University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

A STUDY OF LINGUISTIC AND DISCOURSE FEATURES USED BY TEACHERS AND STUDENTS IN ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOM INTERACTION IN EKITI STATE, NIGERIA

BY

OLADUNNI OLUFUNSO DEJI-AFUYE

Student Number 202115422

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

A thesis submitted for requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy in Languages and Literature in the Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities at the University of Fort Hare

Supervisor: Dr Sindiso Zhou

30 August 2023

DECLARATION

I, **Oladunni Olufunso Deji-Afuye,** with student number **202115422,** hereby declare that ***A Study of Linguistic and Discourse Features Used by Teachers and Students in English as a Second Language Classroom Interaction in Ekiti State, Nigeria*** is my work and has not been submitted to any other institution of higher learning for the award of any qualification or degree and that all sources I have used have been acknowledged in the text and in the list of references.

Signature……  Date: 30/08/2023

Signature  Date: 30/08/2023

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

DEDICATION

To my husband, Pastor Dr Omotola Deji Afuye; your prayers and words of encouragement have always given me strength. And to our children, who have always been optimistic about the success of this work; you will surely excel in life, in the mighty name of Jesus.



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My appreciation goes to the Almighty God, the lover of my soul, for giving me strength, inspiration, courage, sound health and grace to have this great accomplishment. You have made me a watered garden. Thank you, my Lord, Jesus. My sincere gratitude also goes to my intelligent and supportive supervisor, Dr. Sindiso Zhou, for her professional assistance, guidance, support, tutelage, and time. Your quick responses, encouraging words, and advice kept me going at every point of my research study.

As for my husband, Pastor Dr. Omotola Deji Afuye, my most enthusiastic encourager, I find it awesome to express my appreciation not only for your motivation to proceed on this doctoral journey but also your belief in my success. I cherish your love, support, and prayers. To our wonderful children, Opeyeoluwa, Oluwakayode, and Temiloluwa; I say thank you for your patience, remarkable contributions in collating and typing part of the information and documents used for my research.

My heartfelt appreciation to members of the faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, especially the department of English and Comparative Studies, for their support. I sincerely thank the Vice chancellor and the entire management team of Bamidele Olumilua University of Education Science and Technology, Ikere Ekiti, for releasing me to pursue this remarkable feat. My gratitude also goes to the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, Ekiti State, Nigeria for granting me permission to conduct research in the schools. To the school principals, teachers and students, goes my propound gratitude.

I cannot but thank Pastor Dr. Segun Ikusika, for his invaluable contributions to the successful completion of my study. Your words of advice and the sacrifices you made to make me comfortable during the period of my stay in Alice are worthy of mention. I appreciate Bro Dotun Awosusi, Dr. Festus Akinmoladun, Pastor Ademola Bunmi, Bro Tobi Aduradola, Prof. Omobola Okoh of the Chemistry Department, and the entire members of the Redeemed Christian Church of God in South Africa for their care and support. To my parents, Revd. and Chief Mrs. Enoch Idowu Ayeni, my siblings, and the Afuye family, I say thank you. To all friends and well-wishers, may the Lord bless you all in the name of Jesus.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ABSTRACT

This study explored the linguistic and discourse features teachers and students use in English second language classroom interaction in selected secondary schools in Ekiti state, Nigeria. The major aim of the study was to identify the common features of the linguistic choices made by teachers and students and ascertain their effects on students' verbal participation in classroom interaction and teachers' use of student-centred learning. The study used a mixed method research involving qualitative and quantitative approaches and followed a case study and descriptive research design. The approaches were triangulated to analyse extracts from 20 recorded classroom lessons and the information gathered through student questionnaires and teacher interviews.

The findings of the study showed that the linguistic choices of teachers and students during classroom interactions significantly affected the classroom discourse structure, students' verbal participation and teachers' use of the student-centred learning approach. The teachers seemed concerned with accomplishing their tasks of teaching the content and, as such, engaged mostly in initiating classroom exchanges, giving feedback and keeping the interactions under control to the extent that students were mainly engaged to provide limited responses to teacher initiations. The study found that the sociocultural backgrounds of the participants greatly impacted their beliefs, linguistic choices, and classroom interactions. The findings further acknowledged that the asymmetrical interaction between teachers and their students resulted from several factors, some of which included teachers' pedagogical philosophies, students' perceptions, and attitudes to classroom participation, limited learning resources, and examination-based instructional tasks.

The study recommended teachers' further professional training to enhance their discourse and pedagogical practices, provision of language teaching/learning resources and conducive classroom environments, and applicable language policy and curriculum for the development of students' communication proficiency.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Keywords: Classroom interaction; Linguistic features; Discourse; Linguistic choice; English as a second language; Pedagogy; Classroom practice; Verbal participation; Teacher-centred learning; Student-centred learning; Nigerian context



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ABBREVIATIONS

ESL	English as a Second Language
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
IRF	Initiation-Response-Feedback/follow-up
IRE	Initiation-Response-Evaluation
IDF	Initiation-Description-Feedback
ABL	Activity-Based Learning
ELL	English Language Learners
SS	Senior Secondary
COLT	Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
L1	First/Native Language
L2	Second Language
SLT	Situational Language Teaching
TRP	Total Physical Response
EIA	English in Action
GELT	Global English Language Teaching
ELT	English Language Teaching
ELF	English as a Lingua Franca
WE	World Englishes
ESP	English for Special Purposes
S&C	Sinclair and Coulthard
SFL	Systemic Functional Linguistics

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

CDA	Critical Discourse Analysis
DA	Discourse Analysis
FIACS	Flanders Interaction Analysis Category System
NCE	Nigeria Certificate in Education

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 Types of acts, notation, and function 84

Table 2.2 Patterns of classroom interaction 91

Table 3.1 Classification of speech acts 104

Table 3.2 The Hierarchical Relations and Types of Exchange, Move and Act 110

Table 3.3 Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories 113

Table 5.1 Biographical data of sample 144

Table 5.2 Teachers' linguistic choices 147

Table 5.3 Percentage of occurrence of students' linguistic moves 160

Table 5.4 Observation of students' verbal participation 170

Table 5.5 Observation of teachers' use of the student-centred approach 172

Table 5.6 Age of the students 174

Table 5.7 Gender of the students 175

Table 5.8 What are your reasons and purposes for learning English? 176

Table 5.9 How do you find English classes? 177

Table 5.10 How easy or difficult do you find your English lessons? 178

Table 5.11 Do you participate verbally in class? 179

Table 5.12 What does participation mean to you? 180

Table 5.13 Do you speak English outside the classroom? 181

Table 5.14 Do you understand your teacher when he/she is explaining? 182

Table 5.15 Can you express yourself verbally in English? 183

Table 5.16 Do you get nervous if you have to talk in the classroom? 184

IN LUMINE TUO VIDE BIMUS LUMEN

University of Port Harcourt

Together in Excellence

Table 5.17 Do you feel anxious when your teacher asks you questions in the classroom? 185

Table 5.18 Do you get confused when you speak English in the classroom? 185

Table 5.19 Do you get embarrassed whenever you speak English incorrectly? 186

Table 5.20 Are you afraid to speak English because of being ridiculed? 187

Table 5.21 Students' perceptions of teachers' use of Student-Centred Learning 188



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 Sinclair and Coulthard's Rank Scale 96

Figure 3.1 Sinclair and Coulthard's Initiation-Response-Follow-up model 102

Figure 5.1 Age of students 175

Figure 5.2 Gender of students 176

Figure 5.3 Reasons and purposes for learning English 177

Figure 5.4 How students find English classes 178

Figure 5.5 How easy or difficult students find English lessons 179

Figure 5.6 How often students participate verbally in class 180

Figure 5.7 Meaning of participation 181

Figure 5.8 How often students speak English outside the classroom 182

Figure 5.9 Students' understanding of teacher explanations 183

Figure 5.10 Students' verbal expression in English 184

Figure 5.11 Students' feeling of nervousness during classroom talk 184

Figure 5.12 Students' anxiety to answer teachers' questions in the classroom 186

Figure 5.13 Students' confusion when speaking English in the classroom 186

Figure 5.14 Students' embarrassment when they speak incorrect English 187

Figure 5.15 Students' fear to speak English because of being ridiculed 187

Figure 7.1 Participatory Linguistic Model of Whole-Class Interaction 267

Figure 7.2 Application Scheme for the Participatory Linguistic Model of Whole-Class Interaction 268

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION i
DEDICATION ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS iii
ABSTRACT iv
ABBREVIATIONS vi
LIST OF TABLES viii
LIST OF FIGURES x
CHAPTER 1 1
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY 1
1.0 Introduction 1
1.1 Background to the study 1
1.2 Statement of the Problem 11
1.3 Aims and Objectives of the Study 13
1.4 Research Questions 13
1.5 Significance of the Study 14
1.6 Delimitation of the Study 15
1.7 Research methodology 16
1.7.1 Participants and Sampling 17
1.7.2 Data Collection Instruments 18
1.8 Ethics Statement 20
1.9 Envisaged Structure of the Thesis 21
1.10 Conclusion 23
CHAPTER 2 24
LITERATURE REVIEW 24
2.0 Introduction 24
2.1 History of English Language in Nigeria 24
2.2 Language Pedagogy 28
2.2.1 Methods of Language Teaching 30
2.2.1.1 Grammar Translation Method 31
2.2.1.2 Direct Method 31

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

2.2.1.2 Situational Language Teaching and Audiolingual Method 32
2.2.1.4 Total Physical Response 34
2.2.1.5 Silent Way 34
2.2.1.6 Communicative Language Teaching 35
2.2.1.7 Implementation of CLT in ESL Classroom 37
2.3 Teacher-Centred and Student-Centred pedagogy 39
2.4 Classroom Practices in English as a Second Language (ESL) Context 43
2.5 English Pedagogy in the Nigerian Context 48
2.6 Defining Classroom Discourse and Interaction 50
2.7 Influence of Classroom Discourse on ESL Classroom Interaction and Learning 52
2.8 Classroom Interaction and Language Learning/Use in the Nigerian Situation 57
2.9 Teacher-student interaction 63
2.9.1 Talk in teacher-student interaction 63
2.9.2 Teacher talk 67
2.9.3 Teachers' Questioning 68
2.9.4 Teachers' feedback 72
2.9.5 Teachers' Correction 73
2.9.6 Student talk 75
2.10 Views on classroom discourse 77
2.11 Organisational Structure of classroom discourse 80
2.11.1 Lesson 81
2.11.2 Transactions 82
2.11.3 Exchanges 82
2.11.4 Moves 83
2.11.5 Acts 83
2.12 Linguistic features of classroom interaction 89
2.13 Conclusion 93
CHAPTER 3 95
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK 95
3.0 Introduction 95
3.1 Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) Theory 96
3.1.1 Principles of Systemic Functional Linguistics 96
3.2 Sinclair and Coulthard Model 100

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

3.3 Discourse Analysis (DA) 106
3.3.1 Discourse Analysis as a Research Technique 107
3.4 Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories System 112
3.4.1 Analysis of classroom interaction in FIAC 113
3.5 The Intersection of the Three Theories 115
3.6 Conclusion 116
CHAPTER 4 118
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY 118
4.0 Introduction 118
4.1 Scope of the Study 118
4.2 Research Approach 120
4.2.1 Qualitative Research 120
4.2.2 Quantitative Research 122
4.2.3 Mixed Method 124
4.3 Research Design 127
4.3.1 Case Study 128
4.3.2 Survey 128
4.4 Description of Population and Sampling Procedure 129
4.4.1 Population 129
4.4.2 Sample and Sampling Procedure 130
4.4.3 Sampling Procedure 131
4.5 Research Instruments and Data Collection Procedures 133
4.5.1 Observation 133
4.5.2 Questionnaire 136
4.5.3 One-on-one Interviews 137
4.6 Data analysis 139
4.7 Pilot Study 139
4.8 Validity and Reliability of Research Instruments 140
4.9 Ethical Considerations 141
4.10 Conclusion 142
CHAPTER 5 143
DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS 143
5.0 Introduction 143

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

5.1 Demographic Distribution 144
5.2 Classroom Observation 145
5.2.1 Teachers' Linguistic Choices 147
5.2.2 Students' Linguistic Choices 160
5.2.3 Students' Verbal Participation 170
5.2.4 Teachers' Use of Student-Centred Approach 172
5.3 Researcher's Perceptions on the overall observations 173
5.4 Quantitative Data Presentation and Analysis 174
5.5 Qualitative Data Presentation and Analysis 189
5.5.1 Summary of the Interviews 205
5.6 Summary 206
CHAPTER 6 208
DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS 208
6.0 Introduction 208
6.1 Discussion of Findings 209
6.2 Features of Teachers' Linguistic Choices 209
6.2.1 Teachers' Initiating Moves 210
6.2.2 Teachers' Responding Moves 215
6.2.3 Teachers' Feedback/Follow-up Moves 216
6.3 Features of Students' Linguistic Choices 218
6.3.1 Students' Initiating Moves 219
6.3.2 Students' Responding Moves 221
6.3.3 Students' Feedback Moves 223
6.4 Effects of Participants' Linguistic Choices on Students' Verbal Participation in the Classroom 224
6.5 Teachers' Experiences of Students' Verbal Participation in the Classroom 229
6.6 Classroom Processes and Practices in Engaging Students in Verbal Participation 231
6.7 Teachers' Plans towards Improving Students' Verbal Participation 234
6.8 Influence of Classroom Talk on Implementing Student-Centred Approach 235
6.9 Teachers' Understanding of Student-Centred Approach 241
6.10 Students' Perceptions of Teachers' Motivation towards Student-Centred Learning 242
6.11 Barriers to Implementing Student-Centred Learning 245
6.12 Conclusion 247
CHAPTER 7 249

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS 249
7.0 Introduction 249
7.1 Review of the Research Problem and Research Questions 249
7.2 Summary of Findings 250
7.2.1 Features of Classroom Participants' Linguistic Choices 250
7.2.2 Effects of Participants' Linguistic Choices on Students' Verbal Participation in the Classroom 254
7.2.3 Influence of classroom Talk on Implementing Student-Centred Approach 256
7.3 Classroom Interaction in Whole-Class Teaching 259
7.4 The Participatory Linguistic Model of Whole-Class Interaction 261
7.5 Recommendations 271
7.5.1 Teacher's Beliefs and Classroom Practices 271
7.5.2 Ministry of Education 273
7.5.3 Language Policy and Curriculum Development 275
7.6 Conclusion 277
7.6.1 Suggestions for Further Research 278
REFERENCES 279
APPENDICES 310

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.0 Introduction

Classroom interaction as a crucial component of the teaching and learning process brings about classroom communication. Classroom communication is a fundamental part of effective teaching and learning processes in the educational system (Reinke, Herman & Newcomer, 2016). The interactional pattern between the teacher and the students through verbal exchanges, the questions they ask, the responses, and reactions, including their linguistic choices, can build up the expected classroom climate and improve the participants' language skills (Ononye, 2015). Developing interactive displays is one of the ways through which communication can be enhanced in the classroom (Oloninisi, 2019). This study is conducted to investigate how the linguistic choices made by participants could contribute to successful and effective classroom interactions, which in turn will lead to learners' communicative competence in English. This chapter focuses on the background to the study, the statement of the problem, the study's aims and objectives, research questions, the significance, delimitation of the study, a brief description of the research methodology employed in the study, ethics statement and the structure of the study.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

1.1 Background to the study

In a multilingual society like Nigeria, English plays a crucial role. Without it, social interaction, education, international communications, personal development, and many more would have been challenging. Between the end of the 19th and early 20th century,

laws were issued affirming English as Nigeria's official language (Ikande, 2019). In the Nigerian educational system, in particular, English serves as both a subject of study and a language of instruction for students at all levels (Njoku, 2017). These are part of the reasons more attention and resources are devoted to its teaching and learning in the country. According to Odinko and Williams (2006), there is more emphasis on teaching the language for communication as specified in the National Policy on Education.

Sundari (2017) notes that when more emphasis is being placed on communicative language teaching, classroom interaction and its language have been the fundamental issues in teaching and learning English. Communicative competence is one of the most prominent developments in language teaching (Azimova, 2019). Consequently, real experience and special communicative activities are advocated to develop students' language proficiency. Murnane and Levy (1996) and other scholars like Amuseghan (2007) and Agbatogun (2013) have argued that the new basic skills in education demand the capacity for effective oral and written communication as well as the ability to work in collaboration with people from different backgrounds. These skills are necessary for effective learning in schools. Thus, the growing focus on communication skills in education requires that classroom interaction is significantly improved to support the development of these skills. Based on the assertion that the essence of language is to communicate intelligibly in all contexts, Adebileje and Akinola (2020) are of the opinion that skilful classroom interaction must be employed to reach the expected level of communicative competence.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Language is very significant in the interaction that takes place between teachers and students in a classroom situation (Amatari, 2015; Al-Smadi & Rashid, 2017). It is no news

that teachers have long understood the essence of using language to transmit ideas. However, one of the challenges in Nigerian classrooms is preparing students to use the English language to make them competent participants in classroom interaction and, by extension, in real-life situations (Mercy, 2019). Overcoming the challenges can be most determined by the linguistic model to which the students are exposed. Oloninisi (2019) identifies poor teacher modelling as one of the factors affecting classroom interactional behaviours and communicative competence in English in Nigeria. Therefore, it is essential for teachers to provide an environment where they and the students, through the use of language, can mutually foster learning and concurrently create the right atmosphere for learning and, more importantly, proficient communication (Oloninisi, 2019).



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

In this twenty-first century, curriculum reforms support student-led and student-to-student talks other than teacher-led and teacher-student talks alone to promote substantial and sustainable learning to lead to the development of individuals (Idogho, 2016). As noted by Idogho (2016), in Nigeria, many teachers find it difficult to provide an environment for such interactions due to several factors, such as cultural environment, parental and child training attitudes, and a school-centred paradigm. As Zhao (2007) observed, in some cases, the classroom discourse assumes more respect from students towards the teacher. The atmosphere in such a classroom is usually serious. Students should sit quietly in rows and listen to the teacher talk without interruption or questions. Students should show respect towards their teacher in class and out-of-class situations by first greeting the teacher. It is considered impolite for students to call their teacher by name or to interrupt the teacher in a classroom session. Consequently, the relationship and

interactions between teachers and students are always tense. However, Williams (2017) has advocated a responsive classroom approach, a student-centred and interpersonal learning approach to teaching and classroom management. It promotes friendly, comfortable, and engaging learning environments for both students and teachers.

The classroom is a social system that fosters relationships between the teacher and the students. Interaction between teachers and students becomes significant for a successful relationship in this social system (Fredson, 2015). Teacher-student interaction creates a bond between them and improves the learning environment in the classroom. A harmonious classroom environment and a welcoming relationship between the teacher and the students can be fostered through appropriate teacher talk, which will lead to more possibilities for interactions. The best social relationship comes from the cooperation between the teacher and the students. The teacher's role is to develop a supportive relationship by creating a positive classroom environment (i.e., an environment that offers the best conditions and opportunities to boost students' learning, participation, and interaction. Allen, Gregory, Mikami, Lun, Hamre and Pianta (2013) note that Hamre and Pianta (2010) developed an evaluation method that classifies the features of teacher-student interactions into three main categories: emotional support, classroom organisation, and instructional support.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Several factors can influence classroom dynamics (linguistic, cultural and educational backgrounds, age, gender, ethnicity, and educational experiences). The complex dynamics in the classroom can advance or inhibit the interaction between teachers and students (Fredson, 2015). This challenge could account for some imbalances and inequalities in classroom participation. Differences in classroom participation could also

be linked to socialisation patterns in society. Another factor that may affect participation patterns is culture because it is intertwined with language. For instance, in some cultures, someone younger is not expected to enter discourse without an invitation from the elderly. This kind of culture may account for students' silence in some ESL classrooms where the teachers are always expected to initiate talk and do more of the talking than the students. A supportive relationship between teacher and students could lessen the adverse effects of these factors on students' participation in the classroom (Smit, Dijk, Bot & Lowie, 2021)

Social power is an essential aspect of social connections that significantly alters language and communication in all communication contexts. In real communication, people do more than talking; they exhibit behaviour that is usually determined by social forces in which people take up positions in relation to one another. Scholl, Ellemer, Sassenberg and Scheepers (2015) note that power symbolises a fundamental factor of human judgement and how people perceive interpersonal relationships. Language perception, nonverbal behaviour (such as tone and body language), and language usage (verbal signals) are all influenced by social power. This phenomenon relates to the pattern of communication that goes on in the classroom. According to Inegbedion (2010), the power exhibited by the teacher emanates through their capacity as the custodian of what goes on in the classroom and his or her responsibility to ensure that rules are observed in the classroom. As teachers apply such power, it has an impact on students' affective learning, motivation to participate in class activities and academic performances (Elmabruk & Etarhuni, 2021).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Even though interaction, according to Ellis (1990), is motivated by meaning and carried out to enable conversation and forestall communication breakdown, classroom

interaction has some specific characteristics. It serves a variety of purposes, including formal instruction, management of class activities, and the development of group work, all of which are controlled by the teacher. Many researchers have proved further that three of the factors that influence classroom interaction are teacher's communication style, teacher power strategies, and teacher behaviour (Tuan & Nhu, 2010; Jose, 2016; Huriyah & Agustiani, 2018; Atuboinoma & Amadi, 2021 and Elmabruk & Etarhuni, 2021).

According to Dodu (2013), one of the ways to understand classroom interaction is to study its linguistic characteristics and adjustments. Such a study provides the opportunity to recognise the cognitive process involved in producing and understanding the verbal behaviour of teachers and students and the language used to organise and manage the classroom. Linguistic features relate to the grammatical and lexical choices made by participants in discourse, while the features of classroom discourse consist of uneven power relations, turn-taking, interactional pattern, etc. (Benham & Pouriran, 2009).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Examining the discourse of classroom interaction provides the avenue to evaluate talk in the classroom (Soto, 2020). It is the analysis of communication between teacher and students during instructional interactions to find the extent to which teachers control the lesson content, the pattern of discussion between teacher and students, and the pattern of turn-taking. The purpose is to ascertain what approaches teachers adopt and what discourse patterns relate to better learning, students' participation, and language use. Rymes (2016) states that classroom discourse analysis aims to understand the persistent social inequalities that structure and impact classroom interactions rather than only analyse discourse as an isolated language phenomenon. It is also to make teachers

understand how social conditions constrain interactions in the classroom to help teachers develop an enhanced perception that will lead to challenging the force of social structure.

There has been a growing interest among educators and researchers to analyse the classroom process. A number of researchers have worked on teacher-student classroom interaction, focusing on the language the teacher and the students use, the interaction produced, and their effects on second language learning and students' educational achievement. Some of the earlier studies emphasised the amount and quality of teacher talk within the framework of the communicative approach (Consolo, 2006; Alexander, 2008; Lei, 2009; Hurst, Wallace, & Nixon, 2013). Adaba (2017), Nikula, Dalto-Puffer and Llinare (2013), Achor, Danjuma and Orji (2019), Wang (2020), Atuboinoma and Amadi (2021), Smit et al. (2021), and Abuh (2021) have emphasised classroom discourse as an evidence base for students' learning, language use, and knowledge development. Some of the studies that have been conducted on the interaction patterns of classroom talks identified the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) pattern and some, Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) patterns (Nystrand, Wu, Gamoran, Zeise & Long, 2001; Yanfen & Yuqin, 2010; Evnitskaya, 2018; Wang, 2020).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Classroom interaction studies from Nigeria such as Hardman, Abd-Kadir and Smith (2008), Ugwuadu (2011), Odutuyi (2012), Fakeye and Amao (2013), Dada (2015), Omozele (2017), and Nnorom and Erhabor (2019) have examined the extent to which classroom interaction patterns and students' participation predicted students' achievement in their various subjects. A study by Fakeye (2007) indicated the extent to which teachers' use of display and referential questions impacts teacher-students interaction in the ESL classroom. Ononye (2015) identified the style and lexical choices

in classroom interaction with the aim of establishing the functions of language in teaching and learning.

Other studies on classroom interaction have argued that learners improve communication skills when actively involved and participate in communicative tasks that facilitate interaction (Amusehan, 2007; Agbatogun, 2013; Deji-Afuye & Obadare, 2019; Anana, 2019; Oloninisi, 2019). Amuseghan (2007) critically looks at the English as a Second Language (ESL) curriculum and finds that the curriculum adjustments have failed to strike a reasonable balance between linguistic and communicative competence. Passing English examinations at the secondary school level has taken precedence over learning all its aspects for more effective communication and social interactions. Thus, the teaching pedagogies have always been such that they stress examination-oriented English learning. This approach has always produced several students who passed through Nigerian secondary schools annually still lacking in communicative competence. To corroborate the findings, Deji-Afuye and Obadare (2019) note that English language teachers in Nigerian secondary schools still use teacher-centred methods that do not improve students' performance in English communication.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

In a study conducted by Anana (2019), the roles of teachers and students in classroom discourse were examined. She observed that students could not talk confidently and audibly because of the "conspicuous unequal power relation, influence, and authority asymmetrically distributed between the participants (the teacher and his students)." Anana noted that the teacher's responses in the discourse exposed the power and privileges he expressed due to his exalted and powerful position. In this study, it was observed that the students were aware of this irregularity and the discourse role

associated with the teacher's position. This awareness by the students often affected the students' participation in class. The study described a typical teacher-centred approach to teaching and that this approach made it difficult for teachers to engage students in classroom discussions that can develop their communicative skills. As Fredson (2015) and Mardani and Gorjizadeh (2020) note, the teacher-centred approach does not give adequate room for cooperative learning; rather, it is the teacher's responsibility to create learning situations in which students may express themselves verbally, collaborate, and make mistakes and errors. The teacher must adopt a new perspective on pupils' mistakes to encourage language learning.

According to a study by Agbatogun (2013) using informal and formal observations, many teachers who are currently teaching and students preparing to teach the English language find it difficult to get learners to participate in classroom talk. It was noted in the study that the instructional strategies used in the classrooms observed were mostly teacher-centred. Most of the time, teachers often dominate the classroom conversation, leaving students with little to no opportunity to speak because they believe that close and continual control over classroom interaction is needed to achieve their teaching goals (Collins, Harkin, & Nind, 2010). Whenever learners are allowed to talk, they typically respond to teachers' questions with short and simple sentences. Such responses provide little opportunity for them to present their thoughts and express ideas as required.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Moreover, there has been a high demonstration of students' lack of confidence in expressing themselves in English (Jibowo, 2010). It is unarguable that the problem of mass failure in English produces students' low levels of fluency in English. As it happens in most countries across the globe, the researcher also observed that, on a few occasions,

when the teachers needed to ask questions, extroverts who raised their hands to show their readiness to answer questions were mostly allowed to talk during the instructional processes.

Oloninisi (2019) argues that teachers are confronted with communication problems with learners because the academic and cognitive levels of the learners are not the same. Therefore, he identifies Activity Based Learning (ABL) as a constructive approach to raising the learners' interest and making them learn in a friendly environment. According to him, ABL helps teachers to introduce activities through which learners are exposed to organised opportunities to talk with their peers in group discussions and exercises. In this case, teachers are able to model and teach learners how to use their language for thinking and learning. However, the question is – Are these teachers good models of English learning? Some of the teachers lack linguistic and strategic competence in English (Adejumobi, 2007).

University of Fort Hare

As noticed by Adejumobi (2007), Amuseghan (2007), and Ugwuanyi (2012), among other scholars, an average Nigerian English teacher's knowledge of English is limited to linguistic competence (that is, having insightful knowledge of the different linguistic forms of a language. He lacks communicative competence, that is, the skills to use the language in a suitable context and real-life situations. Thus, he "talks like a book", using only the formal variety for all purposes. Ugwuanyi (2012) further states that teaching and learning English in Nigeria today is grammar-based; little attention is placed on teaching the language to develop learners' communicative competence. The learners are just taught the language rules, which they learn to pass examinations and obtain certificates. They

are hardly able to use the language properly. Consequently, there is low productivity of confident and competent students in the use of the language.

Ononye (2015) attempts to investigate the styles and linguistic choices in teacher-student classroom interactions to ascertain the part language plays as a vehicle of the content and style in teaching/learning. He identifies the two styles used by the classroom participants as informative and evaluative styles. According to this study, these styles are found to be indexed by specific lexical choices made by the participants. The informative style is characterised by the register, synonym, antonym, hyponym, and colloquialism. Evaluative style is described as a way in which language users use value-laden words to express an opinion and is indexed by collocation. On the other hand, the informal style is a manner of language use in which the major goal is to enlighten the audience. He concludes that the teachers dominate the use of all lexical features except colloquialism.

The present study has been spurred by the need to improve English language teaching and learning, emphasising students' verbal participation as one of the strategies to help students develop interaction aptitude in Nigerian classrooms. The study seeks to investigate how the linguistic choices made by participants could contribute to successful and effective classroom interactions, which will lead to learners 'enhanced communicative competence in English.

University of Fort Hare

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The examination-based pedagogy in the Nigerian education system has necessitated less practice of teaching English for communication. This situation has impacted the English language teaching practices at both primary and post-primary levels. Developing communication competence should be one of the major reasons for learning the English

language. Communicative competence is not just about having the knowledge of English as a language but being able to interact with others using appropriate language in different contexts. However, studies have shown that in most Nigerian situations, there has been a decline in both the communicative and linguistic competence of the learners of English as a second language (Amuseghan, 2007; Agbatogun, 2013; Mercy, 2019). Even though most stakeholders in education in Nigeria are aware of the necessity to embrace a modern approach to language teaching known as communicative language teaching, the necessary modalities and materials to facilitate this approach are still lacking, and there is still underachievement in English language use among learners.

Anana (2019) observed that a teacher's classroom talks often reveal the power and control he exhibits due to his position as a teacher in the classroom. The author argues that students' awareness of such irregularity and the discourse function attributed to the teacher's position affect their full participation in class and account for teacher-centred classrooms. A conventional teacher-centred teaching method makes it challenging for teachers to involve students in class discussions that can improve their communicative abilities. Therefore, conducting more research is required to further explore the situation with the intention of identifying a way of reducing its effects on students' participation in the classroom.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Based on the knowledge that classroom interaction can facilitate language learning, communication skills and ESL teaching and learning, there has been increased classroom research over the past two decades. Despite all these studies, several critical issues still require careful consideration, especially regarding ESL classroom interaction at the post-primary school level. Most of the reported studies on classroom interaction and learners'

communication in Nigeria have been limited to primary schools (Hardman et al., 2008; Ayeomoni, 2012; Agbatogun, 2013; Oloninisi, 2019). Other classroom interaction-related studies have concentrated more on the influence of discourse patterns and types on students' achievement in various subjects, such as Biology, Physics, and Chemistry (Ugwadu, 2011; Odutuyi, 2012; Achor et al., 2019; Nnorom & Erhabor, 2019; Abuh, 2021).

The study sought to identify the linguistic and discourse features of the interaction between teachers and students in their classroom relationships to establish the role of language as a vehicle of the content and style in teaching and learning English in the classroom for communicative proficiency.

1.3 Aims and Objectives of the Study

The aim of this study is to examine the linguistic and discourse features of teacher-student verbal interaction in language classrooms.

Specifically, the objectives of this study were:

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

1. To identify distinctive linguistic choices made by teachers and students in classroom interaction.
2. To determine the effectiveness of the linguistic and discourse features of classroom interaction on students' verbal participation in classroom interaction.
3. To establish how the linguistic and discourse features used contribute to a student-centred approach in classroom interaction.

1.4 Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What distinctive linguistic choices are made by teachers and students in classroom interaction?

2. How effective are the linguistic and discourse features used by teachers and students on students' verbal participation in classroom interaction?
3. How do the linguistic and discourse features used contribute to a student-centred approach in classroom interaction?

1.5 Significance of the Study

The demand for quality education necessitates that schools produce learners who can communicate effectively, meaningfully, and appropriately in all situations. This study, therefore, envisages producing more Nigerian learners that are confident and competent users of English. The problems of students' English language learning have several reasons other than the question of having an intuitive knowledge of the different linguistic forms of the language. However, analysis of the grammatical and lexical choices made during classroom teaching and learning can clarify some of the problems students face in achieving success in the language. Studying the linguistic characteristics of classroom interactions focuses on the relationship between language and learning in ways that underscore the strong connection between language and the content of instruction as well as competence in the language.

University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

Given that language is at the centre of all interactions in the classroom, communication through language involves complex procedures. It requires linguistic processes in creating and comprehending verbal communication and as well considers the contextual factors that inform the choice of a language unit and its meanings. Thus, there is a need to examine those linguistic processes and contexts to determine what linguistic and discourse patterns are related to appropriate language use and students' verbal participation in the classroom. Knowing what students are exposed to and how language

is used to communicate knowledge can help educators focus on the connection between language and learning and assist students who are struggling with success in learning, particularly the target language.

The study is significant as it exposes the linguistic performance that occurs in the classroom to demonstrate the particular roles that language plays in classroom contexts and the levels of technicality expressed through linguistic and discourse devices. The knowledge of these devices can guide teachers' linguistic choices and discourse patterns that exist in classroom interaction and facilitate learners' verbal and effective participation and learning. A study of this nature makes teachers understand how linguistic inequalities inhibit classroom interactions to help them develop a way of helping their students overcome such constraints. The awareness that can be created would transform teacher talk, assist them in managing classroom communication, and give understanding to teachers who find it difficult to shift from traditional methods to more rewarding language teaching methods. This study adds to the existing work done in classroom interactions for the interest of language users.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

1.6 Delimitation of the Study

This study examined the linguistic and discourse features in teacher-student interactions in secondary schools in Ekiti South senatorial district in Ekiti State, Nigeria. The study focused on the linguistic variables and discourse forms that shape teacher-student interactions in the classroom. The effects of the linguistic features of teacher-student talks on students' verbal participation and student-centred approach in the classroom were also examined. This study lays no claim on being an exhaustive study of classroom interactions.

1.7 Research methodology

The research adopted the mixed methods approach, a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches to collect and analyse data. In a mixed methods study, researchers collect, analyse, and integrate both quantitative and qualitative data using various mixed methods designs (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). According to Creswell and Clark (2007), the use of mixed methods can also result in well-validated and substantiated findings. Triangulation was selected as the appropriate research design for this study. It aims to integrate and corroborate findings from various methods and procedures to examine the same item (Davis, 2021).

In this study, the qualitative method dealt with drawing inferences concerning the identification and description of the linguistic and discourse features of the classroom interaction and how the features affect students' verbal participation in the classroom. On the other hand, the quantitative method was centred on the frequency of occurrence of the identified features. Adopting this method consequently made room for in-depth description through qualitative analysis and statistical information revealed via quantitative analysis. A significant advantage of this method is that it creates complete knowledge and understanding of the research problem that can be used to increase the generalisability of findings applied to theory or practice. The major weakness of this design is that it generates multiple forms of data to be analysed. Using this approach requires a lot of time and resources to go through the various stages of data collection and analysis (Creswell and Creswell, 2018).The data collection instruments in the triangulation consisted of classroom observations, questionnaires, and interviews.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Case study

The researcher also used a case study design. A case study is a research technique that involves a thorough analysis of a particular case. It is used for a comprehensive study of a specific topic, whereby the researcher carefully studies a particular geographical region or a particular population. According to McCombes (2020), a case is usually an in-depth study of a single unit, such as an individual, group, location, event, organisation, or phenomenon. This design is most suitable when it is necessary for a broad field of study to be narrowed down into a few researchable examples. According to Heale and Twycross (2018), this research strategy does really well at investigating a phenomenon in its real-life situation through in-depth data involving several variables. Thomas (2017) asserts that a case study aids in the observation, data collection, analysis, and presentation of findings. Ekiti State in Nigeria is the specific research area in this study. The study focuses on secondary school English language learners (ELLs) and their teachers. The emphasis is on the linguistic and discourse features of teacher-student classroom interaction and how the features affect students' verbal participation during English lessons. The study makes use of a single case because it addresses only one type of classroom interaction: teacher-student classroom interaction. The researcher focused on giving a detailed analysis of the linguistic and discourse choices the teachers and their students made in classroom verbal interaction.

University of East London
Together in Excellence

1.7.1 Participants and Sampling

1.7.1.1 Population

Casteel and Bridier (2021) define a population as the totality of all the individuals, groups, organisations, or other things that conform to the specifications of a study and to whom or to which the study's results may be generalised. A researcher usually seeks information

about a specific population; therefore, that population forms the focus of his or her study (Chadwick & Allen, 2017). Teachers and students from senior secondary schools in Ekiti State, Nigeria, made up the population of this study. Ekiti South Senatorial District, which has 59 public secondary schools, was drawn as a representative case study.

1.7.1.2 Sample Description

According to Chadwick and Allen (2017), a sample is representative of the target population. A sample is considered representative when it has some important traits of the population (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007). The sample for the study was three hundred and twenty (320) participants, which were comprised of teachers and senior secondary school 2 (SS 2) students. A multi-purpose sampling technique was used for the selection of the sample for this study. Simple random technique was used to select one senatorial district out of three senatorial districts in Ekiti State. Simple random sampling was also used to select four local government areas out of the six local government areas in Ekiti. Proportional to size sampling was used to select ten Senior Secondary Schools from the four selected local government areas. Thirty senior secondary schools (SS) 2 students were randomly selected from each school. The SS 2 English teachers in each of the schools were used for the study. In all, three hundred students were selected, with twenty teachers, two from each school. The teachers who participated in the study were observed during classroom sessions with their students. The teachers were equally interviewed, and the students were given questionnaires to answer.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

1.7.2 Data Collection Instruments

For this study, questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations served as the primary data-gathering tools.

1.7.2.1 Observation

O'Leary (2020) describes classroom observation as an act of examining a teacher's presentation and students' reactions in their classroom or learning environment. The teachers were observed while they conducted English language classroom sessions with their students using a modified version of the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) observation system. To have all the essential features required for the study, the COLT scheme was modified with Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) model of exchange structure. COLT is considered the most comprehensive tool developed for classroom observation because, according to Spada (2019), it gives insight into all classroom events and teaching processes. The COLT schedules used for observation of the classes allowed the researcher to note and describe the features of the verbal interactions between teachers and students in the language classrooms as precisely as possible.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

1.7.2.2 Questionnaires

Questionnaires were used to gather information from the students who were participants in the study. The questionnaires focused on students' perceptions of the pattern and processes of their English language classes and attitudes to verbal participation during English language lessons. The questionnaires were used to understand further the data collected through classroom observation. The researcher used the questionnaires to collect quantitative data for the study

1.7.2.3 One-on-one Interviews

Interviews were used in this study and focused on exploring teachers' opinions and explanations regarding the pattern and processes they follow during classroom interactions. The interview questions focused on what the teachers usually do to promote students' verbal participation in classroom interaction. Equally, it centred on the teachers' awareness of communicative language teaching and student-centred learning and implementation of the approaches in their contexts.

1.7.2.4 Justification of Research Instruments

Classroom observations, interviews, and questionnaires were used to integrate the participants' perceptions and ensure triangulation, promoting the validity and reliability of the results. Several studies (Tsui, 2008; Pujiastitu, 2013; Ononye, 2015; Fesway-Malao, 2016; Eldokali, 2017; Anana, 2019; Oloninisi, 2020, Tiwari, 2021) have noted how extensive and diverse classroom interaction is. An in-depth examination of the research concerns raised by this study was made possible by probing the complexity and richness of the classroom context and interactions using a variety of instruments of data collection.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Data collected were grouped according to the collection instruments used. Data collected through classroom observation were categorised and analysed thematically using Sinclair and Coulthard's rank scale model for discourse analysis, while tables, frequencies, and percentages were used to analyse the quantitative data. The methodology used in this study is discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

1.8 Ethics Statement

The researcher sought ethical clearance from the University of Fort Hare before commencing the research. The ethical clearance number is ZHO041SOLA01. According to Fleming and Zegwaard (2018), ethical research consideration is required to address

fundamental ethical concerns, including protecting the privacy of the study's findings and conclusions and the research participants' dignity, rights, and safety. The researcher sought and obtained permission to conduct the study in the schools from the Ministry of Education, the principals of the schools, and the teachers. The informed consent of participants was sought. Participants were assured of confidentiality and that their names would not be disclosed during the course of carrying out the study. The researcher maintained an honest, impartial, and sympathetic attitude toward the participants throughout the data collection stage. In addition, the participants received guarantees that they may withdraw their participation in the research without fear of punishment or victimisation and that they would be safe from any form of abuse.

1.9 Envisaged Structure of the Thesis

The structure of this thesis consists of seven chapters and is outlined as follows:

Chapter 1

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Introduction and background to the study: Chapter 1 presents the background to the study, the statement of the problem, the research questions, the objectives of the research, the basis for the study, the significance of the study, delimitations and limitations of the study, and definition of key terms.

Chapter 2

Review of Literature: This chapter focuses on the literature review exploring the view of other researchers concerning classroom interactions. The literature review assisted in identifying the knowledge gap that this study fills.

Chapter 3

Theoretical framework: This presented the relevant theoretical frameworks for the study, including Halliday's (1961) systemic functional linguistic theory, the Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) model of discourse analysis, and Flander's interaction analysis system.

Chapter 4

The Research Design and Methodology: The research methodology was the main emphasis of this chapter, which covered the research design, the population and sample, the research instruments, the data collection procedure, the data analysis, ethical concerns, validity, and reliability.

Chapter 5

Data Analysis of the findings: This chapter presents the analysis. The researcher placed the raw data into logical, meaningful categories, holistically examined them, and found a way to communicate this interpretation.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Chapter 6

Presentations of the findings: This chapter focused on the interpretation and discussions of the findings.

Chapter 7

Conclusion, Summary and Recommendations: The chapter presented the conclusions, summary, and recommendations of the study. The chapter gave recommendations for further studies as well as a model for enhancing classroom interaction.

1.10 Conclusion

This chapter presented and discussed each of the following: the introduction, background of the study, the research problem, research questions, research aims, and objectives. It also dealt with the significance of the study. Delimitations of the study and limitations of the study were also highlighted in this chapter. The chapter also outlined the structure of the thesis. The next chapter focuses on the literature review on history of English language in Nigeria, language pedagogy, classroom practices in the English as a second language (ESL) context, English pedagogy in the Nigerian context, influence of classroom discourse on ESL classroom interaction, language learning and use, teacher-student interaction, structure of classroom discourse and linguistic features of classroom interaction.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The previous chapter presented a general introduction and background of the study. This chapter provides a review of previous research on teacher-students interactions and discourse practices in classroom interaction. The aim of the review is to understand the research problems and to critically examine the existing knowledge in light of English second language teachers' linguistic choices and how they affect students' verbal participation in the classroom. The topic discussed in this review are history of English language in Nigeria, language pedagogy, methods of language teaching, classroom practices in the English as a second language (ESL) context, English pedagogy in the Nigerian context, classroom interaction, and English language learning in Nigeria. The study also reviews relevant literature on teacher-students classroom interaction, classroom discourse, organisational structure of classroom discourse, and linguistic features of classroom interaction. Also of interest to this study is literature on the significant impact of teachers' and students' linguistic choices on students' verbal participation in classroom interaction and the challenges of teachers in putting communicative language teaching (CTL) and student-centred learning into practice.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

2.1 History of English Language in Nigeria

Across Africa, just as in other continents of the world, there has been increased emphasis on the part English plays in political, economic, and education policies (Crystal, 2003). Scholars have noted that as the world continues to be interconnected, the need for a unifying mode of communication is increasing, and as it is considered a language widely

spoken, the spread of English becomes increasingly more pronounced (Crystal, 2003; Igboanusi, 2006; Plonski, 2013; Rao, 2019; Lestar & Setiyawan, 2020; Rose, McKinley & Galloway, 2021). According to Van Rooy (2020), English was brought to Africa in three ways. First, in the eighteenth century, there was the incursion of British colonial masters and slave traders along the West Coast of Africa. The invasion is believed to have led to the development of pidgin Englishes in Africa, enabling the British slave merchants and local African traders to communicate as they conducted business together. Second, in the early nineteenth century, the descendants of the British settlers (most of whom were found in South Africa, Zimbabwe, and Kenya.) and some indigenes who started using English as their indigenous language spoke the native varieties of English. The coming of the missionaries further influenced the development of non-native, indigenous English varieties.

IN LUMINE TUO VIDE BIMUS LUMEN
University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Primarily, the British missionaries aimed to Christianise Africans and change their way of life, which they regarded then as primitive (Kutlwano, 2003, as cited in Nkomazana & Setume, 2016). For the missionaries to accomplish their aim of spreading the gospel, they had to break language difficulty by learning the mother tongues of their prospective converts. Boaheng (2018) reports that the missionaries tried to reduce indigenous languages into writing; they developed a writing system for the people and translated the Bible into the mother tongues. According to Taiwo (2009), the primary aim of the missionaries was to equip their converts with adequate knowledge to read the Bible in their native languages, not to teach them to speak English. Soon the missionaries began to train their converts to become catechists and interpreters, so mission schools were established; hence formal education was introduced (Boaheng, 2018).

In recent years, many nations, including Nigeria, have made English an official language or medium of instruction in schools, and one of the most important motives for such a choice is always education (Plonski & Teferra, 2013; Rao, 2019; Owojecho, 2020). English plays a significant role in Nigeria as the official language, lingua franca, subject of study on the school curriculum, the language of instruction for all subjects apart from the indigenous languages, and the predominant means of communication among the ethnic groups in the country and with other parts of the world (Njoku, 2017; Bamigbose, 2021). The spread of English in Nigeria is very similar to that of other African countries. The use of the English language in Nigeria dates back to the late sixteenth and early seventeenth century when British merchants and Christian missionaries came and settled in the Coastal towns of Nigeria, such as Badagry and Calabar (Taiwo, 2009; Media Nigeria, 2018; Ikande, 2019). The establishment of business contacts between the British and the indigenous slave traders resulted in the use of pidgin English. On the other hand, providing education to indigenous and non-European people was paramount for missionaries. It was a means to encourage the ingenious converts to participate in the missionary endeavour. As Crystal (2003) asserts, to access knowledge, there is a need for education. Basically, language is the means through which knowledge is diffused. To this end, English became the language in which the coverts were taught to become catechists and teachers in the mission (Taiwo, 2009). As the demands for mission workers increased, more schools were set up, and from the 1880s, there was increased emphasis on teaching English (Gut & Fuchs, 2013).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

During the colonial era, English was an instrumental language that functioned as a means of communication between the British and the indigenes. The language was used for

administration and as the language of instruction in schools. According to Bamgbose, Banjo and Thomas (1995), English became a marker of social status among the people as the dominant medium of communication. After the amalgamation of Northern and Southern Nigeria in 1914, English attained the status of lingua franca, uniting the linguistically diverse country. Since then, it has become an important language in the nation, serving as the official language of the government, the press, schooling, law, and economic transactions (Jowitt, 2019). Although English is a second language in Nigeria, many Nigerians prefer the use of English over any indigenous language. In recent times, an increasing percentage of young people in Nigeria now speak English as their first language (Onabamiro & Oladipupo, 2019). What is also interesting is that even though some young Nigerians are only fluent in English as their only means of communication, many others are not that fluent in the use of the language (Njoku, 2017).

Now, it is no news that English has retained its position and importance in Nigeria as a lingua franca, an official language, and a language of instruction at all levels of education. Consequently, primary school pupils are expected to have good grades in their English examinations before proceeding to secondary school for further studies. Admission to tertiary institutes of study requires a credit pass in English. In addition, to graduate from higher education institutions, all students must enrol in and successfully complete a course on “Use of English”. Despite all the efforts made by scholars and the government to improve the standard of English language learning and use in Nigeria, the rate of failure and underachievement in it is still increasing (Ayeomoni, 2012; Ojetunde, 2013; Njoku, 2017; Oyewole, 2017; Obiakor & Malu, 2020; Faloye, 2022). The problem of underachievement in other curriculum subjects can be traced to inefficiency in English,

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

the medium of instruction. All these and more make it essential to concentrate more on the teaching and learning of the language in the country. According to Faloye (2022), it is essential to pay attention to the teachers, teaching strategies, the students, and the linguistic features of the English language classroom practices, hence the focal point of the present study. The current research aims to know if the linguistic features of classroom talks effectively promote students' verbal participation and students-centred learning.

2.2 Language Pedagogy

Teaching a language, especially a second or a foreign language, demands the knowledge of the principles guiding and facilitating language learning (Richards & Burns, 2012). According to Michel (2019), teaching is defined in connection to the purpose of education and a teacher's social responsibility (that is, knowledge impartation; inspiring each student to study and develop self-confidence; assisting each student to acquire the skills needed for active citizenship and productive working life; helping to create an equality of opportunities through constructive action). According to Michel, teaching is a process of imparting knowledge to or guiding someone to learn how to do something. Before teaching and learning can take place in education, a lot of time is devoted to planning what to teach, areas to cover, resources to use, the lesson structure, class management, learning assessment, the lesson objectives, the teacher, and the students, etc.

Compernolle and Williams (2013) note that pedagogy in language education goes beyond the direct involvement of a physically present teacher in the classroom. Compernolle and Williams (2013) observe that teacher-directed lessons, where students are explicitly taught important academic subject matters and concepts, are essential to language teaching and learning. However, Compernolle and Williams (2013) describe a teaching

environment in which teachers mainly guide a particular learner or group of learners engaged in an academic task, as what happens in a formal or structured learning environment. Such educational Context characterises a narrow view of language pedagogy.

In a broader view, language pedagogy takes into consideration the organisation of activities encompassing theories and learning practices. These organisational activities include curricula development, and instructional design focused on task-based language teaching, project-based instruction, immersion education, content and language-integrated curricula, performance assessment, and technology-enhanced language teaching (Compernolle & Williams 2013). Richards (2012) notes that the essence of the activities is to facilitate the acquisition of linguistic knowledge, the development of interactional skills, knowledge of the cultural background of the second language, and strategies for continuous learning. Most importantly, it promotes students' enthusiasm for learning the target language (Faloye, 2022).

In language teaching, the method and practices of teachers shape their actions, judgment, and other teaching strategies. Ojetunde (2013), Compernolle and Williams (2013), and Michel (2019) assert that language teaching is theoretical and pragmatic. In other words, it relates to the different theories the teachers use, the kind of questions they ask, and how they give feedback and evaluate students' achievement in learning. Linguistic theory significantly influences the quality of language teaching and learning. In addition to enhancing teachers' and students' understanding of the nature of language, linguistic theory encourages teachers to understand how complex a language can be, the

challenges that this complexity could bring to language learners, and how the challenges could be overcome (Ojetunde, 2013).

2.2.1 Methods of Language Teaching

The term teaching method refers to the overall ideas, pedagogy, and managerial techniques employed for classroom teaching (Hogue, 2016; Rao, 2020). Macias (2018) distinguishes English language classrooms from other subjects' classrooms due to unique features like interaction patterns, English language use, and teaching methodology. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), current approaches to language teaching take their source from the theoretical views about how languages work and are learned. The approaches are distinguished as structural, functional, and interactional, under which several methods of language teaching are categorised (Rao, 2020).

According to the structural approach, language is a system of structurally related components used for meaning coding. (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The structural approach, a traditional approach, emphasises the mastery of elements of language such as sounds, morphemes, words, sentences, and vocabulary. It emphasises competencies in the target language based on learning the structures. The grammar translation method, oral approach (direct method), situational approach, and audio-lingual approach are structural approaches. On the other hand, the functional view sees language as a means for expressing or accomplishing certain functions like making requests, giving directions, and asking for information. The teaching methods based on this approach are the communicative approach, the ESP approach, the silent way, and the total physical

response (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). On the other hand, interactional approaches include teaching methods that place emphasis on content-based instruction, task-based language teaching, and competency-based instruction. The interactional view defines language as a medium for creating and maintaining social relations (Prasad, 2018). It highlights the sequence of moves, acts, negotiations, and interactions that occur during conversational exchanges.

2.2.1.1 Grammar Translation Method

The grammar translation method is the traditional or classical method of language teaching whereby learners learn grammatical rules deductively (Prasad, 2018; Richards & Schmidt, 2013; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). According to Prasad (2018), In the nineteenth century, when modern languages like English first emerged in the school curriculum, the grammar translation method was the most widely used in Europe. Richards and Schmidt (2013) explain further that this method focuses on rote learning, grammar exercises, and vocabulary translation from the first language (L1) to the second language (L2), and the structure of the language is more important than the content. It relies on textbooks as the only teaching and learning material. Prasad (2018) notes that although the method helps learners to learn new words in the target language easily, it does not enhance fluency in spoken English. Focus is always on reading and writing, while speaking is ignored; therefore, learners cannot communicate in English in their daily language use.

2.2.1.2 Direct Method

According to Richards and Schmidt (2013), the grammar-translation method gave rise to the direct method (natural approach) because of its inability to produce communicative competence in students. This reaction generated an increased focus on the teaching of spoken language. The method gained popularity in Europe during the first quarter of the 20th century. Richards and Rodgers (2001) explain that by the principles of this method, classroom instruction focuses on the exclusive use of the target language. It involved teaching oral communication skills, grammar, speech, vocabulary, and listening comprehension. Henry Sweet and other applied linguists discovered the method's limitations, claiming that it offered innovations at the level of teaching practices but was short of an efficient methodological basis. The subsequent development led to Situational Language Teaching and Audiolingualism (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

IN LUMINE TUO VIDE BIMUS LUMEN

2.2.1.2 Situational Language Teaching and Audiolingual Method

Situational language teaching (SLT) and audiolingual methods are structurally and linguistically focused (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Both approaches were derived from the structural view of language in which speech and structure were considered fundamental to language learning (Richards & Rogers, 2001). The similarities between the two methods may be seen in the order in which language skills are presented to students and the emphasis on accuracy through exercises and practice in the sentence structural patterns of the target language. The overlap between the SLT and the audiolingual method resulted in the implementation of related teaching principles that emphasise correctness and habit development (Rhamil, 2018). However, the views of both are developed from different theoretical traditions.

Richards and Rodgers (2001) describe SLT as one of the twentieth century's most significant British language teaching propositions. SLT is a practical instruction model for teaching English in which the meanings of words and sentences are deduced through the situations in which they are used (Huan, Yang & Hwang, 2010). The teaching paradigm stresses that language structures must be taught in contexts where they can be used. According to Huan, Yang and Hwang (2010), SLT activities include teaching English vocabulary, and sentence structures are taught through books, study materials, pictures, gestures, and imagined situations as part of SLT exercises. Teaching practices do not involve explaining grammar or interpreting sentences directly. Students are required to understand how to use the language through situations and implicit meanings to practice the related learning tasks, such as repetition, written tests, dictation, talks, and extensive reading (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The term situational language teaching (SLT) is not widely used anymore, but the practice continues to be used in textbooks and teaching materials, though in a slightly modified form (Huan, Yang & Hwang, 2010).

In audiolingual classrooms, speaking and listening are taught more than reading and writing skills (Prasad, 2018). The audiolingual method is based on the aural-oral approach to language teaching, which holds that each language has its own distinct structure and rule system and that learning a language involves habit formation (Richards & Schmidt, 2013). These concepts were founded in part on behaviourism and the notion of structural linguistics. The audiolingual approach uses a dialogue format where repetition is used to practice sentence structures or pronunciation of words. Brown (2001:111) says it is characterised by little or no grammatical explanation and inductive teaching. Structural patterns, repetition, limited vocabulary learned in context, using tapes, language

laboratories, graphics, and teachers' occasional use of the language of the immediate environment are typical practices. Prasad (2018) further highlights the limitations of the audiolingual method, stating that it is teacher-dominated. It emphasises using correct pronunciation and structure rather than communicative competence.

2.2.1.4 Total Physical Response

Total Physical Response (TPR) adheres to experiential or active learning. It is one of the several alternative proposals that appeared in the 1970s (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). According to Shi (2018), James Asher developed this method in the late1960s, drawing inspiration from several other perceptions, including the "trace theory" of memory with the notion that memory is stimulated and increased when it is closely associated with motor activity. Richards and Schmidt (2013) explain that the approach is typically the best choice for beginners because it allows them to learn through a sequence of orders, commands, and instructions demanding a physical response from the students: actions like *come here, sit down, clap your hands, point to the door, and close the door*. It teaches auditory comprehension, which promotes the development of students listening skills. In total physical response, the teacher plays an active role as the instructor and initiator of the interaction. Classroom interaction is teacher-directed rather than student-directed (Shi, 2018).

2.2.1.5 Silent Way

The silent way is based on the idea that language is a means of expressing functional meaning (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Gattegno, who created the silent way in 1963,claims that students can learn a new language without memorising or repeating

vocabulary items after the teacher. Instead, the method emphasises learning through real-world linguistic situations where students are exposed to a new language. As the name suggests, the teacher is mainly silent, giving the students more opportunities to explore the language as they practice sounds, words, and sentence formation. Many of the techniques used in this method are designed to help learners gain basic fluency, near-native language proficiency, and pronunciation in the target language (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Richards and Schmidt (2013) assert that several language teaching methods use discovery-based learning approaches, notably communicative language teaching and the silent way. The method emphasises students' independent learning and active participation in the classroom. The teacher's role is to motivate the students' language development through appropriate exercises; to make sure they are self-confident, the teacher should assist them only when it is strictly essential.

2.2.1.6 Communicative Language Teaching

University of Fort Hare

Research has shown that one of the purposes of teaching English is to encourage learners to use it regularly in day-to-day communication (Canale, 1983; Richard & Rodgers, 2001; Richards & Schmidt, 2013; Nguyen, 2014; Matamoros-Gonzalez, Rojas, Romero, Vera-Quinonez & Soto, 2017; Rao, 2020). As a reaction to progressivism, the communicative Approach, also known as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), first appeared in the 1980s (Matamoros-Gonzalez, Rojas, Romero, Vera-Quinonez & Soto, 2017). Matamoros-Gonzalez, Rojas, Romero, Vera-Quinonez and Soto (2017) describe Progressivism as the theoretical view that the student in the learning process should be an active participant and not just a receptive individual. Communicative language instruction (CLT) aims to improve students' communication skills through learners'

interaction rather than linguistic competence. It involves knowledge of a language that enables learners to appropriately use it to promote intelligible communication in appropriate contexts (Canale, 1983). Richards and Schmidt (2013) describe communicative language teaching as a method of teaching a foreign or second language that aims to make meaningful language use and communication the focus of all classroom activities.

While CTL focuses on immersion in communicative events central to language development, this focus requires attention to the structure of the language. Canale (1983), therefore, argues that learning a second language requires acquiring its lexical, phonological and syntactic rules. Understanding and knowing appropriate speech behaviour are vital for learners to communicate effectively with indigenous users of the language they are learning. To this understanding, CLT focuses on learners and their linguistic and communicative requirements. In an ESL class where the instructor employs CLT, students are encouraged to use English to interact with the teacher and one another rather than listening to the teacher talk alone. On that note, the CLT approach enables using a wide range of methods and resources to develop language learners' communicative competence and make them active participants in the learning process (Matamoros-Gonzalez, Rojas, Romero, Vera-Quinonez & Soto, 2017). The concept of communicative language teaching has led to a re-assessment of language teaching objectives, syllabuses, instructional resources, and techniques. It has greatly influenced contemporary language teaching practices all over the world. Some of its ideas have been incorporated into various communicative methods, including competency-based instruction, task-based language learning, and content-based instruction.

2.2.1.7 Implementation of CLT in ESL Classroom

There are many factors influencing the success of the language teaching and learning process. One of the essential factors in determining how well teaching and learning go in a language classroom is the teacher's impact (Amuseghan, 2007; Ojetunde, 2013; Compernolle & Williams, 2013; Faloye, 2022). However, it is important to note that planning and implementing the curriculum, the learning environment, the students, etc., are essential before teaching and learning can take place in education. Fundamental to CTL is the focus on developing and implementing the programmes and methods that would encourage the engagement of students in communicative activities to promote the development of functional language skills (Matamoros-Gonzalez, Rojas, Romero, Vera-Quinonez & Soto, 2017). English language teaching is intimately linked with language policy and what obtains in the English curriculum. For example, according to Amuseghan (2007), the target of the Nigerian secondary school English language curriculum is that ESL learners should be academically competent. Learners are expected to have developed good linguistic and communicative proficiencies after nine or more years of learning the language.

Amuseghan (2007), Ugwuanyi (2012), Onotere (2019), and Yede (2021) have noted that communicative language teaching has not been effectively implemented in Nigerian schools. Some of the factors have been identified as the preference for the traditional methods of teaching, lack of authentic materials and activities for classroom interaction, casual attitude of teachers towards the practice, inadequate teacher training, and students' negative attitude to learning. Obayan (2002), as cited in Amuseghan (2007:320), has earlier identified that ESL classroom practices in Nigeria are typified by:

1. The predominant use of the textbook as the only teaching-learning material,
2. The use of repetition, recitation and imitation reading in the classroom,
3. Minimal emphasis on the usefulness of speaking and listening skills in language teaching and learning,
4. An unnecessary emphasis on finishing the textbooks and covering the syllabus,
5. Focusing much time on practising examination-based skills.

Onotere (2019) examined the applicability of communicative language teaching in ESL classrooms in Nigeria and found that teachers of the English language in Nigeria need to be more positive and less indifferent about the use of the communicative approach. He suggests that teachers need to consciously adopt appropriate communicative activities to meet their students' learning needs. Yede (2021) discovered that the traditional approaches to teaching the English Language in L2 contexts could not promote adequate communicative competence expected of secondary school students. The study observed that ESL teachers lack the knowledge of varieties of CLT teaching skills needed to promote communication skills in classrooms. Therefore, he recommends that remedial, situational, and dialogue drills be embedded in CLT skills to enhance learners' communicative competence and promote national and international intelligibility in the use of English among the learners. The current study aims to examine further how ESL teachers in Ekiti State are aware of communicative language teaching and how their linguistic practices facilitate its use in their classes.

In some other second language situations, research has observed that ESL/EFL teachers gradually become familiar with the shift from traditional to modern methods. For example,

in Shrestha's (2013) observation on language classroom practices in Bangladesh, communicative language learning tasks such as discussion and role-play were found to be more efficient than grammar translation and grammar memorisation rules for learning English. However, they liked recitation and repetition drills. The teachers involved in the study tended to combine conventional and communicative methodologies in their English classes. Karfa (2019) examined the question of belief and practice in implementing the communicative method in the Moroccan English language teaching context. The findings of the study show that the predominant conventional and teacher-centred methodology has undergone significant changes in favour of a more communicative approach to teaching English in Moroccan secondary schools. The results further suggest that applying the communicative method in circumstances involving foreign languages is viable and feasible.

University of Fort Hare

2.3 Teacher-Centred and Student-Centred pedagogy

English teaching in the classroom is a multi-faceted concept that has been viewed in various ways. Some researchers suggest that it is helpful to view English language teaching from the perspective that the teacher is fundamental to what goes on in the classroom (Tran & Dang, 2014; Avdic, Wissa, & Hatakka, 2016; Starr, 2017; Rahman, Singh & Pandian, 2018; Farell & Guz, 2019; Jiang, 2020). Nevertheless, recent research in language pedagogy has provided education stakeholders with insightful information on considering students' learning needs in curriculum planning, lesson planning, and classroom instruction practice. Rahman, Singh and Pandian (2018) argue that when classroom teaching is teacher-centred, the teacher takes full control of the classroom interactions and activities. This approach limits the extent to which students can take full

responsibility for their learning. The students are seen to be passive learners who are required to respond to the teacher's directions because the teacher is viewed as the main source of knowledge (Fredson, 2015; Mpho, 2018; Hokor & Sedofia, 2021).

According to Mpho (2018), teacher-centred instruction relies on behaviourist theory of teaching and learning. Formerly, classroom management was based on using rewards and punishments to control students' behaviours and teach them new skills. Behaviourist approaches to classroom management build on a traditional or transmission approach to instruction (Garrett, 2008; Mpho, 2018). The practice was popularly adopted in the twentieth century. It emphasises the use of techniques that put students' behaviours under stimulus control resulting in teacher-controlled learning. In support of this approach, Brophy (2006) indicates that using such techniques puts the students' behaviour under control, thereby creating an orderly classroom where students are quiet, and the teacher takes full control. Over the years, scholars have discovered that this approach does not enable students to take an active part in their learning; learning becomes boring as it is teacher dominated. Students are more likely to lose sight of their learning goals if the teacher dominates the teaching and learning process than when they are allowed to develop their knowledge (Mpho, 2018; Serin, 2018).

Serin (2018) indicates that in teacher-centred pedagogy, instructional content is decided, learning activities are structured by the teacher, and textbooks are relied upon to achieve learning activities. It should be noted that teacher-centred pedagogy is characterised by hierarchical pedagogy, rote memorisation, chorus answers, lecturing techniques, and giving feedback to evaluate or correct students. Over the last decade, based on the quest to make teaching and learning more effective in motivating students to participate in

classroom interaction and become responsible for their learning, educators are now urged to choose their teaching approach following constructivist principles of learning (Dollard & Christensen, 1996; Brophy, 1999).

The learner-centred pedagogy in which knowledge is co-constructed by teachers and learners is generally agreed to be the point of focus in this twenty-first century (Idogho, 2016; Mpho, 2018; Keiler, 2018). This method promotes the switch from behaviourism-based education to constructivism-based education. Constructivism emphasises active learning, in which students create their own knowledge and meaning through the learning process (Prasad, 2018). According to Prasad (2018), one of the basic principles of constructivist education is that learners are motivated to take responsibility for their own learning experiences. To the constructivist, every student that enters a classroom carries a unique perception of life that their individual experiences have created. These perceptions and backgrounds have the power to impact their learning. Constructivism, therefore, is learner-centred and allows learners individual learning, creative, and independent thinking.

Classroom practices in line with the learner-centred approach aim to promote students' interest, participation, peer work, and ability to solve problems from concrete experiences from daily life (Mpho, 2018). The learner-centred approach encourages action-oriented language classroom practices, where students develop their language skills through projects, group work, self-teaching, and other creative endeavours. It fosters an understanding of learning characteristics, language, and cross-cultural communication. It is all-encompassing as it is content-oriented and focuses on the material and a reliable

learning environment. Learners are encouraged to learn independently and cultivate critical thinking skills, while teachers function as mediators and facilitators of learning through learner support practices (Hardman, 2019).

According to Idogho (2016), there has been an increased demand for educators to adopt a shift from teacher-centred to student-centred methods to promote excellent teaching and learning experiences in the education sector. Although this issue has been addressed in the western world, it remains a challenge in the Nigerian educational sector. Agbatogun (2013), Anana (2019), and Oloninisi (2019), for example, in their respective studies, observe that many Nigerian classrooms are still teacher-centred, where teachers dominate interactions. Teachers speak more frequently than students because they believe maintaining constant control over classroom engagement is essential to achieving their teaching objectives.

Several studies have advocated for student-centred approaches to teaching and learning (Idogho, 2017; Salau, 2018; Ugwu, 2021). While these studies and more in education support student-centred approaches, most classrooms in Nigeria are still dominated by traditional teaching methods. The teacher is constantly at the forefront of classroom interaction and activities. Such practice prevents students from expressing themselves but to sit and listen as passive receivers of knowledge. Ugwu (2021) notes that most of the time, students are unwilling to talk or be engaged in classroom discussions because of limited language proficiency but prefer to have the teacher talking all the time. The lessons are consequently monotonous, and teaching becomes difficult for teachers. Ugwu observes that when students do not participate, they become passive listeners rather than active collaborators, resulting in rote learning and ineffectiveness.

The current study aims to establish if the linguistic and discourse features that teachers and students use in classroom interaction contribute to a student-centred approach. Drawing on the sociocultural theory of learning, researchers have suggested that teacher-students relationships facilitate social interaction. Such interaction promotes students' active participation in their learning through observation, listening, and talking through their tasks (Bates, 2019). There is a need to focus on discovering talk moves of teachers and students that are effective in increasing students' verbal participation by challenging their perception, contributions, and reasoning in classroom interaction (Mercer & Howe, 2012; Hennessy, Rojas-Drummond, Higham, Marquez, Maine, Rios & Barrera, 2016).

2.4 Classroom Practices in English as a Second Language (ESL) Context

Classroom practices are related to the actions, activities, strategies, and pedagogy used by teachers to deliver the lesson content. According to Prasad (2018), understanding how students learn will assist teachers in defining their educational philosophy, teaching methodology, and classroom management strategies. Hiver, Solarte, Whiteside, Kim, and Whitehead (2021) observe that teachers' metacognitive ability to observe, evaluate, and assist learners in the second language (L2) classroom learning could create essential requisites for creating learning environments in which students are engaged and supported to learn. In the study, Hiver et al. (2021) emphasise students' effective learning in the language classroom as a product of the quality of teachers' instructions, support, and press. Looking at the hypotheses formulated for the study, the researchers establish that teachers with high metacognitive capacity achieve effective teaching using coherent structuring of learning content and supportive relationship with the students. The study

suggests that teachers should further develop their metacognition to enhance their responses to the dynamic demand of classroom interaction.

Pang (2019) opines that classroom practices can be demonstrated in diverse patterns and orders, and their effectiveness can be influenced by numerous factors, both within and outside the classroom. One of the factors relates to teachers' professional competence in lesson planning, which can be accomplished by seeking fresh insights into the material being taught and building on classroom experiences, along with the knowledge gathered about students and how they are learning. Prasad (2018) indicates that teachers' decisions are crucial in choosing appropriate methods/approaches. It, however, depends on learners as to which methods or approaches the teacher should use. In other words, classroom practices can be determined by the students' needs, prior knowledge, social background, native language, parental and cultural expectations, and career prerequisites (Prasad, 2018).

Many previous studies show several factors influencing classroom practices in teaching and learning English as a second language. These factors range from teachers' beliefs, competencies, experiences, knowledge of the subject matter, and quality to the aspects there are to teach in a particular lesson and the learning environments. Tran and Dang (2014), Rahman, Singh and Pandian (2018), Farell and Guz (2019), and Jiang (2020) observe that teachers' activities and linguistic choices are influenced by their views and that teachers' assumptions and opinions play an important role to their instructional judgement and decisions. The teachers' beliefs not only determine teachers' pedagogy but also shape classroom interactions. For example, the results of Farell and Guz (2019)

reveal that English language teachers' classroom practices are influenced mainly by their experiences and beliefs coupled with other factors such as learning expectations or the calibre of students in the classroom. It was revealed in the study that the teacher participant used the English-only technique and corrective feedback in classroom interaction, resulting from her experience while learning English. Jiang (2020) examined classroom teacher questioning practices in the Chinese educational context. The study found the specific factors influencing teacher assessments' knowledge in questioning practice as teachers' assessment competence and teacher beliefs; students' cognitive level and motivation; and cultural influence that encourages memorisation, repetition, and students' choral answers.

Shrestha (2013) explored primary school English language learners' perceptions of English language classes that encouraged digital communicative language teaching techniques through the English in Action (EIA) project. A qualitative method was used, and traditional English language learning techniques and communicative language learning practices were the two primary themes that emerged from the research data. The findings of the study suggest that the EIA project's primary school English language classroom practices in Bangladesh are shifting toward a more communicative method of language instruction. This suggestion is based on the evidence from the teachers' use of role plays, discussions, sound (audio materials), visuals, and pair and cooperative learning in their English sessions. Hardman et al. (2008) conducted a study of this nature in that it examined classroom interaction and discourse practices in Nigerian elementary schools. The study's interaction and discourse analysis revealed the prevalence of a teacher-centred, instruction-driven pedagogy in what structures the interaction and

discourse practices in schools. Hardman et al. point to the inadequate follow-up to pupils' choral responses in which pupils were rarely encouraged to participate actively in the classroom discourse. The findings suggest that teachers' classroom practices show a lack of knowledge about the most effective ways to enhance learners' learning. The current study investigates whether ESL teachers in secondary schools can make a difference by using classroom conversation as an effective teaching strategy to ensure learners' active participation. The study also seeks to examine such participation in whole class, group, or individual interactions where learners can share their thoughts and be encouraged to communicate in English.

According to Rose, McKinley and Galloway (2021), the emergence of English as a global language calls for a radical change in English language instruction to take into consideration the sociolinguistic context of the twenty-first century. The paper reviewed empirical studies such as Love (2013), Ates, Eslami and Wright (2015), Sifakis and Bayyuurt (2015), Vettol and Corrizzzato (2016), Eslami, Moody and Pashmforoosh (2019), Cameron and Galloway (2019), Biricik, Oskan and Bayyurt (2020), Galloway and Numajiri (2020), and Prabjandee (2020) to examine Global Englishes advances in teacher education. The study reveals that the growing sociolinguistic purpose of English has an impact on the curriculum, language teachers, and language learning objectives. As more studies are conducted, it has been noted that English pedagogical practices should be revisited to accommodate linguistic, cultural, and functional diversity.

The theoretical call for change in the suggestions from Global English Language Teaching (GELT), as presented by Galloway (2011), Galloway and Rose (2015), Rose and Galloway (2019), as cited in Rose et al. (2021:159), is for:

1. Expanding the inclusion of World Englishes (WE) and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) in language curricula.
2. Promoting linguistic diversity with respect in English Language Teaching (ELT).
3. Increasing the knowledge of Global Englishes in English Language Teaching (ELT).
4. Promoting English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) techniques in language curricula.
5. Promoting tolerance for all cultures and identities in English Language Teaching (ELT).
6. Changing the recruiting practices for English teachers in the English Language Teaching (ELT) sector.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

In response to the clarion call for a more learner and language-friendly pedagogy, Zhou and Landa (2019) argue that there is a need to challenge subtractive linguistic practices and embrace translanguaging. Akinpelu (2020) describes the translanguaging approach as an effective educational strategy that encourages the use of indigenous languages in formal education. Translanguaging in class would enable students to use whatever languages that enhance their confidence to speak and participate in the learning endeavours instead of being silent observers. In an experimental study, Zhou and Landa (2019) observe that recognising the students' entire linguistic repertoire as a learning resource enables them to express themselves and relate with both the teacher and peers without fear of ridicule by peers. The students were more confident and strengthened to

participate without fear or prejudice. Akinpelu (2020) argues that translanguaging in Nigeria's formal education would help reduce the challenges of the nation's inadequate and defective language-in-education policy.

2.5 English Pedagogy in the Nigerian Context

Various studies (Adejumobi, 2007, Taiwo, 2009; Jibowo, 2010; Oyewole, 2017; Deji-Afuye & Obadare, 2019 Oloninisi, 2019; Obiakor & Malu, 2020, Faloye, 2022) have shown that the standard of the English Language is rapidly falling in Nigerian schools, especially at the post-primary school level. Egbe (2020) opines that research has continued to emphasise the downward trend of learners' performance in English compared to what happened in the colonial period and shortly after independence when a standard six pupil could speak and write good English. These studies emphasise the teacher factor as part of the problems of the fallen standard of English in the country. Oloninisi (2019) notes that learners have problems with communication in English due to factors such as mother tongue interference, the different nature of English, and poor teacher modeling.

On the part of the learners, factors such as poor cognitive skills, the influence of social groups, and peer influence are some of the causes of poor communicative competence among learners. Oloninisi (2019) recommends that for learners to develop good communication skills, the basic communicative language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) should be explored with emphasis on teachers' spoken English and verbal interaction with the students in and out of the classroom. Nguyen (2019) observes that speaking and listening skills are problematic for L2 learners, emphasising that they are very important for communicating with others. He, therefore, suggests that greater focus should be on creating training programs, curricula, teaching strategies, and study

materials to develop communication skills. The main concern of the present study relates to investigating the components of verbal communication skills such as listening, requesting explanations, questioning, speaking to respond to questions, and giving feedback and their effects on students' communication skills. Bambaeeroo and Shokrpour (2017) state that the teacher's appropriate initiation strategy and proper feedback encourage students' free responses and help them learn in a friendly environment.

Much of the problems of Nigerian students in learning and developing good communication skills in English could be traced to pedagogical issues in the curriculum. Amuseghan (2007) states that there are two perspectives to be considered for the curriculum to be effectively implemented: prescription (intended curriculum) and practice (implemented curriculum). In his study, Amusheghan (2007) observes that although the design and purpose of the ESL curriculum are to promote students' academic and communication achievements, communication skills are not given much attention in the classroom and real-life contexts. The lack of implementation of the curriculum content is a pointer to the challenge identified by Amuseghan (2007) in considering the approach, methods, and techniques teachers employ in teaching English in Nigerian schools. One of the most pressing issues in the Nigerian educational system that needs attention is the challenges presented by this situation. The current study seeks to determine whether the linguistic choices made by teachers give room for adequate students' verbal participation in English classes to help students develop communicative skills. According to Faloye (2022), there is the need to look at the challenges in relation to the teaching techniques, the teacher, the inability of teachers to move from the traditional to the suitable pedagogy, or a combination of available methods.

University of Fort Hare

2.6 Defining Classroom Discourse and Interaction

Classroom discourse refers to all forms of communication that occur in the classrooms (Johnstone, 2008; Rezaie & Lashkarian, 2015). It relates to the language used in classrooms and how language use influences and is influenced by how teachers and students communicate during and in-between lessons. Classroom discourse describes the type of conversation and a set of concrete discursive actions and practices that occur among participants in teaching and learning in the classroom (Jenks, 2020; Soto, 2020). Good examples of the types of conversation in the classrooms are teacher-students, student-teachers, and students-students conversations. Classroom discourse encompasses teacher discourse and student discourse.

Research on classroom discourse examined factors that are crucial in influencing classroom conversation (Tsui, 2016; Moleke & Montle, 2020, Mathieu, Miguel & Jakonen, 2021). These factors are connected to the sociocultural viewpoints that inform the discourse. In addition, the physical environment, participants' socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds, and emotional factors such as their experiences, feelings, opinions, and preferences are included among the factors. There have been issues about how discourse unfolds differently among many different types of classrooms, what kinds of classroom plays host to discourse and promotes students learning, as well how classroom discourse unfolds over time in higher or lower-quality directions.

University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

Interaction in the classroom has emerged as an essential part of what happens in the school. It is a social behaviour that explains the shape and what constitutes behaviour or social connection in the classroom. How a teacher relates with a student influences the student's response. Positive teacher attention to students may determine the kind of

interaction between the teacher and the students (Reinke et al., 2016). Developmental researchers have revealed that sustaining students' social acceptance in classrooms is vital to their social and academic development (Garrote, Felder, Krahenmann, Schnepel, Dessemontet & Opitz, 2020). Classroom interaction is of a particular nature compared to other forms of interaction as it performs a variety of tasks such as formal instruction, whole-class participation, task management, and the advancement of group cohesion. Classroom interaction is the mutual exchange of ideas, beliefs, and opinions between participants in the classroom discourse. It is essential to achieving the learning objectives, the development of learners' spoken language and listening skills, and the encouragement of learners' power of communication in the language of instruction.

(Rivers, 1987) affirms that interaction is the centre of communication. Several studies (Canale, 1983; Richard & Rodgers, 2001; Richards & Schmidt, 2013; Nguyen, 2014; Rao, 2020) have noted that the central goal of foreign or second language learning is communication. Students can develop their verbal capability by engaging in conversation and observing how other people use the language. One of the ways students can build their linguistic repertoire is by reading authentic educative linguistic materials or even through verbal communication with their classmates in conversations, plays, group projects, or dialogue publications. Rivers (1987) further states that students can use all the skills they have acquired in the language or have been exposed to through casual conversations in real-life interactions.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Rex and Green's (2007) work constitutes an effort to identify various backgrounds in the study of classroom discourse and interaction. They recognise the areas of the study that can provide academics with specialised expertise and methods for examining classroom

communication. The study was carried out to draw the attention of educators to how these various traditions may be used to generate new perceptions of the effects of classroom discourse and interaction. Tsui (2016) reviews the progressions in classroom discourse research, beginning with the early research that concentrated on visible components, i.e., the verbal and non-verbal features, and moving to later studies that focused on unquantifiable aspects and the contextual factors that influence classroom interaction.

2.7 Influence of Classroom Discourse on ESL Classroom Interaction and Learning

Over the years, the quest for improved classroom interactions, as well as teaching and learning, has prompted researchers to empirically explore what goes on in the classroom, particularly regarding the interaction between teachers and students. This quest has generated concern from scholars in language studies (e.g., Schleppegrell, 2004; Maroni, 2008; Fakeye & Amao, 2013; Dodu, 2013; Ononye, 2015; Nwaegbe, 2016; Atubonoima & Amadi, 2021) and others in education and social sciences (such as Kalu and Ali, 2004; Hardman et al., 2008; Mariana, 2009; Ugwadu, 2011; Odutuyi, 2012; Agbatogun, 2013; Dada, 2015; Olagbaju, 2020). However, Schleppegrell (2004) and Ononye (2015), respectively, emphasise the linguistic analyses of the language of schooling and how related the style and lexical choices made by participants in classroom interaction are.

University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

One of the obstacles to effective formal teaching and learning in Nigeria is the improvement of the learning outcome of learners in all subjects through classroom interaction. Research shows that classroom interaction is essential to an effective teaching and learning process and academic achievements in various subjects, including English (Kalu & Ali, 2004; Ugwadu, 2011, Odutuyi, 2012; Dada, 2015; Olagbaju, 2020); Abuh, 2021). Agbatogun (2013) focuses on improving the learning outcomes of learners

of English as a Second Language (ESL). He sees learners' active engagement in classroom interaction as a means to enhance learner communication skills. This study corroborates the findings of recent studies from other parts of the world, demonstrating how classroom interaction enhances knowledge and independent reasoning (Chou, 2003; Kay & LeSage, 2009) and catches students' commitment and enthusiasm (Sims,2003).The study also suggests that different learning preferences affect how students interact and participate in class (DeBourgh, 2008) and that the introduction of interactive teaching approaches in the classroom has had an increasing impact on how teachers teach and the process of student learning. Atubonoima and Amadi (2021) identify teachers' communication proficiency as an important tool to enhance classroom interaction and learners' participation, which in turn will encourage negotiation of meaning, confidence development, and fluency. These studies have shown that when students are actively involved in and permitted to take part in communicative tasks that promote interaction, their communication skills develop.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Hardman et al. (2008) examine classroom interaction and discourse characteristics in Nigerian primary schools to determine the basic concerns of teacher-pupils interaction and discourse. Using a mixed method approach, the findings of the study reveal that the teachers' classroom practices indicate a narrow perception of the best way to encourage pupils' learning. The study suggests the need for a pedagogic change from traditional methods to a dialogic pattern in which teachers can engage pupils in collaborative and independent learning to stimulate their thought and learning capacity (Nystrand et al., 1997; Nassaji and Wells, 2000). Similarly, the current study seeks to consider the contribution of teachers' linguistic choices in creating classroom practices that support

students' freedom of expression and English language learning. However, the present research explores the linguistics and discourse practices in secondary schools to channel the usefulness of its analysis to developing pedagogic practices in Nigerian secondary schools.

A typical pattern of classroom discourse has been identified as IRF Initiation – Response – Feedback) which Sinclair & Coulthard (S&C) (1975) proposed. It has to do with a traditional discourse pattern – when students respond to a question from the teacher, the teacher evaluates their responses and gives feedback. Some of these studies (Nystrand, Wu, Gamoran, Zeise & Long, 2001; Yanfen & Yuqin, 2010; Evnitskaya, 2018; Wang, 2020) examine classroom interaction from the socio-cultural perspective and have premised their analyses on S&C study. Moreover, Rezaie and Lashkarian (2015), in their work, reviewed different aspects of classroom discourse. Their research supports the idea that diverse classrooms and learning environments can determine the types of teacher questions and the patterns of discourse between students and teachers. The pattern of teacher-student classroom interaction can be defined by various factors such as teaching method, the topic of discussion, and the student's learning ability (Sari, 2018; Abuh (2021).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

In the study conducted by Mariana (2009), the features of classroom discourse were examined to identify the influence of classroom discourse and teacher talk on the English language learners' (ELLs') engagement in mathematics lessons. Adopting approaches from the discourse analysis tradition, the author considered how teachers negotiate meaning and understanding in teaching mathematics to classes populated by students with diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. The study found that all the observed

teachers changed their discourse patterns because of the presence of ELL students in the classroom, regardless of their number. He also observed that the discourse patterns in the classes differ from teacher to teacher due to the students' varied linguistic and cultural backgrounds and the teachers' experiences.

Nwaegbe (2016) examines some discourse units of the classroom language (code-switching, code-mixing, and turn-taking) and their effects on English language learning and use in Nigerian classrooms. The study is based on Grices's cooperative principle to examine the contact between the English and indigenous languages, which has brought about the same kind of deviations from English and has resulted in Nigerian English. The findings of the study reveal the discourse units which promote the use of the English language and the indigenous languages in the teacher-student interaction in Nigerian schools. The author submits that the discourse units shown in the data "bastardised" English and indigenous languages should not be overlooked but considered to aid teaching and learning (Nwaegbe, 2016: 8).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Dodu (2013) describes the linguistic characteristics of English language teachers' spoken input in second language learners' classrooms in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) and correlates them with the results of studies that have investigated patterns of conversational talks, such as Long's study (1980). He examines the linguistic adjustments, modifications, and simplifications that make teachers talk different from the discourse outside the classroom. The results of the study emphasise the importance of getting teachers to be aware of the concept of teacher talk adjustments and modifications to let them understand their strengths and weaknesses in the teaching and learning process. The study is different from the present study in that it focused on the

characteristics of teachers' classroom language to maximise the quality of its input to students' English learning.

Eldokali (2017) uses the combination of the Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL) theory and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) to examine the English language competence of Al-Thadi university students. In the study, the researcher did a linguistic and textual analysis of students' spoken and written English competence as well as lecturers' and students' classroom discursive practices. The study's findings reveal the kinds of errors students make in relation to cohesion, coherence, and thematic construction as they communicate in English. Through the textual analysis, the researcher found the sources of the errors, the roles of different genres in promoting English language learning among the students, and how teaching and learning approaches used by the lecturers influence their students' language acquisition at the university.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Schleppegrell (2004) focuses on the linguistic disparities between the language of informal interaction and the language that is expected in the context of schooling. The study is a purely linguistic analysis of the language of schooling with a specific focus on primary schools. Unlike the present study, the author, using the concept of the language register to explain the connection between language and context, realised that language used in informal interaction has features that help generate a context of everyday meanings, mutual understanding, and negotiation, while contexts of information display, authoritativeness, and high degrees of structure characterise the language used for the tasks of schooling. The present study emphasises the linguistic features of teacher and student talk in ESL classrooms in secondary schools to determine their effectiveness in student-centred interaction.

Ononye (2015), on the other hand, examines the relationship between the styles used by participants in classroom interaction and the linguistic choices of the participants. In this study, the author identifies informative and evaluative styles as the two styles used by the participants in the observed classroom interaction. According to this study, teachers typically use the evaluative style, while both the teachers and the students use the informative style. They further explain how the styles are found to be characterised by specific lexical choices made by the participants and collocation, respectively. The study is limited to the styles and lexical choices in teacher-student interaction. The present study is based on identifying the linguistic and discourse features of classroom interaction to improve students' verbal participation in ESL classrooms, using Flanders' interaction analysis, and mixed-method research to examine the linguistic and discourse features.

IN LUMINE VIDE BIMUS
University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

2.8 Classroom Interaction and Language Learning/Use in the Nigerian Situation

Since academic resources and knowledge are organised and communicated through language, teaching and learning in the classroom involve speaking, listening, reading, and writing (Pinxteren, 2022). Participants should be able to employ these four language skills in a linguistically organised manner to accomplish communication purposes and have an effective classroom interaction. Schleppegrell (2020) explains that English language teachers are expected to have an adequate understanding of English and its meaning-making systems for them to be able to support their students' language learning throughout the student's school years. On the other hand, students are expected to use language to show the knowledge and skills they have acquired and share their thoughts in ways that can be assessed, accepted, or corrected.

Language use in the classroom is comprised of both social and academic languages. Social language is the set of expressions that helps us communicate with others in consistent day-to-day conversations. Social language can be developed through everyday casual interactions with friends and family. English language learners are believed to acquire a functional (but not necessarily fluent) social language competence in two years of exposure to the language (Egbert & Ernst-Slavit, 2010). Nonetheless, Haynes (2007:16) believes that Interpersonal skills such as greeting people, giving, and receiving good wishes, apologising, and making polite requests may need to be explicitly taught to enhance English language learners' social language proficiency. On the other hand, academic language is necessary to receive and demonstrate knowledge of a specific subject content area. Social language provides a foundation for developing academic language and literacy. Students' systematic understandings start with their ability to use existing linguistic resources, which serve as a foundation on which students learn to communicate for different purposes with the teacher's guidance. The teacher begins with students' words to build linguistic connections between learners and the target language (Gibbons, 2015).

University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

In the Nigerian educational system, English is a medium of instruction through which all subjects except those taught in the indigenous languages are taught. In addition, it serves as a curriculum subject (Njoku, 2017; Bamgbose, 2021). Therefore, its use in classroom interaction is inevitable for teachers and students. Linguistic knowledge and competence in the language are of great significance to effective classroom interaction. The teacher and student talks are important to establish classroom interaction. Moreover, Jibowo (2010) identifies the factors that may affect or promote students' participation and learning

achievements in ESL classrooms, such as metacognition, age, language experience, verbal skills, word recognition, communication apprehension, and previous knowledge. Amusehan (2007), Agbatogun (2013), Deji-Afuye and Obadare (2019), Anana (2019), and Oloninisi (2020) mention factors such as monotonous teaching methods, limited time for communicative tasks, grammar-driven instruction, inappropriate time management, unclear directives, and large class sizes. Other problems include teachers' poor classroom management skills and differential English proficiency among students., unequal students' academic and cognitive levels, teachers' inadequate use of instructional materials and digital devices, and students' anxiety with oral English classes.

The language of instruction is one main issue that needs to be considered when discussing classroom interaction. Learners from rural backgrounds are limited and marginalised when using the English language in the classroom because of their poor exposure to it. One of the language barrier challenges is that students who do not understand their teacher may neither learn anything taught in the language nor be able to respond to teacher talk using the same language (Sabe & Luka, 2020). In other words, the difficulty of communicating due to the language barrier interferes with learning and verbal participation in class. If students do not understand the language of instruction, it becomes hard for them to be enthusiastic or feel free to participate in classroom communication (Zhou & Landa, 2019; Akinpelu, 2020). It is important to note that another thing that can hinder classroom interaction is teachers' inefficient use of spoken language. Some teachers are not proficient enough to speak correct English because they also learned the language in a second language environment. Adejumobi (2007), Jibowo (2010), Ayeomoni (2012), and Deji-Afuye and Obadare (2019) have attested to it that all

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

the teachers are L2 speakers of English who have themselves learned the language in an L2 environment. Some of them do not have a good grasp of the language. The situation is made worse because these teachers lack proficiency in contrastive linguistics, making it impossible for them to comprehend and develop effective pedagogical techniques for successful classroom practices and learning.

Research has indicated the prevalent use of teacher-led instruction and rote learning pedagogy in Nigerian schools (Hardman et al., 2008; Idogho, 2017; Salau, 2018; Onwe & Uwaleke, 2019; Ugwu, 2021). These studies and more in education argue that different current innovations have developed across the educational sector in some parts of the world. In contrast, most classrooms in Nigeria have continued to be dominated by traditional teaching methods, emphasising teacher classroom dominance and coverage of academic content in conventional and instructive teaching. Agbatogun (2013), Anana (2019), and Oloninisi (2019), for example, in their respective studies, discovered that many Nigerian classrooms are teacher-centred, where teachers dominate interactions. Teachers do most of the talks in the classroom because they believe that it is essential for them to closely and constantly monitor classroom interaction to achieve their educational objectives. Due to the teachers' ever-exalted and powerful position, the visible power and authority unequally distributed between teachers and their students contribute to the anxiety of some students. Oloninisi (2019) ascertains that Activity Based Learning (ABL) is a constructive approach to raising students' interest and making them learn in a responsive classroom environment. According to him, ABL helps teachers to introduce activities through which students are exposed to organised opportunities to talk with their peers in group discussions and activities. In this case, teachers are able to

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

model and teach students how to use their language for thinking and learning. However, for English language teachers to be good models, they must possess the aptitude, pedagogical knowledge, competence, practical skills, and empathy to help their students' learning outcomes (Bamgbose 2021).

Oyewumi and Jabaar (2017) highlight some constraints to student-centred learning in the Nigerian context. Sociocultural factors and a lack of understanding of the theoretical standpoint of the approach by some practitioners are the first identified constraints. The authoritative nature of Africans generally makes some Nigerian teachers believe that students must be put under their control. The idea that a good teacher is someone who shows off their extensive knowledge in front of their students is still very much in vogue today. Amuseghan (2007) also observes that classroom practices in Nigeria are examination-based. Teachers' effectiveness is primarily based on students' performances in public examinations. Every teacher strives to live up to the task by teaching learners all the examinable instructional content to prepare them for the examinations. In this scenario, practices to ensure interactive classes are neglected.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Adebileje and Akinola (2020: 1016) categorise humanistic theory as one of the evolving approaches to language teaching and learning. From the standpoint of this theory, language learning should be social and student-focused, following diverse and integrative methods. To the proponent of this theory, a student's disposition is essential in determining the interpersonal relationship that is developed and maintained between the students and the teacher through the learning-teaching process. Students become more interested in participating in classroom interaction when they are allowed to relate freely with their teacher; interact with one another in small group discussions; lead learning

activities; generate their own academic tasks, study topics that interest them, and often participate in the design of their learning programme (Idogho, 2017).

According to Oyewumi and Jabaar (2017), when teaching is participatory and learner-centred, the classroom is expected to be characterised by learners' verbal participation, group work, and reciprocal teaching in which students become the teacher and teachers guide the students in instructional activities. In such a situation, students are expected to have a fully developed sense of judgement to know what to teach, the knowledge to share, the rudiments of the topic to be taught, and good interactional skills for clear and intelligible communication. However, this assumption is unrealistic in some cases, particularly in public schools in Nigeria, for example. In a study conducted in Nigeria by Hardman et al. (2008), the researchers observed the students' low degree of intellectual participation and passivity. Agbatogun (2013) and Olagbaju 2020 observed some ESL classrooms. They identified some of the factors that have limited the use of such learner-centred learning and, as such, reduced the extent of students' participation in classroom interaction: low level of communicative competence, language anxiety, inadequate vocabulary knowledge and verbal ability, prior knowledge, and emphasis on whole-class teaching.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Before students can understand the fundamentals of a topic and get to the point where they may share or jointly generate knowledge, a teacher may need to be decisive and influential (Oyewole & Jabaar, 2017). The teaching and learning process in an ESL classroom may not continue well if the learner-centred approach is introduced to classroom interaction when the students are not well prepared for it. This reason is reflected in Onwe and Uwaleke (2019), who assert that if learning would take place,

classroom practices should be a two-way responsibility where both teachers and students are involved in the learning process.

2.9 Teacher-student interaction

The term 'interaction' indicates a mutual and reciprocal action that is arrived at from the behaviour of the individuals involved. Some-Guiebre (2020) describes teacher-student classroom interaction as one of the basic methods by which communication skills can be developed. In the classroom, the teacher frequently raises questions to the students, who then respond to them or ask their own questions. There is interaction when this takes place. Teacher-student interaction constitutes a reciprocal action that brings about communication. Tuan and Nhu (2010) identified three forms of classroom interaction: verbal, non-verbal, and written. Verbal interaction involves oral and written communication (Riskiati, Noni & Jabu, 2021). Oral communication implies anything a teacher or student uses to initiate interaction, ask questions, answer, comment, or give feedback in classroom discussions. Written communication is related to the interaction style in which participants relate through written documents such as notes, report cards, etc. Non-verbal interaction refers to behavioural reactions or answers during lessons. According to Nordquist (2020), it is also called manual language, which enables participants to interact by making facial expressions, shaking their heads, raising their hands, and other bodily languages.

University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

2.9.1 Talk in teacher-student interaction

Oral communication is claimed to be the primary source of linguistic input in a classroom. It serves as a major instructional resource and a medium by which students present what they have learned to teachers. Classroom talk constitutes a distinct interaction pattern. It

has been distinguished as a speech exchange structure that has highly predictable patterns. As identified by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Mehan (1979), classroom talk consists of a three-part structure –initiation, response, and feedback/evaluation (IRF/E). IRF/E has been identified as the primary pattern of classroom talk-in-interaction. For example, the teacher initiates language exchanges; the students' responsibility is to act in response to the initiation from the teacher (most often a closed question). The last move is the teacher's feedback/evaluation used to assess the student's answer if it follows what the teacher considers accurate or appropriate (Nassaji & Wells 2000:377). In other words, the teacher is the arbiter of satisfactory student performance. According to Luk (2004), in this kind of discourse sequence, there are always restrictions on who may talk, when to talk, and sometimes in what order they speak.

Moreover, several subsequent investigations on classroom interactions have revealed that a rigid IRF/E structure of a classroom talk is somewhat restrictive due to teacher-centredness and lack of flexibility for students to negotiate meaning and express their own voice and ideas (Van Lier, 1996; Adhikari, 2010). This view corroborates the findings of Barnes (1992), which revealed that the teacher and students' opportunity to communicate in various ways was impeded by the teacher's constant employment of the IRE pattern of interaction. Instead, the teacher selected which students would take part, when they may speak, and how long they could. Barnes came to the conclusion that prolonged use of the IRE significantly restricts students' opportunities to discuss their understandings of the subject matter, stress their ideas, and, more generally, improve their ability to employ academic and functional diverse linguistic items. Sandoval, Kwako, Modrek and Kawasaki (2018) describe class talk in this teacher-dominated classroom as

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

traditional triadic dialogue. In a more recent study, (Tiwari 2021) reported that the mode of class he observed was teacher-dominated, and the students were acting as passive participants. The teachers were hardly seen involved in any interactions that could foster active learning or student participation. The current study aims to serve as a means to expose teachers to how they can promote students' participation in classroom discourse through their linguistic choices. In Rymes' (2016) opinion, teachers should be self-motivated to think critically about their practice and learn from experience as professionals. Many indicators have shown that the teacher factor plays a significant part in what happens in the classroom, even though student achievement is the end goal of public education.

Classroom conversation is known to be wholly controlled by the teacher to accomplish the specific goal of the teaching and learning process (Sari, 2020). Nevertheless, appropriate language use and turn-taking in conversation are essential to the students. Therefore, teachers should generate various interaction patterns in the classroom to better prepare students to handle the demands of the less predictable, more diverse, and context-sensitive nature of everyday social interaction. In addition, this will allow students to experience language use in various roles and identities, which will help them develop their independent thinking, initiative, and self-determination, as well as their clarity of speech. They can also improve their conversational abilities (such as taking turns, planning, bargaining, and disputing). (Varda, Retrum & Kuenzi, 2012). According to Lei (2009), conversation in the classroom should not follow a strict teacher-asks-students-responds formula. Participants, especially students, should be unrestricted to carry out free talk.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

In a classroom, a variety of factors interact to impact the social construction of meaning between the teacher and the students. Studies on classroom conversation in the second language (L2) classes have highlighted some of such factors as language apprehension (Frantzen & Magnan, 2005; Inada, 2021), challenges of inclusive communication (Rapanta, Garcia-Mila, Remesal & Gonçalves, 2021), symmetrical communication (Van Lier, 1996), students' enthusiasms (Nguyen, 2019), pedagogical concerns (Amuseghan, 2007; Deji-Afuye & Obadare, 2019), theory-based viewpoints (Kern, 2003; Mantero, 2006), and evaluation procedures (Poehner & Lantolf, 2005; Anton, 2009). These research findings show that the language teachers and students use in a classroom differs significantly from the language used outside the classroom.

Furthermore, social interaction in the classroom context helps to create meaning and classroom talks help to construct knowledge (Zuengler & Cole, 2005). In addition, in an L2 classroom, language is both the means of communication and the aim of learning and developing the L2 (Robins & Crystal, 2021). Therefore, classroom language is not only a means for sharing knowledge; it deals with the complex linguistic, interpersonal, sociocultural, political, and cognitive processes and situations that make up meaning. (Bloome, Carter, Christian, Otto & Shuart-Faris, 2005). In addition, teachers and students collaborate to share information and provide a favourable learning environment. Similarly, during spoken exchanges in the classroom, the teacher and students define their roles and relationships as well as who should talk, what to say, when to talk, and how the talk should go (Hall & Walsh, 2002).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

2.9.2 Teacher talk

Teachers play an essential role in stimulating a significant quantity of talk in the interactions between them and the students in the classroom. Teacher talk has been viewed from different perspectives; thus, many definitions have been given to describe it. Starr (2017) defines teacher talk as the language in the classroom (that takes up a major part of the class time) employed to give directions, and instructions, explain activities and check students' understanding. Teacher talk is an interactive device that plays a vital role in the teaching process, which involves repetition, prompting, prodding, and expansion. It evokes much interaction between the teacher and students (Yanfen and Yugin 2010).

According to Putri (2015), teacher talk is used as a unique communicative activity to develop students' language proficiency and as a medium by which teachers conduct instruction and control classroom activities. From the preceding, teacher talk can be said to be a communication-based or interactive-based talk. Teachers can affect their students' behaviour and mood by changing their communication styles, i.e., the kind of tone of voice used, the type of content their speeches have, and the variety of linguistic devices they use.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Richards and Schmidt (2013: 543) define teacher talk as the language teachers usually use when presenting their lessons. Teachers frequently use simplified speech styles with the pattern of foreigner talk characterised by slow and loud pronunciation, simple vocabulary and grammar, and repetition to interact with students. The features of the language teachers use in the classroom are usually determined by the type of classroom. For instance, in English classes, teacher talk is considered one particular variety of the language with unique characteristics that other varieties do not possess.

Teacher talk has many kinds of features. Weidong and Ming (1998), according to Xiao-Yan (2006) and Xuewen (2003), identify teacher talk as having double feature – the structure of teacher talk, that is, the pace, break, recurrence, and its adjustments. The other refers to the characteristics of the language that teachers employ to plan and manage their lessons, including the amount and content of teacher speech, the questioning technique, interaction adjustments, and teachers' comments/evaluations. Xuewen (2003) describes the first as formal features and the second as functional features. The formal features include:

1. Structured modifications occurring at the phonological, lexical and grammatical levels.
2. No grammatical or linguistic errors.
3. Interactional adjustments.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The functional features relate to the amount of teacher talk, teachers' questions, feedback, correction, and assessment (Xaio-yan, 2006).

2.9.3 Teachers' Questioning

Ononye (2015) notes that questioning is critical to classroom interaction. Questioning is one of the teacher's initiating acts and the most familiar form of teacher talk in classrooms. Thus, it is a basic and significant means of classroom interaction through which teachers stimulate students' reasoning and understanding. The teacher questioning allows students to express their thoughts, feelings, and opinions; check their understanding, learning achievement, and competence; engage them actively in learning; be motivated to think critically; review and analyse previous knowledge (Vebriyanto, 2015). Croom and

Stair (2005) and Avdic et al. (2016) state that teacher questions function as assessment tools to examine students' critical thinking skills or learning progress. To uphold this view, Keiler (2018) asserts that classroom questions can check students' understanding, support connections to previous knowledge, and encourage academic achievement. Questions from teachers further allow students to practice language features that could potentially develop their target language learning. Moreover, studies related to language classroom discourse found that teacher question also has a role in marking exchange boundaries and signalling an opening and a closure of the teaching episodes (McCarthy, 1991; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975).

In the classroom, teacher questioning serves several instructional purposes. Teachers ask questions to engage learners' attention, promote verbal responses, and evaluate learners' progress. Teachers' questioning also elicits information and checks students' understanding and behaviour (Avdic et al.,2016). The functions of teacher questions, as identified by Sundh (2017), include the following:

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

- They are used to manage pedagogical activities and the level of progression.
- They assess students' knowledge.
- They establish the level of students' academic achievements.
- They allow teachers to understand better what students have communicated.
- They provide repair regarding teachers' trouble understanding students' responses and task accomplishment.
- They provide indications encouraging students to concentrate on a specific learning objective.
- They attract and sustain students' interest.

- They increase involvement and interaction among students.
- They enhance critical thinking and the growth of cognitive abilities in students.

There are three main categories in which the use of teachers' questions might be classified: diagnostic, pedagogical, and motivational. (Ma, 2008). With classroom questions as a diagnostic tool, the teacher can assess what the students understand and don't grasp as well as how they view a lesson. Pedagogical function centres on the part questions play in assisting pupils in picking up new information and integrating it with previous knowledge. Questions allow for the practice and feedback necessary for students' progress as well as guide them to the lesson's content. Hence, questions can be used to revisit previously taught topics to build a knowledge basis for learning new content.

In addition, when new knowledge is being constructed, questions can be used to highlight connections between the topics being studied. According to Ma (2008), the third purpose of questions in the classroom is to motivate students. Teachers can evaluate students' thinking and encourage self-expression by asking questions that encourage active participation in class activities. From the standpoint of the lesson, initiating a lesson with questions can be used to grab students' attention and give the class focus. In addition, consistent and continuous questioning during classroom sessions can promote active participation and continued student contribution.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Questions used by teachers have been classified in many different ways. Richards and Lockhart (1994), cited in Jiang (2020), categorise teachers' questions into three based on their purpose in the lesson -- procedural, convergent, and divergent. Procedural questions are those used for processes and practices in the classroom and classroom

organisation. They are employed to make sure the instructional process runs smoothly. On the other hand, convergent and divergent questions are designed to ensure students' active involvement in the lesson, make it easier for them to understand, and promote classroom participation.

Convergent questions elicit consistent responses that concentrate on the main idea from students. Short answers, such as "yes" or "no," or brief explanations, are frequently used in these responses. They usually focus on recalling previous knowledge rather than requiring students to engage in extensive reasoning to come up with an answer. Divergent questions differ significantly from convergent ones in that they promote a wide range of responses, encourage students to think more critically and provide extended responses. Instead of having students recollect previously learned knowledge, they motivate them to contribute their individual ideas (Jiang, 2020).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The relevance of the questions and the functions they serve in the conversation are what characterise questioning. In other words, the types of questions teachers ask usually determine the kind of interaction that will be obtained. Brown (2001:169) asserts that using thoughtfully structured questions can produce a learning environment for collaborative teaching. Preceding studies on classroom interactions have defined different question categories, including forced-choice, aiding, display and referential, closed-ended and open-ended questions, and clarifying requests. Although various types of questions asked in classroom talks have been described in many ways, Long and Sato (1983) have suggested mostly used techniques: display and referential questions.

Display questions refer to questions whose answers are known to the teacher and, thus, can be answered correctly or incorrectly. They are such questions to which students give one-word answers or yes or no answers. They demand brief or simple responses that don't need much thinking. Display questions are asked to confirm students' comprehension or make clarification requests which help teachers evaluate their students during the lesson. According to Tuan and Nhu (2010), they generate interactions that are typical of didactic discourse. They have been found to limit interaction. On the other hand, referential questions demand more thinking and elicit extended answers, and the teacher is usually not informed of the answer in advance. Typically, they are better at starting interactions with the aim of communicating than in assessing students' knowledge. (Brown, 2001; Liu & Lee, 2012; Derakhshan et al., 2015).

2.9.4 Teachers' feedback

University of Fort Hare

In a classroom conversation between teacher and students, follow-up/feedback is the last move. It is aimed at giving feedback on the students' responses. There are many ways to define feedback. Virtually all these definitions show that using feedback effectively allows students to know how progressive they are in their academic tasks. More precisely, this interactional move demonstrates to students their mistakes and encourages them to make necessary corrections (Jan & Wagner, 2013; Tasnuva, 2017). As defined by Yang and Lyster (2010: 237), corrective feedback is a reactive type of form-focus instruction, an educational strategy intended to direct learners' attention to linguistic form and thus benefits L2 learning. Corrective feedback is a type of move teachers use to correct linguistic errors in students' spoken or written performance in the second language (Luk, 2004; Astia, 2018). It involves both the concept of correction as something intended and

not casual. It also comprises the idea of feedback as a response to students' erroneous utterances.

Giving an important point about the purpose of providing feedback, Tasnuva (2017) states that Feedback should be viewed as a strategic approach to enhancing students' overall achievement. Thus, good feedback is given without personal judgment or opinion but is consistently unbiased, fair, informative, and focused on helping students' understanding. Yanfen and Yuqin (2010) explain that the teacher can choose to give feedback to inform, prompt, encourage, correct or criticise, most especially when students provide no response or incorrect answers. When students give the required or accurate answers, teachers often comment, ask for more explanation, or use back-channel cues like "Heh" or just a quick acknowledgement like "Okay," "Great," "That's correct," or "Right!". Feedbacks in classroom interactions are mostly evaluative.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Ali and Francisco (2014) state that feedback can be form or content. Giving content-based feedback entails admitting, modifying, correcting a wrong answer, or paraphrasing, clarifying, and evaluating a student's response. Form-focused feedback includes the categories such as clarification requests, recasts, specific corrections, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition, and translation (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002). These categories are identified as corrective feedback techniques.

2.9.5 Teachers' Correction

Most of the published research on teacher correction has been carried out to explain the important aspect of the teacher's role in students' learning a subject or a foreign or second language (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Gumbaridze, 2013; Arege, 2015). Lasagabaster

and Sierra (2005) focused on error correction in L2 teaching. The researchers used a teaching video to identify a teacher's error correction moves and discovered that a substantial part of the teacher's corrections was undetected by the participants. The findings also showed that corrections became more effective when more effort, thorough justifications, and various error-correction techniques were applied. It is important to note that correction can be made politely or emphatically, considerately, tactfully, rudely or as a derogatory comment. On that note, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) assert that teachers should try to clarify when a mistake occurs from when it is an error to be able to respond to it appropriately.

Arege (2015), on the other hand, stresses the role of teacher correction feedback in students' success in correcting errors during revision. In this study, through correction feedback to the student participants in the study, specific information was provided on aspects of their performances in their essays through further clarifications, a suggestion of better or additional options, or elicited information from the students. Arege (2015) suggests that a direct feedback mechanism helps students make corrections to their errors. Error correction enables students to understand the structure and meaning of the language more clearly. Gumbaridze (2013) points out that encouraging and tactful corrections are better to inspire the desired attitude from students. The students have a strong understanding of the most beneficial form of correction; that is, teacher corrections generally serve as a constant direction for students' views (Ha & Nguyen, 2021). So, teachers have to use the most appropriate methods of error correction when correcting; if teachers do it insensitively, the students will experience inhibition and feel discouraged.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Arege (2015) emphasises that explicit forms of error correction made by teachers can lead to higher correction levels. This form of correction applied in the short and long term promotes improvement in learning. Furthermore, in a study conducted by Ha and Nguyen (2021), the authors observed that the students involved understood that self-correction was effective for their learning. Nonetheless, they chose teacher correction over correction from peers or self and desired their teachers would train them on how to conduct peer correction and self-correction. Some of the teachers were uncertain about their students' skills to provide peer corrective feedback. Still, they believed that it was part of their role to primarily provide corrective feedback to their students to ensure the correctness of the feedback given. All these studies were conducted outside Nigeria; therefore, the present study is an attempt to examine what kind of teachers' feedback and correction are encouraging or motivating for students' verbal participation in ESL classrooms in Nigeria.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

2.9.6 Student talk

According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), classroom exchanges comprise three moves (initiation, response, and follow-up). Students must be engaged in the response move, which is the answering move to establish effective exchanges in the classroom. Thus, student talk refers to the verbal response from students to teachers' initiations. Student talk is usually shaped by the pattern of teacher talk, the learning environment, and their knowledge of the language of instruction (Deji-Afuye & Olowoyeye, 2019). It is determined by the students' emotional maturity, the reasons for their participation, and what they will achieve.

There can be two ways to student talk: responses to teachers' initiations/questions and student-initiated discussion. Most students are geared towards reactions to teachers' initiation moves which can be in the form of giving information, instructions, or questions in the whole-class interaction. Student-initiated talks have predictably been fewer than teacher-initiated ones (Williams, 2017). The reason is that it is harder for students to gain access to the talk. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) noted that students must get the teacher's attention and permission before speaking. This permission may not be granted or countered with a *Not now* or *Just a minute*, and the exchange never occurs.

Studies have observed that students' talk takes a less significant percentage of total classroom interaction (Pujiastuti, 2013; Agbatogun, 2013; Fredson, 2015; Anana, 2019; Deji-Afuye & Olowoyeye, 2019; Tiwari, 2021). Several factors could explain this observation. Many of the classrooms used in these studies are traditional or teacher-centred, and the types of questions teachers ask limit students' verbal responses to yes-no or one-two words answers. The objectives of those questions, the degree of motivation teachers give their students to respond to the questions, and the types of classroom activities in which students participate create constraints to student talks. Most often, students talk less because they have low proficiency in the language of instruction. All these studies indicate that, for the ESL classroom, getting students to talk becomes thoughtful and essential as these students need to practice speaking and listening skills to develop their speaking skills and competence in English. Therefore, this study goes further to create a platform to monitor teachers' elicitation techniques and point their attention to using more referential questions in their classes.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

2.10 Views on classroom discourse

As Rudolfsson (2020) notes, classroom discourse relates to the verbal and non-verbal exchanges teachers and students use in classroom interactions. According to Lazaie and Lashkarian (2015), classroom discourse is dominated by clarifications, directions, illustrations, and argumentations. These characteristics make classroom discourse distinct from the discourse patterns employed in other contexts. Al-Smadi and Rashid (2017) further explain that classroom discourse involves the effective negotiation of meanings through teacher-students and student-students talks. Classroom discourse as a contextual phenomenon is shaped by the linguistic, situational, and interpersonal assumptions that students and teachers have acquired via interactions through various social situations and groups to participate in classroom communications and learning (Ginting, 2017).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Classroom discourse has become the focal point for study and theoretical analysis within and among fields of study (Cazden, 2001). The situation in classroom settings is becoming complicated, talking from linguistic and cultural perspectives. So, new questions have emerged regarding understanding the language teachers and students use in classroom contexts. These questions have resulted in the development of scientific methodologies that allowed for the in-depth description of communication in classrooms. These methodologies mostly relied on transcriptions of naturally-occurring discourse rather than a prior coding system. These traditions generated concerns regarding what defined linguistic proficiency in classroom discourse and interactions. In a study conducted by Bloome et al. (2005), the researchers expound on a social linguistic/social interactional method for analysing classroom discourse and literacy events. Using the

micro-ethnographic approach, they examine what counts as knowledge in and of the classroom interaction between teacher and students.

Sequentially, researchers like Wells (1993), Van Lier (1996), Nystrand (1997), Hall (1998), Nassaji and Wells (2000), and Cazden (2001) studied classroom discourse to understand the patterns in which teachers and students interacted. In general, these researchers carefully examined the IRE/IRF (initiation-response-evaluation/initiation-response-feedback) interaction patterns employed in classrooms. Kraker (2000) further investigated the discourse between teachers and students from a sociocultural point of view. In the study, diverse conversation patterns in various academic fields were identified. The teacher's discourse mainly comprised verbal cues, requests for clarification, extensions, and recall questions, feedback in the form of direct assertions and corrections, and cognitive structuring in the form of task management, extending and reframing, and conceptualisation. Students' discourse included displaying metacognitive skills (e.g., choosing, arranging, and classifying information), evaluating their own progress, expanding responses, responding to questions, reflecting on their activities, repeating previously stated answers, and assisting peers.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Moreover, Mantero (2002) studied whole-class conversations between the teacher and students in a literature classroom at a Spanish college. The findings of the study showed that the discourse between the teacher and students was somewhat preplanned. In this session, students hardly asked questions during class discussions, the teacher controlled the conversation, and the teacher's questions did not lead to in-depth interactions with the students.

Donato and Brooks (2004) studied aspects of spoken discourse between teachers and students in a college-level L2 literature environment. They did this by transcribing the class conversations between the teachers and students in a course on advanced literature. According to the findings of the study, the teachers predominantly interacted with students using IRE patterns of interaction. Likewise, all through the research, students barely had the privilege of taking turns speaking for longer than one sentence and were not granted sufficient opportunities to actively engage in literary discourse.. Similarly, in a more recent study, Lomotey and Gyima-Aboagye (2021) investigate the IRF exchange pattern of classroom discourse. The findings of the study indicate that the responding acts outnumbered initiating and feedback acts. The results suggest teacher-centred discourse where the students were involved in providing short responses alone.

Domogen (2021) analysed the patterns of teacher-student communication in English language classrooms and the levels of questions used. The author also established communication barriers in the classroom and actions to address the barriers. The findings of the study, which corroborate a study conducted by Hsiao (2005), indicate that the students were given limited opportunity to express themselves because the discourse patterns adopted in the classroom involved initiation-response-evaluation/feedback. Furthermore, Ong (2019) observed Grade 5 English Language lessons on reading skills. Using Malcolm's sociolinguistic model, the researcher describes the speech act roles in instructional discourse. The study evaluated the ways in which students interacted in the classroom in relation to four estimated categories of vocabulary acquisition possibilities that the discourse may offer. The classroom practice demonstrated the teacher's initiative, informative, directive, and nominative acts, then learners' requestive and responding acts,

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

followed by the teacher's feedback or follow-up. There was a consistent Initiation Response-Follow-up sequence. The findings of this study, which corroborate those of Mantero (2006), Donato and Brooks (2004), and Zyzik and Polio (2008), showed that teachers often controlled whole-class discussions and that students seldom had the chance to engage in substantive talk. To further investigate classroom discourse, the present study concentrates on what characterises the language of the ESL classrooms in Ekiti State in Nigeria. This study aims to examine the contribution of such characteristics to students' responses to English language learning and how well they are responsible for their learning.

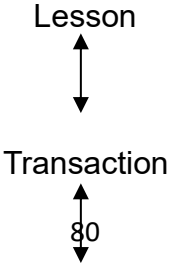
2.11 Organisational Structure of classroom discourse

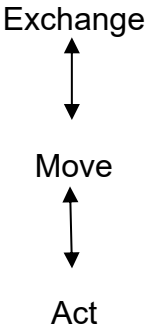
Borrowing from Scale and category grammar, according to Halliday (1961), Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) created a model of classroom discourse involving a system of hierarchically organised ranks and levels. According to Raine (2010: 5), the rank scale is a system whereby linguistically identifiable elements of discourse combine to form larger elements which further combine to generate larger elements until no subsequent larger element can be linguistically formed. Ranks at the highest to the lowest discourse level are Lesson, Transaction, exchange, Move, and Act.

University of Fort Hare

The lesson comes first on the ranking scale, then transaction, exchange, move, and act. These can also be called analytical discourse categories (Burns, 2001).

Figure 2.1: Sinclair and Coulthard's Rank Scale (McCarthy, 1991: 22)





The diagram in Figure 2.1 shows the rank scale of Sinclair and Coulthard (1992). In the scale, a combination of acts forms a move, several moves form an exchange, exchanges combine to form a transaction, and transactions combine to form a lesson. As further explained by Lomotey and Gyima-Aboagye (2021:124), in accordance with the hierarchical structure, each element within the rank contributes to the elements of the higher rank. That is, a move is made up of many acts, an exchange is made up of several moves, and a lesson is made up of a series of transactions.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

2.11.1 Lesson

The lesson, a combination of transactions, is the highest rank. It is everything that happens in the classroom from the point the teacher enters until he or she leaves (Osoba and Sobola, 2014). A number of factors determine the structure of a lesson. These include students' responses to the teacher's instructions and the ability of the teacher to give feedback on students' responses. A lesson often corresponds to a class period (McCarthy, 1991).

2.11.2 Transactions

The transaction is the basic unit of interaction that has to do with the minimal contribution made by participants in discourse. It is a succession of exchanges to perform some tasks in the classroom (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992). Usually, there is a boundary indicator to show that a new transaction is beginning (Osoba & Sobola, 2014). For example, a transaction may be opened with “Ok”, “Now”, “continuing on” etc., or by a greeting. Sometimes, this may be marked just by prominent intonation or volume on the first word. The teacher will begin with a number of informing exchanges to give information, some eliciting exchanges to ask questions. There may be a boundary marker to finish the transaction (e.g., “Ok”, “enough”). It possibly closes with a greeting.

2.11.3 Exchanges

An exchange is a sequence of moves found in the classroom conversation. It is the basic unit that brings about interpersonal communication (Taiwo & Salami, 2007). According to Dailey (2010), Sinclair and Coulthard (1992) classify boundary exchanges and teaching exchanges as the two main forms of exchange in classroom discourse. Boundary exchanges are initiated by the teacher, indicating the move from one segment of the lesson to the next, while the teaching exchanges are the points at which the teacher asks questions and gives feedback on students’ responses. Thus, the structure of a typical exchange includes an initiation, a response, and a follow-up.

IN LUMINE TUO VIDE BIMUS LUMEN
University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

An exchange consists of the initiating moves and other responding moves. Initiation indicates what the teacher uses to start the class as soon as he/she enters. During initiation, the teacher uses a question or statement (on fewer occasions) to elicit the student’s response. The response often takes the form of a reply or reaction to the

question. The teacher's follow-up to the students' responses is necessary for the exchange to be complete. The follow-up may be an acknowledgement of a correct answer, a concession, or an evaluation of the responses (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992).

2.11.4 Moves

A move in discourse is the smallest contribution a participant can make in a talk. Moves consist of acts. Sinclair and Coulthard (1992) identified five classes of moves which combine to form the exchanges: framing moves, focusing moves, opening, answering and follow-up moves. Framing moves combine to form boundary exchanges, while opening, answering, and follow-up moves combine to form teaching exchanges. Framing moves are used to organise the lesson and are frequently followed by focusing moves, intended to bring students' attention to the lesson objectives (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). These moves serve as signals for the various stages of the lesson and signify the change from one part of the lesson to the next. Sinclair and Coulthard (1992) identified the structure of opening, answering and follow-up move as IRF (Initiation, Response, Feedback) move, sometimes referred to as an Initiation, Response, and Evaluation move, or IRE, in Mehan's work (1979).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

2.11.5 Acts

Acts are ranked below the moves in a discourse. They are defined primarily by their roles. According to Osoba and Sobola (2014), the principal functions of acts in utterances range from expressing a statement or an idea, refuting or affirming a claim, predicting or requesting something, asking or answering a question, making a promise, giving a

command or approval to condoling, etc. In any utterance, a person performs a speech act (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992).

Acts can be used as the starting point for subsequent discourse sessions or as a reaction to previous talk engagements Coulthard (1977). The major act within the opening move is referred to as the head act. A head act is obligatory when there are many acts in a move while the other acts are not. Eliciting, directive and informative acts are the three main head acts that usually occur in the opening moves (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992).

An eliciting act is used to derive a verbal response, while a directive act functions to obtain a non-verbal response. An informative act is an act that explains concepts, knowledge, beliefs and information, and the proper response to this act is to acknowledge that one is paying attention.

Interrogatives, imperatives, and declaratives are prevalent when making elicitations, directives, and informatives. Based on Raine (2010: 9-10), table 2.1 below summarises the notations and functions of the twenty-two acts identified in the Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) analysis method.

IN LUMINE TUO VIDE BIMUS LUMEN
University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Table 2.1: Types of acts, notation, and function

Types of Act	**Notation**	**Function**
silent stress	^	to emphasise a marker
Marker	M	to mark (transaction) boundaries in the discourse
Starter	S	to “prime” pupils for a correct response to an initiation
Elicitation	El	to request a linguistic response

Check	Ch	to ascertain whether any problems are preventing the successful progress of the lesson
Directive	D	to request a non-linguistic response
Informative	I	to provide information
Prompt	P	to prompt a response to a previous directive or elicitation
Clue	Cl	to provide additional information to help students respond to a previous directive or elicitation
Cue	Cu	to invoke an appropriate bid
Bid	B	to signal a desire to contribute to the discourse
Nomination	N	to call on or give permission to a pupil to contribute the discourse
Acknowledgment	Ack	to show that an initiation has been understood
Reply	Rep	to provide a linguistic response appropriate to a previous elicitation
React	Rea	to provide a non-linguistic response to a previous directive
Comment	Com	to provide additional information relating to a previous informative
Accept	Acc	to indicate that a reply or reaction was appropriate
Evaluate	El	to positively or negatively evaluate a previous reply
silent stress	^	to highlight a marker
meta-language	Ms	to help students follow the future structure of a lesson

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Conclusion	Con	to help students understand the past content of a lesson
Loop	L	to elicit the repetition of a student's reply
Aside	Z	Includes any elements of discourse intended not intended to elicit a reply or reaction, such as the teacher “thinking out loud” or talking to himself.

Anana and Adedun (2017) identify some discourse patterns: additives, causatives, elicitations, evaluation, contrastives, directives, prompts and adversatives. Additives are sentences that provide additional details to the main discourse. They are indicated with words like *apart from this, as well as, and,* and *moreover*. Causatives are statements that express the reasons for actions. Causatives are words or phrases like *subsequently, because of this, thus,* and *thereafter*. Elicitations are questions that demand answers from the students. Elicitation may take either nonverbal or verbal forms(stated, performed, or enacted). Evaluatives are expressed with the use of statements and tag questions. They contain words like *okay, no, right, fair,* and *great*. They are used to ascertain the correctness of something mentioned earlier. Contrastives are expressions that demonstrate the opposite of what is said. They are words like *contrary to that, on the contrary, rather, instead of* and *in opposition to*.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

In classroom situations, according to Anana and Adedun (2017), directives are commands or specific instructions given mainly by teachers to their students. Prompts are phrases used to emphasise directives or elicitations. Examples of prompts include *be fast*, *speak up*, *move on*, and *come on*. Adversatives are statements that bring opposing

ideas to the main discourse. They often begin with conjunctions like *even though, notwithstanding, despite that,* and *nonetheless*.

Classroom discourse structure also relates to the IRF exchange structure, a three-part structure that was initially proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975).One of the essential components of classroom discourse is that it maintains a distinctive and consistent structure, containing three parts: an Initiation by the teacher, a student Response, and teacher Feedback. Although the study of the IRF structure is limited to the exchange unit, which is just one rank out of five, it significantly impacts our understanding of how teachers and students communicate in the classroom and has led to many developments in classroom discourse analysis. IRF has also been identified as a triadic structure which implies that every exchange has three moves: an elicitation, an answer, and a follow-up (Lemke (1990) as cited in El Mouhayar, 2019). This typical classroom discourse, according to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), follows the sequences below:

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Teacher: What is the function of a verb in a sentence? (Initiation)

Student: A verb shows action in a sentence. (Response)

Teacher: Yes. That's right. (Feedback)

Hamzah (2019) explored the capability of English teachers to modify the structure of classroom discourse at the exchange, transaction, and interaction levels. In the study, the author identifies the discourse segments from the lowest rank to the highest using Sinclair and Coulthard's classroom discourse structure model. Hamzah explains that the structure of classroom discourse may vary as a result of some modifications in the classroom situation. For example, in student-centred classrooms and discovery learning, whereby students are allowed to think critically and independently as they direct their own learning

processes, students are more often to initiate the interaction. The discourse's structure then changes from teacher Initiation – student Response – teacher Feedback (IRF) to student Initiation – teacher Description – student Feedback (IDF). Based on the teachers' experiences and the cognitive levels of their students, these teachers used a variety of exchanges. Thus, the study identifies classroom discourse structures as Initiation (I), which is initiation without any response or feedback; Initiation-Response (IR), and Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) in different proportions.

In a related study, Lu (2021) establishes a more complicated classroom interactional discourse structure to describe the strategies used to negotiate meaning in the classroom, which he claims would benefit students' learning. The author identifies IRF and understanding check as the predominant interactional pattern and strategies for negotiating meaning in the classroom. Lu further explains that teachers involved in the study used more complex interactional patterns like IRF, IRF(I)RF, IR [I^1R^1 (I^2 R^2)] F, and IR^1F^1/R^2 $F^2$to promote students' language production and participation in the teaching process. Hamza (2019) and Lu (2021) have demonstrated through their studies that discourse structure in traditional teacher-centred classroom interaction can be modified to have a rearrangement or more than three moves of the IRF pattern. However, research has established that the IRF pattern indicates teacher-centredness and scanty opportunities for learners to express their own opinions and thoughts (Van Lier, 1996; Adhikari, 2010, Tiwari, 2021).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Three structural elements of pedagogic discourse were proposed by Mehan (1979, as cited in Ellis, 1990: 88):

1. An opening phase in which the participants inform each other that they will conduct a lesson instead of some other activity.
2. An instructional phase where information is shared between teacher and students.
3. A closing phase where participants are reminded of what went on within a lesson.

Hamzar (2019) describes the opening phase as containing motivating, reviewing, and bridging, while the instructional phase is categorised into presenting (contextual and non-contextual), practical (mechanical and meaningful), and producing (pseudo communication and free communication). The closing phase includes concluding, evaluating, giving homework, and previewing. These three phases could result in language use in four different ways in second Language classroom discourse, which have been identified by McTear (1975), as cited in Razaie and Lashkrian (2015: 451) as follows:

1. Mechanical (meaning exchange is lacking)
2. Meaningful (no new information to provide even though the meaning is contextualised).
3. Simulated communication (new knowledge is conveyed, but in a way that is unlikely to occur outside of the classroom.).
4. Natural communication (spontaneous speech that results from sharing jokes, ideas, classroom practices, and goals).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

2.12 Linguistic features of classroom interaction

The linguistic features of either texts or speeches constitute meanings and effects at the levels of phonology, lexis, and syntax (Biber & Conrad, 2019). Linguistic features relate to the grammatical and lexical choices made by participants in a discourse which vary from simple to complex sentences, minor sentences, pauses, hesitations, repetitions, unfinished sentences, etc., while the elements of classroom discourse comprise

asymmetrical power relations, taking turns, interaction styles, sequence organisation, adjacency pair, repair, topic development/management, discourse markers, etc. (Behnam & Pouriran, 2009; Osoba & Sobola, 2014; Fesway-Malao, 2016). These elements may vary depending on the context of language use. As a result of the demands of diverse communication tasks, speakers and writers prioritise functional goals in their choice of lexical and grammatical possibilities. All of these contribute to the development of communicative competence and the performance of English learners.

The classroom language performs several functions ranging from giving tasks, engaging in learning progressions, and presenting academic content to evaluating learning, demonstrating knowledge and skill, and structuring classroom life (Bloome, 2021). All these functions can be carried out with the use of the linguistic and paralinguistic elements of discourse (Rex & Green, 2007). Linguistic elements contain the grammatical and lexical items that the teacher and the students use during interactions between teacher and students and student to student. Paralinguistic elements are the non-lexical features like vocal inflection, body language, and silence which are all essential to the discourse. Classroom discourse mostly happens through the teachers' questioning skills and related students' cognitive engagement in the classroom, questioning scope, the type of questions asked, questioning nature, communication strategies, and classroom verbal exchanges (Smart & Marshall, 2012).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Xuewen (2003) classifies the features of classroom interaction as formal and functional features. The formal features include the rate, speed, pause, repetition, and related modifications of the talk. According to him, the functional features refer to the language used by the teacher to organise and manage the classroom. These features include the

amount and intensity of teacher talk and questions, the interactional changes and adjustments, and the teachers' feedback, comments, and follow-up.

Bentley (2007: 130) identifies the general pattern of classroom interaction as follows:

Table 2.2: Patterns of Classroom Interaction

Teacher Talk	**Student Talk**
Instruction	Responding
Questioning	Questioning
Giving opinion	Giving opinion
Explaining	Reporting back
Eliciting	Asking for clarification
Checking	Collaborative talk
Correcting	Repeating language
Prompting	Reading aloud
Scaffolding	Socialising
Reading aloud	Comments to peers
Summarising	
Giving feedback (praising or reprimanding)	

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The pattern of classroom interaction, as shown in Table 2.2, relates to the functional features of both teacher talk and student talk (Raine, 2010). The linguistic features are embedded in the functions the patterns perform. Lefstein and Snell (2019) introduce linguistic ethnographic principles to establish how teachers and students use language and communication to accomplish interpersonal and communicative tasks such as creating identities, maintaining social connections, and questioning, developing, and interpreting ideas and texts. They found that many factors determine classroom activity,

such as the focus of discussion, social relations, dominance trends, communication mechanisms, communication skills, traditional and ethical resources, spatial arrangement etc. The activities are capable of placing multiple and competing dialogic pedagogy demands and dilemmas on the teacher and the students. With this kind of dimension, the interaction becomes sustained between the teacher and some confident and enthusiastic students while other students become passive observers. The students who are not participating in the main discussion in class feel left out and begin to think of themselves as less important or incompetent.

According to Zhou and Landa (2018), implementing the dialogic method in mathematics and science classes can improve students' knowledge and communication abilities. The research was prompted by the researchers' observation of the poor performances of students in mathematics and science subjects in Zimbabwean schools. The research findings revealed that using a dialogic approach can go a long way to encourage freedom of expression in teacher-learner talk and facilitates good teacher-learner and learner-learner relationships. They opine that a dialogic approach to teaching mathematics and science allows for implicit learning in the subjects and proficiency in the language of instruction.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Maine and Cermakova (2021) used a linguistic ethnography approach to analyse three dialogic classrooms. Learners' engagement and co-construction of ideas are at the fore in the study. The authors observed that the structure of the classroom interactions followed the IRF pattern. However, the teachers centralised the importance of the ideas being co-constructed by the whole class, using themselves as the channels for building on and linking together learners' contributions. At the micro level of the study, the features

of classroom talk were identified as acknowledgement, invitation, reasoning, elaborating or clarification, giving an opinion, positioning, reflecting, and guiding. The study's conclusions also showed that students became more enthusiastic about studying when they were involved in leading class discussions. Following a discourse analysis approach, Rashidi and Rafieerad (2010) conducted a study to describe the linguistic patterns of teacher-students classroom exchanges in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in Iranian schools. The authors identified certain acts in teacher/student interactions in the classes observed, using the framework borrowed from Tsui's (1985) seventeen-category system.

2.13 Conclusion

The chapter focused on the issues that informed this investigation as motivated by relevant literature. The themes that were handled in the review are the history of the English language in Nigeria, English pedagogy and classroom practices in Nigerian schools, classroom interactions' structure and organisational pattern and their effects on students' language learning and participation in classroom discussions. The review also discussed the interactional scheme of Sinclair and Coulthard, Mehan, and Lu and found that classroom talk typically consists of a three-part structure whereby the teacher is known to be the moderator of what goes on. Moreover, most of the research indicated that teachers' communicative proficiency, discourse choices, relationships with students, and participation are significant to classroom interactions. Furthermore, studies on the linguistic description and functions of teacher-student classroom interaction patterns were reviewed. A review of literature on classroom interaction and language learning in Nigerian schools indicates that the pedagogical approaches to teaching and learning need to be appraised. The following chapter presents the theoretical framework of the

University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

study in relation to Systemic Functional Linguistics, Sinclair and Coutlhard's Discourse Analysis model and Flanders' Interactional Analysis System.



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.0 Introduction

The previous chapter reviewed related literature and helped readers become familiar with earlier studies and other important concepts relating to this study. The present study aimed to explore how ESL classroom participants' discourse and linguistic choices constitute effective classroom interaction and examine the verbal behaviours that either facilitate or prevent students from acquiring communication skills. This chapter provides the theoretical framework on which this study is based.

The theoretical framework guiding the interpretation of the results of this study is established on Halliday's (1961) systemic functional linguistic (SFL) theory, Sinclair and Coulthard's (S&C) (1975) discourse analysis model and Flanders' (1961) interaction analysis category system. The theories are interconnected in the sense that they view discourse as structural and functional in nature. In other words, they clarify how discourse can be explained from structural and functional perspectives to demonstrate how language is used in social situations, what it is used for and how it is used to generate various communication possibilities (Halliday, 1985; Eggins, 2004; Taiwo, 2006; Amatari, 2015). Using the theories, we can determine the assertions made in the literature on classroom interactions and analyse the discourse. Following this framework, classroom discourse is seen as a social practice where language plays a crucial role in the actual social and pedagogical processes of classroom interaction. Focusing on social and pedagogical practices allows this research to study the linguistic and discourse features of ESL teacher and student talks in the classroom settings of Nigeria.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

For an in-depth examination of the classroom conversation, Sinclair and Coulthard's model of discourse analysis and Flanders's interaction analysis category system are employed to complement SFL in the study of the aspects of discourse such as the moves, cohesion, coherence, discourse markers and verbal behaviours of classroom participants respectively (Paterson, 2008; Dailey, 2010; Amatari, 2015; Sandoval et al., 2018).

3.1 Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) Theory

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) provides a linguistic approach that describes the connection between language and meaning in the social setting (Halliday, 1985; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). SFL was developed by Michael Halliday in the 1960s. The meaning-based functional grammar of SFL provides a variety of analytical techniques for analysing classroom discourse and its functions (Gibbons, 2002). The present study involves SFL as a tool for analysing linguistic choices made by teachers and their students to describe the features of the language of classroom verbal interaction in functional terms.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

3.1.1 Principles of Systemic Functional Linguistics

According to Taiwo (2006), SFL refers to how language is viewed as a network of systems or choices for expressing meanings. According to Taiwo (2006) and Lee (2011), the four main theoretical assertions of SFL are as follows:

- Language serves a function.
- That function is to create meaning.
- The sociocultural settings in which a language is used impact the functional purpose of the language.

- Language use is a semiotic process involving the conscious creation of meanings through language users' linguistic choices within a specific social environment.

Systemic functional linguistics theory focuses on what language does and how it accomplishes what it does. Trask and Stockwell (2007) point out that systemicists constantly ask questions such as what is this author's intention?; what linguistic tools are available to assist them in achieving the intention, and on what basis do they make their linguistic choices? An important perception of the theory is that linguistic choices are made whenever language is used in any context. These linguistic choices are made and communicated within the formal linguistic systems that the language provides for constructing meaning. However, there are constraints to the choices people can make using these systems because of two factors (Schleppegrell, 2004). The first one concerns the context within which meaning is usually generated. The context mainly restricts or determines the choice of meanings that can be made. The second element that limits people's linguistic preferences is the reality that not every individual within a speech community or culture has access to all the available linguistic contexts. According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2014: 34), "contextual values influence linguistic choices but are also influenced by them".

University of Eort Hare
Together in Excellence

The present study employs SFL theory to analyse how language is used in its social context (the classroom) as a means of facilitating social interaction rather than as a structured cognitive system that can be analysed outside the influence of social contexts (Eggins, 2004; Eldokali, 2007). In this regard, the focus is on pragmatic rather than linguistic competence. What is usually referred to as pragmatics is a part of systemic semantics in which meaning is based on the context (Christie, 2002; Eggins, 2004).

Language has been described by Halliday (1975: 16) as a meaning potential, an open-ended and theoretically vast range of options in meanings. Therefore, language is viewed as a practical means of communicating meanings rather than as an abstract system of relations (Christie, 2002; Eggins, 2004). These meanings are regarded as language metafunctions, and these are ideational, textual, and interpersonal (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014).

3.1.1.1 The Ideational Metafunction

The ideational metafunction is centred on how the world is represented through language. The ideational function reflects how language is used to organise, comprehend, and convey speakers' or writers' experiences and perceptions of their natural world (Halliday, 1985; Eggins 2002). It also focuses on the activities in which language users are engaged and the external factors that control those activities and processes. A study of a text from the viewpoint of the ideational function entails investigating the options in the grammatical system of generalisation. The processes, participants, circumstances, and analysis of the tools involved in the combination of sentences are also considered.

University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

Halliday classifies ideational metafunction into experiential and logical metafunctions. The experiential function refers to the grammatical resources involved in understanding and interpreting the flow of experience through the unit of the clause. According to Christie (2004), this function relates to the nature of the experiences that language expresses. The logical metafunction refers to the grammatical tools available for integrating grammatical components into complex structures, like joining two or more clauses together to form a complex sentence. In addition, the logical function considers the link

between ideas and the elements with which they are constructed (Schleppegrell, 2004; Eggins, 2004).

3.1.1.2 The Textual Metafunction

The textual function accounts for the thematic organisation and the information structure of the message. It is concerned with how speakers or writers develop the textual context in which to communicate their messages (Halliday, 1985; Schleppegrell, 2004). According to Christie (2004), the most fundamental aspect of textual metafunction refers to the mode of communication, and this has to do with the linguistic choices speakers or writers make to build up the text as a message. SFL describes the textual function as facilitating the creation of discourse structures. The textual metafunction determines the organisation of the discursive flow and the formation of coherence among messages (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014).

3.1.1.3 The Interpersonal Metafunction

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

In the interpersonal function, language establishes and maintains social relations. Interpersonal metafunction relates to the tenor of discourse (Schleppegrell, 2004). Language expresses social roles, including the communication role that language creates. Semantic or functional components play a vital role in carrying out the interpersonal function of a sentence as a unit of exchange of information. The interpersonal function is focused on and expressed through the speaker-hearer relationship. Interpersonally, clauses are expressed as exchanges which involve giving and demanding between the speaker and the listener (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). Supika (2017) explains that the exchanges function as offers, commands, statements and questions. In the current study, interpersonal metafunction provides a valuable tool for describing the types of experiences and interpersonal connections available in the ESL

classroom situation. Understanding how different linguistic choices are functional for interpreting experience, expressing one's perspective, and producing specific types of texts allows us to focus on the role of language as a social force. With this viewpoint, the classroom becomes more expansive and gives the teacher the confidence to take the initiative in assisting the students to learn and develop communication competence.

3.2 Sinclair and Coulthard Model

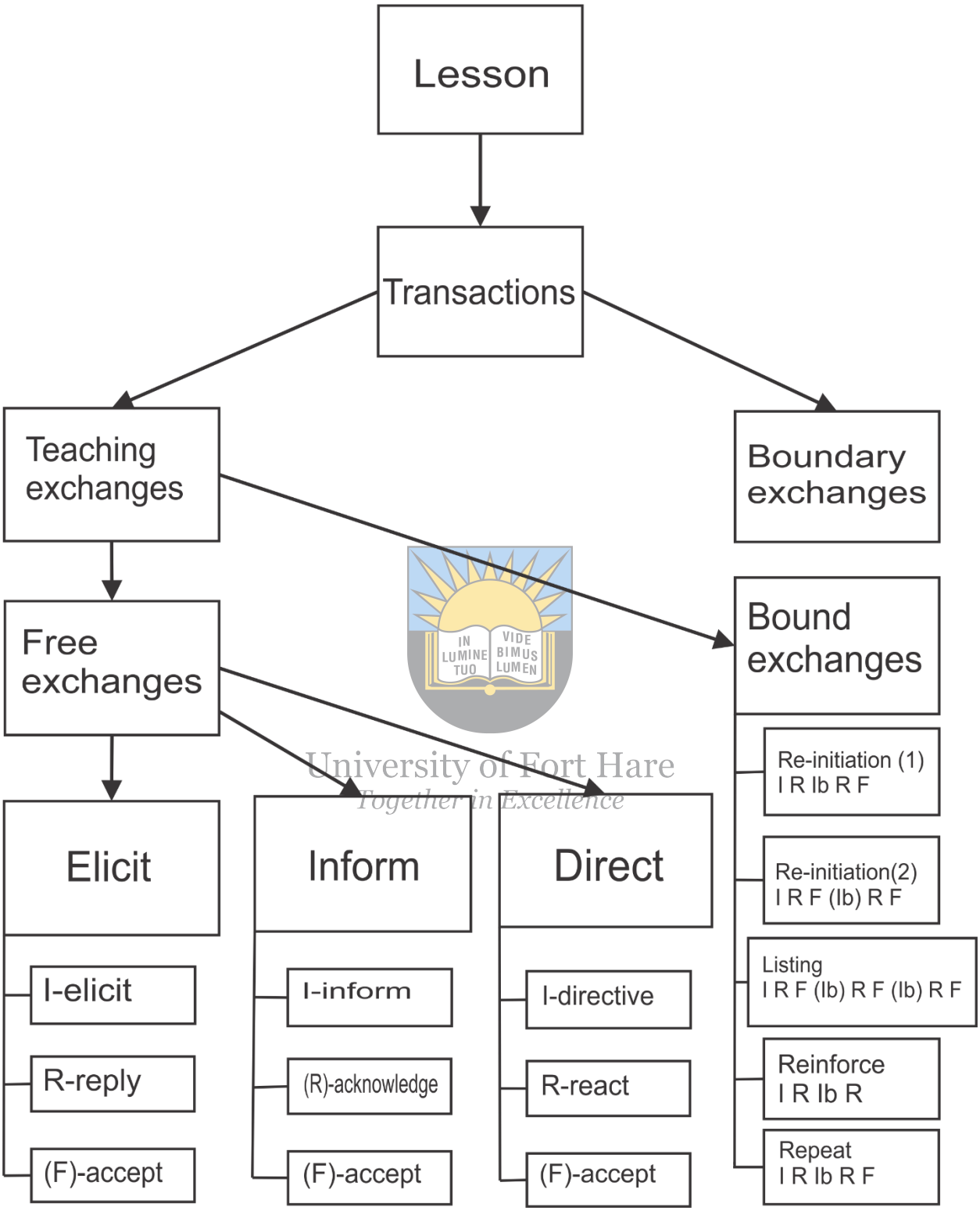
The Sinclair and Coulthard model was developed in 1975 and underwent a slight revision in 1992. It is a discourse rank scale model which was adopted from Halliday's (1961) rank scale model employed for grammar description. This model came up due to the quest for an appropriate system to describe language on a scale above the sentence unit (Paterson, 2008). Therefore, the rank scale model emerged as a linguistic description level to show the relationship between each utterance and its discursive function. In classroom interaction, according to Lomotey and Gyima-Aboagye (2021), open-ended, pertinent questions and constructive comments are a hallmark of high-quality conversation whereby students' responses are examined and expounded on, resulting in the three-part interaction pattern. The three-part interaction pattern, therefore, functions as an instructional mechanism. It makes it easier for the teacher to comprehend how the discourse between him or her and the students is structured. The three-part exchange structure is a feature of the comprehensive model Sinclair and Coulthard created to analyse the structure of linguistic units above the clause or sentence level. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) proposed that classroom discourse can be examined at the linguistic levels of sentential analysis and the social and instructional levels of the curricula and courses (Snikdha, 2016).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

As produced by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), the model comprises five ranks. These are lesson, transaction, exchange, move and act (Dailey, 2010). In the rank scale, the *lesson* is the largest unit, and the *act* is the smallest. Sinclair and Coulthard classify twenty-one classes of the act, and these categories combine to form five types of moves, which in turn combine to form boundary exchanges. The opening, responding, and follow-up moves make up the teaching exchanges. The boundary and teaching exchanges combine to form transactions, while transactions come together to make up the lesson. Sinclair and Coulthard viewed classroom discourse as a category in its own right, following a structural-linguistic criterion based on analysing individual components and sets of essential rules. This model serves as a resource in the present study to examine classroom interaction to make the order and form in discourse transparent after analysis has taken place.

IN LUMINE TUO VIDE BIMUS LUMEN
University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Figure 3.1: Sinclair and Coulthard's Initiation-Response-Follow-up model (Atkins, 2001: 3)



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The principal focus of the Sinclair and Coulthard model is on exchanges, moves, and acts. Exchanges are identified as teaching exchanges and boundary exchanges. Boundary exchanges are categorised into focusing and framing moves that are used to segment and identify the different stages of the lesson. On the other hand, teaching exchanges concentrate on the specific subject matter of the lesson. They contain free and bound teaching exchanges (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992: 25). Informing, directing, and eliciting exchanges are the three main types of teaching exchanges that Sinclair and Coulthard (1992) identify. The teaching exchanges comprise at least one move and, at most, three moves (Ginting, 2017). These moves are also recognised as opening, answering, and follow-up moves or Initiation (I), Response (R) and Feedback (F), which are the terms used to express the structure of exchanges. According to this model, the teacher makes the Initiation (I) moves, which requires a student's verbal or non-verbal Response (R) move. The student's response is followed by the teacher's feedback or follow-up (F) move. The teacher's feedback is to acknowledge, oppose, assess, or make remarks on the student's response move (Hellermann, 2003). The IRF pattern, thus, describes how the teacher and students interact with one another in a classroom setting. According to McCarthy (2002 cited in Yu W 2009:155), analysing patterns in an interaction where discourse is formally organised is imperative. Thus, in the current study, examining the IRF pattern becomes helpful in realising what characterises teacher-student interaction.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Acts and moves are significant in the teaching and boundary exchanges to analyse the classroom discourse in this study. In the rank scale, acts (the smallest and lowest rank of discourse) make up the moves in discourse (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992: 8). In the opening

move, the main act contains elicitation, directive, and informative which are the three primary head acts (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992: 15). Apart from the head act, there can be supplementary acts that are not mandatory. The teacher's initiating move contains such supplementary acts to nominate, prompt, and give cues or clues. They are regarded as the additional acts to the head act in the opening move (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992: 17).

Table 3.1: Classification of Speech Acts (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992: 19-21)

Label	Symbol	Definition
marker	M	Realised by items like "great," "okay," "now," "nice," "correct," and "perfect.". A marker has a falling intonation, [1] or [+1], together with silent stress when it functions as the head of a framing motion. Its purpose is to mark discourse boundaries.
starter	S	Realised by a statement, question or command. Its function is to provide information about or direct attention to or thought towards an area to make a correct response to the initiation more likely.
Elicitation	El	Realised by a question. Its function is to ask for a verbal response.
Check	Ch	Realised by polar questions such as "Have you finished?" or Are you ready? Can you hear me? Such questions are 'real' questions to which the teacher does not know the answer. The purpose of checks is to allow the teacher to determine whether any issues are hindering the class from moving forward successfully.
Directive	D	Realised by a command. Its purpose is to ask for a non-verbal response.
informative	I	Realised by a statement. The only purpose of the statement, as opposed to other uses of statements, is to give information. The reaction expected is to indicate the student's concentration and comprehension
Prompt	P	Realised by items like 'speak on', 'louder', 'be fast', 'quickly', take a guess. Its purpose is to back up an instruction or question by implying that the teacher is now anticipating or perhaps demanding a response rather than just asking for one.
Clue	Cl	Realised by a statement, question, command, or moodless item. It serves as additional information for the student to respond to the elicitation or follow the instruction and is subordinate to the head of the initiation.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Cue	Cu	Realised by three expressions such as, 'hands up', 'don't call out', 'Is Mary here?'. Its primary purpose is to elicit an appropriate bid.
Bid	B	Realised by verbal and non-verbal items – 'Sir', "Miss', teacher's name, raised hand, heavy breathing, finger clicking. Its goal is to indicate a willingness to participate in the conversation.
Nomination	N	Realised by calling the pupils' names or using items like 'you' with contrastive stress, 'somebody', 'yes', and one or two idiosyncratic items such as 'who hasn't said anything yet'. The function of the nomination is to call on or give permission to a pupil to contribute to the discourse.
Acknowledge	Ack	Realised by 'yes', 'ok', 'mm', 'wow', and certain non-verbal gestures and expressions. Its primary purpose is to demonstrate that the instruction has been understood.
Reply	Rep	Realised by a statement, question or moodless item and body language such as shaking the head. Its goal is to produce an appropriate linguistic response to the elicitation.
React	Rea	Realised by a non-linguistic act. Its purpose is to produce a suitable non-linguistic answer as specified by the earlier instruction.
Comment	com	Realised by a statement or tag question. It gives more information to the head move by providing an example, elaborating, supporting your position, or giving more details.
Accept	Acc	Realised by a close class of items – right, 'no', okay, great, and repetition of student's answers. Its aim is to demonstrate that the teacher has heard or observed what has been said and that the information, response or suitable comment has been made.
Evaluate	E	Realised by comments and tag questions that use terms and phrases like "excellent," "interesting," "okay," "no," "good," and "fine," all with a high-fall tone, and a repeat of the student's response with either a high-fall (positive) or any sort of rising (negative evaluation).
silent stress	^	Realised by a pause. Its function is to draw attention to the marker when it acts as the head of an exchange indicating a transaction boundary.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

According to Sinclair and Coulthard's classifications of speech acts, this study made use of selected acts such as marker (m), starter (s), elicitation (el), check (ch), directive (d), informative (i), prompt (p), clue (cl), cue (c), nomination (n) acknowledge (ack), reply (rep),

comment (com), accept (acc), and evaluate (e) to identify the linguistic and discourse features of teachers and students made in classroom interaction. These elements are used to label the utterances in the interaction and show their characteristics.

3.3 Discourse Analysis (DA)

Discourse analysis is a research technique that examines how texts or utterances longer than one sentence are structured while also considering the sociolinguistic context and linguistic content of those texts or utterances (Kamalu & Osisanwo, 2015). According to Snape and Spencer (2003: 200), discourse analysis emanates from the field of sociology. It examines the performances, language styles, and rhetorical techniques employed in specific narratives to examine how knowledge is formed within various discourses. Discourse analysis is one of the several studies of language in use that entails analysing language structure and functions as well as studying spoken and written language contents (Crosley & Rautenbach, 2021). Cook (1989) explains discourse analysis as a way to examine how stretches of language become intelligible and cohesive for users when considered from their linguistic, sociocultural, and psychological perspectives. At the same time, it provides an understanding of the challenges and mechanisms of language learning. Johnstone (2008) further describes discourse analysis as the descriptive and prescriptive study of language (where language refers to talk, communication, and discourse). DA is used to analyse real examples of how language is used to communicate as well as the structures or rules that underlie talk and meaningful symbolic behaviour.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The major aim of DA is to identify the linguistic characteristics that distinguish diverse genres and sociocultural elements that aid in the interpretation and

understanding of various texts and conversation forms. The basis of DA is the idea that language cannot be adequately comprehended without considering the linguistic or extra-linguistic context in which it is applied (Grenoble, 2000). According to Seedhouse (2004), although DA covers a wide range of academic fields, it primarily designates the linguistic analysis of real-life communication. It is an analytic technique that concerns itself with qualitative research and methods for analysing the data produced. It investigates language structure and functions in terms of its linguistic units. This approach focuses on explaining suprasentential structures by examining how spoken and written sentences generate longer meaningful units in language use. DA addresses linguistic issues such as sentence coherence, turn-taking, the relationship between utterances, and how speakers use speech acts and moves in a conversation (Richards and Schmidt, 2002). The various DA methods are used to investigate how language is organised and used in social situations. The approaches help describe how language and society are related and determine the beliefs and values that underlie discourse.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

3.3.1 Discourse Analysis as a Research Technique

The DA approach explores the structural-functional distribution of linguistic items (Chaudron 1988)and makes use of Searle's speech act theory to analyse discourse sequences. The present study looks at how much verbal language is used in the classroom by teachers and students, its associated functionality, and the characteristics of the participants' linguistic choices. According to the speech act theory, utterances are recognised as functional linguistic units with two different kinds of meanings:

1. The propositional or locutionary meaning (the actual primary meaning that the lexical items in the utterance carry.)
2. The illocutionary meaning or force (The impact of the utterance on the listener).

Therefore, in accordance with the speech act theory and the DA method, a classroom lesson is a speech situation made up of one or more communicative experiences with various speech acts, including commissive, declarative, directive, expressive, and representative (Richards & Schmidt, 2013:542).

Discourse analysis focuses on the linguistic features of the interaction and provides an understanding of the modes and procedures of interpersonal communication and the expression of thoughts. According to Van Dijk (1985), we know more through discourse analysis about:

IN LUMINE TUO VIDE BIMUS LUMEN
University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

- The patterns, the moves, and the techniques used in everyday speech.
- Coherence and cohesion.
- The structures of stories and how they are prompted in talk.
- The mental processes that are necessary for representing and comprehending narratives.
- Some of the restrictions imposed by the diverse facets of the social situation, such as the style, thematic organisation, or cognitive interpretation of text and talk, as well as gender, class, influence, culture, responsibilities, or contexts.

Some of the questions that discourse analysis aims to address are: how should the primary unit of interaction be defined and labeled?; what type of functions are there?; what structures do these basic components combine to generate?; how are the functions

realised lexico-grammatically?; and how are they used? (Coulthard, 1985: 9) Using the DA technique, one may find answers to several questions relating to language systems, language shift, meaning, language acquisition, etc. (Johnstone, 2008).

Discourse analysts frequently find DA useful for segmenting longer discourses into smaller parts based on a variety of criteria. It enables them to examine the unique features of each part to determine who is speaking, when another topic of discussion is introduced, where the discussion starts and ends, and whether the language used when social superiors speak and that used when subordinates speak has different grammatical patterns (Johnstone, 2008).

Sinclair and Coulthard's model is not just connected with the study of discourse analysis; it is sometimes called discourse analysis (Burns, 2001; Atkins, 2001). Sinclair and Coulthard's classroom discourse analysis has been described as one of the most common models of discourse analysis (Shahaji, 2021). Raine (2010: 19) describes Sinclair and Coulthard's approach to discourse analysis as a yardstick to determine if a lesson is communicative or not. Sinclair and Coulthard's method of discourse analysis was created in an attempt to find whether or not there was any linguistic proof for discourse units above the sentence or vocal expression. They chose to concentrate on a more organised and focused type – classroom discourse – especially teacher-pupil interaction in the classroom (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975).

University of Fort Hare

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) developed their discourse analysis system guided by four principles which helped make their analysis scientific and logical. Discourse categories or labels had to be predictable and well-defined. In addition, a comprehensive descriptive

framework was required, and there had to be at least one set of labels that was not acceptable (Raine, 2010).

Raine (2010) further states that dwelling on these principles gave their analytical system a scientific and logical edge. The first principle guided them to have distinct categories for every discourse element. The second premise helped to some extent to guarantee that the categorisation process was clear. The third rule specifies that a description with excessive discursive components will fail. The fourth ensured that the description revealed important patterns rather than random arrangements of discursive elements.

Sinclair and Coulthard's analysis is based on a hierarchical organisation called the rank scale. The linguistic elements in this hierarchical organisation system are lesson, transaction, exchange, move and act, which are the three main components of Sinclair and Coulthard's model. Table 5 below summarises the various categories of exchange, move, and act as well as their hierarchical relationships as established by the S&C (1975) model (Raine, 2010:6).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Table 3.2: The Hierarchical Relations and Types of Exchange, Move and Act

Class of Exchange	Class of Move	Class of Act
Teaching	Opening	(marker) (starter) elicit* direct* inform* check* (prompt) (clue) (cue) (bid) (nomination)
	(answering)	acknowledge* reply*

		react* (comment)
	(follow-up)	(accept) (evaluate) (comment)
Boundary	Framing	marker* silent stress*
	Focusing	(marker) (starter) meta-statement* conclusion* (comment)

Parentheses in table 5 above denote optional components. Basic elements are indicated with asterisks. Except for the framing move, when both basic components must be present, if there are several basic elements, at least one of them must be present. S&C's rank scale is useful to the present study because it allows classroom discourse to be studied in stages. It facilitates the identification of the structural features of the discourse at both the lower-scale rank of the various acts and the higher-scale rank of exchange. The labels assigned to the rank scale at different levels show the discourse organisational features and functional patterns (Dailey, 2010).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Furthermore, using the S&C model allows an understanding of the participants' communicative goals and how their linguistic choices help them achieve the goals. In addition, it may provide a significant awareness of the roles of teachers and students and how language is used to form and sustain the roles. This idea indicates that language affects the roles and purposes of language users in interaction. This type of analysis in this study can assist teachers in understanding the functions and structure of their linguistic choices and their effects on classroom discourse. Teachers can structure and

restructure the interaction through this awareness for better communication (Paterson, 2008).

The application of Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) discourse classifications, for their simplicity, has been applauded and widely applied to the study of structured discourse (McCarthy, 1991). However, one of the major limitations of the discourse classifications is that they can mainly be used to describe aspects of classroom discourse generated during whole-class verbal exchanges between teachers and students. They do not apply to student-student interaction in small-group tasks, discussion groups, or on the playground. According to Raine (2010), the S&C (1975) analysis system does not adequately consider the non-verbal aspects of classroom discourse. When criticisms occurred, it was frequently due to the difficulties encountered in the analysis of discourse in less structured situations. Nevertheless, Sinclair and Coulthard's analytical approach applies to the present study because the scope covers the analysis of verbal components of the discourse of the observed classrooms.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

3.4 Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories System

Flanders Interaction Analysis System (FIACS) is the original interaction analysis system which was principally developed by Ned Flanders in 1970 (Amatari, 2015). It is an innovation used to provide a meaningful understanding of the evaluation and enhancement of classroom teaching. Flanders' interaction analysis system is a model and an observational tool used to explain the linguistic actions put up by teachers and pupils during classroom interaction. Flanders' system was designed to categorise the styles, characteristics and number of verbal exchanges occurring in the classroom and to show the data on a matrix to enable analysis and interpretation (Sharma & Tiwari,

2021). Flanders Interaction Analysis is a commonly used coding method of analysing classroom interactions focused on verbal behaviour, mainly because it can be examined more consistently than non-verbal behaviour.

3.4.1 Analysis of classroom interaction in FIAC

Flanders (1970) established ten analysis category system of interaction, which is generally used to account for all available oral communication options (Amatari, 2015). Seven categories are used for teacher talk, two for student talk, and the last category is called silence or confusion.

Table 3.3: Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC) (adapted from Amatari, 2015:44).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Teacher Talk	Indirect Influence (Response)	1. Accepts Feeling: Acknowledges and handles a student's attitude or feelings in a friendly manner. This involves predicting and recalling feelings. 2. Praises or encourages: promotes or supports a certain action or conduct. Humour that eases stress without being offensive to others, heads nodding, and expressions like "uh, hmm," or "go on." are used. 3. Accepts or uses ideas of pupils. Elaborating, expanding, or expanding ideas raised by a student and extensions of student ideas by teachers are included. However, they shift to category five when the teacher incorporates more of his own ideas. 4. Asks questions: asking a question about subject matter or procedures; expecting responses from the students. 5. Lecturing: Providing information on content, communicating his ideas, providing an explanation, or referring to other sources apart from a student.
	Direct Influence (Initiation)	6. Giving direction: instructions or directives that students are expected to follow. 7. Critiquing or supporting authority assertions made to change unacceptable student behaviour into acceptable behaviour; yelling at someone, justifying the teacher's actions, or making a lot of allusions to oneself.

Pupil Talk Silence	Response (Initiation)	8. Pupil-talk – response: Students' responses to the teacher's questions or instructions. The teacher makes the first move, requests student input, or controls the discourse. 9. Pupil-talk – initiation by students. Sharing their views, coming up with a new topic, being free to form ideas and a line of reasoning. 10. Silence or confusion: Brief moments of silence and moments when the viewer finds it difficult to understand communication

In this category system of interaction, all comments made by teachers are either implicit or explicit. This categorisation shows how much opportunity the teacher gives the students to express their ideas. Therefore, in every situation, a teacher decides the option. He can be explicit, leaving the students with little opportunity to respond. His preference, intentionally or unintentionally, revolves around numerous reasons, among which are his opinions about the situations and the objectives of the specific learning situation. The Flanders system also categorises students' talk to substantially describe the general behaviour or whole interaction in the classroom. The last major section accounts for pauses, such as periods of uncertainty and brief silence during which the observer cannot understand communication (Amatari, 2015).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The FIAC system is used to ascertain if a teacher uses an indirect or direct method to encourage and control students in the classroom (Ayunda, Komariah & Achmad, 2021). The system describes teacher and students' verbal behaviours in the order of occurrence during classroom interaction. It, however, does not include non-verbal behaviours. It is also limited to teacher-students interaction**.** It is a practical and unbiased method for observing how students are taught in a classroom to investigate teaching style (Sharma

& Tiwari, 2021). The present study is interested in systematically analysing naturally occurring samples of the spoken language of the classroom.

3.5 The Intersection of the Three Theories

The analysis of classroom discourse and interaction is essential to addressing the issues raised in this study because the focus is on examining the discourse of classroom interaction to understand how participants' linguistic and discourse choices impact their interaction in the classroom settings. Therefore, the three theories are employed to give critical insight into and explain how language is constructed in classrooms and how language use influences and is affected by the curriculum's processes, practice, and content demands. In addition, the three theories complement one another to guide the assessment of how classroom language is structured, and the verbal behaviours of participants determine their linguistic and discourse choices.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The models are related because they see classroom talk as having structural and functional elements. They highlight how discourse may be understood from structural and functional perspectives to show how language is utilised in social circumstances, what it is used for, and how it is used to develop different communication choices (Halliday, 1985; Eggins, 2004; Taiwo, 2006; Amatari, 2015). Sinclair and Coulthard's model and Flanders' interaction analysis system are relevant resources for this study as they complement SFL in offering an understanding of the classroom talk structure and functions and how it can be categorised, quantified, and analysed.

Given that teachers' verbal behaviour is essential in creating a socio-emotional atmosphere in the classroom, it can go a long way in promoting students' adequate verbal participation (Hall & Walsh, 2002; Ginting, 2017). Interpersonal metafunction in SFL is

employed in the present study to describe and explain the structure of classroom talk in relation to formal, non-formal and semiotic features of discourse and interactive practice in the classroom. In the interpersonal metafunction a text is a series of exchanges between the speaker and addressee. The exchanges are determined by moves, realised by clauses in their interpersonal structure (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). The S&C model serves as an analytical tool to examine the structure of the classroom discourse based on the levels of exchange, move, and act according to the rank scale. Using S&C rank scale analysis is basically to identify the features of the classroom discourse in the scope of the present study. On the other hand, the Flanders system is used to complement the other two theories in the area of the verbal behaviour of the participants to identify the behaviours that can promote or hinder a good atmosphere for accessible interaction between the teacher and the students. Triangulating the theories will help us to address this study's research questions from the standpoint of the approaches for a better interpretation of the findings.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

3.6 Conclusion

This chapter provided insight into the three theories – SFL, the S&C model, and FIACS – that make up the theoretical context for this study. SFL is an analytical tool employed to understand how language as a semiotic tool interacts with the social context to make meaning. It demonstrates the influence language has on the goals and challenges of classroom discourse practices. According to SFL's principle, which is based on the concept of metafunction, three different sorts of meaning may be found in a sentence structure: meaning as a message, meaning as an exchange and meaning as a representation. The chapter discussed SFL as the analytical tool for this study

emphasising that the interpersonal metafunction aspect is most relevant to this study. The S&C model and FIACS are described as approaches that can be used to objectively describe the features of participants' linguistic and verbal behaviour in classroom interaction.

The next chapter discusses the research methodology that was used for the collection of data for this study.



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.0 Introduction

The previous chapter focused on the theoretical framework on which this study is based. The main purpose of this study is to examine the linguistic and discourse choices of teachers and students in classroom interaction, how these choices affect students verbal participation, and the use of a student-centred learning approach. This section presents the methodology used in this research. It comprises the scope of the study, the research approach used in the study, research design, data collection instruments, data analysis, validity and reliability of the instruments, and ethical considerations.

IN LUMINE TUO VIDE BIMUS LUMEN
University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

4.1 Scope of the Study

The study was carried out in Ekiti South senatorial district, one of the senatorial districts in Ekiti state in Nigeria and focused on identifying the linguistic and discourse features that shape teacher-student verbal interactions in the English language classroom. The study was based on classroom interaction to describe the effectiveness of the linguistic and discourse features used by the Senior Secondary school 2 (SS2) teachers and students on students' verbal participation. It is also to assess the extent to which those features affect students' English language use and the use of the student-centred approach in classroom learning.

Senior secondary school 2, equivalent to 11th grade, is believed to be the educational level where students are perceived to have been exposed to the knowledge, attitude, and skills essential to develop good communication skills in English. At this stage, students

are being prepared for further academic pursuits, which may largely depend on their performance and competence in communication skills in English. The teachers are faced with the issue of the appropriate methods to use to enhance students' communication skills in English and full verbal participation in classroom interaction (Amuseghan, 2007; Anana, 2019; Oloninisi, 2019). It is, therefore, envisaged that studying the linguistic and discourse features used by teachers and students in classroom interaction will attempt to deal with the challenges of students' participation in classroom discourse and the use of a student-centred learning approach. The study, therefore, seeks to:

1. Identify distinctive linguistic choices made by teachers and students in classroom interaction.
2. Determine the effectiveness of classroom interaction's linguistic and discourse features on students' participation and language use in the classroom.
3. Establish how the linguistic and discourse features used contribute to a student-centred approach in classroom interaction.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

In addition, through the data collection procedures that are discussed in this chapter, the study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. What distinctive linguistic choices are made by teachers and students in classroom interaction?
2. How effective are the linguistic and discourse features used by teachers and students on students' participation and language use in classroom interactions?

How do the linguistic and discourse features used contribute to a student-centred approach in classroom interaction? data.

4.2 Research Approach

In this study, a mixed methods approach was used. This approach involved a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches to collect and analyse data.

4.2.1 Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is a naturalistic inquiry process that seeks to understand social phenomena within a natural setting. It requires obtaining and evaluating non-numerical data to understand thoughts, ideas, and practices (Tenny, Brannan, Brannan & Sharts-Hopko, 2022). Tenny et al. (2022) further state that qualitative research answers open-ended questions that allow the participants to express their minds regarding personal feelings, thoughts, and experiences at a given period of time. The qualitative research method helps to obtain data from first-hand observations, interviews, questionnaires, and focus group discussions (Crossman, 2020). The steps of qualitative research are related to any other research programme in that it starts with describing the problem, which will pave the way for successful research (Rahman 2017). According to Anaz and Ishaq (2022), the aim of qualitative research is to gather, analyse and interpret the information that could result in solving social or cultural problems that the researcher has identified. The results of a qualitative study are descriptive, and inferences can be drawn easily.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

A qualitative research method is appropriate when the researcher seeks to study more thoroughly a phenomenon about which little information is known. In a study, Aspers and Corte (2019) observed that qualitative research is a combination of generating and analysing empirical material in an iterative process in which one gets to understand an observable fact or event that is not previously identified. In the present study, the data

were interpreted using classroom observations, the participants' opinions and understanding of the subject matter, the specified linguistic and discourse features of the classroom interactions, and the descriptions of how the features affect students' verbal participation in the classroom.

This study used qualitative research because the researcher believed that a qualitative approach would help collect data that would result in gaining in-depth knowledge, insight, and a comprehensive understanding of the linguistic and discourse features used by teachers and students in verbal classroom interaction. Open-ended interview questions were used to have teachers' explanations regarding the pattern and processes they follow during classroom interactions and to know their understanding and use of the student-centred learning approach. This qualitative study employed classroom observation and one on one interviews as methods of data collection.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

4.2.1.1 Advantages of Qualitative Research

The qualitative research method helps the researcher have a comprehensive and in-depth perspective on the phenomenon under study as it supports the collection of valuable data from the experiences, actions, and words of the participants through face-to-face encounters. This research method investigates the phenomenon that the participants experienced by closely observing and describing their words and behaviours, enabling the researcher to work in a natural environment (Eldokali, 2017). This method was suitable for this study since it examined the language used in the classroom.

4.2.1.2 Disadvantages of Qualitative Research

According to Crossman (2020), among the weaknesses of qualitative research is that it has a relatively limited scope which can make its findings not widely generalisable. The researcher also must be careful while using this method and ensure that his or her biases

do not influence the interpretation of the findings. It should be noted that qualitative research follows a subjective approach as researchers are closely involved and allows them to interpret the data using their personal experiences and opinions; hence, using a mixed method minimises undue personal biases.

4.2.2 Quantitative Research

Quantitative research, on the other hand, is an approach that focuses on gathering and analysing numerical data to examine and explain the relationships among variables within a population (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). A quantitative research method involves statistical analysis of data collected through surveys, questionnaires, and observations. Crossman (2020) states that quantitative research employs statistical data to distinguish extensive trends and employs numerical strategies to establish the causative and correlative relationships between variables. Quantitative analysis provides an objective measurement orientation in which the data obtained are measured across large geographical regions (Bhandari, 2022). It is used to find patterns and averages, make prescriptions and generalise results to the wider population. A quantitative method helps the researcher to easily deduce an accurate conclusion from the findings of the study, no matter how large the subject matter is.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Quantitative research design helps analyse the empirical evidence that has been gathered, allowing the researcher to find support for the research questions under study (Crossman, 2020). According to Creswell and Creswell (2018), quantitative research is structured around the scientific method to produce in a systematic way objective data that can be presented through statistics and numbers to explain the research problem. For this study, applying this research approach allowed the use of a numerical approach and

enhanced the objectivity of the research findings. In addition, the quantitative method helped select the appropriate sample representing the population of the study. This study used a quantitative method because of the need for numerical data to address the critical objective of identifying the linguistic features used by teachers and students in classroom interaction.

4.2.2.1 Advantages of Quantitative Research

A significant advantage of using quantitative research is that it enables the analysis of quantifiable data from an extensive sample, thus making the findings generalisable to a broader population (Rahman, 2017). Quantitative research, according to Bhandari (2020), relies on concrete numbers, variables, and statistical analysis. This can help to remove biases and make the findings more objective and accurate. Using practical evidence in quantitative research is made possible through numbers and allows the researcher to make decisions or interpret the results from a particular phenomenon (Bassi 2021).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

4.2.2.2 Disadvantages of Quantitative Research

According to Rahman (2017), there is the possibility of drawing false correlations in quantitative research because the information seems to come from unexpected sources. Bowen, Rose and Pilkington (2017) note that quantitative research can be limited because the researcher cannot follow up on any answer given to the questionnaire once it has been released to him or her. In that way, it is impossible for the researcher to probe or clarify whether the responses are true. The researcher is left to operate on the assumption that all answers are accurate. However, when the questionnaire is administered and followed by the interviews, it allows for clarity of data collection, exploration, and assessment.

4.2.3 Mixed Method

Bowen et al. (2017) describe a mixed method approach as the combination of quantitative and qualitative data within a single study whereby both complement each other by incorporating their strengths. Creswell (2014) and Shorten and Smith (2017) define mixed-method research as a process of linking or integrating qualitative and quantitative data to seek a more extensive understanding of the research background. Quantitative data, as put forward by Dawadi, Shrestha and Giri (2021), take care of the scope of the study, and qualitative data give the study depth. Tenny et al. (2022) explain that qualitative data can help increase understanding of the data or results obtained from quantitative analysis, while the use of quantitative data assists in reducing the subjectivity and personal biases that may arise from the qualitative results. A mixed methods design, as further stated by Dawadi et al. (2021: 27), "offers the best chance of answering research questions by combining two sets of strengths while compensating at the same time for the weaknesses of each method".

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

According to Kelle, Kuhberger and Bernhard (2019), a mixed-method approach can be used to fulfil such functions as:

1. Examining the extent and generalisability of qualitative findings through quantitative statistics.
2. Making understandable the quantitative results that seem unclear and unexplained variance using additional qualitative data
3. Supporting the structure of the instruments of quantitative analysis.
4. Assisting qualitative sampling by giving information about the distribution of specific characteristics in the group under study.

Shorten and Smith (2017) see the mixed methods approach as a unique form of triangulation that explicitly combines both quantitative and qualitative methods. In other words, it is possible to incorporate qualitative with quantitative findings.

4.2.3.1 Triangulation

Triangulation is a qualitative research approach in which the use of various methods or sources of data helps to create an all-inclusive knowledge of a research topic (Dawadi et al., 2021; Dźwigoł & Dźwigoł-Barosz, 2020). Bhandari (2022) and Tenny et al. (2022) describe triangulation in research as a means of enhancing the validity and credibility of the research findings by merging information from various sources, methods, researchers, and standards that provide facts that can be verified. Triangulation involves using many data collection techniques to maximise the chances of obtaining credible and precise results (Bhandari, 2022). In this study, for example, the result became more reliable by administering questionnaires to the students and interviewing the teachers after the classroom observations. Adopting a mixed method allowed for in-depth description through qualitative analysis and statistical information revealed via quantitative research.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Walker and Baxter (2019), Asper and Corte (2019), Timans, Woulter and Heilbron (2019), and Bassi (2021), among others, have noted the rapid growth of mixed method research due to the weaknesses of qualitative and quantitative approaches. Timans et al. (2019) note the rise in the number of publications that have mentioned the use of mixed methods over the past ten years. It indicates that a mixed methods approach has gained rapid recognition within the social and behavioural sciences. According to Flick (2017: 46), the mixed method has created a "booming field of methodological and theoretical

discussions". All these scholars believe that a mixed methods design gives the best scope for interpreting and addressing research problems by merging two sets of methods to cover each method's weaknesses.

This study used methodological triangulation. Methodological triangulation is the use of several methods for data collection, such as questionnaires, interviews, observations, and documents (Dźwigoł & Dźwigoł-Barosz, 2020). It is employed when a researcher wants to confirm findings, have higher validity, more accurate data, and a better understanding of the investigated phenomenon (Bekhet & Zauszniewski, 2012). The data collected from multiple sources give the researcher a broadened insight into the underlying issues of the researched phenomenon.

4.2.3.2 Advantages of Mixed Method

A significant advantage of this method is that it creates a comprehensive understanding of the research topic that might be applied to enhance the generalisation of the findings of the study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Several studies have acknowledged the effectiveness of the mixed methods approach (Creswell, 2014; Shekhar, Prince, Finelli, Demonbrun & Waters, 2018; Dawadi et al., 2021). Creswell (2014) observes that mixed-method research gives a better understanding of the research problem, yields more evidence, and offers significant details in research. A mixed-method approach is recommended in the research process because it creates a more decisive research outcome than the outcome brought using only qualitative or quantitative methods (Dawadi et al., 2021). Shekhar et al. (2018) state that using a mixed method could introduce a new

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

research perspective. According to Poth and Munce (2020), mixed-method research enhances greater certainty and wider implications and reduces research biases.

4.2.3.3 Disadvantages of Mixed Method

The mixed method generates multiple forms of data to be analysed, which demands extensive time, resources, and various steps in data collection and interpretation (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). When many research methods are incorporated into one study, the complexity of conducting research may increase. The process often makes the researcher acquainted with multiple research methodologies and procedures for selecting samples, gathering data, analysing data, and combining data (Regnault, Willgoss & Barbic, 2018). Inadequate knowledge of the researcher in the research paradigms may constitute a problem in accomplishing the purpose of the study.

IN LUMINE TUO VIDE BIMUS LUMEN
University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

4.3 Research Design

This study used a case study and descriptive survey design to gather information to address the research objectives. The research design is a framework that provides a systematic approach to conducting a study (Sileyew, 2019). According to Creswell (2014), a research design aims to provide a coherent plan and procedures to answer the research questions through detailed data collection and analysis methods. The techniques employed in this study helped the researcher to gather data at the schools to describe the features of the classroom verbal interaction between teachers and students. In addition, it helped to elicit the effects of the features on students' verbal participation and teachers' use of a student-centred approach at the senior secondary school level in Ekiti South Senatorial district in Ekiti state, Nigeria.

4.3.1 Case Study

McCombes (2020) states that a case study refers to an in-depth or detailed study examining a specific individual, group, or situation. According to Thomas (2017), a case study aids the observation, data collection, analysis, and presentation of the findings of the study. The principal objective of using a case study is to investigate a phenomenon in its real-life situation through in-depth data involving some variables (Heale & Twycross, 2018). This design is most suitable when it is necessary for a broad field of study to be narrowed down into a few manageable samples. According to Mohan (2021), a case study is meant to provide in-depth information on a specific phenomenon, but it also usually aims to put the case in the context of the overall population. Case studies are primarily qualitative, involving data collection through interviews and observations. Heale and Twycross (2018) further state that using a case study approach allows for in-depth insight into the phenomenon being investigated by collecting qualitative and quantitative datasets rather than using only one type of data. This study focuses on the Ekiti South senatorial district in Ekiti State, Nigeria. The research is a case of the secondary school teachers of English as a second language (ESL) and their students. It is a particular case because it only addresses one aspect of classroom interaction: verbal interaction between teacher and students. The researcher focused on analysing the linguistic and discourse choices the teachers and their students made in classroom verbal interaction.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

4.3.2 Survey

A survey refers to a research design where data is gathered from a large sample or the entire population of participants to understand and describe the population's opinions, perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, or characteristics (Creswell & Hirose, 2019). In this

procedure, according to Brace (2018), researchers commonly collect quantitative and statistically significant data using questionnaires or interviews. The data collected are numerically analysed to describe trends in responses to questions and to test research questions. Brace (2018) notes that a survey questionnaire is a common technique in quantitative studies in which a set of questions is created on the topic to gather information from the participants. With a survey questionnaire, researchers can gather enormous data in less time with less chance of biases.

The present study used a descriptive research survey. According to Nassaji (2015), descriptive survey design represents an approach to describing a particular phenomenon and its characteristics. A survey is usually concerned with assessing a series of what, where, when, and how questions and the participants' responses. Survey design is used to describe a specific aspect of a target population. It uses a selected sample of the population from which the findings can be generalised to the entire population (Dangal, 2021). Since this study aimed to examine the linguistic and discourse features used by teachers and senior secondary school students in the English language classroom, the researcher used a survey questionnaire in the quantitative aspect of the study. The survey questionnaire was prepared and administered to derive the students' opinions about classroom processes and verbal activities in which they were involved. Using a survey questionnaire was aimed at determining the effect of classroom teacher talk on the use of the student-centred learning approach and adequate verbal participation in the lessons.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

4.4 Description of Population and Sampling Procedure

4.4.1 Population

Casteel and Bridier (2021) define a population as the totality of all the individuals, groups, organisations, or other things that conform to the specifications of a study and to whom or to which the findings of the study can be extended. A population consists of a well-defined collection of objects or events having similar characteristics and about which researchers seek knowledge or information (Chadwick & Allen, 2022). The population of this study comprised teachers and students in senior secondary schools in Ekiti State in Nigeria. Ekiti South Senatorial District, which has 59 public secondary schools, was drawn as a representative case study.

4.4.2 Sample and Sampling Procedure

A sample is a part of the entire population extracted using an appropriate sampling technique to reduce the number of cases or participants needed for the research (Taherdoost, 2016). Casteel and Bridier (2021:345) state that "the sampling frame is an operationalised representation of the target population and is the group of units from which the sample is recruited." In a sample, there must be specific population features to which the research result will be generalised. This set of units are often individuals who are usually requested to participate in the study. The nature of the sampling structure is directly related to the sampling technique used to select the sample considered for actual inclusion in the study (Prandner & Weichbold, 2019). The sampling frame is also used to determine whether a participant should be included to participate in the study; therefore, it helps determine the inclusion and exclusion criteria to be considered (Casteel &Bridier, 2021). Having a sample that is typical of the target population enables researchers to generalise findings from data collected from the sample to the target population (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007). Researchers can generalise results from data obtained

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

from the sample to the target population by using a sample that is representative of the target population.

The participants of this study were the teachers and students of English as a second language in the senior secondary schools in Ekiti State in Nigeria. The participants were chosen because the research is related to student-teacher classroom interaction. The participants are, thus, suitable to offer the required information to the research questions and bring an understanding of the topic being studied. The reason for choosing the participants from the senior secondary school level is that, at that educational level, students have been exposed to the English language for more than ten years. At this level of education, the students are no longer restricted to the language of their immediate environment. Moreover, the students are believed to have acquired the knowledge, attitude, and skills needed to develop good communication skills in English. At this stage, students are being prepared for further academic pursuits, which may largely depend on their performance and competence in communication skills in English. Sargeant (2012) notes that one of the major tasks in the study design phase is to identify and select relevant participants, which enables the research question to be appropriately attended to.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

4.4.3 Sampling Procedure

A multistage sampling technique was used to select the sample for this study. In a multistage sampling technique, according to Sedgwick (2015), the process allows the researcher to categorise the population into subgroups with no constraints. The groups are then selected in stages to reduce the sample to the required size. The sample of this study was obtained using multistage sampling with four stages. In the first stage, a simple

random sampling of the district was made with the probability of selection proportionate to size. Therefore, Ekiti south senatorial district with the highest number of Local government areas was selected out of three senatorial districts in the state. In the second stage, random sampling was used to select four local government areas out of the six local government areas in Ekiti south senatorial district. Proportional sampling was used to select ten senior secondary schools from the four selected local government areas. In the final stage, thirty senior secondary schools (SS) 2 students were randomly selected from each of the schools. The SS2 English teachers in each school were used for the study. Three hundred students were selected, with twenty teachers, two from each school, including male and female teachers.

Sedgwick (2015) and Alvi (2016) describe the multistage sampling technique as sampling within the sample. In a multistage sampling procedure, the selection is carried out in the various stages using smaller sampling units at each stage (Palinkas et at., 2015). A multistage sampling technique involves the combination of two or more probability techniques. Multistage sampling is most effective when the target population is spread over a wide geographical area and is diverse (Alvi, 2016). Guetterman (2015) explains that the sample is achieved in stages in the case of a large population like a city, state, or country to identify each sampling unit more practically and appropriately. According to Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007), multistage sampling is one of the major schemes in mixed methods research used to choose a sample in multiple stages from the random sampling procedures.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

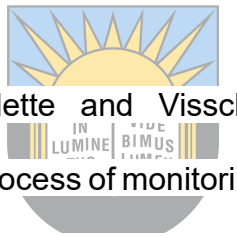
The simple random sampling technique was used at the sampling stages to realise the sample size for the study. Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) describe a simple random

sampling technique as the type in which every individual in the desired population has an equal chance of being selected for the study. Thomas (2020) states that simple random sampling is a probability sampling method involving the researcher selecting a subsection of the population. Using simple random sampling makes the sample a good representation of the target population. It has high internal and external validity (Thomas, 2020).

4.5 Research Instruments and Data Collection Procedures

The researcher used observations, questionnaires, and interviews as research instruments to collect data for this study.

4.5.1 Observation



According to Bell, Dobbelaer, Klette and Visscher (2019) and O'Leary (2020), observation is a formal or informal process of monitoring what happens in a natural setting to acquire information from a primary source. Kawulich (2012) identifies observation as a method for collecting data about people, processes, and cultures. Bell et al. (2019) classify two critical purposes of observation systems: understanding and improving teaching. This study used observation to examine the participants in the typical classroom setting. O'Leary (2020) describes classroom observation as an act of examining a teacher's presentation and students' reactions in their classroom or any other learning environment. Classroom observation is aimed at monitoring the teaching process in a classroom or any other academic environment.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

In this study, twenty teachers were observed during classroom sessions with their students. The researcher used overt participant observation in which the participants were aware they were being observed. Overt participant observation demands that the

researcher is open to the participants about his or her intention (Brancati, 2018). The participants willingly agreed to participate in this study because the researcher had already built rapport with them. The Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) scheme was used to observe teachers in classroom interaction with their students in two (2) classes in each of the schools selected for the study. Nina Spada, Maria Frohlich and Patrick Allen originally developed the communicative orientation of the language teaching scheme in 1984 (Vidhiasi & Cilacap, 2018). According to Vidhiasi and Cilacap (2018), the development of COLT as an observation scheme was motivated by the advocacy for communicative language teaching. Karfa (2019) likewise notes that the issue of theory and practice in applying the approach in second and foreign language teaching has further influenced the development of the scheme.

The researcher opted for classroom observation to collect the data that would address the problem identified in the study. The extent to which communicative competence among Nigerian secondary school students is declining requires that the ESL classrooms be systematically observed to describe what happens there explicitly. This study is concerned with the linguistic and discourse features of teacher-student verbal interactions in the language classroom and their effectiveness in promoting students' verbal participation and student-centred approach. The COLT observation scheme was used with some modifications within Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) discourse analysis model. Sinclair and Coulthard's model of speech act structure – initiation, response, and follow-up acts – was included in the observation scheme to have robust data to address the research questions. The S&C discourse analysis model has been extensively discussed in chapters two and three of this dissertation. The observation scheme was scheduled

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

into two parts. Schedule one was used to observe the linguistic and discourse features used by teachers and students in verbal classroom interaction, and schedule two, students' verbal participation and teachers' use of a student-centred approach.

Balanced classroom interaction in language teaching can be demonstrated through the teacher's linguistic choices and ability to allow the students to participate more freely and actively in classroom communication. According to Fesway-Malao (2016), the teacher's language is imperative in language teaching, but it would be of more benefit to the students if the teacher can give students more time to hear their linguistic input as they use the language. Therefore, using the COLT observation scheme in the current study helped to observe the features of the language used by the teacher and the students that contribute to students' verbal participation and the extent to which teachers consider student-centred learning. Van Lier (1996) explains that the reason for focusing on participation in classroom verbal interaction is the assumption that it is in some ways directly related to learning or providing opportunities for communicative language use. Observation provides a reality check; hence, it functions as a tool to establish the reliability of a study. Observation helped the researcher in this study to note those behaviours that might have been denied or glossed over in participants' responses to interviews or questionnaires.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Classroom interactions were video recorded to capture every relevant moment of the lessons and enable thorough transcription. The researcher carried out the observations personally, sitting in the classroom throughout the length of time for each session. All the classroom observations were done during school hours. The length of time of each session varied from twenty to forty minutes. In all, twenty lessons were observed and

video recorded. The following variables were observed in class; the linguistic and discourse features of participants' talks, the extent of students' verbal participation in classroom lessons, and the use or non-use of the student-centred learning approach. I was also interested in how teachers allowed students to initiate talks in the classes and teachers' talk time versus students' talk time.

4.5.2 Questionnaire

Questionnaires were developed to collect data from the students' participants to support and further provide insights about the information gathered through classroom observation. Creswell and Hirose (2018) describe a questionnaire as a research instrument used in a survey design containing questions or items to collect information from respondents concerning the phenomenon under study. Questionnaires were used in this study to collect quantitative data. Structured questionnaires were used to elicit adequate and unbiased information from the respondents on the effects of linguistic and discourse features of classroom interaction on students' verbal participation and involvement in the different activities in their classes.

IN LUMINE TUO VIDE BIMUS LUMEN
University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The questionnaires were designed and administered personally by the researcher to the students. Three hundred (300) questionnaires were distributed to the respondents and collected by the researcher. For the questionnaires to feature significant variant responses, it contained parts A and B. Part A captured students' age, gender, and attitudes to verbal participation and English language use in the classroom using multiple choice questions. Part B examined students' perceptions of their teachers' motivation towards student-centred learning using a 4-point Likert scale comprising Strongly Disagreed, Disagreed, Agreed, and Strongly Agreed. A 4-point Likert scale was used so

that the researcher could have the respondents' sincere and specific opinions. The raw data collected from the quantitative study was counted and analysed using tables and percentages. The questionnaires complemented and enriched the information generated from classroom observation.

4.5.3 One-on-one Interviews

One-on-one interviews were conducted with the teachers using open-ended questions to collect data. According to Bhasin (2019), an interview is a qualitative research instrument used to collect data and to get a deeper understanding of social trends. The researcher conducted the interviews in person, asking questions to converse with respondents. These interviews allowed the respondents to honestly share their opinions and experiences regarding the phenomenon under study. The personal interviews helped the researcher to be actively involved and to understand the patterns and processes the teachers followed during classroom interactions, especially in engaging the students in verbal interaction. In addition, the interviews were used to uncover teachers' awareness, understanding, and use of the student-centred approach in teaching.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

In the interviews, twenty teachers (20) were involved. Before the sessions began, they were informed about the research purpose and the impact of the findings on English language teaching and learning in the classroom. The interviews were scheduled as post-lesson one-on-one conversations with the teachers whose classes were observed. The interviewing periods varied between interviewees; thus, the sessions were scheduled at their convenience. Some sessions were done immediately after the classes were observed, while others were done later because some of the teachers

had other classes or engagements after their classes. An interview schedule was produced to have the same questions for the interviewees. The questions were straightforward and allowed the interviewees to express themselves concerning the patterns and processes they followed while teaching. The interview guides allowed for good use of reasonable interview time; they made questioning more orderly and comprehensive and helped keep interactions focused. The interview questions focused mainly on the following:

1. Teachers' demographic information (nationality, gender, years of teaching experience and educational qualifications)
2. Teachers' experiences concerning students' verbal participation in the classroom.
3. Classroom processes and practices to engage students in verbal participation in the classroom.
4. Teachers' plans towards improving students' verbal participation.
5. Activities to develop and monitor students' speaking skills.
6. Teachers' awareness of student-centred approach and implementation in their lessons.
7. Teachers' understanding concerning students' taking responsibility for their own learning.
8. Teaching and learning English in the Nigerian situation.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The interviews were digitally documented, and intelligent, detailed transcription was later done. Intelligent verbatim transcription allows researchers to exclude fillers and

fix any grammatical issues in the transcription (George, 2022). An appendix with a copy of the interview guide is included on the last pages of the study.

4.6 Data analysis

The data collected were grouped according to the collection instruments used. Data analysis was done using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The quantitative analysis involved the use of tables, frequencies, and percentages to discuss the responses to questionnaires. The data gathered through individual interviews were classified and analysed thematically. The data collected through observation were segmented and analysed along the act, move, and exchange levels of the rank scale model of Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) to pinpoint the unique language and discourse choices teachers and students made during classroom engagement. The effectiveness of the linguistic and discourse features used by teachers and students on students' participation and language use in classroom interaction was examined. How they contribute to student-centred learning in classroom interaction was further discussed in conjunction with this process through the critical analysis of teachers' and students' responses to interviews and questionnaires.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

4.7 Pilot Study

A pilot study is an experimental study done on a smaller scale to check the viability of a research instrument version of the actual investigation. According to Creswell and Hirose (2019), a pilot study involves the researcher administering the instrument to a small group of participants to check if there are any flaws to be corrected in the instrument. The research instruments need to be accurate and of a high standard to obtain precise performance before they can effectively measure what they are meant to measure. For that to be done in this study, a pilot study was conducted on senior secondary school

teachers and students from three different schools in Ikere local Government Area. These schools were not included in the actual research. Two instruments (the questionnaires and the interview schedule) were tested in the pilot study. The questionnaires were individually given to 30 students for the purpose of survey authentication, and an interview schedule was created to speak with three teachers from the three experimental schools. The researcher used this activity to ensure the instructions were understandable. The questionnaire had a few issues that the pilot research identified that needed to be fixed. For example, thirty teachers were asked to complete the pilot questionnaires for survey validation, and an interview guide was prepared to interview three teachers from the three pilot schools. The researcher used this activity to make sure the guidelines were thorough. The questionnaire had a few issues that needed to be rectified, as highlighted by the pilot research. It also helped identify the areas that would require an explanation for the respondents to understand better how to answer the questions appropriately. Some of the interview schedule questions that were duplicated or irrelevant were removed.

University of East Ilara
Together in Excellence

Findings from the pilot study reveal both the validity and reliability of the instruments.

4.8 Validity and Reliability of Research Instruments

The validity and reliability of the instruments were established by the researcher in this study. One of the fundamental requirements of any research procedure is the validity of the data and findings. Research's validity concerns whether it is credible, truthful, and measures what it is intended or meant to measure (Zohrabi, 2013; Bhandari, 2022). Before conducting the primary investigation for this study, the validity of the instruments was determined during the pilot study. The instruments were given to the experts to make necessary corrections and adjustments. The modifications and suggestions were noted, and adjustments were made before going to the field. In addition, the validity of this study

was increased through methodological triangulation, the supervisor's review, and the researcher's honest report of the findings. Bhandari (2022) describes methodological triangulation as a means to avoid errors and biases that come with relying on only one research approach. Using interviews that accurately captured teachers' experiences and classroom observations allowed the researcher to achieve credibility and truth value in the qualitative study.

The reliability of the study was demonstrated by how well the research questions were written and organised. According to Zohrabi (2013), the reliability of the research instruments shows when the conclusions of the study are consistent and can be reduplicated. The reliability coefficient of the instruments for quantitative data collection was determined using Cronbach Alpha. Thirty respondents outside the study area were used. The reliability coefficient of the questionnaire on students' participation and language use in the classroom was 0.963. The reliability coefficient of the students' questionnaire on teachers' motivation towards student-centred learning was 0.978.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

4.9 Ethical Considerations

The researcher sought and obtained ethical clearance from the University of Fort Hare, before commencing the research. According to Fleming and Zegwaard (2018), Kaiser (2019), and Kang and Hwang (2021), ethical research consideration is necessary to take care of crucial ethical issues such as the issue of confidentiality of the findings and conclusion of the study and the plan to protect the dignity, rights, and safety of the research participants. The ethical principle guiding the present study is that the findings must not adversely affect the participants. The researcher sought permission to conduct the study in the selected schools from the Ekiti State Ministry of Education. A letter of

introduction to the principals of the schools. Informed consent from the participants was done when the researcher visited the schools and spoke with the principal and the teachers about the essence of the study and the data to be gathered from them. The participants were informed of the purpose of the research and were allowed to decide whether to participate in the study. Participants were assured of confidentiality and that their names would not be disclosed while conducting the study. The researcher interacted with the participants sincerely, impartially, and compassionately throughout the data collection period. The research participants were also assured that they could withdraw from the study without fear of punishment or victimisation and that they would be safe from any mistreatment. The researcher did not record the participants' names but ensured that their identities were strictly kept anonymous. In addition, to avoid plagiarism, all materials, such as books, articles, and papers, were adequately referenced.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

4.10 Conclusion

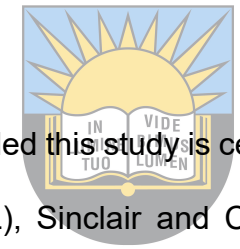
This chapter presented the research methodology fundamental to this study and explained its significance to the study. The research design, instruments, data collection and data analysis methods, validity, reliability, and ethical issues were also explained. The following chapter focuses on data presentation, analysis and interpretation.

CHAPTER 5

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

5.0 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the research methodology used in the data collection procedure of the study. This chapter opens with a presentation of classroom observation, which is mainly focused on identifying the linguistic and discourse features of teachers' and students' communication in classroom interaction. The chapter also presents and analyses research data collected through students' questionnaires and teachers' interviews. As mentioned earlier, quantitative and qualitative approaches were used for data analysis.



The theoretical framework that guided this study is centred on the fundamental notions of systemic functional linguistics(SFL), Sinclair and Coulthard (S&C) Discourse Analysis Model and Flanders Interaction Analysis Category System (FIACS). This approach views spoken discourse in the classroom as a social practice where language plays a crucial role in interpersonal communication. The framework allows for the analysis of linguistic features of teachers' and students' communicative practices within the structures of classroom activities in Nigerian schools. It establishes how these practices affect students' verbal participation in English language classes. The research questions that served as a guide for the analysis of data were:

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

1. What distinctive linguistic choices are made by teachers and students in classroom interaction?

2. How effective are the linguistic and discourse features used by teachers and students on students' verbal participation in classroom interaction?
3. How do the linguistic and discourse features used contribute to a student-centred approach in classroom interaction?

5.1 Demographic Distribution

The study sample was selected from ten (10) Senior Secondary Schools in Ekiti South Senatorial District of Ekiti State, Nigeria. The sample consisted of twenty (20) ESL teachers in the selected schools. The names of the schools were presented in the study in coded format as S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6), S7, S9, and S10 for the purpose of ethical consideration, anonymity and confidentiality. According to Kang and Hwang (2021), ethical research consideration is essential for maintaining the confidentiality of the findings and conclusion of the study and protecting the dignity, rights, and safety of the research participants.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Table 5.1 Biographical Data of Sample

The biographical data of the sample illustrated the nationality, years of teaching experience and gender, educational background, and participants' total number and percentages.

Variable	Frequency (Number)	Percentage
Nationality of participants		
Nigerians	20	100.0
Teachers' years of teaching experience		
0-5 years	2	10.0
6-9 years	2	10.0
10 years and above	16	80.0
Total	20	100.0
Gender of teachers		

Male	4	20.0
Female	16	80.0
Total	20	100.0
Teachers' educational background		
Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE)	2	10.0%
First Degree	14	70.0
Master's Degree and above	4	20.0
Total	20	100.0

Table 5.1 summarises the distribution of the participants according to their nationality, teachers' years of teaching experience, gender and educational background. The table shows that the sample consisted of twenty (20) participants who were Nigerians representing 100%. The data also reveals the teachers' teaching experience, from 1 year to 10 years and above. The results showed that 10.0% of the teachers had less than five years of experience, 10.0% had six to nine years, and 80.0% had more than ten years of experience teaching English. Furthermore, the table shows that teacher participants were five (5) males representing 25% and fifteen (15) females representing 75% of the sample. Out of the twenty (20) teachers involved in this study, two (2), that is, 10%, had Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE), fourteen (14) had a first degree, representing 70%, and four (4) representing 20% had a master's degree. Therefore, the data indicate that the majority of the teachers had higher degrees and had been teaching English for more than ten years.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

5.2 Classroom Observation

Data collection on classroom observation was done in phases. The first phase involves collecting the data through video recordings of twenty classroom sessions, two from each school. The observation schedule contained two parts aimed at not only personally observing what characterised teachers' and students' utterances during English lessons

but also how those characteristics affect students' verbal participation and teachers' use of a student-centred approach. The second phase includes the transcriptions of the lessons and analysis of the transcripts. The third phase followed the S&C model and FIACS combined in the observation schedule to classify the utterances which indicate participants' initiation, responding, and follow-up acts in both interaction and discourse analyses (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992; Amatari, 2015). The final phase is the presentation of the analysis in tables and descriptions. The data collected from classroom observations were analysed using both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

The first part of the observation framework for data collection followed the core elements of the teaching exchange according to the S&C model as presented in their book *Towards an Analysis of Discourse*, which includes the opening/initiating, answering/responding, and follow-up/feedback moves (Sinclair & Coulthard,1992; Atkin, 2001). The model featured discourse acts, including elicitation, directive, informative, and checking, the most common types used in the opening move. These types are realised through questions, instructions, and statements. The two other classes of moves of great significance are answering or responding moves and follow-up moves, which, in concurrence with the opening moves mentioned above, consist of feedback moves such as evaluative moves, interactive moves, corrective moves, and descriptive moves, as indicated in Table 5.2 below.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The analysis focused on explicitly examining what was observable in terms of moves made by the participants. Extracts are used to exemplify the discourse moves. In each of the extracts, 'T' stands for teacher, 'SS' for students answering in chorus and 'S' stands for a student responding to the teacher's questions or instructions. 'I' stands for Initiating

move, 'R' for Responding move and 'F' for feedback move, while 'NV' stands for the non-verbal response. Students' talk (responses, initiations, and silence) are also considered and subcategorised as elicitation, informative, requestive, positive and negative responses, silence, self-repair, peer-repair, endorsement/thanking and acknowledging in Table 5.3. The second part of the data focused on students' verbal participation and teachers' use of the student-centred learning approach, as presented in tables 5.4 and 5.5, respectively.

5.2.1 Teachers' Linguistic Choices

Table 5.2 Teachers' Linguistic Choices

Teachers initiating moves												
Moves	Subcategories	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	Total	%
Elicitation	Close/Display questions	24	31	20	16	17	23	13	22	14	12	192	7.7
	Open/Referential questions	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	3	0.12
	Yes/No questions	1		1	2	1	2	4	7	2	6	26	1.0
	Repeating elicit	6	28	6	9	3	19	10	14	12	12	119	4.7
	Requesting clarification	3	11	2	6	7	7	10	20	3	4	73	2.9
	Focus-elicit	10	18	19	16	13	18	3	12	14	15	138	5.5
Directive	Advising	5	5	6	3	4	2	2	10	9	3	49	1.9
	Warning	2	2	0	0	0	1	0	2	4	0	11	0.4
	Nominating	27	62	24	28	19	25	16	40	10	17	268	10.7
	Focusing	6	11	7	14	6	10	4	16	10	7	91	3.7
	Requesting	4	6	1	5	1	8	6	11	3	2	47	1.9
	Instructing	48	75	27	22	22	15	20	47	29	10	315	12.6
Informative	Reporting	8	2	7	14	8	10	7	15	14	4	89	3.6
	Explaining	15	31	9	28	17	38	25	39	18	29	249	9.9
	Clueing	4	21	6	14	5	11	6	14	7	3	91	3.7
Checking		12	23	7	14	18	9	18	25	19	19	164	6.6
Teachers' responding moves to students' initiating moves													
Positive		0	1	0	3	4	2	0	6	0	1	17	0.7
Negative		2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	3	0.12
Temporisation		2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0.08
Teachers' feedback moves													

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Evaluative	Praising	17	10	8	9	6	3	6	12	6	7	84	3.4
	Repeating	9	42	10	21	16	15	7	20	7	18	165	6.6
	Accepting	19	5	10	4	4	13	9	21	11	12	108	4.3
Interactive (asking further questions)		6	3	4	4	2	0	2	3	4	28	56	2.2
Corrective	Direct correction	6	13	6	8	5	5	1	8	4	0	56	2.2
	Recasting	1	6	3	1	3	4	0	5	3	0	26	1.0
	Metalinguistic explanation	3	11	5	7	1	5	0	6	0	2	40	1.6
Descriptive	Acknowledging	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	5	0.2
	Refocusing	0	3	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	8	0.3
Total		240	420	190	248	182	249	169	378	204	215	2,475	100.0

Teachers initiating moves

Table 5.2 shows the number and the percentages of occurrences of the linguistic choices made by teachers. From the table, the subcategory 'instructing' under 'directive initiating moves has the highest percentage (12.6%), indicating that for the teachers, the most common linguistic choice made in their lessons was instruction. The subcategory 'nominating' under 'directive initiating moves with a percentage of (10.7%) was second most significant to the teachers' lesson presentation, followed by 'explaining' under 'informative moves' (9.9%). The results also indicated that the use of 'display questions (7.7%) took precedence over other types of questioning techniques used by the teachers – yes/no questions (1.4%), referential questions (0.12%), repeating elicit (4.7%), requesting clarification (2.9%) and focus: elicit (5.5%).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The classroom observation showed that teachers' talk was more dominated by 'instruction' and 'nomination' than other subcategories of 'directive initiating moves – 'advising' (1.9%), 'warning' (0.4%), focusing (3,7%) and requesting (1.9%). It was observed that all the teachers used instructions to have the students' verbal and non-verbal responses. 'Nomination' was used to call on students to answer questions or

respond to instructions. It was observed that students did not often answer questions or talk in class unless they were called or beckoned to by the teacher. However, there were very few occasions of student interruption.

Furthermore, the subcategory 'explaining' was of greater significance to the lessons than other subcategories under 'informative initiating moves, such as 'clueing' with a percentage of (3.7%) and 'reporting' (3.6%). Thus, the results indicated that all the teachers employed 'clues' to help the students respond to elicitations and instructions appropriately and 'informative: reporting' to give information to the students regarding the lesson. Nevertheless, 'explaining' under 'informative initiating moves was of greater significance to describing or/and explaining the subject matter of the lessons. 'Checking' was mostly used after teachers' explaining' move to determine whether students understood the explanation and to be sure if the assignments given were completed.

Extract 1 below demonstrates teachers' initiating moves as shown in turns 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, and 11, revealing the use of directive: instructing and nominating as well as informative, elicitation and checking. This shows that directive, informative, elicitation and checking are the main acts that characterise teachers' initiating moves.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Extract 1

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	Before now… before now, we have learned about… We have learned about tense, and then I told you what we mean by tense.	I	Informative	Reporting
		Now, I want somebody to stand up and tell me when we say tense… what is it?		Directive	Instructing
		What it really means. Tense means what?		Elicitation	Dis. Question
2	SS	Time	R	Reply	Positive

3	T	Time. Tense means time.	F-I	Evaluative	Repeating
		It is the tense that will tell you the time that an action take place.		Informative	Explaining
		And we have different types of tenses which are? The tenses we have….		Elicitation	Focus: Eliciting
		Now, this time around, if you want to talk, you raise up your hand.		Directive	Instructing
		Yes		Directive	Nominating
4	S1	Past tense.	R	Reply	Positive
5	T	We have past tense. We have simple tense. We have simple present tense. We have simple past tense.	F-I	Evaluative	Repeating
		Enhen? Any other one apart from that?		Elicitation	Focus: Eliciting
6	SS	(Silent)			
7	T	What of present continuous tense, we have past continuous tense we have future tense. All these are indicating what?	F-I	Evaluative	Metalingiustic Explanation
				Elicitation	Dis. Question
8	SS	Time	R	Reply	Positive
9	T	Indicating time, time of an action. Now today we are looking at…	F-I	Evaluative	Repeating
				Informative	Reporting
		What is this now on the chalkboard?		Elicitation	Focus: Elicit
10	SS	Sequence of tense.	R	Reply	Positive
11	T	Sequence of tense. We are looking at sequence of tense. And when we talk of sequence, we are talking of how things are written. How… may be you have two sentences… how the verbs are helping one another.	I	Informative	Reporting
		Today we are looking at reported… Sequence of tense and reported speech (writes). When we talk of reported speech, we mean an action has happened or a statement has been made one time or the other and you want to report. You want to report… that is what is meant by reported speech. Before reported speech there must be a direct speech. Direct speech is a speech that somebody made. May be you've said something and I want to repeat it or tell another person about it. By the time I'm telling another person about it. what … What a … What another person said I'm reporting it. So the arrangement now … the verb now will be different. It is the very that determines tense. Verb … It is the verb that determines tense. What … when			Explaining

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

		we talk of verb we are talking about action. Yes … Do you understand?		Checking	Checking
12	SS	Yes	R	Reply	Acknowledging

The above extract features the teacher eliciting, directing, informing and checking during a lesson on *Sequence of Tense.* The teacher initiated the conversation with 'informative: reporting' to give the students information on the previous lesson. This act of providing information, described by Sinclair and Coulthard (1992), was observed across the classes seen. The observation showed that more than two third of the teachers used reporting in the opening phase of their lessons to give brief descriptions of the previous instructional activities and introduce the topic of the day's lesson. This result is also reflected in the responses of the teachers to interviews. 14 of them (70%) said they started their lessons by giving information on the topic of the day (Section 5.5, theme 2). Eliciting was a vital aspect of classroom communication. In the extract, the teacher used elicitation (display questions) to elicit students' linguistic responses as the lesson progressed. The extract also reveals the teacher's use of focus: elicit to get better student responses. The teacher usually nominated students to answer questions. The classroom discourse, as revealed in the extract, shows teachers' explanations in turns 3, 7, and 11. Moreover, 'informative: explaining' was used by the teacher to inform and define concepts or ideas relating to the topic of the lesson, while 'directive: instructing' was used to request students' verbal or non-verbal responses. The discourse analysis shows the IRF structure of the teaching exchange in the extract.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Teachers' responding moves

Furthermore, the data in Table 5.2 reveal teachers' 'responding moves' to students' initiating moves. The results indicated that teachers responded to students' initiations in a more encouraging/positive manner (0.70%) than negative (0.12%) and temporisation (0.08%). Extract 2a, turns 3, 5, 7 and extract 2b, turns 3, 5, 7, and 9 exemplify teachers' responding moves as shown below.

Extract 2a

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	This is your homework. Open to page 107 in the intensive book 3.	I	Informative Directive	Reporting Instructing
2	S7	What page?	I	Elicitation	Clarifying
3	T	You are to try questions 1 to 5 Any questions?	R-I	Responding Directive Elicitation	Temporisation Instructing Turn-passing
4	S8	What is the meaning of doer?	I	Elicitation	Clarifying
5	T	ummh?	R	Elicitation	Clarifying
6	S8	Doer.	I	Elicitation	Repeating: Elicit
7	T	Doer? It's a person that does the action while the person that the action falls upon is the receiver. That's why we say the doer will always be the what?... the subject. We have a verb in the sentence, then the receiver … the last one will be the receiver of the action. That's the meaning of doer. The person that did or does the action	R	Responding	Positive

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Extract 2b

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	Submit your work now	I	Directive	Instructing
2	SS	(Some students) Mummy please, mummy, please.	I	Requestive	Requesting
3	T	If I write the correction and you write, I will know	R	Responding	Negative
4	SS	Ah… mummy, please	I	Requestive	Requesting
5	T	If you are waiting for me …. You are waiting for me before you underline, and you come here to submit. I will	R-I	Responding	Negative

		give you zero. Whether you get it or not, I will give you zero. Can we?		Checking	Checking
6	SS	Yes// No// mummy, please.	I	Requestive	Requesting
7	T	Can we?	R	Responding	Temporisation
8	SS	Yes// No// mummy, please.	I	Requestive	Requesting
9	T	Okay, if you are still writing, put your hands up.	R	Responding	Positive

In extract 2a, the teacher was trying to direct the students to the textbook page where they could find their assignment. A student asked a question to clarify what the teacher had just said. The teacher seemed to ignore the student, leading to 'temporisation'. Tsui (1995) describes temporisation as a dispreferred response that is marked by linguistic features like silence, delay or acting evasively. However, the second student's elicitation in the extract attracted the teacher's positive response. This observation indicates that teachers' responses to students' initiating moves may be determined by their significance to the lesson. In extract 2b, the teacher gave a directive for which the students were unprepared. Students' requestive move was to enable them to complete their classwork. The teacher's response was not favourable to the students' requests; hence it is tagged negative. That scenario implies that teachers control what goes on in their lessons, as Lu (2021) claims. Extract 2a and 2b show the IR pattern in the discourse.

University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

Teachers' Feedback Moves

According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1992), feedback is an important part of the IRF structure of the discourse analysis system. The data in Table 5.2 above indicate that teachers' feedback moves were employed in varying instances. They consisted of evaluative, interactive, corrective, and descriptive moves according to Chafi's and Elkhouzai's (2016) categorisation.

Evaluative Feedback

According to Hamza (2019), evaluation is one of the components of the closing phase of classroom discourse. Evaluative feedback is an assessment of students' performance (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992). When providing this kind of feedback, teachers most often use expressions such as "good," "very good," "yes," "right," and "okay" to denote that a student's answer is appropriate. The data analysis indicates that teachers' evaluative moves followed three patterns – praising students when they provided the right answers, repeating, and accepting the students' responses. According to the results presented in table 5.2 above, the subcategory 'repeating' (6.6%) was teachers' most common evaluative move to demonstrate that students' answers were correct. Other subcategories are 'accepting' (4.3%) and praising (3.4%). The following extract in turn 5 exemplifies teachers' evaluative feedback.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Extract 3

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	Bring out your assignments.	I	Directive	Instructing
2	SS	NV	NV		
3	T	In our last class, we looked at the nominalisation of adjectives. We saw the way by which adjectives can be nominalised. What are the ways by which an adjective can be nominalised?	I	Informative Elicitation	Reporting Dis: Question
4	S1	Addition of Suffixes.	R	Reply	Positive
5	T	Yes, addition of suffixes. Around of applause for her.	F	Evaluative	Accepting Repeating Praising
6	SS	(Clapped)	NV		
7	T	You add a suffix to an adjective to make it a? … a?	I	Elicitation	Focus: Elicit
8	SS	Nominalised adjective.	R	Reply	Negative

9	T	Noun; not a nominalised adjective. I told you nominalisation has to do with transforming words that belong to different grammatical classes into a noun. So, the addition of the suffix is to transform the adjective into a noun. You have some words that you were told to nominalise. What are the words?	F-I	Corrective Elicitation	Direct correction, Metalinguistic Explanation Focus: Elicit
10	SS	Delicious	R	Reply	Positive
11	T	Exchange your books. Bring out your red pens or pencils.	I	Directive	Instructing

Interactive feedback

Interactive feedback is a technique teachers use to ask follow-up questions or focus: elicit to help students get the understanding needed to provide accurate answers to questions (Chafi & Elkhouzai, 2016). It is a method of providing information or guidance to help students improve their answers to questions. According to the data in Table 5.2, the instances of the use of interactive feedback were very low (2.2%) compared to other types of feedback. It was observed that teachers used interactive feedback sparsely. The teachers' choice, in this case, could have been because of time constraints, students' disposition to verbal participation in the classes and teachers' plans to cover the syllabus within the specified time. In the following extract, turns 21 to 43 illustrate the teacher's interactive feedback. In the example, the teacher used 'directive: focusing' move and 'focus: eliciting' to prompt students to give better and complete answers after the first attempt. The teacher also gave metalinguistic explanations to correct students' wrong or inappropriate answers and gave them time to answer the questions as appropriately as possible. Extract 4 below illustrates the teacher's use of interactive feedback.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Extract 4:

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	We have summary writing. English composition?	I	Informative Elicitation	Reporting Yes/No Question
2	SS	Yes	R	Reply	Acknowledging
3	T	Who is reading from the textbook? Kehi, read the question.	I	Directive	Instructing Nominating
4	S1	In five sentences, one for each, write five steps that… that must be taken to write a composition.	R	Reply	Positive
5	T	What are you to look for?	I	Elicitation	Focus: Eliciting
6	SS	(Silent)	NV		
7	T	Everybody. Everybody. What are you looking for?	I	Elicitation	Repeating Elicit
8	SS	Five steps to writing a composition.	R	Reply	Positive
9	T	Just to refresh your memory. Marier, read for us. Now, pay attention.	I	Directive	Instructing
10	S2	(Reading)	R	Reply	Positive
11	T	So, with what you learned when we did the comprehension passage, can we ask specific questions? In five sentences, one for each, we are going to attempt the questions now. I will mark it. So, answer the comprehension questions in your notebooks in fifteen minutes. Write today's date.	I	Directive	Focusing Instructing Advising
12	SS	NV	NV		
13	T	When you are writing composition, what is the first thing you do? (Moved around the classroom) Some of you are not writing. Have you forgotten? Are you through with that?	I	Elicitation Checking	Focus: Eliciting Checking
14	SS	(Some students indicated they were through while some were not yet through)	NV		
15	T	Please, hurry up (Gave students more time). According to the passage, what is the first thing you do when you want to write a composition? Toria, Agboeye: Number 2, Kehi: Number 3, Toyo: Number 4.	I	Directive Elicitation Directive	Advising Focus: Eliciting Nominating
16	S3	Selection of topic	R	Reply	Positive

University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

17	T	Selection of topic. So, how will you say it? How will you say it? Tammy, answer the question.	F-I	Evaluative Elicitation Directive	Repeating Focus: Eliciting Nomination, Instruction
18	S4	(Silent)			
19	T	Now, exchange your books.	I	Directive	Instruction
20	S4	Selection of a topic.	R	Reply	Positive
21	T	(Writes student's answer on the chalkboard) The five steps to be taken when writing a composition are…? So what did I say you will do here? (pointing to what she wrote on the board). That is one... Selection of a topic.	F-I	Evaluative Elicitation	Accepting Focus: Eliciting
22	S5	Selection of a topic	R	Reply	Positive
23	T	Selection of a topic. How do you begin? You begin with small letter because it is the continuation of what we have here (pointing to the board). That is the 's' that begins selection of a topic. What is the second step? After choosing a topic what is the next? Who is doing number two?	F-I	Evaluative Elicitation Informative Elicitation	Repeating Focus: Eliciting Explaining Focus: Eliciting Repeating elicit Focus: Eliciting
24	S6	Generation of ideas.	R	Reply	Positive
25	T	Generation of ideas. (wrote student's answer) Next, who is doing number three?	F-I	Evaluative Elicitation	Accepting Focus: Eliciting
26	S7	(Not loud enough)	R	Reply	Negative
27	T	What? I did not hear what you said. Be louder, say what you were saying. Say it. If you are wrong, you will be corrected.	I	Directive	Advising, prompting
28	S7	You pick the relevant ideas (Not too confident to talk)	R	Reply	Negative
29	T	Let someone else tell us the next step.	I	Directive	Instructing
30	S8	You rearrange the ideas.	R	Reply	Negative
31	T	No. We are not rearranging now. You pick the relevant ideas; you generate your outline from the drafted ideas. Then, what do you do next?	F-I	Corrective Elicitation	Direct correction, Metalinguistic Explanation Focus: Eliciting
32	SS	You rearrange the…	R	Reply	Negative
33	T	(Cut in) What do you rearrange	I	Elicitation	Focus: Eliciting

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

34	SS	The generated ideas.	R	Reply	Negative
35	T	Is it just ideas? There is something missing.	I	Elicitation Directive	Focus: Eliciting Focusing
36	SS	Relevant ideas	R	Reply	Negative
37	T	You rearrange the generated relevant ideas to the topic. Relevant ideas to the topic! Very important. Because in the process of brainstorming, a lot of ideas will come up. So, when you re-examine the ideas, you look at those that are relevant to the chosen topic. You note the ones that are relevant and do away with those that are not relevant, and that is why you have to rearrange them. So, what is the last step? Flevie, yes, Flevie.	F-I	Corrective Elicitation Directive	Recasting Metalinguistic Explanation Focus: Eliciting Nominating
38	S9	You check for accuracy.	R	Reply	Negative
39	T	What is accuracy? No. What do you do?	F-I	Corrective Elicitation	Direct correction Focus: Eliciting
40	S10	Put them in…	R	Reply	Negative
41	T	Speak louder	I	Directive	Advising
42	S10	Put them in related paragraphs.	R	Reply	Negative
43	T	Put them in related…Connect the relevant ideas with paragraphs. So, at this stage, we are going to develop the relevant ideas.	F-I	Corrective Informative	Recasting Reporting

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Corrective feedback

According to the data in Table 5.2, corrective feedback moves include the use of 'direct correction', 'recasting', and 'metalinguistic explanation'. Direct correction is usually expressed with words or phrases like 'no', 'not correct', or the teacher's explanation to give provision for the correct answers (Yanfen & Yuqin, 2010). 'Recasting' means accepting and reformulating students' answers, while metalinguistic explanations are used as further explanations or comments to correct wrong answers (Ali & Francisco, 2014). The table shows that corrective feedback occurred 122 times which is 5.5% of the

total teachers' utterances. Extract 4 above shows the instances of teachers' use of direct correction, recasting and metalinguistic explanation in turns 31, 37, 39, and 43.

Descriptive Feedback

Descriptive feedback is described as written feedback or conversations that provide explicit information that enables students to get what has to be done to enhance their learning. It involves the teacher acknowledging the student's answer but leading him to refocus to help the student understand what to do to get the right responses to questions or instructions. According to the data in Table 5.2, descriptive feedback seems to be the least often used of the teachers' utterances. Extract 5 below shows an example of teachers' use of descriptive feedback.

IN LUMINE TUO VIDE BIMUS LUMEN
University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Extract 5

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	What are the things you can do to come up with a debate writing that is devoid of errors and mistakes?	I	Elicitation	Dis. Question
2	SS	(Silent)			
3	T	Yes. Should I ask the question again?	I	Checking	Checking
4	SS	Yes.	R	Reply	Acknowledging
5	T	What are the things you can do to come up with a debate writing that is devoid of mistakes and errors? Yes. Who can answer that question?	I	Elicitation	Repeating elicit
6	SS	(Silent)			
7	T	Yes, who can try? Yes, Fatia.	I	Elicitation Directive	Repeating elicit Nominating
8	Fatia	Using figurative expressions, proverbs and… and idioms.	R	Reply	Positive
9	T	Yes.	F-I	Descriptive	Acknowledging Refocusing

		Is that all?			
10	Fatia	No	R	Reply	Acknowledging
11	T	Yes.	I	Directive	Instructing
12	Fatia	Then, giving detailed explanation of the points which, you have to put in the essay	R	Reply	Positive
13	T	Yes. Thank you. God bless you.	F	Evaluative	Accepting Praising

Extract 5 above shows how the teacher refocused the student to give a more appropriate answer to the question raised by the teacher in turn 1 and repeated in turn 5. The students' answer in turn 8 was positive but not adequate. The teacher's descriptive feedback shows that she acknowledged the student's reply and led her to refocus in turn 9 until the student gave an acceptable answer in turn 12.

5.2.2 Students' Linguistic Choices

Table 5.3 Percentage of Occurrence of Students' Linguistic Moves

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

			No of occurrence	Percentage
Initiating moves	Elicitation		13	2.0
	Requestive		5	0.7
	Informative		5	0.7
Responding moves	Positive	Individual	197	30.4
		Choral	131	20.2
	Negative	Individual	55	8.5
		Choral	12	1.9
	Silence		112	17.3
	Self-repair		1	0.15
	Peer-repair		3	0.5
Feedback moves	Endorsement/ thanking		0	0.0
	Acknowledging (choral)		116	17.9
Total			648	100.0

Table 5.3 reveals that a substantial part of the students' talk was apportioned to 'responding moves (61.7%). The category 'positive response' (50.6%) has the highest percentage, indicating that it was the most linguistic choice made by the students in the

classroom. The table shows the disparity between individual and choral positive responses, indicating that teachers engaged individual students more to answer questions apart from checking questions than they did with the students collectively. The positive responses given by the students mainly included brief answers to teachers' questions expressed in one or two words or short sentences. Furthermore, the category 'acknowledging' under 'feedback' moves, which were mainly replies of yes or no to teachers' checking questions, took (17.9%). Students' acknowledgement was always done in chorus. Therefore, choral responses were common. The instances of 'silence' took 17.3% of the students' talk, while 'negative responses' indicating unacceptable answers to teachers' questions or instructions, took 10.4%. The categories under 'initiating moves took only a small portion of students' interaction with the teachers, which include eliciting clarification (2.0%), 'requesting for permission' (0.7%), 'informing' (0.7%), indicating that the students hardly made initiations in the interaction. Moreover, the results in the table indicate that the students did not use 'endorsement/thanking'; only 1 of the students gave 'self-repair', representing 0.15%, and there were 3 instances of peer repair (0.5%). Extract 6a turn 2, 6b turn 2 and 6c turn 2 show examples of students initiating moves (eliciting, requesting, and informing). Extracts 7 (turns 4, 8, 10, 15, 17, and 18) and 8 (turns 2, 4, 8, and 15) exemplify students' responding and feedback moves, respectively.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Students' Initiating Moves

The data in Table 5.3 reveal initiating moves, indicating elicitation (2.0%), requestive (0.7%) and informative (0.7%) as the subcategories. The table shows that the instances of students' initiating moves combined were very low compared to the responding and

feedback moves made by the students in the interactions. The results indicate that student-initiated talks were very limited. Extract 6a below exemplifies student elicitation acts. Furthermore, Extracts 6b and 6c show examples of students' requestive and informative acts respectively.

Students' Elicitation Acts

Extract 6a

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	Any other questions?	I	Elicitation	Yes/No questioning
2	S	If I'm writing from Nigeria to Australia, how do I write the address?	I	Elicitation	Clarifying
3	T	That's a good question I'm expecting from you. Now if you are writing to another country. That's what he is trying to pass across. He said if it is in Nigeria here you are writing to Australia, and Australia is another country. The country you are in must reflect in your address. That means you have to put … (writing) Where do we have that now? Before the date, you put here Nigeria, and mind you have, (referring to the full stop put after Ekiti State on the address) you have a comma before you write Nigeria. I'm I talking? Now the address at times will now depend on the tone… uh … the type of the question given to you. If you have to write to your best friend, who is in another country, you should put the name of the country you are writing from in your address. The name of the country must reflect in your address. I think I have answered your question.	R-I	Responding	Positive

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

				Checking	Checking
4	SS	Yes sir.	R	Reply	Acknowledging

In Extract 6a above, a student asked a question in turn 2 in response to teacher's turn passing in turn 1. The student's elicitation was to clarify what was not clear to him in the lesson. The example demonstrates that students used elicitation mainly to ask for clarification or further explanation of the teacher's instructions. The extract also reveals that the teacher was excited to see a student asking a question, judging from the positive response and an elaborate explanation given by the teacher. That scenario further reveals that it was not common for students to take turn in the classroom discourse.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Students' Requestive Acts

Extract 6b

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	Let somebody clean the board.	I	Directive	Instructing
2	SS	Excuse me.	I	Requestive	Requesting
3	T	Okay, you have not written it?	R-I	Responding Checking	Positive Checking
4	SS	Yes.	R	Reply	Acknowledging
5	T	Quickly write now.	I	Directive	Instructing

Extract 6b shows student-to-teacher talk requesting for more time to finish a class work. Likewise Extract 6c reveals students' informative acts.

Students' Informative Acts

Extract 6c

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	Okay, you've tried. Now, let me give you sim… one simple sentence (writes) umm whatever… always… (Writes "what you say will always come…")	I	Directive	Instructing
2	SS	(Interruption to point the teacher's attention to the mistake in the sentence she wrote). You wrote 'what' what you say…	I	Informative	Reporting
3	T	Oh… er… sorry. It's whatever (corrects the mistake, that is, 'whatever' instead of 'what' she has written) (writes 'Whatever you say will always come to manifestation').	R	Responding	Positive

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Extract 6a, 6b and 6c show student-to-teacher talk in classroom interaction. The conversation indicates that students' initiating moves included elicitation, as shown in turn extract 6a, turn 2. The example demonstrates that students used elicitation mainly to ask for clarification or further explanation of the teacher's instructions. Extract 6b shows that students' initiating moves include requests for permission, as indicated in turn 2. Students also used informative acts to start a conversation in the classroom. In extract 6c above, the student used an informative act to call the teacher's attention to what she wrote on the chalkboard. Observation revealed that student-teacher talk did not include directive acts.

Students' Responding Moves

Table 5.3 categorises students' responding moves into positive, negative, silence, self-repair and peer-repair. The results indicated that 61.7% of all student talks were devoted

to responding. The results also indicated that students' responses were more positive (50.6%) than negative (10.4%). Other characteristic of students' responses included silence (17.3%). Most often, students remained silent when they were not sure of the best ways to respond to a question or when they lacked the knowledge of the correct answers to give. The table shows peer-repair (0.15%) and self-repair (0.5%), indicating the few instances when students corrected themselves and were corrected by their classmates. Extract 7a below exemplifies students' positive and negative responses, silence, self-repair and peer-repair.

Extract 7a

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	Who can give me… What's the meaning of a phrasal verb?	I	Elicitation	Dis. Question
2	SS	(Silent)			
3	T	Fajob, give us the meaning of a phrasal verb. A phrasal verb.	I	Directive	Nominating Instructing
4	S9	A phrasal verb is the verb that has a verb…	R	Reply	Negative
5	T	A verb that has what?	I	Elicitation	Requesting clarification
6	S9	A verb… and the head verb	R	Reply	Self-repair
7	T	Plus what?	I	Elicitation	Focus: Eliciting
8	S9	And… that has the verb as the head verb…	R	Reply	Negative
9	T	Yes. (Nominates another student)	I	Directive	Nominating
10	S10	A phrasal verb is a verb that contains two or three words… words.	R	Reply	Negative
11	T	Which words does it contain? It contains two or three words; which kind of words does it contain?	I	Elicitation	Focus: Eliciting
12	S10	(Silent)			
13	T	(Nominates Ade by pointing in his direction)	NV		
14	S11	It is a verb that contains two or three verbs.	R	Reply	Negative
15	T	Two or three…?	I	Elicitation	Requesting clarification

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

16	S11	Verb	R	Reply	Negative
17	T	No. it doesn't contain two or three verbs	F	Corrective	Direct correction
18	S9	(interrupts). It contains a main verb	R	Reply	Peer repair
19	T	A…?	I	Elicitation	Requesting clarification
20	S9	Main verb	R	Reply	Positive

In Extract 7a above, the teacher engaged the students in a series of questions on the meaning of a phrasal verb. The students' responses contained positive and negative answers as well as silence (turns 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18 and 20). Positive responses occurred when students gave acceptable answers, while negative responses indicated unacceptable answers to teachers' questions or instructions. Silence mainly happened when students were unsure of the correct answers to questions and perhaps when they were thinking of the best way to answer them (turns 2 and 12). Moreover, the researcher further characterised students' responding acts as self-repair and peer-repair to have a more in-depth explanation because she found that in a few instances, students corrected themselves and were corrected by their classmates, as exemplified in turns 6 and 18. Extract 7b below shows students' choral responses.

University of Port Harc
Together in Excellence

Extract 7b

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	The types of words that can be stressed range from monosyllabic words to bi-syllabic and polysyllabic words. The polysyllabic word is also called a multisyllabic word. What other name is given to polysyllabic words?	I	Informative Elicitation	Explaining Dis. Question
2	SS	Multisyllabic word	R	Reply	Positive
3	T	Every monosyllabic word is already stressed.	I	Informative	Explaining

		Are you getting what I'm saying?		Checking	Checking
4	SS	Yes.	R	Reply	Acknowledging
5	T	Any word that has just one syllable is stressed already. So you don't need to put stress anywhere on it.	I	Informative	Explaining
		What is a monosyllabic word?		Elicitation	Display question
		You. (Pointing to the student's direction)		Directive	Nomination
6	S4	It's a word that has one syllable.	R	Reply	Positive
7	T	A word that has one syllable.	F-I	Evaluative	Repeating Accepting
		Now, give me examples.		Directive	Instructing
8	SS	Go// sit// dance (students talking simultaneously)	R	Reply	Positive
9	T	Good.	F-I	Evaluative	Praising
		The bi-syllabic words are the words that have ehn two syllables. They contain two syllables. Only one of the syllables can be stressed. For example, the word – female.		Informative	Explaining
		What word class is female?		Elicitation	Display question
10	SS	A noun	R	Reply	Positive
11	T	Yes, female is a noun.	F-I	Evaluative	Accepting
		What of a word like pretend?		Elicitation	Repeating Display question
12	S5	Noun	R	Reply	Negative
13	T	No. Pretend?	F	Evaluative	Direct correction
14	SS	It is a verb.	R	Reply	Positive

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Extract 7b above exemplifies students' choral responses to questions as shown in turns 2, 4, 8,10. and 14. Choral students' response in turn 8 was to teacher's checking (more examples of this are found in extract 8). Students responded to teacher questions in chorus in all the turns except 6 and 12. According to the data in Table 5.3, individual responses in all the lessons took up 38.9% and choral responses 40.0%, indicating that the instances of students' choral responses were higher than that of individual responses.

Extract 7c below is an example of students' silence to turn-taking.

Extract 7c

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	The context of the use of the verb will indicate whether they are nouns or verbs.	I	Informative	Explaining
		The last one we mentioned?		Elicitation	Dis. Question
2	S1	By using gerund	R	Reply	Positive
3	T	Yes. By using gerund	F-I	Evaluative	Accepting
		Do you have questions on what we have done before I give you the assignment? Questions?		Directive	Repeating Requesting (Turn passing)
4	SS	Silent			
5	T	Can we clean the board?	I	Directive	Requesting
6	SS	Yes	R	Reply	
7	T	I want someone to come and do that. You.		Directive	Instructing Nominating
		Any question?			Requesting
8	SS	Silent			
9	T	Do you understand?	I	Checking	Checking
		On any of the things we have done today, ask questions. I have a question, raise your hand. I have a question, raise your hand.		Directive	Requesting
10	SS	Silent.			
11	T	Nobody has questions?	I	Informative	Reporting
		Okay. Now write any verb and change it to a noun using any of the ways. Within 30 seconds, just give me one verb and change it to a noun. A verb; any verb? You can use any of the … any of the ways and change it to noun while I write your assignment.		Directive	Instructing

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Extract 7c shows students' silence to turn-taking. In the extract, the teacher gave students the opportunity to ask questions in turns 3, 7 and 9 repeatedly but the students were silent (turns 4, 8 and 10). Students' silence as shown in Extract 7c above appears to be one of the reasons for low students' verbal participation in the classes.

Students' Feedback Moves

According to the data in Table 5.3, students' feedback moves are categorised into endorsement/thanking and acknowledging. The results showed that there were no instances of endorsement/thanking while acknowledging, mostly done in chorus, took 17.9 % of all the occurrences of students' linguistic moves. This shows that students' feedback moves were mainly characterised by students acknowledging teacher's checking questions as illustrated in Extract 8 below.

Extract 8

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	One of the features of an informal letter is the address. If you want to write any letter the address is… What? Very important. Are you getting it now?	I	Informative Checking	Explaining Checking
2	SS	Yes	F	Feedback	Acknowledging
3	T	Am I communicating?	I	Checking	Checking
4	SS	Yes	F	Feedback	Acknowledging
5	T	If you want to write any letter. You want to write an informal letter, the first thing you must have at the back of your mind is what?	I	Elicitation	Focus: Eliciting
6	SS	The address.	R	Reply	Positive
7	T	The address. You cannot write any letter without putting the address. Are you getting it now?	F-I	Evaluative Informative Checking	Repeating Explaining Checking
8	SS	Yes	F	Feedback	Acknowledging
9	T	Now, who can tell me another feature of an informal letter?	I	Directive	Dis. Question
10	SS	The date	R	Reply	Positive
12	T	Ehn?	I	Elicitation	Requesting clarification
13	SS	The date	R	Reply	Positive

University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

14	T	Yes, date is one of what? one of the features of what? of informal letter. Date is what? date is compulsory and essential. If you want to write any letter you must also what? You must also indicate what date. Are you getting it now?	F-I	Evaluative Informative Checking	Accepting Explaining Checking
15	SS	Yes	F	Feedback	Acknowledging

In Extract 8, the teacher's check questions like 'Are you getting it now' and 'Am I communicating appeared to be common immediately after a brief explanation of the subject matter as shown in turns 1, 3, 7, and 14. The students seemed to be used to the trend. Therefore, their responses were always 'Yes' (turns 2, 4, 8, and 15) given mainly to acknowledge the teachers checking for their understanding of the lesson. It was observed that this kind of checking and acknowledging only gave both the teacher and the students the impression that they were participating in the interaction.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

5.2.3 Students' Verbal Participation

Table 5.4 Observation of students' verbal participation

Items	Likert scale, total number and percentages						
	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Mean	SD	Decision
Students are apprehensive when asked to speak English.	2 (10.0) %	5 (25.0) %	8 (40.0) %	5 (25.0) %	2.20	0.73	Sometimes
Students do not want to talk in the classroom.	2 (10.0) %	7 (35.0) %	5 (25.0) %	6 (30.0) %	2.25	0.70	Often
Students prefer to use one or two words to respond to every question asked by the teacher.	3 (15.0) %	14 (70.0) %	3 (15.0) %	0 (0.0) %	3.00	0.53	Very often
Students spoken English is error-free	0 (0.0) %	2 (10.0) %	16 (80.0) %	2 (10.0) %	2.00	0.80	Sometimes

Students are allowed to ask questions freely.	0 (0.0) %	4 (20.0) %	9 (45.0) %	7 (35.0) %	1.85	0.88	Sometimes
Teacher uses English as a predominant means of communication with the students in the classroom	10 (50.0) %	4 (20.0) %	6 (30.0) %	0 (0.0) %	3.20	0.45	Very often
Teacher shows personal enthusiasm for speaking English to the students.	10 (50.0) %	5 (25.0) %	5 (25.0) %	0 (0.0) %	3.25	0.41	Very often
Teacher engages students in conversation to promote spoken English in the classroom	1 (5.0) %	4 (20.0) %	8 (40.0) %	7 (35.0) %	1.95	0.86	Sometimes
Grand mean = 2.46 SD= **0.67**							

Table 5.4 reveals that out of 8 items on observed students' verbal participation, only 3 have higher percentages for very often and often when combined. The percentages range between 75.0% and 85.0%. The items are as follows; students prefer to use one or two words to respond to every question asked by the teacher (85.0%), teachers used English as a predominant means of communication with the students in the classroom (70.0%), teachers show personal enthusiasm for speaking English to the students (75.0%). In the classes observed, some students were actually apprehensive about speaking English. They chose to be silent instead of giving wrong answers or speaking incorrect English. It was also observed that some of them who talked were answering teachers' questions in chorus. Some individual students who responded to questions used mainly one or two words or one or two sentences. The results in Table 5.4 above reveal that the grand mean of 2.46 is less than the mean benchmark of 2.5, showing that students' participation was inadequate. Table 5.5 below shows teachers' use of student-centred approach in the observed classrooms.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

5.2.4 Teachers' Use of Student-Centred Approach

Table 5.5 Observation of Teachers' Use of Student-Centred Approach

Items	Likert scale, total number and percentages						
	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Mean	SD	Decision
Teacher permits students to select their own topic for discussion	0 (0.0) %	0 (0.0) %	0 (0.0) %	20 (100.0) %	1.00	0.84	Seldom
Teacher asks questions that elicit thoughtful responses and allows sufficient time for students to answer.	2 (10.0) %	1 (5.0) %	3 (15.0) %	14 (70.0) %	1.55	0.80	Seldom
Teacher uses recasts (correct reformulation of students' speech) as a preferred method of corrective feedback.	2 (10.0) %	8 (40.0) %	6 (30.0) %	4 (20.0) %	2.40	0.62	Sometimes
Teacher uses students' ideas as part of his or her explanation of the lesson.	2 (10.0) %	10 (50.0) %	5 (25.0) %	3 (15.0) %	2.55	0.58	Often
Teacher allows students to be active central agents in small group discussions.	0 (0.0) %	0 (0.0) %	5 (25.0) %	15 (75.0) %	1.25	0.82	Seldom
Teacher engages students in activities (such as storytelling, class presentation, teamwork) to develop their language abilities.	0 (0.0) %	1 (5.0) %	3 (15.0) %	16 (80.0) %	1.25	0.81	Seldom
Teacher asks a lot of questions to motivate students' talk in English.	2 (10.0) %	5 (25.0) %	8 (40.0) %	5 (25.0) %	2.20	0.73	Sometimes
Grand mean = 1.74 SD= 0.74							

IN LUMINE TUO BIMUS LUMEN
University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Table 5.5 revealed the result of the analysis of classroom observation on how often teachers used the student-centred approach. The results revealed that teachers rarely permit students to select their own topic for discussion (1.00), teachers seldom ask questions that elicit thoughtful responses and allow sufficient time for students to answer (1.55), teachers seldom allow students to be active central agents in small group discussions (1.25) and teachers occasionally engage students in activities (such as

storytelling, class presentation, teamwork) to develop their language abilities (1.25). It was revealed in the observation that teachers sometimes use recasts (correct reformulation of students' speech) as a preferred method of corrective feedback (2.40), and teachers sometimes ask many questions to motivate students' talk in English (2.20). It was further revealed that teachers often used students' ideas to explain the lesson (2.55). The grand mean of 1.74, which is less than the mean benchmark of 2.5 shows that the teachers' use of the student-centred approach was inadequate.

5.3 Researcher's Perceptions on the overall observations

The researcher observed that questions and instructions predominantly characterised ESL teachers' utterances in classroom interaction. ESL teachers used more display questions to elicit students' responses than other question types. Furthermore, many of the instructions that teachers gave the students were mainly to get their verbal or non-verbal responses. It was also observed that explanation was significant to the lessons because teachers used it to describe and define concepts of importance to the topics. Observation revealed that teachers followed the traditional method of teaching, which amounted to using a teacher-centred approach. Teachers usually initiated the lessons, while students were seen hardly initiating conversations but most of the time responding to teachers' questions and instructions as individuals and in chorus. Teachers strictly followed the syllabus to cover the aspects to be taught as presented in the lesson notes, and the students mainly relied on what teachers had to teach. The researcher observed that teachers, in most of the classes, gave students opportunities to ask questions or demonstrate what they were taught towards the end of each lesson. However, the students were always silent instead of responding to the teachers' requests. Only in three of the classes observed students asked questions to get further clarification on what they

University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

were taught. Teachers' feedback moves were more evaluative than interactive and corrective, indicating less interactive teaching in the lessons observed.

5.4 Quantitative Data Presentation and Analysis

The quantitative data in this study were analysed using the information provided by the respondents to the questionnaires based on the questions posed by the research. Part of the quantitative data were obtained from classroom observations (as presented in Section 5.2 above). The data gathered in the questionnaire section were analysed and summarised using tables, frequencies, and percentages. The focus was to elicit information concerning the respondents' experiences and verbal involvement in their English classes. The respondents were 300 senior secondary school 2 students in Ekiti South senatorial district in Ekiti state, Nigeria. The sample students consisted of one hundred and six (106) males and one hundred and ninety-four (194) females between the ages of 16 and 20, as presented in tables 5.8 and 5.9 respectively. Rahman (2017) asserts that quantitative research allows for the examination of measurable data from a large sample, allowing the results to be generally applicable to a wider population.

University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

Section A: Demographic Profile of the Respondents

Table 5.6 Age of the students

Age	Frequency	Percentage
13-16 years	227	75.7
17-20 years	73	24.3
Total	300	100.0

Table 5.6 shows that 227 of the sampled students were between ages 13 and 16, representing 75.7% of the sampled population, while ages 17-20 were 194, representing

24.3% of the sampled population. The data implies that all the respondents are students in senior secondary schools, capable of providing the required responses to the questionnaires.

Figure 5.1 Age of the students

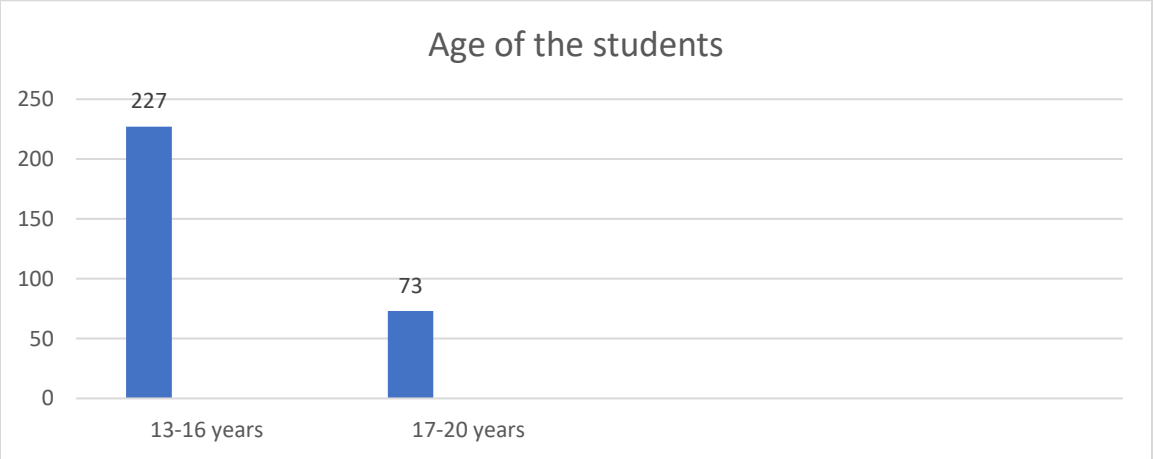


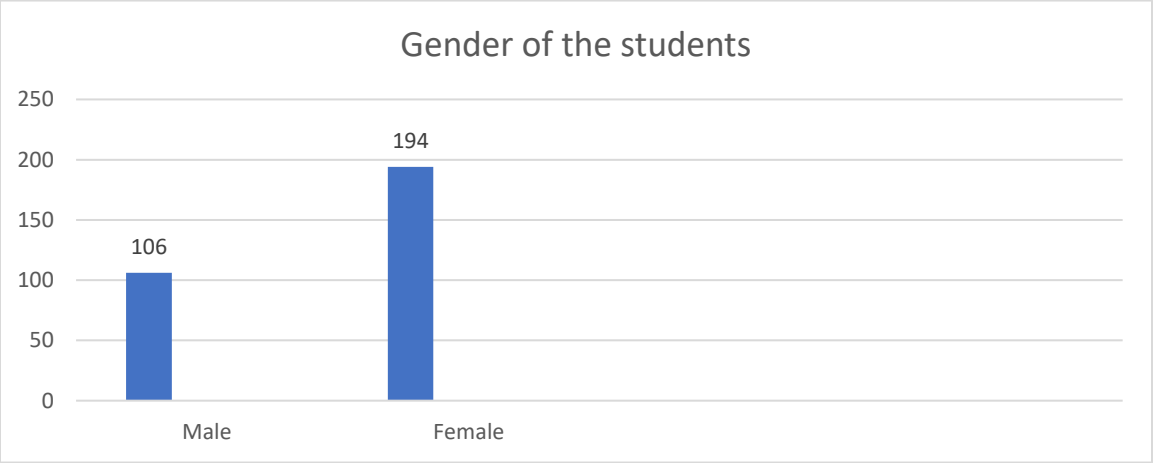
Table 5.7 Gender of the students

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	106	35.3
Female	194	64.7
Total	300	100.0

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Table 5.7 shows that 106 of the sampled students were males which represents 35.3% of the sampled population, while females were 194, representing 64.7% of the sampled population.

Figure 5.2 Gender of the students



Section A: Other items in the questionnaires

Table 5.8: What are your reasons and purposes for learning English?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	To be able to communicate in English	217	72.3	72.3	72.3
	To pass my examinations in English	12	4.0	4.0	76.3
	To be able to pursue my education	69	23.0	23.0	99.3
	Because it is the medium of instruction in my school	2	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.8 reveals that 217 of the students (72.3%) learn English to be able to communicate in English, 12 (4.0%) learn to pass examinations in English, 69 (23.0%)

learn to be able to pursue their education and 2 (0.7%) learn because it is the medium of instruction in my school.The results of the analysis above revealed that the students indicated that they were learning English not mainly because it was a medium of instruction in their schools or to pass the examinations in the subject but primarily to be able to communicate in it and pursue their education. The results in represented in figure 5.3 below.

Figure 5.3 Reasons and purposes for learning English

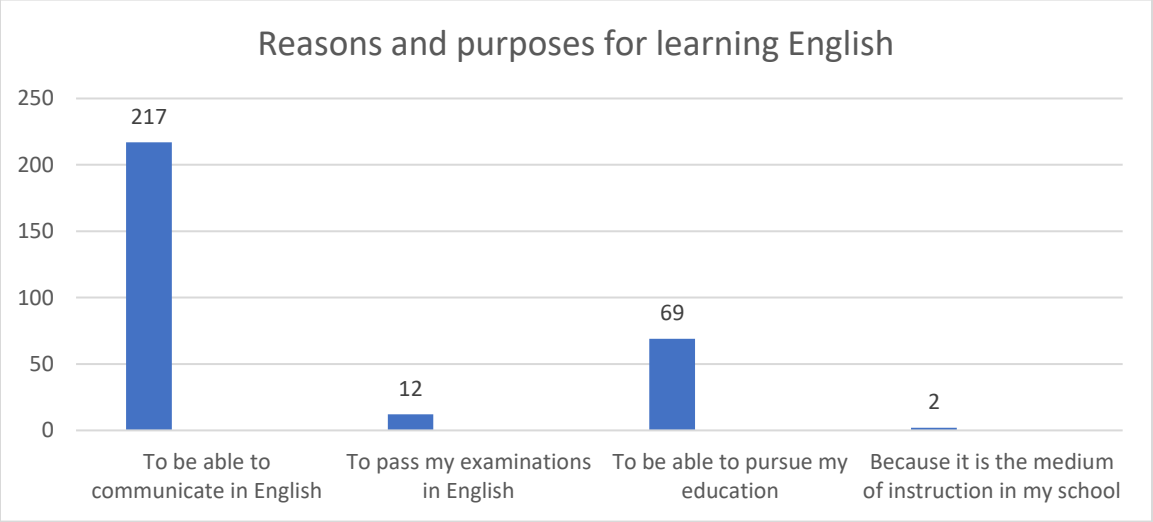


Table 5.9: How do you find English classes?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Pleasant	284	94.7	94.7	94.7
	Boring	5	1.7	1.7	96.3
	Neither of them	11	3.7	3.7	100.0
	Total	300	100.0	100.0	

From table 5.9, 284 (94.7%) of the students find English classes pleasant, 5 (1.7%) find it boring, and 11 (3.7%) said neither of them. The result implies that many of the students found English classes pleasant.

Figure 5.4 How students find English classes

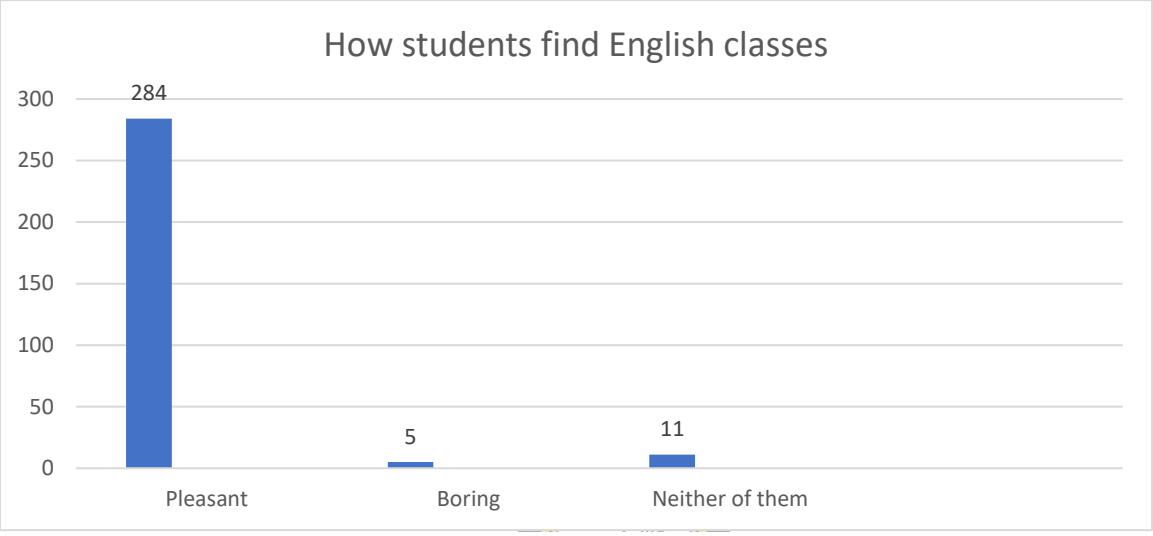


Table 5.10: How easy or difficult do you find your English lessons?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	VD	148	49.3	49.3	49.3
	D	2	.7	.7	50.0
	A	4	1.3	1.3	51.3
	E	27	9.0	9.0	60.3
	VE	119	39.7	39.7	100.0
	Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 6 shows that 148 (49.3%) of the students said that the English lesson is very difficult, 2 (0.7%) said it is difficult, 4 (1.3) claimed it is average, 27 (9.0%) said it is, easy and 119 (39.7%) said it is very easy. This indicates a mixed reaction of students to the English lessons.

Figure 5.5 How easy or difficult students find English lessons

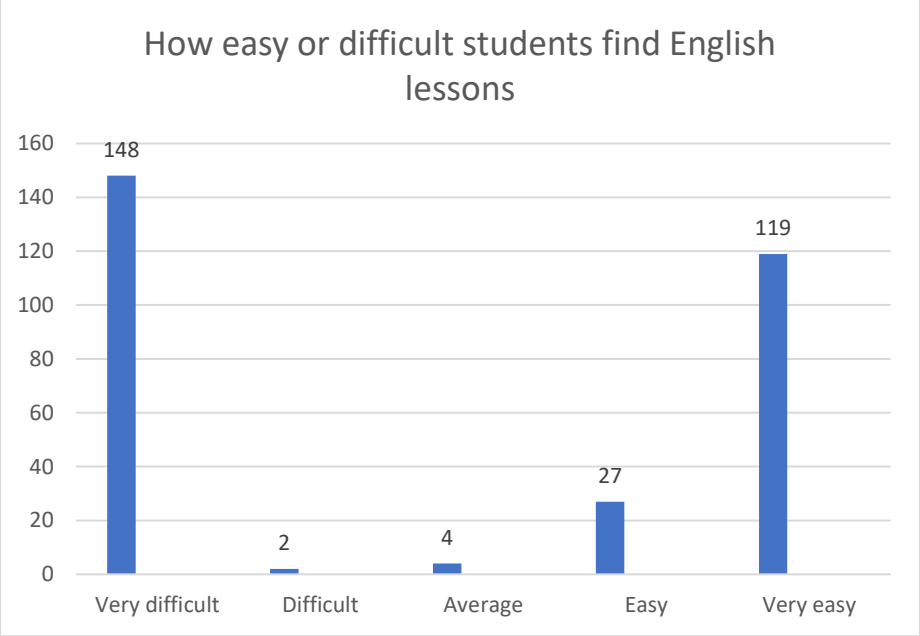


Table 5.11: Do you participate verbally in class?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	A	264	88.0	88.0	88.0
	S	29	9.7	9.7	97.7
	R	3	1.0	1.0	98.7
	N	4	1.3	1.3	100.0
	Total	300	100.0	100.0	

The opinion of the respondents as shown in Table 5.11 revealed that 88% indicated that they always participate verbally in class, 29 (9.7%) indicated that they sometimes participate verbally in the class, 3 (1%) indicated that they rarely participate while 4 (1.3%) indicated that they never participate in the class.

Figure 5.6 How often students participate verbally in class

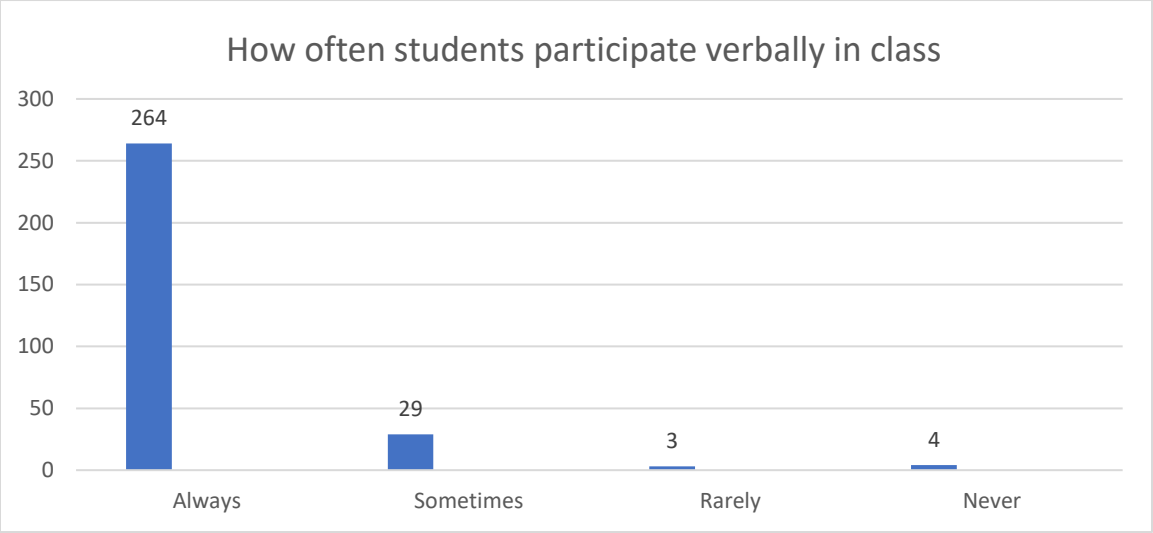


Table 5.12: What does participation mean to you?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	To listen quietly and take note	193	64.3	64.3	64.3
	To answer teachers' questions	75	25.0	25.0	89.3
	To respond to teachers' instructions	20	6.7	6.7	96.0
	To ask questions and share ideas	10	3.3	3.3	99.3
	To speak for a long time	2	0.7	0.7	100.0
	Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.12 reveals that 193(64.3%) described participation as listening quietly and taking notes, 75(25.0%) as answering teacher's questions, 20(6.7%) as responding to teachers' instructions, 10(3.3) as asking questions and share ideas and 2(0.7%) as to speak for a long time. The results indicate that most students believed that classroom participation

was to listen to the teacher and take notes. At the same time, few of them described participation as responding to teachers' questions and instructions. Most of the students did not see asking questions or sharing ideas as necessary for participation in their classes, perhaps because they seemed not to have been engaged in such.

Figure 5.7 Meaning of Participation

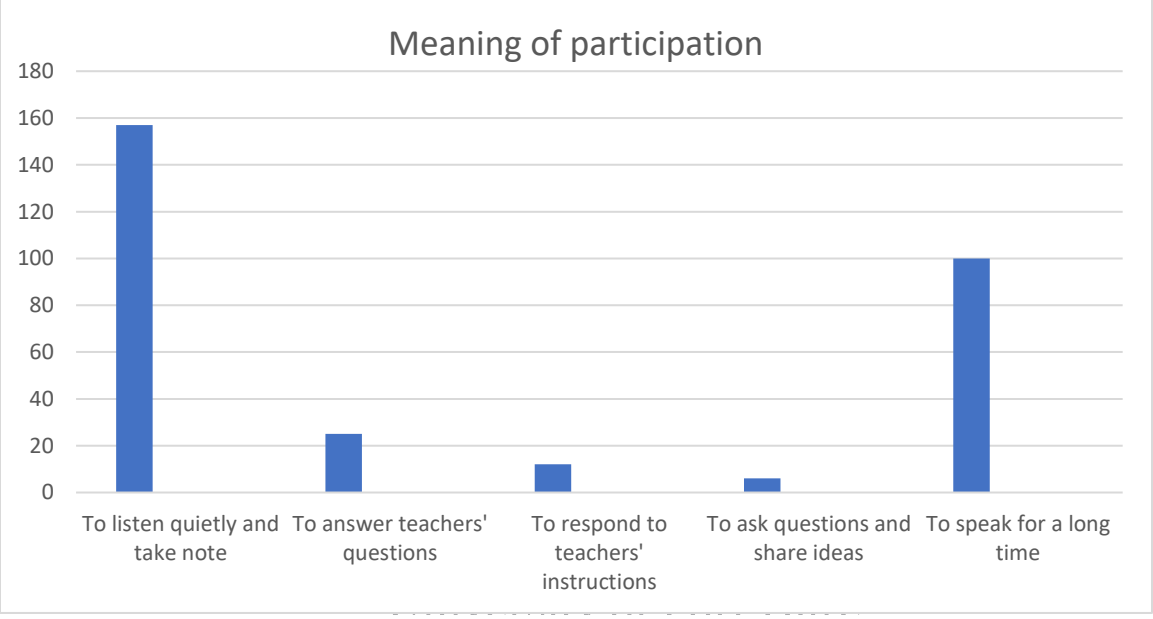


Table 5.13: Do you speak English outside the classroom?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	A	144	48.0	48.0	48.0
	S	126	42.0	42.0	90.0
	R	19	6.3	6.3	96.3
	N	11	3.7	3.7	100.0
	Total	300	100.0	100.0	

On the issue regarding how often the students speak English outside the classroom, it was revealed in Table 5.13 that 48% of the respondents indicated that they always speak English outside the classroom, while 42% indicated that they sometimes speak it. Only 6.3% said they rarely speak English outside the classroom, while 3.7% indicated they

never did. This response shows that the students did not use English only in school; they also used their mother tongue.

Figure 5.8 How often students speak English outside the classroom

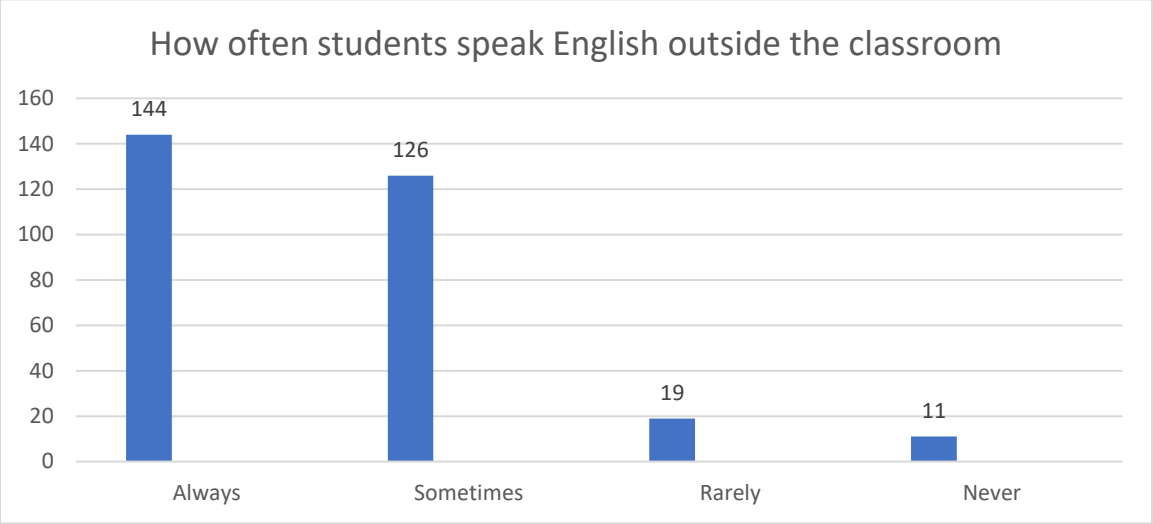


Table 5.14: Do you understand your teacher when he/she is explaining?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	290	96.7	96.7	96.7
	No	10	3.3	3.3	100.0
	Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.14 shows that 290(96.7%) of the students understood their teacher when he/she was explaining while 10(3.3%) did not.

Figure 5.9 Students' Understanding of Teacher's Explanation

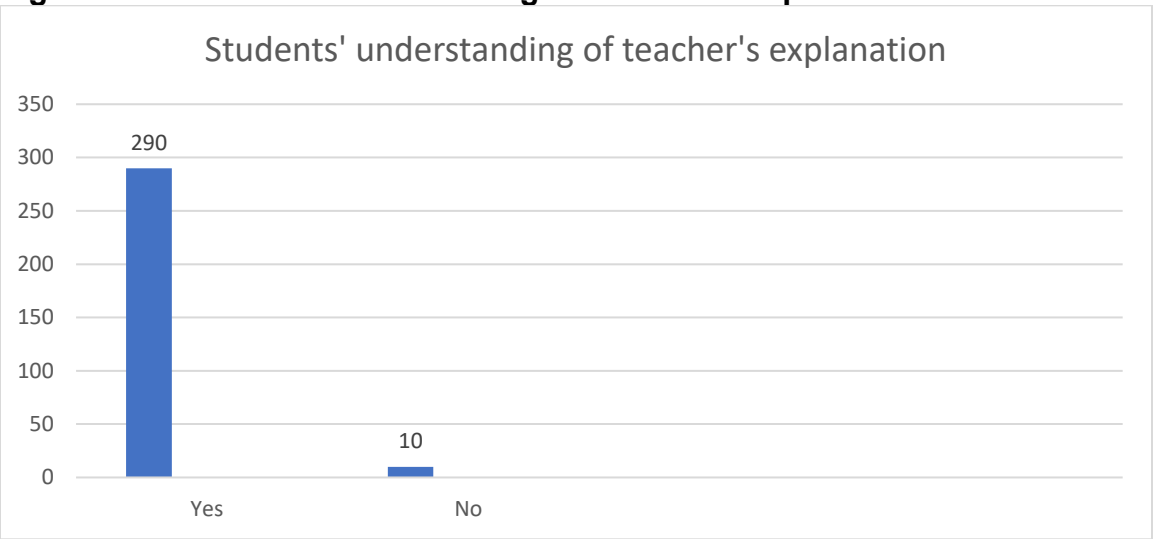


Table 5.15: Can you express yourself verbally in English?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very well	238	79.3	79.3	79.3
	Averagely	55	18.3	18.3	97.7
	Hardly	6	2.0	2.0	99.7
	Not at all	1	.3	.3	100.0
	Total	300	100.0	100.0	

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Table 5.15 reveals that 238(79.3%) of the students can express themselves verbally in English, 55(18.3%) averagely, 6(2.0%) hardly and 1(0.3%) not at all.

Figure 5.10 students' verbal expression in English

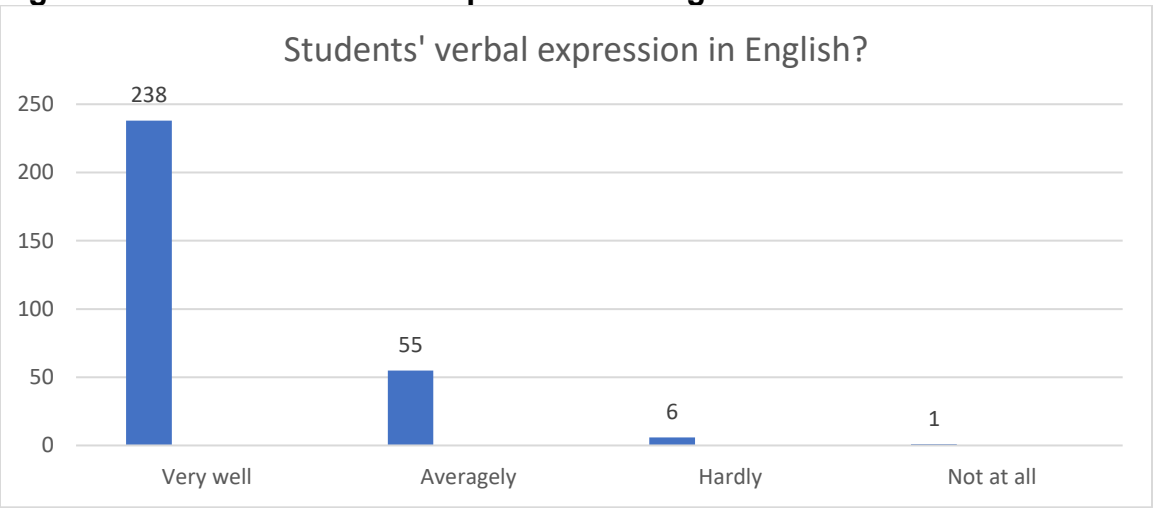


Table 5.16: Do you get nervous if you have to talk in the classroom?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	177	59.0	59.0	59.0
	No	123	41.0	41.0	100.0
	Total	300	100.0	100.0	

From table 5.16, 177(59.0%) get nervous if they have to talk in the classroom while 123(41.0%) do not.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Figure 5.11 Students' feeling of nervousness during classroom talk

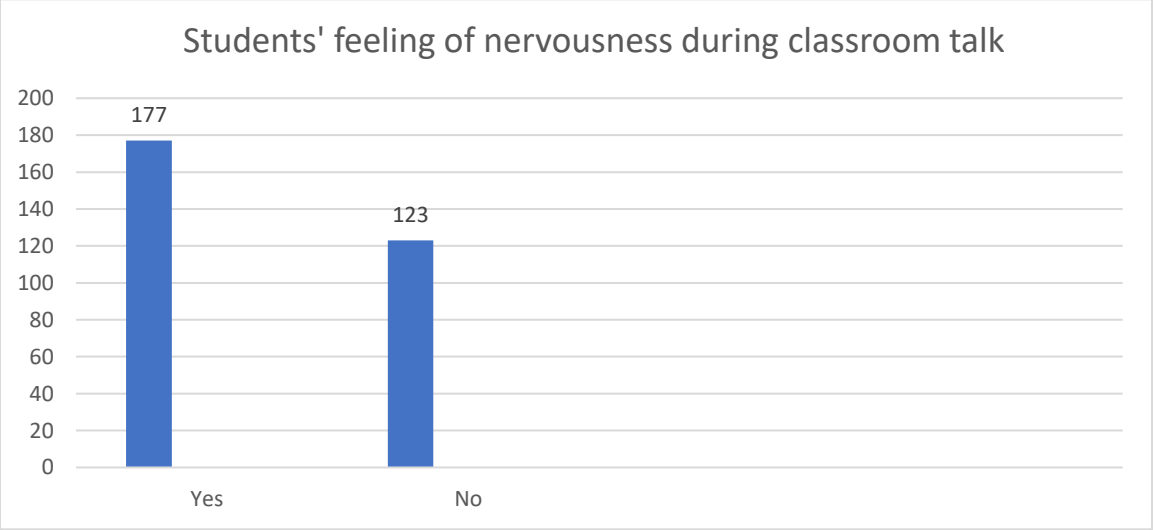


Table 5.17: Do you feel anxious when your teacher asks you questions in the classroom?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	153	51.0	51.0	51.0
	No	147	49.0	49.0	100.0
	Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.17 shows that 153(51.0%) of the students feel anxious when their teacher asks them questions in the classroom, while 147(49.0%) do not get anxious.

Figure 5.12 Students' anxiety to answer teacher's questions in the classroom

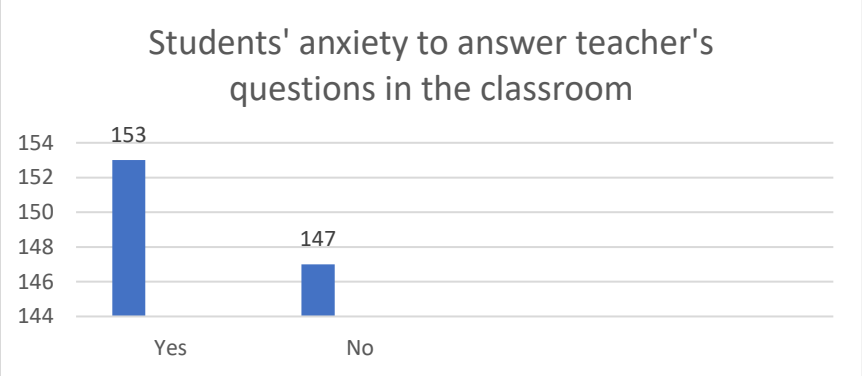


Table 5.18: Do you get confused when you speak English in the classroom?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	75	25.0	25.0	25.0
	No	225	75.0	75.0	100.0
	Total	300	100.0	100.0	

From table 5.18, 75(25.0%) of the students get confused when they speak English in the classroom and 225(75.0%) do not get confused.

Figure 5.13 Students' confusion speaking English in the classroom

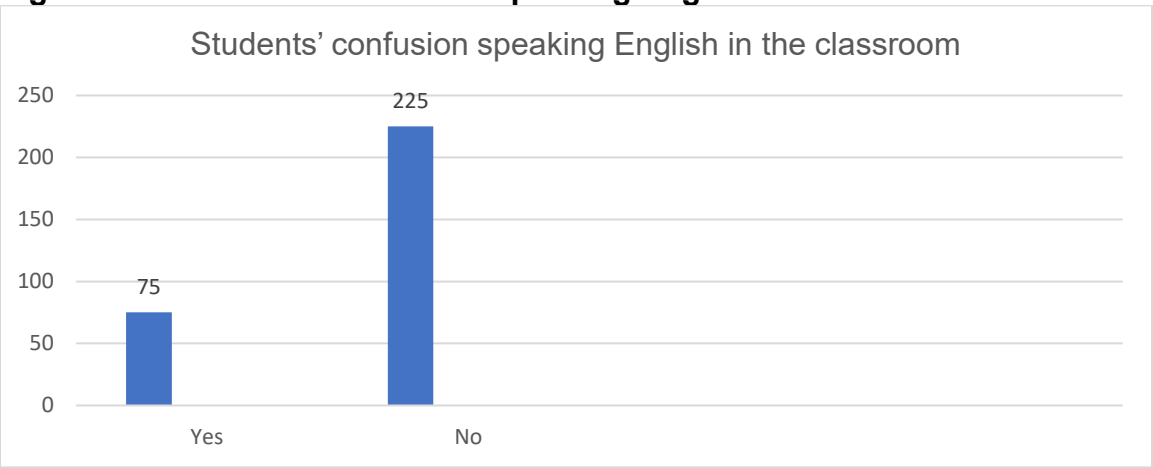


Table 5.19: Do you get embarrassed whenever you speak English incorrectly?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	140	46.7	46.7	46.7
	No	160	53.3	53.3	100.0
	Total	300	100.0	100.0	

From table 5.19, 140(46.7%) of the students get embarrassed whenever they speak English incorrectly and 160(53.3%) do not get embarrassed whenever you speak English incorrectly.

University of Port Harcourt
Digitized by eGangotri

Figure 5.14 Students' embarrassment speaking incorrect English

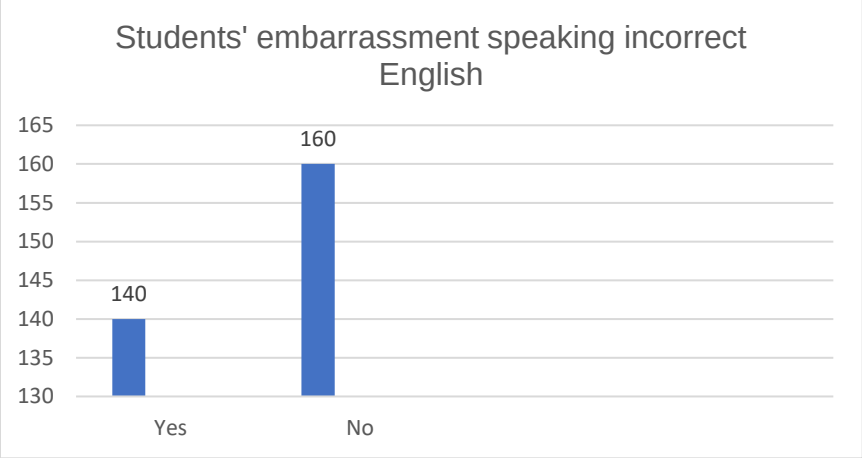


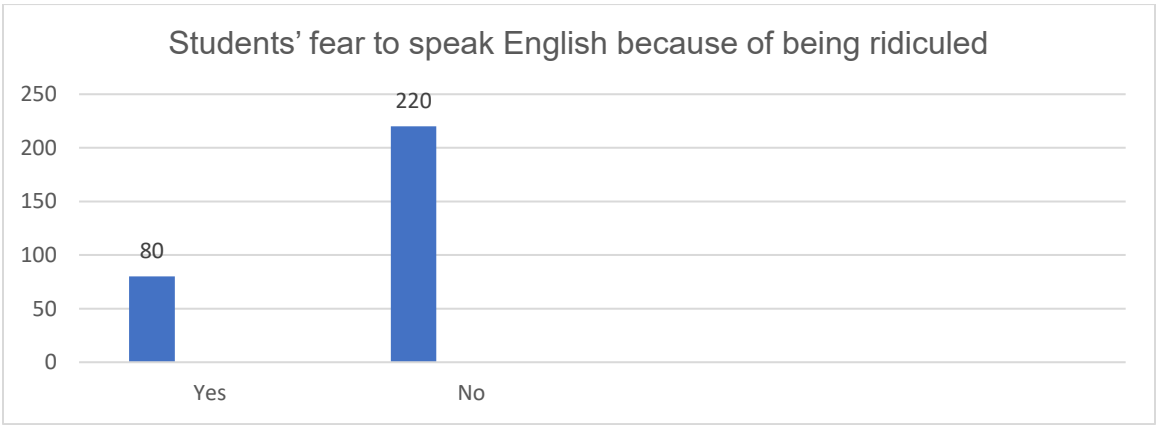
Table 5.20: Do you fear to speak English because of being ridiculed?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	80	26.7	26.7	26.7
	No	220	73.3	73.3	100.0
	Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.20 reveals that 80(26.7%) fear to speak English because of being ridiculed and 220(73.3%) do not fear to speak English because of being ridiculed.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Figure 5.15 Students' fear to speak English because of being ridiculed



Section B

Table 5.21: Students' perceptions of teachers' Motivation towards Student-Centred Learning

Items Teacher	SD	D	A	SA	Mean	Sd
Uses English as a predominant means of communication in the classroom	103 (34.3) %	9 (3.0) %	164 (54.7) %	24 (8.0) %	2.36	1.040
Engages students in conversation to promote spoken English in the classroom	14 (4.7) %	7 (2.3) %	247 (82.3) %	32 (10.7) %	2.99	.564
Shows no personal enthusiasm for student-led lessons.	81 (27.0) %	16 (5.3) %	185 (61.7) %	18 (6.0) %	2.47	.955
Permits students to select their own topic for discussion	46 (15.3) %	115 (38.3) %	90 (30.0) %	49 (16.3) %	2.47	.941
Asks questions that elicit thoughtful responses and allows sufficient time for students to answer.	76 (25.3) %	29 (9.7) %	176 (58.7) %	19 (6.3) %	2.45	.938
Uses recasts (correct reformulation of students' speech) as a preferred method of corrective feedback.	75 (25.0) %	29 (9.7) %	175 (58.3) %	21 (7.0) %	2.47	.942
Uses students' ideas as part of his or her explanation of the lesson.	89 (29.7) %	35 (11.7) %	157 (52.3) %	19 (6.3) %	2.35	.976
Allows students to be active central agents in small group discussions.	78 (26.0) %	76 (25.3) %	120 (40.0) %	26 (8.7) %	2.31	.955
Engages students in activities (such as storytelling, class presentation, and teamwork) to develop their language abilities.	119 (39.7) %	49 (16.3) %	108 (36.0) %	24 (8.0) %	2.12	1.032
Asks a lot of questions to motivate students to talk in English.	117 (39.0) %	17 (5.7) %	144 (48.0) %	22 (7.3) %	2.24	1.054
Grand mean = 2.42 SD = 0.23						

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Table 5.21 shows students' perceptions of teachers' motivation towards student-centred learning. Many of the students (62.7%) agreed and strongly agreed that their teachers use English as a predominant means of communication in the classroom. The majority

(93%) said their teachers usually engage students in conversation to promote spoken English in the classroom. Above half (56 %) students disagreed that teachers permit students to choose their own topics. Some students (65%) agreed that teachers ask questions that elicit thoughtful responses and allow them sufficient time to answer. Furthermore, 65.3% said that teachers use recasts (correct reformulation of students' speech) as a preferred method of corrective feedback. More than half of the respondents (51.3%) disagreed that teachers allow students to be active central agents in small group discussions. The table also revealed that 56% disagreed that teachers engage students in activities (such as storytelling, class presentation, and teamwork) to develop their language abilities. Moreover, 55.3% said that teachers ask many questions to motivate students to talk in English. Thus, out of the ten items, SA and A combined have higher percentages for 7 out of the 10 items ranging between 55.3% and 93.0%. But the grand mean 2.42, which is less than the bench mean value (2.5), indicates that the motivation from the teachers towards student-centred learning is inadequate.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

5.5 Qualitative Data Presentation and Analysis

The qualitative data were gathered by conducting one-on-one interviews with twenty teachers. The data collected were examined and categorised into themes as follows.

1. Teachers' experiences concerning students' verbal participation in the classroom.
2. Classroom processes and practices to engage students in verbal participation in the classroom.
3. Teachers' plans towards improving students' verbal participation.
4. Activities to develop and monitor students' speaking skills.

5. Teachers' awareness of student-centred approach and implementation in their lessons.
6. Teachers' understanding concerning students' taking responsibility for their own learning.

Theme 1: Teachers' experiences concerning students' verbal participation in the classroom.

Interview Questions	Teachers' Responses
How do you think the lesson went regarding students' participation in the lesson?	1. Active participation by the students, except for a few. 2. There was low participation. 3. Satisfactory and encouraging participation.
What challenges did you have to get students' full participation and adequate talk?	1. Some students' introverted nature and lack of confidence serve as challenges as one will try hard to make them talk. 2. Some students were afraid to talk because of their inability to express themselves in English. 3. Most students do not have textbooks to learn comprehension. 4. Some students are quick to judge those who answered questions wrongly, so some of them keep silent in subsequent ones.
What do you think hindered some students' participation?	1. Timidity, lack of understanding and fear of being ridiculed. 2. Fear of giving the wrong answers, lack of textbook and lack of self-expression. 3. Lack of concentration and low self-esteem.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The purpose of the questions grouped under theme 2 was to find teachers' experiences and challenges regarding the students' verbal participation in the classroom and the hindrances to students' participation.

Regarding students' class participation, teachers seemed to agree that most students were normally active in listening, responding to teachers' instructions and chorusing the

answers to teachers' questions. One of the teachers said she deliberately chose the silent students to talk to ensure that the interaction was not limited to a set of students alone, thereby increasing their level of involvement.Some of the teachers said that they were satisfied with the extent of their students' participation, while some admitted that there was low participation of the students during their lessons. For example, teacher 11 from S6 said:

> *Participation was very low. The main reason is that; it is not easy for the students to grasp the topic once. I sometimes come again to repeat the same topic to allow more understanding. So, their participation was a little bit low.*

When asked about the challenges and hindrances to getting students' full participation and adequate talk, all teachers mentioned issues such as the introverted nature of some students, lack of confidence, and lack of concentration and understanding. Other issues mentioned include fear of being ridiculed by other students or the teacher, lack of self-expression in English, fear of giving wrong answers, timidity, and low self-esteem as some of the students' challenges. Some of the teachers acknowledged that many of the students do not have textbooks.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

.
Teacher 5 said:

> *I would say that that depends on the nature of the students. Some are not vocal, and some are timid. Some are reluctant to talk because of their past experiences. They want to avoid*

teachers talking down on them and being ridiculed by other students in the class.

Teachers 1, 6, 7, 17, 18 and 19 shared almost the same response.

Teacher 16 likewise said:

I have a lot of challenges, especially on the part of the students. Most of the students don't have textbooks. Teaching some aspects of the language, like comprehension and summary, when the students don't have the materials needed is like wasting time. It doesn't help the students participate well or follow what is being taught. In the area of talking in class, some of them are shy, and some prefer to use their local language; this is not allowed in my class, so they prefer to keep quiet even if they have ideas to share.

University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

Virtually all teachers agreed with teacher 5 and 16 regarding their challenges to ensure students' meaningful class verbal participation.

Theme 2: Classroom processes and practices to engage students in verbal participation

Interview Questions	Teachers' Responses
How were you effective in communicating the purpose of the lesson?	1. Strictly following the stated objectives in the lesson note. 2. Use of practical illustrations, instructional materials and examples of things in the students' environment.
How did you organise your talk as a teacher and plan to engage your students to participate in the classroom?	1. From previous knowledge to teaching and then evaluation. 2. Following the lesson note step by step using questions, instructions and explanations and allowing students to ask questions.

What act did you use to initiate the lesson?	1. Giving information on the day's topic. 2. Giving instructions or asking questions on the last topic or lesson.
What kind of discursive moves made some students express their opinions well?	1. Questions 2. Repetition 3. Praising.
Sometimes, you asked your students to repeat a word, a phrase, or a sentence. Why?	1. To help them ensure their answers and test their confidence. 2. For emphasis and help them pronounce correctly and assimilate well. 3. To teach them the correct pronunciation of words and for retention.
Which part of your instructional delivery most effectively encouraged students' participation and talk?	1. Allowing students to volunteer to answer questions. 2. Nominating students when there was no volunteer to answer questions. 3. Grouping students for reading comprehension activities.
When do you usually place your students into small groups for class discussion?	1. The curriculum dictates determine when to group students for class discussion. 2. When topics like comprehension and summary are to be taught. 3. During practice in debates and quizzes.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The questions under theme 3 sought to understand the processes and practices teachers followed to engage students in verbal participation in classroom interaction. From the respondents' answers, all teachers strictly followed the stated objectives in their lesson notes as part of their practices to communicate the purpose of their lessons. Some mentioned that they also used practical illustrations, instructional materials and examples of things in the students' environment to present their topics in an attempt to attain the stated objectives.

Teacher 3 from S2 explained that:

> *I usually use instructional materials to make the lesson more explicit to the students. But today, we treated the verb phrase, and I used the examples of things they do daily to teach them.*

Teacher 6 from S3 said:

> *The lesson objectives are well stated in the lesson note. Using the lesson note as a guide, I usually explain the topic, give the students examples they will understand, ask them questions and give them instructions to respond to concerning every class activity for the lesson.*

When the teachers were asked: "How did you organise your talk as a teacher and plan to engage your students to participate in the classroom", their responses showed that most of them started their lessons from the previous knowledge to introduce the new topics to the students. Some narrated that they used questions, instructions, and explanations and as well allowed students to ask questions as they were teaching.

IN LUMINE TUO VIDE BIMUS LUMEN
University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Teacher 4 from S2 said:

> *I started by asking the students to remind the class of the last topic. I thereafter explained further the major part of the previous lesson. I introduced the topic for the day. I explained the topic, asked them questions to monitor their understanding, gave classwork, checked the students' last assignment, and gave them assignments on the new topic. I planned to engage my students to participate in my class through the use of questions and instructions relevant to the topic. There were much of repetitions today because the topic was diphthong.*

All other responses agreed with the above except the opinions of teachers 13 and 15, which were slightly different.

Teacher 20 from S10 said:

> *I started by introducing the lesson to the students and asking them questions from the previous lesson. This led us to the new topic. I ensured that I explained the new topic and thereafter asked them questions to check their understanding. I planned to ask them questions based on what they had been taught or what I intended to teach. I also allow them to ask their own questions or view their opinions where necessary.*

Teachers 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 14, 16, 17, and 19 shared the same view with teacher 20. Furthermore, according to the respondents, the most used act at the initiating move was informing (reporting). 14 teachers (70%) said they initiated their lesson by giving information on the day's topic before giving instruction and posing questions to the students in the previous lesson.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Moreover, on the question of the kind of discursive moves the respondents thought made some of the students express their opinion well, they mentioned the use of questions, repetitions and praising when any student answered any question correctly.

Teacher 3 said:

> *Some of the questions I used were those that could make them respond in more than two or three words. Another thing that I believe helped them was that I was always giving them positive responses whenever they answered questions correctly.*

Teacher 18 from S9 responded thus:

The topic we treated today was the diphthong which involved the pronunciation of sounds. I asked the students questions relating to the topic, but most of the time, I took them through repeating the sounds.

All other responses were related to teachers 3 and 18 above.

Repetitions seemed to be common in the classes observed. When asked the reason for the use of repetitions in the classes, teachers explained that repetition was used to help students be sure of their answers and test their confidence. Most teachers used repetition to teach pronunciation, for emphasis, assimilation, and knowledge retention.

Teacher 15 from S8 said:

Repetition was used to teach them the correct pronunciation of words and for retention purpose.

Teacher 19 from S10 said:

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

I used repetition to help the students to grasp the knowledge I was passing across.

The last question under theme 3 aimed to get teachers' instructional strategies that most effectively encouraged students' participation and talk in the observed classes. All the responses indicated that they used nomination or allowed students to volunteer to respond to questions.

Teacher 13 from S7 said:

I believe it is by giving the students questions to make them talk and ensuring that the questions are directed to each one of them

at a time and not a few ones that have been identified as outspoken among them.

Teacher 20 from S10 said,

I tried to allow the students to volunteer to answer my questions, but if there was no volunteer, I chose any of them. Sometimes I deliberately nominate to ensure some silent ones among them also participate.

Some teachers mentioned that they usually use classroom activities such as class works, oral engagement, and textbooks to promote students' active involvement in most lessons. Most teachers' responses indicated the trend to be that they rarely engaged the students in classroom discussion; when they did, it was mainly during comprehension lessons whereby the students would be paired to use the few available textbooks, read aloud, and answer the comprehension questions. Some respondents claimed that they could not engage the students in classroom discussions because of the limited time allocated for such activities. Teacher 3 from S2 admitted thus:

University of East Africa
Together in Excellence

We use classroom activities like asking the students to read comprehension passages and explain or summarise to the whole class in succession. Grouping students for classroom discussion is also one of the activities we do, but the time fixed for lesson periods is always too short to take all we plan to do during such activities.

Teacher 13 from S7 seemed to agree with teacher 3 above by saying:

Classroom activities like reading comprehension are involved. I asked some students to read the passage, explain and define some vocabulary items we were to consider in the lesson.

When asked about when the teachers usually place their students in small groups for the purpose of class discussion, their responses varied. One of the teachers explained that it depends on what the curriculum dictates, while many said they grouped the students mostly during lessons on comprehension to make every student participate and have access to the available textbooks. Some of the teachers' answers indicated that students were placed in groups during school practice in debates and quizzes, which were done sparsely in a term.

Theme 3: Teachers' plans towards improving students' verbal participation

Interview Question	Responses
What changes will you make in your practice to improve students' participation and encourage students' intensive talk in the classroom?	1. Giving students assignments to work on for further discussion in subsequent lessons. 2. Asking them more questions, giving clues, and giving students time to think and respond. 3. More encouragement and sometimes allowing them to speak in their mother tongue, and then helping them to translate and ask them to repeat.
How will you ensure that all the students participate equitably throughout the lesson?	1. Using nomination and prompting. 2. Focusing more attention on the usually silent students.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The questions under theme 4 were asked to elicit teachers' plans towards addressing students' problems with verbal participation in class. Concerning the changes teachers would make to improve students' verbal participation, the common responses of the teachers range from giving students take-home assignments to work on for further

discussion in subsequent lessons, asking more questions and giving them enough time to answer. More of their answers included giving the students more encouragement and sometimes allowing them to speak their mother tongue and allowing the students to ask questions.

Teacher 9 from S5 said:

> *By assigning roles to students during the lesson. I would ask more open-ended questions and allow students enough time to respond. I would also encourage them to ask their own questions and give positive responses to their questions. The use of encouraging words like 'you are correct',' that's good', and more can go a long way to encourage the students.*

Teacher 11 said:

> *Part of what I do is to sometimes allow them to give their responses in the language in which they can express themselves well, translate and make them repeat the translation after me. I do that once in a while to make the students free in a way.*

In the same vein, teacher 8 from S4 responded thus:

> *I will engage the students in students-students and student-teacher interactions by allowing them to ask questions to which other students will respond. I will be ready to answer their questions. I will also give them questions to answer verbally and give feedback accordingly. I hope they will respond as expected.*

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

To ensure that all the students participate equitably throughout the lesson, teachers further said they would use nomination and prompting and focus more on the usually silent students. In line with these answers, teacher 1 from S1 said:

> *I will make sure that my questions are well distributed among the students as I nominate them to talk.*

Almost all the teachers, precisely teachers 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 17, 18, 19 and 20, agreed with teacher 1. Only teachers 4 and 16 have different answers. For example, teacher 16 said:

> *I will intentionally focus more on the usually silent ones among the students or give all of them time to compose their responses on their notebooks before I start to call on each of them to say whatever he or she has written.*

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Theme 4: Teachers' understanding of the student-centred approach and its implementation

Interview Question	Responses
What are your views about student-centred learning?	1. It is a technique whereby students are more involved in learning independently. 2. It is challenging and time-constrained 3. It is rarely used.
What would you suggest would make your lessons student-centred?	1. The curriculum should be planned to accommodate student-centred learning, and more time be allotted per period. 2. Teachers should be tutored in student-centred learning. 3. Teachers should always take individual students into consideration. 4. Allowing more student-student interaction in the classroom.

Under theme 5, the teachers were asked to share their understanding of student-centred learning and how they implemented it in their schools. Most teachers gave the impression that they understood student-centred learning as an approach where students are allowed to take responsibility for what they learn and how they learn it. They indicated that the method could help teachers and students determine how well students could learn without much dependence on teachers. However, most teachers stated some of the constraints to implementing the approach, such as time constraints, curriculum dictates, lack of plans towards implementing it, students' negative dispositions to self-learning and low academic performance.

Teacher 18 from S9 explained that:

> *Student-centred learning involves grouping students and allowing them to learn on their own with the supervision of the teacher. The only constraint there is time. If that happens in all the lessons, teachers may not be able to cover the syllabus for the session, which is disadvantageous to students' learning.*

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Teacher 12 from S6 also stated that:

> *One of the major reasons why the lessons are mostly teacher-centred is that the students we are dealing with are generally dependent on what teachers teach. If we allow them to take up the roles of teachers in their learning, there will be low or poor performances. Until every modality to support student-centred learning is put in place, we may not be able to say much.*

Going by the teachers' suggestions, all lessons can be made student-centred if the curriculum could be planned to accommodate it, teachers are tutored accordingly, and more student-student interaction is allowed in the classes.

Teacher 6 said:

> *I would suggest that the curriculum be planned to accommodate student-centred learning, and then more time should be allocated for each lesson*.

Teacher 13 said:

> *I would suggest that teachers should be well tutored on student-centred learning. As it is now, many of the teachers are used to standing in front of the class to teach and plan to cover the syllabus within the stipulated time. The curriculum should be reviewed for that also.*

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

However, teacher 5 has no suggestion to give. She only emphasised the challenges towards implementing the approach and said:

> *I think one of the challenges we have is time versus the curriculum. As teachers, we are expected to cover the curriculum within the time stipulated by the Ministry of Education. Allowing students adequate talks and discussions usually take time. Nevertheless, we have actually been able to manage the time to give a chance for group talks and debates in the classroom. The main challenge has been insufficient time.*

Theme 5: Teachers' understanding concerning students taking responsibility for their learning

Interview Question	Responses
How are students empowered to become active agents in classroom interaction and take responsibility for their own learning?	1. Students depend on the teachers and so may not be able to take responsibility. 2. Building students' confidence to take responsibility on their own, choose their own topics and learn at their own pace.

The question under theme 6 focused on how students can be empowered to be active agents in classroom interaction and to take responsibility for their learning. It was evident from the responses that teachers did not believe students could be responsible for their learning.

Teacher 7 from S4 stated that:

> *The students are supposed to take responsibility for their own learning, but teachers are expected to teach them. Many times, the teachers' successes are measured through the students' academic performances. This is one of the reasons you see teachers ensuring they cover the syllabus within the stipulated time. The students' nonchalant attitudes to learning and lack of textbooks are some of the challenges we face.*

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

In response to the same question, teacher 17 from S9 said:

> *I think teachers should allow the students to work more on their own by giving them take-home assignments. But the students are not that equipped in that many of them don't have textbooks. The cognitive level of the students must also be considered*

before thinking of them taking responsibility for their own learning.

Theme 6: Teachers' general comments on English language teaching and learning in Nigeria

Interview Question	Responses
What general comments do you have on English language teaching and learning in Nigeria?	1. English language as our official language must be taken as important to the development of the nation. 2. Considering the importance of the English language, teachers should be motivated and be provided with relevant materials for teaching and learning. 3. Teaching should be focused on developing learners' communicative competence rather than just passing examinations. 4. Learning English should not be limited to school only.

The respondents commented that the English language as our official language must be taken as essential to the development of the nation.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Teacher 14 from S7 remarked that:

The importance of English language teaching and learning in Nigeria is no more news. It is a reality. All stakeholders must be ready to ensure that its teaching and learning in our schools are done to improve the learners' communication skills and develop the nation.

Considering the importance of the English language in Nigeria, teachers suggested that they should be motivated and provided with relevant materials for teaching and learning.

Teacher 19 said:

The importance of English language teaching and learning cannot be overemphasised; thus, it must be taken as imperative to the development of personalities, national economy, politics, and the like. Government should make its teaching easier by motivating the teachers and providing every material needed in all our public schools.

Teacher 2 from S1 seemed to agree with teacher 19 above thus:

The use of the English language should be encouraged in all schools as a pivotal of learning, and all the resources needed to make its teaching and learning easy should be provided by the government.

Teachers also advised that learning English should not be limited to school only.

Teacher 20 said:

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Teaching and learning English should not be limited to school settings alone. Learners should be encouraged to learn from their immediate environment. That means the environment should be made conducive for its learning.

5.5.1 Summary of the Interviews

The interviews revealed that it is necessary to teach and learn English in Nigeria because of its importance as a unifying language among ethnic groups and a language of instruction in schools. During interviews, it was also noted that English teaching at the secondary school level was focused mainly on preparing students for examinations in

English as a subject. Obviously, classroom practices and processes ESL teachers followed were dictated in the curriculum. Based on the teachers' narratives, the curriculum dictates, and time constraints affected how often teachers grouped students for group discussion and verbal interaction in the classroom. Hence, they suggested further adjustments in the curriculum for more focus on developing learners' communicative competence. Some of the challenges teachers faced in getting students' verbal participation in class were students' fear of giving the wrong answers, lack of textbook and lack of self-expression in English.

The interviews also revealed that most ESL teachers did not show that they had a strong perception of the student-centred learning approach. According to the comments of some of them, which suggested that they understood what a student-centred approach should include, the appropriate implementation of such an approach would require the involvement of the government, the ministry of education, school administrators, parents and teachers. Other interventions include reviewing the curriculum to accommodate students' academic needs, giving them training in self-direction and reducing dependence on teachers. If student-centred learning is to be effectively implemented, there must be enough learning resources, favourable learning environments, seminars, workshops and conferences for teachers.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

5.6 Summary

In this chapter, quantitative and qualitative data were presented and analysed. The quantitative data were presented using tables, frequencies and percentages. Observations and one-on-one interviews with teachers were significant parts of the qualitative data. The quantitative data focused on quantifying the observed linguistic

choices teachers and students made in classroom interaction, the extent to which teachers adopted the student-centred approach of teaching in their classes and how well students were engaged in classroom communication with teachers. The results indicated that teachers' use of the student-centred approach was inadequate. Likewise, the results showed that students' verbal participation in classroom interaction was low. In the quantitative study, most students said they always participated verbally in class. This claim was not evident during observations. The observations revealed that teachers' linguistic choices were characterised by instructions, nominations, questioning, explaining and feedback. The feature of students' linguistic choices tended towards responding to questions and instructions. Another significant choice students made was acknowledging teachers' checking questions, while they remained silent when they did not know the proper responses to give. The interviews indicated that teachers' classroom processes and practices to engage students in verbal participation tended towards the traditional teaching method. The teachers' responses on this affirmed the findings made during observations. The next chapter discusses the results of the study.

University of East Haris
Together in Excellence

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

6.0 Introduction

The previous chapter presented and analysed the data collected through classroom observations, questionnaires and interviews. This study aimed to examine the linguistic and discourse features used by teachers and students in English as a second language classrooms in Ekiti state in Nigeria. The main focus of the study was to examine the linguistic choices teachers and students make during classroom interactions and how these choices affect students' verbal participation and teachers' use of the student-centred learning approach. Data for this study came exclusively from senior secondary school students and ESL teachers in Ekiti South senatorial district, Ekiti State, Nigeria.

This chapter focuses on answering the three research questions of the study. The first one is "What distinctive linguistic choices are made by teachers and students in classroom interaction?" which corresponds with the first objective: "to identify distinctive linguistic choices made by teachers and students in classroom interaction". The second research question this chapter answers is research question two: "How effective are the linguistic and discourse features used by teachers and students on students' verbal participation in classroom interaction? This question tallies with the second objective: "to determine the effectiveness of the linguistic and discourse features of classroom interaction on students' verbal participation in classroom interaction". The third research question that is answered in this section is "How do the linguistic and discourse features used contribute to a student-centred approach in classroom interaction?" Research

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

question three relates to the third objective of the study, which seeks "to establish how the linguistic and discourse features used contribute to a student-centred approach in classroom interaction."

6.1 Discussion of Findings

As earlier mentioned in Chapter 1, Section 1.3, the main themes of the study drawn from quantitative and qualitative analyses are:

- Linguistic choices that teachers and students make during classroom interaction.
- Effectiveness of the features of teachers' and students' linguistic choices on students' verbal participation in the classroom.
- Contribution of the features of teachers' and students' linguistic choices to the student-centred learning approach.

IN LUMINE TUO VIDE BIMUS LUMEN
University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

6.2 Features of Teachers' Linguistic Choices

The classroom observations and discourse analysis revealed that the teaching exchanges followed the IRF structure in whole-class sessions in all the twenty (20) studied classes, as shown in extracts 1, 3, 4, 5, 7a, 7b, and 7c. The features of the interaction related to the high degree of teachers' directives, informatives, elicitations, checkings, feedback and students' responses. The research findings revealed that teachers took three parts in the IRF patterns: Initiation, responding and feedback. Teachers' talk took 98.8% of all the initiations and 81.8% of all the feedback in the interaction. Whereas when it came to teachers giving responses, they only took 4.1% of all the responding moves in the interaction. This was because students' initiation moves have a low percentage (1.2%). Hence, teachers were found to make most of the initiating moves, while students made most of the responding moves. The current study results

further indicate that teachers' linguistic choices significantly impact the structure of classroom interactions. The findings of the study corroborate that of Barnes, (1992), Hardman (2008), Ardi and Noviana (2015), Evnitskaya, (2018), and Sandoval (2018). According to these studies, continuous use of the IRF greatly structures pedagogical discourse based on what teachers say and do.

6.2.1 Teachers' Initiating Moves

In the Initiation, the most common teachers' utterances in the teaching exchanges were 'directing' which took 31.5% of all occurrences of teachers' utterances), 'eliciting' (22.3%) and 'informing' (17.3%) and checking (6.6%). The directive acts were characterised by instructing, nominating, focusing, advising, requesting, and warning, which occurred across all the classes observed in varying proportions. Most teacher directives acted as instructions that required either verbal or non-verbal responses from the students. From the observation, teachers employed different devices to give instructions to ensure students' participation in the discourse. For instance, when teacher 5 from S3 said, "bring out your assignment", she used the instruction to get the students' nonverbal responses. Teacher 8's instruction, "I want somebody to stand up and tell me", acted as a directive and an elicitation rather than showing that the teacher did not know the answer to what she was asking the students. On the other hand, a statement from teacher 6 from S3, "let someone else tell us the next step", was a directive functioning as an elicitation. Another form of instruction used in the classes was expressed with the word "yes" to tell the student to continue with his or her response. Anana (2019) has also observed this kind of teacher instructional trend in his study and found that the aim of teachers was to ensure that students participated fully in the discourse. Fesway-Malao (2016) emphasises that

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

classroom discourse suggests that teachers use instruction as a motivating strategy to imbibe more meaningful learning experiences in learners. What makes the current study different is the particularity of the classrooms observed in this study, where many of the teachers' instructions to get students' verbal responses attracted mostly choral responses, except in cases where teachers had to nominate individuals to talk. Hardman et al. (2008) are of the opinion that although choral responses may, in certain cases, increase student participation, it is questionable if doing so at the expense of students' cognitive and language development is worth it.

Apart from instruction, predominant among the teachers' directives were nominations. Nominations were realised by calling the names of students or with the use of words like "anybody", "yes", and "you" while pointing or looking in the direction of a particular student. For example, in extract 5, turns 7, extract 7a, turns 3 and 9, and in extract 7b, turn 5. In these examples, the subcategory 'nominating' was used to call on or give turns to students to talk in response to teachers' elicitations or instructions in accordance with Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975); (1992) explanations. Based on the observation, it was noted that students did not often answer questions or talk in class unless they were called or beckoned to by the teacher. In the absence of student volunteers, teachers chose a volunteer to provide the answer. Teachers said in their interview responses that they used nomination as part of their instructional strategies to encourage students' participation and talk. Teacher 1 from S1 said he used nomination to ensure that all students participated equitably in the lesson. This study found that in all the lessons, no more than a few students volunteered to talk whenever teachers asked questions. Many would not respond until they were called to do so. The students appeared to have been used to

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

such a teacher strategy whereby the teacher decides which student answers the questions, and as such, they would wait for nomination. The findings suggest that there is much teacher control in classroom interaction, showing one of the characteristics of teacher-centred classrooms. This kind of control may not encourage equitable student participation. The findings agree with Anderson (2020), who explains that using teachers' nomination reduces students' freedom and make them feel uninterested or overly stressed, or it might favour more intelligent students over those who need assistance the most. However, nomination encouraged many students to participate through either choral or individual responses across the classes observed for this study. This is in line with the submission of Fesway-Malao (2016), who sees nomination as a practical approach to give inactive members of the class chance to communicate their thoughts and help them use the language as they express themselves in the interaction.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Moreover, it was evident through the findings that teachers used questions to elicit students' verbal responses during Initiation. According to the typical classroom discourse pattern proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), teachers' questions are significant as an initiation act used to get students' responses. Thus, in this study, it was observed that teachers' questioning was of great significance to the interaction. This finding explains why the teachers mentioned in their responses to the interviews that questioning was a part of their discursive moves to organise and initiate the classroom talk, monitor students' understanding and encourage students' participation and self-expression. From the extracts, teachers used questions to perform a number of functions, such as passing turns to students to speak (extract 1, turns 1, 3, 5, 7), checking students understanding (extract 5, turn 1, extract 7b, turns 1, 3, 5, 9, and 11), giving students the opportunity to express

themselves in English (extract 2a, turn 3, extract 3, turns 3, 7, and 9) continuing the discussion (extract 7a, turns 5, and 7) and giving students learning opportunities (extract 4, turns 5, 13, 15, 17, 21, 23, 25, 31, 33, 37, and 39). The findings agree with those of Croom and Stair (2005), Yu (2009), Ononye (2015), Vebriyanto (2015), Avdic et al. (2016), and Keiler (2018), who opine that teacher questions are the most familiar form of teacher talk used as analytical tools to help evaluate students' learning progress, assess students' critical thinking, and encourage full classroom interaction.

Furthermore, teachers' Initiation moves consisted of informative acts: reporting, explaining and clueing. The qualitative analysis of the study in Chapter 5, Section 5.5 under theme 3, showed that 14 teachers, representing 70%, used the informative act featuring "reporting" to initiate their lessons, while others used either elicitation or directive. The results indicate that the most used informative act was "explaining," taking the highest percentage (58.0%) compared to other subcategories of the acts: clueing (21.2%) and reporting (20.7%). In this study, teachers mostly used informative (explaining) to describe and define concepts to ensure students' understanding. In extract 1, for example, the teacher used explanations with examples from time to time to define the lesson's subject matter. This implies that classroom interaction may not be complete in a whole-class situation without teacher explanations. This finding agrees with a point Hardman et al. (2008) made in a study of a whole-class situation in Nigeria. They explained that teaching entails whole-class sessions when the subjects are taught through teachers' explanations, questions and answers, followed by classwork to evaluate students' knowledge.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Likewise, in extract 7b, the exchanges were noted for the teacher's informative act (explaining), usually followed by **'**checking'**.** Sinclair and Coulthard (1992) outline 'checking' as one of the classes of the act in the teaching exchange used in the initiation move. Katili et al. (2021) describe checking as the act of monitoring how learners are progressing with their assignments or checking if they have difficulties following the lesson. The discourse analysis of the observation data of this study showed that teachers used checking polar questions such as 'Are you through with that?' 'I think I have answered your question?', 'Are you getting what I am saying?'. Students' choral answers of yes usually followed the teachers' checking acts questions because the questions were usually directed to the whole class. It was observed that teachers did not follow up on virtually all the students' responses to the checking acts. Teachers were seen in a few instances reacting to students' answers. For example, in extract 4, turn 13, (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1) we found that the teacher checked if the students had finished copying what she wrote on the chalkboard. Students' reaction to her checking was non-verbal; through this, she realised that some students were still writing, and she decided to give them more time to finish writing before she continued. Likewise, in extract 5, turn 3, the teacher wanted to know if the students understood the question he asked them in turn 1 because they were silent instead of responding.

University of East Hare
Together in Excellence

The two scenarios mentioned above were not typical of all the lessons observed in the study. The common practice was exemplified in extracts 7b and 8 (Section 5.2.2). In extract 7b, turns 3 and 4, the teacher did not bother to check individual responses to his checking question, 'Are you getting what I'm saying?' but only relied on the choral answer 'yes'. The teacher's checking act is comparable to what Hardman et al. (2008) describe

as 'pseudo-checking'. Extract 8 exemplifies a more frequent use of such questions in turns 1, 3, 7, and 14, which seemed to have become a speech mannerism for the teacher to say, 'Are you getting it now?', 'Am I communicating?'.

6.2.2 Teachers' Responding Moves

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the instances of teachers' responding moves were relatively low compared to other moves in teacher talk due to the low percentage of students' Initiation. Teachers' responding moves were in response to students' initiation moves. The results show that both the teacher and the students participated in the full part of the IRF sequence despite having different percentages of contribution. The results reveal that responding moves are not restricted to students alone, as indicated in Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) and Megan's (1979) propositions in the IRF structure. In a related study, Lu (2021) identified more complex IRF patterns based on the linguistic contributions of the participants in the interaction. Similarly, the current study identified additional interaction patterns IR (realised in the exchanges that involved teachers responding to students' initiations, as shown in extracts 2a and 2b) and IF (realised from teachers' initiations and students' feedback, as shown in extract 8). The results are comparable to those from Ardi and Noviana (2015) and Rashidi and Rafieerad (2010). In their studies, they noted that teachers frequently initiated the lesson, and the students equally played different roles in the IRF pattern by asking questions that attracted the teacher's responses or feedback.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Moreover, the discourse analysis shows that teachers' responses contained features like encouraging/positive, negative and temporisation, as shown in Table 5.2. The results indicated that teachers responded to students' Initiation in a more encouraging/positive

manner (0.70%) than negative (0.12%) and temporisation (0.08%). Extract 2a, turns 3, 5, 7 and extract 2b, turns 3, 5, 7, and 9 exemplify teachers' responding moves. The results demonstrate that almost all the teachers were ready to create a positive rapport with their students. Fredson (2015) argues in line with these findings that teachers' positive responses to students whenever they initiate classroom interaction or respond to teachers' questions or instructions can undoubtedly impact their interest and level of academic or language learning achievement. He emphasises that CLT approach can be used to achieve a good teacher-student relationship, allowing every interaction participant to communicate and creating an interactive environment for improving students' communication skills.

6.2.3 Teachers' Feedback/Follow-up Moves

Findings from classroom observations show that, like in any other classroom setting, the ESL teachers typically gave feedback or follow up on students' responses. The findings indicate that teachers' feedback took 81.8% of all the occurrences of feedback moves in the lessons observed. In the study, teachers' feedback moves were categorised into evaluative, interactive, corrective and descriptive feedback for the purpose of clear and in-depth analysis. The observations show evaluative feedback featuring subcategories 'praising', 'repeating' and 'accepting'. Interactive feedback was characterised by teachers asking further questions instead of evaluating students' answers at the first attempts. Corrective feedback included features such as direct correction, recasting, and metalinguistic explanation, interactive feedback involved teachers asking further questions to help students respond appropriately, while descriptive feedback entailed acknowledging and refocusing students' responses.

University of Fort Hare

The results of the data in table 5.2 indicate that the teachers' feedback was more evaluative (68.4%) than interactive (10.7%), corrective (23.4%), and descriptive (2.5%). This finding proves that in language teaching, teachers provide feedback mostly to evaluate the students' performances to assess how well they are learning. The findings align with the studies conducted by Mehan (1979), Nassaji and Wells (2000), Tasnuva (2017), and Ong (2019), who resolved that feedback functions more in evaluation than any other function for which it is used. Jang and Wagner (2013) argue that evaluative feedback is summative. It assesses students' learning, skill development, and academic progress at the end of a specific instructional period. However, the present study focuses on the immediate feedback teachers gave students after answering a question in verbal classroom interaction. The data analysis indicated that teachers' evaluative feedback followed three patterns – praising students when they provided the correct answers, repeating, and accepting the students' responses. For example, in extract 3, the teachers' evaluative feedback came up in turn 5. The teacher chose 'yes' to accept the student's answer and repeated the student's words to show she was satisfied with the answer. She used 'A round of applause for her' as a form of praise for a good answer. In extract 5, turn 7, a teacher used the phrase 'Thank you. God bless you' as a form of praise. From these examples and the quantitative analysis of the observations, the results indicate that ESL teachers have a positive disposition towards their students through their linguistic choices. According to Jang and Wagner (2013), one of the features of evaluative feedback is the frequent use of qualifiers, such as 'good', excellent, 'great job' used to create a friendly learning atmosphere for students.

University of East London
Together in Excellence

6.3 Features of Students' Linguistic Choices

As in Anana's (2019) study of classroom discourse in English in Nigeria, the present study found in all the classes observed that it was a common practice for students to talk only when the teachers permitted them to do so. The classroom observations in this study show that all students' linguistic contributions to the classroom discourse were usually directed and controlled by teachers. Therefore, it is remarkable that 64.3% of the students indicated in their questionnaire responses that what participation meant to them was to listen quietly and take notes. To 25% of the students, participation was to answer teachers' questions. 3.3% said that participation was to ask questions, and for 0.7%, it was to speak for a long time. The results show that students made different linguistic choices in the triadic exchange structure found in all the classes involved in this study: Initiation, response, and feedback. The quantitative analysis of the observations in table 5.3 shows the percentage of students' Initiation to be 1.2% of the occurrences of all utterances made by the participants. However, the percentage of students' responses was 95.8%. In addition, the linguistic choices of students tended more towards responding acts than initiating acts or feedback in the classes. A number of preceding research findings have reported this trend across the globe (Hardman et al., 2008; Mariana, 2009; Agbatogun, 2013; Rahman et al., 2018; Rido & Sari, 2018; Ong, 2019; Mardani & Gorjizadeh, 2020). For example, Agbatogun (2013) proposed the need for a change because he identified some teacher-dominated classrooms in the control group of his study. He observed that there was limited active participation from students in classroom activities, leaving students with little or no time to talk or practice the target language. Hardman et al. (2008) explain this as part of the significant effects of didactic

University of Fort Hare

and rote learning methods on learners' verbal participation and linguistic choices in the classroom.

6.3.1 Students' Initiating Moves

Students' initiating moves are usually generated from student-teacher or student-student talk. In this study, the classroom discourse in relation to students' Initiation across the classes observed only involved student-teacher talk. Student-student talk was missing because there were no collaborative classes or group discussions throughout the observations. The categories listed under 'initiating moves', such as 'elicitation' (2.0%), 'requestive' (0.7%), and 'informative (0.7%) combined, took up a relatively small portion of students' interaction with teachers, suggesting that the students also made initiations in the interaction. The findings indicated that in the classes, both the teachers and the students initiated the conversations. Although students' contributions were limited, they initiated conversations at some points in the interaction. The findings of the study show a different discourse structure from previous research conducted by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Mehan (1979; Dailey, 2010; Yanfen & Yuqin, 2010) which indicated that teachers carry out all initiations in the classroom discourse. There have been fewer student-initiated dialogues than teacher-initiated ones in most classrooms because students are given limited opportunity to participate fully in the discourse (Donato & Brooks, 2004; Hsiao, 2005; Mantero, 2006; Consolo, 2006; Zyzik & Polio, 2008; Williams, 2017; and Ong, 2019; Ugwu, 2021; Domogen, 2021).These researchers argued that this observation has been attributed to students' difficulty gaining turns to the talk due to teachers' influences and choices. The practice has been that before speaking, students

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

should get the teacher's attention and approval, according to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). This attitude was prevalent in this study; hence, students limited initiation.

Extracts 6a, 6b and 6c exemplify students initiating moves. The results indicate that students' 'elicitations' were used for clarifications or to request further explanation of the teachers' instruction, 'requestive' for permission and 'informative' to give information. However, the classroom observations revealed that students did not use directive acts in the initiation. As in Rashidi and Rafieerad's (2010) study of the pattern of classroom interaction in EFL classrooms in Iran, the absence of directive acts in students' initiation might also be connected to contextual influence or the power dynamics between teachers and students. For instance, in the Nigerian context, students do not have the authority or are not supposed to direct teachers in classroom settings (Anana, 2019).

One of the characteristics of students' attitude to talk in the observation was the frequency of their silence whenever they were given chances to ask questions in the class. In extract 7c, the teacher was ready to give turns to the students to ask questions, but they were silent (turns 3 – 10). According to teachers' responses to the interviews, they claimed that students' silence in the class had been part of students' verbal participation challenges they faced. They mentioned some of the reasons for low student talk to be because of some students' introverted nature, lack of confidence, inability to express themselves in English, timidity, and lack of self-esteem. Even though 79.3% of student respondents to the questionnaires said they could express themselves very well in English, and 88.0% said they always participated in class, 59% said they usually felt nervous talking in class. The results suggest that students' attitudes, and teacher factors, coupled with some contextual influences, contribute to the low level of student initiation in classroom

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

interaction in corroboration with recent studies on classroom practices in Nigeria (Adejumobi, 2007, Taiwo, 2009; Jibowo, 2010; Oyewole, 2017; Deji-Afuye & Obadare, 2019; Oloninisi, 2019; Obiakor & Malu, 2020, Faloye, 2022).

6.3.2 Students' Responding Moves

The results indicated that 61.7% of all student talks were devoted to responding. The instances of such responses suffice in extracts 7a, turns 4, 6, 8, 10, 14, 16, and 18. Recent studies have shown that students often find it easier to respond to questions than to initiate a conversation in a whole-class interaction (Rido & Sari, 2018; Mardani & Gorjizadeh, 2020). Mardani and Gorjizadeh (2020) explain that students are more comfortable responding considering that most of the questions are based on the lesson's content, and basic knowledge, which teachers elicit using closed-ended questions that require short responses. According to the results of the current study, teachers' questioning techniques often influenced the students' responses and shaped the discourse.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

As in the Rashidi and Rafieerad (2010) and Mardani and Gorjizadeh (2020) studies, the observation and the discourse analysis of the present study revealed that students' responses were characterised by positive and negative responses, silence, self-repair, and peer repair in varying percentages as shown in Table 5.3. The results indicated that students' responses were more positive than negative during individual and choral attempts (50.6%) than negative (10.4%). In the discourse analysis, students' acceptable answers were labelled positive when the unacceptable ones were tagged negative. In extracts 7a, turn 20 and 7b, turns 2, 6, 8, 10, and 14, the students gave answers that attracted evaluative feedback such as 'praising', 'accepting' and 'repeating' from the

teachers. Extract 7a, turns 4, 8, 10, 14, 16 and 7b, turn 14 (Section 5.2.2) are examples of students' negative responses, which attracted teachers' direct corrections and focus: elicit in which the teacher concerned asked further questions to help the student answer correctly. Other characteristics of students' responses included silence. Most often, students remained silent when they were not sure of the best ways to respond to a question or when they lacked the knowledge of the correct answers to give. Peer-repair and self-repair occurred in a few instances, where students corrected themselves and were corrected by their classmates, as exemplified in extract 7a, turns 6 and 18. Self-repair and peer-repair would have been indications of collaboration and scaffolding approaches in the classroom, where the teacher becomes a facilitator of the student-student interaction, as Mardani and Gorjizadeh (2020) have emphasised in their study. The concern in the current study is that the classes employed for the study were less collaborative due to the low rates of self-repair and peer repair.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Many student respondents said they could express themselves very well in English (79.3%), and 73.3% did not fear speaking English because of being ridiculed. More than half of them said they did not get embarrassed even if they spoke incorrect English (53.3%). Meanwhile, it was implied through some teachers' statements that students could not provide extended responses due to timidity, lack of expressiveness in English, poor understanding, and fear of giving wrong answers. Apparently, the study found discrepancies between students' responses to questionnaires, teachers' reports and practical classroom behaviours. The interaction analysis shows that students' responses were in one or two words or short sentences (extract 7a, turns 4, 6, 8, 10, 14, 16, 18, and 20). Possibly, lack of motivation, the type of classroom, and teachers' questioning

techniques, and level of students' enthusiasm must have accounted for this observation. To have lengthier student responses would mean that teachers talk time would have to reduce and students talk time increased. The findings of the current study align with those of the studies conducted by Mpho (2018) and Lomotey and Gyima-Aboagye (2021), who came to the conclusion that the teacher-centred dominated approaches would only limit the students to provide responses; a practice that seems to have marginal benefits for some students' language learning and experience.

6.3.3 Students' Feedback Moves

As earlier mentioned in this chapter, the students participated in every part of the IRF structure identified in this study, one of which is feedback. Students' feedback took 18.2% of all the occurrences of feedback moves observed. Feedback from students is structured much differently than feedback from teachers. All the feedback acts used by the students only included 'acknowledging'. There was no endorsement or thanking. The acknowledgement given by the students was characterised by the word 'Yes' mainly to answer the teachers checking for their understanding of the lesson. Student feedback was mainly determined by teachers' check questions, which appeared to be highly ritualistic in most cases. For instance, in extract 8, turns 1, 3, 7, and 14, the teachers check questions; 'Are you getting it now'? and 'Am I communicating'? seemed to be superficial rather than genuine because the teacher did not bother to check if the students' responses were true. The teachers' checking that produced students' feedback should have served as a way for teachers to assess how well they had attained the objectives of the lesson. Rather, it was merely used to give the students a feeling of participating in the conversation. These observations are consistent with Hardman's (2008) findings, who

University of Fort Hare

reported that using a participatory method such as choral acknowledgement of understanding will always prevent students from engaging in more creative and improved levels of thought and experiences with various language functions.

6.4 Effects of Participants' Linguistic Choices on Students' Verbal Participation in the Classroom

The results of the study reveal that all participants in the classroom interaction contributed significantly to the linguistic structure of the interaction. However, it was noted that teachers' linguistic input in initiation and feedback was higher than that of the students. Teacher talk was characterised by instructing, explaining, questioning, nominating and giving feedback. As such, students listened most of the time and gave brief answers to questions or instructions when asked to do so. When asked about the processes and practices they followed to enhance students' verbal participation, the teachers mentioned that they followed the stated objectives of the lesson, used explanations with illustrations, questions, praising (a feature of follow-up or feedback move), repetition, and nomination all of which were observed in the lessons. According to Hardman et al. (2008), teachers' pedagogical ideas influence the choices they make about the types of discourse modes and instructional strategies they use in their classrooms as well as the decisions they make based on the syllabuses they follow. Based on teachers' statements in the interviews, relatively little consideration was given by teachers to the value of oral proficiency in language teaching and learning. Amuseghan, 2007, in response to a comparable finding, highlighted that the causes of such teachers' practices were excessive pressure on teachers to cover the syllabus and devoting a significant length of time to practising examination-based instructional tasks. The circumstance resulting from the teacher activities mentioned above is detrimental to encouraging students' verbal

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

participation in classroom interaction, which can lead to language skills development. Rahman et al. (2018) explain a similar situation in Iran classrooms where teachers could not use communicative practices because of the excessive pressure of an examination-based curriculum. Memorisation is found to be prevalent, limiting students' verbal participation in the classroom to providing brief responses.

From the teachers' narratives, it was noted that questioning is one of the techniques the teachers employed to get students' verbal participation, as was also revealed in the observation. However, the issue lies in the type of questions teachers ask, the way these questions are asked, the questions' purpose and the level of encouragement teachers provide their students to answer the questions (Pujiastuti, 2013; Agbatogun, 2013; Fredson, 2015; Anana, 2019; Deji-Afuye & Olowoyeye, 2019; Tiwari, 2021). The observation revealed that teachers' questions were mostly display/closed questions. As stated in the literature review, closed questions are more restricting regarding the extent of response they require from students because there is only one correct response. On the other hand, open/referential questions require various appropriate responses that the teacher may not have predetermined (Brown, 2001; Liu & Lee, 2012; Derakhshan et al., 2015; Avdic et al., 2016; Sundh, 2017). Teachers' questioning techniques can affect students' verbal participation and learning prospects. A typical example representing the restricted range of responses for closed questions is presented in Extract 1, turns 4, 8 and 10 (Section 5.2.1). From the extract, students only gave answers of not more than three words in the lesson, a typical example of what was found across the classes observed.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Based on the observation, the features of teacher elicitation acts include display questions, referential questions, yes/no questions, repeating questions, requesting clarifications, and focus elicits. The quantitative analysis shows that the teachers used display questions more than other subcategories of their elicitation techniques. This finding confirms the findings of studies on teacher questions indicating that display questions are used more than referential questions Tsui, 1985; Chaudron, 1988; Seedhouse, 2004; Ong, 2019; Jiang, 2020 and Lomotey & Aboagye, 2021). Yes/no questions are usually used for checking, as exemplified in extract 8, turns 1, 3, 7, and 14. The observation also revealed that other elicitation features (repeating elicit, requesting clarifications, and focus elicits) were realised using display questions. A study by Domogen (2021) indicates that most display questions teachers asked are at the level of recalling previous knowledge. Domogen further explains that due to the frequent usage of display questions, classroom discourse becomes less extensive because the responses to those questions do not go beyond assessing students' level of knowledge.

Together in Excellence

Teacher respondents to the interviews said that they used questions to engage students to express themselves. This claim was not evident in the observation conducted in the lessons. The teachers' questions were not specifically used to make students express themselves in English but to check their understanding. In addition, the current study's findings follow those of Liu and Lee (2012), which revealed that one of the characteristics of IRF structure is the dominant use of display questions.

Based on the observation, it was found that students rarely offered to speak in class until the teacher nominated or urged them to do so. In their responses to the interviews, teachers stated that one of their teaching practices for promoting students' participation

and verbal engagement was to nominate. In this case, there is the possibility that a teacher concentrates more on certain students who he feels can answer best than others. In contrast to this concern, teachers 16 and 20 said they ensured that their nominations were well distributed among the students and sometimes focused on the silent ones. The findings suggest a considerable teacher control strategy in classroom interaction and that such control might have hindered reasonable student participation. The results support Anderson (2020), who argues that using teachers' nominations inhibits students' independence and causes them to feel biased or anxious, or it might give preference to brighter students over those who need the greatest support. However, across the classes examined for this study, it was observed that nomination encouraged many students to participate through either choral or individual responses. In support of this finding, Fesway-Malao (2016) explains that nomination is a practical strategy to allow inactive students in the class to express their ideas and help them use the language as they express themselves in the interaction.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Teachers' feedback has been found to be very important to students' participation in classroom interaction. The findings of this study revealed that teachers' feedback moves were mostly evaluative and corrective, implying that teachers assessed students' responses both explicitly and implicitly. Research identifies teachers' feedback as positive (praising, accepting and repeating students' answers) and negative (indicating incorrect answers). The findings of the study show that teachers employed more positive feedback than negative. In extracts 3, turn 5, the teacher's evaluative feedback comprised 'accepting', 'repeating' and 'praising' just in one turn. According to Tasnuva (2017) and

Bambaeero and Shokrupor (2017), students can be motivated and inspired by teachers' positive feedback.

Extracts 4 and 5 exemplify interactive and descriptive types of feedback, respectively. In extract 4, turns 21-43, the teacher used several follow-up questions or focus: elicit to help students get the understanding needed to provide accurate answers to questions. Chafi and Elkhouzai (2016) describe interactive feedback as a method of providing information or guidance to help students give improved answers over the first attempt. In this study, the teacher engaged the students until they were able to arrive at the appropriate answers. It was observed that in the class, the students were actively involved. The quantitative analysis indicated that the percentage of occurrence of interactive feedback was very low. In corroboration with Chafi and Elkhouzai (2016), the findings show that teachers infrequently use feedback techniques that are classified as helpful in enhancing active verbal engagement during typical classroom interactions. The results show that most of the classes were not significantly interactive. In the present study, descriptive feedback was observed to be the least linguistic choice teachers made in the interaction. Descriptive feedback involves the teacher acknowledging the student's answer but leading him to refocus to help the student understand what to do to get the right responses to questions or instructions. It is a type that could readily enhance students' full verbal participation but is used less (Chafi & Elkhouzai, 2016).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The findings also revealed that students' linguistic choices during initiation, responding and feedback significantly affected their verbal participation. Students' initiation was very low. Consequently, it failed to demonstrate students' full verbal participation. The observations show that students' responses were mainly characterised by brief answers

to teachers' questions expressed in one or two words or short sentences, individual and choral responses and silence. The analysis presented in table 5.4 reveals that the grand mean of 2.46 is less than the mean benchmark of 2.5, showing that students' verbal participation was inadequate. The results indicate that one, very often, students preferred to respond to teachers' questions with one or two words or short sentences. Two, often, students did not want to talk in the classroom. Three, sometimes, students were apprehensive when asked to speak English. Lastly, sometimes, students were allowed to ask questions. The results in table 5.3 show that the percentage of students' choral responses was higher than the percentage of individual responses both in response to teachers' questions and checking combined. The findings reveal that some students were fond of keeping silent instead of responding to questions and accepting to ask questions when they were given turns to do so. Based on the observation made in this study, much of the students' participation in the classroom tended towards responding to teachers' initiation moves, which were mainly in the form of informing, directing, and eliciting questions during whole-class interactions. These teachers' practices seem to have informed the students' predisposition to verbal participation in class. This observation corroborates the remark of Hardman et al. (2008) regarding students' low levels of cognitive engagement and passivity in classroom interaction.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

6.5 Teachers' Experiences of Students' Verbal Participation in the Classroom

The teachers' interview responses indicate that their classroom experiences regarding students' verbal participation in the lessons range from low and active involvement to satisfactory and encouraging participation. Teachers in all the studied schools said that students cannot be compared when it comes to their attitude to learning. They mentioned that their experiences had been with both slow inattentive students who were not

accustomed to speaking or participating in class and those who were always ready to work. Poor competence and lack of enthusiasm can prevent student participation in classroom discourse (Zhou & Landa, 2019; Akinpelu, 2020). Akinpelu (2020) states that students tend to struggle with verbal involvement in class because of the challenges of communication and linguistic construction in English. One of the teachers said she deliberately chose the silent students to talk to ensure that the interaction was not limited to a set of students alone, thereby increasing their level of involvement. However, observations show that there were some of the students deliberately nominated to talk who were silent. According to Sabe and Luka (2020), one issue with language difficulties is that students may not learn anything being taught in the language or be able to reply to the teacher's speech in the same language if they cannot understand their teacher.

Some of the teachers said that they were satisfied with the extent of their students' participation. One of them explained that satisfactory participation does not mean forcing every student to talk; rather, it means allowing them to learn in a supportive environment and explore ideas from their own points of view. This submission seems to agree with Fredson (2015) assertion from a study in Cape Verde and Smit et al. (2021) from Netherlands, who assert that teachers' decisions to teach adaptatively by creating a supportive classroom environment have a significant influence on students' motivation and participation.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The findings demonstrated that most of the barriers to full classroom verbal participation among senior secondary school students in Ekiti state, Nigeria, were caused by emotional, physical, and sociocultural factors. The factors that hindered students from oral classroom participation included anxiety, low self-esteem, lack of concentration, and

susceptibility to disapproval. When teachers were asked about the challenges and barriers to getting students' participation and adequate talk in the classroom, they mentioned factors such as the introverted nature of some students, lack of confidence, timidity, and low self-esteem. Some students' responses to the questionnaires attested to these claims. Other issues mentioned include fear of ridicule by other students or the teacher, fear of giving wrong answers, and lack of concentration and understanding. Some of the teachers acknowledged that there were issues of disinterest caused by the lack of learning materials, an unconducive learning environment, large classes, and lack of basic skills for self-expression in the language of instruction. In line with the findings of this study, earlier studies reveal that fear, anxiety, imperception of some students, and communication apprehension can impede extensive classroom participation (Jibowo, 2010, Agbatogun, 2013; Anana, 2019; Sabe & Luka, 2020). Agbatogun (2013) and Sabe and Luka (2020) remarked that students who are weak in the language of instruction tend to have difficulty understanding and participating in class discussions. Hence, Zhou and Landa (2019) and Akinpelu (2020) suggest translanguaging in ESL classrooms to promote active participation in classroom discourse. They explain that when students are allowed to communicate in a language they are comfortable with, they become enthused or feel free to participate in class discussions.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

6.6 Classroom Processes and Practices in Engaging Students in Verbal Participation

Teachers were asked about the processes and practices used to engage students in verbal class participation. They seemed to believe that following the stated objectives of their lessons would guide them through all the instructional strategies used in the lessons, such as the use of illustrations and instructional materials, explaining the subject matter,

questioning, evaluating and allowing students to ask questions. The use of repetitions seemed to be shared in the classes observed. When asked why repetitions were used in the lessons, teachers explained that it was to assess students' confidence levels and assist them to be more confident in their responses. Most teachers used repetition to teach pronunciation, emphasise, and help students assimilate and retain knowledge. Some teachers mentioned that they usually use classroom activities such as class works, oral engagement, and textbooks to promote students' active involvement in most lessons. From all indications based on teachers' reports, classroom practices can be exhibited in various methods and different orders, and a wide range of factors in the classroom, school, and curriculum can modify the effectiveness of these practices (Pang, 2019; Prasad, 2018).According to Hiver et al. (2021), teachers' ability to monitor, understand and intervene in second-language (L2) classroom learning could be a necessary prerequisite for creating learning environments where students are engaged and supported. Hiver et al. (2021) emphasise the multifaceted process of adjustment that teachers must achieve in ESL lessons. Teachers must learn to be able to take the initiative in adaptive teaching to make their lessons suitable for every student.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Most teachers' responses indicated that they rarely engaged the students in classroom discussions. When they did, it was mainly during comprehension lessons, whereby the students would be paired to use the few available textbooks, read aloud, and answer the comprehension questions. Some respondents claimed they could not engage the students in classroom discussions because of the limited time allocated for such activities. These are some of the constraints of English teaching and learning in Nigeria as identified by Ayeomoni (2012), Hardman et al. (2008), Njoku (2017), and Obiakor and Malu (2020).

It was noted that none of the teachers mentioned the use of digital technology in their classes and that they did not use it in the lessons. Faloye (2022) explains that there is a need for ESL teachers to be exposed to digital strategies for teaching English to arouse students' interest and encourage rewarding classroom interaction. He highlights the benefits of digital pedagogy from the language teaching perspective and argues for the need for teachers to upgrade to use it.

Furthermore, teachers' responses to interviews show that teachers had control over the classroom to give instructions, ask questions, nominate students to respond, evaluate students' responses and ensure that the lesson objectives were attained. The findings indicate that teachers' pedagogical beliefs influenced their choices about the kind of discourse patterns and pedagogical approaches they employed in their classes. As demonstrated in the literature review chapter, sections 2.4, 2.5, 2.6, and 2.9, the assertions that pedagogical factors like teachers' linguistic skills, beliefs, experiences and attitudes towards English teaching and the learners, the curriculum and the learning environment are very fundamental to what goes on in ESL classrooms have been made on several international platforms, including Nigeria (Amuseghan; 2007; Faloye, 2022; Oloninisi, 2019; Atubonoima & Amadi, 2021), South Africa (; Maja, 2015), China (Jiang, 2020), Iran (Bambaeeroo & Shokrpour, 2017), Hongkong (Pang, 2019), India (Prasad, 2018), the US (Varda et al., 2012; Farell & Guz, 2019; Hiver et al., 2021; Sari, 2020), Thailand (Tran & Dang, 2014), the Czech Republic (Avdic et al., 2016), New Zealand (Starr, 2017), and Malaysia (Rahman, Singh & Pandian, 2018). Considering those assertions, it is important to note that more studies in the Nigerian contexts have shown that students' attitudes, either consciously or unconsciously, are shaped by some of such

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

factors in Nigerian public schools (Agbatogun, 2013; Oyewumi & Jabaar, 2017; Nguyen, 2017; Anana, 2019; Olagbaju 2020). Therefore, students are predisposed to depend on the choices teachers have to make in the learning process.

6.7 Teachers' Plans towards Improving Students' Verbal Participation

Teachers thought there were possibilities for improvement in how students interact in ESL classes. In responding to the question about the changes the teachers would make in their practices to improve students' verbal participation in the classroom, their responses included giving students take-home assignments to work on for further discussion in subsequent lessons; asking more questions and giving them enough time to answer. More of their answers included giving the students more encouragement and sometimes allowing them to speak their mother tongue and allowing the students to ask questions. In their responses to further comments on English teaching and learning in Nigeria, teachers indicated that the government should motivate them to support their plans for more interactive lessons by providing all the materials required for English language education. Njoku (2017), Oloninisi (2019),Obiakor and Malu (2020), and Faloye (2022) observe that language teachers at all levels of education in Nigeria face numerous challenges in their efforts to improve English language teaching and learning. Among the challenges are inadequate resources for language instruction, limited understanding of current trends in second language teaching and learning, inconsistencies in language policy provisions regarding education, attitudes and psychological issues with learners, and a lack of professionalism in handling the subject.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

6.8 Influence of Classroom Talk on Implementing Student-Centred Approach

One of the aims of the analytical basis of this study was to establish the contributions of linguistic features of classroom talk on the use of a student-centred approach in the classroom. A student-centred approach is an all-inclusive, content-oriented classroom practice in which learners are encouraged to learn independently and develop critical thinking skills, while teachers serve as mediators and facilitators in the classroom (Mpho, 2018). As discussed earlier in this chapter, the interaction and discourse analysis of the classroom sessions show that the teaching exchanges followed the IRF structure in whole-class teaching. In the interactions, teachers were seen as major initiators of the exchanges, who took the initiative in how the discourse went. It was noted that all the teachers used specific methods of eliciting, directing (instructing and nominating) and informing to control the discourse as each of them targeted individual students or the whole class for an exchange in the classes. For example, in extract 1, turns 1 - 4, (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.2), the teacher opened the exchange with informing act, followed by directing (nominating) as she posed a question. Her question was directed to any individual student, but the students gave a choral response. She specifically nominated a particular student to respond in her second eliciting act. This shows the extent of the teacher's control in the exchange because the students immediately obeyed the teacher's instruction.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Fesway-Malao (2016) opines that teachers' method of nominating can be used to increase students' involvement. However, it was noted in the current study in support of Anderson (2020) that nomination tends to limit students' freedom and hamper a relaxed classroom atmosphere. According to Zhao (2007), the type of classroom discourse occasionally presupposes that students have a higher level of regard for the teacher

because the teachers are constantly seen as the centre of the interaction and activities. This system may prevent students from expressing themselves and influence them to simply listen and passively receive information (Zhao, 2007; Idogho, 2016). In a study conducted by Jones (2009), it was noted that in such a whole-class setting, many of the students listen to a teacher when he speaks, and there is a tendency for many of the listeners to want to respond. He concludes that with the teacher constantly controlling the interaction, students repeatedly cede dominance to the teacher regardless of the activity. Therefore, turn-taking is not too seeming in such a classroom, possibly because the discourse tends to be teacher-centred.

In Extract 1, at the first initiating move of the exchange, the teacher used an informative move to refer the students to the previous knowledge and a directive move in the form of elicitation to assess students' knowledge of the previous lesson on tense. The teacher also used a question to make the initial elicitation more explicit. The extract reveals that all the elicitation acts of the teacher featured display questions. Tuan and Nhu (2010) define a display question as a question to which a teacher already knows the answers. Such questions require short and precise answers. Based on the quantitative analysis of the classroom observations, the results of the current study show that the percentage occurrence of display questions (34.8%) was higher than any other types of questioning techniques teachers used in the lessons. This indicates that display questions characterised teachers' elicitation act. Many reasons could have accounted for this observation ranging from the teacher's moves to take simple and short responses from students, confirm students' knowledge, make clarification requests, evaluate students during lessons and focus students' attention on what they should note (Long & Sato,

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

1983; Croom & Stair, 2005; Vogler, 2005; Vebriyanto, 2015: Sundh, 2017, Jiang, 2020). Many of the classrooms in which display questions are used most could be described as traditional or teacher-centred, in which the types of questions teachers ask limit students' verbal responses (Pujiastuti, 2013; Agbatogun, 2013; Fredson, 2015; Anana, 2019; Deji-Afuye & Olowoyeye, 2019; Tiwari, 2021).

The findings indicate that teachers' use of informing acts characterised by 'explaining' or 'expressives' took the highest percentage (58.0%) compared to other categories like 'clueing' and 'reporting'. This implies that verbal exchanges in the ESL classes were found to be teacher expressive, which might have been influenced by teachers trying to model a high standard of oral communication or knowledge of the subject matter, according to Maja's (2015) opinion. In contrast to Maja's view, Collins, Harkin, and Nind (2010) believe that teachers frequently dominate classroom interaction and speak for most of the lesson. They assume that maintaining continual control over the interaction and taking time to explain the subject matter are requirements for accomplishing their lesson objectives. Such practice does not allow students to express themselves but to sit and listen as passive receivers of knowledge (Salau, 2018). Salau (2018) states that because our students are so dependent on teachers' instruction and used to memorising, they tend to give the examiners back their crammed knowledge. They are deprived of the exposure to higher-level thinking needed in this twenty-first century.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The interaction and discourse analyses presented in table 5.2 and extracts 4, 5, and 8 show that teachers used closed questions like 'Are you through with that?' 'I think I have answered your question?', 'Are you getting what I am saying?' Am I communicating? According to Dailey (2010), this type of question allows the teacher to identify any issues

that may impede the lesson's progress. They are genuine questions realised by a closed class of polar questions. It was observed that when teachers asked such questions, a check, rather than being a sincere check of students' understanding, was just a speech affectation of the teachers in some cases. Students were not expected to answer the questions at some points in the discourse because such teacher's check seemed very persistent, and the students seemed to have comprehended the repertoire. The results show that teachers' checks failed to provide the teachers with accurate information about the student's knowledge and were not considered a credible way to assess that the students had understood the lessons or adequately participated verbally in the discourse. This study's findings align with that of Sundh (2017), who concludes that those understanding checks fall short of their instructional goals of either developing students' learning abilities or communicative skills. Secondly, the responses to such questions are usually yes or no, because, in most cases, they do not require expressiveness. It was observed that most of the time, the students responded in chorus. The discourse analysis, as in the studies of Hardman et al. (2008) and Tasnuva (2017), further reveals that using the choral response strategy hindered students from thinking more creatively at higher levels and being exposed to different linguistic functions.

University of East London
Together in Excellence

As in Lu's (2021) study, the current study identified additional interactional patterns IR (students' initiation – teacher response, as shown in extracts 2a and 2b) and IF (teacher initiation – student feedback, shown in extract 8). The findings support Rashidi and Rafieerad (2010) and Ardi and Noviana (2015), who noted that students also contribute to the three moves in the IRF sequence. However, the teacher still dominates the classroom. In the present study, the analyses show that students' initiation moves had a

low percentage, possibly because students did not respond adequately to teachers turn-passing. It was observed that in all the lessons, only a few students responded to ask questions whenever teachers gave turns to do. This observation is opposed to Ugwu's (2021) and Domogen's (2021) argument that low students' verbal participation in classroom discourse is caused by students' difficulty gaining turns to the talk due to teachers' influences and choices. The findings of this study revealed that students would prefer to be silent because of language apprehension, anxiety, low self-esteem, and other related factors. Tatar (2005), cited in Tuan and Nhu (2010), asserts that various factors can influence how students interact in class. These factors include poor language skills and understanding of the subject matter, the need to avoid making mistakes in front of the teacher and their peers, and their desire to avoid ridicule. Therefore, silence is used as a face-saving strategy. This level of students' attitudes might contribute immensely to whether student-centred learning would be a practical approach in all Nigerian secondary schools.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Equally, there were a few instances where students corrected themselves and received correction from their peers, as shown in Extract 7a, turns 6 and 18 (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.2). As Mardani and Gorjizadeh (2020) emphasise in their study, self-repair and peer-repair would have been indicative of teamwork and student-student talks in the classroom, where the teacher acts as a facilitator of the interaction. Due to the low rates of peer and self-repair, the current study found that the classes used for the analysis were less collaborative. Anana (2019) notes that students are aware of the discourse role associated with teachers' positions. This is possibly why students frequently choose teacher correction over peer correction for their inappropriate answers. If the students

maintain this attitude, making the classes student-centred will require much effort and orientation for both teachers and students.

Furthermore, the findings of this study showed that the type of classroom interaction observed involved teacher-student talk and limited student-teacher talk. The analysis presented in table 5.5 reveals that the grand mean of 1.74 is less than the mean benchmark of 2.5, showing that teachers' use of the student-centred approach was inadequate. The results indicate that teachers rarely permit students to select their own topic for discussion. Two, teachers seldom ask questions that elicit thoughtful responses and allow sufficient time for students to answer. Three, teachers seldom allow students to be active central agents in small group discussions. Four, teachers occasionally engage students in activities (such as storytelling, class presentation, and teamwork) to develop their language abilities. It was revealed in the observation that teachers sometimes use recasts (correct reformulation of students' speech) as a preferred method of corrective feedback, and lastly, teachers sometimes ask many questions to motivate students' talk in English and use students' ideas to explain the lesson. In the studied classroom, there were no student-student talks and no collaborative classes or group discussions. These missing components have been noted as necessary prerequisites to facilitate student-centred pedagogy (Oyewumi, 2017; Salau, 2018).Maine and Cermakova (2021), in a similar classroom interaction that followed the IRF sequence, posit that whole-class teaching can be made collaborative depending on the discourse pattern. They explain that a whole-class discourse can be structured to accommodate co-constructed ideas through the sharing of viewpoints of the participants. The study

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

concluded that the learners were enthusiastic about leading the class and learning from one another.

6.9 Teachers' Understanding of Student-Centred Approach

Teachers were asked to share their understanding of student-centred learning and how they implemented the approach in their schools. Most teachers gave the impression that they understood student-centred learning as an approach where students are allowed to take responsibility for what they learn and how they learn it. They indicated that the method could help teachers and students determine how well students could learn without much dependence on teachers. Oyewumi and Jabaar (2017) describe the student-centred learning approach as a shift in the power dynamics in the classroom that places more attention on the student rather than the teacher or the curriculum. Drawing from the constructivist learning principle, Prasad (2018) explains that using student-centred pedagogy encourages learners' active, independent learning and creative thinking. According to Mpho (2018), the learner-centred approach seeks to increase students' participation, commitment, collaboration, and capacity for problem-solving using real-world examples.

University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

Teachers supported the idea of student-centred learning. For instance, teachers 3 and 5 from S2 and S3 tried to demonstrate a part of student-centred pedagogy by asking the students focusing questions to lead them to the point of generating the correct responses. However, that teaching technique could not be sustained because of the students' attitudes towards knowledge retention in the subject matter and the frequency of their negative responses and silence. Oyewumi and Jabaar (2017) affirm that one of the drawbacks of the student-centred learning principle is the assumption that students have

a fully developed sense of judgment and understand the importance of what their teacher is teaching. In addition, it assumes that students have a firm grasp of the basics of self-teaching and can freely share the knowledge. Observations in this study have disproved that assumption in the case of some schools in Nigeria. Oyewumi and Jabaar (2017), in line with the findings of this study, agree that the assumption is not always practical. They explain that teachers have to be assertive and firm before students are able to acquire the knowledge they can co-construct or share.

Teachers thought it would be difficult for students to take responsibility for their learning. One teacher said that the students' cognitive level must be considered before considering them taking responsibility for their learning. Another teacher emphasised that there would be low and poor students' academic performances if they were left to learn independently. Some teachers expressed concern that the students might not be able to learn independently since some of them lack the resources needed, such as the basic learning materials, the knowledge of what to concentrate on, and the knowledge of the examiners' requirements. Oyewumi and Jabaar (2017) opine that too much emphasis on the student's independent learning could be counterproductive if it comes up too early without putting into consideration all necessary implementation modalities.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

6.10 Students' Perceptions of Teachers' Motivation towards Student-Centred Learning

Students' perception of teachers' motivation towards teachers' use of student-centred learning was presented in the quantitative analysis (table 5.21). more than half (62.7%) of the students agreed that their teachers mostly used English as a language of communication in the classroom. Furthermore, 93% said their teachers usually engage students in conversation to promote spoken English in the classroom. The results showed

that 66.7% disagreed that teachers show personal enthusiasm for student-led lessons. Moreover, 53.6 % disagreed that teachers permit students to choose their own topics. Some of the respondents (65%) agreed that teachers ask questions that elicit thoughtful responses and allow them sufficient time to answer. In addition, 65.3% said that teachers use recasts (correct reformulation of students' speech) as a preferred method of corrective feedback. Some (51.3%) disagreed that teachers allow students to be active central agents in small group discussions. Above half (56%) disagreed that teachers engage students in activities (such as storytelling, class presentation, and teamwork) to develop their language abilities. Furthermore, 55.3% said that teachers ask many questions to motivate students to talk in English. Thus, out of the ten items, SA and A combined have higher percentages for 7 of the 10 items ranging between 55.3% and 93.0%. However, the grand mean of 2.42, which is less than the bench mean value (2.5), indicates that the motivation from the teachers towards student-centred learning was inadequate.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

These findings indicated students' perception of the teacher as the model in spoken English to facilitate the development of students' communication skills for the purpose of active verbal participation in class and self-learning through reading and other language skills. However, Adejumobi (2007), Jibowo (2010), Ayeomoni (2012), Deji-Afuye and Obadare (2019) establish that most of the ESL teachers in Ekiti State (which is the scope of this study) are L2 speakers of English whom themselves learnt the language in an L2 situation. Some of them struggle with linguistic proficiency to create pedagogical strategies to engage the students effectively. For student-centred learning to be effective, the teachers and students must develop the ability to communicate effectively in English

(Oyewumi & Jabaar, 2017). In addition, the findings of this study indicated that students were not allowed to choose their topics or lead the class at any point in time. It was observed that all the lessons were teacher-fronted, where teachers were predominantly expressive. Hamzar (2019) comments that a classroom that emphasises student-centred learning is one where students are allowed to initiate classroom discussions and teach one another through cooperative engagement. In the interviews, one of the teachers explained that allowing students adequate talks and discussions usually takes time and that teachers are expected to cover the syllabus stipulated for a particular period. Therefore, they tried to manage the time allocated for each lesson accordingly. Amuseghan (2007) points out that the system sometimes puts excessive pressure on teachers to cover the syllabus. This makes teachers devote so much time to teaching the students, using examination-based instructional tasks.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Students' perceptions imply that teacher input and contributions dominated the structure and flow of classroom interaction. The findings indicated that the motivation from the teachers towards student-centred learning was inadequate. This demonstrates the extent to which the focus of the lessons was the teachers rather than the students. Richards and Burns (2012) opine that language teaching has the potential to be seen as a sort of teacher performance. Still, language teacher performance will have to be measured by the teaching goals that facilitate student performance and communicative competence. According to Oyewumi and Jabaar (2017), this assertion suggests that the learning focus should be on the students rather than the teacher.

6.11 Barriers to Implementing Student-Centred Learning

When teachers were discussing their understanding of student-centred learning and its implementation in the schools, they mentioned some of the constraints, such as limited time, curriculum dictates, lack of plans towards implementing it, large classes, students' negative dispositions to self-learning and low academic performances. This corroborates the explanation of Oyewumi and Jabaar (2017) that these constraints result from the gap between the student-centred learning theory and its practical application. One of the barriers that limited student-centred learning was huge student dependence on what teachers have to teach. The system demands that teachers impart a body of knowledge that can be examined and prepare the students for the examinations. The students are equally aware of this. Therefore, teachers tended to employ teacher-centred pedagogy to meet those expectations. Some of the teachers also mentioned the issue of measuring teachers' successes through students' performances in public examinations. Salau (2018) states that this issue relates to the system's high reliance on standardised tests for evaluating student achievements.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

When asked to suggest what would make the lessons student-centred, teachers said that the curriculum should be planned to accommodate student-centred learning and more time be allocated per lesson period. Amuseghan (2007) suggests that the curriculum be given a comprehensive reevaluation, particularly in the areas of content, textbooks, and methods for developing communicative competence, which the existing English curriculum has failed to accomplish. Oyewumi and Jabaar (2017) argue that the National Policy on Education specifically stipulates that teaching at secondary and elementary levels should be innovative, creative, and learner-centred. Therefore, the curriculum design should prioritise classroom practices, teaching strategies, and timetables that

encourage adaptability, flexibility, and activity. Fesway-Malao (2016) argues that classroom communication requires that teachers give students more time to hear their linguistic input as they use the language. In the same vein, Michel (2019) asserts that, in education, much time is needed to plan what to teach, topics to cover, materials to use, class organisation, lesson planning, learner assessment, teaching objectives etc.

One of the teachers' suggestions was that teachers should be tutored in student-centred learning. Oyewumi and Jabaar (2017) agree with the teachers' suggestion. They explain that while the student-centred pedagogy appears to put the student at the centre of the learning process, in reality, it places more responsibility on the teacher in terms of initiative, innovation, and subject-matter knowledge. Teacher education should be reconsidered because teachers tend to teach the way they have been taught. Teachers also stated that they need more training on considering individual students in their teaching plans and allowing more student-teacher and student-student classroom interactions. According to Onwe and Uwaleke (2018), it is still often believed in the Nigerian context that a good teacher is someone who displays great expertise in front of their students as the source and authority of knowledge. Idogho (2016) is of the opinion that teachers should be trained to shift from a culture where students are kept under control to one where they are seen as the focus of the learning process.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Teachers suggested allowing the students to work more independently by giving them take-home assignments. Onwe and Uwaleke argue that student-centred learning requires teachers to consciously engage students with activities that would require students to work independently and collaboratively. However, part of the teachers' concern is students' lack of necessary learning materials. Therefore, they advised that students

should be equipped with the required learning materials. Almost all the teachers affirmed that student-centred learning might not be achievable until every modality to support student-centred learning is implemented. It was implied from teachers' general comments on ESL teaching and learning in Nigeria that the government should motivate teachers by providing every resource needed in all the public schools. Teaching and learning English should not be limited to school settings alone. Learners should be encouraged to learn from their immediate environment. That means the environment should be made conducive to learning, and parents, guardians, and society should get involved. Considering the importance of English in Nigeria, teachers suggested that teaching and learning must be taken as imperative to developing personalities, national economy, politics, and the like. Amuseghan (2007) advises that every stakeholder in language education, particularly English, should acknowledge the potentialities of a language (English) in contributing to the progress of individuals and the nation and take the achievement of ESL goals in Nigeria with the utmost importance.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

6.12 Conclusion

The chapter discussed the findings of this study on the linguistic features of teachers and students in classroom interaction. The discussion centred on three research objectives, namely Linguistic choices that teachers and students make during classroom interaction, effects of the features of teachers' and students' linguistic choices on students' verbal participation in the classroom, and the influence of the features of teachers' and students' linguistic choices to the student-centred learning. Teachers' linguistic choices in classroom interaction were characterised by directing, informing, eliciting and giving feedback. The linguistic choices students made tended towards responding teachers' eliciting and directing. The classroom interactions followed the IRF sequence with fewer

student-initiated talks than teacher-initiated ones. Teachers' and students' linguistic choices significantly produced low students' verbal participation. The major explanation for low students' verbal participation was the teacher-centred pedagogy prevalent in the lessons. Teachers have had challenges implementing student-centred pedagogy in the classes because of the modalities yet to be incorporated into the Nigerian educational system. Another challenge was that the teachers and students could not easily relate to student-centred learning. The next chapter focuses on the summary, conclusion, and recommendations.



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.0 Introduction

The aim of this study was to investigate how the linguistic choices made by teachers and students in the context of classroom interactions impact students' verbal participation and teachers' use of student-centred learning. The analysis of the data resulted in the conclusions that are presented in this chapter. Data collected through classroom observations were examined using interaction and discourse analysis. The primary goal was to identify the prevalent features in teacher and student classroom talks. Student questionnaires and teacher interviews were conducted to complement the data collected through classroom observations. The main interest was to gather information on the effectiveness of the classroom talk features on students' verbal participation and teachers' use of student-centred pedagogy. This chapter presents a summary of the findings of the study. The chapter also includes the conclusion and recommendations based on the actions to be taken in light of the findings.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

7.1 Review of the Research Problem and Research Questions

The study of linguistic and discourse features used by teachers and students in ESL classrooms in Ekiti state, Nigeria, was conducted in response to the perceived challenges in Nigerian classrooms with developing students' proficient use of English in classroom discussions and, consequently, in real-life situations. The research problem focused on learners' unsatisfactory verbal participation in ESL classroom interactions as a result of poor proficiency in English and the prevailing classroom practices. In the Nigerian education system, English serves a dual role as a curriculum subject and a medium of

instruction at all levels. Therefore, the skills to communicate effectively orally and in writing are necessary for effective learning. Learners' exposure to communicating in the language would help develop their proficiency and improve their academic performances in all subjects (Njoku, 2017). It was found in the background of this study that the adjustments to the ESL curriculum have not achieved a meaningful balance between linguistic and communicative competence in the language (Amuseghan, 2007). The examination-oriented instructional tasks have motivated classroom practices deviant from student-centred learning to encourage students' interactional skills. Due to the growing emphasis on communication skills in education, classroom interactions must drastically shift to promote the development of the skills. Given the research problem, the following research questions guided the study: one, what distinctive linguistic choices are made by teachers and students in classroom interaction? Two, how effective are the linguistic and discourse features used by teachers and students on students' verbal participation in classroom interaction? And three, how do the linguistic and discourse features used contribute to a student-centred approach in classroom interaction?

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

7.2 Summary of Findings

7.2.1 Features of Classroom Participants' Linguistic Choices

The research findings indicated that ESL classrooms in Ekiti state, Nigeria, mainly involve whole-class teaching with the IRF interaction structure, as discussed in Chapter 6, Section 6.2. The results of the study showed that teacher-centred and traditional lecture-motivated approaches were predominant in all the classrooms, with slight differences in the interaction and discourse patterns. Classroom processes involved whole-class periods. All the topics were taught through teachers' presentations,

predetermined questions, and students' responses, followed by evaluating students' knowledge of the subject matter. As discussed in Chapter 6, sections 6.2.1, 6.2.3 and 6.3, it was established that teacher talks mainly featured directing, informing, eliciting and giving feedback, while students predominantly responded to teachers' questions and instructions rather than initiating talks. Through their linguistic choices, it becomes apparent that teachers controlled the classroom discussions, deciding the structure of the interactions, when students should talk, and the extent of students' talk. The choices teachers and students made in this study exposed the common feature of most sub-Saharan African classrooms, which are influenced by cultural values such as leaders asserting authority and subordinates showing respect for leadership and norms in Africa (Hardman, 2008; Anana, 2019; Elmabruk & Etarhuni, 2021).



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The findings established that one of the techniques teachers used to engage students in verbal participation was eliciting. A common feature of teachers' eliciting act was the use of display questions. As discussed in Chapter 6, Section 6.4, referential questions requiring deeper thinking and more extended responses were rare because of the frequent use of display questions. Most of the teachers' questions were effective in testing students' knowledge rather than initiating interaction with the purpose of communication. The findings showed that because of the type of teachers' questions, students' responses were in one or two words and, at most, in a few simple sentences. Therefore, the questions only generated interactions that were indicative of didactic discourse. Moreover, it emerged in the study that there were both individual and choral responses to the questions. The observations showed that many of the choral responses did not attract teachers' follow-up and were less challenging for teachers and students. It gave

them the feeling of participation. Hardman et al. (2008) describe this type of teacher-student talk as ‘safe talk’. According to Hardman et al., it allows for participation without embarrassing teachers or students owing to linguistic or conceptual errors. The findings showed that students were rarely encouraged to extend their contributions through such involvement.

This study considered students’ linguistic choices characterised by responses to teacher questions and instructions as prompted by unequal distribution of authority, influence, and power between them and their teachers (Inegbedion, 2010; Anana, 2019; Scholl et al., 2015). Their discourse privileges and abilities express this disparity. As discussed in Chapter 6, Section 6.3, the study indicated fewer student-initiated talks than teacher-initiated ones. Findings based on teacher interviews demonstrated that teachers used questioning and nominating to engage students in the interaction. The observations showed that teachers made conscious efforts to engage individual students to talk by asking questions, and the students only responded when nominated. According to the literature, one of the factors that determine classroom participation pattern is culture (Fredson, 2015). Another reason for students’ linguistic choices that was established from the findings of this study was students’ level of cognition and proficiency in the language of instruction. This might have also accounted for students’ silence when they did not know the correct answers to teachers’ questions or when they were given chances to ask questions in the cause of the interactions.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Although very limited, the use of IR and IF patterns in the discourse indicated a departure from Sinclair and Coulhard’s (1975) model, which explained the IRF sequence as the only structure classroom interaction could take. This finding showed that students’ initiations

prompted mostly teachers' positive responses. As shown in the literature, teachers' responses to student-initiated talk could be a way to either support or impact students' adequate verbal participation and interest (Fredson, 2015). Furthermore, the more the teachers' positive responses, the better the teacher-student relationship can make students more relaxed and freer to express themselves in class. The results of this study demonstrated that teachers' choices to adjust their instruction by fostering a positive classroom climate would significantly impact their students' motivation and participation. The emergence of the IF pattern of classroom interaction in this study suggested that students also provided teachers with feedback. Students' feedback was provided in response to teachers' checking questions. But it was noted that if students engage in more student-to-student discussion, their feedback will be linguistically structured similarly to the teachers' (Maine & Cermakova, 2021).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

As discussed in Chapter 6, Section 6.3.1, peer-repair and self-repair in a few instances of students' talks signalled collaborative learning where students could engage in free interactive learning activities, correct themselves and be corrected by their classmates. Collaborative interaction was observed to have been suppressed by the teacher-fronted situation in all the classes. In Nigerian classrooms, students seem to believe in their teachers' stance as the authority of the knowledge they are to acquire (Anana, 2019). Observations showed that after students' peer or self-repair, the teachers had to accept the correction as appropriate before students would be assured of its correctness. Therefore, they tend to believe the teachers' corrections above those of their colleagues. As discussed in Chapter 6, Section 6.8, due to the classroom situation, students consistently put the teachers in the dominant position irrespective of the task.

7.2.2 Effects of Participants' Linguistic Choices on Students' Verbal Participation in the Classroom

The discussion of findings revealed that teachers' linguistic input in initiation and feedback was higher than that of the students. Therefore, students mostly listened to and responded in a few words to teachers' questions and instructions. The present study found that using the IRF pattern in the whole-class sessions enabled the teachers to monitor the interactional activities, ensure orderly classroom talk, and facilitate teachers' decisions. However, it reduced students' interactional engagement and only allowed them to contribute minimally to the interaction. Due to teachers taking most of the initiation moves, the extent of their explanations and the use of closed-ended questions, students were not adequately involved to stress out their ideas and, more generally, engage in verbal activities to develop their language skills. It was discussed in Section 6.4 that teachers' pedagogical ideas affected their choices about the kinds of discourse styles and teaching techniques they employed in their classes. The pedagogical ideas of ESL teachers in the Nigerian context are contained in how they have trained and the belief that teachers are expected to teach. Other elements that influence teachers' pedagogical conceptions include their excessive focus on covering the syllabus, the instructional tasks they use that are examination-based, and their lack of regard for their students' oral language proficiency (Amuseghan, 2007; Hardman et al., 2008; Oyewumi & Jabaar, 2017).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

It was established through teachers' experiences that students' verbal participation in classroom discourse could be low, satisfactory or encouraging. Teachers believed students' participation could not be compared because the students had varied personalities, language skills, attitudes to learning, and perceptions of verbal class

participation. As discussed in Section 6.5, some of the challenges preventing students from adequate oral participation are poor competence in the language of instruction, anxiety, low self-esteem, lack of understanding, limited learning materials and unconducive environments.

Classroom processes and practices teachers used in ESL classrooms were based on what the curriculum specifies, as well as their questioning and evaluation techniques. It was demonstrated from the findings drawn from teacher interviews that a wide range of factors in the classroom, school, and curriculum can modify the effectiveness of these practices. As presented in Chapter 5, Section 5.3 and discussed in Chapter 6, Section 6.6, such factors included limited time, non-availability of adequate textbooks, large classes, examination-based curriculum, teachers' strict compliance with the order of the lesson notes, and whole-class teaching. The findings indicated that the lack of adaptive instruction in ESL classes made it difficult for teachers to adjust their linguistic choices to that which could be suitable for students' adequate verbal participation.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

As illustrated through the interaction and discourse analysis, teachers took much time in the classrooms to explain subject matters, give instructions, ask questions, nominate students to respond, and evaluate students' responses. The processes and practices teachers used to engage students in verbal class participation consistently placed them in a position of control over the interactions between them and the students. It was discussed in Chapter 6, Section 6.6, in line with recent studies that teachers' linguistic skills and their consciousness as teachers of English were paramount to their choices as they tried to showcase it. Teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards ESL teaching, ESL learners, class periods, learning environment, curriculum, and sociocultural background

have been noted as additional factors influencing their linguistic choices and discursive practices in classroom interaction (Oloninisi, 2019; Atubonoima & Amadi, 2021).

As highlighted in the discussion of findings in Section 6.7, classroom discussions, more student initiations, asking more engaging questions, and giving more time for students' responses were considered necessary for interactive classes, according to teachers' views. However, government involvement was mentioned as pertinent in motivating the teachers and providing the required learning resources for language instruction (especially in rural areas) and teachers' in-service training. Due to teachers' experiences with the students in the area of English proficiency, teachers suggested using the mother tongue in ESL classes to encourage students to participate verbally. In Nigeria, it is no news that English is a curriculum subject and the language of instruction at all levels of education (Njoku, 2017). This status of English makes its teaching, learning, and use part of the significant issues to be addressed when discussing classroom interaction. As mentioned in Section 6.5, lack of self-expression in the language of instruction affected classroom verbal participation. This means that having a rethink on the language of instruction and English teaching methods will go a long way to improve the quality of classroom interaction in the Nigerian situation.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

7.2.3 Influence of classroom Talk on Implementing Student-Centred Approach

The IRF interaction structure, highly characterised by low student-initiated talks and more teachers' linguistic contributions, indicated that teachers were the major initiators of classroom language exchanges. The findings demonstrated that students were expected to follow teachers' directions, listen to teachers' explanations, and respond to teachers' questions when nominated. As noted in Section 6.8, the interactions were more teacher-

controlled due to the teachers' eliciting, directing, and informing methods. The findings established that teachers' eliciting featured mostly display questions, limiting students' responses to providing answers that did not require critical thinking or extensive talk. It also emerged that the use of nominations restricted students' freedom in their involvement in the interactions. The verbal exchanges were found to be less student-expressive and more teacher-expressive based on the high recurrence rate of teachers' informing acts. As illustrated in Section 6.8, the study viewed virtually all teachers' checking acts as teachers' speech affectation because they failed to accomplish the interactional goal apart from creating the feeling that participants were all involved.

The increased rate of students' silence was not only a result of not gaining turns to the talk; it seemed to be students' face-saving strategy to avoid speaking poor English, providing wrong answers, and avoiding ridicule. The level of students' attitudes to classroom participation appeared to compel teachers to answer their own questions and give more explanations on the topics, thereby increasing teacher talks above student talks. As discussed in Section 6.8, the study further indicated that the classes were less collaborative because of the low rate of students' peer repairs and self-repairs. It was revealed in Section 5.2.4 and discussed in Section 6.8 that students were seldom engaged in activities such as small group discussions and class presentations in which they could be active agents in the interaction. The study viewed ESL classrooms in the studied schools as teacher-centred due to the lack of student-student talks, low occurrences of student-teacher talks, and absence of collaborative or group discussions.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Although teachers gave the impression that they understood and supported student-centred learning, they admitted they had challenges implementing it in their classes. It

could be summarised from the findings drawn from teacher interviews that implementing student-centred learning is challenging because both teachers and students are not adequately prepared for it. The classroom environment is not always favourable because of the large class population. The findings also noted that time constraints, lack of suitable learning materials, and students' attitudes to learning constituted challenges in implementing the approach. Extensive syllabus to be covered within a stipulated time and high expectations from teachers to prepare students for public examinations caused teachers to revert to teacher-centred pedagogy to meet those expectations. These challenges have given rise to whole-class teachings, many dependent students, and partial practical application of student-centred pedagogy (Oyewumi & Jabaar, 2017; Salau, 2018).

The results of the quantitative study in Chapter 5, Section B established some reasons practical student-centred learning was difficult. The findings drawn from students' responses to questionnaires indicated, as discussed in Chapter 6, Section 6.10, that students' experiences did not reflect the principles of student-centred learning, which are intended to be differentiated by increased opportunities for students to select their own learning activities and students' participation in relation to collaborative work, discussing, critical thinking, and asking questions (Oyewumi & Jabaar, 2017). The findings demonstrated the inadequacy of the teachers' motivation towards student-centred learning, possibly because of time constraints and teachers taking much responsibility for students' learning. It was also indicated in the teachers' views that too much emphasis on students' interests and allowing them to choose what they learn could result in a different impact than desired. As reflected in the literature review, student-centred pedagogy in the

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Nigerian situation is challenging to adopt because most stakeholders do not believe it is suitable for all subjects and learners and could be ineffective if introduced too soon without proper forethought (Oyewumi & Jabbar, 2017; Ugwu, 2021).

The qualitative analysis sought to understand teachers' perspectives on what could be done to overcome these challenges. This study emphasised curriculum reevaluation to support student-centred pedagogy. Prioritising classroom practices, teaching strategies, and timetables that encourage adaptability, flexibility, and activity were also indicated as essential. The study demonstrated that all stakeholders, especially curriculum planners, school administrators, teachers and students, are responsible for making student-centred learning a reality in Nigerian schools. Oyewumi and Jabaar (2017) proposed continuous professional training to help teachers become effective in implementing student-centred pedagogy. Teachers agreed that teachers and students should be informed and trained towards adopting student-centred learning. Provision of required and adequate learning resources, time allocation of lesson periods, giving more consideration for student-student and student-teacher interactions, independent student assignments and collaborative tasks, and making the learning environment conducive were all teachers' views and suggestions to student-centred learning adoption.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

7.3 Classroom Interaction in Whole-Class Teaching

Learning and accomplishing competence in ESL are quite challenging, especially in a non-native situation like Nigeria, where the teachers are also ESL users. As reflected in the literature, one of the challenges in Nigerian ESL classrooms is to encourage students to use the English language to make them proficient participants in classroom interaction and, subsequently, in actual social contexts (Mercy, 2019). Riskiati, Noni and Jabu (2021)

assert that oral communication is the primary source of linguistic input in the classroom. This explains why the verbal classroom practices the participants are exposed to will most certainly influence their ability to overcome the challenges. This study revealed the verbal input of teachers and students through interaction exchanges, moves, and acts. The study found that the linguistic preferences that reduced students' verbal participation outnumbered those that motivated them. It was raised in this study that most students found it challenging to interact freely because they were exposed to a traditional classroom interaction structure that only allowed them to talk in response to the teacher's questions, instructing and nominating. According to Hardman et al. (2008) traditional teaching is characterised by rote learning and other grammar activities that only demand that students memorise and recall what they have memorised when they are assessed by the teacher, as observed in the current study.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

As discussed in this study, teacher verbal practices of directing, informing, eliciting, and checking were dominant because they engaged in whole-class teaching imposed on them as a result of the gap between the students' and teachers' levels of English proficiency. It was also observed that whole-class teaching enabled the teachers to monitor the interactional activities in the classes, ensure orderly classroom talk, and cover the stated objectives within the time frame of the lesson. It was noticed that whole-class teaching seemed less demanding and allowed for choral participation. Such discursive practices seemed to make teachers and students comfortable in a way because of the impression of getting along with active classroom interaction despite the students' passivity and low level of critical reasoning.

As discovered in the literature, teacher-initiated interactions and whole-class teaching practices are often linked with using English as the language of instruction. The current study observed that students often talk less in class because of low proficiency in English, and most times, teachers had to increase their explanations and even answer their own questions (Hardman, 2019). Therefore, student-initiated talks were limited. Odinko and Williams (2007) argue that student-initiated interactions and individual or small group activities could be enhanced by using the language in which the students are competent. Therefore, it can be stated that emphasis on English as the medium of instruction in Nigeria has further emphasised whole-class teaching. The continual use of whole-class teaching has increased because of the emphasis on English as language instruction in Nigerian schools (Hardman, 2008). As long as English remains the language of instruction, whole-class teaching will be sustained. The fact remains that English as a medium of instruction and subject in Nigerian education is not a myth but a reality. Therefore, using it in classroom interaction is inevitable for ESL teachers and students. Devoting more attention and resources to its teaching and learning is worthwhile.

University of East London
Together in Excellence

7.4 The Participatory Linguistic Model of Whole-Class Interaction

One of the issues discussed in this study (Chapter 6, Sections 6.2 and 6.6) relates to the culture of the classroom premised on the asymmetrical relationship between the teacher and students that limited students' expressiveness. This illustrates the inequality that underlies every culture, even that of Nigeria. Students are seen submitting to the teacher's and teachers are seen trying to live up to that (Oloninisi, 2019).

Based on the findings, I have developed a model that can be adopted to make whole-class teaching more interactive. The model is titled 'The Participatory Linguistic Model of

Whole-Class Interaction'. The model is created from the findings of the study through literature review and data analysis with a focus on structuring classroom interaction to promote students' verbal participation. The model describes the system of structural, functional and behavioural components involved in the whole-class exchange. The ESL classroom interactions in Nigeria mainly follow whole-class teaching with the IRF sequence of more teacher talks and control (Hardman, 2008). The literature and study findings indicated that the issue has persisted, but I consider the model an essential tool to address the situation so that whole-class instruction becomes more engaging for students.

The model is influenced by the notions of SFL, S&C model and FIAC System. These are existing models employed in my study to have a theoretical lens with which to look at my data and to give theoretical insight into the analysis of the data. The models are useful in explaining how language is construed in classrooms and how language use influences and is affected by the classroom processes and practices, and content demands as well as participants verbal behaviours. However, I noticed some of their limitations that have prompted me to introduce a model with greater explanatory power and more relevance to the Nigerian learners' context. For example, Halliday's model of speech function in the aspect of interpersonal metafunction concentrates on exchanges as giving and demanding between the speaker and the hearer (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). Emphasis is laid on the four types of speech function (offer, command, statement and question). In line with this notion, Supika (2017) states that in Halliday's model of speech function, exchanges consist of two units: initiation and response. The model fails to account for the use of feedback in the classroom exchanges.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

On the other hand, S&C model and FIAC system concentrate on teacher-pupils classroom discourse and interaction (Raine, 2010; Amatari, 2015). They do not handle student-teacher and student-student interactions in collaborative classes or discussion groups. In addition, the S&C model was developed based on the findings drawn from the recorded teacher-pupil discourse of British primary school classrooms (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992; Burns, 2001). On the other hand, the FIACS, developed in Minnesota to examine the teacher's and pupils' behaviour within the teaching-learning situations, mainly focuses on the teacher-pupil interaction analysis. The system does not capture all of the activities that take place in the classroom (Amatari, 2015). These models were developed in the context of English in the L1 situation. All these observations have led me to consider that the context of a model's effective application is of utmost importance. Nigeria is a postcolonial setting where English is learned as a second language and teachers are also ESL users. Therefore, it is obvious that the contexts that influenced the development of the existing models differ significantly from the context of the present study. Moreover, the Nigerian education system is characterised by inequalities wrought upon the population by sociocultural, economic and political factors, all of which have an impact on the classroom culture, as discussed in this study.

University of East London
Together in Excellence

I developed the model with the idea that classroom interaction is a social system of meaning negotiation between the teacher and students as well as between students and students. The relationship that forms the dynamics noticed in the Nigerian classrooms cannot be separated from such factors as linguistic, cultural and educational backgrounds, age, gender, ethnicity, and educational experiences. Fredson (2015) argues that the complex dynamics in the classroom can be facilitated or inhibited by the

interaction between teachers and students. As stated in the background of this study (Chapter 1, Section 1.2), language practices in Nigerian classrooms appear to have been informed mainly by the belief that possibilities for practising English are maximised when the language is used as a medium of instruction and studied as a subject. However, as noted in the literature section of this study (Chapter 2, sections 2.3 and 2.6) and discussed in Chapter 6, creating effective classroom interactions that promote students' active verbal participation and student-centred learning has proven challenging for teachers of English as a second language (ESL). The understanding that the language and communicative skills increase when language learners are actively engaged to participate in communicative activities that promote interaction is an indication for the need to work out the strategies to overcome the challenges.

I am proposing the model to incorporate the elements that would make the model practical in the Nigerian context of secondary school, ESL classrooms, and whole-class interaction. The results of this study have expanded my awareness of the essential elements to be taken into consideration to present a model showing different dimensions in whole-class interaction. The model is an amalgamation of the concepts from the theories used in the study and my perceptions from the findings of the study. The emphasis on the three types of classroom interaction (teacher-student, student-teacher and student-student) is born out of the need to demonstrate their usefulness to make interactive classrooms achievable. The interactional system includes structural, functional and behavioural components.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The structural component indicates that the basic interaction sequence can take different shapes depending on the occurrences of the discourse moves, the functions they

perform, and the speaker involved. This component is rooted in the principle that students' verbal participation and extended talk can be attained through an interactional system that involves three types of interaction: teacher to student(s), student(s) to teacher and student(s) to student(s). In the system, no exchange moves are restricted to the teacher or the students but open to every participant in the interaction. Barnes (1992) argues that interaction involves a dynamic dialogic process achievable through language-based mutual or reciprocal actions. In the teacher-student(s) interaction type, the teacher initiates the interaction, a student or students respond(s), and the teacher gives feedback. Student-teacher and student-student talks are essential to creating a dynamic classroom and promoting qualitative student-initiated moves that attract either the teacher's or other students' responses followed by student feedback. It then indicates that student-initiated talk has the potential to promote socially facilitated scaffolding needed to shape students linguistic, communicative, and interactive proficiency and give them due consideration in the interaction.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The functional component is included to illustrate the functions each move performs in meaning negotiation, such as directing, eliciting, informing, checking, requesting, evaluating, acknowledging, and giving feedback (Raine, 2010; Lefstein & Snell, 2019). It further demonstrates that a participant's verbal moves are not limited to performing certain functions different from the functions of other participants' utterances. The model highlights the co-constructive nature of discourse in which every participant is unrestricted to share meaning-making ideas, agree, disagree, and invite contributions from one another in a dialogic style. The component is in three categories teacher-student, student-teacher and student-student. Teacher-to-student(s) utterances involve directing,

informing, eliciting, checking and giving feedback. Student-to-teacher utterances are purposeful for giving information, clarifying, requesting, and giving feedback. The third category indicates student(s) interact with peers during whole-class activities and group discussion. This involves student-led discourse (informing, eliciting, and giving feedback). Students build on each other's ideas as the teacher facilitates the discourse management standards and serves as the moderator.

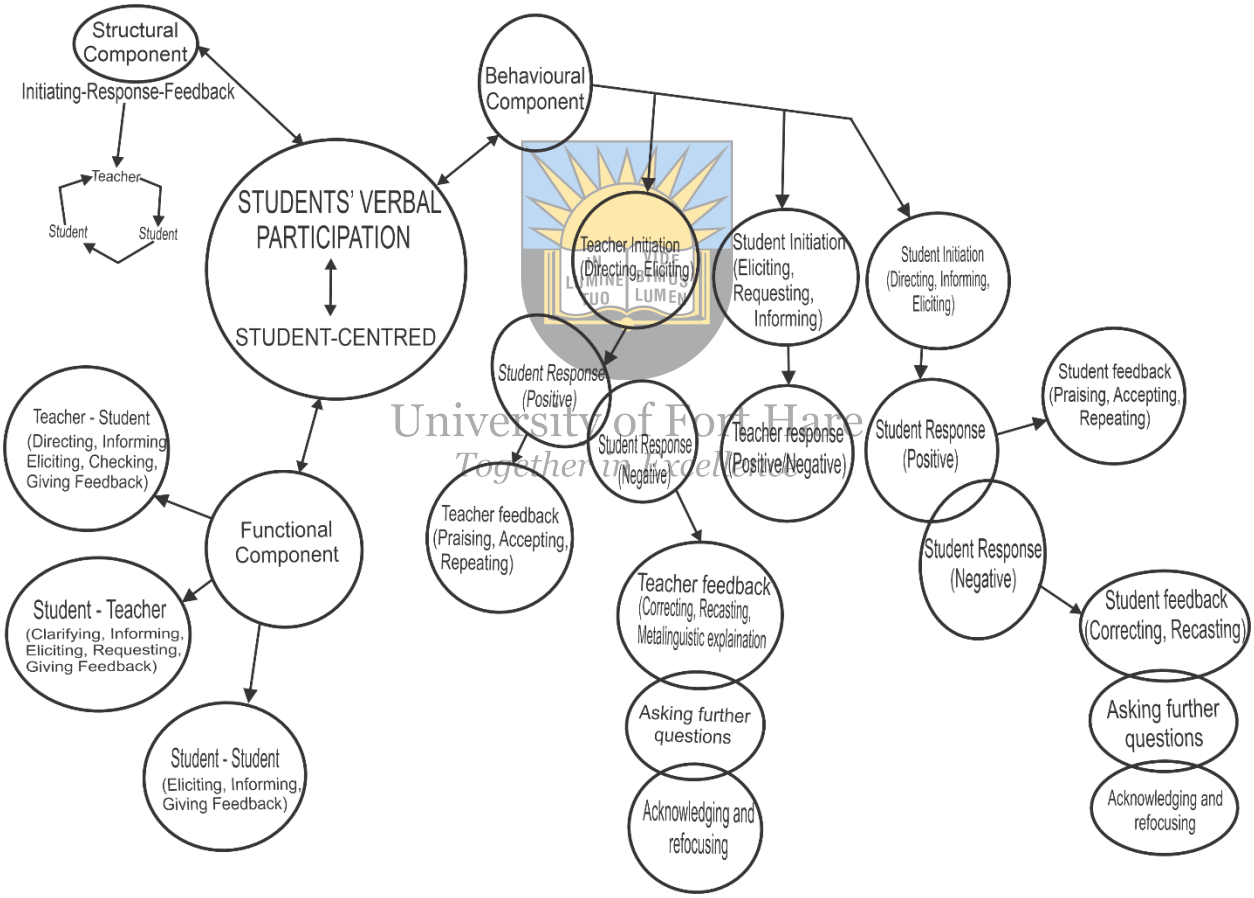
The behavioural component specifies the classroom language that can be used to create a stress-free relationship through the participants' initiations, responses and feedback. Fredson (2015) states that the classroom is a social system where the interaction between the participants can foster a constructive relationship. Students' initiating, responding, confused, and silent behaviours can be affected by the teacher's verbal behaviours, such as accepting, praising, encouraging, using students' opinions to explain an idea, directing, explaining, and commenting. Amatari (2013) explains that interaction is a reciprocal relationship between two or more people in which each of them plays an active role. The parties involved not only develop a relationship during the interaction, but they also influence one another. In light of these assertions, one-sided interactions like those observed in this study are unsuitable for promoting a positive teacher-student relationship. Hence, I have included the behavioural component to show that a mutual relationship is needed for effective and interactive classroom discourse in which the teacher becomes the channel for expanding upon and linking students' shared ideas.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The pattern of classroom interaction demonstrated in the model verbal exchange, questioning, responding and reacting can build up the desired classroom climate where the focus is on the students. The interactions and exchanges between the teacher and

students in this type of classroom setting are crucial because they encourage students' freedom to express themselves, learn, and interact with one another and the teacher. Figure 7.1 below is an illustration of the Participatory Linguistic Model of Whole-class Interaction showing the combined elements for students' full verbal participation in whole-class and student-centred interaction. The model is an illustration of the importance of every classroom participant's contribution to having an effective classroom interaction.

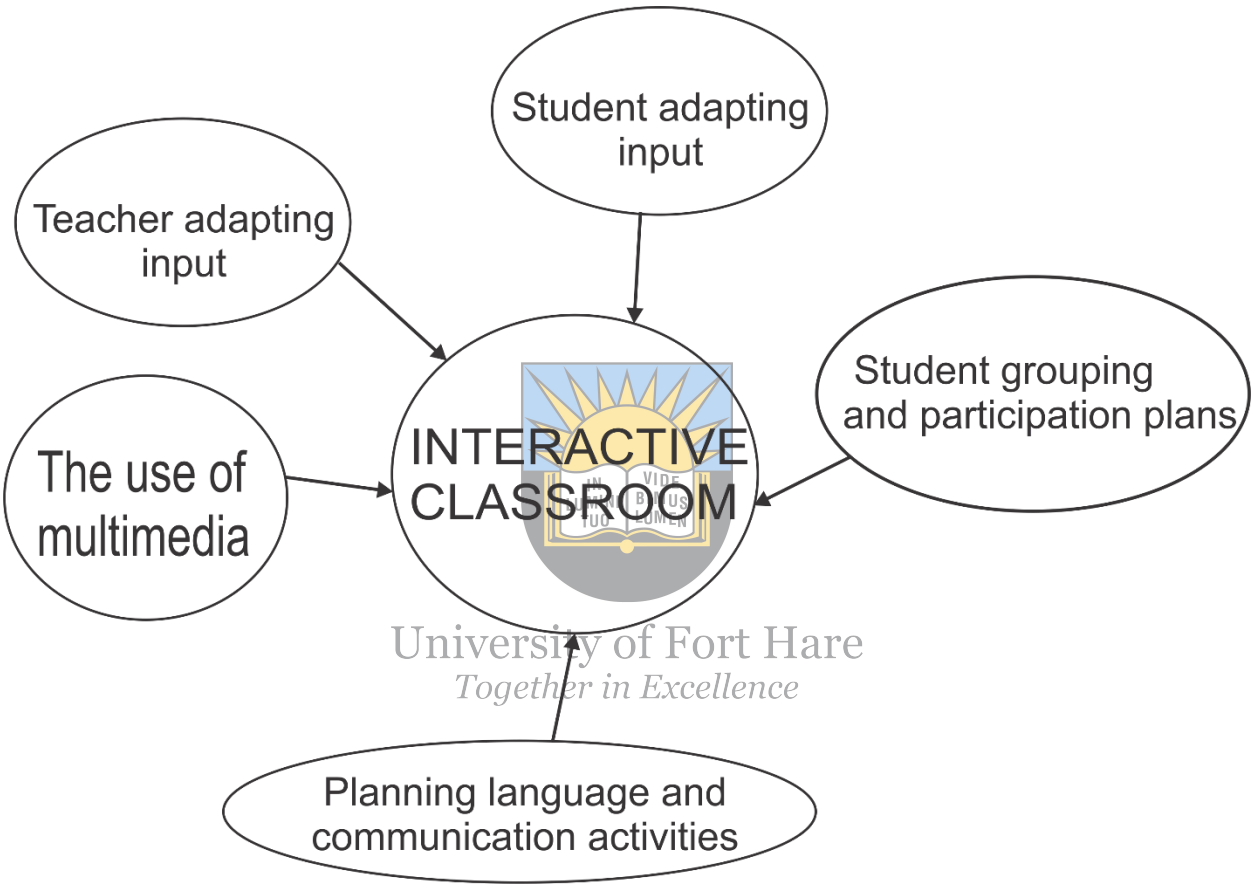
Figure 7.1 Participatory Linguistic Model of Whole-Class Interaction



The model establishes that the contributions of teachers as initiators and facilitators of classroom talks, coupled with students' active verbal involvement in the discourse, could be channelled to be effective teaching techniques that would positively influence students'

interactive and communicative competence. Therefore, for effective application of the model, I propose the scheme to follow as shown in Figure 7.2 below.

Figure 7.2 Application Scheme for the Participatory Linguistic Model of Whole-Class Interaction



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Figure 7.2 illustrates the scheme needed to support interactive classrooms. The proposition is explained as follows:

Teacher's Adapting Input

Given that some students might have cognitive problems that make verbal participation in English difficult, their proficiency levels will be monitored, and instruction will be given to them according to their skill levels. During teacher-student interaction, teachers will

view using simplified speech, slower speech rate, accurate articulation, correct grammar, moderate vocabulary use and explicit description of class activities. Furthermore, the teacher will consider enhancing student-teacher talks through more referential questions and adequate time for students' critical thinking and responses. The teacher should serve as a mediator and facilitator in student-student interaction. Fredson (2015) and Mardani and Gorjizadeh (2020) explain that adaptive teacher action will enhance cooperative learning where the teacher must create learning situations and allow students to produce language, work together and make mistakes and errors.

Students' Adapting Input

The students will be tutored to work individually in small groups with self-confidence, exchanging ideas and providing feedback to the whole class. Students will be allowed to adjust to the new classroom practices, given that they are used to the traditional practices to which they have earlier been exposed. Teachers will facilitate learners' self-instructional strategies, self-learning and self-evaluation to help learners easily socialise with their peers in the classroom. Students will need teachers' emotional support, effective classroom organisation, and instructional support to help them adapt adequately (Hamre & Pianta, 2010).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Student Grouping and Participation Plans

Different grouping arrangements will be used to promote student interactions in the classroom. The classroom seating arrangement will be adaptable to facilitate students' comfortable interaction. Students will be given different tasks to do in pairs and small groups. Students will be given individual communication tasks within their groups, such

as storytelling, reading, and class presentation. Participation plans will be included in the lesson plan. According to Michel (2019), imparting knowledge to students in this way will increase their self-confidence and help them develop the self-independent capabilities required for active citizenship and a successful working life.

Planning Language and Communicative Activities

Teachers will be responsive to students' language needs to include teaching grammatical rules, vocabulary development, and the use of language within the appropriate framework of a content-based and input-based lesson. Grammar instruction, vocabulary development, and other language functions are handled through content-based instruction. The input-based approach will introduce the students to the oral production paradigm of the verbal items. Students will be primarily engaged in communicative activities in spoken form. These are activities through which learners will have organised opportunities to interact with their peers in group discussions and tasks (Oloninisi, 2019). Teachers will then be able to demonstrate to students how to utilise language for both thinking and learning.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The use of Multimedia

The use of multimedia, such as video, audio, images, texts, and files will be made available in the classroom to arouse students' interests and interactive language. Using multimedia in the classroom will put an end to the use of analogue instructional materials and allow for digitalised and user-friendly teaching and learning aids (Faloye, 2022). However, the teachers will consider adequate preparation and training in digital strategies as necessary to succeed in their ESL teaching endeavours. Although this study focused

on face-to-face classroom contact between the teacher and the students, I included the use of multimedia because it has become significant in language teaching following the new trend after the COVID-19 global experience, which has enhanced the adoption and uptake of digital learning and multimedia use. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the model has been developed in a way to makes it applicable for both face-to-face and online learning interactions.

7.5 Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, consideration for improving the standard of classroom interaction and making it more participatory is essential. Therefore, recommendations are made to teachers in relation to their beliefs and classroom practices, the Ministry of Education in the state and language policy and curriculum planners.

IN LUMINE TUO VIDE BIMUS LUMEN
University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

7.5.1 Teacher's Beliefs and Classroom Practices

The findings illustrate that teachers' pedagogical beliefs, linguistic skills, experiences, and sociocultural influences determine their choices and control when interacting with students. There appears to be strong cultural and social influences on teachers' assumptions about the aims of formal education, teaching and learning processes and the teacher-student relationship. In Nigeria, many teachers find it challenging to foster a sense of shared relationships with their students due to several factors, such as cultural environment, perspective towards parent-child training, and school-centred standards (Idogho, 2016; Anana, 2019). Thus, the practices in Nigerian education are characterised by the attitudes and beliefs that students are expected to respect and not question teachers because they hold positions of authority. Thus, a strong emphasis has been placed on maintaining students' discipline and good behaviour at the expense of their

individuality, self-expression, and self-development. These beliefs are noted to be the main reason behind the traditional practices in most Nigerian classrooms (Idogho, 2016). This study recommends that teachers need further professional training, which is considered to be fundamental to transforming their beliefs and perceptions about the teaching profession.

As revealed in the current study, having students' full verbal participation in classroom interactions requires changes in discourse practices. Teachers should enhance their discourse behaviour by asking more referential questions to promote students' thoughtful responses and expressiveness. In the interest of attaining an improved balance of referential and display questions, teachers should develop their capabilities of questioning techniques. Teacher questions should be to check students' knowledge and initiate and facilitate extended communication. In addition, teachers should always endeavour to provide follow-up to students' responses. Students who receive follow-up support are more likely to retain what they have learned and remember to apply their new knowledge. Follow-up support helps teachers ask further questions, allows students to give better answers or ask questions, and encourages openness and a friendly learning environment (Nystrand et al., 1997; Nassaji & Wells, 2000).

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Most of the time, teachers seem to be comfortable adopting the strategies they have been accustomed to, which may also be convenient or personally preferred for them. However, it has been found that such strategies might not be helpful for all students. This is why teachers need to accommodate individual students' unique learning requirements, interests, goals, or cultural backgrounds and groups of students in their lesson plans. Therefore, this study suggests that through more efficient teacher training programs,

pedagogical improvement may be accomplished within the teachers' experiences and the environment in which they work. To achieve a positive change that will enhance the quality and practical methods of teaching and learning, all school administrators, heads, and teachers should take responsibility for creating a sustainable classroom culture in the interest of the students' achievement.

Teachers need periodic appraisals from personal observations or feedback from recognised experts concerning their classroom procedures to continue to improve their practices. This will give room for self-examination and monitoring for personal skill development. To expand their knowledge and abilities in teaching the English language, teachers can also read relevant literature on practical techniques for communicative and interactive language education.

IN LUMINE TUO VIDE BIMUS LUMEN
University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

7.5.2 Ministry of Education

Improving ESL classroom practices in secondary schools in Nigeria depends on the quality of the teachers. The ministry of education should employ adequately qualified teachers to teach English. Teachers who are not trained to teach English should not be allowed to teach it. The government should ensure that teachers teach the subjects they are trained in rather than just teaching any subject because no qualified teachers are available.

To support teachers' self-evaluation efforts, the ministry of education should organise in-service training programmes to enhance the current practices and systems. School-based professional training programmes could be organised and reinforced with extensive digital learning resources to move from the prevalent traditional approaches in

the schools gradually. Such training programmes can significantly support teachers and encourage them to reflect on their perceptions and instructional processes. When combined with quality study materials, guidance, classroom observations, and constructive suggestions, they can also assist teachers in considering the effects of their classroom discourse practices and determining their choices.

Given that the main purpose of learning a language is to communicate intelligibly, ESL teachers already in service should undergo in-service training on how to effectively teach English by using appropriate methods to improve students' communication skills. Moreover, teacher effectiveness is also fundamental to good classroom interaction. When teachers are not overworked with too many students at once and too many lesson sessions each week, this can be accomplished.

In an attempt to bring about improvement in the quality of classroom interaction and discourse in Nigerian schools, the constraints of the teaching/learning environment must be considered. Most of the studied schools are located in environments constrained with necessary facilities like electricity, language laboratories, equipped libraries and good buildings. Classrooms were arranged to have all the students facing the chalkboard with the intention of the teacher fronting the students. Many of the classrooms were overcrowded, showing more than thirty students to one teacher. Many of the teachers observed in this study were inadequately motivated because of these limitations. Therefore, teachers should be encouraged to deliver more effective services by providing teaching and learning materials, language laboratories, libraries, electricity, textbooks, and multimedia gadgets. It is also required that the ministry organise a purposeful and productive collaboration between the teachers, the head of schools and other educational

University of Fort Hare

professionals such as school inspectors and advisors to examine classroom practices, availability of adequate learning materials and how conducive the environment is. If this is done from time to time, it will allow the appropriate adjustment as needed.

The Ministry of education should support schools in establishing various groups like literary and debating societies, reading and writing groups and other social gathering programmes where students can be engaged. In addition, interclass and interschool competitions as well as speech days, should be organised regularly for students. This may increase students' interest, build their confidence and interaction cum communication capabilities, and encourage them to engage more in spoken discourse both in and outside the classroom.

7.5.3 Language Policy and Curriculum Development

The discussion in Chapter 6 shows that one of the barriers to students' full verbal participation in the classroom is students' weakness in the language of instruction: English. Studies have it that the problem of underachievement in English as a subject and its use as a medium of instruction in Nigerian schools has been traced to inefficiency in the language on the part of the students and some teachers (Njoku, 2017; Oyewole, 2017; Obiakor & Malu, 2020; Faloye, 2022). Yet, the language remains the medium of instruction and a subject that must be passed to proceed to tertiary institutions for further studies or be relevant in the labour market. According to language-related provisions in the language policy for post-primary education, students who choose any Nigerian languages – Yoruba, Igbo, or Hausa – should include the language of their immediate environment, depending on the availability of teachers. In 2022, an adjustment was made

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

to the policy, making the mother tongue the only medium of instruction for primary school pupils and the combination of English and the mother tongue for junior secondary school (Sahara Reporter, 2022). The policy should not remain in principle, but the government should provide instructional resources and recruit trained teachers to make it fully implemented.

Due to the stakeholders' perceptions, none of the indigenous languages is perceived as a necessity, and none of them is sufficiently developed to take the role of English. As a result, these indigenous languages seem to be ignored or reduced to a secondary role. If the indigenous languages are used as intended, new lexical items and expressions will be created, enriching the languages. However, because of this inadequate development, it may be challenging or even impossible to convey some thoughts and ideas in these languages, especially in this period of incredible science and technology, if they have to be used as the major medium of instruction in Nigerian schools. This study suggests that the policy makers revisit the language policy on education and adapt it to one that is more achievable and consistent.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

In improving ESL classroom interaction and discourse, the government should consider the objectives of teaching English, the accessibility of the appropriate facilities and resources, the current trend in language teaching, and the prevailing teaching and learning situations in public schools as crucial to curriculum development. The government should also consider placing less emphasis on examination-based curriculum, which demands that teachers teach students to pass examinations, heavily relies on textbooks, and speculates the particular syllabus to be covered by teachers at a specific period. Undoubtedly, the aspects that specify the linguistic and communicative

language teaching in the curriculum are projected to promote communicative competence. These aspects should be categorically expressed and purposefully followed to help learners perform better in learning the language as a subject and being proficient in its use in actual communication contexts.

7.6 Conclusion

The findings through the analyses of classroom discourse, questionnaires and interviews showed the linguistic choices of ESL classroom participants in structuring the teaching exchanges and discussed the classroom verbal communication practices that affected students' oral participation and teachers' use of student-centred pedagogy. The study indicates the need for motivating teachers to understand the essentials for providing an environment where they and the students can mutually communicate, build knowledge and, more importantly, develop both interactive and communication skills in the language of instruction for effective learning.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The study demonstrated that teachers adopt whole-class teaching methods with the IRF interaction structure in which they are persistently in control. Teachers continually dominating the classroom interaction reduce student talk and active verbal participation. The study shows that more teacher talks and fewer students' verbal participation indicate teacher-centred pedagogy. A balance between teacher and student talks must be achieved to enhance student-centred pedagogy and create a more accessible and friendly learning environment for teachers and students. The study considers adjusting teacher-talk and student-talk during whole-class instruction to effectively encourage students' expressive participation, as illustrated in the proposed Participatory Linguistic Model of Whole-Class Interaction.

This model incorporated the notions from SFL, S&C discourse analysis model, FIAC System and the study findings. The model consists of the structural, functional, and behavioural components to guide ESL teachers in implementing effective classroom interaction and discourse structures that contain participatory systems to support their students' English language learning and competence. The model is important to educators, ministry of education, policy planner. This study has successfully exposed the fact that both the teacher and students are significant contributors through their linguistic preferences to foster interactional behaviour, interactive learning and development of language proficiency. The study suggests a change of traditional classroom practices through teacher professional development, provision of adequate teaching/learning facilities, practicable language policy and curriculum development.

IN LUMINE TUO VIDE BIMUS LUMEN
University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

7.6.1 Suggestions for Further Research

This study only focused on teacher-student talks in ESL classrooms in senior secondary schools. Further research should be carried out to investigate the features of the classroom discourse in other subjects offered in secondary schools with the aim of identifying how the discourse and teacher talk influence students' achievement in English language learning and use in the classroom. With the understanding that learners can be freer when interacting with their peers, research should be conducted to investigate their preferences for English, the mother tongue or alternating between the languages during such interaction to understand how such preferences benefit their classroom talk in English as the medium of instruction. Given the current trends precipitated by COVID-19, it would be prudent for research to be carried out on the influence of teacher talk as well as strategies that can improve the impact of teacher talk on online platforms.

REFERENCES

Abuh, Y. P. (2021) Analysis of Classroom Interaction Patterns and Students' Learning Outcomes in Physics in Kogi State, Nigeria. *United International Journal for Research & Technology,* 2(8): 192-201.

Achor, E., Danjuma, I. M. & Orji, A. B. C. (2019) Classroom Interaction Practices and Students' Learning Outcomes in Physics: Implication for Teaching-Skill Development for Physics Teachers. *Journal of Education and eLearning Research,* 6(3): 96-106.

Adaba, H. W. (2017) Exploring the practice of Teacher-student classroom interaction in EFL to develop the learners' speaking skills in Tullu Sangota Primary School Grade eight students in focus. *Art and Social Sciences Journal,* 8(4): 1-18.

Adebileje, A. & Akinola, A. (2020). Teaching and Learning English as a Second Language in Nigeria: Examining Evolving Approaches and Methods. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 10(9): 1015-1024.

Adejumobi, T. (2007). Applied Linguistics (An Introductory Handbook) Flag Publications, Lagos, Nigeria.

Adhikari, B. R. (2010). Teaching Speaking in the Nepalese Context: Problems and Ways of overcoming them. Journal of NELTA, 15(1-2): 1-9. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.3126/nelta.v15i12.4602

Agbatogun, A. O. (2013). Comparative Effect of Interactive Mobiles (Clickers) and Communicative Approach on the Learning Outcomes of the Educationally disadvantaged Nigerian Pupils in ESL Classrooms. Doctoral Thesis. Edinburgh: The University of Edinburgh.

Akinpelu, M. (2020). Translanguaging as an Effective Tool for Promoting the Use and Contribution of African Languages to Formal Education: *The Nigerian Case,* 7(4), 36-41. *doi:10.30845/jesp.v7n4p5*

Alexander, R. (2008). *Towards Dialogic Teaching: Rethinking Classroom Talk.* 4th ed. York: Dialogos.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Ali, H. & Francisco, P. D. (2014). Form and Content Feedbacks in Foreign Language Writing: The Case of Omani Learners of English. *Language in India,* 14(11): 3-16.

Allen, J., Gregory, A., Mikami, A., Lun, J., Hamre, B. & Pianta, R. (2013). Observations of Effective Teacher-Student Interactions in Secondary School Classrooms: Predicting Student Achievement with the Classroom Assessment Scoring System—Secondary. *School Psychology Review,* 42(1): 76-98.

Al-Smadi, O. A. & Rashid, R. A. (2017). A Theoretical Review of Classroom Discourse. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development,* 6(3): 164-173.

Alvi, M. (2016). A Manual for Selecting Sampling Techniques in Research. Munich Personal RePEc Archive (MPRA) https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/70218/

Amatari, V. O. (2015). The Instructional Process: A Review of Flander's Interaction Analysis in a Classroom Setting. *International Journal of Secondary Education.* 3(5): 43-49.

Amuseghan, S. A. (2007). ESL Curriculum in secondary school in Nigeria: Issues and challenges towards communicative competence. *Nebula@NobleWORLD*, 319-333.

Anana, M. (2019). An Analysis of Classroom Discourse in English. http://www.research-gate.net/publication/334657075

Anana, M. &Adedun, E. (2017), Relationship between English Discourse Patterns and Students Performance: An Explorative Study of Selective Vocational Centres in Lagos State. *Mountain Top University Journal of Humanities, Management and Social Sciences,* 1(1), 129-148.

Anas, N. & Ishaq, K. (2022). Qualitative Research Method in Social and Behavioural Science Research. *International Journal of Management, Social Sciences, Peace and Conflict Studies*, 5(1), 89- 93.

Anderson, J. (2020). Nomination. *Classroom Management,* 29(4), 47-50.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Antón, M. 2009: Dynamic assessment of advanced foreign language learners. *Foreign Language Annals*. 42(3): 576-597.

Ardi, P. & Noviana, A. (2015). Challenges in Implementing Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) Sequences in EAP Class. Journal of Education, 1(3), 77-91.

Arege, J. B. (2015). The Role of Teacher Correction Feedback in The Success of Students' Error Correction during Revision among High School Students in Botswana. *British Journal of English Linguistics*, 3(2): 1-12.

Asper, P. & Corte, U. (2019). What is Qualitative in Qualitative Research? *Qualitative Sociology* 42:139–160 https://doi.org/10.1007/s11133-019-9413-7

Astia, M. (2018). Corrective Feedback in English class. *Indonesian Journal of Language Teaching and Linguistics*, 3(3): 111-122.

Atkins, A. (2001). Sinclair and Coulthard's 'IRF' Model in one-to-one classroom: An Analysis

Atuboinoma, A. J. & Amadi, E. (2021) Perceived Influence of Classroom interactions on Students Academic Performance in Senior Secondary Schools in River state. *International Journal of Innovative Education Research,* 9(2): 95-104.

University of East Asia
Together in Excellence

Ayeomoni, M. O. (2012). Socio-politico – Pedagogical Problems of Language Teaching in Nigeria. *English Language Teaching,* 5(5), 31-36.

Ayunda, A., Komariah, E. & Achmad, D. (2021). An Investigation of EFL Classroom Interaction by Using Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories System (FIACS). *Research in English and Education (READ),* 6(2): 89-100.

Avdic, A., Wissa, U. A., & Hatakka, M. (2016). Socratic flipped classroom: What types of questions and tasks Promote Learning? *Proceedings of the European Conference on E-Learning*, 41-48.

Azimova, S. (2019). The Communicative Approach in English Language Teaching. *Bulletin of Science and Practice,* 5(4): 471-475.

Bambaeeroo, F. & Shokrpour, N. (2017). The impact of the teachers' non-verbal communication on success in teaching. *Journal of Advances in Medical Education & Professionalism,* 5(2), 51-59.

Bamgbose, A., Banjo, A., & Thomas, A. (Eds.) (1995). New Englishes: A West African Perspective. Ibadan: Mosuro Printers.

Bamgbose, G. (2021). Teaching the English Language Effectively in Nigeria. Business Day NG. retrieved from https://businessday.ng/author/dr-ganiu-bamgbose

Barnes, D. (1992). *From Communication to Curriculum.* Portsmouth: NH: Boynton/ Cook.

Bassi, M. M. (2021). *Multilingual Teacher-Talk in Secondary School Classrooms in Yola, North-East Nigeria: Exploring the Interface of Language and Knowledge Using Legitimation Code Theory and Terminology Theory.* Doctoral Dissertation. South Africa: University of the Western Cape, Cape Town. Retrieved from https://etd.uwc.ac.za/

Bates, B. (2019). *Learning theories simplified*. London: SAGE.

Behnam, B. & Pouriran, Y (2009). Classroom Discourse: Analysing Teacher/Learner interactions in Iranian E=-FL Task-Based Classrooms. *PortaLinguarum,* 12: 117-132.

Bekhet, A. K. & Zauszniewski, J. A. (2012) Methodological Triangulation: An Approach to Understanding Data. *Nurse Researcher*, 20, 40-43. https://doi.org/10.7748/nr2012.11.20.2.40.c9442

Bell, C. A., Dobbelaer, M. J., Klette, K. & Visscher, A. (2019). Qualities of Classroom Observation Systems. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 30(1), 3–29. https://doi.org/10.1080/09243453.2018.1539014

Bentley, K. (2007). STT: Student Talking Time. How can Teachers Develop Learners' Communication Skills in a Secondary School CLIL Programme? *VOLUMEN MONGRAFICO*, 129-139.

Bhandari, P. (2020) An Introduction to Quantitative Research. https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/quantitative-research

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Bhandari, P. (2022). Triangulation in Research: Types, Guide, Examples. https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/triangulation/

Bhasin, H. (2019). Types of Interviews in Qualitative Research. https://www.marketing91.com/types-of-interviews-in-qualitative-research/

Biber, D. & Conrad, S. (2019). Analyzing Linguistic Features and their Functions. In

https://education.stateuniversity.com/pages/2154/Language-Education.html

Bloome, D., Carter, S.P., Christian, B.M., Otto, S., & Shuart-Faris, N. (2005). *Discourse Analysis and the Study of Classroom Language and Literacy Events: A Microethnographic Perspective.* Routledge. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.4324/9781410611215

Boaheng, I. (2018). Early Christian Missions in West Africa: Implications for Rethinking the Great Commission. In Asante, Emmanuel and D. N. A. Kpobi (eds.) Rethinking the Great Commission: Emerging African Perspectives. Accra: Type Company Limited.

Bowen, P., Rose, R. & Pilkington, A. (2017) Mixed Methods – Theory and Practice. Sequential, Explanatory Approach. International Journal of Quantitative and Qualitative Research Methods, 5(2),10-27.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Brace, I. (2018). *Questionnaire Design: How to Plan, Structure and Write Survey Material for Effective Market Research.* 4th ed. UK: Kogan Page Publishers.

Brancati, D. (2018). *Social Scientific Research. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage*

Brophy, J. (1999). Perspectives of classroom management: Yesterday, today and tomorrow. In H. Freiberg (Ed.), Beyond behaviorism: changing the classroom management paradigm, 43–56. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy.* United States: Pearson Education Limited.

Burns, A. (2001). Analysing Spoken Discourse: Implications for TESOL. In Burns, A. and Coffin, C. *Analysing English in a Global Context: A Reader*. London and New York: Routledge. pp 123-148.

Casteel, A. & Bridier, N. L. (2021). Describing Populations and Samples in Doctoral Student Research. Journal of Doctoral Studies, 16,339-362.

Cazden, C. B. (2001). *Classroom Discourse: The Language of Teaching and Learning (2nd ed.).* Portsmouth: Heinemann.

Chadwick, A. (2017). Population/sample. In *The SAGE encyclopedia of communication research methods.* SAGE. https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781483381411

Chafi, M. E. & Elkhouzai, E. (2016). The Use of Feedback in Classroom Interaction in Morrocan Primary School. *European Scientific Journal*, 12(4), 281-301.

Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second Language Classrooms: Research on Teaching and Learning* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chou, C. (2003). Interactivity and Interactive Functions in Web-Based Learning Systems: A Technical Framework for Designers. *British Journal of Educational Technology,* 34(3): 265-279.

Christie, F. (2002). *Classroom Discourse Analysis: A Functional Perspective.* New York: Continuum.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Christie, F. (2004). Systemic functional linguistics and a theory of language in education. *Ilha do Desterro A Journal of English Language, Literatures in English and Cultural Studies* (46), 13-40. DOI: 10.5007/%x

Collins, J., Harkin, J., & Nind, M. (2010). *Manifesto in Learning: Fundamental Principles.* New York: A & C Black.

Compernolle, R. A. & Williams, L. (2013). Sociocultural theory and second language pedagogy. *Language Teaching Research*, 17(3), 277-281.

Consolo, D. A. (2006). Classroom Oral Interaction in Foreign Language Lessons and Implications for Teacher Development. *Linguagem & Ensino,* 9(2): 33-55.

Cook, G. (1989). *Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Coulthard, M. (1977). *An Introduction to Discourse Analysis.* London: Longman Group Limited.

Creswell J. W. & Clark V. L. P. (2007). *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication, Inc.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell J. D. (2018). Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches. (5th edition) Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.

Creswell, J. W. & Hirose M. (2019) Mixed methods and survey research in family medicine and community health. *Fam MedCom Health,* 7:e000086. doi:10.1136/fmch-2018-000086

Croom, B. & Stair, K. (2005). Getting from q to a: Effective Questioning for Effective Learning. *The Agricultural Education Magazine,* 78: 12-14.

Crosley, J. & Rautenbach, E. (2021). Grad Coach International · 1-on-1 Dissertation & Thesis Help. Retrieved from: gradcoach.com/discourses-analysis-101/

Crossman, A. (2020). An Overview of Qualitative Research Methods: Direct observation, interviews, participation, Immersion, Focus Groups. Retrieved from https://www.thoughtco.com/qualitative-research-methods-3026555

Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a Global Language*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Dada, E. M. (2015). Teachers' Demographic Variables and Pattern of Interaction in English as a Second Language (ESL) Classroom. *European Journal of English Language, Linguistic and Literature*, 2(2): 53-61.

Dailey, A. (2010). An Analysis of Classroom Discourse: The Usefulness of Sinclair and Coulthard's Rank Scale in a Language Classroom. University of Birmingham. Module 4 Assessment Task SD/10/04. Retrieved from https://www.birmingham.ac.uk

Dangal, M. R. (2021). Survey Design – Quantitative Research. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication349502367

Davis, B. (2021). What is Triangulation in Mixed Methods Research? https://www.mvorganizing,org

University of East Asia
Together in Excellence

Dawadi, S., Shrestha, S., & Giri, R. A. (2021). Mixed-Methods Research: A Discussion on its Types, Challenges, and Criticisms. *Journal of Practical Studies in Education*, 2(2), 25-36 DOI: https://doi.org/10.46809/jpse.v2i2.20

DeBourgh, G. A. (2008). Use of Classroom "Clickers" to Promote Acquisition of Advanced Reasoning Skills. *Nurse Education in Practice,* 8(2): 76-87.

Deji-Afuye, O.O. & Obadare F.T. (2019). Teaching English for Communication: Pedagogy and Performances in selected Secondary School in Ado-Ekiti, Nigeria International Journal of Academic Research in Education and Review, 7(2): 21-27.

Deji-Afuye, O.O. & Olowoyeye C. A. C. (2019). Enhancing Senior Secondary Schools Students' Speaking Skill in English as a Second Language Through Teachers' Verbal Questioning in Ado-Ekiti Local Government Area of Ekiti State, Nigeria. *Journal of Research in Education and Society,* 10(1): 22-33.

Derakhshan, A., Zeinali, R & Sharbati, H. (2015). Features of Classroom Discourse. *International Journal of Basic Sciences and Applied Research*, 4(4): 240-244.

Dodu, Y. I. (2013). Teacher talk: Linguistic Characteristics and adjustment. Sharjah: American University of Sharjah.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Dollard, N., & Christensen, L., (1996). Constructive classroom management. Focus on Exceptional Children, 29(2), 1–24.

Domogen, J. C. (2021). Communication Patterns in English Classes in Public Secondary Schools in Benguet, Philippines. *OKARA: Jurnal Bahasa dan Sastra*, 15(1): 22-39.

Donato, R., & Brooks, F. (2004). Literary discussions and advanced speaking functions: Researching the (dis)connection. *Foreign Language Annals*, 37: 183-199.

Dźwigoł, H. & Dźwigoł-Barsz, M. (2020). Research Processes and Methodological TriangDollard, N., & Christensen, L., (1996). Constructive classroom management. Focus on Exceptional Children, 29(2), 1–24.

Egbe, G. (2020). The need to invest in digital literacy in Nigeria. Current Affairs, FRCN. Abuja, Nigeria: FRCN

Egbert, J. L., & Ernst-Slavit, G. (2010). *Access to academics: Planning instruction for K12 classrooms with ELLs.* Boston, MA: Pearson Education.

Eggins, S. 2004. An introduction to systemic functional linguistics. Second Edition. London & New York: Continuum.

El Mouhayar, R. R. (2019). Triadic Dialogue during Classroom Talk in the Context of Pattern Generalization. In M. Graven, H. Venkat, A. Essien & P. Vale (Eds.). *Proceedings of the 43rd Conference of the International Group for the Psychology of Mathematics Education* (Vol. 2, pp. 224-231). Pretoria, South Africa: PME.

Eldokali, E. M. (2007). A Linguistic and Textual Analysis of Classroom English interaction at Al-Thadi University in Libya. Doctoral Thesis. Cape Town: University of the Western Cape.

Ellis, R. (1990). *Instructed second language acquisition: learning in the classroom.* Oxford: Basil Blackwell Ltd.

Elmabruk, R. & Etrhumi, N. (2021). Teacher Power and Gender in the Classroom Discourse of EFL Teachers Educators: Insights from a cased study. *Faculty of Arts Journal*, 18: 54-78.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Evnitskaya, N. (2018). Classroom Interaction and Language Learning in CLIL Contexts. CLIL Journal of Innovation and Research in Plurilingual and Pluricultural Education, 1(1): 7-17 DOI: https://doi.org/195565/rev/clil.3

Fakeye, D. O. & Amao, T. A. (2013). Classroom Participation and Study Habit as Predictor of Achievement in Literature and English. *Cross-Cultural communication*, 9(3): 18-25.

Fakeye, D. O. (2007). Teachers' Questioning Behaviour and ESL Classroom Interaction Pattern. *Humanity and Social Services Journal,* 2(2): 127-131.

Faloye, B. O. (2022) Sustainable Digital Pedagogy in Language Teacher Education: Perception of Teachers in Ekiti State Government Colleges. *International Journal of English Language Teaching,* 10(1), 13-22.

Farell, T. S. C. & Guz, M. (2019). 'If I Wanted To Survive I Had To Use It': The Power of Teacher Beliefs on Classroom Practices. Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language, 22(4), 1-17.

Fesway-Malao, S., Sannadan, J. G. M. & Roman, L. B. (2016). Discourse Analysis of Classroom Language among English, Science and History Teachers. *International Journal of Advanced Research in Management and Social Science*, 4(12): 215-250.

Flanders, N. A. (1961) *Analyzing Teaching Behaviour as Part of the Teaching-learning Process.* Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Fleming, Jenny & Zegwaard, Karsten E. (2018). Methodologies, methods and ethical considerations for conducting research in work-integrated learning. *International Journal of Work-Integrated Learning, Special Issue,* 19(3): 205-213.

Flick, U. (2017). Mantras and myths: The disenchantment of mixed methods research and revisiting triangulation as a perspective. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 23, 46–57.

Frantzen, D. & Magnan, S. S. (2005). Anxiety and the True Beginner–False Beginner Dynamic in Beginning French and Spanish Classes. *Foreign Language Annals*, 38(2): 171-190.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Fredson, S. R. L. (2015). The relationship between teachers & students. In the classroom: Communicative language teaching approach and cooperative learning strategy to improve learning. In BSU Master's Thesis and Projects. Item 22. Available at http://vc.briedgew.edu/thesis/22

Garrett, T. (2008). Student-Centered and Teacher-Centered Classroom management: a Case Study of Three Elementary Teachers. *Journal of Classroom Interaction*, 43(1), 34-47.

Garrote, A.; Felder, F.; Krahenmann, H.; Schnepel, S.; Dessemontet, R. S. & Opitz, E. M. (2020). *Social Acceptance in Inclusive Classrooms: The Role of Teacher Attitudes toward Inclusion and Classroom Management.* https://doi.org/10.3389/feduc.2020.582873

George, T. (2022). *Semi-Structured Interview | Definition, Guide & Examples.* Scribbr. Retrieved March 13, 2023, from https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/semi-structured-interview

Gibbons, P. (2002). *Bridging discourses in the ESL Classroom*. London, UK: Continuum.

Gibbons, P. (2015). *Scaffolding Language, Scaffolding Learning: Teaching Second Language Learners in the Mainstream Classroom. 2nd Ed.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Ginting, S. A. (2017). The Importance of Opening Moves in Classroom Interaction. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 8(6): 7-11.

Grenoble, L.A. (2000) Discourse Analysis. SLIN2K Workshop position paper, Dartmouth College: USA, 1-23.

Guetterman, T. C. (2015). Descriptions of Sampling Practices Within Five Approaches to Qualitative Research in Education and the Health Sciences *Forum: Qualitative Social Research,* 16(2), Art. 25

Gumbaridze, J. (2013). Error correction in EFL speaking classrooms. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences,* 70: 1660-1663.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Gut, U. & Fuchs, R. (2013). Progressive aspect in Nigerian English. *Journal of English Linguistics*, 41(3), 243-267.

Ha, X. V. & Nguyen, L.T. (2021). Targets and Sources of Oral Corrective Feedback in English as a Foreign Language Classrooms: Are Students' and Teachers' Beliefs Aligned? Frontiers in Psychology. 1-10. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2021.697160

Hall, J. (1998). Differential teacher attention to student response: The construction of different opportunities for learning in the IRF. *Linguistics and Education*, 9: 287- 311.

Hall, J. K. & Walsh, M. (2002). Teacher-Student Interaction and Language Learning. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics,* 22: 186-203.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1961). Categories of the Theory of Grammar. *Word*. 17(3), 241-292. DOI: 10.1080/00437956. 1961. 11659756

Halliday, M.A.K. 1975. Learning how to mean. London: Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1985). An Introduction to Functional Grammar. London: Arnold

Halliday, M. A. K., & Matthiessen, C. (2014). *Halliday's Introduction to Functional Grammar* (4th ed.). Oxon: Routledge.

Hamre, B. K., & Pianta, R. C. (2010). Classroom environments and developmental processes: Conceptualization & measurement. In J. Meece & J. Eccles (Eds.), Handbook of research on schools, schooling and human development (pp. 25-41). New York, NY: Routledge.

Hamzar, H. (2019). Structure of Classroom Discourse Produced by English Teachers of Different Experience to Different Level of Proficiency Group: Proceedings of the Sixth of International Conference on English Language and Teaching (ICOELT 2018). *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research,* 276, Atlantis Press, 33-39.

Hardman, F., Abd-Kadir, J. S.&Smith, F. (2008). Pedagogical Renewal: Improving the Quality of Classroom Interaction in Nigerian Primary Schools. *International Journal of Educational Development*. 55-69.

Hardman, J. (2019) Analysing student talk moves in whole class teaching. In: Mercer, N., Wegerif, R. and Major, L., (eds.) The Routledge International Handbook of Research on Dialogic Education. Routledge, pp. 152-166.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Haynes, J. (2007). *Getting Started with English Language Learners: How Educators Can Meet the Challenge.* Alexandra, USA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Heale, R. & Twycross, A. (2018). What is a Case Study? *Evid Based Nurs*. 21(1), 7-8. Retrieved from https://www.research-gate.net/publication/334657075

Hellermann, J. (2003). The interactive work of prosody in the IRF exchange: Teacher repetition in feedback moves. Language in Society, 32(1), 79-104.

Hennessey, S., Rojas-Drummond, S., Higham, R., Marguez, A.M., Maine, F. Rios, R.M., Barrera, M.J. (2016). Developing a coding scheme for analysing classroom dialogue across educational contexts. Learning, Culture and Social Contexts, 9, 16- 44.

Hiver, P.. Solarte, A. C. S., Whiteside, Z., Kim. C. J. & Whitehead, G. E. K. (2021). The Role of Language Teacher Metacognition and Executive Function in Exemplary Classroom Practice. *The Modern Language Journal*, 102(2), 484-506.

Hokor, E. K. & Sedofia, J. (2021). Developing probabilistic reasoning in preservice teachers: Comparing the learner-centered and teacher-centered approaches of teaching. International Journal of Studies in Education and Science (IJSES), 2(2), 120-145.

Hoque, M. E. (2016). Teaching Approaches, Methods, and Techniques- Enamul Hoque. 10.13140/RG.2.2.21377.66400.

Hsiao, C. (2005). Teacher-Student Communicative Patterns in an English Language Class- Examination of Classroom Discourse. *TJEL (Taiwan Journal English Language)*, 5(9): 285-304.

Huang, A. F. M., Yang, S. J. H. & Hwang, G. (2010). Situational Language Teaching in Ubiquitous Learning Environments. *Knowledge Management & E-Learning: An International Journal,* 2(3), 312-327.

Huriyah, S. &Agustiani, M. (2018). An Analysis of English Teacher and Learner Talk in the Classroom Interaction. *Linguistic, English Education and Art (LEEA) Journal, 2*(1): 60-71. Retrieved from https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.31539/leea.v2i1.385

Hurst, B., Wallace, R. & Nixon, S. B. (2013). Impact of social interaction on student learning. *Reading Horizons: A Journal of Literacy and Language Arts,* 52(4): 374-398

Idogho, J. A. (2016) Towards a student-centered learning in Nigerian schools: drama-in-education and progressive pedagogy. *Creative Artist: A Journal of Theatre and Media Studies,* 10(1): 38-65

Ikande, M. (2019). Top 10 important uses of English language for Nigerians. Retrieved from https://www.legit.ng on November 25, 2021.

Inada, T. (2021) Teachers' Strategies for Decreasing Students' Anxiety Levels to Improve Their Communicative Skills. *English Language Teaching*, 14(3): 32-41.

University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

Inegbedion, H. E. (2010) Teachers' role in Educational development in Nigeria Curriculum Studies, 4:102-111.

Jang, E. E. & Wagner, M. (2013). Diagnostic Feedback in the Classroom. The Companion to Language Assessment, 2: 693-711.

Jenks, C. J. (2020). Applying Critical Analysis to Classroom. *Classroom Discourse.* 11(2), 99-106, DOI: 10.1080/19463014.2020.1761847

Jiang, Y. (2020). Teacher Classroom Questioning Practice and Assessment Literacy: Case Studies of Four English Language Teachers in Chinese Universities. *Frontiers in Education,* 5(23): 1-3.

Jibowo, A. V. (2010). An Empirical Investigation into Nigerian ESL learners' apprehension of grammar classes. Journal of Language and Literature, MARANG, 20, 1-10.

Johnstone, B. (2008). *Discourse Analysis*. USA: Blackwell Publishing.

Jose, S. S. (2016) Communication and Classroom Interaction. https://sunithasusanbinu.blogspot.com/2016/

Jowitt, D. 2019. *Nigerian English.* Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Kaiser, M. (2019). Quantitative Methods. *The Norwegian National Research Ethics Committee,* https://www.forskningsetikk.no/en/resources/the-research-ethics-library/methods/quantitative-methods/

Kalu, I. & Ali, A. N. (2004). Classroom Interaction Patterns, Teacher and Student Characteristics and Students Learning Outcomes in Physics. *Journal of Classroom Interaction,* 39(2): 24-31.

Kamalu, I. &Osisanwo, A. (2015). Discourse analysis. In Kamalu, I. & Tamunobelema, I. (Eds.), *Issues in the study of language and literature: Theory & practice.* Ibadan: Kraft Books Limited. Pp.189-191.

Kang, E. & Hwang, H. (2021). Ethical Conduct in Qualitative Research Methodology: Participant Observation and Interview Process. Journal of Research and Publication Ethics, 2(2), 5-15.

Karfa, A. E. (2019). The Communicative Orientation of English Language Teaching Classroom in Moroccan Secondary Schools. English Language teaching, 12(11), 97-112.

Kawulich B. (2012). “Collecting data through observation,” in *Doing Social Research: A Global Context*, eds Wagner C., Kawulich B., Garner M., (New York, NY: McGraw Hill;), 150–160.

Kay, R. & LeSage, A. A. (2009). A Strategic Assessment of Audience Response Systems used in Higher Education. *Australian Journal of Educational Technology*, 25(1). Retrieved from https://www.learntechlib.org/P/44304/.

Kelle, U., Kuberger, C. & Bernhard, R. (2019). How to use mixed-methods and triangulation designs: An introduction to history education research. *History Education Research Journal,* 16 (1), 5-23. DOI https://doi.org/10.18546/HERJ.16.1.02

Keiler, L.S. (2018). Teachers’ roles and identities in student-centered classrooms. *International Journal of STEM Education,* 5(34), 1–20 https://doi.org/10.1186/s40594-018-0131-6

Kern, R. (2003). Literacy as a new organizing principle for foreign language education. En P. Patrikis (ed.). Between the lines: Perspectives on foreign language literacy (pp. 40-59). New Haven: Yale University Press.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Lasabagaster, D. & Sierra, J. M. (2005). Error Correction: Students’ Versus teacher Perceptions, *Language Awareness*, 14(2-3), 112-127. DOI:10.1080/09658410508668828

Lee, J. J. (2011). A Genre Analysis of Second Language Classroom Discourse: Exploring the Rhetorical, Linguistic, and Contextual Dimensions of Language Lessons. PhD Dissertation, Georgia: Georgia State University.

Lefstein, A. & Snell, J. (2019). Linguistic ethnographic analysis of classroom dialogue. In: Mercer, N, Wegerif, R and Major, L, (eds.) *The Routledge International Handbook of Research on Dialogic Education. The Routledge International Handbook Series.* Routledge, Abingdon, UK, pp. 63-75.

Lei, X. (2009) Communicative Teacher Talk in the English Classroom. *English Language Teaching,* 2(1): 75-79.

Lestari, S. & Setiyawan, R. (2020). Technology Era, Global English, CLIL: Influence and its Impact on English Teaching for Young Learners in Indonesia. *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science,* 469012094 doi:10.1088/175

Liu, j. & Lee, T. (2012). A Case Study of College English Classroom Discourse. International journal of Innovative Interdisciplinary Research, 2: 1-10.

Long, M. H. (1980). Input, Interaction, and Second Language Acquisition. Doctoral Dissertation. Los Angeles: University of California.

Long, M.H. & Sato C.J. (1983). Classroom foreigner talk Discourse: forms and functions of teacher's questions. Seliger and M.H. Long (eds). Classroom – oriented research in second language acquisition. (pp. 268-285) Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Lomotey, C. F. & Gyima-Aboagye, G. E. (2021). The IRF Exchange as a Pedagogical Tool: A Study of ESL Classrooms in Pokuase Township, Ghana. *European Journal of English Language Teaching*, 6(5): 121-148.

Lu, Y. (2021). The Analysis of the Features of Interaction in Instructed SLA. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 11(4), 447-456.

University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

Luk, T. (2004). The Dynamics of Classroom Small Talk. Issues in Applied Linguistics, 14(2): 115-132.

Lyster, R. & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective Feedback and Learner Uptake: Negotiation Form in Communicative Classrooms. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 19: 37-66.

Ma, X. (2008). The Skills of Teacher's questioning in English Classes. *International Education Studies,* 1(4): 92-100.

Macia, D. F. (2018). Classroom Management in Foreign Language Education: An Exploratory Review. *Profile* [online], 20(1): 153-166. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v20n1.60001.

Maine, F. & Cermakova, A. (2021). Using linguistic ethnography as a tool to analyse dialogic teaching in upper primary classrooms. *Learning, Culture and Social Interaction*, 29: 1-15.

Maja, M. M. (2015). Classroom Interaction in Teaching English First Additional Language Learners in the Intermediate Phase. South Africa: University of South Africa.

Mantero, M. (2002). *The reasons we speak: Cognition and discourse in the second language classroom*. Westport, CT: Gergin & Garvey

Mantero, M. (2006). Applied Literacy in Second Language Education: Re(framing) Discourse in Literature-Based Classroom. *Foreign Language Annals,* 39: 99-114.

Mariana, M. P. (2009). *Classroom Discourse and teacher Talk Influences on English Language Learner Students' Mathematics Experiences*. PhD Dissertation. Florida: University of Florida.

Maroni, B. (2008). Turn-Taking in Classroom Interactions: Overlapping, Interruptions and Pauses in Primary school. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, XXIII(1): 59-76.

Matamoros-Gonzalez, J. A., Rojas, M. A. Romero, J. P., Vera-Quinonez, S. & Soto, S. T. (2017). English Language Teaching Approaches: A Comparison of the Grammar-translation, Audiolingual, Communicative, and Natural Approaches. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies,* 7(11), 965-973.

Mathieu, S. C., Miguel, N. M. & Jakonen, T. (2021) Introduction: classroom discourse at the intersection of language education and materiality. *Classroom Discourse*, 12(1-2): 1-14, DOI: 10.1080/19463014.2020.1870151

McCarthy, M. (2002). *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers.* Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.

McCombes, S. (2020) How to do a case study. https://www.scibbr.com/methodology/case-study/

Media Nigeria (2018). History of English Language in Nigeria. Retrieved from https://www.medianigeria.com

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Mehan, H. (1979) *Learning Lessons: Social Organization in the Classroom.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Mercer, N., & Howe, C. (2012). Explaining the dialogic processes of teaching and learning: The value of sociocultural theory. Learning, Culture and Social interaction, 1(1), 12- 21.

Mercy, N. O. (2019). Challenges facing Teaching and Learning of English Language in Public Secondary Schools in Enugu State Nigeria. *Asian Journal of Education and Social Studies,* 4(2): 1-9.

Michel, A. (2019). What is Teaching for? European Journal of Education Research, Development and Policy, 54(3): 319-322.

Moleke, H. & Montle, M. E. (2020). The Role of Classroom Discourse towards the Learners' Senses of Belonging: A Case of the Transitional Stage of English Language Learning. *Journal of African Education (JAE),* 1(2): 61-82.

Mohan, R. (2021). What is a Case Study? [+6 Types of Case Studies. https://venngage.com/feature/create-a-case-study

Mpho, O. (2018). Teacher centered dominated approaches: Their implications for today's inclusive classrooms. *International Journal of Psychology and Counselling*, 10(2): 11-21.

Murnane, R. J. & Levy, F. (1996). *Teaching the New Basic Skills: Principle for Educating Children to Thrive in a Changing Economy.* New York: Free Press.

Nassaji, H. & Wells, G (2000). What's the Use of 'Triadic Dialogue'? An Investigation of Teacher-Student Interaction. Applied Linguistics, 21(3): 376-406.

Nguyen, H. T., Warren, W. & Fehring, H. (2014). Factors Affecting English Language Teaching in Higher Education. *English Language Teaching,* 7(8), 94-105.

Nguyen, H. C. (2019) Motivation in Learning English Language: a case study at Vietnam National University, Hanoi. *European Journal of Educational Sciences,* 6(1): 50-65.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Nikula, T., Dalton-Puffer, C. & Llinares, A. (2013). CLIL Classroom Discourse: Research from Europe. Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education, 1(1): 70-100

Njoku, J. C. (2017) English Language, the Nigerian education System and human development. *Unizik Journal of Arts and Humanities*, 18(2): 211-226.

Nkomazana, F., & Setume, S. D. (2016). Missionary colonial mentality and the expansion of Christianity in Bechuanaland Protectorate, 1800 to 1900. *Journal for the study of religion, 29*(2), 29-55.

Nnorom, N. R. & Erhabor, Phyllis O. (2019) Effect of Classroom interaction patterns on Secondary School Students Cognitive Achievement in Biology. *International Journal for Cross-Disciplinary subjects in Education (IJCDSE),* 10(1): 3980-3985.

Nordquist, R. (2021) What Is Nonverbal Communication? – ThoughtCo https://www.thoughtco.com › English › English Grammar.

Nwaegbe, M. C. (2016) Aspects of Discourse Analysis on the Language of the Classroom. Journal of Teacher Perspective, 11(2): 1-9.

Nystrand, M. (1997). Dialogic instruction: When recitation becomes conversation. In M. Nystrand, A. Gamoran, R. Kachur, & C. Prendergast (Eds.), *Opening dialogue: Understanding the dynamics of language learning and teaching in the English classroom.* (pp. 1-29). New York: Teachers College Press.

Nystrand, M., Wu, L. L., Gamoran, A., Zeiser, S., & Long, D. (2001). Questions in Time: Investigating the Structure and Dynamics of Unfolding Classroom Discourse. Cela Research Report Number 14005. New York: The National Research Center on English Learning & Achievement.

Obiakor, M. I. & Malu, D. (2020). Problem of Teaching and Learning of English Language as a Second Language in Secondary Schools in Ankpa local government Area of Kogi State. *African Journal of Educational Management, Teaching and Entrepreneurship Studies,* 1(1), 76-88.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Odinko, M. & Williams, J. (2006) Language of Instruction and Interaction Patterns in Pre-Primary Classrooms in Nigeria. *Journal of Classroom Interaction*, 41(1), 22-32.

Odutuyi, M. (2012). The Relationship between Students' Perceptions of Pattern on Interaction and Students' Learning Outcome in Secondary School Chemistry in Ondo State, Nigeria. *Journal of Education,* 9: 56-67.

Ojetunde, C. F. (2013). Lexico-Grammatical Errors in Nigerian English: Implications for Nigerian Teachers and Learners of English. *European Scientific Journal,* 9(17), 252-268.

Olagbaju, O. O. (2020). Teacher-Related Factors as Predictors of Students' Achievement in English Grammar in Gambian Senior Secondary Schools. *Education Research International.* Article ID 8897719 https://doi.org/101155/2020/887719

O'Leary, M. (2020). Classroom Observation: A Guide to the Effective Observation of Teaching and Learning (2nd ed.). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315630243

Oloninisi, O. (2019). Communication Challenges of Teaching in English Language in Nigerian Primary Education. *Journal of Research and Methods in Education,* 9(6): 18 - 23.

Omozele, E. B. (2017). Learners' Perception of Teachers' Interpersonal Behaviour as a Predictor of Academic Achievement in Junior Secondary School Certificate Examination of Edo State, Nigeria. *Journal of Education and Practice,* 8(20): 144-151.

Onabamiro, T. & Oladipupo, R. 2019. 'Forms and patterns of epenthesis of New English native speakers in Nigeria.' [Paper presentation] English Scholars' Association of Nigeria Conference, Abuja, Nigeria.

Ong, J. (2019). A Case Study of Classroom Discourse Analysis of Teacher's Fronted Reading Comprehension Lessons for Vocabulary Learning Opportunities. *Regional Language Centre (RELC) Journal*, 50(1): 118-139.

Onotere, A. C. (2019). An Evaluation of the Communicative Approach to Language Acquisition and Language Education. *International Journal of Education, Learning and Development,* 7(6), 1-9.

University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

Ononye, C. F. (2015). Style and Lexical choices in Teacher-Student Classroom Interaction. *International Journal of Humanities and Cultural Studies,* 2(2): 369-381.

Onwe, J. O. & Uwaleke, C. C. (2018). Effective Teaching and Learning: A Call for Paradigm Shift from Teacher-centred Method to Student-Centred Method and the Reality in Nigerian Higher Education. *AE-FUNAI Journal of Education (AEFUNAI JOE)* (1)1, 193-202.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Collins, K. M. (2007). A Typology of Mixed Methods Sampling Designs in Social Science Research. The Qualitative Report, 12(2), 281-316. https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2007.1638

Osoba, S. & Sobola, E. (2014). Introduction to Discourse Analysis. In Adedun, E. A. & Yawsekyi-Baidoo (Eds) English Studies in Focus: Readings in Language and Literature. Faculty of Languages, University of Education, Winneba, Ghana. 200-221.

Owojecho, F. A. (2020). Implementation Challenges of National Language Policy in Nigeria: The Roles of the Indigenous Languages International. *Journal of Language and Literary Studies,* 2(1), 270-279.

Oyewole, O. (2017). Influence of Mother Tongue in the Teaching and Learning of English Language in Selected Secondary Schools in Ondo State, Nigeria. *Journal of Education and Practice,* 8(30), 55-64.

Oyewumi, K. A. & Jabaar, S. O. (2019). Learner-Centered Pedagogy in Nigerian Education: Bridging the Gap between Theory and Practice. A paper presented at the 34th Philosophers of Education Association of Nigerian (PEAN) Conference held on the 24th – 27th October 2017 at University of Lagos, Nigeria.

Palinkas, L. A., Horwitz, S. M., Green, C. A., Wisdom, J. P., Duan, N. & Hoagwood, K. (2015). Purposeful sampling for qualitative data collection and analysis in mixed method implementation research. *Adm Policy Ment Health,* 42(5), 533–544. doi:10.1007/s10488-013-0528-y.

Pang, M. (2019). Developing Core Practices for EFL/ESL Teaching: A Framework for Methodology Course Design. *TESOL Quarterly*, 53(1), 258-273.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Panova, I. & Lyster, R. (2002). Patterns of corrective Feedback and Uptake in an Adult ESL Classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36: 573-595.

Paterson, D. (2008). Analysing Classroom Discourse using the Sinclair/Coulthard Model. *Matsuyama University Studies in Language and Literature*, 28(1): 67-94.

Pinxteren, B. V. (2022). Language of Instruction in education in Africa: How New Questions Help Generate New Answers. *International Journal of Educational Development,* 88, 1-6.

Plonski, P. & Teferra, A. (2013). Why are more African Countries Adopting English as an Official Language. ASA 2013 Annual Meeting Paper.

Poehner, & Lantolf, (2005). Dynamic Assessment in the Language Classroom, *Language Teaching Research,* 9(3), 233-265.

Poth, C., & Munce, S. E. P. (2020). Commentary—Preparing today's researchers for a yet unknown tomorrow: Promising practices for a synergistic and sustainable mentoring approach to mixed methods research learning. International Journal of Multiple Research Approaches, 12(1), 56-64. doi: 10.29034/ijmra.v12n1commentary

Prandner, D., & Weichbold, M. (2019). Building a sampling frame for migrant populations via an onomastic approach: Lesson learned from the Austrian Immigrant Survey 2016. *Survey Methods: Insights from the Field*, 1-20. https://doi.org/10.13094/SMIF-2019-00006

Prasad, D. V. (2018). *Pedagogy of English 1*. Maulana Azad National Urdu University, Hyderabad Publication No. 17. Retrieved from https://manuu.ac.in › DDE-SelfLearnmaterial

Pujiastuti, R.T. (2013). Classroom Communication: An Analysis of Teacher Talk and Students Talk in English for Young Learners (EYL). *Journal of English and Education,* 1(1): 163-172.

Putri, D. S. (2015) The Analysis of Teacher Talk and the Characteristic of Classroom Interaction in English as a Foreign Language Classroom. *Journal of English and Education,* 3(2), 16-27.

University of East London
Together in Excellence

Raine, P. (2010). An Application of Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) method of Discourse Analysis

Rapanta, C. Garcia-Mila, M. Remesal, A. & Gonçalves, C. (2021) The challenge of inclusive dialogic teaching in public secondary school. *Comunicar, Media Education Research Journal,* 66(XXIX): 21-31.

Rashidi, N. & Rafieerad, M. (2010). Analyzing Patterns of Classroom Interaction in EFL Classrooms in Iran. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 7(3): 93-120.

Rahman, M. S. (2017). The Advantages and Disadvantages of Using Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches and Methods in Language "Testing and Assessment" Research: A Literature Review. *Journal of Education and Learning*, 6(1), 102-112.

Rahman, M. M., Singh, M. K. M. & Pandian, A. (2018). Exploring ESL Teacher Beliefs and Classroom Practices of CLT: A Case Study. *International Journal of Instruction,* 11(1), 295-310.

Rao, P. S. (2019). The Role of English as a Global Language. *An International Peer-Reviewed English Journal,* 4(1), 65-79.

Rao, V. C. S. (2020). Trends in the Theories of Language Learning and Methods of Teaching ESL/EFL/ESP. *Journal for Research Scholars and Professionals of English Language Teaching*, ISSN: 2456-8104 JRSP-ELT, 4(19), www.jrspelt.com

Regnault, A., Willgoss, T. & Barbic, S. (2018). Towards the use of mixed methods inquiry as best practice in health outcomes research. *Journal of Patient-Reported Outcomes*, 2(19) https://doi.org/10.1186/s41687-018-0043-8

Reinke. W. M., Herman, K. C. & Newcomer L. (2016). The Brief Student-Teacher Classroom Interaction Observation: Using Dynamic Indicators of Behaviors in the Classroom to Predict Outcomes and Inform Practice. *Assessment for Effective Intervention,* 42(1): 32-42.

Rex, L. & Green, J. (2007). Classroom Discourse and Interaction: Reading across the Traditions. In B. Spolsky & F. M. Hult (Eds.), *International Handbook of Educational Linguistics* (pp.571-584). London: Blackwell.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Rezaie, M. & Lashkarian, A. (2015). Reviewing Different Aspects of Classroom Discourse. *International Journal of English and Education,* 4(4): 449-459.

Rhamil, M. (2018). The Differences between the SLT, Direct Method, and Audiolingual Method. Retrieved from https:/www.myenglishpages.com

Richards, J.& Rodgers, T. (2014). Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching (3rd Edition). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. pp. 23–24, 84–85.

Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. W. (2013). Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics. New York: Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315833835

Richards, J. C. (2012). Competence and Performance in Language Teaching. In Richards, J. C. & Burns, A. (Eds.) *The Cambridge Guide to Pedagogy and Practice in Second Language teaching: An Overview of the Issues.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Rido, A. & Sari, F. M. (2018). Characteristics of Classroom Interaction of English Language Teachers in Indonesia and Malaysia. International Journal of Language Education, 2(1): 40-50.

Riskiati, R., Noni, N. & Jabu, B. (2021) Teacher's Verbal and Non-Verbal Communication in Online EFL Class. S2 Thesis, Universitas Negeri Makassar.

Rivers, W. M. (1987). *Interactive Language Teaching.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Robins, R. H. & Crystal, D. (2021). Language. *Encyclopedia Britannica*, https://www.britannica.com/topic/language.

Rose, H., Mckinley, J. & Galloway, (2021). Global Englishes and language teaching: A review of pedagogical research. *Language Teaching*, 54, 157–189. doi:10.1017/S0261444820000518

Rudolfsson, J. (2020). Establishing and preserving social relations in classroom discourse: A study of a teacher's redress to FTAs that enhance and maintain teacher-student rapport. Bachelor's Degree Project. Stockholms University.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Rymes, B. (2016). *Classroom discourse analysis: A tool for critical reflection (2nd ed.)*. London, UK: Routledge.

Sabe, C. Z. & Luka, E. P. (2020). Impediments to Learning the English Language in Nigerian Education: A Philosophical Discourse. International *Journal of Educational Research*, 7(1), 97-107.

Sahara Reporters (2022). Nigeria Approves New Language Policy to Teach Primary School Pupils in their Mother Tongue. https://saharareporters.com

Salau, A. (2018). Enhancing Knowledge Acquisition Through Student-centered Learning.

Sandoval, W.A., Kwako, A.J., Modrek, A.S., & Kawasaki, J. (2018). Patterns of classroom talk through participation in discourse-focused teacher professional development. In J. Kay, & R. Luckin (Eds.), *Rethinking learning in the digital age: Making the learning sciences count.* 13th International Conference of the Learning Sciences (ICLS). International Society of the Learning Sciences. https://bit.ly/38ZczEO

Sargeant, J., 2012. Qualitative Research Part 11: Participants, Analysis and Quality Assurance. *Journal of Medical Education,* 4(1), 1-3.

Sari, C. C. (2020). Conversation Analysis: Turn-taking Mechanism and Power Relation in Classroom Setting. *Journal of Culture, English Language Teaching, Literature and Linguistics,* 7(2): 118 – 136.

Sari, F. M. (2018). Patterns of Teaching-Learning Interaction in the EFL Classroom. *TEKNOSASTIK,* 16 (2): 41-48.

Schleppegrell, M. J. (2001). Linguistic Features of Language of Schooling. *Linguistic and Education,* 12(4): 431-459.

Schleppegrell, M. J. (2020). The knowledge base for language teaching: What is the English to be taught as content? Language Teaching Research, 24(1), 17-27.

Scholl, A., Ellemers, N., Sassenberg, K. & Scheepers, D. (2015). Understanding Power in Social Context: How power relates to language and communication in line with responsibilities or opportunities. In R. Scholze & H. Pishwa (Eds), *The exercise of power*

University of East Mare
Together in Excellence

in communication: Devices, reception and reaction. (pp. 312-334). Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.

Sedgwick, P. (2015). Multistage sampling. BMJ. BMJ Publishing Group Ltd;351:h4155

Seedhouse, P. (2004). The interactional architecture of the language classroom. Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Serin, H. (2018). A Comparison of Teacher-Centered and Student-Centered Approaches in Educational Settings*. International Journal of Social Sciences & Educational Studies*, 5(1), 164-167.

Shahaji, N. A. (2021) Classroom Discourse Analysis: A Case of ESL Reading Class. *International Journal of Language and Literary Studies.* 3(2): 156-165.

Sharma, M. & Tiwari, N. (2021). A Study of Class Interaction Analysis Using Flanders's FIAC. International Journal of Scientific Research in Science, Engineering and Technology, 8(4): 171-179.

Shekhar, P., Prince, M., Finelli, C. & Demonbrun, M., (2018). Integrating quantitative and qualitative research methods to examine student resistance to active learning. European Journal of Engineering Education, 1-13.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Shi, t. (2018). A Study of the TPR Method in the Teaching of English to Primary School Students. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies,* 8(8), 1087-1093 DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0808.2

Shorten, A. & Smith, J. (2017). Mixed Method Research: Expanding the Evidence Base. *Evid Based Nurs*, 20(3), 74-75.

Shrestha, P. N. (2013). English Language Classroom Practices: Bangladeshi Primary School Children's Perceptions. *RELC Journal,* 44(2), 147-162.

Sileyew, K. J. (2019). Research Design and Methodology. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.85731

Sims, R. (2003). Promises of Interactivity Aligning Learner Perceptions and Expectations with Strategies for Flexible and Online Learning. *Distance Education*, 24(1): 87-103.

Sinclair, J. & Coulthard (1992) Towards an Analysis of Discourse. In Coulthard, M. (Ed.), *Advances in Spoken Discourse Analysis,* (pp. 1-34). London and New York: Routledge,

Sinclair, J. & Coulthard (1975) *Towards an Analysis of Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Smart, J. B. & Marshall, J. C. (2012) Interaction between Classroom Discourse, Teacher Questioning and Student Cognitive Engagement in Middle School Science. *Journal of Science Teacher Education,* 249-297.

Smit, N., Dijk, M. V., Bot, K. & Lowie, W. (2021) The complex dynamics of adaptive teaching: Observing teacher-student interaction in the language classroom. https://doi.org/101515/iral-2021-0023. 1-18.

Snape, D. & Spencer, L. (2003) The foundations of qualitative research, in Ritchie, J. and Lewis, J. (Eds), *Qualitative Research Practice*, Sage Publications, London.

Snikdha, F. R. (2016). Analyzing classroom discourse: An exploratory study on IRF at a private university of Dhaka. Dhaka: BRAC University.

Some-Guiebre, E. (2020). Foreign Language Classroom Interaction: Does it Promote Communicative Skills? International Journal of Educational Methodology, 6(3): 497-505.

Soto, C. (2020). Classroom Discourse Analysis as a Tool for Exploring Ethical Tensions in a Critical Teaching. *Classroom Discourse,* 11(2): 129-148.

Spada, N. (2019). Classroom Observation Research. In Schwieter, J. W. & Benati, A. (Eds.), *The Cambridge Handbook of Language Learning,* (pp. 186-207). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Starr, S. (2017). Teacher-Talk: Supporting Teacher Practice. Weaving Educational Practice, 18(2): 29-39.

Sundari, H. (2017). Classroom interaction in teaching English as foreign language at lower secondary schools in Indonesia. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 8(6): 147-154.

University of East Ilara
Together in Excellence

Sundh, L. (2017). The function of teacher questions in EFL classroom activities in Cambodia: A conversation analytic study. Bachelor's Degree Project. Stockholms: Stockholms University.

Supika, A. (2017). The Realization of Speech Function in English Classroom Interaction Based on Systemic Functional Linguistics Theory. Medan: Medan State University.

Taiwo, R. (2006). Hallidayan Linguistics. *An Encyclopedia of the Arts*, 4(3): 157-163.

Taiwo, R. (2009). The functions of English in Nigeria from the earliest times to the present day.' *English Today*, 25(2), 3–10

Taiwo, R. & Salami, F. (2007). Discourse Acts in Antenatal Clinic Literacy Classroom in South-Western Nigeria. Linguistik Online, 31(2): 25-40.

Taherdoost, H. (2016). Sampling Methods in Research Methodology; How to Choose a Sampling Technique for Research. *International Journal of Academic Research in Management (IJARM)*, 5. hal-02546796

Tasnuva, S. (2017). Teacher Talk (TT) in EFL Classrooms in Bengali Medium Schools of Bangladesh. Thesis. Dhaka: BRAC University.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Tenny, S., Brannan, G. D., Brannan, J. M. & Sharts-hopko, N. C. (2022). Qualitative Study. StatPearls Publishing, Treasure Island https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/29262162/

Thomas, G. (2017). Progress in Social and Educational Inquiry through Case Study: Generalization or Explanation? *Clinical Social Work Journal,* 45: 253-260. DOI 10.1007/s10615-0597-y

Thomas, L. (2020). *Simple Random Sampling: Definition, Steps & Examples.* Retrieved from https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/simple-random-sampling/

Timans, R., Wouters, P. & Heilbron, J. (2019). Mixed methods research: what it is and what it could be. *Theory and Society,* 48:193–216.

Tiwari, D. T. (2021). Classroom Interaction in Communicative Language Teaching of Public Secondary Schools in Nepal. *Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, 5(2): 373-386.*

Tran, T., Q, & Dang, H., V. (2014). Culture teaching in English language teaching: Teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices. Global Journal of Foreign Language Teaching. 4(2), 92-101.

Trask, R. L. & Stockwell, P. (2007). Language and Linguistics; The Key Concept. Abingdon: Routledge.

Tsui, A. (1985). Analyzing input and interaction in second language classrooms. *RELC Journal*, 16(1): 8-32.

Tsui, A. B. M. (2016). Classroom Discourse: Theoretical Orientations and Research Approaches. In Cenoz, J. Gorter, D. Mays, S. (eds) Language Awareness and Multilingualism. Encyclopedia of Language and Education. (3rd ed). Springer, Cham.

Tuan, L.T. & Nhu, N.T.K. (2010). Theoretical Review on Oral interaction in EFl classrooms. *Studies in Literature and Language,* 1(4): 29-48.

Ugwadu, O. R. (2011). *Effects of Discourse Patterns on Students Achievement and Interest in Biology*. PhD Thesis. Nsukka: University of Nigeria.

Ugwu, E. O. (2021). Classroom Process and Causes of Worsening High School Students' Performance in Literature-in-English in Nigeria. *African Journal of Teacher Education*, 10(1): 282-306.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Ugwuanyi, K. O. (2012). Developing the Communicative Competence of Second Language Speakers of English through Literature. Master Thesis. Nsukka: University of Nigeria, Nsukka.

Van Dijk, T. A. (1985). *Handbook of discourse analysis, Vol. 4.* New York: Academic Press.

Van Lier. L. (1996). *Interaction in the Language Curriculum.* London: Longman.

Van Rooy, B. (2020). English in Africa. In D. Schreier, M. Hundt, & E. Schneider (Eds.), *The Cambridge Handbook of World Englishes* (Cambridge Handbooks in Language and Linguistics, pp. 210-235). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. doi:10.1017/9781108349406.010

Varda, D., Retrum, J. H. & Kuenzi, K. (2012). The influence of Teaching Methodology on Student Social Interaction. *Journal of Public Affairs Education*, 18(4): 633-660.

Vebriyanto, D. A. (2015) Teacher's Questions in EFL Classroom Interaction. *Journal of Vision*, 4(2): 279-303

Vidhiasi, D. M. & Cilacap, A. M. N. (2018). Classroom Observation and Research. *Jurnal Saintara*, 3(1).

Walker, C. & Baxter, J. (2019). Method Sequence and Dominance in Mixed Methods Research: A Case Study of the Social Acceptance of Wind Energy Literature. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods,* 18: 1-14.

Wang, H.H. (2020). Examining Patterns in Teacher-student classroom conversation during STEM lessons. *Journal of STEM Education Research,* 3: 69-90. https://doi.org/10.1007/s41979-019-00022-x

Wells, G. (1993). Reevaluating the IRF Sequence: A Proposal for the Articulation of Theories of Activity and Discourse for the Analysis of Teaching and Learning in the Classroom. *Linguistics and Education*, 5: 1-37.

Williams, M. K. (2017). John Dewey in the 21st Century. *Journal of Inquiry & Action in Education,* 9(1): 91-102.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Xiao-yan, M. A, (2006). Teacher Talk and EFL in University Classrooms. Master's Degree Thesis. China: School of Foreign Languages and Literature Chongqing Normal University & Yangtze Normal University, China.

Xuewen, H. (2003). Features and Functions of Teacher Talk. *Shandong Foreign Language Teaching,* 3: 39-43.

Yanfen, L. & Yuqin, Z. (2010). A Study of Teacher Talk in Interactions in English Classes. *Journal of Applied Linguistics,* 33(2): 76-86.

Yang, Y. & Lyster, R. (2010). Effects of Form-Focused Practice and Feedback on Chinese EFL Learners' Acquisition of Regular and Irregular Past Tense Forms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* 32: 235– 263.

Yede, F. S. (2021). An Analysis of the Effect of Communicative Language Teaching on Communicative Performance of Secondary School Students in Lagos State, Nigeria. International Journal of all Research Education and Scientific Methods (Ijaresm), 9(4), 2248-2253.

Yu, W. (2009). An Analysis of College English Classroom Discourse. Asian Social Science, 5(7): 152-159

Zhao, Y. (2007). Cultural Conflicts in An Intercultural Classroom Discourse & Interpretations from a Cultural Perspective. Intercultural Communication Studies. XVI:1

Zhou, S. & Landa, N. (2018). Dialogic Communication: Reviving Mathematics and Science Pedagogy for the 21st Century. *The Social Sciences*, 13(6), 1133-1141.

Zhou, S. & Landa, N. (2019). Translanguaging as Foundational Pedagogy: Disrupting Hegemonies for Academic Access in Multilingual Spaces. *Alternation* 26 (2), 290-310.

Zohrabi, M. (2013). Mixed Method Research: Instruments, Validity, Reliability and Reporting Findings. Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 3, 254-262.

Zuengler, J., & Cole, K. (2005). Language socialization and second language learning. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning* (pp. 301–16). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Zyzik, E., & Polio, C. (2008). Incidental focus on form in university Spanish literature courses. *Modern Language Journal*, 92: 53-70.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

APPENDICES

Appendix 1 Ethical Clearance Certificate from The University of Fort Hare

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ETHICS CLEARANCE
REC-270710-028-RA Level 01

Project Number:	ZHO041SOLA01
Project title:	**A study of linguistic and discourse features used by teachers and students in English as a second language classroom interaction in Ekiti State, Nigeria.**
Qualification:	Doctor of Philosophy in Languages and Literature
Student name:	Deji-Afuye Oladunni
Registration number	202115422
Supervisor:	Dr S Zhou
Department:	English
Co-supervisor:	N/A

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby grant ethics approval for ZHO041SOLA01. This approval is valid for 12 months from the date of approval. Renewal of approval must be applied for BEFORE termination of this approval period. Renewal is subject to receipt of a satisfactory progress report. The approval covers the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). The research may commence as from the 23/11/21, using the reference number indicated above.

Note that should any other instruments be required or amendments become necessary, these require separate authorisation.

Please note that UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material changes in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document;
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research.

The student must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this approval if
    - Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected;
    - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented;
    - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require;
    - The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to.

- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.

Your compliance with Department of Health 2015 guidelines and any other applicable regulatory instruments and with UREC ethics requirements as contained in UREC policies and standard operating procedures, is implied.

UREC wishes you well in your research.

Yours sincerely

Dr N Taole-Mjimba
Chairperson: University Research Ethics Committee
23 November 2021

Appendix 2 Letter Requesting for Permission to Collect Data

Department of General Studies,
Bamidele Olumilua University of Education, Science and Technology,
Private Mail Bag 250,
Ikere-Ekiti, Nigeria.
February 22, 2022.

The Permanent Secretary,
Ministry of Education, Science and Technology,
Ekiti State, Nigeria.
Dear Sir/Madam,

Request for Permission to Conduct Research Study in Selected Schools

My name is Oladunni Olufunso Deji-Afuye. I am a PhD student in the Department of English Studies and Comparative Literature, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, University of Fort Hare, South Africa. I am requesting for permission to conduct research in ten selected schools in Ekiti South Senatorial District of Ekiti State, Nigeria. My research title is **"A Study of Linguistic and Discourse Features Used by Teachers and Students in English as a Second Language Classroom Interaction in Ekiti State, Nigeria".** The study participants include English as a Second Language teachers and students in the following secondary schools.

African Church Comprehensive High School, Ikere-Ekiti
Amoye Grammar School, Ikere-Ekiti,
St. Louis Girls Grammar School, Ikere-Ekiti
United High School, Ilawe-Ekiti
Corpus Christi College, Ilawe-Ekiti
Ise comprehensive School, Ise-Ekiti
Arinjale Community High School, Ise-Ekiti
Community Grammar School, Orun Ekiti
Eporo High School, Emure-Ekiti
Government Science School, Emure-Ekiti

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

The research instrument will involve questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation. Confidentiality and anonymity of information is guaranteed, and participation is voluntary.

Thank you for your anticipated favourable consideration.

Yours Faithfully,

Deji-Afuye, Oladunni O.

Appendix 3: Letter of Introduction to School Principals from the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, Ekiti State, Nigeria

...Ilè Iyì, Ilè Èyẹ

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY

Phase IV, Secretariat Complex, Ado-Ekiti, Ekiti State, Nigeria.
Tel: +234 806 215 9055 | Email: mest@ekitistate.gov.ng

EK/PRS/PL/2382/142

9th March, 2022

The Principal,

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

I am directed to introduce the bearer, Oladunni Olufunso Deji - Afuye, a PhD student from University of Fort Hare, South Africa. She wants to carry out a research on the study of Linguistic and Discourse Features Used by Teachers and Students in English as a Second Language Classroom Interaction in Ekiti State, Nigeria.

2. Kindly give her the necessary assistance required to carry out her research project.

3. Thank you.

Ayodele M .O.
(DD/R&S)
For: Permanent Secretary

...Ilè Iyì, Ilè Èyẹ
www.ekitistate.gov.ng

Appendix 4 Sample Signed Consent Forms



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Ethics Research Confidentiality and Informed Consent Form

Our University of Fort Hare English and Comparative Studies Department is asking people from your community to answer some questions, which we hope will benefit your community and possibly other communities in the future.

The University of Fort Hare English Studies and Comparative Literature Department is conducting research regarding the **Linguistic and Discourse Features used by Teachers and Students in English as a Second Language Classroom Interaction in Ekiti State**. We are interested in finding out more about **the effects of teachers' and students' linguistic choices on students' verbal participation and student-centred learning in ESL classrooms**. We are carrying out this research to help **enhance English language pedagogy**.

Please understand that you are not being forced to take part in this study and the choice whether to participate or not is yours alone. However, we would really appreciate it if you do share your thoughts with us. If you choose not to take part in answering these questions, you will not be affected in any way. If you agree to participate, you may stop me at any time and tell me that you don't want to go on with the interview. If you do this there will also be no penalties and you will NOT be prejudiced in ANY way. Confidentiality will be observed professionally.

I will not be recording your name anywhere on the questionnaire and no one will be able to link you to the answers you give. Only the researchers will have access to the unlinked information. The information will remain confidential and there will be no "come-backs" from the answers you give.

The interview will last around **15 minutes**. I will be asking you questions and ask that you are as open and honest as possible in answering these questions. Some questions may be of a personal and/or sensitive nature. I will be asking some questions that you may not have thought about before, and which also involve thinking about the past and the future. We know that you cannot be absolutely certain about the answer to these questions but we ask that you try to think about these questions. When it comes to answering questions, there are no right and wrong answers. When we ask questions about the future we are not interested in what you think the best thing would be to do, but what you think would actually happen.

INFORMED CONSENT

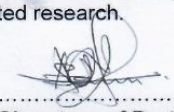
I hereby agree to participate in research regarding the **Study of Linguistic and Discourse Features Used by Teachers and Students in English as a Second Language Classroom Interaction in Ekiti State.** I understand that I am participating freely and without being forced in any way to do so. I also understand that I can stop this interview at any point should I not want to continue and that this decision will not in any way affect me negatively.

I understand that this is a research project whose purpose is not necessarily to benefit me personally.

I have received the telephone number of a person to contact should I need to speak about any issues which may arise in this interview.

I understand that this consent form will not be linked to the interview and that my answers will remain confidential.

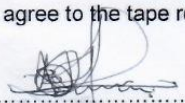
I understand that if at all possible, feedback will be given to my community on the results of the completed research.



..... Date 17-03-2022

Signature of Participant

I hereby agree to the tape recording of my participation in the study



..... Date 17-03-2022

Signature of Participant

INFORMED CONSENT

I hereby agree to participate in research regarding the **Study of Linguistic and Discourse Features Used by Teachers and Students in English as a Second Language Classroom Interaction in Ekiti State.** I understand that I am participating freely and without being forced in any way to do so. I also understand that I can stop this interview at any point should I not want to continue and that this decision will not in any way affect me negatively.

I understand that this is a research project whose purpose is not necessarily to benefit me personally.

I have received the telephone number of a person to contact should I need to speak about any issues which may arise in this interview.

I understand that this consent form will not be linked to the interview and that my answers will remain confidential.

I understand that if at all possible, feedback will be given to my community on the results of the completed research.



.....

Signature of Participant

Date..21/03/2022

I hereby agree to the tape recording of my participation in the study



.....

Signature of Participant

Date..21/03/2022

INFORMED CONSENT

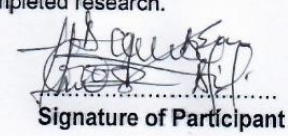
I hereby agree to participate in research regarding the **Study of Linguistic and Discourse Features Used by Teachers and Students in English as a Second Language Classroom Interaction in Ekiti State.** I understand that I am participating freely and without being forced in any way to do so. I also understand that I can stop this interview at any point should I not want to continue and that this decision will not in any way affect me negatively.

I understand that this is a research project whose purpose is not necessarily to benefit me personally.

I have received the telephone number of a person to contact should I need to speak about any issues which may arise in this interview.

I understand that this consent form will not be linked to the interview and that my answers will remain confidential.

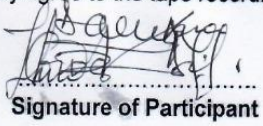
I understand that if at all possible, feedback will be given to my community on the results of the completed research.



Signature of Participant

Date 24-03-2022

I hereby agree to the tape recording of my participation in the study



Signature of Participant

Date 24-03-2022

INFORMED CONSENT

I hereby agree to participate in research regarding the **Study of Linguistic and Discourse Features Used by Teachers and Students in English as a Second Language Classroom Interaction in Ekiti State.** I understand that I am participating freely and without being forced in any way to do so. I also understand that I can stop this interview at any point should I not want to continue and that this decision will not in any way affect me negatively.

I understand that this is a research project whose purpose is not necessarily to benefit me personally.

I have received the telephone number of a person to contact should I need to speak about any issues which may arise in this interview.

I understand that this consent form will not be linked to the interview and that my answers will remain confidential.

I understand that if at all possible, feedback will be given to my community on the results of the completed research.

.....
Signature of Participant

Date.....28-03-2022

I hereby agree to the tape recording of my participation in the study

.....
Signature of Participant

Date.....28-03-2022

INFORMED CONSENT

I hereby agree to participate in research regarding the **Study of Linguistic and Discourse Features Used by Teachers and Students in English as a Second Language Classroom Interaction in Ekiti State.** I understand that I am participating freely and without being forced in any way to do so. I also understand that I can stop this interview at any point should I not want to continue and that this decision will not in any way affect me negatively.

I understand that this is a research project whose purpose is not necessarily to benefit me personally.

I have received the telephone number of a person to contact should I need to speak about any issues which may arise in this interview.

I understand that this consent form will not be linked to the interview and that my answers will remain confidential.

I understand that if at all possible, feedback will be given to my community on the results of the completed research.



.....
Signature of Participant

Date 30-03-22

I hereby agree to the tape recording of my participation in the study



.....
Signature of Participant

Date 30-03-22

Appendix 5 Observation sheets

Classroom Observation Schedule I

Directions: Observe teacher talk and student talk.
School: ……. Town …….. Teacher: ……
Date: …… Visit No: …… Name of Observer……
Time: …… Number of Ss: …… Lesson: ……

			Types	Frequency
Teacher talk	Initiating acts	Elicitations		
		Directives		
		Informatives		
		Checking		
	Responding acts	Positive		
		Negative		
		Temporisation		
	Feedback/Follow-up acts	Endorsement		
		Concession		
		Acknowledgment		
Student talk	Responding acts	Reply		
		Apologies		
	Initiating acts	Elicitation		
		Requestives		
		Interruptions		

IN LUMINE TUO VIDE BIMUS LUMEN
University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

Classroom Observation Schedule II

Directions: Observe students' verbal participation and teachers' use of student- centred approach.
School: ……. Town …….. Teacher: ……
Date: …… Visit No: …… Name of Observer……
Time: …… Number of Ss: …… Lesson: ……

S/N	Elements to be observed	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
1.	Students are apprehensive while asked to speak English.					
2.	Students do not want to talk in the classroom.					
3.	Students prefer to use one or two words to respond to every question asked by the teacher.					
4.	Students spoken English is error-free					
5.	Students are allowed to ask questions freely.					
6.	Teacher uses English as a predominant means of communication with the students in the classroom					
7.	Teacher shows personal enthusiasm for speaking English to the students.					
8.	Teacher engages students in conversation to promote spoken English in the classroom					

9.	Teacher permits students to select their own topic for discussion					
10.	Teacher asks questions that elicit thoughtful responses and allows sufficient time for students to answer.					
11.	Teacher uses recasts (correct reformulation of students' speech) as a preferred method of corrective feedback.					
12.	Teacher uses students' ideas as part of his or her explanation of the lesson.					
13.	Teacher allows students to be active central agents in small group discussions.					
14.	Teacher engages students in activities (such as storytelling, class presentation, teamwork) to develop their language abilities.					
15.	Teacher asks a lot of questions to motivate students' talk in English.					

Comments

……

……

……

IN LUMINE TUO VIDE BIMUS LUMEN

Appendix 6 Lessons Extracts

Extract 1

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	Before now… before now, we have learned about… We have learned about tense, and then I told you what we mean by tense.	I	Informative	Reporting
		Now, I want somebody to stand up and tell me when we say tense… what is it?		Directive	Instructing
		What it really means. Tense means what?		Elicitation	Dis. Question
2	SS	Time	R	Reply	Positive
3	T	Time. Tense means time.	F-I	Evaluative	Repeating
		It is the tense that will tell you the time that an action take place.		Informative	Explaining
		And we have different types of tenses which are? The tenses we have….		Elicitation	Focus: Eliciting
		Now, this time around, if you want to talk, you raise up your hand.		Directive	Instructing
		Yes		Directive	Nominating
4	S1	Past tense.	R	Reply	Positive

5	T	We have past tense. We have simple tense. We have simple present tense, we have simple past tense.	F-I	Evaluative	Repeating
		Enhen? Any other one apart from that?		Elicitation	Focus: Eliciting
6	SS	(Silent)			
7	T	What of present continuous tense, we have past continuous tense we have future tense. All these are indicating what?	F-I	Evaluative	Metalingiustic Explanation
				Elicitation	Dis. Question
8	SS	Time	R	Reply	Positive
9	T	Indicating time, time of an action. Now today we are looking at…	F-I	Evaluative Informative	Repeating Reporting
		What is this now on the chalkboard?		Elicitation	Focus: Elicit
10	SS	Sequence of tense.	R	Reply	Positive
11	T	Sequence of tense. We are looking at sequence of tense. And when we talk of sequence, we are talking of how things are written. How… may be you have two sentences… how the verbs are helping one another. Today we are looking at reported… Sequence of tense and reported speech (writes). When we talk of reported speech, we mean an action has happened or a statement has been made one time or the other and you want to report. You want to report… that is what is meant by reported speech. Before reported speech there must be a direct speech. Direct speech is a speech that somebody made. May be you've said something and I want to repeat it or tell another person about it. By the time I'm telling another person about it. what … What a … What another person said I'm reporting it. So the arrangement now … the verb now will be different. It is the very that determines tense. Verb … It is the verb that determines tense. What … when we talk of verb we are talking about action. Yes … Do you understand?	I	Informative	Reporting Explaining
				Checking	Checking
12	SS	Yes	R	Reply	Acknowledging

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Extract 2a

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function

1	T	This is your homework. Open to page 107 in the intensive book 3.	I	Informative Directive	Reporting Instructing
2	S7	What page?	I	Elicitation	Clarifying
3	T	You are to try questions 1 to 5 Any questions?	R-I	Responding Directive Elicitation	Temporisation Instructing Turn-passing
4	S8	What is the meaning of doer?	I	Elicitation	Clarifying
5	T	ummh?	R	Elicitation	Clarifying
6	S8	Doer.	I	Elicitation	Repeating: Elicit
7	T	Doer? It's a person that does the action while the person that the action falls upon is the receiver. That's why we say the doer will always be the what?... the subject. We have a verb in the sentence, then the receiver … the last one will be the receiver of the action. That's the meaning of doer. The person that did or does the action	R	Responding	Positive

Extract 2b

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	Submit your work now	I	Directive	Instructing
2	SS	(Some students) Mummy please, mummy, please.	I	Requestive	Requesting
3	T	If I write the correction and you write, I will know	R	Responding	Negative
4	SS	Ah… mummy, please	I	Requestive	Requesting
5	T	If you are waiting for me …. You are waiting for me before you underline, and you come here to submit. I will give you zero. Whether you get it or not, I will give you zero. Can we?	R-I	Responding Checking	Negative Checking
6	SS	Yes// No// mummy, please.	I	Requestive	Requesting
7	T	Can we?	R	Responding	Temporisation
8	SS	Yes// No// mummy, please.	I	Requestive	Requesting
9	T	Okay, if you are still writing, put your hands up.	R	Responding	Positive

Extract 3

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	Bring out your assignments.	I	Directive	Instructing

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

2	SS	NV	NV		
3	T	In our last class, we looked at the nominalisation of adjectives. We saw the way by which adjectives can be nominalised.	I	Informative	Reporting
		What are the ways by which an adjective can be nominalised?		Elicitation	Dis: Question
4	S1	Addition of Suffixes.	R	Reply	Positive
5	T	Yes, addition of suffixes. Around of applause for her.	F	Evaluative	Accepting Repeating Praising
6	SS	(Clapped)	NV		
7	T	You add a suffix to an adjective to make it a? … a?	I	Elicitation	Focus: Elicit
8	SS	Nominalised adjective.	R	Reply	Negative
9	T	Noun; not a nominalised adjective. I told you nominalisation has to do with transforming words that belong to different grammatical classes into a noun. So, the addition of the suffix is to transform the adjective into a noun.	F-I	Corrective	Direct correction, Metalinguistic Explanation
		You have some words that you were told to nominalise. What are the words?		Elicitation	Focus: Elicit
10	SS	Delicious	R	Reply	Positive
11	T	Exchange your books. Bring out your red pens or pencils.	I	Directive	Instructing

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Extract 4

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	We have summary writing. English composition?	I	Informative Elicitation	Reporting Yes/No Question
2	SS	Yes	R	Reply	Acknowledging
3	T	Who is reading from the textbook? Kehi, read the question.	I	Directive	Instructing Nominating
4	S1	In five sentences, one for each, write five steps that… that must be taken to write a composition.	R	Reply	Positive
5	T	What are you to look for?	I	Elicitation	Focus: Eliciting
6	SS	(Silent)	NV		
7	T	Everybody. Everybody. What are you looking for?	I	Elicitation	Repeating Elicit

8	SS	Five steps to writing a composition.	R	Reply	Positive
9	T	Just to refresh your memory. Marier, read for us. Now, pay attention.	I	Directive	Instructing
10	S2	(Reading)	R	Reply	Positive
11	T	So, with what you learned when we did the comprehension passage, can we ask specific questions? In five sentences, one for each, we are going to attempt the questions now. I will mark it. So, answer the comprehension questions in your notebooks in fifteen minutes. Write today's date.	I	Directive	Focusing Instructing Advising
12	SS	NV	NV		
13	T	When you are writing composition, what is the first thing you do? (Moved around the classroom) Some of you are not writing. Have you forgotten? Are you through with that?	I	Elicitation Checking	Focus: Eliciting Checking
14	SS	(Some students indicated they were through while some were not yet through)	NV		
15	T	Please, hurry up (Gave students more time). According to the passage, what is the first thing you do when you want to write a composition? Toria, Agboeye: Number 2, Kehi: Number 3, Toyo: Number 4.	I	Directive Elicitation Directive	Advising Focus: Eliciting Nominating
16	S3	Selection of topic	R	Reply	Positive
17	T	Selection of topic. So, how will you say it? How will you say it? Tammy, answer the question.	F-I	Evaluative Elicitation Directive	Repeating Focus: Eliciting Nomination, Instruction
18	S4	(Silent)			
19	T	Now, exchange your books.	I	Directive	Instruction
20	S4	Selection of a topic.	R	Reply	Positive
21	T	(Writes student's answer on the chalkboard) The five steps to be taken when writing a composition are…? So what did I say you will do here? (pointing to what she wrote on the board). That is one... Selection of a topic.	F-I	Evaluative Elicitation	Accepting Focus: Eliciting
22	S5	Selection of a topic	R	Reply	Positive

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

23	T	Selection of a topic. How do you begin? You begin with small letter because it is the continuation of what we have here (pointing to the board). That is the 's' that begins selection of a topic. What is the second step? After choosing a topic what is the next? Who is doing number two?	F-I	Evaluative Elicitation Informative Elicitation 	Repeating Focus: Eliciting Explaining Focus: Eliciting Repeating elicit Focus: Eliciting
24	S6	Generation of ideas.	R	Reply	Positive
25	T	Generation of ideas. (wrote student's answer) Next, who is doing number three?	F-I	Evaluative Elicitation	Accepting Focus: Eliciting
26	S7	(Not loud enough)	R	Reply	Negative
27	T	What? I did not hear what you said. Be louder, say what you were saying. Say it. If you are wrong, you will be corrected.	I	Directive	Advising, prompting
28	S7	You pick the relevant ideas (Not too confident to talk)	R	Reply	Negative
29	T	Let someone else tell us the next step.	I	Directive	Instructing
30	S8	You rearrange the ideas.	R	Reply	Negative
31	T	No. We are not rearranging now. You pick the relevant ideas; you generate your outline from the drafted ideas. Then, what do you do next?	F-I	Corrective Elicitation	Direct correction, Metalinguistic Explanation Focus: Eliciting
32	SS	You rearrange the…	R	Reply	Negative
33	T	(Cut in) What do you rearrange	I	Elicitation	Focus: Eliciting
34	SS	The generated ideas.	R	Reply	Negative
35	T	Is it just ideas? There is something missing.	I	Elicitation Directive	Focus: Eliciting Focusing
36	SS	Relevant ideas	R	Reply	Negative
37	T	You rearrange the generated relevant ideas to the topic. Relevant ideas to the topic! Very important. Because in the process of brainstorming, a lot of ideas will come up. So, when you re-examine the ideas, you look at those that are relevant to the chosen topic. You note the ones that are relevant and do away with those that are not relevant, and that is why you have to rearrange them. So, what is the last step?	F-I	Corrective Elicitation	Recasting Metalinguistic Explanation Focus: Eliciting

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

		Flevie, yes, Flevie.		Directive	Nominating
38	S9	You check for accuracy.	R	Reply	Negative
39	T	What is accuracy? No. What do you do?	F-I	Corrective Elicitation	Direct correction Focus: Eliciting
40	S10	Put them in…	R	Reply	Negative
41	T	Speak louder	I	Directive	Advising
42	S10	Put them in related paragraphs	R	Reply	Negative
43	T	Put them in related…Connect the relevant ideas with paragraphs. So, at this stage, we are going to develop the relevant ideas.	F-I	Corrective Informative	Recasting Reporting

Extract 5

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	What are the things you can do to come up with a debate writing that is devoid of errors and mistakes?	I	Elicitation	Dis. Question
2	SS	(Silent)			
3	T	Yes. Should I ask the question again?	I	Checking	Checking
4	SS	Yes.	R	Reply	Acknowledging
5	T	What are the things you can do to come up with a debate writing that is devoid of mistakes and errors? Yes. Who can answer that question?	I	Elicitation	Repeating elicit
6	SS	(Silent)			
7	T	Yes, who can try? Yes, Fatia.	I	Elicitation Directive	Repeating elicit Nominating
8	Fatia	Using figurative expressions, proverbs and… and idioms.	R	Reply	Positive
9	T	Yes. Is that all?	F-I	Descriptive	Acknowledging Refocusing
10	Fatia	No	R	Reply	Acknowledging
11	T	Yes.	I	Directive	Instructing
12	Fatia	Then, giving detailed explanation of the points which, you have to put in the essay	R	Reply	Positive
13	T	Yes. Thank you. God bless you.	F	Evaluative	Accepting Praising

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Extract 6a: Student Initiating Moves

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	Any other questions?	I	Elicitation	Yes/No questioning
2	S	If I'm writing from Nigeria to Australia, how do I write the address?	I	Elicitation	Clarifying
3	T	That's a good question I'm expecting from you. Now if you are writing to another country. That's what he is trying to pass across. He said if it is in Nigeria here you are writing to Australia, and Australia is another country. The country you are in must reflect in your address. That means you have to put … (writing) Where do we have that now? Before the date, you put here Nigeria, and mind you have, (referring to the full stop put after Ekiti State on the address) you have a comma before you write Nigeria. I'm I talking? Now the address at times will now depend on the tone, uh … the type of the question given to you. If you have to write to your best friend, who is in another country, you should put the name of the country you are writing from in your address. The name of the country must reflect in your address. I think I have answered your question.	R-I	Responding	Positive
				Checking	Checking
4	SS	Yes sir.	R	Reply	Acknowledging

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Extract 6b

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	Let somebody clean the board.	I	Directive	Instructing
2	SS	Excuse me.	I	Requestive	Requesting

3	T	Okay, you have not written it?	R-I	Responding Checking	Positive Checking
4	SS	Yes.	R	Reply	Acknowledging
5	T	Quickly write now.	I	Directive	Instructing

Extract 6c

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	Okay, you've tried. Now, let me give you sim… one simple sentence (writes) umm whatever… always… (Writes "what you say will always come…")	I	Directive	Instructing
2	SS	(Interruption to point the teacher's attention to the mistake in the sentence she wrote). You wrote 'what' what you say…	I	Informative	Reporting
3	T	Oh… er… sorry. It's whatever (corrects the mistake, that is, 'whatever' instead of 'what' she has written) (writes 'Whatever you say will always come to manifestation').	R	Responding	Positive

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Extract 7a

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	Who can give me… What's the meaning of a phrasal verb?	I	Elicitation	Dis. Question
2	SS	(Silent)			
3	T	Fajob, give us the meaning of a phrasal verb. A phrasal verb.	I	Directive	Nominating Instructing
4	S9	A phrasal verb is the verb that has a verb…	R	Reply	Negative
5	T	A verb that has what?	I	Elicitation	Requesting clarification
6	S9	A verb… and the head verb	R	Reply	Self-repair
7	T	Plus what?	I	Elicitation	Focus: Eliciting
8	S9	And… that has the verb as the head verb…	R	Reply	Negative
9	T	Yes. (Nominates another student)	I	Directive	Nominating
10	S10	A phrasal verb is a verb that contains two or three words… words.	R	Reply	Negative

11	T	Which words does it contain? It contains two or three words; which kind of words does it contain?	I	Elicitation	Focus: Eliciting
12	S10	(Silent)			
13	T	(Nominates Ade by pointing in his direction)	NV		
14	S11	It is a verb that contains two or three verbs.	R	Reply	Negative
15	T	Two or three…?	I	Elicitation	Requesting clarification
16	S11	Verb	R	Reply	Negative
17	T	No. it doesn't contain two or three verbs	F	Corrective	Direct correction
18	S9	(interrupts). It contains a main verb	R	Reply	Peer repair
19	T	A…?	I	Elicitation	Requesting clarification
20	S9	Main verb	R	Reply	Positive

Extract 7b

University of Port Harcourt
Together in Excellence

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	The types of words that can be stressed range from monosyllabic words to bi-syllabic and polysyllabic words. The polysyllabic word is also called a multisyllabic word.	I	Informative	Explaining
		What other name is given to polysyllabic words?		Elicitation	Dis. Question
2	SS	Multisyllabic word	R	Reply	Positive
3	T	Every monosyllabic word is already stressed.	I	Informative	Explaining
		Are you getting what I'm saying?		Checking	Checking
4	SS	Yes.	R	Reply	Acknowledging
5	T	Any word that has just one syllable is stressed already. So you don't need to put stress anywhere on it.	I	Informative	Explaining
		What is a monosyllabic word?		Elicitation	Display question
		You. (Pointing to the student's direction)		Directive	Nomination
6	S4	It's a word that has one syllable.	R	Reply	Positive

7	T	A word that has one syllable. Now, give me examples.	F-I	Evaluative Directive	Repeating Accepting Instructing
8	SS	Go// sit// dance (students talking simultaneously)	R	Reply	Positive
9	T	Good. The bi-syllabic words are the words that have ehn two syllables. They contain two syllables. Only one of the syllables can be stressed. For example, the word – female. What word class is female?	F-I	Evaluative Informative Elicitation	Praising Explaining Display question
10	SS	A noun	R	Reply	Positive
11	T	Yes, female is a noun. What of a word like pretend?	F-I	Evaluative Elicitation	Accepting Repeating Display question
12	S5	Noun	R	Reply	Negative
13	T	No. Pretend?	F	Evaluative	Direct correction
14	SS	It is a verb.	R	Reply	Positive

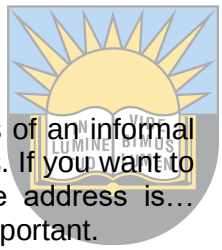
Extract 7c

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	The context of the use of the verb will indicate whether they are nouns or verbs. The last one we mentioned?	I	Informative Elicitation	Explaining Dis. Question
2	S1	By using gerund	R	Reply	Positive
3	T	Yes. By using gerund Do you have questions on what we have done before I give you the assignment? Questions?	F-I	Evaluative Directive	Accepting Repeating Requesting (Turn passing)
4	SS	Silent			
5	T	Can we clean the board?	I	Directive	Requesting
6	SS	Yes	R	Reply	
7	T	I want someone to come and do that. You. Any question?		Directive	Instructing Nominating Requesting
8	SS	Silent			

9	T	Do you understand? On any of the things we have done today, ask questions. I have a question, raise your hand. I have a question, raise your hand.	I	Checking Directive	Checking Requesting
10	SS	Silent.			
11	T	Nobody has questions? Okay. Now write any verb and change it to a noun using any of the ways. Within 30 seconds, just give me one verb and change it to a noun. A verb; any verb? You can use any of the … any of the ways and change it to noun while I write your assignment**.**	I	Informative Directive	Reporting Instructing

Extract 8



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Turn	Speaker	Exchange	Move	Act	Feature/Function
1	T	One of the features of an informal letter is the address. If you want to write any letter the address is… What? Very very important. Are you getting it now?	I	Informative Checking	Explaining Checking
2	SS	Yes	F	Feedback	Acknowledging
3	T	Am I communicating?	I	Checking	Checking
4	SS	Yes	F	Feedback	Acknowledging
5	T	If you want to write any letter. You want to write an informal letter, the first thing you must have at the back of your mind is what?	I	Elicitation	Focus: Eliciting
6	SS	The address.	R	Reply	Positive
7	T	The address. You cannot write any letter without putting the address. Are you getting it now?	F-I	Evaluative Informative Checking	Repeating Explaining Checking
8	SS	Yes	F	Feedback	Acknowledging
9	T	Now, who can tell me another feature of an informal letter?	I	Directive	Dis. Question
10	SS	The date	R	Reply	Positive
12	T	Ehn?	I	Elicitation	Requesting clarification
13	SS	The date	R	Reply	Positive

14	T	Yes, date is one of what? one of the features of what? of informal letter. Date is what? date is compulsory and essential. If you want to write any letter you must also what? You must also indicate what date. Are you getting it now?	F-I	Evaluative Informative Checking	Accepting Explaining Checking
15	SS	Yes	F	Feedback	Acknowledging

Appendix 7 Questionnaires for Students

In this questionnaire, you are asked to answer questions on your opinions about different activities that take place in your English classes. The purpose of this questionnaire is to understand your perceptions of the teaching process and practice used by your teachers as well as the activities engaged in your English classes. Please, try to answer all the questions honestly. Only the author of this questionnaire will know the information you provide.

Please, tick the options corresponding to your answers.

Section A: Students' Verbal Participation

1. How old are you? Between 13 – 16 [ ]
   Between 17 – 20 [ ]
2. Are you Female [ ]
   Male [ ]
3. What are your reasons and purposes for learning English?
   To be able to communicate in English [ ]
   To pass my examinations in English [ ].
   To be able to pursue my education [ ]
   Because it is the medium of instruction in my school [ ]
4. Do you find English classes? Pleasant [ ]
   Boring [ ]
   Neither of them [ ]
5. How easy or difficult do you find your English lessons? Very difficult [ ]
   Difficult [ ]
   Average [ ]
   Easy [ ]
   Very easy [ ]
6. Do you participate verbally in class? Always [ ]
   Sometimes [ ]
   Rarely [ ]
   Never [ ]
7. What does participation mean to you? To listen quietly and take notes [ ]
   To answer teacher's questions [ ]
   To respond to teacher's instructions [ ]

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

To ask questions and share ideas [ ]
To speak for a long time [ ]

8. Do you speak English outside the classroom? Always [ ]
Sometimes [ ]
Rarely [ ]
Never [ ]
9. Do you understand your teacher when he/she is explaining? Yes [ ]
No [ ]
10. Can you express yourself verbally in English? Very well [ ]
Averagely [ ]
Hardly [ ]
Not at all [ ]
11. Do you get nervous if you have to talk in the classroom? Yes [ ]
No [ ]
12. Do you feel anxious when your teacher asks you questions in the classroom?
Yes [ ]
No [ ]
13. Do you get confused when you speak English in the classroom? Yes [ ]
No [ ]
14. Do you get embarrassed whenever you speak English incorrectly? Yes [ ]
No [ ]
15. Do you fear to speak English because of being ridiculed? Yes [ ]
No [ ]

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Section B: Students' Perceptions of Teachers' Motivation towards Student-Centred Learning

S/N	Item Teacher	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	Uses English as a predominant means of communication in the classroom				
2.	Engages students in conversation to promote spoken English in the classroom				
3.	Shows personal enthusiasm for student-led lessons.				
4.	Permits students to select their own topic for discussion				
5.	Asks questions that elicit thoughtful responses and allows sufficient time for students to answer.				
6.	Uses recasts (correct reformulation of students' speech) as a preferred method of corrective feedback.				
7.	Uses students' ideas as part of his or her explanation of the lesson.				

8.	Allows students to be active central agents in small group discussions.				
9.	Engages students in activities (such as storytelling, class presentation, teamwork) to develop their language abilities.				
10.	Asks a lot of questions to motivate students' talk in English.				

Appendix 8 Interview Guide for Teachers

My name is Oladunni Olufunso Deji-Afuye, a Doctoral Student at the University of Fort Hare from the Department of English Studies and Comparative Literature. My research title is A Study of Linguistic and Discourse Features Used by Teachers and Students in English as a Second Language Classroom Interaction in Ekiti State, Nigeria. I am requesting that you supply answers to questions asked regarding the processes and practices you follow in your English language lessons. Kindly answer the questions to the best of your knowledge. All information given will be treated with confidentiality and anonymity is guaranteed.

Section A

1. Nationality
2. Years of teaching experience
3. Gender
4. Educational background

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Section B

1. How do you think the lesson went regarding students' participation in the lesson?
2. What challenges did you have to get students' full participation and adequate talk?
3. What do you think hindered some students' participation?
4. How were you effective in communicating the purpose of the lesson?
5. How did you organise your talk as a teacher and plan to engage your students to participate in the classroom?
6. What act did you use to initiate the lesson?
7. What kind of discursive moves made some students express their opinions well?
8. Sometimes, you asked your students to repeat a word, a phrase, or a sentence. Why?
9. Which part of your instructional delivery most effectively encouraged students' participation and talk?
10. When do you usually place your students into small groups for class discussion?

11. What changes will you make in your practice to improve students' participation and encourage students' intensive talk in the classroom?
12. How will you ensure that all the students participate equitably throughout the lesson?
13. What are your views about student-centred learning?
14. What would you suggest would make your lessons student-centred?
15. How are students empowered to become active agents in classroom interaction and take responsibility for their own learning?
16. What general comments do you have on English language teaching and learning in Nigeria?

Thank you very much.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

TURNITIN REPORT



Oladunni Olufunso
Deji-Afuye Turnitin I

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

CERTIFICATE OF EDITING



Certificate of
Editing Deji-Afuye Ju

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence