

**UNIVERSITY OF ÇUKUROVA
THE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DEPARTMENT**

**A DISCOURSE ANALYTICAL STUDY ON TEACHERS' ORAL
INSTRUCTIONS IN ELT CLASSROOMS**

Ayça DİNÇER

MASTER OF ARTS THESIS

ADANA/2008

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Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Hatice ÇUBUKÇU

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ÖZET

İNGİLİZ DİLİ ÖĞRETİMİ SINIFLARINDA ÖĞRETMENLERİN KULLANDIKLARI SÖZLÜ YÖNELTİCİLER ÜZERİNE BİR SÖYLEM ANALİZ ÇALIŞMASI

Ayça DİNÇER

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Danışman: Yar. Doç.Dr. Hatice ÇUBUKÇU

Haziran, 2008, 99 sayfa

Öğretmenin sınıfıçı söylemi, eğitim ve öğretim sürecinin önemli bir ögesini oluşturur. Bu söylem, bir yandan öğrencilere bilgi aktarım işlevini gerçekleştirirken, bir yandan da sınıfıçı düzenin ve disiplinin, etkinliklerin verimli biçimde yürütülmesi gibi birçok amaca hizmet eder. Öğretmenlerin sınıfıçı söylemini oluşturan ana kalıplardan biri de ‘yöneltiler’dir(*instructions*).Çünkü ‘yöneltiler’(*instructions*),tüm sınıfıçı etkinliklere ve davranışlara nasıl başlanıp, sürdürülüp, tamamlanacağına ilişkin açıklama ve yönlendirmeleri içerirler. Ayrıca, yalın ve açık bir dil kullanımını gerektiren *yöneltiler*, yabancı dil sınıflarında öğrenme sürecine de katkıda bulunan önemli bir etmen sayılmaktadırlar (Ellis, 1984). Bu bağlamda, bu çalışma temel olarak öğretmen sınıfıçı söyleminin özünü oluşturan ‘sözlü yöneltiler’(*oral instructions*) çözümlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu çalışma, Çukurova Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulunda (YADİM), sekiz İngilizce dersinden ses kaydı yöntemiyle elde edilen sınıfıçı söyleminde yer alan ‘sözlü yöneltiler’ın araştırılmasıyla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Öğretmenlerin kullandıkları yöneltiler ayrıntılı olarak tanımlamak ve çözümlemek için, bütün veriler altı başlık altında incelenmiştir. Bunlar, ‘sözdizimsel biçim’, ‘nitelik’(yöneltiler verirken öğretmenlerin tutumları), ‘içerik’(yöneltilerin verilmesinin genel amaçları), ‘hedef kitle’(yöneltilerin kime söylendiği), yöneltilerle gerçekleşen sınıfıçı söylemleri ve daha geniş bir sosyal çerçeve içinde yöneltilerle gerçekleşen söylemleri kapsamaktadır. Bu çalışmada, öğretmenlerin *sözlü yöneltilerinin* ‘sözdizim’, ‘nitelik’ ‘içerik’ ve ‘hedef kitle’ özelliklerinin belirlenmesinde Atwater ve Morris’in (1988) çalışması temel alınmıştır. Daha sonra, bu *sözlü yöneltilerin* hangi tip sınıfıçı söylemlerini ilettiği aşamasında, Sinclair ve

Coulthard'ın (1975) belirleme ilkeleri kullanılmıştır. Üçüncü aşamada ise, *sözlü yöneltiler*'in hangi söylemleri taşıdığı Searle'ün (1975) söylem sınıflandırma sistemine göre çözümlenmiştir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Yöneltili, Söz Dizimi, Nitelik, İçerik, Hedef Kitle, Sınıflı söylemleri, Söylemler

ABSTRACT**A DISCOURSE ANALYTICAL STUDY ON TEACHERS' ORAL
INSTRUCTIONS IN ELT CLASSROOMS****Ayça DİNÇER****Master Of Arts, English Language Teaching Department****Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Hatice ÇUBUKÇU****June, 2008, 99 pages**

Teacher talk constitutes an important component of education and instruction process. This kind of talk serves for several purposes, such as informing the students, handling the order of the classes and activities effectively. One of the main patterns of teacher talk is *instructions* since they explain how an action behavior, method or task is to be begun, completed or executed (Atwater & Morris, 1988). Besides, *instructions* which require using a clear and simple use of language are considered as important elements which favor language acquisition in ELT classes (Ellis, 1984). In this respect, this study mainly aims to analyze teachers' *oral instructions* which constitute the core aspect of teacher talk. The study was carried out by examining the *oral instructions* which performed in teacher talk by recording data from eight ELT classes at Foreign Language Center (YADİM) in Çukurova University. In order to describe and define teachers' *instructions* fully, the whole data were analyzed in terms of six categories regarding 'the syntactic forms', 'teachers' attitudes' while providing *instructions*, 'the general purpose' involved in giving instructions, 'the recipients' to whom instructions are addressed, 'the classroom acts' realized by teachers' instructions, and lastly 'functions as speech acts' in the larger social frame. In this study, first *instructions* were analyzed regarding 'syntax', 'quality', 'content' and 'recipient' features based on Atwater & Morris's (1988) study. Next, in order to reveal the types of classroom acts these *instructions* may convey were searched for relying on Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) taxonomy of classroom acts. As the last step, teachers' *instructions* were analyzed in order to bring out the types of speech acts they may convey relying on Searle's speech act categories (1975).

Key Words: Teacher Talk, Instruction, Syntax, Quality, Content, Recipient, Classroom Acts, Speech Acts

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Ayça DİNÇER, 2008

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0.Introduction

Classroom Discourse refers to the type of language used in classroom situations (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992). It is often different in form and function from language used in other situations because of the particular social roles students and teachers have in classrooms where they carry out different kinds of activities. In this respect, classroom-based research has produced a variety of models over the last forty years, operating from classroom discourse for describing and analyzing interaction in the classrooms for a better understanding of the classroom conversational patterns employed by teachers and students and the functions they serve for.

The most effective effort to describe classroom interaction patterns in the light of Discourse Analysis has been made by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) developed sophisticated means of analyzing the talk of students and teachers. According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) Model, also known as the '*Birmingham Model*', teachers tend to rely on a discourse structure with the following pattern: *initiation-response-feedback*. In this three part structure, the teacher initiates a question to check a student's knowledge (I), a student responds (R), and the student's response is evaluated with feedback from the teacher (F). This structure is represented generally as IRF.

Therefore, Classroom Discourse includes classroom environments in which teachers and students may be seen as members of a sociolinguistic context in which spoken language has social and pedagogical functions (Consolo, 2000). Cazden (2001) states that the functions of classroom language are produced under typical discourse patterns of classroom communication systems in which the role of language extend beyond the communicating of propositional information to the establishment and the maintenance of relationships in the classroom. In addition, the generation of language input by means of classroom interaction is believed to favor language acquisition

(Ellis, 1984; Krashen, 1982). For instance, Bygate (1987, p.7) states that the language spoken in classroom is not only linked to social and pedagogical aims; it is

also “a medium through which much language is learnt, and which for many is conducive for learning”. Since teachers, as the dominating figures of the classrooms, are responsible for their students’ learning, they may put different strategies into action by their talk, namely ‘teacher talk’.

Along with providing the propositional content of the course, an effective use of Teacher Talk in ELT context involves using various strategies such as simplifying their speech, adapting the foreigner talk and using other simplified styles of speech addressing to language learners (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992). Through different ways, teachers observe their students if they are following what they are saying and try to monitor, edit and correct the language the students use. Apart from these aims, teachers are also in the effort of attracting students’ attention, controlling the amount of speech, checking students’ understanding and specifying topics (Thomas, 1987). Shortly, while teachers lead the students into the courses’ form, content, atmosphere and they feed their students by their talk. A very basic linguistic tool that the teachers employ to accomplish the mentioned tasks is ‘*instruction*’. Atwater&Morris (1988, p.159) define *instruction* as “form of communicated information that is both command and explanation for how an action, behavior, method or task is to be begun, completed or executed”.

A great number of activities are carried out through teachers’ leading students by using *instructions*. It has also an important role in second language research where the input presented to the learner is very important in the sense that it should be comprehensible to the learner in order to make them acquire the language (Krashen, 1985). “Comprehension is a necessary condition for language acquisition ...” (Krashen, 1982, p.66). In order to present the input in a comprehensible way, teachers deliver instructions to learners. Since teachers have different values, beliefs and educational backgrounds, they use different forms of instructions during their courses aiming different purposes.

Chang (2007) who considers *instructions* as one of the four basic structures of classroom discourse and names the other structures as: a) ‘*initiation-response-feedback*’ (IRF), b) *probing questions* and c) *argumentation*. According to Chang, teachers give either directive or informative statements to students to elicit non-verbal response while issuing *instructions*. *IRF* possess a pattern of discourse such that the teacher asks a question, the student answers and the teacher gives feedback to the student. *Probing questions* involve teachers’ asking referential questions, or thinking questions for

encouraging students to give longer answers. *Argumentation* includes teachers' challenging the students in order to make them justify their reasons.

Despite general consensus among scholars and educators regarding the importance of instructions in classroom discourse, there has only been a small amount of research on teachers' oral instructions in related literature. One of these studies which has been carried out by Atwater and Morris (1988) includes an analysis of pre-school teachers' instructions. Using the definition of Atwater and Morris (1988, p.2), "*instruction*" is "a verbal statement in which teacher informed a child or group of children of an observable behavior to be performed". They (1988) classified every instruction under four main headings: *syntax*, *quality*, *content* and *recipient*.

This study also chooses to focus on types and functions of oral *instructions* which teachers use during the courses in ELT context. The study is based on the examination of natural data obtained from eight classes relying on Sinclair & Coulthard's (1975) categories of classroom acts by adding some subtitles within the scope of Discourse Analysis. In addition, Searle's (1975) speech act categories have also been adopted and expanded as guided by the data of this study. In brief, the study involves an investigation of teachers' oral instructions under six broad categories, regarding 'syntactic forms', 'teachers' attitudes', 'teachers' purpose', 'the recipient' as well as the pedagogic and social functions i.e. teachers' instructions as *classroom acts* and as *speech acts*.

1.1. Background To The Study

Within second language classroom research, Teacher Talk has been investigated in terms of teachers' language use in the classroom, especially focusing on the characteristic features and differences of native and non-native speakers' speech (Chaudron, 1988). Teacher Talk may represent a variety of structural modifications depending on the nature of the task and the competence of the student or the listener. These modifications may enhance learners' comprehension and ability to develop the target language grammar and lexis (Chaudron, 1988).

The general nature of teacher talk in classrooms has been explored considering the amount of teacher talk as compared with student speech in classrooms, the distribution of teacher talk in terms of pedagogical and functional moves or acts and the

nature of teachers' explanations. In the context of first language teaching, research has revealed that teachers tend to do most of the talking (Bellack, 1966). Similarly, in second language (L2) classrooms, research tends to support the view that teachers dominate classroom talk. For example Legarreta (1977) analyzed distribution of teacher talk and student talk in five bilingual education kindergarten classrooms and found that teacher talk accounted for 70 % to 89 % , whereas student talk accounted for only 11 %. However, in contrast to Legarreta's (1977) study, Enright (1984) found the teachers' speaking noticeably less in two bilingual kindergarten classes which was similar in context.

Investigating the functions of teacher talk has also been an interesting subject in this area. For instance, Ramirez (1986) analyzed the pedagogical functions of 'explaining', 'questioning', 'modeling', 'feedback' and others. They found an order of dominance across program and grade levels, although commands were significantly different across program types (Chaudron, 1988). Results showed that the pedagogical functions across all programs and teachers involved 'explaining' (23,7 %), 'questioning' (17,6 %) and 'commands' (15,8 %) out of the total teacher talk in the study.

Despite the great interest in the general nature of teacher talk, some aspects of teacher talk have received relatively less attention. One of these patterns is teachers' oral instructions. Using the definition of Atwater and Morris (1988), *instruction* is "a form of communicated information that is both command and explanation for how an action, behavior, method or task is to be begun, completed or executed" (p.159) . Emphasizing the importance of instructions performed by teachers, Jones (1987) suggests that in order to prevent confusion and performance anxiety, teachers should give clear and simple instructions to students and adds : "Simplicity serves clarity, clarity serves learning" (p.50) to highlight the vital role of instructions in the classroom activities.

Sinclair and Couthard (1975) developed a model which defines features of classroom talk patterns characterized by twenty-two classroom act types. In this model, *teachers' instructions*, as one of these twenty-two acts, were identified as 'directives' and defined as verbal acts "the function of which is to request a non-linguistic response" (p.28). In his speech act taxonomy, Searle (1979) has also defined "directive" as " any attempt to get the recipient to do something"(p.37). The difference between Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) and Searle's (1979) approach to directives is that Sinclair and

Coulthard have not put any subcategories of directives and they have described “directive” just for classroom settings. On the other hand, Searle (1969) subdivided “directive” acts into a great number of acts as his classification has been aimed to describe talk in any context. Searle’s (1969) classification of directives’ subcategories are *advising, forbidding, ordering, requesting, suggesting, warning, asking, permitting, admonishing, begging, dismissing, urging, excusing*.

Several descriptive assessments have also been conducted in classrooms to identify teachers’ instructions. One of these studies was conducted by Atwater and Morris (1988) in pre-school classrooms and focused on analyzing teacher behavior in the form of an “instruction” regarding the type of feedback, the context in which an instruction was delivered and children’s behavior (e.g.compliance). Results of the study indicated that the form of the instruction did not influence the probability of compliance as much as the interaction context in which the instruction was delivered.

Another study on teachers’ instructions by Ndoro, Hanley, Tiger and Heal (2006) aimed to measure and describe some aspects of *teachers’ instructions* and their relation to ‘child compliance’ and ‘problem behavior’ in a pre-school classroom. The results indicated that the frequency of instruction and probability of compliance varied as a function of activity type. Primary concern of two mentioned studies above is to describe the forms of teachers’ instructions and their relation to students’ behavior. Their focus did not involve discourse functions or classroom acts of teachers’ instructions.

In Turkey, several recent descriptive studies also sought to identify teachers’ instructions. Among these studies, Eken (1996) investigated types of instructions used by teacher trainers as “directives”. Like former researchers, she analyzed teachers’ directives syntactically and tested whether trainers used “modal-imbedded directives” at a higher frequency than any other type of directive. The findings suggest that teacher trainers use all types of directives with different frequencies and it is onfirmed that teacher trainers use “modal-imbedded directives” at a much higher frequency than any other directive type in giving feedback to trainees.

Another study has been conducted by Arıkdal (2006). In her study, Arıkdal identified and defined the interactional patterns of ELT teachers and their students at Çukurova University relying on Sinclair and Coulthard’s (1975) Model. While defining the interactional patterns, she also searched for classroom acts utilized by teachers and students. Under examining classroom acts utilized by teachers, teachers’ instructions

were also analyzed as “teachers’ directives”. In brief, studies in the field have focused either on the form or function.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Although several studies have attempted to identify and analyze various aspects of teachers’ instructions, they generally lack a thorough analysis of form and function. Secondly, teachers’ instructions have generally been investigated in pre-school settings. In this respect, this study searches to analyze teachers’ oral instructions in form and function in a university setting; i.e.instructions addressing adult learners. Finally, the phenomenon of clear input has always been a very important element in ELT and in this study instructions which are also the tools of giving clear and comprehensible input have been the focus of the study.

1.3. The Aim of the Study

This study aims to provide an in-depth description of teachers’ oral instructions by focusing on both formal and functional aspects of instructions in the ELT context for adult learners. To specify, revealing the syntactic forms of teachers’ oral instructions, the kinds of classroom acts and speech acts that teachers’ instructions may convey have been the primary foci for the study.

1.4.Research Questions

- 1) What are the syntactic forms of teachers’ oral instructions?
- 2) Are the instructions aimed towards promoting positive student behaviour or impeding the negative ones?
- 3) What kind of pedagogical functions do teachers’ instructions carry?
- 4) To whom are the teachers’ oral instructions addressed?
- 5) What kind of classroom acts do teachers’ instructions convey?
- 6) What kind of speech acts do teachers’ instructions convey?

1.5. Operational Definitions

Technical terms related with this study are presented below in order to share the common ground and understand the study clearly.

Instruction: “A form of communicated information that is both command and explanation for how an action, behavior, method or task is to be begun, completed or executed” (Atwater & Morris, 1988, p.159) .

Syntactic forms: Syntactic forms refer to types of sentences in grammatical sense, such as; imperatives, declaratives and questions.

Classroom Acts: Classroom Acts are the functions of utterances performed by teachers and students in classroom settings and twenty-two acts were defined by Sinclair & Coulthard (1975). Some of these acts are directive, clue and prompt. The function of directive is “to request a non-linguistic response” (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; 41). Prompt reinforces a directive which shows that “the teacher is no longer requesting a response but expecting or even demanding one” (Sinclair & Coulthard; 41).

“Clue provides additional information to comply with the directive” (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, 41).

Speech Acts: Speech Acts refer to a theory which analyses the functions of utterances in relation to the behavior of the speaker and hearer in the social context (Searle, 1975).

1.6. Limitations of the Study

Since this study represents data for eight teachers of English, it may be misleading to generalize the findings and create a typology of teachers’ oral instructions to all English classes. We might also expect to come across some changes in the nature of instructions in different levels of classes, since level 2 classes formed the only classroom context in this study. Apart from these limitations, the teachers who participated in the study are all female; therefore the findings are limited to the female population.

The next chapter discusses the theoretical framework behind this research and presents the review of literature on classroom discourse covering teacher talk.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0.Introduction

This chapter presents the theoretical framework of the study defining ‘Discourse Analysis’ and its integral parts which specifically relate to ‘Classroom Discourse’, ‘Classroom Interaction’, ‘Teacher Talk’ and ‘*Teachers’ Instructions*’ respectively. The chapter also provides information about the major approaches in the field. Following these, types of analyses followed in classroom discourse, namely ‘psychometric analysis’, ‘ethnographic analysis’, ‘interaction analysis’ and ‘discourse analysis’ will also be defined.

2.1.Types of Analyses in Classroom Discourse

In second language research, communication between teachers and second language learners has become a very important issue in that it affects many aspects of teaching and learning. Therefore, it has been analyzed from several perspectives within classroom discourse. In classroom discourse, recorded natural classroom interactions may be analyzed according to four different traditions of analysis which are namely ‘psychometric’, ‘ethnographic’, ‘interaction’ and ‘discourse analysis’ (Chaudron, 1988). These analyses are defined as:

a) *Psychometric Analysis:* This type of analysis deals with product outcomes. It is the quantitative approach which involve numerical measurement and statistical analysis. (Chaudron, 1988).

b) *Ethnographic Analysis:* It focuses on interpreting behaviors from the perspective of participants’ different understandings. It has gained wide acceptance in first language classroom research (Chaudron, 1988).

c) *Interaction Analysis:* It deals with any of several procedures of measuring and describing the behavior of students’ and teachers’ in classrooms (Richards, Platt&Platt,1992). In addition, Flanders (1970) states that in interaction analysis,

classroom behavior is observed and different types of student and teacher activities are classified using a classification scheme.

d) *Discourse Analysis:* The term ‘Discourse Analysis’ has a variety of definitions put forward by several researchers highlighting its different features. Since the followed approach of this study is ‘Discourse Analysis’, it will be defined in detail.

‘Discourse Analysis’ refers to “a variety of procedures for examining chunks of language, whether spoken or written and it involves the analysis of spoken language as it is used in classrooms among teachers and learners” (Stubbs, 1983). Even, the development in this tradition of a more systematic analysis of classroom interaction was exemplified for L1 (first language) classrooms by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975).

Depending on Stubb’s definition of Discourse Analysis, its integral parts demonstrate themselves as classroom discourse, classroom interaction and teacher talk. In other words, Discourse Analysis is an umbrella term covering analysis of classroom discourse, classroom interaction and teacher talk in a hierarchical order.

Following Stubbs (1983), Mc. Carthy defines ‘Discourse Analysis’ as “the study of relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used” (1991, p.5) and he draws attention to the importance of ‘context’ by focusing on the relationship between language and context.

Unlike Stubbs (1983) and McCarthy (1991), Brown & Yule (1983) bring a different sight to ‘Discourse Analysis’ emphasizing the importance of utterances’ functions and they claim that ‘Discourse Analysis’ can not be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which those forms are designed to serve in human affairs. Moreover, Brown & Yule (1983) also point out that the discourse analyst attempts to discover and describe regularities of utterances’ forms and functions in his/her data.

In brief, Brown and Yule define ‘Discourse Analysis’ as “a way of studying language which may be regarded as a set of techniques, rather than a theoretically predetermined system for the writing of linguistic rules” (p.1) .

In addition to these four types of analyses in classroom discourse and the definitions of ‘Discourse Analysis’, two traditions in Discourse Analysis’ background history can also be mentioned as ‘British Discourse Analysis’ and ‘American Discourse Analysis’(Mc. Carthy, 1991).

i. *British Discourse Analysis:* This tradition was greatly influenced by Halliday’s Functional Approach to language. Halliday (1985) dealt with the social functions of

language. However, the pioneering figures in this field are Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) who developed a model describing teacher-student talk in detail depending on a hierarchy of discourse units. Other discourse studies include doctor-patient interaction, service encounters, interviews, debates and business negotiation (Mc. Carthy, 1991). In brief, the British tradition has principally followed structural-linguistic criteria, on the basis of isolation of units and sets of rules defining well-formed sequences of discourse.

ii. *American Discourse Analysis*: American Discourse Analysis has brought another scope to discourse in the way that it uses the research method of close observation of groups of people communicating in natural settings (Mc. Carthy, 1991). It examines types of speech events such as story-telling, greeting rituals and verbal duels in different cultural and social settings (Gumperz and Hymes, 1972). Within the American tradition, the term ‘Conversational Analysis’ can also be included under the general heading of Discourse Analysis (Mc. Carthy, 1991).

In ‘Conversational Analysis’, the emphasis is on the close observation of the behavior of participants in talk and on patterns which reoccur over a wide range of data. The focus is not on building structural models as in the case of the British tradition (McCarthy, 1991). Goffman (1976, 1979), Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974) have conducted important studies revealing a picture of conversational norms such as ‘turn-taking’, ‘topic opening/closing’, ‘interrupting’ and spoken interaction (McCarthy, 1991). The American work has also produced a large number of descriptions for discourse types.

Regarding the development of discourse analysis, linguists such as Van Dijk (1985), De Beugrande (1980), Halliday and Hasan (1976) have made significant impacts in working mostly with written language. These studies have shown the links between grammar and discourse where texts are seen as elements strung together in relationships with one another.

To sum up, whichever type of analysis or tradition is followed, the most important feature of studying discourse is the concern for foreseeing the actions or functions by examining the sentence or forms which will eventually reveal the relationships between language forms and discourse functions (McCarthy, 1991).

2.2. Discourse Analysis and The Speech Act Theory

McCarthy (1991) states that ‘Discourse Analysis’ was developed within different disciplines such as linguistics, semiotics, psychology, anthropology and sociology in the 1960s and early 1970s and back then, linguistics was largely concerned with the analysis of single sentences. Zellig Haris (1952) published a paper with the title “Discourse Analysis” covering the distribution of linguistic elements in extended texts, and the links between the text and its social situation. Following this, Hymes (1964) provided a sociological perspective with the study of speech in its social setting. Besides Haris (1952) and Hymes (1964), other linguistic philosophers, such as Austin (1962), Searle (1969) and Grice (1975) were also interested in the study of language as social action.

Austin (1962) and his follower Searle (1969) reflected their views in the “Speech Act Theory”, which refers to analyzing the role of utterances in relation to the behavior of speaker and hearer in interpersonal communication (Crystal, 1997). In other words, the theory mainly focuses on the intentions of speakers and the effects they achieve on listeners while speaking. According to Austin (1962) and Searle (1969, 1975) linguistic expressions perform certain kinds of communicative acts, such as; making statements, asking questions, giving directions, apologizing, thanking. They regard these speech acts as the basic units of human communication. Austin (1962) suggests that the utterances of certain expressions such as ‘*I apologize*’, ‘*I promise*’ or ‘*I warn you*’ can not reflect the states as true or false, as their only purpose is to “do” things with language. Austin (1962) used the term “performative” for these kind of utterances to separate them from the other types in the language. Austin (1962) elaborated his distinction by suggesting that any utterance performs at least three types of act: ‘Locutionary Act’, ‘Illocutionary Act’ and ‘Perlocutionary Act’. According to Austin (1962), these acts are defined as follows:

1) Locutionary Act: It is the formulation of a sentence with a specific sense and reference. The locutionary act is “what is said”. It typically contains a referring expression, such as “John” and a predication expression, such as “had an MA degree”.

2) Illocutionary Act: It is the performing of a communicative function, such as “stating”, “questioning”, “commanding”, “promising”. The Illocutionary Act is what the speaker does in uttering a linguistic expression. For example; if a teacher says “open

your books to page 20”, the illocutionary act performed is that of a “directive” (Austin,1962).

3) Perlocutionary Act: The perlocutionary act is what the speaker does by saying something. In other words, it is the creation of some effect in the hearer. For example:

A: Please, take the old lady to her house. She is lost.

B: mmm. () oKAY!

In this dialogue, speaker A wants speaker B to take the old lady to her house since she is lost. This is the illocutionary act since speaker A requests from speaker B to take the old lady to her house. By uttering these sentences, speaker A creates an effect in the hearer (speaker B).Speaker A persuades speaker B and this is the perlocutionary act.

Following Austin’s theories, Searle (1969,1975) provides further classification for speech acts. Searle (1979) classifies types of speech acts and systematizes the nature of felicity conditions needed for the performance of different speech acts. His major contribution to Speech Act Theory was specifying the phenomenon of indirect speech acts. Searle (1979) proposed an endless number of ‘illocutionary acts’ which were subgrouped under five main types: *representative*, *directive*, *commissive*, *expressive*, *declarative*.

In brief, Speech Act Theory is basically concerned with what people “do” with language and language’s functions (Schiffrin, 1994). Hatch (1992) underlines the importance of Speech Act Theory by stating : “Speech Act Analysis has provided researchers with a valuable way to look at language functions and the connection between function and grammar form” (p.130).

Like Austin (1962) and Searle (1975), Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) have also considered Speech Act Theory as an important source of insight into discourse. Their view about Speech Act Theory demonstrates itself in their effective study “The Birmingham Model” in which they labelled twenty-one acts examining the functions of the classroom utterances, namely teachers’ and students’ utterances. This model has been used as the framework of analysis in this study.

The following section presents the definition and background information on classroom discourse. In addition, several classroom discourse models will be exemplified from Discourse Analysis Research.

2.3. Classroom Discourse and ‘Classroom Acts’

‘Classroom Discourse’ refers to the type of language used in classroom situations and it is often different in form and function from language used in other situations because of the particular social roles students and teachers have in classrooms and the kinds of activities they usually carry out there (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992). For instance, teachers generally follow a typical discourse structure with the following pattern: initiation-response-evaluation. In this three-part discourse structure, the teacher initiates a question to check a student’s knowledge, then the student responds, and the student’s response is evaluated with feedback from the teacher. Furthermore, Richards and Platt & Platt (1992) state that this kind of discourse structure is thought to influence the rate of language development of learners who encounter that kind of talk.

Bellack et. al.(1966) classified this pattern of interaction between teacher and student as ‘*structure*’- ‘*solicit*’-‘*response*’,and ‘*react*’. Starting with the first pattern, *Structuring* serves the pedagogical function of setting the context for subsequent

behavior by launching or excluding interaction between students and teachers. Next, *Soliciting* involves eliciting an active, verbal response on the part of the students and encouraging students to attend to something or eliciting a physical response, such as questions, commands, requests. Third pattern, *Responding* includes students’ answers to teachers’ questions. The last pattern, *Reacting* serves to modify by clarifying, synthesizing, or expanding what has been said previously.

Following Bellack (1966), Flanders (1970) also focused on teacher talk in classroom discourse. However, Flanders (1970) categorized patterns of interaction using different terms such as ‘Asking Questions’, ‘Giving Directions’ and ‘Accepting Feeling’. Flanders’ (1970) categories of description for classroom verbal behavior led to the basis of “Interaction Analysis” tradition which investigates classroom language to see what it can reveal about the teaching and learning processes (Thomas, 1987), (also see Christie, 2002).

Although there are hundreds of classroom observation instruments in Interaction Analysis Tradition based on Flanders’ original categories (Thomas, 1987). Flanders’ (1970) original categories comprise three main parts: ‘Teacher Talk’ and ‘Pupil Talk’. In addition to these two main categories, there is a third one to cover other types of verbal behavior, which is identified as “silence” (Coulthard, 1977,p.95). An illustration of Flanders’ categories which compose a typical classroom discourse is shown below.

- 1) *Teacher Talk*:
 - a) Accepts Feeling
 - b) Praises or encourages
 - c) Accepts or uses ideas of pupils
 - d) Asks questions
 - e) Lectures
 - f) Giving Directions
 - g) Criticizing or justifying authority.
- 2) *Pupil Talk*:
 - h) Pupil Talk: response
 - i) Pupil Talk: initiation
- 3) *Silence*:
 - j) Silence or confusion

Despite having coded classroom discourse segments clearly, Flanders' categories were criticized for being too general and rather difficult to apply these categories with certainty to different utterances (Thomas, 1987). To sum up, the 'Interaction Analysis' deals with verbal interaction in the classroom to understand the teaching and learning behavior. After it was established in the early 1970s, Interaction Analysis Tradition was carried over into the language teaching classrooms (Thomas, 1987). Being influenced by Flanders' Interaction Analysis Categories, Moskowitz (1976) brought up an instrument, called 'FLINT', taking Flanders' original categories with several adaptations and added some categories to make them more relevant to practice in the language classroom (Thomas, 1987).

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) has made a major contribution to the field of discourse. They developed a model of classroom discourse and their analysis involved an exhaustive account of classroom-recorded data which reveals a typical exchange in the classroom. Their system consists of an initiation (I) by the teacher, followed by a response (R) from the student, and lastly by feedback (F) from the teacher to the student's response. In their classroom interaction model, the teacher initiates a question to check student's knowledge, student responds and the student's response is evaluated with feedback from the teacher (Coulthard, 1977).

However, Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) effective work was not limited to these three -part structure. They state that there are certain moves in classroom conversation and define 'Move' as "the smallest free unit although it has a structure in terms of acts" (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, 27). They suggest that moves are combined to form bigger structures, such as: '*soliciting moves*', '*responding moves*', '*structuring moves*' and '*reacting moves*' (Christie, 2002). '*Soliciting Move*' refers to the speaker's

actively looking for the audience's verbal or non-verbal responses. '*Responding Move*' involves some reciprocal relation to the soliciting move. "*Structuring Move*" serves for pedagogical activity is carried by initiating some course of action or by excluding others. "*Reacting Move*" is held in reaction to any of the others.

In addition to these moves, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) developed a series of ranks and levels of classroom interaction which were grouped in ascending order. Except 'move', other ranks at the discourse level are: 'Act', 'Exchange', 'Transaction' and 'Lesson'. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) put the label 'Lesson' for the top rank and define it as "the highest unit of classroom discourse consisting of one or more transactions" (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975, p.23). The second label 'Transaction' includes three elements : 'preliminary', 'medial' and 'terminal'. According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), in order to talk about 'transaction', there must be a preliminary move in each transaction, there must be one medial move and there can be a terminal move. The third label 'Exchange' is the "minimal unit of interaction comprising of at least two moves" (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975, 23). After realizing those moves, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) needed another rank to describe the structures of those moves and they called them 'Acts'. Their fifth label 'Act' is defined as the unit at the lowest rank of discourse and it corresponds to the grammatical unit 'clause'. However, Sinclair and Coulthard warn that grammar is concerned with the formal properties of an item whereas discourse deals with the functional properties along with what the speaker is using the item for (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975).

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) proposed twenty-two 'acts' which are expressed by clauses or single words. Moreover, they suggest that there are three major acts which may be seen in all forms of spoken discourse: 'elicitation', 'directive' and 'informative'. These major acts and the other act types can be seen below:

Sinclair & Coulthard's List of "Classroom Acts" (1975):

Acts Examples/Explanations

Marker	'well', 'right', 'Ok', 'now'
Starter	directing attention to a specific area
Elicitation	question demanding linguistic response
Check	'Finished', 'Ready?' , 'Any problems?'
Directive	requesting a non-linguistic response
Informative	providing information
Prompt	'Have a guess', 'Come on, quickly!'
Clue	additional information to help student
Cue	'Hands up' , 'Don't call out'
Bid	'Sir!', 'Miss!'
Nomination	names of pupils, 'Who hasn't answered yet?'
Acknowledge	'Yes', 'Mmm' , 'Ok'
Reply	linguistic response to elicitation
React	non-linguistic response to directive
Comment	additional information, expanding, exemplifying
Accept	'Yes', 'No', 'Good' , 'Fine'
Evaluate	'Good' , 'Interesting' , 'Fine'
Metastatement	helping pupils see the purpose and structure of the lesson
Conclusion	summarising what has preceded
Loop	'Pardon', 'Again', 'What did you say?'
Aside	'Where is the chalk?' , 'It is freezing in here'

(Thomas,1987).

2.3.1. Teacher Talk

Investigations of 'Teacher Talk' emerged from classroom discourse studies. 'Teacher Talk' is the variety of language used by teachers when they are in the process of teaching (Sinclair & Brazil, 1982). Particularly in EFL classes, teachers deliver simplified speech, adapt the foreigner talk and other simplified styles of speech to the learners (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992). Relatively, they use predictable structures in

their interaction with students and share their own information with them, ask questions and evaluate their answers or give feedback to them (Anderson, 2004).

Besides, Thomas (1987) claims that teachers give orders and instructions, or makes gestures because of the administrative or organizational nature of classroom communication. However, classroom communication is different from any other communication in regard to its pedagogic purpose. Classrooms exist so that students can learn. The pedagogic purpose is held by the teacher and the pedagogic message is transmitted using different means by the teacher. These means include teachers' talking, lecturing, asking questions, giving definitions, reading aloud, giving instructions and so on. They are methodological devices of language to achieve pedagogic purposes (Thomas, 1987). Thus, teachers' instructions may serve to achieve a social purpose and at the same time a methodological device to achieve a pedagogic one.

Teacher Talk is very different from the other individuals' talk in the sense of presenting different kinds of information for a variety of activities. It is characterized by a high percentage of utterances which perform certain speech acts including: informing, explaining, defining, questioning, correcting, prompting, ordering and requesting (Cazden, 2001). Philosophers such as Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) have shown that utterances may be classified into a very small set of functions. According to Searle's (1969, 1976) classification, these functions are grouped under five main headings, such as : '*directives, commissives, representatives, declaratives and expressives*'.

2.3.1.1. Teachers' Instructions

Teacher Talk is very crucial in classroom context in that teachers perform their work by using functional utterances which organize and lead the whole discourse. Various forms of their talk serve some important educational purposes such as

managing the class or introducing an activity. One of these utterance types is 'instruction'. Although 'instruction' is defined as 'education' and 'teaching' in foreign language teaching (Laird, 1985), in this study 'instruction' is defined as "a form of communicated information that is both command and explanation for how an action, behavior, method or task is to be begun, completed or executed" (Atwater & Morris, 1988, p.159) .

Anderson (2004) emphasizes the importance of giving good instructions in teaching English by stating that it is a great way to expose learners to natural English. Besides, she claims that an activity can fail as students may be confused by what teachers expect from them without clear instructions. This may mean that the effort spent creating the atmosphere and explaining the activity is wasted and the opportunity for practising and learning an item of the target language is lost.

However, there are only a small number of studies which directly focus on teachers' instructions. Among these studies, Atwater and Morris (1988) collected naturalistic data on preschool teachers' instructions and children's compliance and the context of instructional events in preschool classrooms. They made a descriptive analysis of many variables related to *instruction* rate and compliance probability. First of all, Atwater & Morris obtained data on teachers' instructions to children from pre-school and early elementary classrooms. Instructions were classified as 'syntax', 'recipient', 'content' and 'quality'. Differences in the form and frequency of teachers' instructions were compared across activities within preschool classrooms and across three grade levels. After analyzing the whole data according to these *instruction* types, Atwater & Morris (1988) inferred that direct imperatives were used most frequently by every teacher, accounting for over half the *instructions* recorded; most *instructions* were directed specifically to individual children rather than to groups of two or more. In addition, teachers were more likely to use positive *instructions* to prompt child behavior than negative *instructions* to suppress behavior. Of all the *instructions* used by the teachers, 67% were direct imperatives, 94% were positive in quality, 57% were task-related, and 62% were directed to the child individually.

The study conducted by Eken (1996) focuses on the use of directives by teacher trainers when giving oral feedback to trainees. She specifically tried to define the types of directives and to test whether trainers used "modal-imbedded" directives at a higher frequency compared to other types. As a result of the analysis, Eken (1996) classified the directives on the basis of their syntactic features. Eken (1996) used Ervin-Trip's (1976) and Holmes' (1983) classifications, but also found it necessary to discuss a few additional categories. Directives were analyzed under five main categories including thirteen sub-categories:

1) Need-Want Statements:

- a) referring to trainer wants: "I want you to talk."
- b) referring to trainee needs, as perceived by the trainer: "You need to decide for what purpose or aim."
- c) referring to the lesson: "It needed thinking about."

2) Imperatives:

- a) base form of verb: "Don't be overambitious, have a very specific aim."
- b) verb -ing: "So for this point here, making the task more specific and being clear."
- c) verb ellipsis: "So always more specific" (=be more specific)
- d) let-shall-why don't you/we: "Why don't we start with that."
"Let's go through this first."
- e) you+imperative: "You guide them more."

3) Modal-imbedded Directives:

- a) adverb-imbedded directives: "Maybe just not the instructions, but maybe it wasn't clear in your own mind what the purpose of it was."
- b) modal-imbedded interrogative devices:
"So how could you develop this then if you were to teach it again?"
- c) modal-imbedded statement directives:
"Blackboard might be worth thinking about. It might be worth planning your board."

4) Non-modal Question Directives:

- a) wh-questions: "What didn't you like about it?"
- b) Yes-no questions: "Does he often say things that are different?"

5)Hints: Hints were used in order to get the trainee to think about certain points that came up in the lesson. In other words, hints were utterances with implicit messages and also advisives which were non-direct and non-explicit (Eken,1996; p.11).

Ex: "So most of these are okay, but this one was a bit detailed so to answer that question, you had to stop and look and so on."

Eken's (1996) study which focuses more on the formal aspects of directives reflects the advisory role of the trainer and that the degree of directness depends on how 'direct' the trainer wants to be in their criticism.

The next chapter discusses the theoretical framework behind this research and methodology involving the information of method, participants, instruments, data collection and data analysis.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

3.0.Introduction

In this section, information regarding data collection techniques, procedures and data analysis is presented. The data used in this research have been compiled from audio-recordings of teacher and student interactions in eight ELT classes in Çukurova University. Atwater& Morris's (1988) instruction type categories, Sinclair & Coulthard's (1975) classroom acts and Searle's (1975) speech act categories were taken to be the main analytical framework on which this research was based.

3.1.Method

There are three different approaches to conduct classroom research: 'experimental research', 'action research' and 'naturalistic enquiry' (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). In 'Experimental Research', there is a treatment put forward by the researcher in order to test a hypothesis about a cause and effect relationship. This kind of research includes high intervention and a high degree of control over the variables. On the other hand ,“Action Research involves taking an action and systematically observing what follows”(Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p.42) . In 'Action Research', there is also an intervention like in 'Experimental Research', however there is a low degree of control.

In contrast to controlling feature of these two research approaches, the feature of 'Naturalistic Enquiry' is to describe and understand the processes rather than to test specific hypotheses about cause and effect relationships (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). It may include comparison groups and the collection of both qualitative and quantitative data, however it does not use the experimental concept of 'treatment'. Besides, the researcher does not create special groups for the purposes of the study. Instead, naturally occurring groups become the main point (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). This study is a naturalistic enquiry since its aim is to describe and understand teachers' oral

instructions rather than to test specific hypotheses and to compare the teachers' use of oral instructions.

3.1.1.Participants

Participants of the study are eight instructors of English from the Centre For Foreign Languages of Çukurova University (YADİM). The eight instructors who participated in this research are all native speakers of Turkish, they are all female and their ages vary between 26–46. Detailed information about the participant teachers can be seen in table 3.1.1 below. Except the teachers, the number of students who have also been observed in this study constitute 200–240 since the number of students in each class vary between 25–30.

Table 3.1.1. Participants

Participants	Age	Gender	Graduate of	Years of Experience
P1	26	Female	ELT	4
P2	29	Female	ELT	6
P3	29	Female	ELT	6
P4	29	Female	ELT	7
P5	30	Female	ELT	7
P6	31	Female	ELT	8
P7	32	Female	ELT	8
P8	46	Female	ELT	23

As the nature of the study involves seeking out English teachers and the classes which have provided gathering fruitful data, this study's sampling is 'Convenience Sampling'. In this type of sampling, the researcher chooses the population and the situation which suggests rich data at random (Stubbs, 1983).

3.2.Data

The data in this research are based on audio-recordings of interactions between teachers and their students in eight ELT classes at Çukurova University. The data were obtained from eight, prep classes in Centre For Foreign Languages of Çukurova University (YADİM) , during teaching language skills namely; writing, reading, listening/speaking and grammar. The classes' level of proficiency was intermediate which corresponded to level 2 according to the assessment system of the Centre For Foreign Languages. The data include 1006 conversational- turns employed by students and teachers. 489 conversational turns out of 1006 were performed by the teachers whereas 517 turns were performed by the students.

In order to collect the data, the teachers were asked for permission to audio-record their lessons in advance. The recorder was kept out of sight in order to minimize the effect of the recording device and the researcher's presence in the class on the quality of the natural data. The researcher attended the classes as a guest and sat at the back of the classes throughout the data collection process. In order to keep the data as natural as possible, teachers were not informed about the specific focus of this research. Each class lasted approximately 45 minutes.

3.3.Instruments

The instruments for data collection are recording, note-taking and observation. First of all, the data were collected by a tape-recorder. While recording the data, the researcher also took field notes involving teachers' and students' behaviors to be used as contextual information in order to be used later in identifying the functional values of the utterances. After observing and recording the classes, the recorded data were transcribed according to Jefferson's (2004) transcription conventions (See Appendix 4).

3.4.Data Analysis

Teachers' instructions in this study have been analyzed under six categories regarding the 'syntactic forms', 'quality', 'content', 'recipient' as well as the classroom acts and speech act values of teachers' instructions. The examination of the first four categories is based on Atwater&Morris (1988). In the next two steps, the taxonomies of Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) classroom acts and Searle's (1975) speech act categories have been followed. While the first analysis mainly focuses on the forms of instructions, the next two analyses examine the functions of teachers' oral instructions.

The first category mainly focuses on the syntactic features of the instructions; the second category 'quality' reflects teachers' positive or negative attitudes towards the students while issuing instructions. The third level of analysis is related to identifying the general pedagogic purpose in the teachers' instructions, as to whether she/he is trying to guide the students towards a teaching activity or towards setting up the classroom order. The fourth category detects the recipients to whom instructions are addressed; namely, whether they are individual students, groups, pairs or the whole class. Categories 'syntax', 'quality', 'content' and 'recipient' have their sub-categories to describe teachers' instructions in detail. The last two categories of analysis are concerned with discovering the specific functions involved in teachers' instructions: the types of the verbal acts socalled 'classroom acts', realizing the pedagogical objectives; the types of verbal acts 'the speech acts' conveying the social meaning in a larger frame. Six categories constituting the data analysis of this study may be seen in Table 3.4. below.

In the table (3.4) below, except the categories and the basis which have been followed to analyze teachers' oral instructions, main foci of every category are also seen clearly. That is, 'syntactic analysis' reveals the linguistic structure of instructions, 'quality', 'content' and 'recipient' categories serve for analyzing pedagogical functions of teachers' oral instructions. Unlike the mentioned categories above, 'classroom acts' and 'speech acts' serve for analyzing discourse functions as their primary functions. However, it must be noted that there is not a clear-cut boundary between discourse functions and pedagogical functions of teachers' utterances since they complete each other.

Table 3.4. Representation of the Data Analysis of the Study

Methodological Basis	Categories	Foci
Atwater&Morris (1988)	syntax	Form
	quality	Pedagogical function
	content	Pedagogical function
	recipient	Pedagogical function
Sinclair and Coulthard (1975)	classroom acts	Discourse function
Searle (1975)	speech acts	Discourse function

All of the mentioned categories comprising the data analysis of the study are described below in descending order.

3.4.1. Syntactic Forms of Instructions

Syntax studies structural units of a language: phrases and sentences (Akmajian et al,1995). Atwater and Morris analyzed the structures of teachers' oral instructions under four sentence types: 'direct imperative', 'let's imperative', 'question' and 'declarative'. However, during the analysis regarding syntax, one additional sub-category was identified in this study and named as 'ellipsis'. The examples indicating 'ellipsis' or 'elliptical forms' will be exemplified and defined in the following chapter. Other categories defining sentence forms are described below.

- a) *Direct Imperatives* : (e.g. "Circle the blue triangle.")
- b) *Let's Imperatives* : (e.g. "Let's put our coats into our lockers.")
- c) *Questions* : (e.g. "Would you sit down, please?")
- d) *Declaratives* : (e.g. "It is time to put our work away.")

Additionally, in this study questions and declaratives were also subcategorised based on the examples elicited from the data and in line with this syntactic categories of Eken (1996) were also partially used.

3.4.2. Quality

Quality of instructions include analysing the instructions issued by the speaker whether they 'prompt' or 'supress' the addressee's behavior. In this respect, 'quality' of instructions have been analysed under two titles by Atwater & Morris (1988), namely, 'positive instructions' and 'negative instructions'.

a) *Positive Instructions* :Positive instructions are those to prompt child behavior.

“Please, sit down.”

b) *Negative Instructions* : Negative instructions are those to supress behavior.

“Stop running around the room.

(Atwater & Morris, 1988, 158)

3.4.3. Content

Content of instructions include analysing the instructions according to the teacher's aims, that is whether instructions are used to students for handling the tasks or directing the general classroom behavior (Atwater & Morris, 1988). Content of instructions have been analysed as 'task-related' and 'non-task'.

a) *Task-related*: Task-related instructions guide the child's performance of a task.

“Count the squares on this page.”

b) *Non-task*: Non-task instructions direct general classroom behavior.

“Try to be quiet during the film.”

(Atwater & Morris, 1988, 158)

3.4.4. Recipient

According to Atwater and Morris's (1988) study, the recipient of the instructions could be an individual child or a group of two or more children. In this research, recipient category includes 'individual', 'pair', 'group' and 'whole class'.

The following parts (3.4.5 and 3.4.6) give a brief summary of classroom acts and speech acts which constitute the other tools to describe and analyze teachers' instructions in this research.

3.4.5. Instructions as 'Classroom Acts'

Sinclair and Coulthard's classroom acts taxonomy has been another base for analyzing teacher talk to reveal the functions of their *instructions*.

Acts	Examples / Explanations
Marker	'well', 'right', 'Ok', 'now'
Starter	directing attention to a specific area
Elicitation	question demanding linguistic response
Check	'Finished', 'Ready?', 'Any problems?'
Directive	requesting a non-linguistic response
Informative	providing information
Prompt	'Have a guess', 'Come on, quickly!'
Clue	additional information to help student
Cue	'Hands up', 'Don't call out'
Bid (student)	'Sir!', 'Miss!'
Nomination	names of pupils, 'Who hasn't answered yet?'
Acknowledge	'Yes', 'Mmm', 'Ok'
Reply	linguistic response to elicitation
React	non-linguistic response to directive
Comment	additional information, expanding, exemplifying
Accept	'Yes', 'No', 'Good', 'Fine'
Evaluate	'Good', 'Interesting', 'Fine'
Metastatement	helping pupils see the purpose and structure of the lesson
Conclusion	summarising what has preceded
Loop	'Pardon', 'Again', 'What did you say?'
Aside	'Where is the chalk?', 'It is freezing in here'

Apart from Sinclair and Coulthard, Searle's speech act categories were also the other tools used to investigate the functions of teachers' instructions in detail. Hence, in the next section, Searle's Speech Act Taxonomy is described.

3.4.6. Instructions as 'Speech Acts'

Most types of utterances in talk do not involve simply communicating a meaning; rather they have the function of accomplishing something, such as convincing someone of a belief, getting someone to do something, etc. (Austin, 1962).

Bach (1994) defines these different types of actions which we are trying to accomplish with our utterances as "speech acts". A long tradition of research has attempted to develop categories and classifications of speech acts. Although many different taxonomies of speech acts have been presented (Austin, 1962; Bach & Harnish, 1979), one well-known taxonomy that has been used in natural language processing is described by Searle (1969, 1975, 1979). In his taxonomy, Searle categorizes speech acts according to their illocutionary purpose (i.e. what the speaker is doing with the utterance). For instance, a speaker may assert information, order someone to do something, promise to do something, apologize from someone and state a situation by the help of her/his utterances.

According to Searle's basic taxonomy, there are five main categories: representatives, directives, commissives, expressives and declaratives.

1) *Representatives:* Representatives commit a speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition. They include 'asserting', 'concluding' and 'claiming'.

2) *Directives:* These acts cause the hearer to take a particular action. Directive Speech Acts include 'ordering', 'commanding', 'begging', 'requesting', 'asking questions', 'urging', 'forbidding', 'suggesting', 'advising', 'warning', 'dismissing'.

'Watch out! The ground is slippery!' (warning)

3) *Commissives:* Commissives commit a speaker to some future action and they consist of 'promising', 'vowing', 'pledging', 'alliance'.

'I will bring your dictionary tomorrow.' (promise)

4) *Expressives:* Expressives express on the speaker's attitudes and emotions towards the proposition, e.g. 'thanking', 'apologizing', 'congratulating' and 'excusing'.

'I am sorry, I have broken the glass.' (apologize)

5) ***Declaratives:*** Declaratives change the reality in accordance with the proposition of the declaration, e.g. ‘pronouncing someone guilty’ ‘declaring peace’, ‘christening a baby’, ‘firing an employee’ and so on.

‘You are fired, from now on find a new job!’ (firing an employee)

Three taxonomies having different categories and aspects have been tried to be defined in this chapter since they are the tools of the study. In the following chapter, findings and discussion of the study will be presented.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.0. Introduction

In this chapter, the findings obtained as a result of the analysis of teachers' instructions under six categories are presented with respect to formal and functional aspects. The frequencies related to each category are demonstrated in tables, and finally illustrated through excerpts from the data.

4.1. Syntactic Forms in Teachers' Oral Instructions

The examination of the data comprising of 107 teacher oral instructions has revealed that the teachers have used five types of structures while issuing instructions: 'direct imperatives', 'let's imperatives', 'questions', 'declaratives' and 'elliptical forms' (see Table 4.1.). Out of 107 instructions, instructions in the form of 'direct imperatives' have been the most frequently used structure by teachers (38 %). "Declaratives" accounting for 27 %, 'elliptical forms' accounting for 18 % and 'questions' accounting for 11 % have been the other forms of instructions performed by teachers. Instructions in the form of 'let's imperatives' have been the least used structure by teachers (6 %). Each category will be described and exemplified by the relevant excerpts below.

Table.4.1. 'Syntactic' Distribution of Teachers' Instructions

Syntactic Categories	Tokens	%
Direct Imperatives	41	38,31
Declaratives	29	27,10
Elliptical Statements	19	17,75
Questions	12	11,21
Let's Imperatives	6	5,60
TOTAL	107	100

4.1.1. Direct Imperatives

An imperative sentence has an understood subject ‘You’ and the verb e.g. ‘*shut*’ is in the simple form (Fraser, 1996). It can be used to give directions, orders e.g. ‘*Turn right at the corner*’ / ‘*Shut the door*’. Direct Imperatives can also be used to make a polite request, when the word “please” is added e.g. ‘*Please, shut the door*’. In this study, of the total 107 instructions observed in 8 ELT classrooms, direct imperatives are the most commonly used structures performed by teachers accounting for 38 % as illustrated in Table 4.1. Excerpts 1, 2 and 3 exemplify teachers’ instructions which are in the form of direct imperative. See Appendix 1 for the rest of the direct imperatives samplings.

Excerpt 1:

18* T :*Some problems are difficult to solve. “Put two and two together” we find the right answer. How do you say it in Turkish? ...It means that ...?*

19 SS :∅

20 T :***Look at the sentence. It is written there.***

In excerpt 1, the teacher provides an instruction (Turn no:20) in the form of a direct imperative to guide the students towards finding the related question following the lack of response from the class. Also in the next excerpt (excerpt 2), the teacher tries to create a context through the instruction (‘Think about the lottery’) in order to make the students to process the information more efficiently. Then, in order to direct the attention of the class to an example (‘look at the text...’), the teacher performs another instruction (Turn no:41).

Excerpt 2:

41 T :***Think about the lottery.****Piyango ona vurdu. “Lucky number came up”. So, as you see, all these are phrasal verbs and you can not understand them without the sentences. They are very common in use in English.....but more commonly used ones are phrasal verbs.*

Look at the text, for example the second line: “come up”. “Come up” is a phrasal verb .Do you have any questions related to the text?

42 SS :∅

Excerpt 3:

357 S : *Teacher, can we replace 'he' and 'does'?*

358 T : *NO. Because you are trying to build up a question form.*

359 S : *Okay.*

360 T : *Now, open page one hundred and forty-two.*

361 SS : *∅*

Finally, the instruction shown in excerpt 3, is a common example of how the teacher makes a clear and sharp shift into a new task effectively by means of a statement in the form of a direct imperative.

4.1.2. Declaratives

The term 'declarative' is used in the grammatical classification of sentence types, and usually seen in contrast to imperative, interrogative, etc. It refers to verb forms or sentence clause types typically used in the expression of statements, e.g. "The man is walking" (Crystal, 1997, p.104).

However, declaratives also have a different value in classroom contexts since they may be preferred by teachers in order to make polite attempts to get their students to do something (Holmes, 1992). Similarly, the participant teachers of the study tend to use instructions in the form of declaratives to address their students in a polite way and the results indicate that almost ¼ of the teachers' instructions (27 %) were realized in the form of 'declarative' sentence types as illustrated in Table 4.1.2. The second most frequently performed category in teachers' oral instructions which constitutes 'declaratives' have also been classified according to declarative sentence types set up in this work (see Table 4.1.2).

Table 4.1.2. Instructions as Declarative Sentences

Category No:	Types Of Declarative Sentences	Tokens	%	Sample Utterances
1	Modals <u>“have to”</u> <u>“should”</u> <u>“can”</u> <u>“need to”</u>	4 3 1 1	31,03	<i>“You have to focus on this part”</i> <i>“To say this sentence, you should find the reason first”</i> <i>“..., you can compare your answers with the person next to you”.</i> <i>“What you need to do is to give numbers to them”</i>
2	<u>“present simple”</u>	10	34,48	<i>“You have three minutes to complete all the sentences”</i>
3	<u>“be going to”</u>	5	17,24	<i>“In part four, we are going to fill in the gaps with the appropriate words”</i>
4	<u>“will”</u>	3	10,34	<i>“In the other part, you will ask the questions for the black written part”</i>
5	<u>“present cont.”</u>	2	6,89	<i>“You are just imagining...”</i>
Total Number of Declarative Sentences		29	100	

As it is seen in Table 4.1.2., instructions in different forms of declarative sentence types used by teachers demonstrate that teachers have mostly preferred statements in several tense forms: ‘present simple’(34 %), ‘be going to’(17 %), ‘will’(10 %) and ‘present continuous’(7 %) in order to express their demands to their

students. These instructions generally conveyed teachers' informing about an upcoming action which the teacher(s) expect students to take. Mostly used other declarative types which constitute the modal forms, such as; 'have to', 'should', 'can' and 'need to' also reach a high proportion (31 %). Excerpts 9.10 and 11 represent teachers' choice about using declarative sentences. The rest of the instructions in the form of 'declarative' in the data may be seen in Appendix 1.

Excerpt 9:

66 T: *If you do not have a dictionary it is impossible for you to guess the meanings. So I am giving the definitions. Pick on means take; put away means sent to prison; pour down means rain; pop off means leave. Now exercise three. **You have to choose one of these phrasal verbs and fill in the blanks in the sentences in the four.***

(the teacher leaves the students for two minutes in order to make them practice the exercise.)

When you finish, you can compare answers with the person next to you.

67 SS: *Okay.*

The teacher explains what she wants the students to do through an instruction in the form of a declarative statement, starting with 'have to' to signal obligation in excerpt 9 above. Also, the second instruction is formulated with the use of modal 'can', which does not show 'ability' as suggested in the grammatical sense, but rather is used as a politeness marker in a request.

Excerpt 10:

132 T: *Let's read the passage and see what the real man is. In the passage find the ideas about what is the real man according to the passage "Good mothers-real men". **You have five minutes to go over the passage.** (Read the passage in five minutes)*

(Students read the passage for about five minutes.)

133T : *You liked the passage??*

134 SS: *Yees.*

135SS : *NOO.*

Besides excerpt 9, the teacher's declarative statement in turn 132 in excerpt 10 both provides information about the time, and also functions as an instruction to complete the task in five minutes.

Excerpt 11:

133 T : *You liked the passage??*

134 SS : *Yees.*

135 SS : *NOO.*

136 T : ***I will put a barrier between you.** (Stop talking)*

Finished? Did you like it?

137 SS : *Yes.*

This last excerpt is different from the previous excerpts in the sense that the teacher's use of declarative is an indirect way of warning.

4.1.3. Elliptical Statements

Halliday (1985) defines ellipsis as “substitution by zero”. Traditionally, items which undergo ellipsis are often described as understood elements. Ellipsis is very common within the sentence, but intersententially it is more frequent in spoken than in written text. For example, in the following sentence the verb phrase has not been used for the second time considering that the meaning is understood.

“This party is criticised for its lack of practicality, and that party [] for its lack of humanity.” (Bloor, 1988,p.7.) *is criticised*

Coulthard and Montgomery (1981) also defines these elliptical items as ‘moodless’ items which also relates to the category identified in this study.

While analyzing the syntactic forms of teachers' oral instructions, apart from four structures –direct imperatives, let's imperatives, questions and declaratives- , another structure has emerged from the data accounting for 18 % (see Table 4.1) and it has been labelled as ‘elliptical forms’. Excerpts 12, 13 and 14 below illustrate teachers' instructions in elliptical forms.

Excerpt 12:

220 T : *Okay. **Back to the passage.** (Let's go back to the passage)*

Are there any unknown words?

221 S : *"In fact?"*

222 T : *It is a conjunction. In the sentence it says: "In fact, he does not generally unpack the bags."*

The teacher directs the students to turn back to the passage by means of elliptical statement dropping the verb complement from the sentence.

Excerpt 13:

726 T : *Now, we are going to read about an essay. **Page eight.** (Open page eight.)*

727 SS : $\emptyset$ *(students open the page.)*

'Page eight' appears to be focusing attention on the next task and helping the students where they are going.

Excerpt 14:

802 S : *What is 'crazy'?*

803 T : *crazy?? (she uses her body gestures to define 'crazy', then she realizes that one of the students is doing the wrong part.)*

*(Erkan), **not that part!** (Do not look at that part!)*

Unlike excerpts 12 and 13, this last excerpt (excerpt 14) involves a warning made by the teacher's use of an instruction in the elliptical form, dropping the main verb. The reasons for using oral instructions in elliptical forms may be the concern that the teachers want to use time efficiently. The rest of the instructions which are in the form of elliptical forms and what kind of tasks or parts they generally point can be seen in Appendix 1 (part e.).

4.1.4. Questions

Questions are used to ask for information by using a question word (Fraser, 1996). A question is an expression of inquiry that invites or calls for reply. However, in some cases, the speaker's intention in posing the question may not be to elicit a yes/no answer, but to elicit a certain action or non-verbal behavior. For instance, Thomas (1987) tells how she asked a Russian student to read by saying "Would you like to read?" and the student replied "No!". The student had misinterpreted the teacher's question as a request for information rather than understanding it as a polite instruction to read.

As it is seen in the above example, grammatical forms do not generally correspond to communicative intent. Interpretations of these forms can be derived from the culturally understood rights and obligations of classroom participants. In this study, it has been noticed that teachers use a great number of questions during the lessons. These questions include 'yes-no questions' and 'wh- questions'. However, our concern with the questions in this study is limited to instructions provided in the form of a question. Therefore, 'yes-no questions' and 'wh- questions' are not analyzed because they require the students' verbal responses which oblige the addressees to produce an answer (Gomez, 2000). This type of verbal behavior is also identified as an 'elicitation' in Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) taxonomy, which is characterized by a request for a verbal response only. In contrary to this, when a student is given an instruction, she/he is expected to comply with that required behavior rather than verbal response.

While analyzing teachers' oral instructions which are in the forms of questions, types of the questions have also been revealed out by examining the structures of those questions performed by teachers. Two types of questions have been found out by searching teachers' instructions and these are : 'modal questions' such as 'would', 'can', 'could', 'shall' and 'yes-no questions' (see Table 4.1.4). Except modal questions, the only two cases of question forms are also observed to be elliptical in form. ELT teachers at Foreign Language Department in □ukurova University have used twelve instructions in the form of questions and the distribution of question types are as follows in Table 4.1.4.

Table 4.1.4. Instructions as Questions

Types Of Questions	Sample Utterances	Tokens	%
Yes-No Questions (Elliptical Forms)	<i>Ready? (Are you ready?)</i> <i>Ready?</i>	2	16,66
Modal Questions	<i>Can you see page eight?</i> <i>Could you write that?</i> <i>Shall we pass to the phrasal verbs?</i> <i>Would you focus on that page, please?</i>	10	83,33
Total Number of Questions		12	100

In addition to types of the questions, the results of the data analysis have showed that out of 107 teachers' oral instructions, teachers perform 11% of all the instructions in the form of questions in order to make the students comply with the required behaviors (see Table 4.1). In the following excerpts (excerpts 6,7 and 8), the teachers state their demands and expect their students to comply for the actions to take by using instructions in the form of questions. None of these questions are aimed to elicit an answer, but to elicit an action or to provide compliance.

Excerpt 6:

11 T : *We're going to start with the idiomatic expressions. I'll tell the page number.*

Don't worry.

12 SS : $\emptyset$

13 T : ***Would you focus on that page please?*** (*Look at the page*)

14 SS : $\emptyset$

The teacher wants the students to look at the page; she does not expect a verbal response. Although her utterance is in the form of a 'question' ; it is just a directive for students to comply for the required behavior. Additionally, a sentence adverb, namely 'please' which functions as a marker of politeness is used.

Excerpt 7:

43 T : *Shall we pass to the phrasal verbs? (Let's read the passage.)*

44 SS : $\emptyset$

45 T : *Number one. For example, first one. "I ran into my teacher last night." Think about 'run' and 'into'; there is no relationship, but when they come together 'run into' mean 'meet'.*

As in excerpt 6, excerpt 7 also underlies that the teacher neither wants permission nor asks a question; she just tries to make them ready for the following task.

Excerpt 8:

779T: *Some students like wearing uniforms, but some do not. Okay, you finished the first paragraph. Now, we are reading that. (The teacher reads the sentence.) This is my introduction paragraph. **Could you write that?** (Teacher wants the students to write the introduction paragraph from the board.)*

780 SS : $\emptyset$

781 T : *Now, we are starting our first body paragraph. The topic sentence of the first paragraph. What should be a topic sentence for the advantage sentence?*

782 SS : $\emptyset$

The instruction in the question form used in excerpt 8 is a polite and indirect way of the teacher's demand from the students. The teacher wants the students to write the introduction paragraph from the board. Edwards and Westgate (1994) comment that 'indirectness' is a very important feature of classroom talk because it softens the tone of teacher's control by giving commands, the form of questions (e.g. Are you listening?) or requests (e.g. Would you please...?) or statements (Someone is being very silly.).

4.1.5. Let's Imperatives

Let's imperatives are statements to make suggestions to the addressee or addressees (Fraser, 1996) and in classrooms teachers seem to create an in-group identity, thus a more friendly atmosphere in the classrooms by using 'let's

imperatives'. Let's imperatives which enable the speaker to make suggestions to perform a mutual action with the hearer have also been detected in cases in our data. Out of 107 teachers' oral instructions, 6 % of them comprises 'let's imperatives' (see Table 4.1.). Instructions in the form of 'let's imperatives' are seen in excerpts 4 and 5 below (also see the rest of the samples in Table 4.1.5).

Excerpt 4:

132 T : *Let's read the passage and see what the real man is. In the passage find the ideas about what is the real man according to the passage "Good mothers-real men". You have five minutes to go over the passage.*

(Students read the passage for about five minutes.)

133 T : *You liked the passage??*

134 SS : *Yees.*

135 SS : *NOO.*

Excerpt 5:

541 T : *In the box, as you see there are some phrases and verbs. We are going to put these phrases and verbs according to these three verbs.*

542 SS : $\emptyset$

543 T : *If you look at the first example, "travel" ...Travel on your own.*

544 SS : $\emptyset$

545 T : *Let's look at one by one. (Let's do the exercise one by one)*

546 SS : $\emptyset$

Table 4.1.5. Instructions in the form of ‘Let’s Imperatives’

	Sample Utterances	Tokens	%	Total Number Of Instructions
Let’s Imperatives	-Let’s go on! -Okay, let’s go! -Let’s go on! -Now, let’s remember about verb to be. -Let’s look at one by one. -Let’s read the passage and see what the real man is.	6	5,60	107

4.2. Analysis Regarding ‘Quality’

In this section of the study, teachers’ instructions are classified into two classes as ‘positive instructions’ and ‘negative instructions’. Positive instructions refer to instructions which are phrased to prompt the student behavior (e.g. “*Please sit down*”) (Atwater & Morris, 1988). On the other hand, negative instructions” denote to instructions which are phrased to suppress student behavior (e.g. “*Stop running around the room*” (Atwater & Morris, 1988). The data of this study include various positive and negative instructions as seen in Excerpts 14 and 15 below (See also Table.4.2).

Table.4.2. Teachers’ Instructions Regarding ‘Quality’

Categories Regarding ‘Quality’	Tokens	%
Positive Instructions	102	95,32
Negative Instructions	5	4,67
Total	107	100

a) Positive Instructions

The aim of the positive instruction is to prompt student behavior. Excerpts 14 and 15 illustrate teachers' desire to create some positive behaviors in students. Of the 107 instructions, positive instructions account for %95 and this result may show that in adult classes teachers prefer using positive instructions in order to create positive behaviour in students rather than to suppress their students' behaviours which may end in students' failure.

Excerpt 14:

966 T : *We are going to listen to these two men's conversation. **Listen to this conversation.** "Two people are at the bus-stop. They are talking. Tell your partner about these questions" (The teacher reads this instruction from the book). Okay, I want you to focus on these questions. ...**Please, take a piece of paper and take some notes.***

967 SS : ∅

Excerpt 15:

431 S : *Introduce?*

432 T : *Introducing ourselves. Yes. We use them in telling about physical features and features of non-alive things. For example: I am good. Okay, what is the difference between "I am good" and "I am fine"? **Yes, please now you build up sentences.***

b) Negative Instructions

Negative instructions are used to suppress undesired behaviors of students' by teachers and in this study negative instructions are used less than positive ones. Out of 107 teachers' oral instructions, 5 of them are negative and the rest of them are positive. Following excerpts (16 and 17) signify the reasons for using negative instructions by teachers in ELT classes. For example in excerpt 16, the teacher has uttered the negative instruction (turn 136) to warn two students to stop talking during the lesson. The teacher's discourse represent a very indirect way of warning. However, unlike excerpt 16, excerpt 17 represents the teachers' direct way of forbidding using native language in the class.

Excerpt 16:

133 T : *You liked the passage?*

134 SS : *Yeess.*

135 SS : *Nooo.*

136 T : ***I will put a barrier between you.** (Stop talking!)*

Excerpt 17:

639 T : *So, what does “holiday package” mean?*

640 S : *With a tour. You plan. You go some places on certain days.*

Planlamayı...

641 T : ***We do not have to translate it into Turkish!** (Don’t translate it into Turkish!)*

642 S : $\emptyset$

Results of the analysis regarding quality have indicated that ELT teachers use positive instructions to prompt students’ behavior and negative instructions to suppress students’ behavior. High percentage of teachers’ instructions (95 %) serve for positive instructions in order to prompt the students’ behavior, whereas low amount (5%) serve for negative instructions in order to suppress the students’ behavior. The reason of using low amount of negative instructions by teachers may be the students’ being adults. If the students had been younger, may be the amount of using negative instructions by teachers had been increased or somewhat different.

4.3. Analysis Regarding ‘Content’

In this part, teachers’ instructions are analyzed according to their content as ‘task-related’ and ‘non-task’ based on Atwater and Morris (1988). ‘Task-related’ instructions include instructions which guide students’ performance of a task. On the other hand, ‘non-task’ instructions include teachers’ phrases which direct general classroom behavior. The data analysis have revealed that the teachers mostly use task-related instructions rather than non-task instructions as it is seen in Table 4.3. below. Out of 107 teachers’ instructions, 105 of them are task-related and 2 of them are accounting only for the non-task.

Table.4.3. Teachers' Instructions Regarding 'Content'

Categories Regarding 'Content'	Tokens	%
Task-related	105	98,13
Non-task	2	1,86
Total of Instructions	107	100

a) Task-related Instructions

In the following excerpts (18 and 19) , the aim of the teachers' instructions is to make the students to handle the activity or the task, rather than to control the classroom order. In brief, task-related instructions are fully related with the teaching process.

Excerpt 18:

283 T : *Look at the phrasal verbs and try to comprehend them.* (Everybody remains silent two minutes)

284 T : *Okay, how can you just complete these sentences?*

285 S : *Number one is 'tidy up'.*

Excerpt 19:

776 T : *...Okay write a thesis statement.*

(Students try to write a thesis statement)

777 T : *Okay, I am writing here: 'There are many advantages and disadvantages of wearing uniforms...*

b) Non-task Instructions

Non-task instructions involve managing students' behavior in the classroom rather than doing tasks or activities. In excerpt 20 below, the teacher warns two students to stop talking and the teacher's instruction is related with managing her class. In excerpt 21, the teacher states the students to stop doing the exercise and go out for break. None of the instructions in those excerpts are used for task –guiding.

Excerpt 20:

133 T : *You liked the passage??*

134 SS : *Yees.*

135 SS : *Noo.*

136 T : ***I will put a barrier between you.*** (The teacher warns two students to stop talking.)

The instruction performed in this excerpt shows the teacher's concern about two disruptive students who were continuously talking during the task; therefore the aim of the instruction is to manage the control of the students and it is non-task.

Excerpt 21:

1004 T : *First one. Can you give me your phone number? I have lost my ...?*

1005 S : *Address book.*

1006 T : *Yes. **Take a break**, after the break we will go on.*

'Take a break' is also another non-task instruction since its aim is to inform the students that the task is finished. The participant teachers of the study have performed task-related instructions with the percentage of 98, whereas they have used non-task instructions accounting for 2 %.

4.4. Analysis Regarding 'Recipient'

Recipient Analysis involves the identification of whether the teachers address their instructions to individuals, pairs, groups or the whole class. The results of the recipient analysis have shown that the participant teachers employ their instructions to three target recipients: whole class (88%), individuals (11%), pair (1%). In addition to these determinations, it has been observed that none of the instructions has been addressed to a group or groups (-). Recipient categories of teachers' instructions and their distributions are seen in Table 4.4. below.

Table.4.4. Teachers' Instructions Regarding 'Recipient'

Recipient Categories	Tokens	%
Whole Class	94	87,85
Individual	12	11,21
Pair	1	0,93
Group	–	–
Total	107	100

a) Instructions Addressing to Individuals

It has been observed that twelve instructions out of one hundred and seven teachers' instructions were addressed to individuals (11%). In examples 22 and 23 below, teachers address their instructions to individuals.

Excerpt 22:

808 S : ...*teacher, what is drug?*

809 T : *Look, this is a story. I mixed up the sentences. Try to link them semantically.*(the teacher wants the students infer the meaning of the words and sentences semantically)

810 S : *What is 'addicted to'?*

Excerpt 23:

851 T : So, this could be number??? What did you do as your number?

852 S : I think firstly he had an accident, then he saw the advertisement.

853 T : *To say this sentence, you should find the reason.*

854 S : ∅

Both excerpts above are addressed to different individuals to help them to find the correct answers about the task. Besides, the teacher try to give clues to the students to find the targeted subject.

b) Instructions Addressing to Pairs

Throughout the whole data, only one instruction has been addressed to a pair implying that pairwork activities are not generally held in these classes. The mentioned

case has a purpose of classroom management rather than a task assignment by issuing a declarative sentence instead of using a direct warning such as “Stop talking!”.

(Excerpt 24 below).

Excerpt 24

133 T : *You liked the passage??*

134 S : *Yees.*

135 S : *Noo.*

136 T : ***I will put a barrier between you.***

137 SS : $\emptyset$

c) Instructions Addressing to Groups

Results of the data analysis have indicated that there are not any instructions addressing to a group. It also indicates that groupwork activities have not been employed by the teachers during the classes.

d) Instructions Addressing to Whole Class

This part constitutes instructions directed to the whole class where teachers tell students what to do such as in Excerpts 25 and 26. Results of the recipient analysis of instructions have revealed that out of 107 number of teachers' instructions, 94 of them have been addressed to whole class.

Excerpt 25

292 T : *Now, here, **we are going to complete the conversation we learnt in the text....**Could you? Muzaffer?*

293 S : *lay the table.*

Excerpt 26

776 T : So this is the thesis statement of what you are going to write. A very good topic better than mine. ***I want everybody to write a thesis statement.*** Okay, alright go ahead. (students try to write a thesis statement for ten minutes)

4.5. Teachers' Oral Instructions as 'Classroom Acts'

Since 'instruction' is defined as "a verbal statement in which teacher informs a child or group of children of an observable behavior to be performed" (Atwater & Morris, 1988, p.159), it directly matches and realized in this study by three classroom acts 'directive', 'clue', 'prompt' which originally belong to Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) classroom act taxonomy. The data analysis has revealed that 95 of 107 (89,32 %) teachers' instructions carry the directive function. Apart from the directive function, instructions have also two other acts: prompt and clue. Out of 107 instructions, 7 instructions account for 'prompt' and 5 instructions account for 'clue'. The acts and the results can be seen in Table 4.5.below. In addition, these three classroom acts are defined and exemplified with relevant excerpts one by one below.

Table.4.5. Teachers' Instructions As Classroom Acts

Classroom Act Types	Tokens	%
Directive	95	88,78
Prompt	7	6,54
Clue	5	4,67
Total Number of Teachers' Instructions	107	100

4.5.1. 'Directive'

A 'directive' is "an utterance whose purpose is to get other people to do something" (Crystal, 1997, p.117). Sinclair and Coulthard also define 'directive' as "any utterance requesting a non-linguistic response" (1975, p.28). Teachers' oral instructions which have the directive function are described in the following excerpts (Excerpts 27, 28 and 29).

Excerpt 27

267 S : *What does 'give a hand'?*

268 T : *Help. Now, I will skip number five. **Look at part six.** In part six, there are different activities, but they are in a mixed order. Which one do we do first.*

269 SS : $\emptyset$

Excerpt 28

531 T : *You had an exam yesterday and your exam results are good.*

532 SS : *Yeah!*

533 T : Okay, anyway, last lesson we stopped on page twenty-two. So, ***open page twenty-two.***

534 SS : $\emptyset$

Excerpt 29

966 T : ***Listen to this conversation.***

(The students listen to the conversation and after a few minutes the teacher speaks again.)

967 T : *You are going to listen to it again. But before...*

All of the excerpts below (Excerpts 27,28 and 29) show us the teachers' concern about managing and controlling the students' upcoming actions and compliance for the tasks.

4.5.2. 'Clue'

“ Clue is a statement, question, command, or moodless item, subordinate to the head of the initiation which provides additional information to help the pupil answer the elicitation or comply with the directive” (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, p.38). Apart from directives, teachers' instructions may also be realized as 'clues' regarding classroom acts. Teachers' instructions serving for clues may be seen in the following excerpts (Excerpts 30, 31 and 32).

Excerpt 30

18 T : *...How do you say it in Turkish?....It means that...?*

19 SS : $\emptyset$

20 T : ***Look at the sentence. It is written there.***

Excerpt 31

39 T : *Yes, another one is here. How do you translate it? I guess her lucky number came up.*

40 SS : ∅

41 T : ***Think about the lottery.***

42 SS : ∅

Excerpt 32

799 S : *Is it a full story?*

800 T : *Yes, so **think about the sentences before ordering them.***
(the students begin to do the exercise)

In fact, the instructions in three excerpts seem that they carry the directive act; however the context and the content of the exchange reveals that they are instructions which have the function of clue. Because through these clues, the teachers provide additional information to the student(s) to help them think, find the correct answers and do the tasks successfully. In all these three cases, the teachers are giving clues to their students by their instructions in order to make them find the right idea and to do the exercise correctly.

4.5.3. ‘Prompt’

‘Prompt’ is one of the classroom acts which have been designed as a classroom talk taxonomy by Sinclair and Coulthard and ‘prompts’ are defined as “utterances which are always realized by commands suggesting that the teacher is not requesting, but expecting or demanding” (e.g. “go on”, “come on” , “hurry up”...) (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, p.38). Below, teachers’ instructions which have the function of “prompt” may be seen in Excerpts 33, 34 and 35.

Excerpt 33

776 T : ...*I want everybody to write this essay. I want everybody to write a thesis statement. Okay, allright, **Go ahead!*** (The teacher wants students to write a thesis statement for the second time; she is demanding)

Excerpt 34

776 T : ***Be quick!!*** (The teacher wants students to write a thesis statement for the third time).

Excerpt 35

853 T : *To say this sentence, you should find the reason.*

854 SS : ∅

855 T : ***Just go on and finish.*** (The teacher wants the students to complete writing the thesis statement as soon as possible.)

The common aim of the three prompts performed by teachers below is to reinforce the students to do the tasks which have already been required a few times.

4.6. Teachers' Oral Instructions as Speech Acts

According to Searle's Speech Act Taxonomy, utterances carry one of five main acts, namely : 'representative' , 'directive' , 'commissive' , 'expressive' and 'declarative'. Searle employed a great number of sub-categories for these speech acts e.g. 'Representative' speech act includes the acts of *asserting, concluding* and *claiming*. 'Directive' includes the acts of *ordering, begging, commanding, requesting, warning, urging, forbidding...* etc. 'Commissive' includes *promising, vowing, pledging, alliance*. 'Expressive' includes *thanking, apologizing, congratulating* and *condoling*. 'Declarative' includes *declaring peace, christening a baby, firing an employee* and so on.

The definition of 'instruction' only corresponds to one of the main speech act categories 'directive' ; however a great number of directive's sub –categories put forward by Searle has shed light to teachers' instructions by revealing their speech act functions. Results of the data analysis have implied that teachers' oral instructions carry

the sub-category acts of the main category ‘directive’, namely ‘*commanding*’ (61%), ‘*requesting*’(14%) , ‘*urging*’ (10%), ‘*suggesting*’(11%) , ‘*warning*’ (3%) and ‘*forbidding*’(1%) (see Table 4.6) .

Table.4.6. Teachers’ Instructions As Speech Acts

Sub-Categories of “Directive”	Tokens	%
Commanding	65	60,74
Requesting	15	14,01
Suggesting	12	11,21
Urging	11	10,28
Warning	3	2.80
Forbidding	1	0,93
Total number of instructions	107	100

The following examples from the data (Excerpts 36–51) illustrate a series of speech act functions which are realized through the participant teachers’ use of oral instructions.

4.6.1. ‘Commanding’

Commanding is the act of “ordering with authority” (Vanderveken, 1990, p.194). In this study, teachers’ oral instructions have also been examined regarding speech act functions and among several speech act functions, teachers’ instructions have only one to one correspondence with ‘directive’ speech act. Directives have a variety of sub-categories and commanding has been one of the speech act functions which teachers’ oral instructions carry in this study. According to the results of the data analysis, 65 of 107 teachers’ oral instructions (61%) carry the act of commanding (see Table 4.6). Teachers’ instructions which carry the speech act function of ‘command’ are given in the following excerpts (Excerpts 36, 37 and 38). In excerpts 36,37 and 38, teachers give instructions functioning as commands.

Excerpt 36

472 T : *Okay, this part. Unit fourteen. That part. Match the questions with the answers.*

473 S : *What is 'burn'?*

Excerpt 37

837 T : *Was he a skydiver from childhood?*

838 S : *No.*

839 T : *Look at the first sentence.*

840 SS : $\emptyset$

Excerpt 38

994 T : (The teacher reads sentences in 'there is' and 'there are' from the book and wants the students to fill in the exercise)

Complete the sentences with "there is" and "there are". (The students begin to do the exercise)

995 SS : $\emptyset$

4.6.2. 'Requesting'

A request expresses "a desire for the addressee to do a certain thing and normally aims for the addressee to intend to, and actually do that thing" (Vanderveken, 1990, p.194). In excerpts 39, 40 and 41, teachers request the students to do the tasks and to focus on the task. Like the forms seen in excerpts 40 and 41 samplings, Searle (1979) suggests that 'can you', 'could you', 'I want you to' and numerous other forms are conventional ways of making requests.

Excerpt 39

432 T : *Yes, please now you build up sentences.*

433 SS : $\emptyset$ (The students begin to write some sentences)

Excerpt 40

537 T : Ready?

538 SS : Yees.

539 T : Yes. If you look at the first part, vocabulary part, we have three verbs:
travel, get, go on. *Can you find that?* (Please look at that page)

540 SS : ø (The students find the page)

Excerpt 41

966 T : *I want you to focus on these questions.* (The teacher reads some questions and wants the students to take some notes on these questions while listening.)

4.6.3. 'Urging'

'Urging' is similar to 'prompt' which is a category of classroom acts and has also been used as a category for instructions in this study in part 4.5 in the sense that it is a speech act by which "the speaker demands something from the hearer, further the speaker insists on the hearer to do something" (Vanderveken, 1990, p.195). In this study, it has been observed that the participant teachers urge their students about the tasks and out of 107 instructions, 11 of them (10%) carry the urging act (see Table 4.6). In the following excerpts (42, 44), teachers insist on making the students participate in the lesson or for the tasks. However, in excerpt 43, the student tries to get the answers from the teacher; therefore the teacher gets angry and insists on his doing the activity on his own.

Excerpt 42

512 T : *Ready? Can we start?*

513 SS : ø

514 T : *Okay, can we start?* (the teacher urges the students to draw attention to the task for the third time).

515 SS : ø

Excerpt 43

802 S : *What is 'crazy'?*

803 T : *crazy? (Erkan), not that part (Erkan), you have to focus on this part.*

804 S : *I have some problem.*

805 T : ***Try to understand.*** (A student has difficulty in handling the task, however he insists on asking questions to the teacher in order to learn the answers.)

Excerpt 44

851 T : *So, this could be number?? What did you do as your number?*

852 S : *I think firstly he had an accident, then he saw the advertisement.*

853 T : *To say this sentence, you should find the reason first.*

854 SS : $\emptyset$

855 T : *Now, try it again. **On your own, try it again*** .(The teachers urges the student to find the reason of the sentence related with the task, however the student resists to do the task on his own.)

4.6.4. Suggesting

Suggesting is the act of “bringing up an idea through mention of something connected or related with it” (Vanderveken, 1990, p.196). The results of the analysis concerning speech act categories by which teachers’ oral instructions are realized have shown that 12 of 107 (11%) instructions convey the suggesting act. After ‘commanding’ and ‘requesting’, ‘suggesting’ is one of the most realized speech act category through instructions.

Excerpt 45

66 T : (The teacher leaves the students for two minutes in order to make them practice the exercise)***When you finish, you can compare answers with the person next to you.***

Excerpt 46

806 S : *Teacher? Skydiving?*

807 T : *Try to understand. There is some issue there. **You should read all the sentences first.** There is a family there.(The teacher begins to give a short explanation)*

Excerpt 47

808 S : *Teacher, what is drug?*

809 T : *Look, this is a story. I mixed up the sentences. **Try to link them semantically.***

4.6.5. Warning

“To warn someone to do something is to suggest that he/she do it, while presupposing that it would be bad for him/her not to do it” (Vanderveken, 1990, p.197). One of the speech act categories which is also realized by teachers’ instructions in this study is ‘warning’. Unlike the other categories, the speech act of warning has been one of the two leastly realized categories through teachers’ instructions (3%). The reason of teachers’ using warning statements less for controlling the class than the other categories may be the level of the classes. On the other hand, teachers seem to use the warning act in order to lead the students to the correct task and to organize the flow of the task (excerpts 49 and 50). Out of 107 instructions, only 3 of them convey the warning speech act (see Table 4.6).

Excerpt 48

133 T : *You liked the passage??*

134 SS : *Yees.*

135 SS : *Noo.*

136 T : ***I will put a barrier between you.***

Excerpt 49

803 T : ***not that part!***

Excerpt 50

853 T : *To say this sentence, you should find the reason first.*

4.6.6. Forbidding

“To forbid a hearer to do something is just to order him not to do it” (Vanderveken, 1990, p.195). According to the results of the data analysis, ‘forbidding’ is one of the speech act category which an instruction can also convey and it is the least realized (0,97%) speech act category in this study (see Table 4.6). Out of 107 teachers’ instructions, only 1 of them carries the act of forbidding (excerpt 51). In the following excerpt, the teachers forbids the students to speak in their native language since one of the aims of those lessons is to make students to state themselves in the target language.

Excerpt 51

639 T : So *what does ‘package holiday’ mean?*

640 S : *With a tour. You plan. You go some place on certain days.* (The student begins to speak in Turkish and immediately the teacher forbids him to speak in his native language)

641 T : ***We do not have to translate it into Turkish.***

The Speech Act Analysis of the data has implied that out of 107 teachers’ instructions, 63 of them carry the function of “commanding” , 14 of them have the ‘requesting’ function, 12 instructions accounting for ‘ suggesting’ function, 10 of them serve as ‘ urging’ function, 3 instructions embody ‘warning’ function and lastly only 1 instruction serves for ‘forbidding’ speech act. (See Table 4.6)

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION & DISCUSSION

5.0.Introduction

This study mainly focuses on investigating and describing the forms, classroom act functions and speech act functions of ELT teachers' oral instructions at Foreign Language Center in Çukurova University. In order to obtain the data for this study, eight female instructors teaching English for level 2 classes were tape-recorded during their 45-minute lessons. After transcribing the data, all the instructions performed by the teachers were analyzed regarding their forms and functions. 'Form' is concerned with syntactic structure up to the sentence level whereas 'function' is concerned with the utterances' purpose-i.e.what the utterance is meant to achieve (Scott, 2002). In order to analyze the forms of the teachers' oral instructions, categories put forward by Atwater & Morris (1988); namely 'syntax', 'content', 'quality' and 'recipient' were used. Besides, sub-categories of the mentioned categories were also applied. Sub-categories used for the analysis of 'syntax' in this study are '*direct imperatives*', '*declaratives*', '*questions*' and '*let's imperatives*'. Since another form was identified in the data, namely '*elliptical form*', it was also added to the analysis of syntax. In the 'content' analysis part, teachers' oral instructions have been examined according to two sub-categories: '*task-related instructions*' and '*non-task instructions*'. This part aims to reveal the kinds of purposes that teachers' instructions serve for and consequently pedagogical functions realized through these instructions. 'Quality' which constitutes one part of the analysis of the study has two subcategories; namely '*positive instructions*' and '*negative instructions*'. The reason of analyzing teachers' oral instructions regarding 'quality' is to bring out the types of behaviors aimed to perform by students through teachers' instructions. Apart from those categories, recipients of teacher' oral instructions have also been examined. The sub-categories of recipients have been coded as '*whole class*', '*individuals*', '*pair*' and '*group*'. In order to reveal the functions of teachers' oral instructions, classroom acts put forward by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and speech act categories put forward by Searle (1975) were used.

This chapter also aims to evaluate answers to six research questions and the results regarding each question are as follows:

5.1. Evaluation of the Research Questions

Research question 1: *What are the syntactic forms of teachers' oral instructions?*

The analysis of the data have shown that teachers' oral instructions are performed in five different types of syntactic forms, namely 'direct imperatives', 'declaratives', 'elliptical forms', 'questions' and 'let's imperatives'. Among these, the most frequent syntactic form usage has been 'direct imperatives' (38%). The second frequent type, on the other hand, is 'declaratives' with the percentage of 27%. The analysis shows that the usage of other three forms are less frequent: elliptical forms 17%, questions 11% and let's imperatives 6%.

To specify the results, the high frequency of teachers' preference in employing *direct imperatives* seems to reflect the teachers' authoritative standing and i.e. dominance over the students. Holmes (1992) suggests that teachers use very direct expressions of their meaning because of their high status relative to their students and she adds "where status differences are clearly marked and accepted, superiors tend to use *imperatives* to subordinates" (p.291). However, we suggest that "direct imperatives" might have been preferred for the sake of clarity and time efficiency.

As the second category *declaratives*, they may be indirect means of providing instructions as the teacher describes a specific context from which students are expected to deduce the implied instructions. For example: "I will put a barrier between you" (Turn no: 136). Issuing this instruction, the teacher warns the students indirectly and the students deduce the real meaning and stop talking. Apart from this reason, there may be several reasons in issuing instructions in the form of declaratives, such as in order to give detailed information to students about the tasks; in order to make them succeed such as in the following example in our data: "I want you to fill in the gaps with the correct form of "miss" or "loose" (Turn no: 1003). Other reason for using instructions in the form of declaratives may be the intention of signalling the expectation of the teacher about the tasks from all of her students. For example: "I want everybody to write this essay (Turn no: 776).

As the third category *elliptical form* detected in this study may show that teachers tend to use the time more efficiently by means of utilizing word-economy in their sentences (instructions). According to Holmes (1992), teachers can use minimally explicit forms and be confident in their relationships with their students.

Regarding the requests realized in the form of *questions* (Can you...?) constitute a small proportion of instructions in this study. It might be due to power asymmetries between the teacher and the students where the teacher does not need to choose the conventional ways of polite forms.

Finally, the *let's imperatives* as the last category examined in this section imply an in-group identity or “we” message constitute the smallest portion of the instructions. This finding also reflect that there is a low level of asymmetrical relationship and it may seem that teachers keep a social distance between them and their students. As also stated by Holmes (1992), the choice of using different forms of instructions depend on their relative power or status and social distance.

Research Question 2: What types of behaviors are aimed in students as response to the teachers' oral instructions?

Considering types of behaviors which are aimed through teachers' oral instructions, the analysis has revealed out that there are two main aims:

- 1) To prompt students' behaviors
- 2) To suppress students' behaviors

Following Atwater's (1988) classification in this study, the instructions used to prompt students' behaviors are referred at as 'positive' while the ones used to suppress students' behaviors are named as 'negative' instructions. Analyzing the data, 102 positive instructions (95%) were determined out of 107 total teachers' oral instructions. The other five (5%) were negative instructions. The reason for the dominance of positive instructions may be participant teachers in the study teach adult classes where their objectives in giving instructions, are generally task-related. That is teachers generally give instructions to get non-verbal reactions or compliance for the tasks rather than to carry out non-task issues.

Research Question 3: What kind of pedagogical functions do teachers' instructions carry?

The data has also been analyzed to find out the teachers' aims for giving instructions and pedagogical functions that those instructions may carry. Firstly, the results indicate that 98% of instructions are task-related whereas 2% of them are non-

task. The reason of using high proportion of task-related instructions may be that students are adults who might not need to receive non-task instructions, such as; warning the class to be quiet... which younger students need more frequently.

Regarding pedagogical functions of the teachers' instructions in this study, a variety of purposes in using instructions have been observed:

a) to signal transitions between tasks, i.e. to start, to continue or to end a task.

For example : *"Look at part six"* (Turn no: 268)

"Now, order them" (Turn no: 281)

"Take a break" (Turn no: 1006)

b) to provide clues or further explanations for the students about the tasks.

For example : *"Think about 'run' and 'into'"* (Turn no: 45)

"Think about your parents" (Turn no: 114)

"You have to choose one of these phrasal verbs and fill in the blanks in the sentences in the four" (Turn no: 66)

c) to direct/to control the students' misbehavior & general class behavior.

For example : *"I will put a barrier between you"* (Turn no: 136)

"Take a break" (Turn no: 1006)

d) to give messages in a clear way.

For example : *"Open page eight"* (Turn no: 726)

"In the other part, you will ask the questions for the black written part" (Turn no: 510)

e) to express obligations or principles in handling tasks.

For example : *"You have five minutes to go over the passage"* (Turn no: 132)

"We do not have to translate it into Turkish" (Turn no: 641):

f) to monitor and guide the manner of students.

For example : *"Okay, alright, go ahead!"* (Turn no: 776)

"Be quick!" (Turn no: 776)

Research Question 4: To whom are the teachers' oral instructions addressed?

Regarding the addressee(s) of the teachers' oral instructions, the analysis indicates three main target population: whole class, pair and individual. The most frequent one is whole class instructions with 87%, 12 of them were directed to individuals and only 1% was for a pair. However, there was no instruction targeted towards groups. Since the teachers were usually tutoring the whole class and were rarely having individual activities, they mainly used whole class instructions. In the lessons observed there was neither group activity nor pair work. The only instruction which was delivered to one pair was non-task since its aim was to stop two students' talking.

Research Question 5: What kind of classroom acts do teachers' instructions convey?

Analyzing the data in regard to classroom acts, three types of acts have been observed in the study among the classroom acts determined by Sinclair & Coulthard (1975): 'directives', 'prompts' and 'clues'. Although these three categories have different labels, they seem to compliment each other. Through instructions, the most frequently used speech act type was 'directives' with the percentage of 88%. Prompts (7%) and clues (5%) were far less frequent ones.

As the first classroom act category, which has been realized mostly by issuing instructions in this study, namely 'directive' is "an act the function of which is to request a non-linguistic response is simply an acknowledgement that one is listening" (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, 28). Parallel to its definition, there may be several intentions of teachers' in posing the directives, such as; mainly to direct the class non-verbal behavior which include introducing the subjects, making the students focus on the tasks, describing the steps of the tasks clearly and impeding the students' misbehavior. Regarding the results of the study, teachers' high preference of directives may be due to their concern about using the limited classroom time more efficiently and be sure about giving the messages in a very clear way that students can comprehend the tasks easily.

Although the other two classroom act categories 'prompt' and 'clue' are different individual acts rather than directives, both of them supplement the compliance with the directives. 'Prompt' reinforces the directives and in our study the instructions which convey the act of 'prompt' seem to be used to encourage the students to do the

tasks. In addition, this act seem to provide psychological and motivational support to the students.

As the last classroom act category, ‘clue’ which has also been revealed in performing instructions seem to facilitate and support the performance of students’ efforts to the targeted behavior.

Research Questions 6: What kind of speech acts do teachers’ instructions convey?

As for the speech acts, teachers’ instructions convey six types of speech acts. These are commanding (61%), requesting (14%), urging (10%), suggesting (11%), warning (3%) and forbidding (1%). In fact, speech acts are also types of verbal acts like classroom acts. However, they are not constrained by the classroom situation. However, while the classroom acts are defined in terms of classroom objectives, speech acts bear the illocutionary force in a wider social and psychological context. Speech acts detected in our data are; commanding, requesting, urging, suggesting, warning and forbidding.

To specify, teachers in our study have preferred ‘commanding’ which is the most straightforward type of directive with the highest frequency. This type of speech act not only helps the teacher provide clear-cut instructions, but also reflects the power asymmetries which signify the central role of the teacher.

The second speech act category, which has been realized by performing instructions, is ‘requesting’. The function of requesting is to express someone’s demand from the other people and it is a marker of politeness. Little usage of requests by the teachers in the study seem to indicate power asymmetries between teachers and students again.

‘Urging’ and ‘suggesting’ have been the other speech act types employed by issuing instructions. Both of them are directives, however the former member is presented with more strength than the latter. The participant teachers seem to employ urging and suggesting in order to encourage the students to do the tasks and foster their thinking.

The last two classroom act categories ‘warning’ and ‘forbidding’ have been the least realized acts through instructions. This result may be due to the students’ being adults, so that teachers do not need to warn the students or forbid some behaviors most of the time.

This study attempts to present a thorough analysis of form and function of teachers’ oral instructions in ELT classes of adult students. Regarding the ‘form’,

teachers mostly perform instructions in ‘direct imperatives’ and ‘declaratives’. Following these structures, mostly preferred forms are ‘elliptical statements’, ‘questions’ and ‘let’s imperatives’. The second category, namely ‘quality’ (positive and negative instructions) analysis has showed that teachers mostly employ positive instructions to their students rather than negative ones; since the students population are adults so that they do not need to be addressed by so many non-task instructions. As the third category, ‘content’ of intructions reveals aims and pedagogical functions. They may be divided into two main categories: task-related and non-task. Task-related instructions serve for signalling transitions between tasks, providing clues or further explanations for the students about the tasks, giving messages in a clear way, expressing obligations or principles in handling tasks and monitoring about the tasks. On the other hand, non-task instructions serve for directing the students’ misbehavior and general classroom behavior. Regarding the ‘recipients’ of teachers’ instructions, teachers mostly address to the whole class. The results may show that group and pair works are not held in those classes.

From the functional aspect of view, teachers’ oral instructions convey a few classroom acts: directive, prompt, clue. Except classroom acts, speech acts which have been realized in issuing instructions are: commanding, requesting, urging, suggesting, warning and forbidding. All of these classroom acts and speech acts underlie the roles and the concerns of the teachers in the classes: to direct the class, to make the lessons flow clearly, to foster students’ thinking, to give clear-cut messages and to control students’ misbehavior.

5.2. Implications for ELT

Using directives (instructions) and performing speech acts in teacher talk in language teaching classrooms may provide several benefits on the part of teachers and students. First and the most important one is students’ acquisition of the targeted language since directives (*instructions*) and speech acts are two of the Ellis’s eight conditions which suggest that performing a high quantity of directives and a range of speech acts are central for language acquisition (Ellis, 1984). According to these conditions, students’ being exposed to variety of directives and speech acts usage performed by the teachers, students model these structures and use them easily.

Secondly, the clear and meaningful input is the keypoint in language teaching and learning. In this sense, instructions are one of the tools to give the input in a clear, simple, meaningful way to the learners. Without giving the input clearly, students' acquisition of the language can be hindered.

In respect to these, further studies investigating the types of *instructions* may provide educators with insight regarding the choice of instructions in the teaching process that are most effective (clear and comprehensible) on students' in the process of language learning. Also trying to determine any possible correlation between students' ages and the types of *instructions* may lead into an improvement in language teaching curriculum.

The results of the study may be shared with the novice teachers and may shed light on their choice of using some structures in their talk while addressing to their learners. In addition all the assessments compiled from this study and the similar studies, may be given in in-service trainings.

5.3. Suggestions for Further Research

Teachers' oral instructions may be studied considering different variables, such as teachers' gender, age and experience. This kind of study may reveal whether there are differences in the teachers' choice of instructions from the aspect of gender, age and experience.

Secondly, types of teachers' instructions may be studied regarding students' compliance and create a typology of instructions.

Finally, variations of instructions may be revealed according to the content of the lessons.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

***Lists of Teachers' Oral Instructions Regarding 'Syntactic' , 'Quality' , 'Content' and 'Recipient' Features**

1) Syntactic Analysis of Teachers' Oral Instructions

a) List of Direct Imperatives:

- 21 Come on! (Think about the word)
- 45 Think about 'run' and 'into'.
- 45 However, listen!
- 52 Think about that.
- 114 Think about your parents.
- 125 Okay, look at this page.
- 132 In the passage, find the ideas about what the real man is according to the
passage.
- 242 But, please while filling the gaps try not to look at the passage.
- 268 Look at part six.
- 281 Now, order them.
- 283 Now, look at these phrases.
- 283 Now, look at the phrasal verbs and try to comprehend them.
- 472 Match the questions with the answers.
- 533 So, open page twenty-two.
- 714 Okay, take this paper with you.
- 726 Open page eight.
- 776 Okay, write a thesis statement.
- 776 Okay, alright, go ahead!
- 776 Be quick!
- 800 So think about the sentences before ordering them.
- 805 Try to understand.
- 807 Try to understand.
- 809 Try to link them semantically.
- 839 Look at the first sentence.
- 841 Look at the second sentence.
- 855 Now, try it again.

- 855 On your own, try it again.
- 855 Just go on and finish.
- 872 Look at that kitchen.
- 932 Look at that picture.
- 961 Look at that first part.
- 966 Listen to this conversation.
- 966 Please, take a piece of paper and take some notes.
- 984 Look at there! (Look at that first part)
- 994 Complete the sentences with 'there is' and 'there are'.
- 1003 Look at exercise seven.
- 1006 Take a break.

b) List of Let's Imperatives:

- 23 Let's go on. (Let's do the exercise)
- 33 Okay, let's go! (Let's do the example)
- 37 Let's go on! (Let's do the next example)
- 132 Let's read the passage and see what the real man is.
- 428 Now, let's remember about verb "to be".
- 545 Let's look at one by one.

c) List of Declaratives:

- 66 You have to choose one of these phrasal verbs and fill in the blanks in the sentences in the four.
- 66 When you finish, you can compare answers with the person next to you.
- 132 You have five minutes to go over the passage.
- 136 I will put a barrier between you.
- 234 We have to read it from the beginning.
- 242 In part four, we are going to fill in the gaps with the appropriate words.
- 292 Now, here, we are going to complete the conversations we learnt in the text.
- 292 You are going to use just one word.
- 294 Okay, you have three minutes to complete all the sentences.
- 361 But, now we are just focusing on the first column.

- 387 Everybody will think about three questions and build up a wh-question to be asked to your partner.
- 432 Yes, please now you build up sentences.
- 510 In the other part, you will ask the questions for the black written part.
- 541 We are going to put these phrases and verbs according to these three verbs.
- 641 We do not have to translate it into Turkish.
- 770 I want your ideas.
- 726 Now, we are going to read an essay.
- 776 I want everybody to write this essay.
- 776 I want everybody to write a thesis statemnet.
- 777 Now, I want a supporting sentence.
- 798 What you need to do is to give numbers to them.
- 803 You have to focus on this part.
- 807 You should read all the sentences first.
- 813 You should infer and think logically.
- 853 To say this sentence, you shoul find the reason.
- 910 You are just imagining.
- 966 I want you to focus on these questions.
- 977 There is the tapescript.
- 1003 I want you to fill in the gaps with the correct form of “miss” or “loose”.

d) List of Questions:

- 13 Would you focus on that page, please?
- 43 Shall we pass to the phrasal verbs?
- 464 Can I collect them?
- 484 Shall we start?
- 484 Ready?
- 512 Ready?
- 512 Can we start?
- 514 Okay, can we start?
- 539 Can you find that?
- 728 Can you see page eight?
- 779 Could you write that?

968 Can you see that?

e) List of Elliptical Forms:

45 Number one.
 66 Now, exercise three.
 220 Back to the passage.
 224 Okay, the first paragraph.
 234 Third paragraph.
 236 Okay, the last paragraph.
 466 The reading passage.
 472 Okay, this part.
 472 Unit fourteen.
 472 That part.
 486 The first question.
 516 The first one.
 726 Page eight.
 803 Not that part. (Do not look at that part)
 930 The first unit.
 977 Here page one hundred and forty-eight.
 984 The first part.
 989 Exercise four.
 1004 First one.

2. Teachers' Instructions Regarding Quality

a) List of Positive Instructions:

13 Would you focus on that page, please?
 20 Look at the sentence.
 23 Let's go on.
 33 Let's go!
 37 Let's go on!
 41 Think about the lottery.
 41 Look at the text, for example the second line.
 43 Shall we pass to the phrasal verbs?
 45 Number one.

45 Think about 'run' and 'into'.
45 (However), listen!
52 Think about that.
66 You have to choose one of these phrasal verbs and fill in the blanks in the sentences in the four.
66 When you finish, you can compare answers with the person next to you.
66 Now, exercise three.
114 Think about your parents.
125 Okay, look at this page.
132 Let's read the passage and see what the real man is.
132 In the passage, find the ideas about what the real man is according to the passage.
132 You have five minutes to go over the passage.
220 Back to the passage.
224 Okay, the first paragraph.
234 Third paragraph.
234 We have to read it from the beginning.
242 (But) , please while filling the gaps try not to look at the passage.
242 In part four, we are going to fill in the gaps with the appropriate words.
268 Look at part six.
281 Now, order them.
283 Now, look at these phrases.
283 Now, look at the phrasal verbs and try to comprehend them.
292 Now, here we are going to complete the conversation we learnt in the text.
292 You are going to use just one word.
294 Okay, you have three minutes to complete all the sentences.
360 Now, open page one hundred and forty-two.
361 But, now we are just focusing on the first column.
387 Everybody will think about three questions and build up a wh-question to be asked to your partner.
428 Now, let's remember about verb 'to be'.
464 Can I collect them?
466 The reading passage.

- 472 Okay, this part.
- 472 Unit fourteen.
- 472 That part.
- 472 Match the questions with the answers.
- 484 Shall we start?
- 484 Ready?
- 486 The first question.
- 510 In the other part, you will ask the questions for the black written part.
- 512 Ready?
- 512 Can we start?
- 514 Okay, can we start?
- 516 The first one.
- 533 So, open page twenty-two.
- 539 Can you find that?
- 541 We are going to put these phrases and verbs according to these three verbs.
- 545 Let's look at one by one.
- 714 Okay, take this paper with you.
- 726 Open page eight.
- 726 Page eight.
- 728 Can you see page eight?
- 770 I want your ideas.
- 776 I want everybody to write a thesis statement.
- 776 Okay, alright, go ahead.
- 776 Be quick!
- 777 Now, I want a supporting sentence.
- 779 Could you write that?
- 798 What you need to do is to give numbers to them.
- 800 So, think about the sentences before ordering them.
- 805 Try to understand.
- 807 Try to understand.
- 807 You should read all the sentences first.
- 809 Try to link them semantically.
- 813 You should infer and think logically.

- 839 Look at the first sentence.
- 841 Look at the second sentence.
- 853 To say this sentence, you should find the reason.
- 855 Now, try it again.
- 855 On your own, try it again.
- 855 Just go on and finish.
- 872 Look at that kitchen!
- 910 You are just imagining.
- 930 The first unit.
- 932 Look at that Picture.
- 961 Look at that first part.
- 966 I want you to focus on these questions.
- 966 Listen to this conversation.
- 968 Can you see that?
- 977 There is the tapescript.
- 977 Here page one hundred and forty-eight.
- 984 Look at there!
- 984 The first part.
- 989 Exercise four.
- 994 Complete the sentences with 'there is' and 'there are'.
- 1003 Look at exercise seven.
- 1003 I want you to fill in the gaps with the correct form of 'miss' or 'loose'.
- 1004 First one.

b) List of Negative Instructions:

- 803 You have to focus on this part. (Do not look at the other part)
- 803 not that part.(Do not look at that part.)
- 1006 Take a break. (Stop doing the exercise)

3.Teachers' Instructions Regarding Content:

a) List of Task-related Instructions:

- 13 Would you focus on that page, please?
- 20 Look at the sentence.
- 23 Let's go on.

- 33 Let's go!
- 37 Let's go on!
- 41 Think about the lottery.
- 41 Look at the text, for example the second line.
- 43 Shall we pass to the phrasal verbs?
- 45 Number one.
- 45 Think about 'run' and 'into'.
- 45 (However), listen!
- 52 Think about that.
- 66 You have to choose one of these phrasal verbs and fill in the blanks in the sentences in the four.
- 66 When you finish, you can compare answers with the person next to you.
- 66 Now, exercise three.
- 114 Think about your parents.
- 125 Okay, look at this page.
- 132 Let's read the passage and see what the real man is.
- 132 In the passage, find the ideas about what the real man is according to the passage.
- 132 You have five minutes to go over the passage.
- 220 Back to the passage.
- 224 Okay, the first paragraph.
- 234 Third paragraph.
- 234 We have to read it from the beginning.
- 242 (But) , please while filling the gaps try not to look at the passage.
- 242 In part four, we are going to fill in the gaps with the appropriate words.
- 268 Look at part six.
- 281 Now, order them.
- 283 Now, look at these phrases.
- 292 You are going to use just one word.
- 294 Okay, you have three minutes to complete all the sentences.
- 360 Now, open page one hundred and forty-two.
- 361 But, now we are just focusing on the first column.
- 387 Everybody will think about three questions and build up a wh-question to be asked to your partner.

- 428 Now, let's remember about verb 'to be'.
- 432 Yes, please now you build up sentences.
- 464 Can I collect them?
- 466 The reading passage.
- 472 Okay, this part.
- 472 Unit fourteen.
- 472 That part.
- 472 Match the questions with the answers.
- 484 Shall we start?
- 484 Ready?
- 486 The first question.
- 510 In the other part, you will ask the questions for the black written part.
- 512 Ready?
- 512 Can we start?
- 514 Okay, can we start?
- 516 The first one.
- 533 So, open page twenty-two.
- 539 Can you find that?
- 541 We are going to put these phrases and verbs according to these three verbs.
- 545 Let's look at one by one.
- 641 We do not have to translate it into Turkish.
- 714 Okay, take this paper with you.
- 726 Open page eight.
- 726 Page eight.
- 728 Can you see page eight?
- 770 I want your ideas.
- 776 I want everybody to write this essay.
- 776 Okay, write a thesis statement.
- 776 Okay, alright, go ahead.
- 776 Be quick!
- 777 Now, I want a supporting sentence.
- 779 Could you write that?
- 798 What you need to do is to give numbers to them.

- 800 So, think about the sentences before ordering them.
- 803 You have to focus on this part. (Do not look at the other part)
- 803 not that part.(Do not look at that part.)
- 805 Try to understand.
- 807 Try to understand.
- 807 You should read all the sentences first.
- 809 Try to link them semantically.
- 813 You should infer and think logically.
- 839 Look at the first sentence.
- 841 Look at the second sentence.
- 853 To say this sentence, you should find the reason.
- 855 Now, try it again.
- 855 On your own, try it again.
- 855 Just go on and finish.
- 872 Look at that kitchen!
- 910 You are just imagining.
- 930 The first unit.
- 932 Look at that Picture.
- 961 Look at that first part.
- 966 Please take a piece of paper and take some notes.
- 966 I want you to focus on these questions.
- 966 Listen to this conversation.
- 968 Can you see that?
- 977 There is the tapescript.
- 977 Here page one hundred and forty-eight.
- 984 Look at there!
- 984 The first part.
- 989 Exercise four.
- 994 Complete the sentences with 'there is' and 'there are'.
- 1003 Look at exercise seven.
- 1003 I want you to fill in the gaps with the correct form of 'miss' or 'loose'.
- 1004 First one.

b) List of Non-task Instructions:

- 136 I will put a barrier between you.
 1006 Take a break. (Stop doing the exercise)

4. Teachers' Instructions Regarding Recipient**a) List of Instructions Addressing to Individuals:**

- 641 We do not have to translate it into Turkish.
 803 You have to focus on this part
 803 You should read all the sentences first.
 803 not that part.
 805 Try to understand.
 807 Try to understand.
 813 You should infer and think logically
 855 Now, try it again.
 855 On your own, try it again.
 855 Just go on and finish.

b) List of Instructions Addressing to Pairs:

- 136 I will put a barrier between you.

c) List of Instructions Addressing to Groups:

*The result of the study has revealed that none of the instructions have been addressed to groups.

d) List of Instructions Addressing to Whole Class:

- 13 Would you focus on that page, please?
 20 Look at the sentence.
 23 Let's go on.
 33 Okay, let's go.
 37 Let's go on.
 41 Think about the lottery.
 41 Look at the text, for example, the second line.
 43 Shall we pass to the phrasal verbs?
 45 Think about 'run' and 'into'

45 However, listen!

45 Number one.

52 Think about that.

66 You have to choose one of these phrasal verbs and fill in the blanks in the sentences in the four.

66 When you finish, you can compare answers with the person next to you.

66 Now, exercise three.

114 Think about your parents.

125 Okay, look at this page.

132 In the passage, find the ideas about what the real man is according to the passage.

132 Let's read the passage and see what the real man is.

132 You have five minutes to go over the passage.

220 Back to the passage.

224 Okay, the first paragraph.

234 Third paragraph.

234 We have to read it from the beginning.

242 In part four, we are going to fill in the gaps with the appropriate words.

242 But, please while filling the gaps try not to look at the passage.

268 Look at part six.

281 Now, order them.

283 Now look at these phrases.

292 Now, here we are going to complete the conversation we learnt in the text.

292 You are going to use just one word.

294 Okay, you have three minutes to complete all the sentences.

360 Now, open page one hundred and forty-two.

361 But, now we are just focusing on the first column.

387 Everybody will think about three questions and build up a wh-question to be asked to your partner.

428 Now, let's remember about verb 'to be'.

432 Yes, please now you build up sentences.

464 Can I collect them?

466 The reading passage.

472 Okay, this part.
472 Unit fourteen.
472 That part.
472 Match the questions with the answers.
484 Shall we start?
484 Ready?
486 The first question.
510 In the other part, you will ask the questions for the black written part.
512 Ready?
512 Can we start?
514 Okay, can we start?
516 The first one.
533 So, open page twenty-two.
539 Can you find that?
541 We are going to put these phrases and verbs according to these three verbs.
545 Let's look at one by one.
714 Okay, take this paper with you.
726 Open page eight.
726 Page eight.
728 Can you see page eight?
770 I want your ideas.
776 I want everybody to write a thesis statement.
776 Okay, write a thesis statement.
776 Okay, alright, go ahead!
776 Be quick!
777 Now, I want a topic sentence.
779 Could you write that?
798 What you need to do is to give numbers to them.
800 So, think about the sentences before ordering them.
839 Look at the first sentence.
841 Look at the second sentence.
872 Look at that kitchen.
910 You are just imagining.

- 930 The first unit.
- 932 Look at that Picture.
- 961 Look at that first part.
- 966 Please, take a piece of paper and take some notes.
- 966 Listen to this conversation.
- 966 I want you to focus on these questions.
- 968 Can you see that?
- 977 There is the tapescript.
- 977 Here page one hundred and forty-eight.
- 984 The first part.
- 984 Look at there.
- 989 Exercise four.
- 994 Complete the sentences with 'there is' and 'there are'.
- 1003 Look at exercise seven.
- 1003 I want you to fill in the gaps with the correct form of 'miss' or 'loose'.
- 1004 First one.
- 1006 Take a break.

APPENDIX 2

***Lists of Teachers' Oral Instructions Regarding Classroom Acts : 'Directive', 'Clue', 'Prompt'**

a) List of Instructions as 'Directive':

- 13 Would you focus on that page, please?
- 23 Let's go on.
- 33 Okay, let's go.
- 37 Let's go on.
- 41 Look at the text, for example, the second line.
- 43 Shall we pass to the phrasal verbs?
- 45 Think about 'run' and 'into'
- 45 However, listen!
- 45 Number one.
- 52 Think about that.
- 66 You have to choose one of these phrasal verbs and fill in the blanks in the sentences in the four.
- 66 When you finish, you can compare answers with the person next to you.
- 66 Now, exercise three.
- 114 Think about your parents.
- 125 Okay, look at this page.
- 132 Let's read the passage and see what the real man is.
- 132 In the passage, find the ideas about what is the real man according to the passage: "Good mothers – Real men"
- 132 You have five minutes to go over the passage.
- 136 I will put a barrier between you.
- 220 Okay, back to the passage.
- 224 Okay, the first paragraph.
- 234 We have to read it from the beginning.
- 236 Okay, the last paragraph.
- 242 In part four, we are going to fill in the gaps with the appropriate words.
- 242 But, please while filling the gaps try not to look at the passage.
- 268 Look at part six.
- 281 Now, order them.

- 283 Now, look at three phrases.
- 283 Now, look at the phrasal verbs and try to comprehend them.
- 292 Okay, now here we are going to complete the conversation we learnt in the texts.
- 292 You are going to use just one word.
- 294 Okay, you have three minutes to complete all the sentences.
- 360 Now, open page one hundred and forty-two.
- 361 But, we are just focusing on the first column.
- 387 Everybody will think about these questions and build up a wh-question to be asked your partner.
- 428 Now, let's remember about verb "to be".
- 432 Yes, please now you build up sentences.
- 464 Can I collect them?
- 466 The reading passage.
- 472 Okay, this part.
- 472 Unit fourteen.
- 472 That part.
- 472 Match the questions with the answers.
- 484 Shall we start?
- 484 Ready?
- 486 The first question.
- 510 In the other part, you will ask the questions for the black written part.
- 512 Ready?
- 512 Can we start?
- 516 The first one.
- 533 So, open page twenty-two.
- 539 Can you find that?
- 541 We are going to put these phrases and verbs according to these three verbs.
- 545 Let's look at one by one.
- 641 We do not have to translate it into Turkish.
- 714 Okay, take this paper with you.
- 726 Page eight.
- 726 Open page eight.

- 728 Can you see page eight?
- 770 I want your ideas.
- 776 Okay, write a thesis statement.
- 776 I want everybody to write this essay.
- 776 I want everybody to write a thesis statement.
- 777 Now, I want a supporting sentence.
- 779 Could you write that?
- 798 What you need to do is to give numbers to them.
- 803 Erkan, not that part!
- 803 Erkan, you have to focus on this part.
- 805 Try to understand.
- 807 You should read all the sentences first.
- 809 Try to link them semantically.
- 813 You should infer and think logically.
- 839 Look at the first sentence.
- 841 Look at the second sentence.
- 855 Now, try it again.
- 868 Can you see that?
- 872 Look at that kitchen?
- 930 The first unit.
- 932 Look at that Picture.
- 961 Look at that first part.
- 966 Listen to this conversation.
- 966 I want you to focus on these questions.
- 966 Please, take a piece of paper and take some notes. .
- 977 There is the tapescript.
- 977 Here page 148.
- 984 Look at there.
- 984 The first part.
- 989 Example 4.
- 994 Complete the sentences with “there is”, “there are”.
- 1003 Look at example 7.
- 1003 I want you to fill in the gaps with the correct form of “miss” or “loose”.
- 1004 First one.

1006 Take a break.

b) List of Instructions as ‘Clue’:

20 It is written there.

41 Think about the lottery.

800 So think about the sentences before ordering them.

853 To say this sentence, you should find the reason first.

910 Okay, now you are just imagining.

c) List of Instructions as ‘Prompt’:

21 Come oooooon!

514 Okay, can we start?

776 Go ahead!

776 Be quick!

807 Try to understand.

855 On your own, try it again.

855 Just go on and finish!

APPENDIX 3

***Lists of Teachers' Oral Instructions Regarding Speech Act Categories: 'Commanding', 'Requesting', 'Warning', 'Urging', 'Suggesting', 'Forbidding'**

a) List of Instructions as 'Commanding':

- 20 Look at the sentence.
- 41 Look at the text, for example the second line.
- 41 Think about the lottery.
- 45 Number one.
- 45 Think about 'run' and 'into'.
- 45 However, listen!
- 52 Think about that.
- 66 Now exercise three.
- 66 You have to choose one of these phrasal verbs and fill in the blanks in the sentences four.
- 114 Think about your parents.
- 125 Okay, look at this page.
- 132 In the passage find the ideas about what is the real man according to the passage.
- 132 You have five minutes to go over the passage.
- 220 Back to the passage.
- 224 Okay, the first paragraph.
- 234 Third paragraph.
- 234 We have to read it from the beginning.
- 242 In part four, we are going to fill in the gaps with the appropriate words.
- 268 Look at part six.
- 281 Now, order them.
- 283 Now, look at these phrases.
- 283 Now, look at the phrasal verbs and try to comprehend them.
- 292 Now, here we are going to complete the conversation we learnt in the text.
- 292 You are going to use just one word.
- 294 Okay, you have three minutes to complete all the sentences.
- 360 Now, open page one hundred and forty-two.

- 387 Everybody will think about these questions and build up a question to be asked to your partner.
- 466 The reading passage.
- 472 Okay, this part.
- 472 Unit fourteen.
- 472 That part.
- 472 Match the questions with the answers.
- 484 Ready?
- 486 The first question.
- 510 In the other part, you will ask the questions for the black written part.
- 512 Ready?
- 512 Can we start?
- 516 The first one.
- 533 So, open page twenty-two.
- 541 We are going to put these phrases and verbs according to these three verbs.
- 714 Okay, take this paper with you.
- 726 Page eight.
- 726 Open page eight.
- 776 Okay, write a thesis statement.
- 798 What you need to do is to give numbers to them.
- 803 you have to focus on this part.
- 839 Look at the first sentence.
- 841 Look at the second sentence.
- 855 Now, try it again.
- 872 Look at that kitchen.
- 910 You are just imagining.
- 930 The first unit.
- 932 Look at that Picture.
- 961 Look at that first part.
- 966 Listen to this conversation.
- 977 There is the tapescript.
- 977 Here, page one hundred and forty-eight.
- 984 Look at there.

- 984 The first part.
- 989 Exercise four.
- 994 Complete the sentences with 'there is' and 'there are'.
- 1003 Look at exercise seven.
- 1004 First one.
- 1006 Take a break.

b) List of Instructions as 'Requesting':

- 13 Would you focus on that page, please?
- 242 But, please while filling the gaps try not to look at the passage.
- 432 Yes, please now you build up sentences.
- 464 Can I collect them?
- 539 Can you find that?
- 728 Can you see page eight?
- 770 I want your ideas.
- 776 I want everybody to write this essay.
- 777 Now, I want a supporting sentence.
- 779 Could you write that?
- 966 I want you to focus on these questions.
- 966 Please take a piece of paper and take some notes.
- 1003 I want you to fill in the gaps with the correct form of 'miss' or 'loose'.

c) List of Instructions as 'Warning':

- 136 I will put a barrier between you.
- 803 (Erkan), not that part!
- 853 To say this sentence, you should find the reason.

d) List of Instructions as 'Urging':

- 33 Okay, let's go!
- 37 Let's go on!
- 361 But now we are just focusing on the first column.
- 514 Okay, can we start?
- 776 Go ahead!
- 776 Be quick!

- 805 Try to understand.
- 807 Try to understand.
- 855 On your own, try it again.
- 855 Just go on and finish.

e) List of Instructions as ‘Suggesting’:

- 23 Let’s go on.
- 43 Shall we pass to the phrasal verbs?
- 66 When you finish, you can compare answers with the person next to you.
- 132 Let’s read the passage and see what the real man is.
- 428 Now, let’s remember about verb ‘to be’.
- 484 Shall we start?
- 512 Can we start?
- 545 Let’s look at one by one.
- 800 Yes, so think about the sentences before ordering them.
- 807 You should read all the sentences first.
- 809 Try to link them semantically.
- 813 You should infer and think logically.

f) List of Instructions as ‘Forbidding’:

- 641 We do not have to translate it into Turkish.

APPENDIX 4

Transcription Conventions

The transcription conventions used in this study in presenting data analysis are adapted from Jefferson (2004). The following table shows the symbols along with their functions.

SYMBOL	FUNCTION
0001	Line number
T/S	Current Speaker Teacher/Student
[]	Inaudible/Not specified data
ø	No response from current speaker

The italicized script shows classroom talk between participant teachers and their students. The instructions, on the other hand, are presented in bold italics. Of the 1006 conversational turns recorded during data collection, 103 of them are teachers' instructions and they are presented in Appendix 1,2 and 3. To present the data, punctuations used in the written form are added.

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