PATTERNS OF COMMUNICATION IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASS: A FOCUS-BASED ANALYSIS

BY

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APPROVAL SHEET

The undersigned certify that they have read and recommended to the Faculty Board of Education for acceptance, a research study entitled "PATTERNS OF COMMUNICATION IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASS: A FOCUS-BASED ANALYSIS" submitted by Olusegun Ayodele Bamidele (1985) in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Masters of Education in the Teaching of English as a Second Language (TESL).

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Date: 13th August, 1985

DECLARATION

I declare that this study is an original work of research by me. To the best of my knowledge, this work has never been presented anywhere for the award of any degree in any form.

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OLUSEGUN AYO BAMIDELE

1985.

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Bamidele, Olusegun Ayodele
April, 1985.

DEDICATION

TO

RONKE AND AYODEJI

- They came on time

CAPT. 'BUKAR ATOFARATI
ARCH. JOSHUA OLU JOSEPH
THE ENESI FAMILY

- They all know why

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine and describe the patterns of communication in the English Language classroom within a mini-teaching framework. The subjects were third year students on long vacation course in the Language Arts Section of the Department of Education, Ahraadu Bello University, Zaria.

The students were in two groups vizs (1) Experimental, and (2) Control. They were observed teaching four lessons in the area of grammatical structures„ All the lessons were videotaped.

An instrument FOCUS, was used to explore whether there was any difference(s) between the pre-treatment and post-treatment lessons in the following:

1. Course and target of communication?
2. Move type of communication;
3. The mediums used for communication?
4. The pedagogical use of the mediums for communication; and
5. The content of communication.

The major thrust of the study was to explore the patterns of communication in the lessons of the thirty subjects, using a FOCUS-Based analysis. To look beyond statistics, the classes of some of the teachers were selected for discussion because they were identified as belonging to the same group and

manifested teaching technique changes that were not in the same direction.

FOCUS, within the constraints of this study, was shown to be a reliable means of analyzing English Language classroom communication, to be of use to researchers who want to study the patterns of classroom interaction, and to be of use to teachers/supervisors who want to look at teaching regardless of the approach to teaching, FOCUS was equally shown to be a reliable means of identifying sources, moves, contents and teacher use of mediums,

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Title page	i
Approval Sheet	ii
Declaration	iii
Acknowledgement	iv-v
Dedication	vi
Abstract	vii-viii
Table of Contents	ix-xi
List of Tables and Figures ...	xii
CHAPTER ONE:	
INTRODUCTION	1
1.0 Need for the Study ...	1-3
1.1 Purpose of the Study ...	3-5
1.2 Statement of the Problem ...	5-6
1.3 Questions Raised for the Study ...	6
1.4 Hypothesis	7
1.5 Basic Assumptions	7-8
1.6 Significance of the Study ...	8-9
1.7 Scope of the Study ...	10
1.8 Definition of Terms Used in the Study	11-18
1.9 Abbreviations and Symbols ...	18-19
CHAPTER TWO:	
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE ...	20
2.0 Introduction	20
2.1 Human Communication: A Brief Discussion	21-22
2.1.1 Sinclair and Coulthard System ...	23
2.2 General Interaction Matters ...	24-26
2.2.1 Flanders Interaction Analysis ...	26-27
2.3 Interaction in English Language Teaching	27-28
2.3.1 Moskowitz' FLINT ...	28-30
2.3.2 Some Related Studies Done in Nigeria	30-32
2.4 Methodologies in Use in English Language Researches	32-35

		Page
2.5	FOCUS	35
	2.5.1 The Background - Bellack's Language of the Classroom ...	35-37
	2.5.2 FOCUS: The Specific Instrument for the Study	37
	2.5.2.1 Definition and Examples of FOCUS Categories ...	37-38
	2.5.2.1.1 The Source and Target of Communication ...	38
	2.5.2.1.2 The Move or Pedagogical Purpose of Communication ...	42-45
	2.5.2.1.3 The Mediums ...	46-48
	2.5.2.1.4 The Use of Communication or the Tasks Set or Performed ...	48-52
	2.5.2.1.5 The Content of Communications	52-55
	2.5.2.1.5 FOCUS - An Appraisal ...	55-57
2.6	Clinical Supervision Circle ...	57-59
2.7	Summary of the Review ...	59
CHAPTER THREE:		
RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURE	...	60
3.0	Introduction	60
3.1	The Background Steps ...	60
	3.1.1 The Test Instrument ...	60-62
	3.1.2 Observation Framework ...	62-63
3.2	The Subjects and Lessons Observed in the Study	64-66
3.3	Instruments Used in the Study ...	66
3.4	Transcriptions of the Lessons ...	66-67
3.5	The Experimental Treatment ...	67-68
3.6	Analysis of Data	68
	3.6.1 Techniques Used ...	68-69
	3.6.2 Statistic Used ...	69
	3.6.3 Presentation of Findings ...	69

		Page
CHAPTER FOUR:		
ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA	...	70
4.0 Analysis and Interpretation of Data	...	70
4.1 Hypothesis Testing and Validation	...	70-71
4.2 FOCUS as Used in the Study	...	71
4.2.1 The Pre-Treatment Stage	...	71-90
4.2.2 The Post-Treatment Stage	...	90-92
4.3 Beyond Statistics: An Interpretation and Discussion of Findings	...	92-97
4.4 The Questions Raised for the Study	...	97-98
CHAPTER FIVE:		
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS		
5.1 Summary and Conclusion	...	109-113
5.2 Recommendations ...	...	113-119
BIBLIOGRAPHY ...	...	120-127
APPENDIX ...	...	128-138

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

FIGURE		Page
1	Overview of FOCUS	39
2.	FOCUS: Five Characteristics of Communication	40-41
3.	FOCUS: Classification of Mediums with Examples	49
4.	FOCUS: Areas of Content	50-51=
5.	Clinical Supervisory Circle ...	57
6.	Schematic Representation of Training and Assessment Procedure	119

TABLE		
1	A Breakdown of Source and Target of Communication	72
2	Pedagogical Purpose of Communication	74
3.	Mediums Used to Communicate Contents ...	81
4.	The Way the Mediums are Used to Communicate Contents	86
5.	Contents of Communication	89
6.	Chi Square Result for the Five Categories Used in the Study	91
7.	Percentage of Teacher-Talk Recorded for the Student-Teachers Used in the Study ...	93
8.	Source and Target of Communication for Subjects One and Eleven in the Experimental Group	96

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 NEED FOR THE STUDY

Student teaching has been the subject of much thinking, writing and research over the decades (Hamza, 1974; Gage, 1978; Odusina, 1980). Thus, Peck and Tucker (1973) in their review of the literature of studies on teacher education observed that there was widespread agreement that supervised classroom practice is a good thing for prospective teachers, but there was no research to find out how, why, or what specific kinds of practice actually had demonstrably good effects.

Today, an examination of the literature shows that the situation has not changed much, especially in the field of teaching English as a second language in Nigeria. Most of the researches conducted (Adedeji, 1965; Okunrotifa, 1973; Tijjani, 1974; Anyanwu, 1979; Ohaegbulem, 1980; Bamidele, 1982) sought to improve the methods of teaching English, but they have not come up with the much desired answer to a better understanding of what specific kinds of practice do have visibly good effects on classroom teaching practice.

For example, Ohaegbulem (1980) in a special study of the problems of teaching English as a second language,

did not provide any proof from the report of the study that teachers' interaction levels were the same or different for all the lessons observed and with the same set of students or different students. If differences were noticed, they were not reported. What could have been responsible for this? Yet the result of the study is loaded with the attitudinal behaviour of teachers and students.

Earlier, Okunrotifa's (1973) investigation into the teaching of specific English skills made use of classroom observation, yet she did not present any coherrent account of communication in the classroom from the observed data, nor did she offer any suggestion as to how the teacher could be helped to see the emerging patterns of communication in the classroom. There is the need, therefore, to gear our research towards the identification of types of practice that will lead to the development of teachers, especially those in training that will need the result of such researches for their growth in teaching.

In general, student teaching practice has been considered to be an essential component of teacher education programme. It has often been unmanageable in its complexity and too much at the mercy of the idiosyncrasies of the cooperating and supervising teachers (Lee, 1973). In addition, student teaching

feedback or knowledge of results, seldom come through clearly or quickly enough to improve performance (Gage, 1978). Therefore, a new innovation known as microteaching was developed at Stanford by Allen and others in the early 1960s.

Microteaching has been found to be effective (Fortune, 1967; Davis and Smoot, 1969; Reed, 1978). Also, the results of many of the investigations in microteaching have been reviewed by Traill, et al (1973) cited in Gage (1978) and agree that Microteaching from the available evidence is quite effective. Nonetheless, microteaching research has not yielded many firm conclusions concerning the value of the many variations possible within this approach to teaching practice. There is the need therefore to focus attention on some specific kinds of practice within this framework like teacher talk, content of lesson or mediums of communication to see their effects on student-teachers performance.

1.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to examine students' teaching and analyse the communication that takes place in the classroom within the microteaching framework. This should be of some practical relevance regarding the understanding of classroom life,

especially teacher-student talk as well as a contribution to practical teacher training.

In addition, there is also a great need for all teachers to understand how their communicative behaviour influences their students' learning. To this end, the study intends to describe such behaviour in as much detail as possible. As Fanselow (1982) has rightly put it,

> We teachers can see more clearly what we do if we describe what we do rather than judge what we do (for we can) provide a rational and a means so we can initiate and engage in the process of examining our own teaching on our own.
>
> (Fanselow, 1982)

Classroom observation should enable the researcher show the teacher what he may not see himself about the nature of his classroom behaviour, for, as Shakespeare puts it, "the eye sees not itself but by reflection, by some other things" (Julius Caesar, Act 1, Scene 1, LL 53-54). Though the danger of observer bias cannot be ruled out, this can be reduced by taking the teacher into confidence that is, we should let the teacher see us as a helper while the ultimate goal of 'self-analysis' put forward by Fanselow and quoted above, should not be lost.

In brief, the purpose of the study encompasses the following:

1. To find ways for the understanding of classroom teaching and learning through communication analysis;
2. To put forward proposals for the practical training of teachers based on our findings in this study.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This is a descriptive study of English as a second language class, but there is one area of interest in the field of English as a second language which underlies the selection of what to observe in the lessons studied. The one area of interest is the nature of classroom communication. The pronouncements of authorities in the field (Bellack, et al 1966; Hoetker and Alhbrand, 1969; Barnes, 1975) have made about teachers classroom communication behaviour affect the choice of what to observe in the teachers in this study. Therefore, this study specifically focusses attention on the following elements between the control and the experimental groups.

1. The source and target of communication in the classroom;
2. Specific pedagogical purpose of communication in the classroom;
3. Mediums used for communication in the classroom;
4. The way the mediums are used to communicate contents;

5. The contents of communication that takes place in the classroom;
6. Kinds of teacher feedback and reactions given to students.*

Teachers' communication as it manifests itself in the classroom under the six elements above will be used for determining the changes in the pattern of classroom teaching techniques. The findings will be used in answering the questions below and for hypothesis testing.

1.3 QUESTIONS RAISED FOR THE STUDY

The specific questions to be answered in the study are:

1. What patterns of communication emerge from classroom communication analysis of student teachers' lessons?
2. What are the communicative abilities of the student-teacher?
3. Is it possible for teachers to improve on their techniques through an understanding of their lesson procedures based on taped transcription of classroom communication?
4. What is the degree of adequacy of Fanselow's (1982) instrument (FOCUS) for the analysis of English language classroom communication?

---

* Derived from Fanselow (1980).

1.4 HYPOTHESIS

The null hypothesis to be tested in this study is: Modification in teaching techniques is independent of the experimental treatment given.

This hypothesis will be examined under the following categories:

a. the relationship between the frequency of teacher talk and the experimental treatment given;
b. the relationship between the frequency of teacher pedagogical purpose of communication and the experimental treatment given;
c. the relationship between the frequency of teacher use of the mediums to communicate content and the experimental treatment given;
d. the relationship between the frequency of teacher use of particular mediums to communicate content and the experimental treatment given;
e. the relationship between the frequency of areas of content being communicated by the teacher and the experimental treatment given.

The experimental treatment given consisted of communication analysis, using FOCUS and clinical supervisory conference[1] for the members of the experimental group.

1.5 BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

The researcher has the following basic assumptions to make in respect of the hypothesis.

---

1. See section 1.8 for definition.

1. That understanding of teacher-learner communication in the classroom is important for the understanding of the teaching-learning process;
2. That teacher-learner communication is measurable and analyzable as bits of behavioural patterns, using appropriate instruments;
3. That classroom communication consists primarily of five elements:
    a. Source and target
    b. Purpose
    c. Medium
    d. Use and
    e. Content.
4. That these five elements above together with anecdotal notes are adequate in accounting for any form of behaviour modification by teachers in the English language classroom;
5. That the three phases of clinical supervision - planning, observing, and feedback are more detailed and amenable for the use of FOCUS.

All these assumptions form the bedrock upon which the hypothesis is based for the purpose of this study.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study is significant in the following respects:

1. It is a critical contribution to students' practical

teaching preparation in terms of communication analysis.

2. It is an area that hopes to fill the much desired gap of effective classroom observation from within.
3. It will provide a new dimension for objective evaluation of the teacher-in-training instead of the current subjective method of assessment prevailing.
4. It will discard global statements that are of little or no value to the teacher-in-training and replace them with very discrete statements that the trainee can lay his hands on for future use.
5. It will provide insight into classroom teaching analysis for the improvement of classroom practical teaching by throwing light on the communicative behaviour of teachers in the English language classroom.

This research is designed as an exploratory study with the hope that it could be further pursued in scope and depth.

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, this is the first time that the concept of clinical supervision is being blended with the instrument (FOCUS). It is therefore hoped that the findings will in some way improve the practical training of teachers. It is equally hoped that it would prompt further research in the area of classroom communication.

1.7 THE SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study was limited to B.Ed (Language Arts) student-teachers of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria who were directly under the supervision of the researcher and therefore readily available. It was felt the use of in-service teachers would be a challenge, since the great bulk of pioneering work in microteaching had been done in pre-service courses (see Gage, 1978).

In all, four lessons of ten minutes each were observed for each of the thirty student-teachers in a microteaching session. The result from the background study[1] had shown that two lessons for each student-teacher could adequately reveal teaching patterns. All observations were done by the researcher. These yielded one hundred and twenty (120) lessons in all. Subjects were observed teaching two lessons at the pre-treatment stage and two lessons each at the post-treatment stage.

The researcher did not attempt to examine all aspects of classroom behaviour since this would be an impossible effort. The emphasis, therefore, was on verbal and non-verbal communication as elicited by teachers and students under the six major elements discussed earlier (see section 1.2).

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1. See section 3.1 for details of the background study.

1.8 DEFINITION OF TERMS USED IN THE STUDY

The following are the definitions of terms used in this study.

1. B.Ed. (Language Arts): Bachelor of Education degree in Language Arts, largely English as Second Language teaching. The normal duration of the course is two years after N.C.E.

2. Classroom Interaction Analysis: Any technique for studying the chain of classroom behaviour or events in such a way that each event or behaviour is taken into account in the evaluation process.

3. Clinical Supervision: This kind of supervision focuses upon the improvement of instruction by means of systematic cycle of planning, observing, and intensive analysis of teaching performances. It includes the teacher as an active participant in the supervisory process.

4. Communication: This is the process by which senders and receivers of messages interact in a given social context.

5. Effective teaching: The ability to bring about positive learning in learners,

6. ESL: An abbreviation for English as a Second Language. This refers to a situation where English is not a native language but serves the function of an official language as in Nigeria.

7. Flint: An abbreviation for Foreign Language Interaction - a term coined by Moskowitz (1976) for her observation instrument.

8. FOCUS: An abbreviation for Foci for Observing Communications Used in Settings. This instrument was developed by John Fanselow of Teachers College, Columbia, New York (1977). Terms related to the instrument are as follows:

8.1 Move: This is any verbal or non-verbal activity which the teacher or students execute during a lesson.

8.2 Source and target of communication: These refer to who or what is communicating to whom.

8.3 Purpose: This includes reasons for communication, e.g. structuring, soliciting, responding and reacting.

8.4 Response: This is any move made by the teacher or students, which does not fit into either structuring or soliciting moves.

8.5 Soliciting: This includes asking questions, giving commands or requesting either action or any other types of responses, verbal or non-verbal.

8.6 Structuring: These are communications that set the stage for subsequent communications or review of what has occurred but do not require any responses! Both soliciting and structuring moves are initiatory moves.

8.7 Mediums: These are used to communicate content. The medium may be linguistic (spoken words), non-linguistic (e.g. pictures and sketch), or paralinguistic (e.g. gestures and movement). Mediums can also be aural (what we can hear), visual (what we can see), etc.

8.8 Use: This means how the mediums (linguistic, non-linguistic etc) are used to communicate content.

8.9 Attend: This is when mediums are merely taking in communication made in any medium, e.g. listening, looking, tasting, silent reading, touching, etc.

8.10 Present: This is when speech, print, pictures or

other mediums are used to present content itself directly. Present may elicit, query, state, etc.

8.11 Elicit: This is communicating questions, commands, or requests.

8.12 Query: Communicating questions one does not know the answers to.

8.13 State: Communicating declarative sentences, responding to questions with word or phrases.

8.14 Relate: This is when a communication gives an explanation or makes inferences, communicating in such a way that higher mental processes are required. This includes explaining and interpreting.

8.15 Explain: Give long definition of words or concepts, making generalizations or developing and stating rules.

8.16 Interprete: Making inferences, synthesizing.

8.17 Represent: This is when communications are used to re-present communications another has made in the same medium with or without changes. Represent includes expanding, imitating, paraphrasing, transforming.

8.18 Expand: This is adding words, phrases or units to phrases or sentences provided by another.

8.19 Imitate: This is copying, repeating or in any way representing what another has presented with no changes.

8.20 Transform: This means changing the order of letters, words or larger units.

8.21 Characterize: This is when the mediums communicate about content or things to distinguish them or set criteria or limit choices. When speech, print, pictures or other mediums are used to comment on content. Characterize includes - differentiate, evaluate, examine, illustrate and label.

8.22 Examine: This is counting or locating parts or words, emphasizing, etc.

8.23 Differentiate: This is indicating that communications are the same or different.

8.24 Evaluate: This means prescribing or indicating that communications are true or false, correct or incorrect, responding to yes/no or either/or questions.

8.25 Illustrate: Giving attributes of items, making

judgements that are not explicitly good or bad.

8.25 Label: This is naming parts of speech or assigning category names to any groups.

8.27 Setting: This is communication that is used to correct error. It is also communicating models, examples, texts or anything that is referred to by words such as that, this, one, it or those.

8.28 Content: This means the content communicated by the mediums. The areas of content communicated may be language, life, procedure or study.

8.29 Language: This includes grammar, meaning, mechanics of writing like punctuation, spelling, speech production, etc.

8.30 Life: This includes formulas of greeting, personal feelings or information, general knowledge and social issues.

8.31 Procedures: This includes matters of administration, roll call, checking questions, repeating with rising intonation, classroom social behaviour, discipline, teaching directions, setting tasks, communicating instructional information, etc.

8.32 Study: This means communicating topics of instruction, whether language or other academic subjects like history, social studies, mathematics, etc.

9. In-Service Teachers: These are teachers who hold professional certificate in TESL, but are seeking higher certificate in TESL while still practising in the field. They are teachers as well as students.

10. Micro-teaching: It is a scaled-down teaching encounter in terms of teacher's task, length of lesson and the size of class. This 'scaling down' is the main feature of micro-teaching adopted in this study.

11. NCE: This stands for the Nigeria Certificate in Education normally awarded by Colleges of Education or Advanced Teachers' Colleges after three years of successful post secondary school and teacher training.

12. Observation Technique: A procedure used to observe teaching.

13. Teacher Education: This is another term used for Teacher Training in a formal institution. In this study, the term is used to refer to

a two year degree course for teachers at the University level.

14. TESL: An abbreviation for Teachers of English as a Second Language.

15. Traditional Supervision: This is the method where supervision is equated with inspection largely because of exigencies of the situation as identified by Reed (referred to earlier). Also evaluation is based on value judgement.

1.9 ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

T	Stands for	Teacher	
S	"	"	student
C	"	"	class
SS	"	"	group of students
V	"	"	visitor
la	"	"	linguistic aural
na or nla	"	"	non-linguistic aural
lv	"	"	Linguistic visual
nv or nlv	"	"	non-linguistic visual
pa/pla	"	"	paralinguistic aural
pv/plv	"	"	paralinguistic visual
str	"	"	structuring
sol	"	"	soliciting
res	"	"	responding

rea	Stands	for	reacting
char	"	"	characterize
diff	"	"	differentiate
eval	"	"	evaluate
pres	"	"	present
rel	"	"	relate
expl	"	"	explain
interp	"	"	interprete
rep	"	"	represent
exp	"	"	expand
imit	"	"	imitate
paraph	"	"	paraphrase
subst	"	"	substitute
person	"	"	personal
proced	"	"	procedure
illus	"	"	illustrate
L_2	"	"	Second Language
LVT	"	"	Long Vacation Training

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the literature on classroom interaction in English teaching, especially as it relates to the topic of this study. Since the objective of this study is to find ways for the understanding of classroom teaching and learning through communication analysis, it therefore intends examining discussions on human communication and some of the observation techniques in use in English language teaching. By so doing, a better understanding of why studies earlier conducted in classroom observation of the teaching of English (Behmer, 1965; Gale, 1968; Barbig, 1969) seemed to have had little effect on classroom practices (Blount, 1973) may surface.

The emphasis of the review therefore will be on the following sub-sections:

1. Human Communication: A Brief Discussion;
2. General Interaction Matters;
3. Interaction in English Language Teaching;
4. Methodologies in use in English Language Researches;
5. FOCUS - the specific instrument used in the study;
6. Summary of the Review.

2.1 HUMAN COMMUNICATION: A BRIEF DISCUSSION

During the last two decades, the out-pouring of scientific research on human communication has increased at a staggering rate (Sereno and Mortensen, 1970). This burst of research activity is due to the ever-widening usage of the term "communication" and to a declaration of vested interest in communication research by numerous scientific discipline. Yet, the field has not established any sharply-defined boundaries or domains (Sereno and Mortensen, 1970). In addition, there is still no neat comprehensive definition of communication, but it can be defined in many different ways according to the stand-point of the person using the term. Thus, the definitions of communication fall into two broad categories. In one category are those definitions which limit the process of communication to those stimulus-response situations in which one deliberately transmits stimuli to evoke response. In the other category are those definitions that include within the area of communication stimulus-response situations in which there need not be any intention of evoking response in the transmission of the stimuli. This second category obviously overlaps the first. In this study, the focus is sharply on the first category because what takes place in the classroom is "talk" that is deliberately evoked.

The analysis of language and conversations in the classroom can provide us with both a perspective and some evidence for solutions to problems of schools and children. Furthermore, for a detailed understanding of classroom behaviour, it is necessary to explore further the relationships between words, vocal and kinestic systems, and the interpretive procedures of participants.

According to Sacks and Schegloff (1975), conversations of all kinds are characterized by the following:

(a) Adjacency pairs such as question-answer, greeting-greeting, request-acknowledgement, where a first utterance creates a necessary condition for the second; and

(b) that such intersentential ties constitute an important resource for conversational management.

This review thus sees communication from the interaction standpoint that, no single aspect of communication can be meaningfully understood apart from the other constituents of behaviour; moreover, changes in one aspect of the process may result in modification of the other workings of communication such as the responses of sender and receiver alike.

2.1.1 THE SINCLAIR AND COULTHARD SYSTEM

The Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) system is a work in human communication that they referred to as 'discourse analysis'. This system proposes that the structure of discourse in the classroom arises from sequential constraints on selection such that one type of act is likely to follow or be followed by others of specific types. That is, verbal interaction among teachers and students is seen as following implicit rules of behaviour. This system specifies the role of both grammatical forms and content in the functioning of those classroom moves. However, it is limited for the use of this study because its area of emphasis is on 'linguistics', i.e. what the authors termed 'linguistic framework'. Since the focus of this study is on 'pedagogy', a more amenable tool - FOCUS was selected for use (see section 2.5).

2.2 GENERAL INTERACTION MATTERS

Since the late 1940s, there has been a growing interest in studies of interaction inside the classroom (Gorman, 1974). The earliest systematic observations were designed for gaining information about child development, but today, direct observation has been recognized as an important tool for the understanding of classroom life (Medley and Mitzel, 1963).

There are many instruments today for the observation of classroom behaviour. Thus, Simon and Boyer (1967, 1970) have detailed ninety-two different instruments in their Mirrors for Behaviour in which four classifications of purposes appeared to have emerged from the various systems recorded. These are:

1. to describe current classroom practice;
2. to train teachers;
3. to monitor instructional systems;
4. to investigate relationships between classroom activities and student growth

(Rosenshine and Furst, 1973:147)

Most of the instruments, especially that of Flanders (FIAC) (1970), have been used extensively for all the four purposes. At least thirty-seven of the systems in the Mirrors appear to fall in the first classification as proponents insist that their purpose is to describe, or observe classroom settings. In addition, at least ten category systems also in the Mirrors appear to have been

developed primarily for teacher training. According to Rosenshine and Furst (1973), the instruments have been used in one or more of the following three ways for training purposes:

1. to provide a teacher with a feedback on his behaviour;
2. to give a teacher a set of procedures by which to categorize instructional activities and
3. to provide a teacher with behaviours and activities which he can model during instruction.

Other researchers (Amidon and Amidon, 1968; Young, 1968; McEwan, 1976; Fanselow, 1977) have also attempted to develop systems which teachers could use to observe their behaviours without depending on outside observers. The reason for the emergence of this group of researchers is connected with the criticism of invasion of teachers privacy often levelled against other observation instruments.

Also, it has been observed that observations are expensive in terms of time, money and professional skills of observers (Stubbs and Delamont, 1976; Shuaibu, 1979). In addition, others (Mackey, 1977; Lado, 1971) see classroom research as doomed to inconclusive results because of the many factors involved and the near impossibility of controlling all of them. Thus, Medley and Mitzel (1963) admitted that observation data are

difficult to obtain but they dismissed it as a poor excuse for omitting observations from a study in which it can play an important part. They are convinced that teachers and administrators will cooperate once they are convinced that a study is well planned and capable of contributing important knowledge. In addition, they believe that knowledge of how teachers and pupils behave under investigation seems better than ignorance about how teachers and pupils behave. This possibly accounts for the upsurge in direct classroom observation.

2.2.1 Flanders Interaction Analysis

The best known technique of classroom observation is the Flanders Interaction Analysis System (Simon and Boyer, 1970). This observation method is primarily of interest because it has been extensively adapted and used in English language classrooms (Jarvis, 1968; Wragg, 1970; Galloway, 1970; Moskowitz, 1976).

Flanders' Interaction Analysis System (FIAC), is an instrument designed to determine the climate of a classroom, for example, the varying amounts of teacher and student talk and the directness or indirectness of a teacher's influence in the classroom.

In his instrument, Flanders grouped teacher behaviour into two major categories with ten sub-elements identified as having "indirect influence" (teacher talk which is

responsive to student feelings and ideas) and as having "direct influence" (teacher talk identified as controlling and restricting). In their view of research in education, Dunkin and Biddle (1974) voiced two major criticisms of FIAC that influenced the selection of instrument in this study. First, they claimed that the instrument presents a difficulty of distinguishing between verbal and non-verbal messages and secondly, they questioned the ability to perceive the teacher's intent that the instrument calls for. Actual use of the instrument in the live situations it was devised for calls for inference on the part of the observer and directions for its use instruct observers to base their inferences on the teacher's intent as interpreted by students' reactions. Also, Simon and Boyer (1974) have noted the shortcomings of this instrument as raised by Dunkin and Biddle (1974).

2.3 INTERACTION IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

Many of the studies in English Language teaching interaction rely heavily on the borrowing of instruments used in general education (Galloway, 1970; Moskowitz, 1976). However, such borrowings are fraught with problems. For as Long (1980) notes,

> It is generally recognized that second language instruction is distinguished from content subject instruction in many ways. Examples include such characteristics as the provision of feedback on the formal

> correctness rather than the truth value of speech, and the relatively insignificant amount of information exchanged, that is, genuine communication in the target language. (p.19)

It is in this light that we shall examine some of the studies done in English language teaching interaction using general education instruments as bases.

Politzer's study of successful foreign language teachers and Moskowitz' description of outstanding teachers are the most prominent works concerned with second language classroom observation (Hines, 1983). Moskowitz' work, in particular, is directly related to the selection of instrument in this study. We shall therefore, examine her work in detail.

2.3.1 Moskowitz' FLINT

An adaptation of Flanders' instrument, used to look at teachers in foreign language classes, which is of interest to this study, is FLINT (Foreign Language Interaction). It is of interest because since it is based on Flanders, it relates research in English as a Second Language to work in classroom observation in general education. It is primarily of interest because it deals with classroom climate.

To adapt Flanders' work to foreign language situations, Moskowitz extended the ten FIAC categories to twenty-two in order to let observers code, among other things,

whether the teacher's message was in the first or target language. The two problems with FIAC mentioned earlier are by extension inherent to FLINT, criticism Bailey in her review of FLINT adds to, concluding that both systems are deficient in accuracy, reliability and practicability (Bailey, 1975:337). As with FIAC, for instance, FLINT categories are not mutually exclusive, and the instrument has catch-all categories such as silence (a category which includes student-to-student interaction).

While Moskowitz intended to use FLINT in teacher training in a non-threatening way (Moskowitz, 1976:136), the language in the instrument, for example, "the teacher praises, encourages; the teacher criticizes", is considered by Bailey (1975) to be judgemental. Bailey also notes that even when instruments such as FLINT are described by other authors as not having an agenda, there is an overt judgement about what constitutes good teaching in them if they are used to encourage teachers to change. Bailey's comment concerns the use of instruments such as FLINT in the supervision and training of teachers.

There are other difficulties with FLINT and FIAC. With both instruments, categories of teacher behaviour are open to multiple interpretations. Moreover, both have many categories which call for rapid decisions about frequently changing behaviour and call for verifying the passage of time in the very course of recording data.

Bailey notes that the matter is further complicated by the fact that observers are instructed to classify certain teacher statements as criticisms if they feel the student will probably perceive them in this way. She remarks that it is "presumptuous that an observer can objectively decide what a student does or does not perceive" (Bailey, 1975:339).

For these reasons, primarily because FLINT is cumbersome to use and fails to make distinctions not only between categories but even within one category fails to distinguish between verbal and non-verbal messages, the value of another instrument not ordinarily used in classroom studies was recognized and then employed in this study.

2.3.2 Some Related Studies Done in Nigeria

We shall now examine some of the studies that have been done in Nigeria in classroom observation as they are related to the present study.

Okunrotifa's (1973) study is an investigation into the teaching of specific English skills in some post-primary schools in Zaria. The techniques used for data collection included classroom observation of teachers and students as well as oral interview. Her findings led her to conclude that too many students (about 41%) showed negative attitudes toward the learning of English. More importantly

she found that not every teacher who taught English in the selected schools had the inclination nor the training for the teaching of English. Twelve per cent indicated they would rather teach other subjects.

The apparent shortcoming of this study is that it does not present a coherent account of communication in the classroom from observed data. Moreover, the observational instrument used - FIAC - has been shown earlier as defective.

Kitchener (1973) sought to discover the methods that underlined the teaching of oral English in the primary schools and causes of fallen standards. The techniques for data collection were basically the same as Okunrotifa's and her findings were basically the same.

Ohaegbulem, in 1980 concluded a special study of the problems of teaching English as a second language in some selected post-primary schools in Imo State for his M.Ed. dissertation. He collected his data through the use of direct classroom observation techniques and questionnaires as well as oral interview. His findings were like those of earlier studies. However, it is a more detailed study in terms of scope and depth, especially in the number of lessons observed. But the reliability of this type of study should be taken with some reservations since there is no proof from the report of the study, that teachers' interaction levels were the

same or different for all the lessons and with what group of students? If differences were noticed, they were not reported. What could have been responsible for this? Yet, the result of the study is loaded with the attitudinal behaviour of teachers and students.

Other researchers like (Onyewotu, 1983; Ikoye-Ikonta, 1983) have done studies in the area of classroom observation involving the use of English in the Social studies and Geography classrooms respectively. Since our emphasis in this study is the English as a second language classroom, we shall not dwell much on the studies. However, their use of FOCUS - an instrument of relevance in this study, is worth noting.

Both studies employed FOCUS for the analysis of observed classroom communication. They both found that the teacher was the highest source of classroom talk. Also, they both concluded that FOCUS served an adequate purpose of showing the nature of classroom communication especially, the move types i.e. source and target of communication.

2.4 METHODOLOGIES IN USE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE RESEARCHES

According to Blount (1973), studies in English language teaching, seemed to have had little effect on classroom practices. We shall now examine some of these

studies to see if we may better understand the nature of their failures.

The 1960s witnessed a lot of technological and methodological innovations in classroom language teaching and attempts by researchers to conduct large scale methodological comparisons (Keating, 1963; Scherer and Wertheimer, 1964; Smith, 1970). The Pennsylvania study of 1968 and the Colorado study of 1966 which compared the then pervasive audiolingual approach to foreign language instruction with traditional grammar - translation and cognitive approaches respectively, are two of the best known studies (Hines, 1983).

The result of these studies were considered inconclusive because, according to Carroll, many variables were not taken into consideration. There was no control in either study, for instance, for strategies students might be using on their own in addition to what they were experiencing in formal instruction (Carroll, 1976). Carroll noted another limitation that the two studies had: the teachers involved were not necessarily pure practitioners of either of the methodologies being studied and it was difficult to conclude whether it was the methodology, the teacher or independent student study which accounted for differences in student achievement which was the criterion in both widescale studies.

Another study is that of Politzer and Weiss (1972) which studied the characteristics of successful foreign language teacher and concluded that a use of varied classroom techniques and a proficiency in the language being taught seemed to affect student achievement. Achievement again was the criterion, and as with the Pennsylvania and Colorado studies, the subjects of Politzer and Weiss' work were foreign language teachers of American high school students.

In 1976, Moskowitz examined interaction in foreign language classes and the primary purpose of her research was to look at outstanding teachers, "to determine specific variables which (they) use as they interact with their classes" (Moskowitz, 1976:142). The outstanding teachers were identified by means of a survey of students which asked them if they could remember an outstanding high school teacher of a foreign language. The teachers thus identified were then asked to participate in a study and to give observers permission to view their classes. "Typical" teachers were also identified by survey and the characteristics of these two groups of teachers were compared. The criterion in Moskowitz' study was not students learning but students attitudes and likes and dislikes of teacher behaviour. The study then identified some thirty-five behaviours differentiating

"outstanding" from "typical" teachers.

None of the methodologies or instruments used in these earlier studies was found adequate for the present study, which is concerned with describing teacher-student language bahaviour. However, an instrument from a different tradition - FOCUS - and clinical supervisory method were found to be capable of providing the necessary information about teacher-student classroom language behaviour. We shall be examining the instrument - FOCUS in the section that follows.

2.5 FOCUS

2.5.1 The Background - Bellack's Language of the Classroom

Bellack's Language of the Classroom is in the background of this study because the move he established as the unit of analysis, used reliably in so many other studies (Hoetker and Ahlbrand, 1969 and Lobman, 1979, among others) was used by Fanselow as the unit of analysis for FOCUS, the instrument he developed for use in second language classes. FOCUS is the main instrument selected for use in this study.

In 1966 Bellack and his associates studied the language of the classroom by examining the discourse of social science students and their teachers in high school. Using the metaphor of language as a game,

Bellack and his associates analyzed oral communications in the classroom observed and identified the role of the players in this game and the rules governing their play. They identified four basic pedagogical moves: structuring, soliciting, responding and reacting. "Structuring moves serve the pedagogical function of setting the context for subsequent behaviour" (Bellack, 1963:6). For example, "OK. Well, what we're going to do today is we're going to talk about the things that are in this bag." Soliciting moves are designed to elicit a verbal response, encourage persons addressed to attend to something, or elicit a physical response" (p.6). For example, "The green one", in response to the solicit, "Which book would you rather have, the blue one or the green one?" "Reacting moves are occasioned by a structuring, soliciting, responding or another reacting move, but they are not directly elicited by them" (p.7). Reacting moves are those that modify or expand what has been said previously, and those that rate a previous move. For example, a teacher's words, "Good. That is fine", following a correct student response is identified as a reacting move.

Having established the moves, Bellack and his associates recognised the rules of the classroom: the teacher does the structuring and soliciting and reacting, leaving the role of responding to the students.

Besides being the source of the unit of analysis in this study, Bellack's results are also of interest, for whether the distribution of teacher and student talk is the same in second language classrooms where the content is also the vehicle of instruction is worth examining. The rules of the classroom are of interest also since authorities in the field of English as a second language state that students should be doing most of the talking (West, 1956; Wright, 1972).

2.5.2 FOCUS: The Specific Instrument for the Study

FOCUS, Foci for Observing Communications Used in Settings, developed by Fanselow (1975), is an instrument designed to describe data for either classroom research, teacher training, or self-analysis of one's teaching. It is a category system which notes five characteristics of communication: source and target, move, medium, use, and content. It was selected for use in this study because it is specific and not based on established approaches to teaching. The instrument also provides a framework in which to study the communicative behaviours of teachers under study for the understanding of classroom communication patterns.

2.5.2.1 Definition and Examples of FOCUS Categories

The following is a general description of the five characteristics of communication FOCUS describes:

1. The source and target of each communication; for example: the teacher, the individual student, the entire class;
2. The move or pedagogical purpose of the communication, after Bellack; for example: to structure, solicit, respond or react;
3. The medium in which the message is communicated; for example: speech, gesture, pictures, realia;
4. The use or the way in which the medium is used to communicate content; for example: to attend, characterize, relate or produce;
5. The content area communicated; for example: life procedure, study language or study other (this last allowing an observer to substitute a particular subject matter that he is interested in).

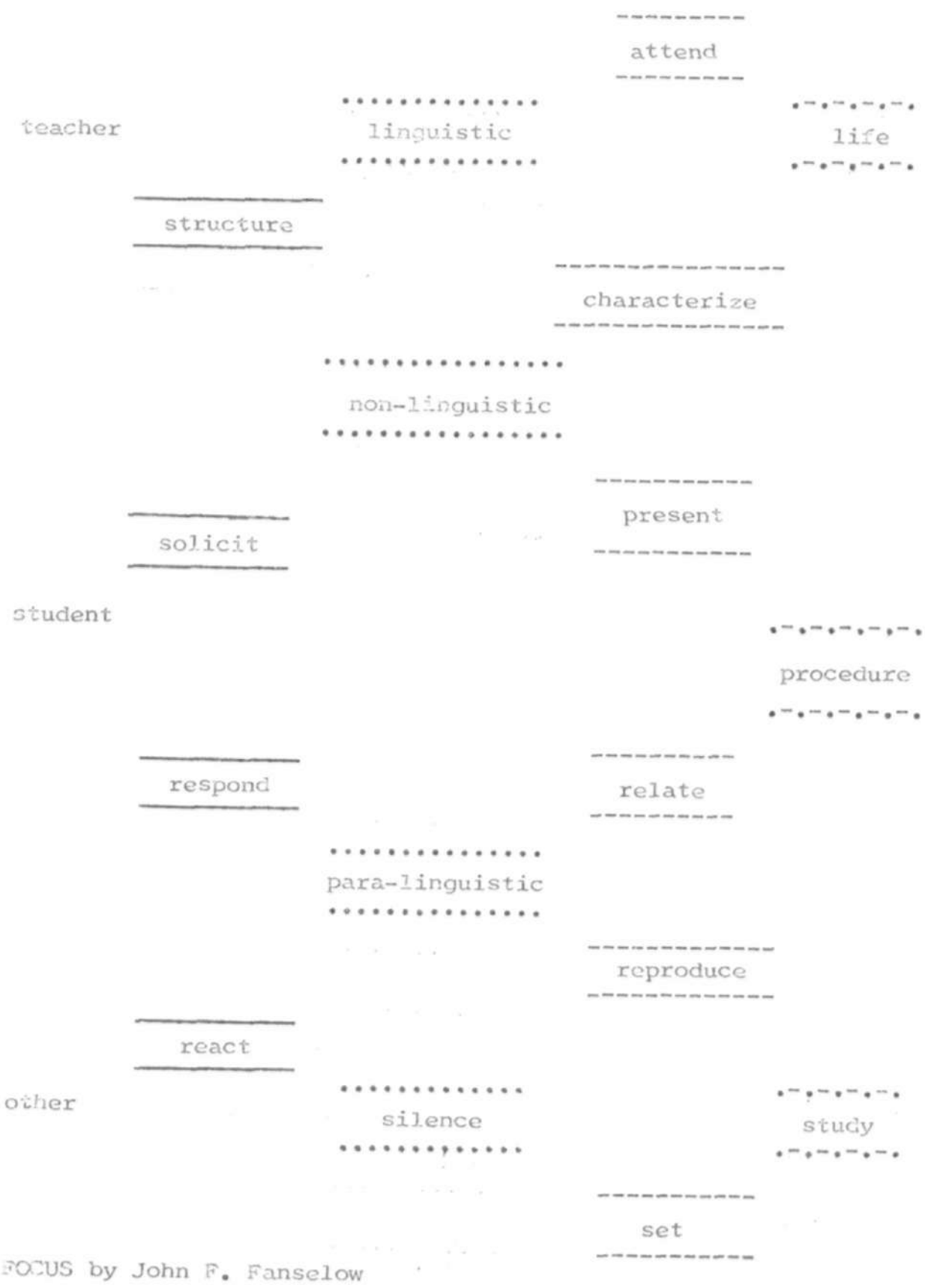
Figure 1 presents an overview of these five categories while Figure 2 presents details of the five general characteristics.

2.5.2.1.1 <u>The Source and Target of Communication</u>

Use of FOCUS calls for identifying the source or sender and the target or recipient of the communication. The categories include the teacher, an individual student, a group of students, and the entire class.

Figure 1

OVERVIEW OF FOCUS



FOCUS by John F. Fanselow

Figure 2

FOCUS: Five Characteristics of Communications

1. Who/what communicates with whom?	2. What is the pedagogical purpose of the communication?*	3. What mediums are used to communicate contents?	4. How are the mediums used to communicate area of content?	5. What areas of content are communicated?
[illegible]	to structure	linguistic	attend	life
		aural	characterize	formula
		visual	differentiate	personal:feel/inf
		transcribed	evaluate	public: feel/info
		written	examine	procedure
	to solicit	other	illustrate	administration
			label	check
dividual udent		non-linguistic	present	class beh: lang/so
		aural	translate	difficulty factor
		visual	oral reading	nurturing
		real	change medium	salute
		representational	question/command	teaching direction
		schematic	state	teaching rationale
		other	reference	time
	to respond		relate	transition
				subject matter

Figure 2 Cont'd

1. Who/what communicates with whom?	2. What is the pedagogical purpose of the communication?*	3. What mediums are used to communicate content?	4. How are the mediums used to communicate areas of content?	5. What areas of content are communicated?
			explain	language systems
			interpret	contextual
group of students		para-linguistic	re-produce	cultural
		aural	combine	grammatical
		visual	edit	literary
		other	imitate	meaning:lit/non
		to react	paraphrase	mechanical
class			sub and change	rhetorical
			sub no change	sound:seq/sl/s s
			transform	speech productio
				style
				unclassified
				other
				academic areas
				skills:hob/stu/s
other informant		silence		unspecified
				use

*after Bellack

FOCUS by John F. Fanselow

2.5.2.1.2 The Move or Pedagogical Purpose of Communication[1]

The second characteristic of communication to be identified is the move or pedagogical purpose of the communication. There are four possible move types which can be made by any source.

Structuring. Structuring (STR) moves serve the function of setting the context for subsequent behaviour by launching or halting interaction between pupils and teachers and by indicating the nature of the interaction. For example, teachers frequently begin a class period with a structuring move in which they focus attention on the topic or problem to be discussed during that session.

Examples:

T(STR) Our topic for discussion this afternoon is "the verb" (writes the topic on the blackboard)

(SUBJECT 25, LESSON ONE)

T(STR) In our last lesson, we learnt about nouns, now we are going to learn about adjectives. You all know the function of a noun in a sentence, we are today going to look at the function of an adjective in a sentence.

(SUBJECT 13, LESSON TWO)

T(STR) Now if you look at these sentences, in each of them the verb 'go', in sentence one, is an

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1. Definitions of Moves follow those of Bellack earlier discussed, pp.13-14. The examples given are from lessons observed in this study.

infinitive. In each of the sentences all the verbs (marked) are infinitives - like 'go' in sentence one, is an infinitive. 'Come' in sentence two is an infinitive. Sentence three - to run is to die-run - in sentence three is an infinitive.

(SUBJECT 11, LESSON ONE)

Solicits and Responses. Soliciting (SOL) moves are designed to elicit a verbal response, encourage persons addressed to attend to something, or elicit a physical response. Questions are solicitations, as are commands, imperatives and requests. Responding (RES) moves bear reciprocal relationship to soliciting moves and occur only in relation to them. Their pedagogical function is to fulfill the expectation of soliciting moves. Thus students' answers to teachers' questions are classified as responding moves.

Examples:

T(SOL) I will like some of you to give me some words which are singular.. Kate (she points to a student).

S(RES) Chair.

(SUBJECT 14, LESSON ONE)

T(SOL) Read your own (sentence) to the class. Then mention the noun.

S(RES) "This is a school". The noun there is "school".

T(SOL) Countable or uncountable?

S(RES) It is a countable noun.

(SUBJECT 20, LESSON ONE)

T(SOL) Come up, Balogun.

S(RES) (Moves up to the teacher in front of the class).

T(SOL) Balogun stand behind me and face me.

S(RES) (Does as the teacher requests).

T(SOL) Are you watching me? Where is he? (Points to a student).

S(RES) He is standing behind the teacher.

(SUBJECT 4, LESSON ONE)

Reacting (REA Moves. Reacting moves are occasioned by a structuring, soliciting responding or another reacting move, but they are not directly elicited by them. Pedagogically, these moves serve to modify (by clarifying, synthesizing or expanding) and/or to note (positively or negatively) what has been said previously. Reacting moves differ from responding moves in that while a responding move is always directly elicited by a solicitation, preceding moves serve only as the occasion for reactions. Rating by a teacher of a student's progress, for example, is designated by a reaction move.

Examples:

T(SOL) Now, has the action of the girl passed to any other thing?

C(RES) No.

T(REA) No, so, you have only told us what the subject did but the action ends with the subject, you have no object.

(SUBJECT 21, LESSON ONE)

T(SOL) John, can you give a sentence with the word "beautiful"?

S(RES) I have a beautiful sister.

T(REA) Writes on the board and repeats the sentence - I have a beautiful sister. That is very good - "beautiful" is describing the word sister.

(SUBJECT 17, LESSON ONE)

T(SOL) What do we replace Mary with if we don't want repetition?

S(RES) Pronoun.

T(REA) Fine.

T(SOL) What pronoun do we use?

S(RES) We use 'she'.

T(REA) Good.

T(SOL) Then what will the sentence look like? Kapenso can you tell us?

S(RES) She did not come to school.

T(REA) Is that so? Yes? (Teacher solicits again).

S(RES) Though Mary did not come to school, she passed the examination.

T(REA) Good, that's good. Though Mary did not come to school (silence as teacher writes on blackboard).

(SUBJECT 23, LESSON ONE).

The third classification of communication FOCUS lists are the mediums a person uses to communicate content. The feature is of special interest to an observer of second language classroom because its column is a display of all the ways a message may be communicated. As Figure 1 indicates, these mediums are divided into four major categories: Linguistic, Non-Linguistic, Para-linguistic and Silence. Each category, in turn, is sub-divided according to its appeal to either of the two senses, ear (aural) or the eye (visual), and then to "other" senses.

2.5.2.1.3 The Mediums

Linguistic Aural (la). Linguistic Aural, for instance, is used to categorize spoken words. If printed words are used by a source, they are coded Linguistic Visual (lv). Objects, pictures, graphs, charts fall into the category of Non-Linguistic Visual (nlv). If a Non-Linguistic

medium, music or noise, for example, appeals to the ear, it is identified as Non-Linguistic Aural (nla). In FOCUS, body language, tone of voice, gestures are classified as Para-linguistic. Para-linguistic is further divided into para-linguistic aural (pla) tone of voice and Para-linguistic Visual (plv) gestures. The fourth category used to indicate the absence of the others, is classified as Silence (Fanselow, 1977).

Examples:

T(STR) Last week we discussed verbs and how they function. (linguistic aural) (la).

T(STR) I shall see how far you have known verbs and how you can discuss with them. (linguistic aural) (la).

T(STR) There is a beautiful picture there (para-linguistic viaual/Non-Linguistic visual (PLV/NLV).

T(SOL) Are you seeing the picture? (linguistic aural/ para-linguistic aural) (la/pla).

The mediums column, then, is a detailed listing of aspects of verbal or non-verbal messages, or in FOCUS terms, in order to make further distinctions, linguistic, non-linguistic, para-linguistic messages. Directions for its use call for noting when combinations of one or more mediums are used and allow for features to be

added to any one by an observer, so that if any observer wanted to note whether a communication was in the first or target language, or whether it was loud or soft, would simply add a sign to designate the feature of interest. Using the medium column in conjunction with other characteristics of communication being studied enables an observer of classroom interaction to present a graphic picture of communication. Figure 3 is Fanselow's classification of mediums with examples.

2.5.2.1.4 The Use of Communications (or the Tasks Set or Performed)

The fourth characteristic of communication noted with FOCUS are the uses, or the tasks set or performed. These uses or tasks are identified by how the mediums are used. The first major distinction between the different uses of mediums noted by Fanselow (1977) is whether the mediums are taken in or produced. For example, in silent reading, tasting, touching, smelling and looking at pictures, mediums are simply attended to, not produced. The communications that fall into this category are tagged attended. The next category is in the productive group and is tagged - characterize. Talking about the characteristics of things, making a generalization about a thing and describing a thing, all fall into the category of characterize. Imitation, representation of a statement and the presentation of

Figure 3

FOCUS: Classifications of Mediums with Examples

LINGUISTIC

aural

1. Elements of words: letters, phonemes, syllables
2. Individual words: names of objects, commands, comments, examples
3. Vocalizations: OK, hum, uh, and other pauses, markers and fillers
4. Words in groups: phrase, sentences, paragraphs, dialogues

Visual

1. Printing or lettering of aural mediums 1-4 above, plus punctuation
2. Transcribing (phonetically) or aural mediums 1-4 above
3. Writing of aural mediums 1-4 above, plus punctuation
4. Ideograms; characters --

NONLING

visual

1. Real: clothing, darkness, food, furniture, light, live things, objects, people, rods, rooms, speech organs, things with moving parts or electric power
2. Representational: cartoons, pictures, silent movies, sketches, snapshots, television without the sound
3. Schematic: blank spaces, diagrams, erasing, globe, layout, map, underscoring, intonation contours

PARALING

aural — Laughing, tone of voice, volume of voice, whimpering
Supra-segmentals: emphasis on a word; rising intonation in a statement

visual — Gestures, movement of the body

Became part of considerations for Transactional Analysis Characteristics

SILENCE

1. Implicit communications -- students know they are to repeat when a model is given
2. Start -- stopping in mid-sentence expecting another to finish sentence
3. Wait time -- doing nothing but waiting before or after others have communicated
4. What is in our head -- what we bring to the other mediums from experience (size, electronic, mechanical, distorted, natural, authentic,etc.)

FOCUS by John F. Fanselow

Figure 4

FOCUS: Areas of Content

life	
FORMULAS	Good morning. So long. Hello. Please. Uh hun.
PERSONAL	I'm sick. I'm a dentist and have two sisters. I hate rice.
	(factual or fictional -- feelings or information)
PUBLIC	Truman took long walks. Rent control is bad. DeGaulle was tall.
	(factual or finctional -- feelings or information)
procedure	
ADMINISTRATION	Answer the roll. We're going to have a test. Rules for a game.
CHECK	Do you understand? I don't follow. It's not clear.
CLASS BEHAVIOR:	
LANGUAGE	Say it louder. I can't see the board. Can you hear this?
SOCIAL	You are making too much noise. Don't throw paper on the floor! No smoking.
DIFFICULTY FACTOR	This is easy. The next exercises are really difficult.
SALUTE	Ali . . . Maria . . . (Calling the names of students, groups, friends)
TEACHING DIRECTION	Repeat. Define this word. Take a dictation. Do the exercises.
TEACHING RATIONALE	We are doing this exercise because it will lead to clarification.
TRANSITION	OK, now . . . umm . . . very good . . . next.

Figure 4 (Continued)

Study	
language	
FUNCTION WORDS	The, do, is -- words in any language that have mainly grammatical meaning.
INFLECTIONS	Word endings that signal grammatical meaning, reduce forms, etc.
LEXIS	
Literal	That's a book. Plants have leaves. Literal word meanings.
SOUND	
segmental	Consonants, consonant clusters, syllabification, vowel sounds, etc.
sound/letter	Correspondence between sounds and spelling.
supra-segmentals	Intonation, stress and rhythm and tone.
SPEECH PRODUCTION	Your tongue should be up. The voice box vibrates. Look at my lips. Lisp.
STYLE	That's florid. Use that word in polite places only. Slang, etc.
other	
ACADEMIC AREAS	School subjects other than language such as biology, history, etc.
SPECIAL AREAS	Arts, crafts, hobbies, music, sports, games, etc.
TEACHING	Study the teaching act.

FOCUS by John F. Fanselow.

a statement all come under this category. Thus in the fourth category, six sub-categories are recognised. They are attend, characterize, present, relate, reproduce, and set which deals with communications correction. Instructions for use of the instrument stress the advantage of relating items in any one of its given categories to the presence or absence of features in other columns. Figure 2 also shows FOCUS' classification of use.

2.5.2.1.5 The Content of Communications

The fifth major characteristic of communication identified in FOCUS is the content focused upon in the communication. The four major content categories are Life, Procedure, Study Language and Study Other. Figure 4 is FOCUS' classification of content with examples.

Expressing formulas such as greetings, reflections from the imagination; personal feelings or personal information; general knowledge such as well-known historical facts or references, prices of cars; issues such as inflation are all examples of communications that would be considered to have a content of Life (Fanselow, 1977:24).

Examples:

T(STR) Good evening students

S(RES) Good evening sir

(life)

(SUBJECT 4, LESSON 2)

T(STR) Good morning students

S(RES) Good morning sir

T(STR) My name is Enemuo. You are students of Demonstration Secondary School, A.B.U., Zaria.

(life). (SUBJECT 20, LESSON ONE)

Procedure is employed when mediums are used to communicate information in one of the sub-categories: administration, classroom social behaviour, language teaching procedures, teaching and learning rationales. The calling of the role, disciplining of students, directions to manipulate language, explanations of the reasons particular exercises are being done are all examples of communications that would be classified as procedure (proc).

Examples:

T(SOL) Any other? (proc)

(SUBJECT 20, LESSON ONE)

T(REA) When I ask a question all you do is raise your hand and when I ask you, you answer.

(Pro) (SUBJECT 20, LESSON 2)

If some aspect of the target language is being communicated as an area of study, as information set apart and being studied, tested or practised, that aspect is coded Study Language.

Examples:

T(STR) Now let's think of names of objects one by one and ask for their names e.g. a book, a ball-pen and a purse.

(SUBJECT 13, LESSON 1) (Study Lang)

T(STR) Nouns are usually, I mean when you talk of objects e.g. a book, ball-pen, a purse, at first or of course we are talking of one.

(SUBJECT 13, LESSON 1) (Study)

T(SOL) I want someone to give me an example of a noun.

(SUBJECT 17, LESSON ONE (study lang)

School subjects other than language such as biology, history, arts, crafts, hobbies, music, sports, games; studying the teaching act are examples of FOCUS' fourth category of content, study other.

Together, the five characteristics of communication identified by FOCUS provide a means of noting the observable events, linguistic, non-linguistic, para-linguistic, in classrooms, and, according to its author, in other settings. However, it is FOCUS' use

as a tool for describing classroom events that is addressed here in this study.

2.5.2.1.6 FOCUS - An Appraisal

In throwing more light on his instrument, Fanselow (1982:1) contends that,

> the purpose of discussing lessons using a framework is to discover rules we follow, not to improve lessons.

We submit that this is an over-sight on the part of Fanselow. The concept that self-discovery is the first step towards self-improvement still holds true. It is the description of one's lesson that can lead to the discovery of strengths and weaknesses viz-a-viz the needs of the teacher and learners which ultimately culminates in improvement (Torbe, 1981). For us in this study therefore, the ultimate goal of using this framework is to pave the way for improvement through awareness, especially when it is used in the clinical supervisory circle.[1]

Hines (1983) in her critique of FOCUS observed that because of its large number of categories, FOCUS is difficult to use extensively in live observations. The data however, if put on videotapes and played

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1. See section 1.8 for the definition.

back, might remedy this shortcoming. On the positive side, the high number of categories when used results in a "low-inference" on the part of the observer. "Low-inference" in the language of classroom observation is used to describe items referring to "specific, local, overt behaviours, like student's response to teacher's question." "High inference" items are those which classify less specific, more global often convert phenomena, such as "student clarified." Items are "convert in the sense of not always being explicitly performed and/or taking place over two or more utterances" (Long, 1980:7). With its large number of categories and descriptions for use, as an instrument for describing data, FOCUS is specific (Hines, 1983). With its high number of operationally defined categories (99 subsumed under the five major categories), FOCUS is not based on established approaches to language teaching. The problems of the viewer seeing what he sets out to see - a limitation that Long (1980) discusses in his description of the twenty-six existing instruments used now in second language classroom research - is reduced.

Another problem with many classroom observation instruments, as Long (1980) points out, is the tendency for instruments to have catch-all categories such as "silence" or "confusion", a practice which leads to

not accounting for some classroom events. FOCUS has very few such categories. Silence itself is a category, "defined as the absence of the others, described simply as Time and called Silence" (Fanselow, 1977:24). A seemingly catch-all category is called "other" in the content column but the category specifically calls for the "other" to be named by the observer. That is, the word "other" is not used in its usual sense.

The advantages of FOCUS as a tool for communication analysis, makes it a relevant tool for this study.

2.6 CLINICAL SUPERVISORY CIRCLE

In order to provide a forum for the use of FOCUS for teacher classroom communication analysis feedback, clinical supervisory conference was selected for use in this study.

As a model of supervision, it contains three phases: Planning Conference, Classroom Observation, and Feedback Conference. The model can be shown graphically thus:



ACHESON AND GALL, 1980:10

Fig. 5:
Clinical Supervisory Circle.

The most distinctive features of clinical supervision are its emphasis on direct teacher-supervisor interaction. The three phases are discussed briefly below:

Planning Conference: This provides the trainee and the supervisor with an opportunity to identify trainee's concerns and translate them into observable behaviours. The planning conference is organized around an agenda which includes identifying procedures for improving the trainee's instruction, assisting the teacher in setting self-improvement goals and selecting an observation instrument and behaviours to be recorded. In this study, FOCUS was selected with its five categories as the instrument of observation and behaviour identification.

Classroom Observation: As pointed out above, FOCUS was the instrument of observation, for it was more amenable to the English Language classroom which was the focus of the present study.

Feedback Conference: Here, objective observation data are analyzed cooperatively with the trainees and an agreement is reached about what is happening in the classroom. The trainee's reactions to the data (inferences, opinions, feeling, etc.) are elicited.

Together, teacher and trainee reach decisions about alternative teaching strategies, different objectives for students, or modification of the trainee's self-improvement goals. The feedback conference in this study, was used to set the stage for another planning session. Thus, we refer to it as a supervisory cycle.

We note that this type of cycle, gave room for the provision of the experimental treatment in order to let teachers modify their teaching techniques.

2.7 SUMMARY OF THE REVIEW

In the review, we examined general Interaction matters and Interaction studies in English Language *Teaching*. *The methodologies in use in English* Language researches were also reviewed. We observed that the shortcomings of the observation instruments and the nature of research in English language that emphasizes achievement are obvious pitfalls in the field. FOCUS, the specific instrument used in the study was extensively reviewed. We ended the review with a look at supervisory conference circle that provided the forum for the administration of the experimental treatment.

The next chapter deals with the research design and procedure followed in the study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURE

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the design and procedure followed in the study. It includes the following:

1. The Background steps.
2. The subjects and Lessons Observed in the study.
3. Instruments in the study.
4. Transcriptions of the Lessons.
5. Experimental treatment.
6. Analysis of data.

3.1 THE BACKGROUND STEPS

The main purpose of the background step was to assess the suitability and reliability of the test instrument - FOCUS to be used in the actual classroom communication analysis as well as the adequacy of lesson duration and emerging teacher behaviour. This provided an initial knowledge of problems in the use of the instrument in the actual research and the desirability of the chosen lesson duration.

3.1.1 The Test Instrument

In order to examine the reliability of FOCUS' scoring potential, this researcher, along with two

other colleagues, who coincidentally were M.Ed. candidates interested in the use of this instrument for research purposes, observed and tape-recorded lessons in different subject areas viz: English Language, Geography, and Social Studies. Each researcher transcribed and analyzed one lesson each using the FOCUS instrument. The tapes were exchanged until each had a transcription and analysis of three lessons. The results were compared under the five major categories in the instrument as well as the anecdotal notes.

An inter-rater reliability, that is the extent to which a pair of observers agreed on recorded observations, was determined using the Light's method (1971). This method is chosen because of its method of simple percentage agreement. It was equally found that paired observers results are less conservative than the Light's method. The range of 'r' for each pair of raters is from .94 to .98. The Light's method is therefore chosen because it is more robust.

Light's coefficient:

$$L = \frac{\text{No. of agreement} \times 100\%}{\text{No. of agreement} + \text{No. of Disagreement}}$$

The tallies of the three observers using the three lessons are as follows:

FOCUS CATEGORY	LESSON ONE		LESSON TWO		LESSON THREE	
	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
1	68	2	57	3	78	2
2	65	6	52	8	70	10
3	64	6	52	8	72	8
4	60	10	50	10	68	12
5	58	12	52	8	63	17
TOTAL	315	35	263	37	351	49

$$L = \frac{315 + 263 + 351 \times 100}{315 + 263 + 351 + 35 + 37 + 39}$$

$$L = \frac{929 \times 100}{929 + 121} = \frac{9290\not{0}}{105\not{0}} = \frac{9290}{105} = 88.48$$

$$L = .88$$

3.1.2 Observation Framework

In order to examine the viability of a mini-teaching framework for observation lessons, a group of twenty-six Language Arts student teachers were involved in mini-teaching sessions, in which each student teacher taught two lessons for ten minutes. They were not restricted in their choice of lesson topics because, in addition to our desire of seeing the

viability of mini-teaching for observation, we were also interested in knowing the lesson topics that will most favour the observation of communication patterns. All the lessons were observed and audio-recorded by the researcher. Then the students were asked to do the transcriptions themselves within a day for the researcher to see if the ten minutes lessons could be transcribed within the given time.

Based on the above steps, the researcher noted the following observations which provided the basis for the design put forward in large part in this study:

1. That two lessons could adequately reveal teaching patterns.
2. That lesson topics on reading and writing do not give adequate room for verbal and non-verbal communication. Therefore, they do not provide useful data for this present study.
3. Students can transcribe successfully a ten-minute lesson within a day if asked to.
4. Lesson topics in the area of grammatical structures tend to bring out more of the behaviour patterns of the teacher than in any other area.

3.2 THE SUBJECTS AND LESSONS OBSERVED IN THE STUDY

The thirty subjects were all in-service teachers on Long Vacation course in the Language Arts Section of the Department of Education, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. They were randomly assigned into two groups through the 'hat draw method' viz: E (experimental) = 15 and C (control) = 15. These two groups were further divided into three sections each that is, E = E_1 (5) E_2 (5); E_3 (5) and C_1 (5); C_2 (5); C_3 (5). The aim for the division was to cater for practice effect that comes with the teaching of a single group many times by the same subject.

There were two stages in the design known as: (a) Pre-treatment stage and (b) Post-treatment stage. For subjects in the C- group, there was no experimental treatment of any sort. But for the E- group subjects there was experimental treatment.[1] In the first stage (pre-treatment), none of the subjects in the two groups received any kind of treatment. This was necessary for the purpose of knowing their initial mean scores before the commencement of any form of treatment or lack of it.

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1. See section 3.5 for the nature of the experimental treatment given.

Each member of a group taught two different lessons to two different groups at the pre-treatment stage. After the second lesson, members of the E- group were taken through the clinical supervisory method with FOCUS and video recording providing the patterns of communication. The C- group members were not given any experimental treatment but they were asked to do a transcription of their lessons to keep them 'busy'. After the third lesson, the E- group members were taken through the treatment process again. The C- group continued with tape transcription.

Each teacher taught four lessons of ten minutes each. The subjects were asked to choose any topic within the area of grammatical structures in English and prepare a ten-minute lesson plan which they taught to a group among their mates. For the two pre-treatment lessons, the subjects were given a free hand to choose their lesson topics. This was aimed at freeing the subjects from the inhibitions that normally attend lesson topic assignment. The fact that they were asked to choose from the area of grammatical structures was to forestall a situation where a teacher would come into the class to do "silent reading" for the duration of the time. Moreover, areas of English language skills like reading and writing do not create adequate room for communication recording.

The lessons taught during the pre-treatment stage were taught at the post-treatment stage for us to see whether there was any change due to treatment given or lack of it. To guard against lesson boredom, the teachers taught each of the four lessons to four different groups (See Appendix 1 for a schematic representation). For all the thirty subjects, a total of one hundred and twenty lessons of ten minutes each were recorded using video tapes and audio recorders.

3.3 INSTRUMENTS USED IN THE STUDY

The main instrument used in the study was FOCUS.[1] Also a VHS video recorder and audio-recorders were used for the recording of classroom lessons. The transcripts were analysed with the FOCUS instrument.

3.4 TRANSCRIPTIONS OF THE LESSONS

After the recording of the lessons, the student teachers were given the audio-recorded tapes for transcription. The researcher also kept the video tapes. When the transcripts by the student teachers were returned the researcher examined the transcripts using the video tapes for cross-checking. After the checking, the transcripts of the E- group members

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1. See section 2.4.2 for the meaning.

were then analysed using FOCUS. This provided the basis for the experimental treatment given.

3.5 THE EXPERIMENTAL TREATMENT

Four stages were used in the experimental treatment as follows:

STAGE 1: The subjects were each shown a video recording of their first lesson. This was the provision of the subjects with feedback, using objective observational data. The aim was to make the subjects feel that the information being analyzed was a valid representation of what really happened in the classroom.

STAGE 2: This was followed by the breakdown of the transcribed lesson using FOCUS. The subject was asked to compare the result of the transcribed lesson broken down using FOCUS with the video first watched. The aim was to examine the adequacy of FOCUS as an instrument of communication analysis.

STAGE 3: Next we elicited the subjects' inferences, opinions, and feelings about the observational data.

STAGE 4: The subjects were asked to re-teach the lessons. After, the video of the second lesson was shown to them, and the treatment procedure was taken over again.

3.6 ANALYSIS OF DATA

Below are the analytical steps taken in the study.

3.6.1 Techniques Used

After the data have been collected at the close of lesson observation and transcriptions, all the lessons were analysed using FOCUS. The five main categories and their sub-categories were used in the analysis (See Fig.2). After analysing with FOCUS, the data were taken to the computer where each subject, category and sub-categories were given code numbers for programming purposes.

After the coding has been checked thoroughly by a Systems Analyst, the data were entered into a Data General Computer using the SPSS[1] programme to prepare them for analysis. Numbers and percentages

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1. Instructions for SPSS Programming are presented in Nie et al., Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975).

of each category and sub-category were generated by the computer. Also, appropriate frequency counts and cross-tabular tables were produced using the SPSS Programming.

3.6.2 Statistic Used

The statistic employed was the chi square statistic produced by the computer cross-tabulation using the programming.

3.6.3 Presentation of Findings

The results are presented and discussed as follows using tables where found necessary.

1. Hypothesis re-stated and tested using chi-square.
2. FOCUS as used for analysis and the findings.
3. Beyond Statistics.
4. Questions raised in chapter one discussed.
5. General conclusion.

The next chapter discusses the analysis and interpretation of data.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

This chapter will be specifically concerned with the following:

1. Hypothesis Testing and Validation;
2. FOCUS as used in the analysis;
3. Beyond statistics: Interpretation and discussion of findings;
4. Discussion of the questions raised for the study and general findings related to the problem of the study.

4.1 HYPOTHESIS TESTING AND VALIDATION

The null hypothesis put forward in this study is that:

> Modification in teaching technique is independent of the experimental treatment given.

For the determination of teaching technique modification, Fanselow's five categories of communication under FOCUS were used. The five categories are:

1. Source and Target;
2. Move Type (Purpose of Communication)
3. Medium;
4. Use; and
5. Content.

To arrive at the result, a frequency count for all the

categories was taken and a chi square statistic was used for the test.[1] The level of confidence was set at 0.05.

When the data were computed, no significant difference was found between the pre-treatment and the post-treatment lessons for both the experimental and control groups on all the five categories. (Table 6 presents the details of the result). The two stages of the result are vis: (a) The Pre-treatment stage, and (b) The Post-treatment stage.

4.2 FOCUS AS USED IN THIS STUDY

4.2.1 The Pre-Treatment Stage

At this stage of the study, none of the student-teachers in the two groups received any form of experimental treatment. The aim was to know their initial entry points before the commencement of any form of treatment. Each student teacher taught two different lessons to two different groups within a mini-teaching framework. A presentation of findings and analysis using the five categories of communication under FOCUS earlier mentioned (see section 4.1) now follows.

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1. See section 3.6.1 for the procedure.

In category 1, which deals with the Source and Target of classroom communication, it was observed that both the experimental and control groups dominated their classroom talk. For the experimental group, an average of 71.5% total teacher talk was found while an average of 71.3% was recorded for the control group. The students in each group carried 28.5% and 28.7% total talk respectively (see table 1 below for a breakdown of the talks).

TABLE 1

A BREAKDOWN OF SOURCE AND TARGET OF COMMUNICATION

	Experimental Group		Control Group	
Category Label	L1	L2	L1	L2
Teacher to class	45.1	46.3	46.2	40.8
Class to teacher	6.4	6.4	6.5	5.4
Teacher to student	26.3	24.5	24.9	29.9
Student to teacher	20.9	21.5	21.8	23.5
Teacher to students	.4	.4	.1	.3
Students to teacher	.3	.1	.1	.1
Student to student	.5	.7	.1	-
Teacher to others	-	-	.3	-
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

This high percentage of teacher-talk was not altogether unexpected, for the predominance of classroom talk by teachers has earlier been noticed by

other researchers while current studies still support earlier findings. For example, Flanders (1960, 1963, 1970) on the basis of his many analyses of classroom interaction, has put forward his 'two-thirds' rule: two thirds of every lesson is made up of talk, and two thirds of the talk comes from the teacher. Also Bellack et. al. (1963) found that in their sample of lessons in Social Studies taught to seventeen-year-olds, teacher speech as a proportion of all speech varied from 60% to 93%, with the median at 73%. Bamidele also observed in a 1982 study that 75% of classroom talk emanated from the teachers who acted as the source of knowledge while the students remained passive recipients. Also, Onyewotu (1983) in a recent study reported that the teacher was the higher source of talk in the Social Studies classroom, for he alone takes up 54.5% of the total talking turns while the students together get 45.5% of the turns.

The next category deals with the pedagogical purpose of communication in the classroom. Four sub-categories comprising Structure, Solicit, Response and React were analysed. For the experimental group, 19.1% was observed for structure, 31.65% for solicit, 28.45% for response and 21% for react while for the control group 18.8% was observed for structure, 33.15%

for solicit, 28.7% for response and 19.2% for react (Table 2 presents the details of the result).

TABLE 2

PEDAGOGICAL PURPOSE OF COMMUNICATION

	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP		CONTROL GROUP	
Category label	L1	L2	L1	L2
Structure	19.9	18.3	19.8	17.8
Solicit	30.3	32.5	33.4	32.9
Response	28.7	28.2	28.4	29.0
React	21.0	21.0	18.3	20.1
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

The highest proportion of this category for both groups is devoted to 'solicit', i.e. questioning, requests, etc. This is closely followed by 'response', i.e. answers. 'react' is the next sub-category, while 'structure' follows last. This pattern observed shows that teachers' talk was made up mainly of structuring, soliciting and reacting, while students' talk was mainly responding which accounted for 28.45% and 29.8% for the experimental and control groups respectively.

EXAMPLES:[1]

T(STR) So, today after talking about nouns we want to know how we can describe these nouns.

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1. See pp.37-55 for detailed discussion of FOCUS analytical procedures, terminology, and examples.

We want to be able to say something about them so that there will be no confusion. So adjectives tell us something about noun. OK?

T(STR) Now, I am going to give you some adjectives. I want you to make sentences with them (writes on the blackboard).

T(SOL) Now let's take the word 'beautiful'. John, can you give a sentence with the word 'beautiful'?

S(RES) I have a beautiful sister.

T(REA) Writes on the board and repeats the sentence. That's very good. 'Beautiful' is describing the word sister.

T(SOL) Now let's use the word 'cruel' in a sentence. (Points to a student).

S(RES) He is a cruel man.

T(REA) Writes on the board (noise). 'Cruel' tells us what kind of person we are talking about. We differentiate him from the good man because of this adjective.

(SUBJECT 17, LESSON ONE).

Furthermore, students most of the time respond to teachers' questions, which were usually

fact questions requiring one word, phrase or one sentence answers. For example:

T(SOL) I want you to give me other examples of verbs. Yes, Oyewumi.

S(RES) eat

T(REA) eat

T(SOL) Yes, (points to another student)

S(RES) run

T(Rea) run, yes.

T(STR) Today we are going to take a look at adverbs (noise as teacher writes on the board).

T(SOL) Look at Salaki (to a student). Can you tell me how he is sitting?

T(SOL) Tell me more about how he is sitting.

S(RES) He is sitting quietly.

(SUBJECT 25, LESSON 2).

T(STR) Yesterday we talked about some verbs whose forms are limited.

T(STR) In sentences like "I eat"; "he plays", we say the forms of these verbs 'eat' and 'plays' are limited - and these we refer to as the finite verbs.

T(SOL) Can you (to the class) give me examples of eh - these forms?
(Silence)

T(SOL) Yes, (points to a student).

S(RES) She dances.

T(REA) She dances, correct.

T(SOL) Yes (to another student).

S(RES) I eat.

T(REA) I eat, correct.

T(SOL) Yes (to another student).

S(RES) I drink.

T(REA) Thank you.

(SUBJECT 11, LESSON 3)

It was also observed that the emphasis of teachers was on the transmission of knowledge rather than the stimulation of thought, teaching of skills or communication exchanges. For example:

T(STR) Now if you put this 'though' at the beginning of a sentence, it makes that part of a sentence a subordinate clause. Now there is the tendency when you are using a 'though' clause at the beginning of a sentence, people use to put 'but' in between. Now let us see how it looks like - "Though I will like the girl but I will not marry her."

T(SOL) Does is sound good? Class does it sound good?

C(RES) Huh!

T(REA) Okay.

T(SOL) In grammar, we do not use 'though' and 'but' in a sentence?

C(RES) No, we do not know.

T(REA) Okay.

T(STR) Now, if you use 'though' and 'but' in a sentence,you are making a big repetition of 'though' and because 'though' has the same value with 'but'. They do not come in single 'though' and 'but' in a single sentence. Sometimes you are given a sentence of this nature (silence as teacher writes on the board).

T(SOL) Who can read this sentence for us? Yes, (he points to a student).

S(RES) Mary did not come to school, Many passed the examination.

(SUBJECT 23, LESSON ONE).

Thus, the teacher adopted the 'structure-solicit-react' approach. After a lengthy lecture, during which no skill was taught, except language facts, the teacher then follows with simple solicits like "is it clear?"

"name one noun" or "show me the preposition using my example." This is then followed with "good" or "no" depending on what the student does. For example:

T(STR) As we have on the board, sentence one says, "They sweep the class daily." The second one says, "Esther troubled the mother yesterday." Now, like we said last week, active statements emphasize both the doer of actions and the receivers of actions. But today we are going to treat passive voice which is slightly different in approach though they have same meanings ((SIC). For instance, sentence one, instead of saying, "They sweep the class daily" we can say "The class is swept daily." And in this case, you'll discover that we have neglected the doer of the action - they. That is, I am not interested in telling you that information (SIC). So also (STC) instead of saying "Esther troubled the mother yesterday" we can say "Esther's mother was troubled yesterday."

T(SOL) Is that clear?

C(RES) Yes.

T(SOL) Now I want you to give me the passive statement from the last sentence on the board.

(question directed to the class)

(Silence)

(SUBJECT ONE,LESSON ONE)

Barnes (1975) also observed that almost all teachers appear to use the question-and-answer routine as a way of controlling pupils' attention. He supports this with his own study as well as that of others. For example, James Hoetker showed that in a sample of English lessons in junior high schools, the teachers asked questions at an average rate of one every 11.8 seconds, and more rapidly still when lessons with less able pupils were taken alone. Barnes (1975) reports that Hoether and Ahlbrand (1969) summarized many such studies of American classrooms, one as early as 1860. All show the predominance of question-and-answer procedure. Okoye-Ikonta (1983) also observed that teachers use a lot of questioning in the class but often they were recall questions rather than reasoning questions. Thus, the high percentages of 'solicit' noticed support the trend of other findings.

The next category is the mediums used to communicate content in moves which are categorized as linguistic, non-linguistic and para-linguistic. This categorization of mediums is more helpful than a two-way division between verbal and non-verbal seen

in much of the literature, because it shows differences between mediums that are critical in second language settings.

It was observed that all the student teachers relied heavily on the spoken and written mediums i.e. linguistic medium. However, other mediums cropped up in their tiny bits like gesture (para-linguistic) and silence (Table 3 presents the details).

TABLE 3

MEDIUMS USED TO COMMUNICATE CONTENT

	Experimental Group		Control Group	
Category Label[1]	L1	L2	L1	L2
PLA/NLA	.4	.1	.4	-
LA	68.2	69.6	64.3	64.5
LA/PLA	24.8	25.1	30.7	30.6
LA/PLV	.2	-	-	.1
SIL	2.8	1.7	1.3	.8
LV/PLV	.4	.2	.6	.1
PLA	.1	.4	.6	.3
LA/LV	.6	.2	1.5	2.3
LA/NLV	1.3	1.7	.9	1.1
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

1. See section 1.9 for abbreviations.

(Fanselow, 1977). Also, they discuss gestures, pointing out their cultural meanings. But these comments often suggest that mediums other than speech are secondary. This possibly accounts for Arnheim's lament cited by Fanselow (1980) regarding the concentration on language as the key means of communication in schools. Armheim shows how students can be fluent in expressing concepts in non-linguistic and paralinguistic mediums in his classic, VISUAL THINKING (1969). And Olson (1976) supports Arnheim that our concentration in schools on language alone and a limited style of language at that, "grossly" underestimates the power of other mediums. But Bruner also cited by Fanselow (1980), has put forward the reason for the dependence on language as formal school which causes people to be separated from the real activities of life. Thus, to bring the world into the classroom, we have come to depend on symbolic means, that is, spoken and written language (1966:62).

It was however observed that a great range of medium is used unconsciously and frequently too in the classroom by teachers. Noting mediums in moves provides insight into how messages are communicated. In FOCUS, the tone of voice for example, and spoken words are considered two separate mediums for the tone of voice communicates extra message. Though the

words uttered may simply be stating a fact or giving a command, it is not <u>what</u> is said as such, but <u>how</u> it is said that reflects the crucial importance of examining more than the medium of the spoken word alone.

EXAMPLE:

T(STR) OK the ticket in the group (reading a sentence).

T(SOL) OK?

T(REA) OK.

According to McLuhan the medium is the message, and a major difference between many communications is that the messages are communicated in different mediums. This accounts for the noting of the different mediums and their combinations in Table 3.

The next category deals with the way the mediums are used to communicate contents. This category shows whether the mediums communicate any content. Therefore, receptive and productive activities are coded. Sub-categories such as 'attend', 'characterize', 'present', 'relate', 'represent', and 'set' are recognized here. Since the teachers at this stage dealt mostly with exposing facts and eliciting (questioning) responses from the students, the code 'present' turned up largely with about 66.65% for the

experimental group and 62% for the control group. 'Characterize' and 'represent' followed with 17.05% and 16.55% for the control group and 14.9% and 15.25% for the experimental group also. From the data available, the high occurrence of the sub-category 'represent' shows that teachers simply do repeat what the students say either by expanding, imitating or editing.

EXAMPLES:

T(STR) I will give you the hint.

T(SOL) Emm-Upaa. It has - Make a sentence with 'it has' (pause).

S(RES) It has been raining.

T(REA) It has been raining.

T(SOL) He has (pause) Yes, Olatunde.

S(RES) He has been eating.

T(REA) He has been eating. Very good.

T(SOL) She has. Mallam (calls a student).

S(RES) She has been listening.

T(REA) She has been listening. Good.

T(SOL) We have - (pause) as he points to a student. Yes?

S(RES) We have written our homework.

We have written our homework.

(SUBJECT ONE, LESSON 2)

T(SOL) Look at these two sentences. Who can tell me the Chairman's reaction in the first sentence?

T(SOL) Does he support the man's promotion or not?

T(SOL) Chinasa.

S(RES) He supports the man's promotion.

T(REA) Good.

T(REA) In the first sentence there, the Chairman supports the man's promotion.

T(SOL) Who can tell me the reaction of the Chairman in the second sentence?

T(SOL) Yes Maimuna.

S(RES) The Chairman doesn't support the man's promotion.

T(REA) Good!

T(REA) The Chairman doesn't support the man's promotion.

(SUBJECT 30, LESSON 2)

The sub-category 'characterize' is where the evaluation of students' responses to answers can be found. Since 'questioning' i.e. 'solicit' carried the highest proportion of teacher-talk (see table 2), more feedback or corrections should have been expected. But the sub-category 'set' which reveals correction did not crop up at all for the experimental group while .5% was noted for the control group.

TABLE 4

THE WAY THE MEDIUMS ARE USED TO COMMUNICATE CONTENTS

	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP		CONTROL GROUP	
Category label	L1	L2	L1	L2
Attend	.5	.1	.1	.3
Char:valuate	12.2	9.5	9.4	10.4
Char:differentiate	.1	.1	.1	.1
Char:examine	-	-	-	-
Char:illustrate	2.2	3.8	4.4	4.9
Char:label	1.5	.4	2.8	2.0
Present:elicit	30.8	33.1	33.5	33.7
Present:query	.1	.1	-	-
Present:state	35.0	34.2	28.7	27.8
Relate:explain	.8	.6	2.0	1.1
Relate:interprete	.1	.1	.4	.8
Rep:combine	-	.1	.1	.1
Rep.edit	-	.2	.1	.2
Rep:expand	1.3	2.2	1.1	1.2
Rep:imitate	11.4	10.1	11.2	10.9
Rep:paraphrase	-	.1	-	.2
Rep:substitute	-	.1	-	-
Rep.transform	2.2	1.8	3.5	4.5
Set	-	-	.6	.1
Rep:imit/char:eval	1.2	2.9	1.8	1.7
TOTAL	100%	100%	100%	100%

It was observed that the control group at this stage used less of the evaluation sub-category but correction of students' responses more than the experimental group while the experimental group used almost the 'represent' sub-category in the same proportion as the 'characterize' sub-category (see table 4 for details).

Although the sub-category 'characterize· evaluate' emerged to a large extent for the control group, teachers evaluation or acknowledgement was in the form of simple feedback like, good, yes, that's right, no, fine, OK, thank you, etc. Acknowledgement of students' ideas accordingly took the form of repeating the students' ideas virtually verbatim. This possibly accounts for the close gap between the two sub-categories - 'characterize:evaluate' and 'represent:imitate'. The virtual absence of correction may be due to the fact that many of the teachers had language problems of their own, especially at the grammatical and discourse levels that made it difficult for them to competently handle students' deficiencies (see section 4.4 for the discussion of some of these problems).

The last category examined is the content of communication. Three sub-categories 'life', 'procedure' and 'study' are recognized here.

The highest sub-category for the experimental group and the control group is 'procedure' with 63.3% for the experimental group and 63.75% for the control group. The sub-category deals with teachers' tasks in form of discipline, direction in carrying out tasks, etc. Acheson and Gall (1980) found out through research that structuring the content of a lesson well, i.e. making clear statements about what the lesson is about, giving clear instructions as to the procedure students are supposed to follow contributes positively to students' performance in the lesson. Teachers in both groups in this study did give instructions but this study did not examine the effect of these on the students since this is not part of the research problem. However, it was noted that the students did not solicit for clearer instructions nor were they often wrong when called upon to give responses. Also, this may be due to the nature of the subjects used for the study (see chapter 3 for subjects used).

'Study' ranked next with 32.95% for the experimental group and 33.3% for the control group. This involves communicating topics of instruction, whether language or other academic subjects. The high percentage of 'study shows the emphasis of the teachers was strongly on the transmission of knowledge rather than communication exchanges particularly those that set

the stage for proper interaction. This situation accounts for the low percentage of 'life' - 3.05% for the experimental group and 2.7% for the control group.

Normally, students enjoy talking about things close to them, and teachers could make use of this to get students to narrate personal experiences which may illustrate points in the lesson. Students are often motivated if they are asked to talk about their own experiences or things they know well. This encourages them to talk (see table 5 for the details of the result).

TABLE 5

CONTENTS OF COMMUNICATION

	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP		CONTROL GROUP	
Category Label	L1	L2	L1	L2
Life	3.0	3.1	2.4	3.0
Procedure	63.0	64.6	64.6	62.9
Study	33.7	32.2	32.8	33.8
TOTAL	100%	100%	100%	100%

Having examined the five categories at the pre-treatment stage for both the experimental and control groups, a summary of the findings now follow.

The following characteristics were common to both groups at the pre-treatment stage:

(a) Excessive teacher-talk of approximately 71% of the total classroom talk;

(b) Teacher-talk centred around questioning which is of a direct simple nature and rule giving. Questioning accounted for about 28% of lesson time and rule giving or lecturing accounted for another 32%.

(c) Most of the time, students' wrong responses were ignored. It was noticed that this may be due to teachers' inadequacies in grammar. These inadequacies were not limited to any of the groups.

(d) Teachers gave simple forms of feedback and acknowledged students' ideas by repeating the ideas virtually verbatim.

The next step is the post-treatment stage of the discussion.

4.2.2 The Post Treatment Stage

At this stage of the study, the experimental treatment[1] has been administered to the experimental group while the control group has not been exposed to

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1. See Section 3.6 for the nature of the treatment.

TABLE 6

CHI SQUARE RESULT FOR THE FIVE CATEGORIES USED IN THE STUDY

	E- GROUP			C- GROUP		
	X^2	X^2		X^2	X^2	
CATEGORY 1	L1 & L3	L2 & L4	SIG	L1 & L3	L2 & L4	SIG
T - C	0.728	1.370	NS	0.138	0.043	NS
C - T	0.270	0.007	NS	0.242	0.140	NS
T - S	0.142	0.696	NS	0.062	0.128	NS
S - T	0.012	0.222	NS	0.002	0.031	NS
T - SS	0.082	0.04	NS	.1	0.3	NS
SS - T	0.1	0.3	NS	0	0.3	NS
S - S	0.5	0.025	NS	0.18	0.4	NS
T - O	-	-	NS	0.3	-	NS
CATEGORY 2						
Str	0.658	1.709	NS	0.404	0.405	NS
Sol	0.113	0.210	NS	0	0.106	NS
Res	0.089	0.193	NS	0.029	0.014	NS
Rea	0.016	0.042	NS	0.172	0	NS
CATEGORY 3						
PLA/NLA	0.012	0.1	NS	0.2	-	NS
LA	0.050	0.131	NS	0.005	0.011	NS
LA/PLA	0.218	0.110	NS	0	0.027	NS
LA/PLV	0.067	0.1	NS	-	0.1	NS
Sil	0.269	0.152	NS	0.624	0.64	NS
LV/PLA	0.012	0.067	NS	0.1	0.1	NS
PLA	0.1	0.18	NS	0.1	0.36	NS
LA/LV	0.074	0.054	NS	0.168	0.049	NS
LA/NLV	0.004	0.067	NS	0	0.089	NS
CATEGORY 4						
Attend	-	-	NS	0.267	0	NS
Characterize	0.164	0.319	NS	0.035	0.068	NS
Present	0.017	0.003	NS	0.154	0.012	NS
Relate	0.029	0.06	NS	0.357	0.109	NS
Represent	0.022	0.076	NS	0.015	0.048	NS
Set	-	0.15	NS	0.009	0.1	NS
CATEGORY 5						
Life	0.055	0	NS	0.067	0	NS
Procedure	0.010	0.009	NS	0	0.009	NS
Study	0.007	0.036	NS	0	0.018	NS

P = .05

any form of treatment. The result of the statistical test shows that there are no significant differences between the pre-treatment stage lessons and the post-treatment stage lessons, which in effect, show that teachers in both groups did not modify their teaching techniques to a significant level. Table 6 presents the details of the statistical result. An examination of the nature of the findings based on discussion outside the realm of statistics like the chi square is now undertaken. It is felt that a look beyond statistics may provide a better understanding of the nature of the research findings.

4.3 BEYOND STATISTICS: AN INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Marie Hughes (1963) reporting her study of American teaching behaviour, had this to say, "the differences found amongst teachers were contributed by relatively few individuals". In our study, Hughes observations aptly apply to the subjects used. For example, when the percentage of 'teacher-talk' was taken for all the subjects at the pre-treatment and the post-treatment stages, and the differences computed using the mean scores, it was discovered that some members of the experimental group showed more modifications in their degree of classroom talk (Table 7 shows the details).

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1. See Table 1.

TABLE 7

PERCENTAGE OF TEACHER-TALK RECORDED FOR THE STUDENT-TEACHERS USED IN THE STUDY

RANK ORDER	SUBJECTS	TT(%) L1	TT(%) L2	TT(%) L3	TT(%) L4	TT(%) L1&L2 MEAN	TT(%) L3&L4 MEAN	TT(%) VARIA-TION
1	E11	81.8	84.2	73.6	68.5	83.0	71.05	11.95
2	E14	78.2	71.8	64.0	62.5	75.0	63.25	11.75
3	E4	75.3	68.8	64.1	59.0	72.05	61.55	10.5
4	E15	70.6	75.4	64.9	63.0	73.0	63.95	9.05
5	E5	71.9	72.6	63.5	63.5	72.25	63.5	8.75
6	E1	76.4	67.9	65.3	63.2	72.15	64.25	7.9
7	E13	56.4	67.0	69.9	67.7	61.7	68.8	7.1
8	C18	76.3	66.4	62.7	69.2	71.35	65.95	5.4
9	E12	75.1	72.3	66.7	70.1	73.7	68.4	5.3
10	C16	76.8	71.2	69.0	68.9	74.0	68.95	5.05
11	C26	67.3	68.3	75.0	70.6	67.8	72.8	5.0
12	C22	73.3	72.1	67.9	69.0	72.7	68.45	4.25
13	C25	75.0	72.9	69.2	70.7	73.95	69.95	4.0
14	E9	79.1	68.9	72.6	67.8	74.0	70.2	3.8
15	E2	62.9	73.3	67.9	75.8	68.1	71.85	3.75
16	C24	77.0	84.7	76.0	78.2	80.85	77.1	3.75
17	C27	69.0	72.5	72.5	76.2	70.75	74.35	3.6
18	E10	71.0	70.8	70.2	64.8	70.9	67.5	3.4
19	E7	74.4	66.6	70.6	65.9	70.5	68.25	2.25
20	C21	72.1	71.6	71.4	68.0	71.85	69.7	2.15
21	E8	73.4	69.4	73.4	73.1	71.4	73.25	1.85
22	C28	67.4	72.0	67.3	75.6	69.7	71.45	1.75
23	E3	70.6	75.0	70.2	78.6	72.8	74.4	1.6
24	C30	73.0	76.0	71.7	74.1	74.5	72.9	1.6
25	E6	63.3	75.0	71.2	70.0	69.15	70.6	1.45
26	C19	54.9	58.8	53.1	62.7	56.85	57.9	1.05
27	C29	77.8	72.6	71.9	76.5	75.2	74.2	1.0
28	C17	70.3	69.7	72.1	68.7	70.0	70.4	0.4
29	C23	75.9	62.1	72.3	65.2	69.0	68.75	0.25
30	C20	64.9	72.2	67.6	69.5	68.55	68.55	0

NB: 'E' indicates subject teachers in the experimental group
'C' indicates subject teachers in the control group.

Although more information is needed here about the nature of the teachers' modification of classroom talk, it is noted that the source and target of communication have strong effect in determining the patterns and characteristics of communication.

What is presented here is of course not a perfect pattern, i.e. the changes are not confined to one group nor significant, but Table 7 reveals that the highest degree of variation (taking the median) was among the members of the experimental group. This cannot simply be written off as coincidence. A critical look at Table 7 reveals noticeable variations above the median for the experimental group than the control group.

Furthermore, it has been observed that small changes in parts of lessons can overtime build up and lead to large changes in the overall pattern of discourse in the language classroom (Fanselow, 1977). So what is being urged here is that teachers, educators and student-teachers in particular, try small changes one by one and carefully look at the consequences.

On the nature of teachers' classroom talk modification, it was noticed that members of the experimental group made conscious efforts to involve the students in their lessons, especially through students' activities (see Table 7 for subjects E11,

E14, E15 and E5). However, it was observed that students' involvement also took different forms. For example, E1 modified his teaching behaviour by introducing more 'student to student' talk in his post-treatment lessons that is, the activities in lessons one and two were mostly carried out between the teacher and his students while lessons three and four showed students in some cases carrying out the activities in the lessons. These take about 7.6% and 3.4% of the lesson time respectively compared with the 0% recorded for lessons one and two. Moreover, teaching aids were made use of in lessons three and four while in lessons one and two, no teaching aid was used. The use of aids took .6% and 1.7% of the class time respectively in lessons three and four. A decrease of 'teacher-talk' in lessons three and four was also noticed. For example, 76.4% and 67.9% were recorded for lessons one and two while 65.3% and 63.2% were recorded for lessons three and four respectively (see Table 3).

For E11, a decrease in 'teacher-talk' and more 'student-talk' was noticed but unlike E1, students' involvement here was more of 'choral talk' i.e. 'class to teacher' which often bordered on mere repetitions. For example, in lessons one and two, the degrees of 'class to teacher' talk was 1.8% and 1.3% respectively.

This rose to 10.4% and 18.5% in lessons three and four respectively (see Table 8).

TABLE 8

SOURCE AND TARGET OF COMMUNICATION FOR SUBJECTS ONE AND ELEVEN IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Category Label	SUBJECT ONE				SUBJECT ELEVEN			
	L1	L2	L3	L4	L1	L2	L3	L4
T-C	36.4	29.1	21.8	21.8	52.7	67.1	63.2	56.
C-T	5.5	6.8	5.3	4.3	1.3	1.3	20.4	18.5
T-S	40.0	38.8	42.9	47.0	29.1	17.1	10.4	12.0
S-T	18.2	25.2	21.8	28.2	16.4	14.5	16.0	13.0
T-SS	-	-	.6	3.4	-	-	-	-
SS-T	-	-	-	.9	-	-	-	-
S-S	-	-	7.6	3.4	-	-	-	-
T-O	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

The point being made here is that, although there may be modifications in teaching techniques, they do not necessarily follow the same pattern for even numbers of the same group. This possibly explains the lack of significant differences noticed in teaching techniques since most of the changes were small within a broad scope like the classroom. However, the emerging nature of the patterns of the communication can still be discerned. This further reinforces the earlier call for

the need to embrace a technical language like that of FOCUS, for the discussion and analysis of teaching, be it in the formal setting or informal settings like demonstration lessons or mini-teaching sessions.

The next step is the questions raised in chapter one which form part of the problem for this study.

4.4 THE QUESTIONS RAISED FOR THE STUDY

The following questions raised in chapter one form part of the statement of the problem for the study:

1. What patterns emerge from classroom communication between teachers and students?
2. What is the degree of adequacy of Fanselow's (1980) instrument (FOCUS) for the analysis of English language classroom communication?
3. What are the communicative abilities of the student-teacher as specialists in Language Arts?
4. Is it possible for student teachers to improve on their teaching techniques through simple taped transcription of their lesson procedures?

An examination of these questions from the results available will now be taken. Since the bulk of the data come from the observation of lessons on English, using

Fanselow's (1930) FOCUS - Foci for Observing Communication Used in Gettings, question one - What patterns emerge from classroom communication between teachers and students? - and question two - What is the degree of adequacy of FOCUS - will be taken together. This is based on the principle that whatever patterns emerge are the product of the use of the instrument.

One obvious advantage of the use of FOCUS for the analysis of classroom communication is that the criteria are readily and logically convertible into teacher's classroom performance and into students language needs for communicative purposes, e.g. language for structuring, language for soliciting, language for responding and language for reacting with students also exploring the domain of English verbal communication that is often neglected. In the use of FOCUS for this study, the categorization of communication patterns was done after the transcription of tapes.

From the direct observation and analysis using FOCUS presented in the last sections, it was possible to see how teaching styles and teacher's use of language varied and some of the lapses in teachers' and students' classroom language. However, one point needs comment in giving the context of the observation. The effect of the video recorder on the speakers.

Most often it is forgotten once the speakers are used to it and the normal social process of listening and talking reasserts itself. From time to time however, one or other of the students may become momentarily aware of it and say 'we are being video-taped', but immediately the magnetic property of talk draws the speaker's attention back into the social focus of the lesson and the recorder is again forgotten.

The instrument (FOCUS) normally captures this type of 'digression' and the role which the teacher can play in turning this 'life' conversation into a fruitful classroom learning. In other instruments like Flanders', this type of 'digression' is not regarded as a normal pattern of learning, but the adequacy of FOCUS for the language class is its recognition that classroom communication is in very little way different from the communication that takes place outside. Therefore, it has a code for such 'digression' i.e. 'life'.

This study sets out to illustrate some ways in which teachers (especially) and students use speech in the course of teaching and learning, and to indicate how this depends upon the patterns of communication set up by teachers in their classroom. It was observed that every classroom has its way of going about things, but the teachers were surprisingly consistent from one class to another. The general

pattern revealed by FOCUS was 'structure-solicit-response-react'. The teacher structures, then solicits and the students respond which the teacher again reacts to.

Basically, the instrument (FOCUS) was able to reveal a lot about classroom teaching and learning. For example, it revealed the extent to which the teachers dominated their lessons and the degree of students participation. The instrument was also found to be effective in showing the pattern and nature of classroom talk (see tables 1 and 4).

The instrument further made it possible for the determination of the types of students responses i.e. was it merely 'represent:imitation' or 'present:state'? Such issues as how particular students respond and the types of feedback given by teachers were adequately revealed (see section 4.1.1).

The instrument further provided a basis for comparison between the lessons. In most of the lessons, FOCUS revealed that the teachers continued to structure rather than solicit or encourage dialogue. Even where the teacher solicits as it happened occasionally, the questioning style did not provide for the communicative needs of the students adequately. For example, most of the questions were direct which required one-word answers.

T(SOL) Can you identify the word which tells what the subject is doing in sentence A?
(points to a student)

S(RES) Kicked.

T(SOL) Sentence B? (Points to another student).

S(RES) Played.

T(SOL) and C?

S(RES) Took.

Also, there were instances when the teachers would structure for a long time and end up thus:

T(SOL) Is that clear?

C(RES) Yes!

The pattern of communication seen in the lessons, reveal the fact that many teachers do not know what they do in class as a result, their behaviour does not always match their conscious intentions. However, if teachers understand the patterns of communication in their lessons, they can take more responsibilities for what their students learn.

In spite of its strong points, FOCUS could not distinguish between positive and negative feedback. For example, if a teacher gives a positive feedback like 'good' which is a 'reacting move', it was coded as 'characterize:evaluate' and if the feedback is equally negative like 'no' or 'bad', the same code

applies. In a situation where the researcher is looking for definite or finite changes, this can be a hinderance. However, one perspective for analyzing variety of teacher feedback using FOCUS is to determine the nature of the student's responses that elicited the feedback to the information contained in the student's ideas.

The next area of focus is the question of the communicative abilities of the student-teachers. As pointed out in chapter three, the subjects used in this study were in-service TESL teachers. Therefore, it is important to see how adequate they are in their use of the language. The emphasis is on the teachers because of the nature of the students involved in the classroom situation (mini-teaching setting) where the students were 'fellow colleagues'. However, instances where the 'students' made mistakes but the teachers failed to notice or handle the errors properly were discovered. For example, a student's error of tense construction was ignored by a teacher:

S(RES) Before I was going to the farm, now I no longer go to the farm.

Similarly, a prepositional error was not corrected by another teacher.

S(RES) I used to wash on my stomach only.

Also, there were instances when teachers failed to handle students' errors properly. For example,

T(SOL) Now give us the plural of 'I', Comfort.

S_1(REC) Is.

T(REA) No.

S_2(REC) We.

T(REA) Very good.

T(SOL) Now make a sentence with John.

Errors ranging from inappropriate use of tenses, articles, prepositions, errors of concord to clumsy grammatical constructions, mostly on the part of the teachers were observed. The following examples are taken from some of the lessons:

T(SOL) There are single words <u>which spelling</u> begin with 'un'.

In the above example, the teacher was teaching the use of prefix to form opposites.

Wrong use of verbs (Errors of Concord) like:

T(STR) It <u>give</u> support to the noun.

T(SOL) I want you to give me some sentences that <u>has</u> nouns in them.

T(STR) Pronouns <u>takes</u> the place of nouns.

T(STR) The words big, brown, small and big <u>describes</u> some objects.

There was also the omission of prepositions. For example:

T(STR) This is the box which I keep my pins.

And the repetition of preposition. For example:

T(STR) This is the paper on which I write my letters on.

T(STR) This is the paper on which I type my notes on.

In the last two examples, it is worthy of note that the affected teacher was teaching prepositions and the above examples were given as model sentences! Also, a teacher was teaching the use of 'either, or' and 'neither, nor' and had the following to say as an example:

T(STR) I do not want to see neither Peter nor John.

It is felt that the teacher was not sure of the structure he was teaching. The teacher due to poor knowledge of the sentence structure in use accepted a wrong sentence from a student:

S(RES) It is true that neither Mary or Peter visited the patient.

T(REA) Good.

In the example that follows, another teacher showed poor understanding of the use of comparative degrees of adjectives:

T(STR) I have some scripts here for you to see.
(Teacher gives out the instruction).

T(SOL) John, read out the instruction.

S(RES) Use the most appropriate of two words in the brackets in the blank spaces.

The teacher did not realise that two things are being compared, so, he should have used 'more appropriate' and not 'most appropriate'.

Clumsy expression like "What of 'some' when we want to talk about in place of this instead of writing another sentence" was observed. The teacher could have said, "Make a sentence with 'some' instead of 'the' or 'a' to indicate uncountable nouns." Also, expression such as "are you clear" was not uncommon. The list of errors is long. The few examples given above will suffice in illustrating the point. There is the need for teachers to find ways for the improvement of their language abilities, if they are to lay any claim to being specialists.

It is also noted that one aspect of a teacher's activity is the organization of lessons as they go along. This leads to organizing talk, which places items of class work in relation to each other and reveals some of the overall planning of a course. The choice of how much of this organizing talk is done is part of the

teacher's personal style. Therefore, the errors or lapses discovered in the lessons were of various kinds as indicated in the discussion and were not limited to any particular set of teachers.

On the communicative abilities of the student-teachers, it was not entirely surprising that some lapses were discovered. In fact, it would have been out of place if some of these lapses were not observed, for, naturally, spoken discourse is more flexible unlike the precision of, say, spelling and grammar in printed books. For one thing, it involves more than one participant, and therefore detailed control is not always possible, even by a teacher. Moreover, discourse is made in real time, and this means that many other considerations can affect, change, or abruptly halt an utterance. So it is not surprising if occasionally we find ambiguous indeterminate, or peculiar constructions. However, when lapses become glaring and constant, then we are apt to be concerned.

An examination of the question of the possibility of student-teachers improving their teaching techniques through an understanding of their lesson procedures based on taped transcription of classroom communication is now taken. In order to answer this question, all the student-teachers were asked to do a taped transcription of their ten minutes lessons immediately after the lessons

were taught. There were four lessons in all. However, the experimental group went further for treatment.

Some researchers (Fanselow, 1977; 1980; Torbe, 1981) hold the view that self-discovery is the first step towards self-improvement. It is Fanselow's contention that until we can see the rules we cannot substitute others for them. Torbe (1981) also rightly pointed out that by tape-recording, and transcribing lessons, teachers can see themselves in the mirror, for teachers can turn their classrooms into laboratories in which together with their students, they could explore, experiment and theorize about learning and its relationship with language (talk). It has been said that what happens in talk is crucial to the learning of the students (Wright, 1972; Stevsck, 1976). For Torbe (1981), the knowledge gained from recording and transcribing lessons, the teacher would learn to put up with his students talk because of its importance and inevitability.

From the result of this study, teachers stand to benefit and improve upon their teaching techniques through taped transcription but more modifications can be made if the taped transcriptions are further analysed using some discrete tools of classroom communication analysis like FOCUS. Mere tape transcriptions in

themselves are not sufficient to bring about the desired change that others like Torbe envisage.

The next chapter presents the summary, conclusion and recommendations based in large part on the findings in this study.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The research was designed to explore the teaching-learning situation within a microteaching framework as a means to evolving a more realistic approach to classroom teaching analysis. Of more importance is the belief that the teaching act is not a mystery that cannot be adequately explained. It is felt that a great deal can be learnt about how people teach by analyzing the communication that takes place in the classroom using a technical language that is devoid of contradictions.

The study rests on the belief that though much thinking has gone into what should be the minimum standards for teacher preparation in this country, like elsewhere, the poor result of previous effort is not unconnected with the fact that most of the efforts have not been chanelled in the right direction i.e. the absence of a scientific unit of analysis which often leads to wrong assumptions about the capability or adequacy of students' training. This invariably produces ill-equipped products (students) that are devoid of initiatives and courage to experiment in the face of new challenges.

The study involved thirty (30) third year in-service teachers in the Language Arts Section of the Department of Education, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. The subjects were asked to teach four lessons each from the area of grammatical structures. The two lesson topics were freely chosen by the subjects. These were taught at the pre-treatment and post-treatment stages. Fifteen of the subjects were exposed to the video playback of their lessons after they were taught as well as the transcribed lessons duly analyzed with FOCUS.[1] All the subjects were asked to transcribe their lessons. The teaching took place within a micro teaching framework.

The following questions were raised and answered in the study:

1. What patterns emerge from classroom communication between teachers and students?
2. What is the degree of adequacy of Fanselow's instrument (FOCUS) for the analysis of English language classroom communication?
3. What are the communicative abilities of the student teachers?

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1. See section 1.8 for the definition of terms.

4. Is it possible for student-teachers to improve on their techniques through an understanding of their lesson procedures based on tape transcription of classroom communication?

The hypothesis tested in the study is that: experimental treatment i.e. video play back and analysis of lesson using FOCUS with clinical supervision - do not bring about significant changes in the teaching technique of teachers. The hypothesis was examined under five categories.[1] The level of confidence was set at .05.

The statistic used was chi square. Statistic result showed that the experimental treatment did not bring about any significant change in the teaching techniques of the subjects under the five categories. The hypothesis was upheld. However, an examination of the result without statistic provided interesting revelations which call to question the validity of results based strictly on statistics, especially for social sciences and classroom studies in particular.

Without the statistic, it was discovered that the experimental group showed some modifications in their

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1. See section 1.4 for the categories used.

teaching techniques which differ from the control group. Moreover, the trend was fairly consistent for the experimental group. It was also discovered that the nature of modifications found among members of the experimental group varied. It was further discovered that some members of the control group equally showed some modifications. This may be attributed to possible keen observations during the time of taped transcription.

There is a great need for all teachers to understand how their communicative behaviour influences their students' learning. This awareness can lead to small changes in parts of lessons which can over time build up and lead to large changes in the overall pattern of discourse in the language classroom. So, what is being urged here is that student-teachers as well as teachers in the field, try small changes one by one and carefully look at the consequences.

The understanding of classroom teaching is to be found by the individual right there in the classroom, if we are ready to pause and look carefully around. Like Cogan (1973) cited in Fanselow (1982) has rightly put it,

> Until teachers tape record, transcribe and describe their own lessons, discover the rules they follow, and generate alternatives on their own, all the time suspending judgements, they cannot be free.

Fanselow (1982) buttresses the point by pointing out that,

> We teachers can see more clearly what we do if we describe what we do rather than judge what we do (we can) provide a rationale and a means so we can initiate and engage in the process of examining our own teaching on our own.

The principle enunciated above will guide in large part the recommendations that we shall be putting forward in the next section.

5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

The traditional method of supervision has been for a supervisor to attend a classroom lesson given by a trainee, and subsequently to discuss it with him (if he is the sympathetic type). Inevitably the discussion (if any) takes place after the lesson is over and the student normally finds it impossible or at least difficult to see in the supervisor's remarks an accurate picture of how he has behaved. While he is teaching, the trainee is usually so involved that it is difficult for him to stand back and consider his teaching behaviour objectively.

However, with this present proposal, trainees could be 'sensitized' to the use of audio recorders for the recording of their lessons for later transcription and analyses using FOCUS as the analytical tool. For the training of teachers-to-be, it is suggested that the procedure put forward in this part be adopted for practical training instead of the current method in vogue.

5.2.1 Proposals

There is the need for a Micro-teaching research unit in the University. The unit should be commissioned by the Faculty of Education to research and develop self-instructional micro-teaching materials for use in teacher training. It should also engage in the study of processes essential to the development, implementation and dissemination of self-instructional learning tools for teacher-training programmes. The creation of a data bank for the collection, storage and exchange of data with other similar institutions or units in the country and overseas should be included.

For the practical training of teachers especially at the higher levels (N.C.E.; B.Ed.; B.A. Ed.; PGDE), the major aims should be:

1. That students (trainees) be able and inclined to analyze their teaching as a deliberate and purposeful activity.
2. That students (trainees) have at their disposal a conceptual framework for the diagnostic assessment of teaching and that they be able to use same to identify limitations of their initial skills and strategies, thus being able to develop new patterns of behaviour appropriate to the situation in which they find themselves teaching.

For practical training and assessment purposes, the submission is that the stages presented below be examined for possible adoption based on the assumption that the programme will be executed within the micr teaching framework:

I. INTRODUCTION: A course to be known as "DISCOURSE ANALYSIS" be introduced. The introductory part of the course should be devoted to the techniques for classroom observation, lesson recording and tape transcription.

II . PROCEDURE:

(a) Each student for the programme should be made to select one topic at a time,

prepare the lesson and teach it within a micro-teaching framework. This should be audio-recorded by the student. Where possible, it should be video-taped.

(b) The recorded lesson should be transcribed within 24-48 hours of the recording by the student. This should be evaluated by the student without any strict guidelines from the teacher(supervisor).

(c) The transcription and analysis by the student should be examined by the supervisor and discussed with the trainee. Points to be raised at this stage should revolve round the taped transcription and students self-evaluation.

(d) The student should choose another lesson topic, prepare the lesson and teach it within the same micro-teaching framework. This should be audio-recorded and transcribed by the student. Where possible, the supervisor can have it video-taped. Student should also evaluate again this time with guidelines from supervisor. The guidelines should revolve round 'teacher-students talk'; 'questioning method'; 'feedback', etc.

(e) With the mastery of a tool from the'Discourse Analysis' class, the students should now

re-teach previous lessons, record, transcribe and analyse using the tools at their disposal.

(f) The lessons should be compared by the students giving critical comments.

(g) The student should see the supervisor in-charge of the programme with the analysis and critique. The supervisor will then give guidance and direction.

(h) Students can be divided into groups for the purposes of sharing ideas, observations and exchange of transcripts.

It should be noted that the number of lessons will depend on the duration of the programme and the availability of supervisors.

Assessments can be based on lesson recording, transcriptions, analysis and attendance/contributions at seminar. This way, the assessment can now take a more objective form since the supervisor will be assessing concrete facts and not subjective issues like dressing, facial appearance, use of blackboard, etc.

The following procedure for assessment is suggested though each school or college can use its own discretion.

(a) Each lesson should be awarded ten (10) marks for transcription and recording. This will take forty per cent (40%).

(b) Each analysis should be given some marks. The first two lessons should be given ten (10) marks each. The remaining two lessons should be given higher marks since they involve the use of analytical tools. We suggest fifteen marks (15) each. Total mark here will be thirty per cent (30%).

(c) The remaining ten marks (10%) should be allotted to attendance and seminar contributions.

SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATION OF TRAINING AND ASSESSMENT PROCEDURE

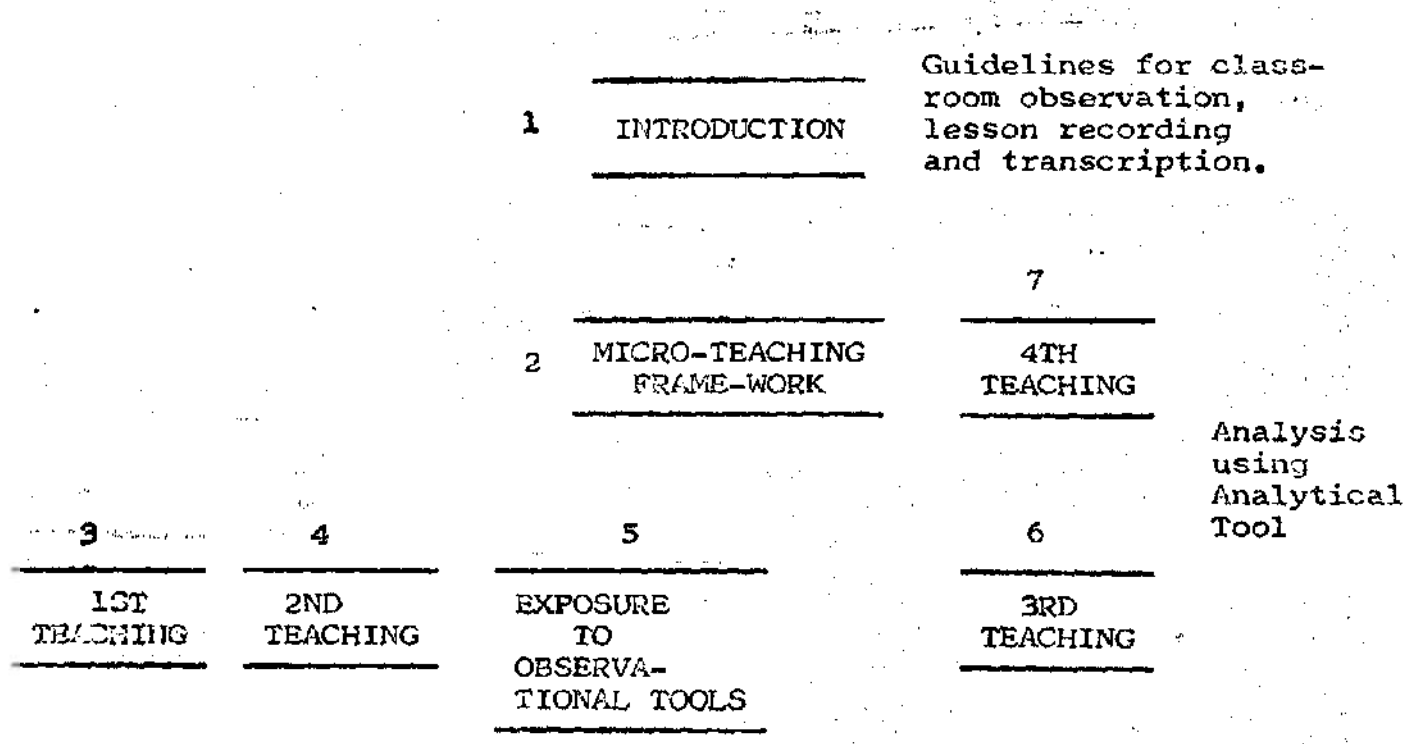


FIG. 6.

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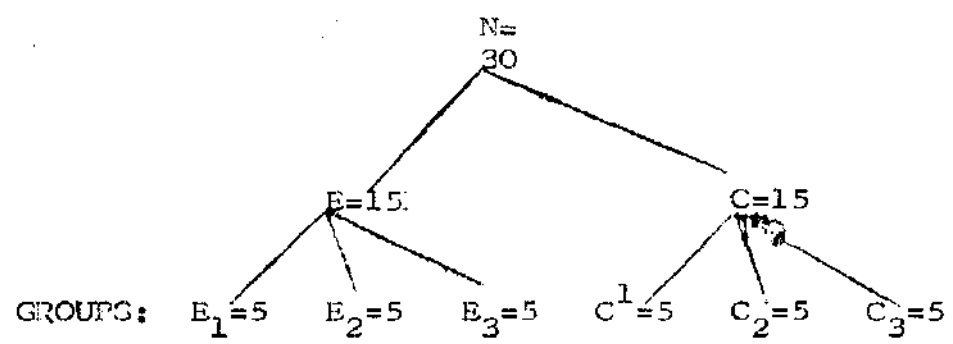
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APPENDIX 1

THE RESEARCH DESIGN



GROUPS TO BE TAUGHT

	STAGE I		STAGE II	
E_1	LESSON I	LESSON II	LESSON I	LESSON II
1	E2	E1	C2	C1
2	E3	E2	C3	C2
3	C1	E3	E1	C3
4	C2	C1	E2	E1
5	C3	C2	E3	E2
E_2				
1	E3	E2	C3	C2
2	C1	E3	E1	C3
3	C2	C1	E2	E1
4	C3	C2	E3	E2
5	E2	E1	C1	E3
E_3				
1	C1	E3	E1	C3
2	C2	C1	E2	E1
3	C3	C2	E3	E2
4	E1	C3	C1	E3
5	E2	E1	C2	C1

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

C_1

1	C2	C1	E2	E1
2	C3	C2	E3	E2
3	E1	C3	C1	E3
4	E2	E1	C2	C1
5	C3	E2	C3	C2

C_2

1	C3	C2	E3	E2
2	E2	E1	C2	C1
3	E3	E2	C3	C2
4	C1	E3	E1	C3
5	C2	C1	E2	E1

C_3

1	A	F	D	C
2	B	A	E	D
3	C	B	F	E
4	D	C	A	F
5	E	D	B	A

CONTROL GROUP

APPENDIX 2

SAMPLE LESSON AND ANALYSIS USING FOCUS

SETTING

Standard Classroom with five pupils. The teacher walks into the classroom.

Good afternoon class.

Good afternoon Madam.

This lesson is prepared for a form three class. Our topic for discussion this afternoon is "The verb".

Teacher writes the topic on the blackboard.

Listen to this simple sentence.

Audu kicked the ball

Audu kicked the ball.

I want you to think of other simple sentences like that.

Can you give me ..... (not heard clearly).

John played the ball.

Teacher writes on the board.

One other sentence.

Musa took a book.

Teacher writes on the board (noise of the chalk heard as she writes).

Good.

Looking at these sentences, let us start with (a) Can you identify the verb, that is the particular word that tells us what the subject is doing?

Yes?

Kicked.

Kicked.

Sentence b?

Played.

Played.

And C? Yes Felix.

Took.

Yes "took". Good.

Such words as those underlined on the board are known as verbs. They give us the action in a sentence. In other words, they tell us what the person we are talking about is doing or did depending on the time we are talking about.

So, the underlined words are "The doing words". "The doing words" or you could call them the action words. These are the group of words referred to as "the verb".

Can you give me other examples of verbs?

Yes, Felix.

Saw.

I mean different from these. Yes?

Felix. "saw".

(To another student) yes?

Carried.

"Carried" Yes.

These types of words are called verbs. You can have verbs in different types.

(a) A group of words known as auxiliary verbs tell us or they help the main verb to tell us what the subject is actually doing. For example:
"If you have this sentence "He will come".

(b) Writing on the board by the teacher

(she writes another sentence)

Do they mean the same?

"No".

Can you tell me the difference in meaning between the two?

The first sentence "He will come is positive".

Yes positive.

(continues) while the other one. He will not come is negetive.

That is he will come in the first sentence means you can expect him. The second sentence. The person will not come. The person will not come at all.

You can..... how did you arrive at this difference in meaning?

Yes?

In sentence (b) there is the word, will not.

Will not.

Yes, what of sentence b?

Will.

Good.

Such words as those underlined are known as auxiliary verbs or you can call them 'helping verbs'. Noise, sound of writing on the chalkboard.

Can you give me other examples of auxiliary verbs?

For instance.....can, could .....

Shall

Yes shall

am

"am".

Yes.

Could.

Yes, could.

So these are the group of words known as auxiliary verbs or helping verbs.

Another group of verbs is the type known as 'transitive verbs'. Transitive verbs.

These are the types of verbs that you can use with objects. That is when you are telling us something about somebody.

If the action of that person passes from the subject on to an object: like

Noise: teacher writes.

So you have "Audu kicked the ball". "They played a game".

I want you to give more examples or sentences where you have subject and objects. That is where the action of the subject passes on to an object.

Yes, Fina?

Mary beat the girl.

noise, teacher writes sentence on the board.

The underlined words are the objects.

You can see that in these three examples, you have the subject but the action of the subject doesn't just end with the verb. It passes on to a sufferer.

Or if you like, you can call it an object, such are the verbs called "transitive verbs".

The other group of verbs we are going to talk about are the intransitive verbs, they do not take objects, like, she is weeping. She is weeping.

Now, has the action of the girls passed to any other thing?

No.

No, so, you have only told us what the subject did but the action ends with the subject, you have no object.

Can you give me an example?

She is weeping.

Any more example?

The man died.

(repeat) "The man died".

noise, teacher writes sentences on the board.

All right. Felix?

She look sad.

repeats. "She looks sad".

Good.

noise, teacher writes the sentence on the board.

So you can see that .....

FOCUS

Sn No.	Source & Target	Move Type	Medium	Use	Content
1.	T-C	str	LA	Pre:State	life
2.	C-T	res	LA	rep:imit	life
3.	T-C	str	LA	char:label	study
4.	T-C	str	sit	pre:state	proc
5.	T-C	sol	LA	pre:elit	proc
6.	T-C	str	LA	pre:state	study
7.	T-S	sol	LA/PLA	pre:elit	proc
8.	S-T	res	LA	Pre:state	study
9.	T-C	rea	PLA/LV	rep:imit	proc
10.	T-S	Sol	LA/PLA	pre:elit	proc
11.	S-T	res	LA	pre:state	study
12.	T-C	rea	PL/LV	rep:imit	proc
13.	T-S	rea	LA	char:eval	study
14.	T-C	sol	LA	pre:elit	proc
15.	T-S	sol	LA'PLA	pre:elit	proc
16.	S-T	res	LA	pre:state	study
17.	T-S	rea	LA	rep:imit	study
18.	T-S	sol	LA/PLA	pre:elit	proc.
19.	S-T	res	LA	Pre:state	study
20.	T-S	rea	LA	rep:imit	study
21.	T-S	sol	LA/PLA	pre:elit	proc
22.	S-T	res	LA	pre:state	study
23.	T-S	rea	LA	char:eval	proc

Sn No.	Source & Target	Move Type	Medium	Use	Content
24.	T-C	str	LA	char:explain	study
25.	T-C	str	LA	char;label	study
26	T-C	sol	LA	Pre:elit	proc
27.	T-C	sol	LA/PLA	pre:elit	proc
28.	S-T	res	LA	pre:state	study
29.	T-S	rea	LA	set	proc
30.	S-T	res	LA	rep:imit	study
31.	T-S	sol	LA/PLA	pre:elit	proc
32.	S-T	res	LA	pre:state	study
323.	T-S	rea	LA	rep:imit	study
34.	T-C	str	LA	Char:label	study
35.	T-C	str	LA	resp:expl	study
36.	T-C	str	LA	pre:state	study
37.	T-C	sol	LA/PLA	pre:elit	proc
38.	C-T	res	LA	Char:eval	study
39.	T-C	Sol	LA/PLA	pre:elit	proc
40.	S-T	res	LA	char:eval	study
41.	T-S	rea	LA	char:eval	proc
42.	S-T	res	LA	char:illus	study
43.	T-C	str	LA	char:illus	study
44.	T-S	sol	LA	pre:eli	proc
45.	T-S	sol	LA/PLA	pre:elit	proc
46.	S-T	res	LA	pre:state	study
47.	T-S	rea	LA	rep:imit	proc
48.	T-C	sol	LA/PLA	pre:elit	proc

Sn No.	Source & Target	Move Type	Medium	Use	Content
49.	S-T	res	LA	pre:state	study
50.	T-S	rea	LA	char:eval	proc
51.	T-C	rea	LA	rep:inter	study
52.	T-C	sol	LA	pre:elit	proc
53.	T-C	str	LA	pre-state	kroc
54.	S-T	res	LA	pre:state	study
55.	T-S	rea	LA	char:eval	proc
56.	S-T	res	LA	Pre:state	study
57.	T-S	rea	LA	repr:imit	study
58.	T-S	sol	LA/PLA	pre:elit	proc
59.	S-T	res	LA	pre:state	study
60.	T-S	rea	LA	char:eval	study
61.	T-C	str	LA	char:label	study
62.	T-C	str	LA	char:label	study
63.	T-C	str	LA	relate:expl	proc
64.	T-C	str	PLA/LV	pre:state	proc
65.	T-C	str	LA	pre:state	proc
66.	T-C	sol	LA	pre:elit	proc
67.	T-C	sol	LA/PLA	pre:elit	proc
68.	S-T	res	LA	pre:state	study
69.	T-C	rea	LA/LV	char:label	proc
70.	T-C	str	LA	relate/ interprt	study
71.	T-C	str	LA	char:label	study
72.	T-C	str	LA	relate/ explain	proc

Sn No.	Source & Target	Move Type	Medium	Use	Content
73	T-S	sol	LA/PLA	pre:elit	proc
74	C-T	resp	LA	char:eval	study
75.	T-C	rea	LA	set	proc
76.	T-S	sol	LA/PLA	pre:elit	proc
77.	S-T	res	LA	repr:trans	study
78.	T-C	sol	LA/PLA	pre:elit	proc
79.	S-T	res	LA	pre:state	study
80.	T-S	rea	LA	rep:imit	proc
81.	T-S	sol	LAEPLA	pre:elit	proc
82.	S-T	res	LA	pre:state	study
83.	T-S	rea	LA	rep:imit	proc
84	T-S	rea	LA	char:eval	study
85.	T-C	rea	LA	rep;imit;	study
86.	T-C	str	LA	pre:state	proc