外籍英語教師與台灣國中學生課室互動之研究

A Study of Classroom Interaction between

Native English Speaking Teachers and Taiwanese Junior High School

Students

by

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THESIS

Presented to the Faculty of the

Department of Foreign Languages and Literature of

Tunghai University

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

MASTER OF ARTS in

Teaching English as a Foreign Language

TUNGHAI UNIVERSITY

May 2006

中 華 民 國 九 十 五 年 六 月

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論文摘要

　　由於台灣教育部實施聘請以英語為母語的外籍英語教師至中小學任教的新政策，外籍英語教師之課室語言逐漸成為我國英語學習者的主要學習來源之一。本研究旨在探討外籍英語教師如何使用課室語言與台灣的英語學習者互動，更深入探討外籍教師的學經歷背景與課室互動之間的關係。除此之外，外籍教師如何修飾其課堂語言使其更容易被學生理解也將是本研究的探討重點之一。

　　本研究的研究對象為三名外籍英語教師與兩班國中二年級的學生。研究者錄影錄音記錄每班至少三堂課師生之間的課室互動，包含口語與肢體語言的互動，並將言語互動轉化為文字資料，以 Sinclair 與 Coulthard(1992) 的課室語言分析系統做分析。此外，為了彌補攝影與錄音之不足，研究者佐以兩份檢核表來評估外籍教師在課堂上之整體表現。

　　根據本研究的主要分析結果，有以下的發現與建議。第一，外籍教師在課堂上主要使用三種言語行為，即「資訊行為」、「指令行為」以及「誘出行為」，並將其運用得宜來引導與激發學生課堂上言語的輸出。有關於三位外籍教師與學生之互動模式，主要以教師啟動(initiation)、學生回應(response)及教師評量(follow-up)三部分構成的序列為主，但有教學相關學經歷背景之外師在 IRF 互動模式的延長上，有較為出色的表現。另外英語程度較高的學生也有較多語言啟動，及互動延伸的行為。外籍英語教師若知道如何運用簡化的英語修正課室語言，他們也許能創造出學生期待中自然學習的全英語學習環境，且能增進課室互動的品質。第二，本研究之分析結果顯示，外籍英語教師的專業背景的確對於課室互動之質與量有正面影響。因此，

在外籍教師至非英語系國家任教前，應接受專業的教學訓練課程。第三，

Sinclair 與 Coulthard 的課室語言分析系統雖然適合用來分析課室言語互

動，但仍有其不足之處。若能將其課室互動之內容納入分析中，將能更清楚

地呈現課室互動對於學生語言學習的影響與效益。

關鍵字：課室互動、課室語言分析、言語行為

A Study of Classroom Interaction between

Native English Speaking Teachers and Taiwanese Junior High School Students

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Abstract

As the Ministry of Education (MOE) in Taiwan implements its new policy on recruiting native English speaking teachers (NEST) to teach in primary and secondary schools in Taiwan, these native English speakers' speech will become one of the main learning resources for our students.   This study investigated how native English speaking teachers used their speech to interact with Taiwanese language learners in an EFL context.   More specifically, the effect of teachers' professional background on classroom interaction was examined.   This study also explored how native English speaking teachers modified their speech to make their communication more effective.

The participants in this study were three native English speaking teachers and two classes of second-year junior high school students.   The researcher recorded at least three sessions of each class that included both verbal (audiotape) and non-verbal (videotape) interactions between the teachers and the students. The taped speech was transcribed and analyzed by the researcher based on Sinclair and Coulthard's (1992) Classroom Discourse Analysis System in order to examine the classroom interaction patterns between teachers and students with varied levels of English proficiency.   To compensate for the limitation of video- and audiotaping, two checklists were used to evaluate teachers' overall performance in an EFL context.

There were three major findings of this study.   First, the NES teachers in this study were good at using three specific speech acts, "informative act",

"directive act", and "elicitation act", to guide and motivate students' output in class.   The analyzed interaction followed typical IRF patterns but the NES teachers with teaching-related educational background and more teaching experience performed better in the expansion of IRF patterns.   In addition, students with higher English proficiency not only initiated more classroom interactions but also had longer conversations than those with lower English level. Secondly, native English speaking teachers' professional background, including teaching-related educational background and teaching experience, made a difference in the quantity and quality of classroom interactions.   Therefore, it is suggested that NES teachers are required to enroll in a professional teacher training program before they start to teach in an EFL context.   Thirdly, Sinclair and Coulthard's Discourse Analysis System requires some modifications when used in EFL settings.

Keywords: classroom interaction, discourse analysis, speech acts

Acknowledgements

It would not have been possible for me to complete this thesis without the help of a number of individuals.   First and foremost, I want to express my sincere appreciation to my thesis advisor, Dr. Chi-Lin Wang, for her intellectual insights and support.   Her expertise on issues of classroom interactions in an EFL context inspired me to begin this study, and her encouragement enabled me to continue on and complete it.   Her professional knowledge helped me through difficult times in the research process.   Without her wise guidance and unending patience in reading and commenting on my drafts, this thesis would not have been completed. Her warm encouragement of my studies and tender concern about my life in general really meant a lot to me.   Words cannot really begin to express my appreciation to her.

I am also indebted to the other committee members, Dr. Su-Chiao Chen and Dr. Min-Hsun Chiang, for their theoretical input regarding my thesis.   Dr. Chen's research in discourse analysis provided considerable foundational support for this study.   I really appreciate her assistance.   I am deeply grateful to Dr. Chiang for her suggestions and feedback on the results of analysis for this study.

I would especially like to thank the three participating teachers and their students who welcomed me into their classrooms and cooperated throughout the study.   Their participation was the guiding light in the "dead valley" of the data collection procedure.   Without them, I would not have been able to proceed with my study.

In addition, I am grateful for the encouragement from my classmates, Carrie, Debbie, Dana, Jenny, Vanessa and countless other friends, including Sherry, Sandy, Amber, and Eva.   Their friendship sustained me through the storms and

tragedies that occurred on this journey.

Finally, I want to extend my gratitude to the prayer and support from my family and my boyfriend who shared my emotional ups and downs during this process and believed that I could accomplish this task.   Above all, I want to thank my dear parents, who not only encouraged and supported me from the very beginning when I entered the M.A. TEFL program but also understood the time demands involved.   I really cannot thank them enough for believing in me. Their unconditional love lightened the stress load of working on this study.   This achievement would not have been possible without their support.

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Chapter Ι

Introduction

Background of the Study

Teaching a language involves not only transmitting knowledge and ideas that are culturally and socially related but also developing students' ability to communicate in the real world.   According to the rules stipulated by the Ministry of Education (MOE) in Taiwan (1999), the three main goals for primary and secondary English education are to develop students' communicative ability in English, expand their interests and ways of learning English and enrich students' knowledge of foreign cultures.   According to the news media (Taipei Times, 2003) in Taiwan, the hiring policy of many English learning organizations in Taiwan has a preference for native English speakers.   The paper pointed out that due to the common belief that being able to speak a language naturally corresponds to the ability to teach a language, native English speakers are needed in language teaching in Taiwan.

Based on the above goals and factors, the MOE decided to hire native English speakers from the United States, Canada, Australia, United Kingdom (UK), and South Africa, to teach English in Taiwan's primary and secondary schools starting from 2004.   These native English speakers' speech has become one of the main learning resources for our language learners in Taiwan.   This phenomenon projects a myth of native speakers as more qualified language teachers and perpetuates the superiority of native speakers for teaching a language.

Definitions of the term "native speakers" have varied among scholars and no agreement has been reached on this controversial issue.   Some scholars argue that native speakers should be defined by their place of birth.   According to this definition, people who are born in a community where the language is spoken are native speakers of that language.   On the other hand, some scholars approach the

term "native speakers" from a different perspective and define it as "competent users of the language." The proponents of this definition argue that the intuition of native speakers comes from training and experience, not from birth or infancy (Davies, 1991; Paikeday, 1985). These scholars place native or nonnative speakers along a continuum that starts when the speakers begin learning the language and ends when they discontinue the learning process or are no longer exposed to the language. The speaker's ability, rather than his/her inherent characteristics, determines his/her position in the continuum and the right to claim authority as a native speaker. However, the definition of native English speakers in Taiwan is not related to either their English language competence or their place of birth. In the hiring policy set by the MOE (2003), a native English speaker is defined as a person who is a citizen of a country where English is used as the official language. Compared to the clear and specific definitions of native speakers mentioned above, the definition of native English speakers adopted by the MOE in Taiwan is vague and elusive.

Recent research in language acquisition has shown that language input becomes comprehensible to L2 learners mainly through the speech modification native speakers employ while communicating with nonnative speakers in the target language. According to Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1985a), native speakers of a language modify their language to L2 learners by using simplified codes, such as in caretaker speech, foreigner talk and teacher talk. Krashen also pointed out that comprehensible teacher talk is central to the process of language learning. According to Long's second language acquisition theory (1983b), second language acquisition relies on comprehensible input. Comprehension can promote acquisition and teacher's conversational modification can lead to better comprehension. His study of modifications in native speaker input to non-natives made a distinction between linguistic modifications (modifying based on linguistic features) and

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interactive modifications (modifying based on negotiation for meanings), claiming that the interactive modifications were facilitative and necessary for second language acquisition.

Over the past twenty years, growing interest in the study of the language used in foreign language classrooms has been based on the realization that successful language learning probably depends on the type of interaction that takes place in the classroom (Ellis, 1985:143).   The emphasis of the study of language classrooms has gradually shifted focus from teachers' speech to a broader aspect, which is the classroom discourse that occurs between teachers and students.

This perspective on the relationship between teachers' speech and classroom interaction and, more specifically, native English speaking teachers' speech modifications and students' L2 development has stimulated research of considerable scope.   Therefore, classroom activities along with certain classroom speech, such as teachers' explanations, can focus language learners' attention on particular forms and enhance input to make the forms clearer.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate how native English speaking (NES) teachers interact verbally with Taiwanese language learners in an EFL context.   In spite of growing recognition of the importance of NES teachers' speech in the language classroom, there have been few attempts either to define what is meant by teachers' speech or to analyze the ways in which this language input is transmitted and the effects it may have on promoting classroom interaction.   In order to understand the characteristics of NES teachers' classroom speech, the study attempted to identify the function of a teacher's speech when the teacher was interacting with students and to determine whether the teacher interacted differently with students with

varied English proficiency.   Moreover, the impact of teachers' educational

background and teaching experience on their overall teaching performance and

interaction patterns with students was investigated.   It is hoped that the result of the

study can offer both NES teachers and local English teachers in Taiwan some

implications and suggestions about the influence of teachers' speech on students in

EFL context.

Research Questions

This study attempted to answer the following questions and to discuss their

implications:

1. What speech acts do NES teachers use in their EFL classrooms?

2. How do NES teachers' verbal interaction patterns differ when working with higher

    and lower English proficiency students, respectively?

3. How does NES teachers' professional background influence their classroom

    interaction patterns and their overall performance when teaching Taiwanese

    students?

4.   How do NES teachers modify their speech to help Taiwanese students

    comprehend their teacher talk?

Significance of the Study

As Allwright (1984:159) pointed out, classroom interaction is "a

co-production and teachers and learners are jointly responsible for managing

classroom interaction and therefore for learning."   This study attempted to provide

some contributions to the following aspects.   First, the study tried to raise both native

and nonnative English teachers' and school administrators' awareness of teachers' use

of speech in English classrooms.   By analyzing the characteristics of teachers'

speech acts, the researcher wanted to help English teachers to realize the effect and meaning of their speech acts and also to utilize these speech acts effectively to promote oral interaction in English classes.   Through the investigation of classroom discourse, this study attempted to determine the potential relationship between native English speaking teachers' educational background, or their teaching experience, and the use of speech to interact with students.   In addition, this study tried to help English teachers to understand the verbal interaction patterns between NES teachers and students with varied English proficiency in junior high schools in Taiwan.

Chapter Ⅱ

Review of the Literature

In this chapter, the literature related to classroom interaction between NES teachers and Taiwanese language learners is discussed in three main sections. The first section details three factors that are related to teachers' teaching practices: the role of native English speakers in language teaching, the characteristics of teacher talk, and the influence of teachers' educational background and teaching experience on teaching. The second section is about the influence of classroom interaction in language learning viewed from the perspective of second language acquisition. The third section discusses the use of discourse analysis in understanding classroom interaction. Two related elements are also discussed: teacher-student interaction in the language classroom and discourse analysis based on classroom settings. Some studies conducted in EFL countries and in Taiwan, which are related to classroom discourse analysis and classroom interaction, are also assessed and examined in this section.

Teachers' Role in English Language Teaching

Native English Speakers

According to *The Oxford Companion to the English Language* (McArthur [Ed.], 1992), a native speaker is "a person who has spoken a certain language since early childhood." This book also indicates that a native speaker has the following characteristics: "subconscious knowledge of rules, intuitive grasp of meanings, ability to communicate within social settings, range of language skills and creativity of language use, identification with a language community, the ability to produce fluent discourse, to know the differences between his/her own speech and that of the 'standard' form of the language, and to interpret and translate into the L1 of which he or she is a native speaker."

Cook (1999) claims that the importance of the native speaker in English language teaching is indeed the perennial issue of deciding on which kind of native speaker should be the model for language teaching. She mostly assumes that the choice lies between different types or aspects of native speakers. When teaching their native language, language teachers might have greater confidence in answering students' questions and setting more challenging goals for both themselves and students. Ding (2001) asked Taiwanese junior high school students who had been taught by native English speaking teachers for their opinions about the NES teachers' teaching performance. On the focus of teachers' presentation, most students surveyed thought they had better interaction with NES teachers than with Taiwanese English teachers because NES teachers used more activities (small group activities, games or songs) to stimulate students' interest in different topics. The use of classroom activities and teaching materials was more interesting to them than the regular English lessons taught by their Taiwanese English teachers. Ding's study shows the influence native English speaking teachers can have on learners in Taiwan's English teaching environment.

It is often assumed that teachers who teach their own mother tongue have a number of advantages over teachers who are not native speakers of the language they teach. Native speakers' intuitions about language are supposed to result in the production of correct, idiomatic utterances, as well as providing them with the ability to recognize acceptable or unacceptable forms of a language. Arva and Medgyes (2000) investigated the differences between native and nonnative English teachers on "knowledge of grammar," "language competence," "competence in local language," and "teaching behavior." According to their study, native English speaking teachers have advantages in language proficiency, teach language in more creative and authentic contexts and prefer free activities, such as pair work or group discussion,

whereas nonnative English speaking teachers have advantages in knowledge of grammar, know local language and culture very well and are more likely to follow the content of textbooks.   Besides the advantages in language proficiency, native English speaking teachers also tend to give fewer tests and homework and create more relaxing, friendship-oriented relationships with students.   Therefore, the advantages of cultural and linguistic background may help native English speakers to teach their own native language well.   However, native English speaking teachers have been criticized for not being familiar with and being unable to identify with students' culture and learning difficulties.   They usually have some difficulties adjusting to the classroom setting and establishing the level of interaction-- difficulties their non-native counterparts do not have.   The disadvantages native English speaking teachers have might cause some negative impact on their confidence in their teaching ability.

     McNeill (1993) compared the performances of four groups of Hong Kong ESL teachers on a language teaching task.   The participants were two groups of native English speaking teachers, one of experienced teachers and one of novices, and two groups of nonnative English speaking teachers, also one of experienced teachers and one of novices.   They were all asked to preview an English text and select twelve words they thought would be unfamiliar to a specific student level.   Comparisons of the results demonstrated that native English speaking teachers are at a distinct advantage in identifying problematic vocabulary in connection with reading texts.   In order to select appropriate words for teaching, the nonnative English teachers put more emphasis on analyzing the reading context than native English teachers did. Therefore, nonnative teachers can improve their ability to select and teach appropriate words to students at specific levels.

The Influence of Teachers' Background on Teaching

The research in the field of teachers' knowledge claims that what teachers know and how their knowledge is expressed in teaching constitutes an essential factor in the understanding and practice of teaching (Connelly et al., 1997). Long and Biggs (1999) investigated two groups of participants. One group of teachers were education majors with less than one year of teaching experience and the other group of teachers were non-education majors with an average of twelve years' teaching experience. By using self-reported questionnaires, the authors found that the education majors attributed 41% of the influence on a successfully managed classroom to the teacher, whereas the experienced teachers attributed 49% of the influence to themselves. The results of the study show that teachers' majors and their teaching experience are factors that can influence and contribute to classroom management.

Some researchers have proven that experienced teachers are more effective in teaching, not only in managing a classroom but also in transmitting academic knowledge. Berliner and Laczko (2002) compared the academic achievements of students taught by under-certified primary school teachers to students taught by certified teachers. Findings on studies of five school districts, involving about 300 new teachers, showed that students taught by under-certified teachers made about 20% less academic progress than students taught by certified teachers.

Some previous studies have indicated that confidence in teachers' ability to perform appropriate teaching behaviors can positively affect students' production or teacher efficacy. Campbell (1996) investigated a group of pre-service teachers and in-service teachers on the relationship between teacher efficacy and teaching experience among a group of pre-service and in-service teachers. The results of the study revealed that in-service teachers do, in fact, have higher levels of teacher

efficacy than pre-service teachers, suggesting that teacher efficacy does increase with teaching experience.   In Taiwan, Hung (1997) investigated classroom interaction related to teachers' classroom discourse.   The results showed that experienced teachers talked less in class but interacted better with students than inexperienced teachers.

Previous studies related to teachers' teaching practices showed that teachers' educational background and teaching experience influence students in many ways during the learning process.   In language learning, teachers not only play an important role as the model of the target language user but also directly or indirectly affect students' attitude about language learning.

The Characteristics of Teacher Talk

Verbal interaction between teachers and students is one of the sources that influences the learning process.   Most of the time, teachers lead the discussion in language classrooms.   Therefore, teacher talk has become the focus of researchers' attention because of its potential effect on learners' comprehension, which has been thought to be important for L2 acquisition.   Furthermore, the perceived role of teachers is to prepare learners to use English outside of the classroom.   Nunan (1987) argued that the style of language used in the classroom environment may seriously affect a student's ability to cope with real world communication.   This point of view subsequently led researchers to analyze classroom discourse and assess its effectiveness, especially on teacher's speech.

According to Wong-Fillmore's study (1982), the characteristics of teacher talk that work as comprehensible input are as follows:

1) Beginning and ends marked by formulaic cues

2) Clear lesson format, instruction and lesson phases

3) Clear and fair turn-allocation

4) Clear separation of languages L1 and L2

5) Use of demonstration and enactment to convey meaning

6) New information presented in the context of existing knowledge

7) Heavy message redundancy

8) Simpler structures used

9) Repetition and the use of paraphrases for variation

10) Focus on communication

On another phase, Teacher talk also includes phonological characteristics. Anchalee's findings (1999) showed that the phonological language in terms of phonology used by the teacher in her study used when teaching LEP (Limited English Proficiency) ESL learners consisted of the following eight specific features: slower rate of delivery, more and longer pauses, more stresses, clearer articulation, wide pitch range or exaggerated intonation, use of full form and less vowel reduction.   The teacher tried to make her language comprehensible to the learners by modifying her speech using all of the abovementioned techniques identified by Anchalee.   Besides, since the learners' English proficiency was limited, the teacher dramatically modified her speech by using clearer articulation.   However, the modification of teacher talk involves more than the phonological aspect. Teachers also tend to make some adjustments in their speech based on students' language proficiency.

Gaies (1977) conducted a study of a group of English teachers, including both native and nonnative speakers of English.   He found that in classroom verbal interaction with students these teachers modified their speech considerably according to learners' English proficiency levels.   Gaies' study demonstrated that teachers adjusted their speech to provide increasingly complex input when speaking to their students.   His findings on teachers' speech modification relative to learners' proficiency level can be related to Krashen's theory of 'i + 1', the notion that optimal

input is slightly more advanced than the learner's current level.

When we consider classroom discourse, we may also relate the language used in the classroom to the authentic language native speakers use outside of the classroom.   One of the primary means of generating learners' output in a classroom is through teachers' question types.   Teachers' questions typically form the first stage in the three-stage IRF pattern, followed by students' response and teachers' subsequent feedback.   Basically, the main function of teachers' questions in a language classroom is to stimulate the learners to produce language (Van Lier, 1988). Questions also enable teachers to discover what learners already know and serve as important determiners for the instruction that follows (Ausubel, 1978).

Teachers' questions have been classified in a number of different ways, and they are considered to generate the functions of different learners' output.   Long and Sata (1983) used the term "display questions" for questions to which the teacher knows the answer, and "referential questions" for those to which the teacher does not know the answer.   They conducted research on six classes of elementary students and compared the teachers' speech when using display and referential questions.   They also compared the teachers' use of comprehension, clarification and confirmation checks with the students in a mixed class of native and nonnative speakers.   The results showed that these ESL teachers used more display questions and comprehension checks when talking to students who were nonnative speakers, whereas they tended to use more informal speech with students who were native speakers.

The classroom questions probably control the language that learners are expected to produce.   Although often viewed negatively, in a language class, closed display-type questions can help develop formulaic speech and, thus, as Hatch (1978) has pointed out, give the learner a short-cut to communication.   Even when the

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content of the question is not cognitively demanding, the learner must process the question and the response through the target language.   Display questions in the language classroom, therefore, function as both input and elicitation of output. Furthermore, it has been suggested that referential questions produce longer and syntactically more complex responses than display questions (Brock 1986; Kubota 1989), whereas higher level cognitive questions might also increase the length and syntactic complexity of student output.

Of course, the language used in classrooms naturally differs from that of real life.   The contribution of the previous studies was to show the differences between the interactions of native with native speakers and those of native with nonnative speakers in terms of the conversational structure.   Therefore, teachers' speech plays an important role in leading students to communicate or negotiate for meaning in the classroom.

Classroom Interaction in Language Teaching and Learning

Classroom interaction is one of many resources available for language learning. To discuss the importance of interaction in second language acquisition, the researcher examined two aspects: the role of interaction in students' language development and the role of negotiation for meaning in teachers' language teaching. In the past few years, the focus of research has gradually shifted to the analysis of verbal interaction to investigate whether the influence of classroom discourse promotes language learning.   In this section, the central concepts related to this topic, such as teacher-student interaction and verbal interaction, are discussed.

Classroom Interaction

Some earlier research focused on the effect of classroom interaction on

language development.　　Chaudron (1988) indicated that "in learning a language, a much greater role has been attributed to interactive features of classroom behaviors, such as turn-taking, questioning and answering, negotiation of meaning and feedback".　　The background for this lies in the fact that "second language learning is a highly interactive process" (Richard and Lockhart, 1994) and "the quality of this interaction is thought to have a considerable influence on learning" (Ellis, 1985, cited in Richards and Lockhart, 138).

　　　Teacher-student interaction is a sociolinguistic process that is believed to contribute to learners' language development.　　The theoretical basis for research on interaction was provided by Long's interaction hypothesis (1983, 1985, 1996). Long (1980b, 1981a) has argued that "comprehensible input facilitates acquisition with the additional notion that native speakers' speech to nonnatives is most effective for language learning when it contains linguistic and conversational modification." He also mentioned that language modifications made during teacher-student interaction are more beneficial for acquisition than those made by teachers linguistically.

　　　In a later study, Long (1983b) pointed out that classroom interaction between teachers and students is constructed on negotiated interactions, comprehensible input and language acquisition.　　Furthermore, Pica (1994) claimed that negotiating meanings involves the restructuring and modification of interaction, which may occur when second language learners and their interlocutors have to achieve comprehensibility by "repeating a message verbatim, adjusting its syntax, changing its words, or modifying its form and meaning in a host of other ways".　　When negotiating meanings in interaction, learners' production is also an important issue. Ellis (1980) pointed out that language learners tend to use the target language to express their meaning, and they are motivated to engage in further verbal interaction

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in the target language when they have benefited from earlier experiences with interaction. Swain (1995) indicated that the process of having to produce language as answers or responses is what constrains language learners to think about the target language and use it in classroom interaction. This kind of verbal interaction between teachers and students is a source of L2 learning. Gradually, the focus of interaction in second language acquisition over the past twenty years has shifted from the characteristics of teacher talk alone to a more student-centered interaction.

Based on the results of previous research (Allwright 1984, Breen 1985), interaction has been proven to be significant because it is argued that only through interaction can the learner decompose the target language structures and derive meaning from classroom events. Besides, interaction between teachers and students provides learners with opportunities to incorporate target language structures into their own speech and make classroom events more communicative. In Taiwan, Yeh (1998) conducted research on the interaction between one local English teacher and thirty-four primary school students to observe the effect of teachers' interaction strategy and students' personal attributes (extroversion or introversion) on students' grammatical competence. The result shows that the more interaction the teacher and the students had, the more improvement students made in grammatical competence.

Previous studies have generally attempted to describe classroom interaction by using either the principles of discourse analysis or one of the many observation schedules which have developed out of the interaction analysis tradition. These schedules, some of which have been designed specifically for the L2 classroom, are coding systems used by observers to categorize teacher and learner behavior at given intervals during a lesson. However, the focus of the present study is on the verbal interaction between teachers and students. Because many classroom activities are

performed through classroom discourse, especially the oral interaction that occurs between teachers and students, the analysis of classroom discourse is especially consequential to the language learning environment.

Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis can help both researchers and teachers to understand how real people use real language, as opposed to studying artificially created sentences. It is of immediate interest to language teachers because they need to understand how language is used when designing teaching materials, or when engaging learners in exercises and activities aimed at making them proficient users of the target language, or when evaluating published materials before deciding whether or not to use them. With the current concern about foreign language instruction, questions related to linguistic intake and language learning environments are obviously of practical relevance.

Second language and foreign language classes are developed from the curricular and institutional requirements, student expectations, time constraints and an imbalance of both fluency and authority in the teacher's favor.   These all contribute to a context in which we cannot assume that the interaction will spontaneously occur in a form of optimal value to learners.   It is when interaction is seen as discourse rather than input that the differences between classroom and naturalistic settings become apparent.

Classroom Discourse Analysis

Classroom discourse analysis can be useful in determining the effectiveness of teaching and the types of teacher-student interaction.   The analysis of linguistic interaction in second language classrooms has traditionally emphasized the

examination of specific characteristics of the discourse employed by the participants such as error treatment, turn-taking routines and questioning strategies (Chaudron, 1988; Ellis, 1994; Allwright & Bailey, 1991).   The combination of these features with other pedagogic and cultural aspects, such as roles of teachers and students, differential teacher-students interaction and class size, may constitute the basis for a more comprehensive view of language classroom discourse.

The functions of classroom discourse have been investigated from sociolinguistic perspectives (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Cazden, 1988; Johnson, 1995).   The linguistic structural patterns of interaction in classroom discourse differ from those choices evident in other types of talk, such as daily conversation, which usually has a strictly social purpose.   The structure of classroom discourse is one kind of information exchange.   According to Kimberly (1994), classroom discourse is institutional discourse, in which the teacher plays a role as the promoter and controller in leading a conversation with students.   The function of teachers' classroom discourse is basically to instruct and to inform (Coulthard, 1977). Within the verbal interaction in class, teachers usually control the turn-taking by presenting closed questions to students.   In this structure, teachers usually provide little opportunity for students to initiate the conversation.   They call on certain students to ask or answer questions and also control students' speaking time in class. Another aspect shows that classroom discourse is regarded as conversational discourse by some American researchers, including Jefferson (1978), Goffman (1979) and McCarthy (1991).   The basic pattern of classroom discourse differs considerably from the discourse patterns found in normal conversation outside the classroom.   In this structure, teachers lead students to engage in conversational norms, turn-taking routines and other aspects of spoken interaction.

As to the students' point of view to classroom discourse, what teachers say in

the classroom reveals what is expected of students. By listening to teachers' speech, students know when they can speak or whom they can speak to in class and also understand what rules are embedded in teachers' classroom discourse (Mehan, 1979).

Language teachers can use discourse analysis techniques to investigate the interaction patterns in their classrooms and to observe how these patterns help or hinder learners in the practice of the target language. This process allows language teachers to study their own teaching behaviors, especially those relating to the frequency, distribution and types of questions they use, and the effect of students' responses on teachers' behaviors. One of the earliest instruments for analyzing classroom discourse was developed by Moskowitz (1971). It was derived from Bale's (1950) work on group processes and Flanders's (1970) adaptation of Bales' work for classroom use. This system was a real-time coding designed to analyze both discourse and behaviors simultaneously. Another system for real-time observation developed by Naiman et al. (1978) was similar to Moskowitz's, but it added more detail on the pedagogical function of the linguistic units being analyzed, such as clarification, elaboration, repetition, etc. The authors were especially interested in the information a teacher would provide when giving feedback following learners' errors or lack of response. A comparison of the two systems reveals an intrinsic weakness of the former system. It did not take the pedagogical meaning of the classroom verbal interaction into consideration.

Sinclair and Coulthard's Classroom Discourse Analysis Model

Regarding analysis of spoken language in classroom settings, one of the most influential approaches is the one developed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) at the University of Birmingham. They developed a model initially for the description of teacher-pupil talk based on a hierarchy of discourse units in school classrooms.

This model principally follows structural-linguistic criteria, on the basis of isolated units, and sets of rules defining well-formed sequences of discourse (McCarthy, 1991).

In the language of the traditional native-speaker classroom, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975: 21) found in the language of traditional native-speaker school classroom a consistent pattern of the three-part exchange. Classroom discourse is based on institutional discourse. To indicate different aspects of classroom interaction from the perspective of discourse analysis, they proposed the IRF (Initiation-Response-Follow up) Model for spoken discourse. The model was developed as a tool for systematic study of classroom speech, concentrating mainly on interactions between teachers and students. They investigated classroom discourse as it related to a group of minority students in a British elementary school classroom. They divided language into acts, which is the unit of analysis at the lowest rank of discourse. Then they categorized 22 different speech acts in detail to decode teachers' classroom speech. They also found that language moves in the classroom involved the interaction of the initiation-response-follow-up (IRF) structure of a lesson, in which teacher initiation (I) predicts student responses (R) and the teacher's follow-up (F) evaluation.

In the IRF structure, students are dependent on the teacher for classroom interactions instead of developing their own ideas. Sinclair and Brazil (1982) observed differences in the discourse contributions from primary school pupils. The pupils were only able to perform a very restricted range of verbal functions. They rarely initiated, and never did, follow up. Most of their verbal activity was in response to the teacher's questions, which was normally strictly confined to the terms of the initiation.

When Sinclair and Coulthard's discourse analysis system was applied to the

EFL classroom, some problems were found. Takakubo (2001) observed a small class of Japanese middle school students taught by a Canadian teacher and analyzed their English classroom discourse by using Sinclair and Coulthard's IRF model. The results showed that Sinclair and Coulthard's model was appropriate for analyzing the classroom discourse of Japanese students but their categories required adaptation mainly due to students' poor English proficiency, learning attitudes and code-switching that frequently occurred in the classroom. Atkins's study (2001) represents an example of using Sinclair and Coulthard's IRF model to analyze and evaluate classroom discourse, concentrating on interactions between one teacher and one student. The results show that the features of classroom discourse in a small class may be different from those of large traditional classes. There should be some modifications of the IRF model in order to provide more appropriate speech act categories for the analysis of classroom speech interactions. In addition, when analyzing classroom discourse, it is important to take the paralinguistic features, such as gestures or eye contact, into consideration in order to improve on the original model in analyzing classroom interaction.

Sinclair and Coulthard's classroom discourse analysis could probably be applied to most ESL (English as a Second Language) classrooms. The question of whether this model is suitable for analyzing the classroom discourse in EFL (English as the Foreign Language) contexts has been investigated in recent research. Take English education in Japan as an example. A gradual shift has occurred in English education in Japan from the former style, which was totally grammar-based and teacher-centered, to the current one which is need-based and learner-centered. Some studies have demonstrated Japanese students' strong preference for using Japanese in the classroom, and discourse analysis in Japan has been performed with a focus on code-switching in classrooms (Hosoda, 2000). Thus, the researchers in

Japan adopted the Jefferson system, which was designed to represent the dynamics of turn taking, such as overlaps, gaps, pauses, and audible breathing, and the characteristics of speech delivery, like stress, enunciation, intonation and pitch. This system is widely used in the field of discourse analysis to represent an accurate version of transcription, which is considered to be necessary in order to study code-switching by way of an interactional approach. The Japanese researcher found that the results of the analysis supported the use of the mother tongue as a bridge between languages to provide a more efficient, comprehensible, and comfortable learning environment. The results also imply that code-switching allows teachers to enhance low English proficiency EFL students' interaction in the target language. On the other hand, Sinclair and Coulthard's model offers categories used to describe the function of speech acts. In the EFL classroom, speech acts such as loop, nomination, prompt and clue, are expected to occur. When a teacher does not get students' response (prompt), asks for students' contribution to class discussion (nomination), or gets the wrong answers to the elicitation (loop), the teacher starts again by repeating or rephrasing the speech, or calls on another student.

When it was found that a greater number of speech acts were needed for different kinds of classroom situations than the 22 speech acts in Sinclair and Coulthard's analysis model, a revised version for discourse analysis was developed by Consolo (1996). This new version was adapted from Burton (1981), Francis and Hunston (1992) and Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) system of speech acts. The system includes all the basic categories in Sinclair and Coulthard's system but deletes the exchanges 'repeat', 're-initiation' (ii), 'listing', and the acts 'loop', 'accept', 'silent stress', 'meta-statement', 'aside' and 'prompt'. To a great extent, this system is more detailed in handling some speech acts. Take the speech act

'reply', for example.   For a more detailed and advanced categorization, the revised version provides six types of 'reply', including affirmative, negative, choice, repetition, informative and offer.   Even though it seems to code all the data and has facilitated the analysis of negotiated interaction in language classrooms, some of the deleted acts, such as 'silent stress' and 'accept' in the original version, are still needed in the analysis of classroom discourse.

The findings of the previous studies demonstrate that Sinclair and Coulthard's discourse analysis system indeed provided a model for analyzing verbal interaction in the language classroom.   However, it still has some limitations when it is used to analyze English teachers' speech in EFL settings.   Sinclair and Coulthard's Speech Act Model can be used to analyze teacher's discourse and evaluate its effectiveness on language learners.   However, their categories might require modification when the focus is on low English proficiency EFL learners.   Thus, teachers might need to modify their speech based on students' English level in the classroom.   Furthermore, teachers should use a more communicative approach to interact with students. Once students find that the verbal interaction with teachers is meaningful and related to their lives, they are more willing to use the target language to communicate. Through the communicative approach to classroom activities, teachers can provide models of what they consider to be appropriate ways to communicate in authentic world.   They can also help students to feel more involved in these classroom activities and to learn the target language by interacting with teachers.

Each aspect of classroom interaction that is considered to promote English language development needs to be investigated for its contribution to communication and language learning.   However, none of the previous studies involved discourse analysis of native English speaking teachers interacting with Taiwanese students in an EFL classroom in Taiwan.   Therefore, this study was conducted in order to

understand the interaction patterns and the role of native English speaking teachers in an English language classroom in Taiwan.

Definition of Terms

1) Native English Speaking Teachers (NEST): native English speaking teachers are English teachers who are native speakers of English.

2) Teacher Talk: teacher talk is the variety of language used by teachers when they are teaching.   In trying to communicate with learners, teachers often simplify their speech, giving it many of the characteristics of foreigner talk and other simplified styles of speech addressed to language learners.

3) Comprehensible Input: comprehensible input is language data that language learners hear and understand the meaning of (Ellis, 1985).

4) Discourse Analysis: discourse analysis is the examination of language form and function in both spoken interaction and written texts used by members of a speech community.

Chapter Ⅲ

Methodology

Participants

    Two Classes of Students. The participants in this study were two classes of second-year junior high school students. Before entering their second year, they took an English test at the end of summer school and, based on the results, they were placed into two classes (Class A and Class B). This test was an achievement test to determine what students had learned during the summer. Based on the test results, students with higher scores were placed in Class A and the rest in Class B. For the English conversation course, the two classes of students were divided into four small classes (Class A1, Class A2, Class B1 and Class B2). Students in Class A with odd student numbers were assigned to Class A1 and those with even student numbers were assigned to Class A2. Class B was divided into Class B1 and B2. Based on their English proficiency, students were either assigned to B1 (the higher level group) or B2 (the lower level group). There were 17 students in Class A1, 18 students in Class A2, 19 students in Class B1 and 10 students in Class B2.

    Three Native English Speaking Teachers. This study involved three native English speakers (Teacher A, Teacher B, and Teacher C), all of whom were teaching in a private high school in Taichung at the time of this study. They met the requirements for foreign teachers set by the MOE in Taiwan.

<u>Teacher A</u>

Teacher A was from the United States with a bachelor's degree in history and TESL. As a certified secondary school teacher in the U.S., he taught history in a public high school in Texas for several months. Before coming to Taiwan, he also taught ESL for one year in the U.S. In Taiwan, he had already taught English for a total of nine years at the time the study began, and was in his fourth year of teaching in junior high

school.   In this study, Teacher A taught Class A1.

Teacher B

Teacher B was from Canada with a bachelor's degree in child psychology.   Before

coming to Taiwan, he had taught ESL students for four to five months in Canada.

In Taiwan, he taught English in high school for six years, and was the English teacher

for Class A2 (with higher English proficiency) and Class B1 (with lower English

proficiency).

Teacher C

Teacher C was also from Canada, with a bachelor's degree in computer science.   He

had no teaching experience or educational background related to language teaching,

but he took a TESL course in Canada before coming to Taiwan.   Of the three NES

teachers in this study, Teacher C was relatively new to Taiwan, with only one and a

half years' experience. He was the English teacher of Class B2.

Instruments

   Sinclair & Coulthard's IRF and Speech Act Model.   Sinclair and Coulthard's

system was used to analyze classroom verbal interaction because it has proven to be

one of the most appropriate instruments for analyzing classroom discourse.   This

model appeals to researchers in general because it is a tool for systematic study of

classroom discourse, concentrating mainly on interactions between the teacher and

students.   This model consists of five ranks: lesson, transaction, exchange, move and

act.   Sinclair and Coulthard identified 22 different classes of speech acts as the

smallest units in discourse analysis, which when combined make up the five ranks of

moves (see Appendix A).   A higher rank of the model involves the interactional

initiation-response-follow-up (IRF) structure, which shows the interaction between

teachers and students (see Appendix B).

Checklists.   Two checklists, one adapted from Centra's Classroom Observation Worksheet (1994) (see Appendix C) and the other from the Immersion Teaching Strategies Observation Checklist from the Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA) (2000), the University of Minnesota (see Appendix D), were used during the observation to document and analyze teachers' overall performance.   The checklist adapted from Centra's model for evaluating teachers' performance is based on four conditions: (1) seeking new knowledge of one's strengths and weaknesses as a teacher (from various sources, including student evaluations); (2) attaching validity to this information; (3) knowing how to make effective changes in light of the new information; and (4) having the extrinsic and intrinsic motivation to make improvements to one's teaching.   The second checklist adapted from CARLA was used for evaluating teachers' performance from diverse aspects, including both teachers' and students' perspectives in the immersion teaching environment.   This observation checklist can be used to facilitate useful observation in a variety of ways.   For example, teachers can use this observation checklist to explore their own teaching practices by video-taping themselves while teaching. They can also use it to observe and provide their peers with feedback and suggestions for teaching.

These two checklists were adopted because they offer detailed descriptions about teachers' teaching strategies, such as "the ability to integrate language", "content and culture", "to promote extended student output", "to make input comprehensible", and "to relate content knowledge with previous lessons".   In addition, students' responses and output are also included in the two checklists.   The checklist items related to "language center" and "teachers' selection of textbook" from the original checklists were deleted because there was no language center in the participating school and the selection of textbook was done by the school

administrators, not by the teachers.   Thus, the use of the checklists can help a researcher carefully observe the interactions between a teacher and students in an EFL class. (see Appendixes C and D).

Data Collection Procedure

From the perspective of a naturalistic approach to classroom research, the data occurred naturally and were collected normally through observation and either video or audio recording of regular lessons.   Thus, in this study, both audio and video recordings as well as observation were adopted.   Before the data were collected, the researcher asked the participants for their permission to videotape their class and conducted the first interviews to collect information on teachers' backgrounds. Because the major focus of the study was teacher's speech, the researcher used an audio recorder to record each teacher's speech in class.   The researcher conducted the observation and videotaped the lesson for data collection.   The speech data were collected from at least three lessons from each class during one month.

Interview.   Before doing the audio and video recordings, the researcher interviewed the three NES teachers to obtain information on their educational backgrounds and teaching experiences.   They were asked about their nationalities, native languages, majors in college, years of teaching in Taiwan and teaching experiences before they came to Taiwan.   Later, depending on whether it was needed for data analysis, the researcher interviewed these teachers about specific interactions which had occurred between them and students during the observed classes.

Observation.   To collect the data without affecting the participants, the researcher adopted the non-participant observation method (Johnson, 1994).   Two observation checklists, one from the Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA), the University of Minnesota, and the other from Centra's

Classroom Observation Worksheet (2000), were used to help the researcher to conduct the observation. These two checklists were adapted to fit with the EFL conversation classroom setting in this study because the original purpose of Centra's checklist was for reflective faculty evaluation and the one from CARLA was used in the context of immersion teaching. The CARLA participants who created this checklist suggested that targeting one or two of the seven checklist categories may at times be more valuable than trying to tackle all seven. In order to observe the characteristics of teachers' speech modification, the researcher focused more on the two categories "make input comprehensible" and "use teacher talk effectively" than on the other five from the original version.

Video and audio recording. Allwright and Bailey (1991) pointed out the "ethical and psychological issues involved in classroom observation and the pressure or anxiety it may place on both teachers and learners." Therefore, permission to observe and videotape was requested of the teachers and students at the beginning of each lesson. To avoid distracting students and causing anxiety, the video camera was set up in one corner in the back of the classroom.

As Atkin and Heritage (1984) pointed out, the availability of recordings means that data can be repeatedly examined and is also accessible for analysis by other researchers. Thus, tape recording is essential so that the researcher can proceed with data analysis later. The researcher tape-recorded three lessons, fifty minutes each, with a total of approximately 150 minutes of recording for every class. These recordings included both verbal (by audio recording the teachers' speech) and non-verbal interactions (by videotaping the classes' interaction) between the teacher and the class of students.

Data Analysis Procedure

Of the three lessons from each small class, the one with the richest speech data was transcribed in order to provide answers for the research questions on the interaction patterns between NES teachers and students in the class.   Then, the selected speech data was transcribed into written form.   During the data analysis process, the problem arose of what to transcribe and in how much detail, including non-verbal details.   Moreover, in transcribing extracts instead of whole lessons, there was also the problem of deciding where to start and end the conversation as an analyzed unit.   The researcher decided to follow Sinclair and Coulthard's (1992) system of discourse analysis to solve these problems. (see Appendix B)   The data were analyzed with Sinclair and Coulthard's framework of boundary and teaching exchanges to determine when to start and end the transcription of each extract.

Secondly, the speech data were categorized into 22 different speech act categories based on their functions and features by using Sinclair and Coulthard's revised (1992) classroom discourse analysis system. (see Appendix B)   Then the data were analyzed with the higher rank of the system, the IRF model, to determine the interaction patterns between teachers and students.

At the third stage, the data of verbal interaction patterns of Class A1 (taught by Teacher A) and the data of Class A2 (taught by Teacher B) were analyzed to find the interaction pattern between NES teachers and students with higher English proficiency.   Similarly, the data of verbal interaction of Class B2 (taught by Teacher C) and the data of Class B1 (taught by Teacher B) were examined to find the interaction pattern between NES teachers and students with lower English proficiency. Then the two sets of data were compared to determine if the NES teachers interacted differently with higher English proficiency students than those with lower proficiency. The analysis of the three teachers' data was also compared to determine the

relationship between their educational background or teaching experience and the interaction patterns.   Teacher A's data were compared with Teacher B's to determine if the teachers' educational background was a factor that might affect their performance in classroom interaction.   Teacher B's data were compared with Teacher C's to examine if teachers' teaching experience had any influence on the interaction patterns.

In order to compensate for the limitations of video taping and audio recording, the notes taken by the researcher during the observation and the results of the two checklists were analyzed at the last stage of data analysis to determine the teachers' overall performance.   These data were also used to examine the relationship between the NES teachers' educational background or teaching experience and their overall performance in English conversation class.

Chapter Ⅳ

Results

This chapter presents and analyzes the use of teachers' speech acts, the interaction patterns of the participating teachers and their four classes of students, and the native English speaking teachers' overall performance in EFL classes.   The findings in each part are generally divided into two basic sections, the overall analysis and the individual analysis of the three teachers' performances.

First, the frequency of speech acts used by the three participating teachers and the interaction patterns among the teachers and their four classes of students are presented and compared by using Sinclair and Coulthard's Classroom Discourse Analysis System.   The analysis of all three teachers' speech acts in this study is presented with Sinclair and Coulthard's Speech Acts Model, which includes twenty-two types of speech acts used in the classroom setting.   The interaction patterns were analyzed with Sinclair and Coulthard's Initiation-Response-Follow-up (IRF) model.   The last part of the results is a summary of the three teachers' teaching performances evaluated with the two checklists and the researcher's observation notes.

The Findings of Speech Acts with Sinclair and Coulthard's Speech Acts Model

A total of 177 minutes and 28 seconds of speech data were transcribed into written words for data analysis.   During the transcribing process, parts of the recording that were unclear were marked as "inaudible" on the first draft but subsequently clarified with the help of the participating teachers and amended on the transcript.   After categorizing the transcribed sentences into four sets of speech data, the results of the frequencies of the 22 different speech acts were calculated in percentages.   In order to show more detail, the percentages were rounded to two

31

decimal digits.

In the framework of Sinclair and Coulthard's Classroom Discourse Analysis System, the average frequencies of the 22 types of speech acts identified from the data are presented in Table 1.　Generally speaking, the three teachers performed certain specific speech acts more frequently than other speech acts.　The speech act that occurred most frequently in the three teachers' speech was the "informative act", with an average percentage of 23.43% among the three teachers.　The other average percentages of frequency of use of speech acts were "directive act" (10.35%), "elicitation act" (11.53%), and "accept act" (8.20%).　Thus, the average percentages for the three acts, "elicitation", "directive" and "informative", were over 10%.　On the other hand, some speech acts like "bid", "silent stresses", "meta-statement" and "aside", were used much less frequently in the three teachers' classroom discourse, with average percentages lower than 1.00%.　The total average count of these low-frequency speech acts was only two or three.　The speech act "silent stress" did not even appear in Teacher A's or Teacher C's speech data.

Table 1

The Three Teachers' Speech Data in Speech Act Categories

Speech Act	Teacher A percentage	Teacher B percentage	Teacher C percentage	Average percentage
1. m	9.46%	5.48%	6.96%	7.30%
2. s	2.36%	5.79%	3.13%	3.76%
3. el	9.46%	7.02%	18.11%	11.53%
4. ch	5.02%	3.96%	3.83%	4.27%
5. d	15.08%	5.18%	10.80%	10.35%
6. i	21.30%	32.00%	17.07%	23.43%
7. p	1.47%	1.21%	2.09%	1.59%
8. cl	3.25%	5.79%	8.71%	5.92%
9. cu	1.77%	0.30%	1.04%	1.04%
10. b	1.77%	1.21%	0.00%	0.99%
11. n	4.14%	1.82%	2.43%	2.80%
12. ack	0.59%	1.82%	1.74%	1.38%
13. rep	5.32%	3.96%	5.22%	4.83%
14. rea	1.18%	0.91%	1.39%	1.16%
15. com	5.62%	3.35%	0.69%	3.22%
16. acc	4.43%	10.06%	10.10%	8.20%
17. e	4.14%	3.65%	3.13%	3.64%
18. ^	0 %	0.91%	0.00%	0.30%
19. ms	0.29%	0.60%	0.00%	0.29%
20. con	1.47%	1.21%	1.39%	1.36%
21. l	0.59%	3.04%	2.09%	1.92%
22. z	1.18%	0.60%	0.00%	0.59%

Note: m = marker; s = starter; el = elicitation; ch = check; d = directive; i = informative; p = prompt; cl = clue;

cu = cue; b = bid; n = nomination; ack = acknowledge; rep = reply; rea = react; com = comment; acc = accept;

e = evaluate; ^ = silent stress; ms = meta-statement; con = conclusion; l = loop; z = aside.

As to the individual analysis of the three teachers' speech acts data, the use of speech acts was slightly different.   The following is a more detailed analysis of the three teachers' use of speech acts.

Teacher A

A total of 329 occurrences of speech acts were identified in Teacher A's interactions with Class A.   The speech act that appeared most frequently in Teacher A's speech was the "informative act", with a percentage of 21.30%.   The second highest percentage was for "directive", 15.08%.   The third most frequently used speech acts were "marker" and "elicitation" acts.   They were both 9.46%.   Among the 22 speech acts, the speech act "silent stress" never appeared in the data.   Some speech acts, such as "check", "comment", "reply", "accept" and "evaluate", were also analyzed as frequently used speech acts in Teacher A's data.   On the other hand, the following nine speech acts, "prompt", "cue", "bid", "acknowledgement", "react", "meta-statement", "conclusion", "loop" and "aside", only occurred once or twice in Teacher A's classroom discourse.

Teacher B

The analysis of Teacher B's speech acts showed that he used all 22 speech acts in class.   With a total of 338 occurrences of speech acts, Teacher B used the speech act "informative" most frequently (32%).   In presenting the topic of the lesson, Teacher B used two speech acts, "elicitation" (7.02%) and "accept" (10.06%) to help him perform better in class.   Because his topic was about presenting a dilemma to students, the speech act "clue" (5.79%) was used to provide more information to the students.   Based on the kinds of class topics adopted by Teacher B in general, speech acts like "prompt", "cue", "bid", "nomination", "acknowledgement", "react", "meta-statement", "conclusion", "silent stress" and "aside", were rarely used.

Teacher C

The analysis of Teacher C's speech acts showed that he used certain acts when teaching low English proficiency students.   Four out of 22 speech acts accounted for over 10% of the total occurrences and the percentages of the other eighteen speech acts were below 8%.   Compared to the other two teachers, Teacher C used the "elicitation act" more often in class to interact with students.   He asked a lot of questions to elicit students' response.   The percentage of "elicitation" in his speech data was 18.11%.   In addition, the "informative act" was used more frequently by Teacher C than by the other two teachers to provide students with new words and concepts.   The percentage of the "informative act" was 17.07%, which was second only to that of the "elicitation act" in Teacher C's data.   Besides, the "directive act" and the "accept act" were used in more than 10% of his speech data to praise or encourage students' response.   The results also showed that the speech acts he used when giving students feedback included the "reply" and "evaluation" acts.   On the other hand, Teacher C rarely used speech acts such as "cue", "acknowledgement", "react", "comment" and "conclusion" in his classroom speech.   Four speech acts, "bid", "silent stress", "meta-statement", and "aside", were never used.

The Findings of the Interaction Patterns with Sinclair and Coulthard's IRF Model

In the data analyzed in this study, the three teachers and the students' speech followed typical IRF patterns, and all types of moves were found in the lessons analyzed.   Although the extracts are a bit lengthy, a very consistent IRF pattern can be seen.

In the first part of the IRF sequence, the teacher is generally the initiator of sequences and has the right to decide the topic of talk and the allocation of turns in most classrooms.   This can be either through direct elicitation, where a specific

learner is called on to answer, or through general elicitation, where all learners can 'bid' for the turn.   It is teachers who decide who can talk, when to talk and what to talk about.

The Initiation-Response-Follow-up Moves

  Analysis of the Initiation Move.   The first sequence analyzed in Sinclair and Coulthard's IRF model is the Initiation Move.   The results of the analysis of the Initiation Move are shown in Table 2.   Students' initiation is an attempt to direct the interaction in a way that corresponds more closely to the interests and needs of learners as evidenced by the interaction.   In Class C, the initiations were all done by teachers.   In the speech data, students in Classes A, B and D sometimes initiated the conversation by asking questions or asking for the teacher's help in class.   The initiation done by students included both verbal and non-verbal types.   From the data of the three classes in which students' initiation was identified, the percentage of I-S (initiation by students) in Class B was the highest (16%).   This result demonstrated that students with higher English proficiency did more initiation.   In these four small classes, the initiations done by students in Class D were all non-verbal expressions, such as nodding or raising their hands to ask for teacher's help in class, whereas students in Classes A and B initiated the speech by asking the teachers questions or expressing opinions on the lesson topics.

Table 2

A Comparison of Initiation Moves in the Four Small Classes

	Class A		Class B		Class C		Class D	
	Percentages	Times	Percentages	Times	Percentages	Times	Percentages	Times
I-T	95%	(78)	84%	(73)	100%	(82)	96%	(73)
I-S	5%	(4)	16%	(14)	0%	(0)	4%	(3)

Note: I-T= initiation by teachers; I-S= initiation by students.

Analysis of the Response Move.   The Response Move was divided into four categories: verbal response by students, non-verbal response by students, verbal response by teachers and non-verbal response by teachers.   Because the analysis of the Initiation Move showed that students in Classes A, B and D initiated a conversation, the response moves of both teachers and students in these three groups were analyzed, as shown in Table 3.   In addition, the non-verbal form of the Response Move was also analyzed.

In the analysis of students' Response Moves, high percentages of verbal response occurred in the speech data of classes with higher English proficiency students, A and B, and Class C, which had lower English proficiency (all over 80%).
The lowest percentage of students' verbal response was in Class D (65%), which had the lowest English proficiency.   However, in the results of students' non-verbal responses, the percentage in Class D with lower English level students was the highest (35%) among the four classes.

As to the results on teachers' response to students' initiation, both Teacher A and Teacher C responded 100% verbally.   Seven percent of Teacher B's responses

were non-verbal only, performed by nodding his head.   Teachers A and B both taught

students with higher English proficiency.   The results of the analysis of teachers'

non-verbal-only responses probably reflects the influence of teachers' educational

background.   Thus it implies that Teacher B may have lacked the professional

teaching strategy to respond to students verbally.

Table 3

A Comparison of Response Moves in the Four Small Classes

	Class A		Class B		Class C		Class D	
	Percentages	Times	Percentages	Times	Percentages	Times	Percentages	Times
V-S	**81%**	**(57)**	**87%**	**(52)**	**84%**	**(58)**	**65%**	**(41)**
NV-S	**9%**	**(6)**	**13%**	**(8)**	**16%**	**(11)**	**35%**	**(22)**
V-T	**100%**	**(4)**	**93%**	**(13)**	**0%**	**(0)**	**100%**	**(3)**
NV-T	**0%**	**(0)**	**7%**	**(1)**	**0%**	**(0)**	**0%**	**(0)**

Note: V-S= verbal response by students; NV-S= only non-verbal response by students.

V-T= verbal response by teachers; NV-T= only non-verbal response by teachers.

Analysis of the Follow-up Move.   The occurrences of the three participating

teachers' Follow-up Moves were classified into three types.   In the first type of

Follow-up, teachers accepted and confirmed the response with feedback by saying

'yes', 'no', or 'good'.   All three teachers used this type of Follow-up Move the most

frequently in the data.   In the second type, teachers allowed a repetition of the

utterance by the student.   In the third type, teachers gave comments or their

opinions as the Follow-up Move.   By using these three types of Follow-up Moves

that helped to elicit more student responses, both Teacher A and Teacher B expanded

their interaction with students.   However, Teacher C failed to use any types of

Follow-up Moves to expand classroom interaction.

　　　According to the results, the three teachers rarely used non-verbal language

(less than 3 times from each teacher's data) as follow-up to students' responses.

Instead of using non-verbal language such as facial expressions, eye contact or

gestures, most of the time they used verbal language to interact with students.

Besides, none of the three teachers used Follow-up Moves that provided more

information to students' responses (also less than 3 times from each teacher's data).

Frequency counts of the three teachers' different types of Follow-up Moves are shown

in Table 4.

Table 4

A Comparison of Follow-up Moves of Individual Teachers

<div align="center">Types of Follow-up Moves</div>

<div align="center">Counts</div>

Teacher A

Non-verbal language	3
Recognition of student's response	28
Repetition of student's response	15
Comments/opinions	8
Follow-up eliciting more student responses	11
Follow-up providing more information to student's response	3

Teacher B

Non-verbal language	2
Recognition of student's response	33
Repetition of student's response	26
Comments/opinions	8
Follow-up eliciting more student responses	15
Follow-up providing more information to student's response	3

Teacher C

Non-verbal language	3
Recognition of student's response	22
Repetition of student's response	17
Comments/opinions	5
Follow-up providing more information to student's response	2

The Analysis of Interaction Patterns

The interaction patterns found between teachers and students with discourse

analysis using Sinclair and Coulthard's Initiation-Response-Follow-up (IRF) model

are shown in Table 5.   There was a great discrepancy in the interaction patterns

among the three teachers and the four classes.   However, the patterns of IRF

(average percentage 31.25%), IR (average percentage 20%) and I (T) (average

percentage 15%) reached relatively high rates for all three teachers.   The results of

the IRF analysis showed that teacher-initiated exchanges accounted for over 80% of

the total exchanges and various patterns of the IRF model appeared to be the major

sequence in the EFL context.

Table 5

The Patterns of Interaction Using the IRF Model

	Class A	Class B	Class C	Class D
	Percentages	Percentages	Percentages	Percentages
IRF	**26%**	**32%**	**21%**	**46%**
I(T)	**18%**	**14%**	**15%**	**13%**
I(S)	**5%**	**16%**	**0%**	**4%**
IR	**9%**	**24%**	**29%**	**18%**
Expansion of the IRF Model				
IRF(R)	**4%**	**5%**	**5%**	**3%**
IRF(RF)	**17%**	**10%**	**22%**	**11%**
IRIRF	**1%**	**0%**	**2%**	**1%**
IRF(RFRF…)	**20%**	**29%**	**6%**	**5%**

The interaction patterns between NES teachers and higher- level English

students.   In Class A, the three interaction patterns with the highest frequencies were

Initiation-Response-Follow-up (26%), the greatest expansion of IRF (20%) and

teacher's initiation (18%).   However, the pattern IRF (RF) (17%) also appeared

frequently between Teacher A and his students.   About 68% of Class A's interaction

patterns were developed based on the complete Initiation-Response-Follow-up

sequence.   The same situation was found in Class B.   Seventy-six percent of interaction patterns were complete IRF patterns, including the basic IRF sequence (32 %), IRF (RF) (10%) and the greatest expansion of IRF (29%).   According to Sinclair and Coulthard's study (1991), the expansions of the IRF pattern indicate good classroom interaction.   The students appeared not only to interact with their NES teachers based on the complete IRF pattern but also to expand the basic IRF pattern to continuous interaction.   The results of the study showed that students with higher English proficiency did play a role in the expansion of classroom interaction patterns. Thus, there was a higher percentage of expansion of the IRF pattern in Class A and Class B than in Class C and Class D.

   The interaction patterns between NES teachers and lower-level English students.   Comparison of the speech data of higher English proficiency students with those of lower English proficiency indicated that Class C's and Class D's complete IRF percentages were lower than Class A's and Class B's.   Besides, in the greatest expansion of the IRF pattern, the percentages of Class C and Class D (less than 6%) were much lower than those of Class A and Class B (more than 20%).   As to the initiation move, the percentages of students' initiations in Class C (0%) and Class D (4%) were lower than those in Class A (5%) and Class B (16%).   This indicates the influence of students' various English levels on the interaction patterns with native English teachers in class.   The results of the IRF pattern for the four classes showed that Class D had the highest percentage of the complete IRF model (46%).   It is obvious that the interaction pattern in lower-level English classes also followed the complete IRF sequence.   However, the counts of expansions of the IRF model in Class D were the lowest, which means the interactions in that classroom may not have been as good as those in the higher-level English classes.

Analysis of Teachers' Performance with Checklists and Notes

The Analysis of the Checklists Data

　　Analysis of teachers' overall performance. 　　Based on the data collected with the two checklists, it appeared that the three native English speaking teachers tried different ways to use their teacher talk effectively and make their input comprehensible to students. 　The overall evaluation of "the effective use of teacher talk" and "making input comprehensible" represents the positive side of the three teachers' performance in class. 　All three teachers used the teaching strategy of asking questions to monitor students' progress and elicit their response in classroom activities. 　In addition, the three teachers used teaching aids to facilitate their teaching in class. 　For example, all three teachers used visual aids, such as maps, to teach the location of different countries in class. 　When communicating with students, all three teachers used body language. 　Among the three teachers, Teacher B used a lot of exaggerated body language to explain new ideas and vocabulary. 　Besides, the three teachers slowed down and simplified their language to students when explaining new lesson content. 　These are the obvious skills that the three teachers used to make their speech comprehensible to the students.

　　The evaluation for the category of "instructor-student interactions" also showed good interaction between teachers and students. 　Teacher B used all the techniques for promoting good classroom interaction in this aspect. 　In regard to promoting extended student output, attending to continuous language growth and improving accuracy, both Teacher A and Teacher B performed well. 　Teacher C did not perform as well on these aspects. 　Thus, as a result, his students often responded in Chinese or with simple, short answers in English. 　Nevertheless, the overall results of the checklists were quite positive for all three teachers' performances in class.

　　　The following descriptions provide detailed results of the analysis of all

three teachers' performances based on the two checklists.

Teacher A

According to the modified version of Centra's Classroom Observation Worksheet used in this study, Teacher A did well in the categories of "content organization", "presentation", "instructor-student interactions" and "content knowledge and relevance".   He was observed to perform especially well in the presentation part.   His voice was very clear.   He explained things with clarity and presented new ideas using concepts familiar to the students.   When teaching the new word "allergic", Teacher A asked students to recall their experience of taking medicine which caused side effects.   Then he explained the symptoms of "being allergic". As to the "instructor-student interactions" phase, Teacher A encouraged students to ask him questions in English.   In addition, he was sensitive to students' reactions. He noticed students' nonverbal cues of confusion and responded to these cues immediately.   Such behavior is illustrated in the following segment:

T: I am allergic to shrimps.
S: (looking at each other) ….
T: Well…maybe you don't know what the word "allergic" means.   OK.   Being
   allergic to shrimps means that you eat them and you feel sick or your skin turns
   red.

Teacher A also performed well in the checklist category of "content knowledge and relevance".   He taught students to make distinction between good reasons and opinions and presented material appropriate to students' knowledge and background. An example can be seen in the following segment:

T: Ask me the question "Would you like a cup of coffee?"
S: Would you like a cup of coffee?
T: No, thank you. Coffee has caffeine.
T: This answer is better than your answer "No, thank you. I don't like it".

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The results of the analysis with the modified version of the CARLA checklist used in this study showed that Teacher A performed well in the categories of "attending to continuous language growth" and "improving accuracy". He used many forms of feedback including comments to elicit students' speech in the target language in class. He also arranged classroom activities, such as guessing games, to provide students with opportunities to produce accurate English. In the categories of "making input comprehensible" and "uses teacher talk effectively", Teacher A did not use too much body language but he provided information and knowledge to present new concepts and ideas. For example, when teaching students the new word "calorie", he told students "the calorie is the energy-producing value in food" and then asked the question "French fries or apples, which has more calories to make you fat?" Teacher A also used paraphrases and a variety of ways to make the target language more accessible. In the following segment, Teacher A explained the meaning of the word "illiterate" to students:

    T: Being illiterate means that a person is unable to read or write.
    T: So if I say my grandpa is illiterate, it means that my grandpa can not read the
       newspaper or he can not write a letter.

Based on the evaluation with the two checklists, the overall performance of Teacher A was positive.

Teacher B

Teacher B performed well in the categories of "content organization" and "instructor-student interactions" as evaluated with the modified version of Centra's Observation Worksheet. Before the class started, Teacher B talked about the overview of the lesson and presented the topic logically. He then related the new lesson not only to previously covered materials but also to lessons to be covered in the future. During class, he asked many questions to encourage students' discussion.

Whenever students had questions, he responded to them immediately.   He also gave students time to take notes.   Teacher B was observed to have performed well in the categories of "making input comprehensible", "attending to continuous language growth", "improving accuracy", and "attending to learners' needs" based on the modified CARLA checklist.   Teacher B was good at using body language to perform and present new concepts to students in class.   In addition, he used a lot of comprehension checks that required students to show their understanding of teacher's speech.   When explaining words, Teacher B extended students' language repertoire by teaching them synonyms.   For example:

T: Today I want to give you a dilemma to consider.   What does "consider" mean?
T: "Consider" means you think about one thing over and over again.
S: Do you mean think carefully and deeply?
T: Yes, that is right.

Besides, Teacher B gave students positive feedback and encouragement when students spoke in class.   Students were invited to talk with other classmates about their experiences or opinions.   For example:

T: Do you have dilemmas in your life? Share your dilemmas with me and the classmates.
S: My dilemma is to go to play with my friends or to study at home this weekend.
T: Very good.   That could be one dilemma in a student's life.   Does anyone have another dilemma to share?

The above segment shows that Teacher B knew how to ask questions related to students' life experiences.   Thus, students had opportunities to speak in the target language in class.

On the other hand, Teacher B did not use his voice and adjust the speed of his speech to make his teacher talk clear.   When he tried to emphasize important words or ideas in class, he repeated the words or sentences too many times.   Sometimes, when teaching students new words in English, he spoke a little too fast so the students

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could not keep up with his speech.   Because Teacher B's voice was hoarse, it was not easy for the students to listen to his speech when he spoke fast.   This is the checklist result for the part that Teacher B did not perform well.

Teacher C

Teacher C's checklist result indicated that he was good at delivery skills and related content knowledge.   When introducing a new word, he connected the new ideas to students' previous knowledge in two ways: asking open-ended questions or doing brain-storming in class.   He offered information and clues to help students to clarify points.   For example, he used a world map to provide students with information about the geographical location of a foreign country.   However, in "the use of teacher talk", Teacher C did not arrange team work or group activities so that students could have opportunities to practice what they had already learned.   A variety of effective feedback techniques including "elicitation", "clues", and "comments" were rarely used to improve the interaction between Teacher C and his students.

During class time, Teacher C was observed to use cooperative group learning, which emphasizes diverse learner needs and facilitates peer learning among students with various English proficiency levels.   When teaching about different types of jobs, he called on one higher level student to help a lower level student.   However, Teacher C did not perform well in "attending to students' language growth and output".   For example:

  T: Is your father a policeman?
  S: Yes.
  T: O.K.

In the above segment, by asking students a question from the textbook, Teacher C constructed a good pattern of interaction according to the IRF model.   However, he

lacked the strategy of using feedback to expand students' verbal responses in class. In his feedback to the student's response above, he could have asked a related question "What does a policeman do?" to elicit a follow-up response instead of only saying "O.K." as the feedback.

Analysis of teachers' language modification. Based on the feature of input modification in teacher talk, the results of the analysis were as follows:

Slower rate of delivery. Griffiths (1990) specified the rate of speaking into three types: moderately fast (200 words/per minute), average (150 words/m) and slow (100 words/m). In this study, Teacher B's and Teacher C's rate of speaking was considered as slow while Teacher A's speaking rate was considered normal. When teaching new words, both Teacher B and Teacher C tried to slow down the speed of their delivery; and the words were repeated many times. Besides, when Teacher B was teaching his students, he also slowed down his delivery rate while making exaggerated gestures and using body language to make his speech comprehensible to the students.

More pauses. In this study, the recordings were transcribed by using Brown and Yule's (1994) pause system, with '+' being the pause sign. When trying to help students to think about the questions, all three teachers used more pauses than in other content. When Teacher C tried to help students to think in English, he used more pauses than in other situations in his class speech. In addition, he used more pauses when he tried to get one of the students to talk in class. For example, Teacher C used more pauses in asking students the question "Are there + any other + + countries + + + in + Europe?" He seemed to use more pauses in his speech when he waited for students to say something related to his question in order to give students more time to comprehend and think of how to respond.

Long pauses. In addition to the characteristic of frequent pauses that occurred in their speech, the participating teachers also used long pauses to allow students to think of words related to one topic. This feature was found in Teacher B's and Teacher C's speech data. For example, before Teacher C offered another situation related to his hypothetical dilemma to elicit students' response, he asked students "Can you tell me what your + + + decision + +is? Will you + + eat + +the corpse + + + in order to + + + survive?" using long pauses in his questions.

Clearer articulation. When teaching new words, all three teachers used clearer articulation to help students learn. When Teacher A taught the word "caffeine" in class, he said it with clearer articulation 'ca-ffe-ine' to students many times. Teacher B also used this strategy to teach new words, such as 'passenger', 'survive', 'dilemma' and 'stranded'. Teacher C not only said new words with slower and clearer articulation but also wrote the words as separate syllables on the board.

Use of full form. When teaching new phrases or grammar, all three teachers used longer sentences instead of shorter ones. Teacher C also used the full form to emphasize important points of the lesson. For example, one of the students asked Teacher C "Is Germany in Europe?", and Teacher C responded with the full form, "Yes, Germany is in Europe", instead of saying "Yes, it is." In addition, all three teachers used a lot of contractions in their speech, such as "That's right", "That's it" and "What's that?".

However, in Class D when the students could not understand Teacher C's speech, they were afraid to ask him and just pretended that they understood what the teacher said. It was not until Teacher C asked students to give the Chinese meaning that he realized that students did not understand his speech. It was also observed that when Teacher C spoke English slowly using complete sentences, students were more willing to pay attention to him and guess the meaning from his speech.

The Analysis of Notes

These notes were taken during the class observation as supplementary data. Because of special situations and events that occurred in the four small classes, the notes were analyzed according to: 1) code-switching and non-linguistic sounds and 2) the use of teachers' question types.

Use of Code-switching and Non-linguistic Sounds. Code-switching in the language classroom is a complex phenomenon. Generally speaking, Teacher A usually responded to students' native language with English and often tried to incorporate the students' utterances into his responses. Teacher B, on the other hand, frequently code-switched himself and may have been inadvertently encouraging his students to do the same by making Chinese the unmarked code. In addition, the level of the students seemed to be a significant factor in code-switching. Teacher B did more code-switching in Class C than in Class B. He also asked students to respond in Chinese in order to make sure they understood. The frequency of Teacher C's code-switching was lower than Teacher B's (in Class C) because Teacher C had limited Chinese ability. Even though he did not know a lot of Chinese words, he allowed students in Class D to do code-switching.

Depending on the need for data analysis, the three teachers were interviewed about specific interactions that occurred between themselves and students during the observed classes. According to the researcher's observation, Chinese and some non-linguistic sounds were used by Teacher B and Teacher C when talking to individual students. Teacher A did not allow students to use Chinese and he did not speak any Chinese in class. Based on this situation, the researcher interviewed Teacher B and Teacher C to find out what their purpose was for using Chinese in some of the classroom situations.

At least two reasons for using Chinese in the classroom were identified in their

speech data.   One was for presenting meaning.   When students needed to know the meaning of a new word or grammatical structure, they could access it through translation into Chinese, either with help from their teachers or from their peers with higher English proficiency.   One interesting phenomenon occurred during the observation of the teachers and students.   When the students could not understand their teachers' speech, they usually asked their peers what the teacher said or immediately responded in Chinese to the teachers to show that they did not understand.   Therefore, even though some of the students could not understand exactly what their native English speaking teachers said during class, they eventually did understand the meaning either from their teachers' exaggerated body language or from their peers' explanation in Chinese.

The other main purpose for using Chinese in class was for the teachers to focus students' attention.   Teacher B's interview data indicated that he thought it was a useful way to find out if students really understood what he said in class.   He also believed that his use of Chinese in class could help him to check students' comprehension of a new concept.   When answering Teacher B's questions, his students were trained to translate some specific English words into Chinese.   Teacher B especially liked to use Chinese in examples to focus students' attention when teaching new words.   In giving students' feedback, Teacher B often said "excellent" (li hai) in Chinese to respond positively to students' good answers.   As to Teacher C, his reasons for using Chinese were also to check students' comprehension of his speech and to tell them the meaning of new English words.   A majority of Chinese words used by Teacher B and Teacher C were isolated words, usually names or two-syllable words.

Although all three teachers used non-linguistic sounds infrequently in class, they still occasionally used them for two purposes.   One was for classroom

management.　For example, when the class was getting noisy, the three teachers used non-linguistic sounds like "sh" to control the classroom situation.　The other one was for giving students feedback.　While listening to a student's response to a question, the three teachers also used "um hm" (rising tone) to show their recognition.

Use of Question Types.　It has been shown that, quantitatively, Teacher A and Teacher B used more 'elicitation acts', including referential questions in the initiation move.　The referential questions they used in class, such as "What is the dilemma in your life?" or "Can you think of another good reason to say 'no' to your friend's invitation?", served to challenge or expand students' output and even to help students' correct wrong answers.　A corresponding increased use of open-ended questions was also observed in Teacher A's and Teacher B's class speech.　On the other hand, Teacher C used more display questions, such as "Is Korea in Asia?" and "What is my job?" to check students' comprehension.　These questions were taken directly from the exercises in the textbook.

Both referential questions and display questions can help develop good classroom interaction.　Referential questions are used to find out students' thoughts or opinions on a certain topic in class.　There is no definite answer to a referential question.　Thus, when teachers ask referential questions, students can say as much as they can to answer them.　In this way, they can extend the conversation between themselves and teachers in class.　On the other hand, teachers can also ask display questions to initiate classroom speech and expand it.　Through questions with definite answers, teachers can guide students to the main focus of a lesson and stimulate students' speech production step by step.　However, the real picture of these teachers' interactive style is revealed when we see the context in which their questions and responses occurred.　Additionally, one particularly noticeable questioning strategy that Teacher A and Teacher B used was to wonder out loud, such

as "Do you really think that the character in the movie would eat his friend's corpse in order to survive?"   Although some of their questions were display questions, the answers to which they already knew, they appeared to be referential questions (unknown answer questions).   One example is shown in this segment in Teacher A's speech data:

  T: Would you like a piece of cake?
  S: No, thank you. A piece of cake has too many calories in it.
  (According to the textbook, the answer should be "No, thank you. I am on a diet.")

     Some questions were statements that were turned into questions by raising the tone at the end.   For example, after he told students about a dilemma in a movie, Teacher B said, "I am going to eat my friend's corpse in order to survive when I am stranded in a remote area?" with rising tone.   It was as if the question the teacher asked was modeling the inner speech question for the students.   Thus, the question types used by Teacher A and Teacher B elicited more meaningful output from students.

Ⅴ. Discussion and Conclusion

Discussion

In this section, the results of analysis of the classroom speech of the three native English speaking teachers and their EFL students are discussed, including teachers' use of speech acts, the relationship between students' English proficiency and the interaction patterns, and the effect of teachers' professional background on classroom interactions. The teachers' use of initiation and follow-up strategies in this study reflects the characteristics and functions of expanded interaction between NES teachers and Taiwanese junior high school students.   Specifically, the teachers' use of effective speech modification skills expanded the students' learning when they had difficulties with English text comprehension.   In addition, even though Sinclair and Coulthard's Classroom Discourse Analysis System is a viable framework for investigating classroom interaction and teachers' speech, there are still some limitations that should not be ignored in future studies.

The Use of Speech Acts

Previous studies, such as Atkin's (2001) and Takakubo's (2001), using Sinclair and Coulthard's Speech Acts Model showed that some adaptations should be made in the model due to class size and students' English level.   In this study, the researcher encountered problems while transcribing and categorizing the speech data during the data analysis procedure.   It was difficult to analyze every utterance and place it into its appropriate speech act category.   Notwithstanding the problems, the majority of the data did seem to fit the 22 categories, although it took careful assignment of labels. It was not enough just to examine the grammatical structures of each act.   In addition, the acts preceding and following a given act had to be examined to accurately assess the function of each act.   The intentions of the teacher as perceived by the student

were the key to determining the appropriate category. This was primarily true because teachers can choose to do or say anything they like. For this reason, the Speech Act Model has been criticized by Mountford (1975) and Willis (1983), who argued that this model is weak because it is too product-oriented and/or situational. For instance, the high frequency of the utterance 'Mm', which showed that the teacher was listening to the students, may not only belong in the category of "acknowledgement act" as indicated in Sinclair and Coulthard's model (1982). It can also occur in the middle of the teacher's eliciting or informing act. This act would probably be realized as, and can be analyzed as, a physical response such as eye contact and a nod. Therefore, the intentions of the speaker and these intentions as perceived by the listener are the important sources by which the appropriate category can be determined. However, the intention of the teacher's speech is very difficult to identify by listening to the audiotape recording alone. Thus, an interview should be conducted with the teacher in order to understand more clearly the teacher's intention in classroom speech.

The results of analysis clearly show that the three native English teachers used "informative act", "elicitation act", "directive act" and "accept act" more times than other speech acts in classroom discourse. Three functions are implied in these specific speech acts used frequently by the participating teachers in this study. One function is for the teachers to focus students' attention in order to guide them step by step in class activities. The "informative" and "directive" acts were used for this purpose. The teachers usually gave students directions related to the new topic at the very beginning of the class. For example, in order to guide students' learning and focus their attention, Teacher A always told students the rules and steps for each class task. Then, they were able to start their lesson topic easily. With more detailed information related to lesson topics offered by teachers, students seemed to

understand more easily what teachers said and to be more willing to speak in class. For instance, before a new lesson topic began, Teacher B provided students with much related background knowledge or information to help students' learning. These two speech acts were used most frequently in the four classes in this study.

Another function of the high frequencies of speech acts is to elicit students' speech in English. The "elicitation" speech act appeared many times in the three participating teachers' data. In using this speech act, the three teachers asked questions. For example, Teacher A and Teacher B asked students more referential questions, whereas Teacher C asked more display questions. Both types of questions elicited students' involvement in the classroom speech. Moreover, when asking students questions, the teachers provided clues and informative input to help students to answer the elicitation questions. For example, Teacher A tried to help his students to think of a reason for saying 'no' to someone's offer of a cup of coffee, so he asked questions like, "What's in the coffee?". Then he provided a clue by asking, "If you drink coffee before you go to bed, what will happen?" to help students to think of the concept of 'caffeine' in the coffee as a reason to say 'no'. After providing the clue, he asked students, "What other drinks have caffeine?" to relate the word to students' experiences. Students then thought of other drinks that contain caffeine, such as tea and Coke, to show that they really understood the meaning of the word. However, if students did not have enough input or information related to the topic, even though the teacher asked a lot of questions to elicit the linguistic response, they still could not interact verbally with the teacher.

The third function of the teachers' aforementioned high frequencies of speech acts was to focus students' non-linguistic response on what teachers say. For example, when students were very noisy, Teacher A and Teacher B used the "directive" speech act to get them to quiet down by saying, "Stop talking!" or "Class,

please listen" frequently during class.

Regarding the cultural and educational environment in Taiwan's EFL classroom, it is basically teacher-fronted.   In class, students seem to be accustomed to teachers' orders and commands, which guide their learning.   That is why the "directive act" was used more frequently by all three teachers to manage the class and lead students to learn step by step.   With the facilitation of the "informative act" and "elicitation act", teachers could motivate and guide students to articulate connections between new information and their life experiences and home culture.   The contribution of these specific speech acts gives rise to the kind of extended classroom speech that promotes good interaction between teachers and students.   For example, the three teachers offered text-related information as the "informative act" to teach their students.   When teaching the text unit "Foreign Countries", Teacher A used a map to tell students about the geographical locations of foreign countries.   He asked students to describe the location of Taiwan by using the map that he provided.   When teaching the text topic "dilemmas", Teacher B told students a story about a person surviving on a stranded island.   Then he asked students for their opinions and elicited students' verbal responses to the dilemma in the story.   Teacher C provided students with more details and information about various jobs, which went beyond the basic descriptions of jobs given in the textbook.   Then Teacher C asked students to describe their parents' jobs in English by using the words he had taught in the supplementary materials.   All of the examples above show that the three teachers' use of specific speech acts helped them to initiate and maintain classroom verbal interaction with students.

Interaction Patterns and Level of Students' English Proficiency

In this study, Class A's and Class B's speech data represent the interaction

patterns between NES teachers and students with higher English proficiency, whereas Class C's and Class D's speech data represent the interaction patterns between NES teachers and students with lower English proficiency.   Examination of the results of analysis of the basic IRF pattern reveals that there were no obvious differences in these two sets of data.   However, when we look into the examination of the overall analysis of the IRF pattern, we found that students with higher English proficiency seemed to interact longer and better with their teachers in the IRF expansion part than those with lower English ability.   For example, when talking about the story of the dilemma in Class B and Class C, students in Class B (higher English proficiency) asked more questions and shared more opinions on this issue with Teacher B than students in Class C (lower English level).

There are several possible reasons why students with higher English level had good and expanded verbal interaction with their NES teachers.   One of the reasons is that students with better English proficiency understood most of their NES teachers' classroom speech.   Thus they could express their opinions more clearly than lower level students.   Based on Sinclair and Coulthard's IRF pattern, the initiation dominates the pattern where a question is asked to which the teacher, who asks the question, already knows the answer.   Therefore, traditional initiation is an exchange that occurs in situations where the relationship is unequal.   However, when receiving a new concept or idea, higher English level students initiated the classroom speech by asking their teachers questions or sharing their personal experience related to the topic. They could spontaneously start the conversation and maintain it.   On the other hand, students with lower English proficiency were limited by their English ability.   The classroom initiation was dominated by the NES teachers. The students usually waited for teachers' questions and then responded to them.   Thus, there was less expansion of interaction than with students who had higher English ability.

Students with higher English proficiency could also respond to and learn more from teachers' feedback. For them, teachers' feedback provided useful information that helped to expand the verbal interaction. From the NES teachers' feedback, it was clear that these students asked about things they did not know, shared their opinions and comments on the topic and even initiated new conversations on related topics. Then if these students found that they still did not understand what the teachers said, they asked more questions or gave more responses based on the teachers' feedback as a stimulus to continue the interaction.

It seems clear, therefore, that students' English proficiency did play a role in influencing the interaction pattern, especially in the expansion part. Due to their limited English ability, students with lower English proficiency usually followed what teachers said in class and had fewer opportunities to start or maintain the conversation. Therefore, the class with lower English level students tended to be a teacher-fronted class. On the other hand, students with higher English level were more expressive and productive in using English to communicate with their NES teachers. Moreover, by starting the Initiation Move, higher level students had more opportunities than lower level students to direct the interaction so that they could respond in their own way and at the same time develop their language ability.

Interaction Patterns and Teachers' Professional Background

In this study, Teacher A's and Teacher B's data were compared to determine if the teachers' educational background was a factor that affected their performance in classroom interaction. Teacher B's and Teacher C's data were compared to examine if their teaching experience had an influence on the interaction patterns. The results show that teachers' professional background does have an effect on classroom interaction. The effects can be discussed from the following aspects.

First, the participating NES teacher with teaching-related background used more effective questioning strategies to elicit the students' speech in the Initiation Move.   The results showed that teachers' question types can influence students' output of the target language.   One explanation for this is teachers' referential questions, which call for students' interpretation of the text-- the tasks which focus on meaning and sharing of opinions and ideas.   This type of question generates communication which often involves rather complex processing of both language and content.   In contrast, display questions that elicit students' knowledge and give them practice in English often result in negative feedback and, consequently, teacher-prompted language, which is referred to as pseudo-interaction.   In other words, although the purpose of the questions is to initiate verbal interaction, the nature of the questions alters the intended outcome.

If we only look at the overall analysis of Teacher A's and Teacher B's Initiation Moves, Teacher B seems to have more Initiation counts than Teacher A.   However, even though Teacher A had fewer Initiation counts, he interacted better with students based on the results of analysis.   This finding that the professionally educated teacher talked less in class but interacted better with students is consistent with that of Huang's study (1997) mentioned in Chapter Two.   Taking the speech acts that the two teachers used for initiation into consideration, the researcher found that Teacher A used the "directive act" more often to guide students to speak in class than Teacher B did.   Using the "directive act", Teacher A asked higher cognitive display questions when starting a new topic.   Teacher B's speech data showed that most of the classroom interaction was initiated by the display questions to check comprehension, such as "Do you know what 'survive' means in Chinese?"   The function of this kind of question was not to promote real conversational interaction in class but only to check students' comprehension of a concept.   If the main function of the teachers'

questions is to get the students to use English for communication, then the NES teacher with teaching-related educational background was more successful in achieving this goal than the two NES teachers who lacked formal professional teacher education in TESL or TEFL.

We can also see how the difference in teachers' educational background affected their Follow-up Moves in classroom interaction with students. When the students initiated the conversation, Teacher A usually responded to students verbally, whereas Teacher B responded to students nonverbally. The results of the data analysis show that Teacher B interacted with students by using more and longer IRF patterns. Examining the content of Teacher B's classroom interactions, the researcher found that the expansion of IRF was pseudo-communication, whereas the content of Teacher A's classroom interaction was more communicative. Besides, Teacher A knew the strategies to use to elicit students' speech and he gave more meaningful feedback in class than Teacher B. Thus, students in Class A made more verbal responses to their teacher and had more questions to ask. Those questions formed the expansion of the IRF model.

As discussed in Chapter Two in relation to Ding's study (2001), native English speaking teachers use more classroom activities and teaching aids in class. In this study, it was found that, compared to the other teachers, the NES teacher with teaching-related educational background arranged more classroom activities that offered students more opportunities to speak in English in class. For example, the classroom activities in Teacher A's class included more group-work activities where students worked on a joint task using English. Undoubtedly, this kind of activity provided more meaningful interactions than the conversation or grammar practices in Teacher B's class.

Secondly, the NES teacher with longer teaching experience performed better in

meaningful verbal interaction.   Examining the result of IRF model analysis, the researcher found that Teacher C had more classroom interactions than Teacher B. But when the content of the interactions was closely examined, there were more verbal interactions in Teacher B's data, and more non-verbal interactions were found in Teacher C's data.   This phenomenon indicates that Teacher C's interaction was less substantive.   He lacked the ability to elicit students' output based on his questions or feedback.   On the other hand, Teacher B, who had more teaching experience, knew how to get students to talk in class and used that skill to get students involved in classroom discussion.   Thus, even though Teacher B did not have teaching-related educational background, he still created meaningful verbal interactions based on his experience teaching EFL students.

Thirdly, teachers' educational background and teaching experience did play a role in affecting their use of Initiation and Follow-up Moves in classroom interaction patterns.   Although Teacher B showed less effective strategy in using the questions to elicit more student output than Teacher A, he performed better than Teacher C in the use of the Initiation Move.   This phenomenon indicates that teaching experience helps to compensate for, to a certain degree, the lack of teaching-related educational background.   A professional background also helps teachers to be good at classroom management.   It was pointed out in Long and Biggs' study (1999) that teachers with education degrees and teaching experience can influence and contribute to good classroom management.   During classroom activities, the researcher observed that Teacher A managed the class by using more principles and directions than Teacher B. Teacher A clearly explained the rules to students first and used many examples to guide students in a classroom activity.   Thus, his students knew what to do and could participate better in the classroom activities.

An earlier study (Long and Sato, 1983) on teacher talk showed that ESL

teachers used more display questions when talking to nonnative English speaking students.   The same observation applies to the use of teachers' question type in this study.   Teachers' use of display questions in EFL contexts may be due to students' English proficiency and teachers' professional background.   In class, Teacher A and Teacher B asked topic-related display questions to get students to think and respond. Then, they usually helped students to learn a new concept by offering clues and information.   These initiation strategies encouraged the students in Teacher A's and Teacher B's classes to speak more English than the students in Teacher C's class. After the successful initiation that aroused students active response, the teachers asked them referential questions as feedback to elicit students' continuous speech.   On the other hand, Teacher C only asked the display questions in the textbook as the initiation questions.   Students answered the questions by just reading the answer in the textbook out loud as a response.   Then Teacher C responded with "good", "okay", or "all right" as positive feedback.   Even though the analysis of Teacher C's Initiation Move as part of the complete IRF pattern indicated a high percentage, his initiation strategy was less effective in eliciting students' spontaneous speech. Therefore, it is difficult to evaluate the interaction patterns by examining the results of IRF analysis alone.   It is also necessary to analyze teachers' question types or content skills in the Initiation and Follow-up Moves to understand what constitutes real classroom interaction.

The two NES teachers without teaching-related educational background used code-switching in class and had less expansion of IRF patterns.   When we think of learning English from native speakers, most of us expect an all-English environment. In this study, Teacher A used simplified English to explain new words or concepts. He knew how to modify his class speech without using any Chinese.   However, both Teacher B and Teacher C used Chinese to facilitate their teaching.   In post-interview

discussions, Teacher B and Teacher C gave two reasons for using Chinese in class.
One of the reasons they spoke Chinese is because they wanted to focus students'
attention and to make sure that students really understood the new words or concepts.
Teacher B thought that, as a non-native Chinese speaker, his use of Chinese in class
was a good way to gain students' attention.   Students thought it was funny and
interesting to hear the teacher speaking Chinese and thus paid more attention to what
he said.   Most of the time, the teachers translated new English words into Chinese to
help the students to understand their meaning.   They also used Chinese to check
students' comprehension in class.   For example, when they tried to help students
individually, they spoke simple Chinese to the students, such as "Dong bu dong?
(understand)" to make sure that students understood their speech and "Keyi ma
(okay)" to make sure they were not talking too fast.

If the use of Chinese is necessary in lower-level EFL classes in Taiwan, NES
teachers' Chinese proficiency may be an important influence on their judgment of
students' comprehension of English.   For example, when teacher B taught students
the word 'survive', students responded in Chinese with "sheng cun", so he thought
students did not really understand what 'survive' meant in English because he thought
the word for 'survive' in Chinese was only "huo jhe".   His use of Chinese in this
situation led to some confusion among students and made it difficult for them to
negotiate the meaning of the new word.

The fact that Teacher B and Teacher C used code-switching as a teaching
strategy in the EFL context brings up two issues.   One is that maybe NES teachers
with no teaching-related educational background do not know how to modify their
teacher talk with English that is simple enough for students to understand, so they use
code-switching to communicate with students in class.   Thus, teachers need
professional training, including training in speech modification, before teaching

English in an EFL context.   The other point of view implies that when NES teachers teach EFL students, they probably need to know some basic Chinese in order to successfully negotiate the meanings of new words.

Limitation of the study

Although every effort has been made to ensure that the research was as rigorous as possible, there are still limitations in this study.

Limitations of Using Sinclair and Coulthard's IRF Model

Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975, 1992) IRF model was developed in a traditional style classroom, and many of the problems encountered in this study were due to the different styles of discourse which occurred in each situation in class.   The original interaction pattern was the Initiation-Response-Follow-up sequence.   However, the results of IRF analysis could not fully represent the actual classroom interaction between teachers and students.   For example, the results of the IRF analysis in Class D's data showed good interaction between the teacher and the students.   The complete IRF sequence was about 46%, which was the highest percentage among the four classes.   However, analysis of the observation notes showed that the interaction pattern in Class D was almost always started by the teacher's display questions, followed by students' answers, and then by the teacher's feedback using the word 'good'.   Even though this interaction sequence in Class D represented a positive and complete IRF pattern, the content of the interaction showed pseudo-communication without expanded verbal interaction between the teacher and the students.   In Class A, on the other hand, Teacher A elicited students' responses by asking open-ended questions.   He also provided many clues and much information to elicit students' speech.   Thus, the IRF pattern showed more expansion, such as IRF(RF), IRF(RFRF), or even longer interaction sequences.   The interaction expansion in

Class A presents a more effective verbal interaction between the teacher and the students in an EFL context.   Therefore, the results of analysis with the IRF model should not be the only criteria used to determine which class has better classroom interaction.   When analyzing classroom interactions, the content of verbal interaction is another important reference to take into consideration.

The Variation of the Lesson Topics

One thing that might have affected the representation of classroom interaction was the variation of lesson topics.   Comparison of the data of Teacher A and Teacher B showed that the topics for the lessons were totally different, which resulted in different classroom interaction patterns.   Therefore, the effects of the teachers' educational background on classroom interaction are not so obvious.   Besides, based on an examination of the lesson topics, Teacher A arranged more group activities than Teacher B.   It was the same in the comparisons of speech data of Teacher B and Teacher C based on their different teaching experiences.   Since Teacher B decided to teach students what a dilemma is, he needed to tell a story to help students to understand the topic.   However, Teacher C only followed the textbook when he taught the students simple [That is, simple rather than complex.] English sentences. Different lesson topics can influence teachers' arrangement of classroom activities and their use of classroom speech.   Therefore, the relation between lesson topics and teachers' performances in interaction patterns is clear.

Conclusion

This study investigated how NES teachers interact verbally with Taiwanese EFL learners in the classroom.　The relationship between NES teachers' professional background and their performance in classroom interaction was also examined.　The investigation found specific features in the language, in terms of speech acts, used by NES teachers at a junior high school in Taiwan.

First, the results of the speech acts analysis in this study indicate that the three NES teachers used specific speech acts in EFL class to facilitate learning.　NES teachers were good at using "elicitation", "informative" and "directive" speech acts to guide and motivate EFL learners to produce language output in class.　It means that if NES teachers know how to use the power of their speech acts and the strategy of modifying their classroom speech with simplified English, they will probably create a meaningful all-English environment in which students can be expected to learn English naturally.

Second, the results of the study show that professional background, including teaching-related educational background and teaching experience, can make a difference in promoting classroom interaction.　Therefore, NES teachers should be required to take a teacher training program before they start to teach in an EFL context.　After taking teacher training courses, NES teachers will be much more familiar with the teaching environment and their students' culture than those who have not received such training.　They will also better understand students' problems and difficulties in learning English from analysis of the classroom interaction process. As to the use of Chinese in class, it seemed to be necessary in the classes with lower-level students in this study.　Thus, if NES teachers need to use Chinese in class to facilitate communication, they should know basic Chinese and be aware of the linguistic differences between Chinese and English.

Furthermore, classroom interactions were expanded based on the NES teachers' skills of initiation and giving feedback in this study. How to elicit students' speech in class is a very important aspect for teachers to learn. Individual teaching styles and questioning strategies have a greater impact on teacher-student interaction and student contributions to classroom discourse than the NES teacher's native language.

In addition, Sinclair and Coulthard's Discourse Analysis System indeed provided a good model for analyzing classroom speech in this study. The IRF model was also appropriate for analyzing classroom interaction. However, there are still some limitations when using their system to analyze native English speaking teacher's speech in an EFL setting and evaluating the quality of classroom interaction. The categories of Sinclair and Coulthard's Speech Act Model can be useful in analyzing NES teachers' classroom discourse in EFL contexts, but they might require modification according to EFL students' English proficiency and the teaching environment. The IRF model, which is used for understanding classroom interaction patterns and the content of the IRF moves, such as teachers' elicitation question types or ways of giving verbal feedback, should also be included and examined to evaluate the quality of classroom interaction. Then, the analysis of NES teacher's discourse and classroom interaction will be more complete than the analysis of classroom interaction using the IRF model alone.

Overall, this study of classroom interaction between NES teachers and the four small classes of students provides a better understanding of the effect of teachers' speech on classroom verbal interaction. Moreover, professional teaching background indeed makes a difference in NES teachers' teaching and plays an important role in promoting meaningful and expanded classroom interaction. It is hoped that the results of the study will provide NES teachers, school administrators and language education researchers in Taiwan with some implications about the

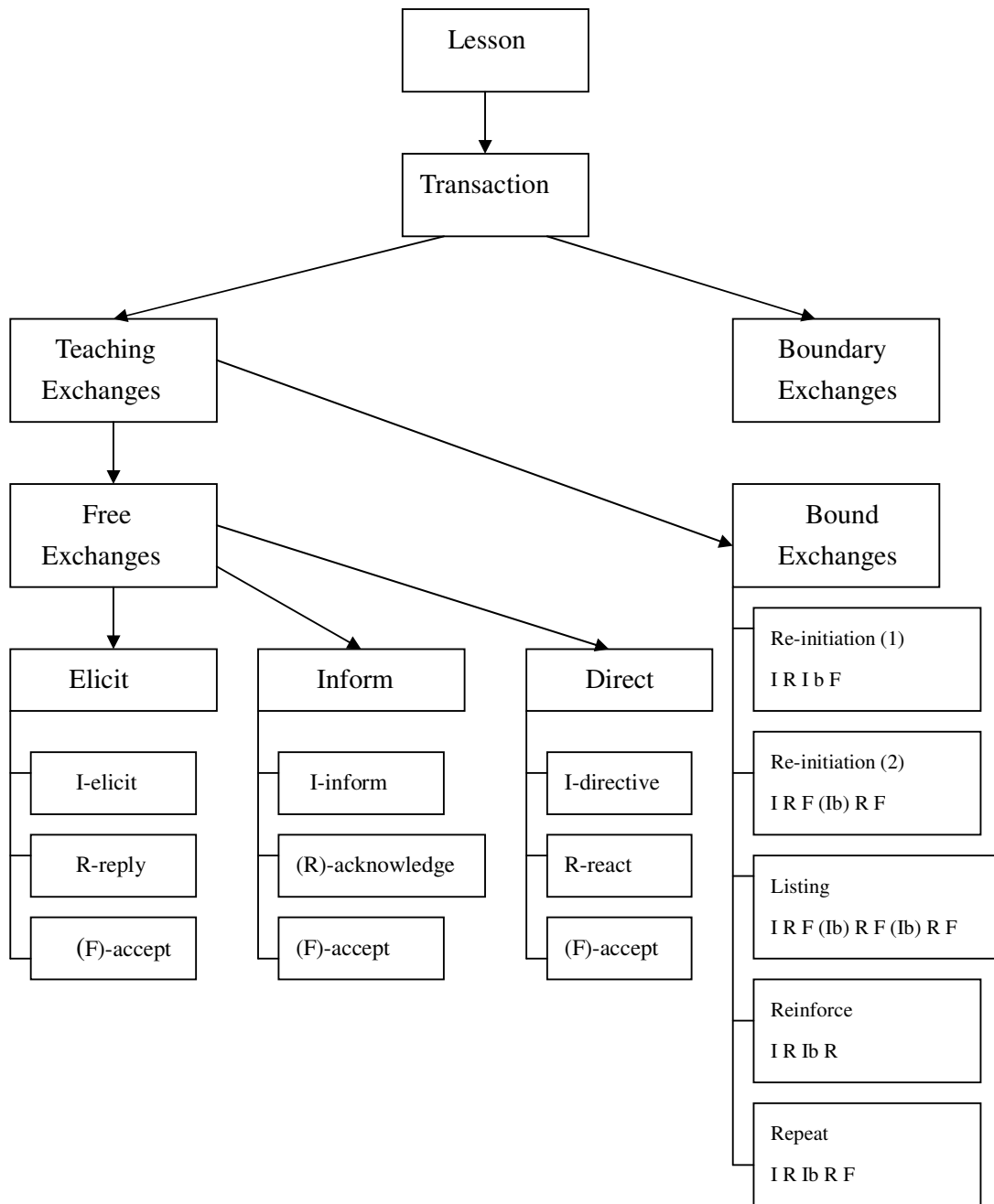effects of teachers' speech in an EFL context.

Appendix A

Sinclair and Coulthard's (1992) Speech Act Categories:

No.	Label	Sym.	Formal features and functional definition
1	marker	m	Realized by a closed class of items – 'well', 'OK', 'now', 'good', 'right', 'alright'. When a marker is acting as the head of a framing move, it has a falling intonation, [1] or [1+], as well as a silent stress. Its function is to mark boundaries in the discourse.
2	starter	s	Realized by a statement, question or command. Its function is to provide information about or direct attention to or thought towards an area in order to make a correct response to the initiation more likely.
3	elicitation	el	Realized by a question. Its function is to request a linguistic response.
4	check	ch	Realized by a closed class of polar questions concerned with being 'finished' or 'ready', having 'problems' or 'difficulties', being able to 'see' or 'hear'. They are 'real' questions, in that for once the teacher doesn't know the answer. If he does know the answer to, for example, 'have you finished', it is a directive, not a check. The function of checks is to enable the teacher to ascertain whether there are any problems preventing the successful progress of the lesson.
5	directive	d	Realized by a command. Its function is to request a non-linguistic response.
6	informative	i	Realized by a statement. It differs from other uses of statement in that its sole function is to provide information. The only response is an acknowledgement of attention or understanding.
7	prompt	p	Realized by a closed class of items – 'go on', 'come on', 'hurry up', 'quickly', 'have a guess'. Its function therefore is to reinforce a directive or elicitation by suggesting that the teacher is no longer requesting a response but expecting or even demanding one.
8	clue	cl	Realized by a statement, question, command or moodless item. It is subordinate to the head of the initiation and functions by providing additional information, which helps the pupil to answer the

			elicitation or comply with the directive.
9	cue	cu	Realised by a closed class of which we so far have only three exponents, 'hands up', 'don't call out', 'is John the only one'. Its sole function is to evoke an (appropriate) bid.
10	bid	b	Realized by a closed class of verbal and non-verbal items – 'Sir', 'Miss', teacher's name, raised hand, heavy breathing, finger clicking. Its function is to signal a desire to contribute to the discourse.
11	nomination	n	Realized by a closed class consisting of the names of all the pupils, 'you' with contrastive stress, 'anybody', 'yes' and one or two idiosyncratic items such as 'who hasn't said anything yet'. The function of nomination is to call on or give permission to a pupil to contribute to the discourse.
12	acknowledge	ack	Realized by 'yes', 'OK', 'cor', 'mm', 'wow', and certain non-verbal gestures and expressions. Its function is to show that the initiation has been understood, and, if the head was a directive, that the pupil intends to react.
13	reply	rep	Realized by a statement, question or moodless item and non-verbal surrogates such as nods. Its function is to provide a linguistic response, which is appropriate to the elicitation.
14	react	rea	Realized by a non-linguistic action. Its function is to provide the appropriate non-linguistic response defined by the preceding directive.
15	comment	com	Realized by a statement or tag question. It is subordinate to the head of the move and its function is to exemplify, expand, justify, provide additional information. On the written page, it is difficult to distinguish from an informative because the outsider's ideas of relevance are not always the same. However teachers signal paralinguistically, by a pause, when they are beginning a new initiation with an informative as a head; otherwise they see themselves as commenting.
16	accept	acc	Realized by a closed class of items – 'yes', 'no', 'good', 'fine', and repetition of pupil's reply, all with

			neutral low fall intonation. Its function is to indicate that the teacher has heard or seen and that the informative, reply or react was appropriate.
17	evaluate	e	Realized by statements and tag questions, including words and phrases such as 'good', 'interesting', 'team point', commenting on the quality of the reply, react or initiation, also by 'yes', 'no', 'good', 'fine', with a high-fall intonation, and repetition of the pupil's reply with either high-fall(positive), or a rise of any kind (negative evaluation).
18	silent stress	^	Realized by a pause of one or more beats, following a marker. It functions to highlight the marker when it is serving as the head of a boundary exchange indicating a transaction boundary.
19	metastatement	ms	Realized by a statement which refers to some future time when what is described will occur. Its function is to help pupils to see the structure of the lesson, to help them understand the purpose of the subsequent exchange, and see where they are going.
20	conlusion	con	Realized by an anaphoric statement, sometimes marked by slowing of speech rate and usually the lexical items 'so' or 'then'. In a way it is the converse of a metastatement. Its function is again to help pupils understand the structure of the lesson but this time by summarizing what the preceding chunk of discourse was about.
21	Loop	l	Realized by a closed class of items – 'pardon', 'you what', 'eh', 'again', with rising intonation and a few questions like 'did you say', 'do you mean'. Its function is to return the discourse to the stage it was at before the pupil spoke, from where it can proceed normally.
22	aside	z	Realized by statement, question, command, moodless, usually marked by lowering the tone of voice, and not really addressed to the class. As we noted above, this category covers items that we have difficulty dealing with. It is really instances of the teacher talking to himself: 'It's freezing in here', 'Where did I put my chalk?'

Appendix B

Lesson

Transaction

Teaching Exchanges

Boundary Exchanges

Free Exchanges

Bound Exchanges

Elicit

Inform

Direct

I-elicit

R-reply

(F)-accept

I-inform

(R)-acknowledge

(F)-accept

I-directive

R-react

(F)-accept

Re-initiation (1)
I R I b F

Re-initiation (2)
I R F (Ib) R F

Listing
I R F (Ib) R F (Ib) R F

Reinforce
I R Ib R

Repeat
I R Ib R F

A diagrammatic representation of Sinclair and Coulthard's
Initiation-Response-Follow-up model (adapted in Atkins, 2001: 3)

Appendix C

Resource B: Sample Forms

Classroom Observation Worksheet

Instructor _____Course_____

Date _____Observer _____

Respond to each statement using the following scaled:

Not observed	More emphasis recommended	Accomplished very well
1	2	3

Circle the number at the right that best represents your response. Use the comment space below each section to provide more feedback or suggestions.

__Content Organization__	Not Observed	More emphasis Recommended	Accomplished Very well
1. Defined relationship of this lesson to previous lessons	1	2	3
2. Presented overview of the lesson	1	2	3
3. Presented topics with a logical sequence	1	2	3
4. Summarized major points of lesson	1	2	3
5. Responded to problems raised during lesson	1	2	3
6. Related today's lesson to future lessons	1	2	3

Coments:

__Presentation__	Not Observed	More emphasis Recommended	Accomplished very well
7. Projected voice so easily heard	1	2	3
8. Used intonation to vary emphasis	1	2	3
9. Explained things with clarity	1	2	3
10. Maintained eye contact with students	1	2	3
11. Listened to students questions and comments	1	2	3

	Not Observed	More emphasis Recommended	Accomplished very well
12. Projected nonverbal gestures consistent with intentions	1	2	3
13. Defined unfamiliar terms, concepts, and principles	1	2	3
14. Presented examples to clarify points	1	2	3
15. Related new ideas to familiar concepts	1	2	3
16. Restated important ideas at appropriate times	1	2	3
17. Varied explanations for complex and difficult material	1	2	3
18. Used humor appropriately to strengthen retention and interest	1	2	3
19. Limited use of repetitive phrases and hanging articles	1	2	3

Comments:

Instructor-Student Interactions	Not Observed	More emphasis Recommended	Accomplished very well
20. Encouraged student questions	1	2	3
21. Encouraged student discussions	1	2	3
22. Maintained student attention	1	2	3
23. Asked questions to monitors students' progress	1	2	3
24. Gave satisfactory answers to student questions	1	2	3
25. Responded to nonverbal cues of confusion, boredom and curiosity	1	2	3
26. Paced lesson to allow time for note taking	1	2	3
27. Encouraged students to answer difficult question	1	2	3
28. Asked probing questions when student answer was incomplete	1	2	3
29. Restated questions and answers when necessary	1	2	3
30. Suggested questions of limited interest to be handled outside of class	1	2	3

Comments:

Instructional Materials and Environment	Not Observed	More emphasis Recommended	Accomplished very well
31. Maintained adequate classroom facilities	1	2	3
32. Prepared students for the lesson with appropriate assigned readings	1	2	3
33. Supported lesson with useful classroom discussion and exercises	1	2	3
34. Presented helpful audiovisual materials to support lesson organization and major points	1	2	3
35. Provided relevant written assignments	1	2	3

Comments:

Content Knowledge and Relevance	Not Observed	More emphasis Recommended	Accomplished very well
36. Presented material worth knowing	1	2	3
37. Presented material appropriate to students' knowledge and background	1	2	3
38. Cited authorities to support statements	1	2	3
39. Presented material appropriate to stated purpose of course	1	2	3
40. Made distinctions between fact and opinion	1	2	3
41. Presented divergent viewpoints when appropriate	1	2	3
42. Demonstrated command of subject matter	1	2	3
43. What overall impressions do you think students left this lesson with in terms of content or style?	1	2	3
44. What were the instructor's major strengths as demonstrated in this observation?	1	2	3
45. What suggestions do you have for improving upon this instructor's skills?	1	2	3

Comments:

TEACHING STRATEGIES OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

Teacher _____ School _____ Grade Level _____ Number of Students _____ Date _____

Observer _____ Lesson Observed _____ Start _____ Finish _____

The teacher aims to:	Observed	Not Observed	Not Applicable	Comments:
1. Integrate language, content and culture				
• Identifies theme-related culture learning goals to introduce products, practices and perspectives				
• Selects appropriate language and culture learning objectives that follow from content goals				
• Uses authentic songs, poems, literature, rhymes, artifacts to teach language and culture				
• Evaluates language, content and culture learning for each lesson/unit				
2. Attend to continuous language growth and improve accuracy				
• Elicits and holds all students accountable for self and peer repair				
• Attends to errors in both oral and written language				
• Uses a variety of effective feedback techniques including elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, repetition, recasts, explicit correction and non-verbal cues				
• Differentiates between feedback on form versus meaning, e.g., "I like that idea. How might you say it more precisely?"				
• Creates opportunities and activities to assist students in noticing and producing less frequently used, accurate language in oral and written form				
• Focuses corrective responses on pre-determined language objectives based on the lesson and the developmental level of the learners				

. **Make input comprehensible**				
• Uses body language, TPR, visuals, realia, manipulatives to communicate meaning				
• Solicits and draws upon prior knowledge and experiences with new themes				
• Uses a variety of pre-reading and pre-writing activities to make language and content more accessible, e.g., advanced organizers, etc.				
• Breaks complex information and processes into component parts				
• Makes frequent use of comprehension checks that require learners to demonstrate their understanding				
• Selects and adapts instructional material for learners' developmental level				
• Establishes routines to build familiarity and allow for repetition				
4. **Create an L2-rich learning environment**				
• Extends students' language repertoires by teaching synonyms and antonyms				
• Displays a variety of words, phrases, written text throughout classroom and hallways				
• Invites native speakers to participate in the classroom				
• Makes available a variety of target language reading and resource materials such as dictionaries, thesaurus, encyclopedia, etc.				
• Surrounds learner with extensive oral and written language input				
5. **Use teacher talk effectively**				
• Articulates and enunciates clearly				
• Slows down and simplifies language when developmentally appropriate				
• Rephrases and repeats messages in a variety of ways				
• Varies intonation to mirror messages				
• Recycles past, present and future vocabulary and language structures consciously				
• Models accurate use of language				
Limits amount of teacher talk				

6. Promote extended student output				
• Plans for and employs questioning techniques that encourage extended discourse and foster higher-order thinking				
• Structures and facilitates high-interest, student-centered activities				
• Uses output-oriented activities such as role plays, simulations, drama, debates, presentations, etc.				
• Makes use of a variety of grouping techniques such as dyads, think-pair-share, small groups, etc.				
• Promotes learning from and with peers, e.g., peer editing, peer tutoring				
• Communicates and consistently reinforces clear expectations about language use				
• Creates a non-threatening learning environment				
7. Attend to diverse learner needs				
• Includes a range of language abilities in student groups				
• Uses cooperative group learning				
• Plans for diverse learner needs based on linguistic and cultural backgrounds				
• Surveys student interests to allow for student choice				
• Invites students to share different problem-solving approaches and learning strategies				
• Fosters development of multiple intelligences				

(From Center of Advanced Research on Language Acquisition, University of Minnesota)

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