson 1.

(3)

			Move
11.T	:	It's a waste of paper (smile)	F
12SS	:	laughter	R
17T	:	Smiles	F

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In the above exchange the teacher smiles in providing feedback. It indicates acceptance of the student's answer judging by the subsequent question asked. Acceptance of the student's response is also understood by implicate, that is, by asking another question the teacher indicates that the answer prior to this question is accepted. Since the teacher does not reject the answer it is understood that the response is accepted. The question which follows what has been asked in the previous question. It belongs to another exchange.

4.1.4 Implicit Feedback

Feedback given by the teacher is not always apparent. It has been discovered that at times the teacher goes on to another question after a student has answered one prior to this. Only one case is detected in lesson 4 while lesson 1 and lesson 2 show no occurrence at all. An example from lesson 4 is as follows:

(4)

69S : the tense

T : Besides that

71S : the meaning

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The example (4) shows two exchanges, one following the other. The first elicitation by the teacher produces a reply by a student. This reply is followed by another elicitation which implies that the preceding student reply has been accepted. Feedback is implicit. This tacit acceptance is understood by the student. This deduction is made based on the fact that a teaching exchange comprises teacher initiation, student response and teacher feedback. Hence, before the beginning of the second exchange there is teacher feedback in the first exchange, although in this example it is not explicitly given. The nature of the questions asked also shows that the answers given by the questions asked also shows that the answers given by the students are correct. The questions are display questions which merely ask for information which the teacher already knows. Since there is no rejection of the students' answers it obviously shows acceptance.

In the example given above the questions asked by the teacher are two separate questions requiring different answers. Hence, by asking the second questions the teacher implies that the answer to the first question is correct.

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4.1.5 Summary

The analysis shows that teacher feedback can be broadly classified into types. They are the explicit and implicit types. Explicit feedback refers to the type of feedback which can be heard or seen. It can be heard when it is expressed linguistically in words, phrases or sentences. Implicit feedback is that which is understood tacitly by both the teacher and the students. This happens when the teacher does not provide feedback

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directly after a student response but instead goes on to the next question or continues to get more answers to the same question asked.

4.2 The Nature of Teacher Feedback

The nature of teacher feedback refers to the manner in which feedback is given and the function it performs. It is described in terms of acts. The data in this study show a preponderance of acceptance over other forms of feedback. A closer examination is required to discover its nature.

4.2.1 Repetition of student reply preceded by or followed by other words.

It has been discovered in this study that the teacher very frequently repeats a student's reply using a falling intonation to show acceptance. Sometimes the repetition is preceded by 'yes'. The repetition confirms that the answer given by the student is correct. An extract (5) from lesson 1 provides an example:

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(5)

4 S1 : Conversation that you hear?

5 T : A conversation that you hear?

10S9 : It's a waste of paper.

11T : It's a waste of paper (smile)

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In the extract (5) given the teacher accepts the answer given by a student (S1) by saying yes, and then repeating the reply given by the student. In her feedback the teacher completes the prompt give earlier in the discourse using the words given by the student.

4.3 Repetition of Student Reply Followed by Teacher Prompt.

Repetition of a student response is sometimes followed by a prompt. The prompt indicates that the teacher is expecting or demanding a response. This structure occurs fairly frequently in two lessons. The following exchange is an example from transaction taken from lesson 3.

(6) 63 T: Then? (What happens?)

64 S1: Somebody came

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65 T: Somebody came

66 S2: She opened the door

67 T: She opened the door and …

In this extract the teacher repeats the answer given by the student (S2) and provides a prompt to indicate that additional information is required.

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4.4 Repetition of Student reply followed by Teacher Clue.

In some cases teacher feedback contains a clue which provides additional information to help the student answer the teacher's question more correctly. A few appear in three lessons. The following extract (7) from lesson 3 shows an example of this case:

(7) 68 T: Where do you think Julia was?

69S24: In the car

70 T: In the car. O.K.

Right. From the sound of her dress where do you think she might be?

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4.5 Repetition of Student Reply Followed by Teacher Evaluation.

The teacher often repeats a student's response to indicate that she has heard it. It does not mean that the answer given is correct. The teacher does not explicitly reject the answer. She merely acknowledges it and then gives an evaluation to make the student know that the answer given is not correct or is inadequate. In transaction I of lesson 1 for example, an exchange shows teacher feedback comprising an acknowledgement and an evaluation. It is shown as follows:

(8)

T: Anybody else felt that summary writing is useful to you?

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S2: (puts hand up)

T: (nods)

S2: For different pars of the lesson (T smiles and SS laugh)

You have done summary writing for three years and you don't see the relevance.

SS: No.

We hard did any.

We did only one.

In this exchange the teacher acknowledges the answer given by the student. Although the answer expresses the student's view it does not seem to be in line with the teacher's expectation. The question asked by the teacher refers to the relevance of summary writing in everyday life discussed prior to this question.

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4.6 Check

A check is made after a student reply to find out the problems of other students in understanding what has been said. There seems to be only one such case in this study. It has been observed in lesson 3 in an exchange which is as follows:

(9)

T: Can anyone tell me about a superstition?

S: (raises hand)

T: (looks at S)

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S: When it's late at night and you're alone walking in a deserted area and you get a feeling of being followed. There are three lights to protect you. When you look back you see nothing. The top light goes down to your shoulder.

T: Any questions about that?

The teacher intends to get some reaction from other students in the classroom. She has reserved her judgment and comments.

4.7 Nomination

Nomination also occurs as feedback following a student response. It is a rare case in this study as it happens only twice. One case is evident in transaction. It appears in the following exchange:

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(10)

T: Do you know that there's another belief about people calling your name?

SS: Yes.

No.

T: You tell them (pointing to a student who said 'yes').

4.8 Conclusion

This chapter presents the main observations made in a descriptive study of teacher feedback and its effects on student behaviour. It has been shown that in providing

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feedback the teacher is able to show approval or disapproval of a particular response, direct student response, and encourage student participation. In response to teacher feedback students have displayed variety in their behaviour which is significant for this study.

The variety of behaviour has provided valuable data to be analyzed. It has also made possible the construction of category systems within which date analyzed have been classified.

Teacher feedback may be seen to have significant effects on student behaviour. Significance is seen in terms of the students' participation in classroom discourse. The students' response after teacher feedback has shown that the teaching exchange consisting of teacher initiation, student response and teacher feedback.

In this study the teacher has shown that through her feedback she has been able to motivate the students to make further contributions to the discourse. The teacher has been able to make students give opinions, contradict information given, offer information and make corrections.

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4.9 Summary

It has been discovered that the type of feedback given influences the nature of student response. At times teacher feedback produces very brief responses from students and at other times longer responses. Why this happens will be examined in chapter five. The extent to which teacher feedback affects student behaviour will also be discussed in chapter five.

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CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

The description of teacher feedback and student behaviour in the previous chapter reflects the classroom situations in one class in a polytechnic in Malaysia. It has been shown that after teacher feedback a variety of student responses may occur. These responses have been categorized into main categories and subcategories of acts. The acts have been identified in terms of the functions they serve in the communication discourse. It is therefore necessary to discuss in this section how they have been identified.

5.1 A Review of Acts

It has been found that all the theories considered in Chapter Two have contributed to the interpretation of the acts. The fact that Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) in their speech act theory have provided a model which has stimulated a number of important undertakings to deal with communicative function is well established (Heringer, 1972; Green, 1973). However, the speech act theory is said to have paid little or no attention to

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the ways in which utterances fit together to form a coherent communication discourse. Nevertheless it has been possible to apply it in this study to discuss the acts used.

In so far as intention is concerned communication discourse in the classroom reflects the teacher's intention to convey information to her students, to make them understand the content of the lesson and to check their comprehension of what is taught. When speaking to her students the teacher puts across an illocutionary points (Searle, 1983) to get her students to do something. For example, she asks questions to elicit answers from students and provides clues to help them produce the appropriate response. The students' response then shows the elocutionary effect intended by the teacher's elicitation.

In the exchange referred to it is obvious that the teacher intends to get an answer to her question. The students understand the meaning and force of this utterance as a question which requires an answer. In response to the teacher's question in this example, an answer is thus produce by a student. The teacher reacts to the student reply by repeating it but in this case she uses a rising intonation:

Teacher: Conversation that you hear?

The effect of the teacher's utterance produces a further response from the student who uses a falling intonation:

Student: Yes.

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The student obviously interprets the teacher's utterance as elicitation to confirm the answer given and so gives a positive answer. The student's interpretation is confirmed by the affirmative response in teacher feedback:

Teacher: Yes.

It is deemed necessary here to justify the acts assigned. The acts assigned to the utterances have been based on the effects they have on one another within a particular teaching exchange. Hence feedback given by the teacher is categorized as elicitation as it is followed by teacher feedback 'yes' which indicates acceptance of the response as well as that given earlier. According to an adjacency pair convention a question is followed by an answer. The teacher's utterance is thus perceived as a 'yes/no' question by the student and hence an affirmative reply is given.

The question here is that of implied force. It can be argued here that the teacher's repetition of the student's answer using a rising intonation signifies the withholding of assessment. The teacher gives neither positive nor negative assessment. It is possible that she intends this to indicate that the student's response is not what she wants and that the student will have to try again or, as Sinclair and Brazil (1982:125) explain, Teachers very often select the rising tone for this kind of reserved or partial approval. Even in the act of acknowledging the truth of one contribution they are exercising overt control over the progress of the discourse by intimating that they want the pupil to go on and say more or that they want someone else to offer a response.

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The student's interpretation of the teacher's utterance is also based on the hearer-knows best principle. The student who is the hearer regards it as a question which refers to the response given and therefore gives the corresponding answer. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975:37) claim that repetition of a student answer with rising intonation suggests that there is another answer.

The student's response can also be attributed to norms of speaking in a classroom event. The rule of interaction in the classroom is usually: teacher asks questions and students answer them. The rule of interpretation followed by the student has to a large extent been discussed earlier in this chapter. Perceiving the repetition of the answer by the teacher as a question which requires an answer the student unhesitatingly answers 'yes'. Thus, observing the maxims of quantity, quality, relevance and manner. However the teacher's utterance lacks the information that will enable the student to know what the teacher actually intends. Thus the maxim of quantity is violated. Failing to fulfill a maxim may involve conversational implicative (Devine, 1982). In repeating the student's answer with a rising intonation the teacher conveys the idea that she wants to be sure that it is the answer intended by the student the teacher reinforces it with a similar response.

1T: Now if you say report wiring is a shorter form of something, Can you do a report writing of something that is not written?

2SS: (silent)

3T: For example…

4S1: A conversation that you hear.

5T: A conversation that you hear?

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6SS: Yes.

7T: Yes.

The two cases given exhibit similar patterns of communication discourse:

A repetition of a reply using a rising intonation is followed by a further response. According to Sbisa (1992) a hearer's response to what a speaker has uttered manifests how the hearer has taken the speaker's illocutionary act. Following the line of Sbisa's (1992) argument, the feedback the teacher gives, that is by repeating the student's response using the rising intonation, is thus counted as elicitation to confirm the answer given.

The different possible interpretations of the act have eventually been narrowed down to that of the teacher asking for confirmation of the student's response. This was confirmed by the teacher at an informal talk the researcher had with her to clarify the ambiguity discovered in the analysis, Sbisa's (1992) explanation therefore clarifies this problem of interpretation.

5.2 Teacher Feedback

Feedback is a major component of teacher talk in the classroom. Through feedback the teacher informs the learners of his performance, corrects the learner's mistakes and prevents bad learning habits from forming. Feedback or 'follow-up' (Sinclair and Brazil, 1982) is very important in teaching.

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Most of the time feedback given by the teacher induces very little language from the students and at other times a substantial amount of language is produced. It has been noticed that this depends on the type of question asked initially by the teacher. When the question asked by the teacher refers directly to the content in the text, the student's response is merely giving of information obtained from the text. Feedback from the teacher appears to be very brief. It includes expressions such as 'Yes', 'Right', 'O.K.' or repetition of the student's answer (extracts 1) on page 60. At times the teacher does not provide feedback overtly. It is understood by the student that her response is accepted when the teacher goes on to another question. This is evident in extract (7) page 73.

When the teacher's question does not refer to information contained in the text, teacher feedback appears to be longer. This is so because the teacher has to provide information when the response from the student is unsatisfactory extract (3), page 68. The teacher's feedback is also long when the teacher expands an answer given by a student to make it clearer extract (3), page 68.

Ernst (1994) has discovered that among the pedagogical strategies used by the teacher are extension and organization of turns, control of topics, and feedback. Like organization of turns and control of topics, the type of feedback offered by the teacher can restrict or facilitate student participation and language use (Ernst, 1994).

Sometimes the teacher provides guidance to students to encourage them to contribute to the communication discourse. The teacher does this in the feedback move by giving prompts (3), page 71 and clues (extract (6), page 72. Students then know what is required. The teacher has a positive view about using prompts. In the interview the teacher expressed that we shouldn't give them the answers all the time. So if we can sort

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of focus their attention on certain things by giving them these prompts then I think it's good to make them think about it.

In this study teacher feedback is also used to inform students about the errors they make and to help them correct these errors. The teacher rarely refers to the students' errors in a negative manner. Only one case of a direct rejection has been detected (extract (7) page 66. The teacher has not on any occasion, when students' responses are incorrect, used negative words such as 'No', 'Wrong', 'Incorrect'. With regard to such a reaction by the teacher Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) feel that 'in rejecting a reply one might reject the child'. In this study the teacher's concern is inclined towards providing encouragement to the student when the answer giving is incorrect. The teacher does this by providing clues (extract (3) page 61) so that the student is able to correct the error herself. Another strategy the teacher uses is rephrasing the response given by the student (extract (3), page 61). According to the teacher when a student states something that is ambiguous she (teacher) will rephrase it but will not tell the student that she (student) is wrong.

It has been discovered in this study that the teacher uses feedback as a strategy for allocating turns. The teacher may allow students to control the communication discourse for a short while (extracts (1) page 60) and after that she regains her turn. At times it becomes obvious that one student may control the communication discourse (extract (3), page 61). in this case the teacher has to intervene so that according to the teacher, other students get a chance to speak.

In one particular case, teacher's evaluation of a student response restricts that particular student's response (4), page 62) . This is because the teacher feels that the

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discussion may get her engaged with that particular student only. According to the teacher:

> I realize that if we go on to religion then the discussion would become rather then the discussion would become religion rather than superstition and... I could see that she was a very staunch Catholic.... She is quite strong about it and because she's quite strong about it there's no use discussing it in class... so then it becomes her and you and nobody else.

The teacher accepts this response and communication discourse between the teacher and the students continues in a more relaxed manner. The teacher claims that:

> Actually what I wanted those to do were to share and to see that... that a topic like that which is so broad can actually be seen from many angles.

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5.3 Student Response

It has been found in this study that student participation is restricted if feedback given by the teacher merely indicates acceptance of the answer given by the students. Acceptance of a student's answer may be explicitly sated or may be implied. The teacher then goes on to another question after an answer to the previous question has been given. The student thus does not have any opportunity to contribute further. (Extract (4) page 62) shows an example of such a case:

> T: Do you do report writing in other contexts besides your school work?

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S: I think it is beneficial when we do our projects and we put in all the facts in one paragraph as a record.

T: But let me ask you this, when you say that, you are still recording what had happened right?

Student participation is restricted particularly when the question asked by the teacher requires the student to get information from the text used. The teacher then accepts the correct answer after which the student does not add further information. If the answer given is incorrect then the teacher draws the student's attention to the error and a correction is made. It has been noticed that a correction is made by the student when the teacher provides a clue (extract (5), page 64). The clue guides the student to get the correct reply which is incorrect (extract (5), page 64), the student does not make any correction. This finding seems to be comparable to what is reported in study by Tomasello and Herron (1989). Tomasello and Herron (1989) refer to this type of teacher feedback as a recast. Tomasello and Herron (1989) believe that it is likely that 'students in a classroom context believe that a teacher's positive response indicates that no correction is needed.

Student participation after teacher feedback is also noticeable when a contradictory view is perceived by the student. This phenomenon is manifested in (extract (6) page 65). The teacher provides feedback in response to a statement made by a student. The information given by the teacher is contradicted by a student. In her subsequent feedback the teacher steers the discourse away from a discussion that would not be desirable and directs it back to the original course. Students then participate in the

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lesson which goes on as intended by the teacher, that is to view the topic from various angles and hence share the ideas given.

It is obvious in this study that students continue to contribute to the communication discourse conducted even after the teacher has provided feedback when the topic discussed is familiar to them. They thus present what they know about the topic. Sometimes their contribution is not overtly elicited, that is the teacher does not ask any questions nor expect them to add any information. Some examples of student taking their turns without being given any clue by the teacher are extracts (3) page 61 and (6) page 65) Extracts (3) and (6) show the students adding information that is in line with what that the teacher says. Extract (3) indicates the student expressing a view that is different from what the teacher intends to discuss.

Student participation is also stimulated by teacher feedback when the feedback contains an elicitation. The teacher overtly elicits further information from the students to make the students expand their answers and also, according to the teacher to challenge students to think. The teacher uses questions in general to challenge students to think. In this study the teacher uses questions in both the initiating move and the feedback move. The questions asked by the teacher in the feedback move are probing questions which urge students to keep on contributing to the communication discourse conducted.

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5.4 Effects of Teacher Feedback

It has been noted in chapter Four that teacher feedback produces a variety of student responses. It is apparent that teacher feedback has produced effects which are motivational to the students. This view is supported by a number of observations made.

5.4.1 Self-nomination by students

A feature of student response which occurs after teacher feedback is self-nomination. This individual nomination procedure is a constituent feature of recyclable tasks (Gariffin and Humphrey, 1978).

5.5 Conclusion

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The aim of this study has been to investigate the effects of teacher feedback on student behaviour. The argument in favour of this investigation is that it will provide insight into the teaching-learning process. Teacher feedback is important as it provides students with information regarding their performance, reinforces learning and guides students in achieving the desired results. The study has thus examined the nature and types of feedback in a Malaysian classroom and how they affect students' behaviour.

The types of teacher feedback have been identified as linguistic feedback, non-verbal feedback and non-linguistic verbal feedback.

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The types of teacher feedback discovered in this study have been categorized into acts which are: acceptance, non-acceptance, comments, elicitation, check and correction. The 'act acceptance' is realized in various ways. They are: repetition of student reply, linguistic but non-verbal signal and implicate. The non-acceptance act is realized in the following ways: rejection, repetition of student replies and rephrase of teacher elicitation.

Student response following teacher feedback has been identified as that produced by one student only and that produced by more than one student, one after another. Two types of student response have been identified. They are reply and react. Student has been realized in a number of ways. They are: offer of information, comprehension signal, utterance completion, correction and claim. React on the other hand has been manifested in the form of: contribution of information, confirmation by justification, confirmation by positive signals, confirmation by repetition and contradiction.

The analysis has revealed that certain types of feedback produce very little language from the students. There is however other types which motivate students to participate in classroom discourse. How the students react to the teacher's feedback to a certain extent depends on how the teacher manipulates feedback.

It has been discovered that when the teacher accepts their answer the student's often additional information and when their answers are incorrect the students provide alternative answers. The students offer information easily when the teacher provides clues or prompts. Teacher feedback has also led students to interact among themselves, to complete information that is partly given, to make corrections and to indicate understanding of what the teacher says. There have been occasions when no student's

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response is made after feedback is given by the teacher. This situation arises when the teacher accepts a student reply and then goes on to ask a fresh question.

The data obtained in this research study have been described in terms of moves and speech acts which constitute a teaching exchange. The speech acts have been interpreted based on the position in which the utterance occurs in the discourse, that is, within an exchange or a transaction or lesson. Various theories have been referred to in order to interpret the utterances so that the most appropriate interpretation is arrived at. These theories influence the approach taken in this study. The approach is primarily ethnographic in nature but linguistic and philosophical aspects of the contexts are also taken into consideration as several factors such as intention, gestures and intonation are discernible within the discourse. They help to attribute meaning to the utterances. The role of kinesics or aspects of non-vocal communication cannot be overlooked in this study as the gestures used are meaningful and significant in the discourse. Those detected mainly indicate acceptance.

The findings in this study have been based on a class with forty-two students and therefore they may not reflect what usually occurs in other classrooms. The sample has been limited to only one class because the research is intended to look at the language use and is deemed adequate for investigating the phenomenon mentioned and according to Potter (1987:161) for discourse analysis the success of a study is not in the least dependent on sample size.

This study has shown the possibility of viewing teacher feedback and its effects in detail. It has revealed a variety of language functions produced in teacher-fronted language activities. The teacher-fronted activities in this study show that students are

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given the opportunity to speak. The study shows that students are able to produce a variety of speech acts such as elicitation, opinion and claims apart from mere correction of errors after the teacher has provided feedback. Such contributions from the students make this study on teacher feedback different from the other studies made on this topic. Most of the studies conducted have concentrated on correction of student's errors in writing (Ferris, 1995; 1991; Lightbrown, 1990). Feedback given during an oral interaction is immediate and spontaneous. The teacher therefore, has to react promptly after a student reply.

This study has examined teacher feedback during oral interaction in the classroom. The findings have shown that the teacher provides a variety of feedback types in response to student's replies. Teacher feedback in this study is not confined to error correction. It deals with various types of teacher feedback, including correction of students' errors. These types of teacher feedback discovered in this study have shown that they are used for various purposes namely:

a. to motivate students to contribute to classroom discourse,
b. to provide information required by the students
c. to guide students to correct their errors, and
d. to encourage students to give opinions.

In view of the outcome of this study it is hoped that the language functions identified would be useful for English Language teachers to use when they provide feedback to their students during their lessons. Their results then can trigger off further

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research into this area, that is, effects of teacher feedback on student behaviour. It would thus be interesting to explore this topic further and find out the results in different classroom situations or with different sets of learners.

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APPENDIX A

Qualitative Research Questions, Strategies and Data-Collection Techniques

Question: 1			
What are the types of feedback the teacher provides following responses made by students?	Case Study Observation Field study	Participant observation Non participant observation	
Question : 2			
What are the types of responses the students make as a result of feedback given by the teacher?	Observation Interview Note taking Participants writing diary	Participant observation Non participant observation Selected interviewing Dairy writing	
Question : 3			
What is the nature of student responses following teacher feedback?	Observation Videotaping Field study	Writing questionnaire Content analysis Dairy writing	
Question : 4			
What are the effects of teacher feedback on student's behaviour?	Observation Videotaping	Diary writing Participant observation In-depth interviewing	

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APPENDIX B

Structure of a lesson –Based on observation 1

The structure of a lesson shows the link between one rank and the next one below, the lowest of which is the act.

SAMPLES OF INTERVIEWS

Class: **Semester 3 Commercial Students.**

Time: **9.00am**
Topic: **Report Writing**

R = Researcher
S = Student
T = Teacher

R: How did you feel when the teacher repeated your answer?

S: Ah… it was a sense of completion.

R: And when the teacher wrote down all the answers that you gave on the board, how did you feel?

S: I feel like I have done something. I mean… like, like… yes, yes you are right. Yes, and you are proud to see your own answer up on the board.

R: Yes, good. Were you expecting the teacher to say 'good'?

S: No. No, not really. As long as it's correct.

R: So, how would you normally know that your answer is correct?

S: She writes it on the board.

R: She writes it on the board.

S: When the teacher says aaaaa…(laughter)

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APPENDIX C

Class: **Semester 3 Commercial Students.**
Time: **9.00am**
Topic: **Vocabulary in context**

R: How do you feel when you answer something… when you say something and then find it's not the answer?

S1: It depends on how the teacher reacts to the answer if she goes oooohhh…

R: How does she normally react?

S1: She goes oooohh…(laughter)

S2: She walks up and down the room.

S1: Yeah (laughter)

S2: And then we'd think hm.. and we're trying to figure out 'is that correct or not?' like … it could be phrased differently… I mean our answer.

R: So, it's not a direct 'no' and it's not a direct 'yes'.

S2: Not a direct 'yes'. It's not a 'yes' it's not a 'no' either.

R: Or wrong, but you know that it's not an acceptable answer, or you could give a better answer.

S2: Yes.

R: Then how do you feel about the teacher giving a lot of explanation after that, after your response?

S1: We felt that the class was a bit silent today.

S2: I think the silence was because it was a holiday yesterday and we've just got back.

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APPENDIX D

Interview with the English teacher

R: Why do you often repeat the students' answers?

T: *I feel that when I repeat it, you know, then I am repeating it for those students who are not really paying attention and then they get to hear it paying attention and then they get to hear it again and besides that I think when you repeat it then the students hears it for herself what she said. Usually when the students speak to you they don't really hear what they are saying, but when you repeat it to them they can hear whether there are any flaws in what they said, you know. And sometimes when you do that, you know, then they will correct themselves automatically without my having to sort of ask them questions again.*

R: You gave them time to think?

T: *To think about what they have said. When they say something they don't as some of them said they just... they just say whatever comes, you just have to talk, you know. But they don't think about further than that, you know. So when you repeat it then they will hear it, then they will think about it you know. Then they might think a bit further to carry it a bit further and then they might automatically respond further if it's necessary. When they don't respond I will question them.*

R: Yes. But if it's a correct response? Why do you repeat the correct response?

T: *The correct response is for the other students to hear because sometimes when one of their classmates is talking they don't pay attention to their classmates you know. So you repeat it so that those who did not listen the first time... did not hear it the first time, hear it the second time, hopefully, and sometimes you find that with a lot of students, if the teacher talks then they listen but when a student talks, they don't.*

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APPENDIX E

Transcripts of lessons

The following transcripts show the transactions which occurred in the 3 lessons which were examined. The transactions show the positions of the extracts which have been cited in this study. Each transaction shows the larger context in which interaction between teacher and student took place in this study. The transcripts included are only those parts of the lessons which are relevant to this study.

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APPENDIX F

Lesson 1

Exchange/
teacher/
student

1T: Now, if you say report writing is a shorter form of something, can you do a report writing of something that is not written?

2SS: (silent)

3T: For example…

4S10: Conversation that you hear?

5T: A conversation that you hear?

6S31: Yes.

7T: Yes. What else? A situation that you observed, meaning that you watched. What you were doing, report writing, do you feel it was of any relevance? Was it useful to use?

8SS: No

9T: No? Why not?
Why do you think that summary writing is not useful to you at all?

10S1: It's a waste of paper

11T: It's a waste of paper (smile)

12SS: (laughter)

13T: Anybody else felt that report writing is useful to you?

14S2: (bids)

15T: (nods)

16S2: For different parts of the lesson.

17T: (smiles)

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You have done report writing for 2 semesters and you don't see the relevance?

18SS: No…

We hardly did any.

We only did once.

19T: So you feel… let's put it this way, you don't you don't feel that report writing is useful to you in you daily life.

Do you see the relevance in other contexts?

20SS: (silent)

21T: Do you do report writing in other contexts besides your school work?

22S4: I think it is beneficial when we do our projects and we put in all the facts in one paragraph as a record.

23T: But let me ask you this, when you say that, you are still recording what had happened right?

24S5: (bids)

25T: (points to S5)

26S5: When you write down about what had happened helps us remember things clearly.

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27T: Huuh (falling intonation, as though indicating acceptance)

In everyday life all the time you are doing reflection, surely, for example you write down a diary daily, or write down your interesting happening of each day somewhere?

28S9: Well, yes. I do write a diary, but not daily.

29T: Good. It will make you remember things happened.

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APPENDIX G

Lesson 2

Exchange/
teacher/
student

30T: Right. Now, the reason why we want to go to the relevance of report writing as said. If you go for your attachment work in semester 4, the first thing you need to know is …

31SS: (Silent)

32T: What do you need to write daily?

33S3: A record on everyday routine.

34T: Very good. (teacher smiles and makes gestures pointing her hand to that particular student)
Ok. We must see the relevance of what we're doing. So if , you are writing down the routine of your daily work during your attachment training, how does that help you?

35S6: Remember things what we do at work.

36T: Well, you will remember all the activities you did for each day right!
You will take down each important aspect of your daily activities in your work place, is that right?

37S6: Yes.

38T: Say for example, you have to finish some of the filing work for today. Then, the next day your supervisor comes to check on you. He asks you, on what you did yesterday.

39S6: Show the report.

40T: (teacher smiles) well, so you can report exactly on what you have done, right?

41S6: Yes. (with happy and loud voice) I can read out what I have done.

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APPENDIX H

Lesson 3

Exchange/
teacher/
student

42T: (read from text) The teacher will play a few sounds to you. Make a note of what these sounds are. Make the notes using your own memories. (Referring to the text but not reading out the exact words) and ask your teacher if there is any new vocabulary and then discuss with your partner to decide what you think the story is about. You have the title there – Julia's strange experience. After listening to the sounds you have to decide what the story is about.

43T: Are you ready? (plays tape- twice)
Students listen.
Right.
You heard all those sounds.
What were the sounds you just heard?

44SS: Rain
Storm

45T: (writes and repeats) – rain, storm

46SS: Thunder
Wind

47T: (writes and repeats) – Thunder, wind …then leading on to….

48S40: car door

49T: Right. Car door (writes – car door – open)

50S12: Music from the car

51 T: nodding

52SS: (silent)

53T: I'll give you the order as in this book.
It starts with the wind, right? Then the rain pouring, the flash of thunder or storm. Then the car stopping – the brakes. Then car door opening.

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So, based on that, what do you think the story is going to be?

54SS: (silent)

55T: what do you think happened?

56SS: (silent)

57T: Ghost came out?

58SS: (laughter)

59T: Right. What would be the next step or action take place?

60SS: A man came out.

61T: A man?

62S22: Aaaaa....

63T: Humm...Yes, you would like to say something?

64S1: A person.

65T. Yes. That's right.

66 T: Then? (What happens?)

67 S1: Somebody came

68 T: Somebody came

69 S2: She opened the door

70 T: She opened the door and ...

71 T: Where do you think Julia was?

72S24: In the car

73 T: In the car. O.K.

Right. From the sound of her dress where do you think she might be?

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APPENDIX I

Lesson 4

Exchange/
teacher/
student

74T: The kinds of exercise you get are of two types (teacher writes on the black board (BB))

a. Replacement exercise

b. Explanation exercise

Can anybody tell me the difference between replacement exercise and explanation exercise?

75SS: (Silent)

76T: can anybody guess?

77S2: (murmurs)

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78T: Sorry?

79S2: the use of the amount of words.

78T: the use of the amount of words. Not necessarily. Let me give you an example. You know the exercise you did for me on that definition and so on? That was a replacement exercise. Say for example in a long subjective kind of comprehension. You're asked to explain the meaning of words. It's slightly difficult if you're asked to replace the word. It's slightly difficult if you are asked to explain the meaning of word. Whatever word or phrase you come up with must be able to fit in the context with as little change as possible. That is, you come up in, which takes the place of

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whatever was originally in the context itself. Which means that if you do a replacement exercise what must you be aware of?

81S7: the tense

82T: the tense

83S4: the meaning.

84T: Yes, the meaning

85SS: (silent)

86T: One quite important rule.

87S4: context

88T: the context. I'll accept (writes on the BB)

Say for example, when you see in the text the word 'French'. Can you give the meaning of this word?

89SS: No

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90T: No.

Say for example, if give a phrase, when the sun had set How do you replace that?

91SS: Sunset.

92T: How do you know in place of that you say 'after sunset' not say 'the setting sun' (writes on BB). Why can't you say the setting sun?

93SS: It doesn't show the time.

94T: It doesn't show the time.

This answer is an abverbial phrase.

If you say the setting sun it becomes … what?

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95S6: noun

96T: it becomes a noun. If you're replacing either a phrase or a clause or word you must make sure that the replacement must…

97SS: (silent)

98T: what are verbs and nouns and adjectives?

99SS: (silent)

100T: writes on BB- parts of speech.

101SS: Ohhhhhh……..

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