

University of Southampton Research Repository ePrints Soton

Copyright © and Moral Rights for this thesis are retained by the author and/or other copyright owners. A copy can be downloaded for personal non-commercial research or study, without prior permission or charge. This thesis cannot be reproduced or quoted extensively from without first obtaining permission in writing from the copyright holder/s. The content must not be changed in any way or sold commercially in any format or medium without the formal permission of the copyright holders.

When referring to this work, full bibliographic details including the author, title, awarding institution and date of the thesis must be given e.g.

AUTHOR (year of submission) "Full thesis title", University of Southampton, name of the University School or Department, PhD Thesis, pagination

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON
FACULTY OF LAW, ARTS & SOCIAL SCIENCES
School of Education

**Analysis of Teacher Verbal Feedback in a Thai Postgraduate
Classroom**

by

Yaowaret Tharawoot

Thesis for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

October 2009

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON
ABSTRACT
FACULTY OF LAW, ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
Doctor of Philosophy
ANALYSIS OF TEACHER VERBAL FEEDBACK IN A THAI
POSTGRADUATE CLASSROOM
by Yaowaret Tharawoot

This is an analytic and descriptive classroom-centred research, the purpose of which is to investigate a Thai postgraduate teacher's verbal feedback in relation to the course objectives and his personal teaching goals in an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) classroom. The participant of the present study was a Thai teacher teaching at university level.

The current study draws on both classroom observation and interview data in a classroom-centred research. The teacher was observed eight times and interviewed after the end of the course. The audio-taped data were transcribed and analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The quantitative approach addressed the frequencies and percentages of aspects of the teacher's verbal feedback. Based on the quantitative data, a qualitative analysis of the transcripts was made to describe the occurrences of several aspects of verbal feedback provided by the teacher. Moreover, the qualitative analysis included the interpretation of the teacher's verbal feedback to consider the degree to which he provided opportunities for the students to reach the course objectives and his personal teaching goals.

The major findings of this research revealed that: (1) interactional feedback was used more than evaluative feedback, (2) evaluative feedback strategies that prompt the students to self-repair such as elicitation, meta-linguistic feedback, and giving clues were used most frequently in the classroom, (3) questioning was the predominant strategy of interactional feedback in the classroom, (4) the content of teacher verbal feedback was mostly about the study of the course content and some academic suggestions such as improving language proficiency and giving a presentation effectively, and (5) the teacher's verbal feedback generally provided opportunities for the students to reach the course objectives and his personal teaching goals.

Drawing from the findings, two areas of implications are offered: (1) for teachers in Thailand, and (2) for teacher education in Thailand. For teachers in Thailand, the study suggests that teachers should: (1) increase interactional feedback with different areas of content, (2) increase evaluative feedback strategies prompting students to self-repair, and (3) organise patterns of classroom communication meeting course objectives and teaching goals, and being appropriate for students' abilities, interests and motivation. For teacher education in Thailand, the research suggests that teacher educators should: (1) provide knowledge about the use of teacher verbal feedback, and (2) reconceptualise the organisation of patterns of classroom communication.

LIST OF CONTENTS

| | |
|---|------|
| Abstract | i |
| List of Tables | v |
| List of Bar Charts | vi |
| Declaration of Authorship | vii |
| Acknowledgements | viii |
| | |
| CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| 1.1 Introduction | 1 |
| 1.2 The Context of the Study | 7 |
| 1.3 Purpose of the Study | 11 |
| 1.4 Research Questions | 11 |
| 1.5 Significance of the Study | 12 |
| 1.6 Structure of the Thesis | 14 |
| | |
| CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE | 16 |
| 2.1 Introduction | 16 |
| 2.2 Teacher Talk..... | 16 |
| 2.2.1 Amount and Type of Teacher Talk | 18 |
| 2.2.2 Teacher Verbal Feedback..... | 22 |
| 2.2.2.1 Teacher Verbal Feedback Functions..... | 32 |
| 2.2.2.2 Category of Teacher Verbal Feedback Functions for the Study | 34 |
| 2.2.2.3 Teacher Verbal Feedback Strategies..... | 35 |
| 2.2.2.4 Categories of Teacher Verbal Feedback Strategies for the Study..... | 48 |
| 2.3 Teachers' Teaching Goals..... | 51 |
| 2.4 Chapter Summary..... | 57 |
| | |
| CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY | 59 |
| 3.1 Introduction | 59 |
| 3.2 Overview of Research Methodology | 59 |
| 3.3 Methodology Rationale..... | 63 |
| 3.3.1 Interpretative Paradigm..... | 64 |
| 3.3.2 Principles of Classroom-Centred Research..... | 65 |
| 3.3.3 Rationale for a Qualitative Approach | 67 |
| 3.3.4 Data Collection Approaches | 69 |
| 3.3.4.1 Classroom Observation | 69 |
| 3.3.4.2 Interview | 75 |
| 3.3.5 Qualitative Data Analysis | 79 |
| 3.3.6 Quality Criteria..... | 82 |
| 3.3.6.1 Reliability..... | 82 |
| 3.3.6.2 Validity..... | 83 |
| 3.3.6.3 Generalisability | 84 |
| 3.3.6.4 Ethics..... | 86 |
| 3.4 Actual Procedure..... | 88 |

| | | |
|--|--|-----|
| 3.4.1 | Selection of the Setting | 88 |
| 3.4.2 | Gaining Access Permission..... | 89 |
| 3.4.3 | Selection of Participants..... | 89 |
| 3.4.4 | The Participant Profile | 91 |
| 3.4.5 | Data Collection Procedures..... | 91 |
| 3.4.5.1 | Classroom Observation | 92 |
| 3.4.5.2 | Interview | 95 |
| 3.4.6 | Data Analysis | 99 |
| 3.4.6.1 | The Analysis of Interview Data | 99 |
| 3.4.6.2 | The Analysis of Observation Data | 100 |
| 3.5 | Chapter Summary..... | 106 |
| | | |
| CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS ON THE COURSE OBJECTIVES AND THE TEACHER’S PERSONAL TEACHING GOALS | | 107 |
| 4.1 | Introduction | 107 |
| 4.2 | The Course Objectives | 107 |
| 4.3 | The Teacher’s Personal Teaching Goals..... | 109 |
| 4.4 | Chapter Summary..... | 126 |
| | | |
| CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS ON ASPECTS OF TEACHER VERBAL FEEDBACK | | 128 |
| 5.1 | Introduction..... | 128 |
| 5.2 | Aspects of Teacher Verbal Feedback..... | 128 |
| 5.2.1 | Functions of Teacher Verbal Feedback..... | 129 |
| Evaluative Feedback | 130 | |
| Interactional Feedback | 130 | |
| 5.2.2 | Strategies of Teacher Verbal Feedback..... | 136 |
| 5.2.2.1 | Evaluative Feedback Strategies..... | 136 |
| Explicit Correction | 138 | |
| Elicitation | 141 | |
| Metalinguistic Feedback | 142 | |
| Giving Clues | 143 | |
| Criticising | 144 | |
| 5.2.2.2 | Interactional Feedback Strategies | 146 |
| Questioning | 149 | |
| Comment | 150 | |
| Elaboration | 154 | |
| Repetition | 155 | |
| Reformulation | 155 | |
| 5.2.3 | Content of Teacher Verbal Feedback..... | 156 |
| Life-Content | 158 | |
| Procedure-Content | 160 | |
| Study-Content | 163 | |
| 5.3 | Chapter Summary..... | 170 |
| | | |
| CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS ON REACHING THE COURSE OBJECTIVES AND THE TEACHER’S PERSONAL TEACHING GOALS | | 172 |
| 6.1 | Introduction | 172 |
| 6.2 | Reaching the Course Objectives | 172 |

| | | |
|---|--|-----|
| 6.3 | Reaching the Teacher's Personal Teaching Goals | 182 |
| 6.3.1 | The Teacher's First Personal Teaching Goal | 183 |
| 6.3.2 | The Teacher's Second Personal Teaching Goal..... | 184 |
| 6.3.3 | The Teacher's Third Personal Teaching Goal | 185 |
| 6.3.4 | The Teacher's Fourth Personal Teaching Goal..... | 190 |
| 6.4 | Chapter Summary..... | 196 |
| CHAPTER 7: REVIEW OF MAIN FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION | | 197 |
| 7.1 | Introduction | 197 |
| 7.2 | Discussion of the Findings on the Course Objectives and the Teacher's Personal Teaching Goals..... | 197 |
| 7.3 | Discussion of the Findings on Teacher Verbal Feedback Functions | 200 |
| 7.4 | Discussion of the Findings on Teacher Verbal Feedback Strategies | 206 |
| 7.4.1 | Discussion of the Findings on Evaluative Feedback Strategies..... | 206 |
| 7.4.2 | Discussion of the Findings on Interactional Feedback Strategies..... | 210 |
| 7.5 | Discussion of the Findings on Teacher Verbal Feedback Content | 213 |
| 7.6 | Discussion of the Findings on Reaching the Course Objectives and the Teacher's Personal Teaching Goals | 216 |
| 7.6.1 | Discussion of the Findings on Reaching the Course Objectives and the Teacher's First Personal Teaching Goal | 218 |
| 7.6.2 | Discussion of the Findings on Reaching the Teacher's Second Personal Teaching Goal | 219 |
| 7.6.3 | Discussion of the Findings on Reaching the Teacher's Third Personal Teaching Goal | 221 |
| 7.6.4 | Discussion of the Findings on Reaching the Teacher's Fourth Personal Teaching Goal | 222 |
| 7.7 | Chapter Summary..... | 223 |
| CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION..... | | 228 |
| 8.1 | Introduction | 228 |
| 8.2 | Implications..... | 228 |
| 8.2.1 | Implications for Teachers in Thailand | 229 |
| 8.2.2 | Implications for Teacher Education in Thailand..... | 235 |
| 8.3 | Strengths of the Study | 238 |
| 8.4 | Suggestions for Future Research..... | 239 |
| REFERENCES..... | | 241 |
| APPENDICES | | 248 |
| | Appendix A: Informed Consent Form | 248 |
| | Appendix B: Interview Data Categories | 250 |
| | Appendix C : Transcription Conventions | 251 |
| | Appendix D: The Transcribed Teacher-Student Discussions 1 (TTSD 1)..... | 252 |
| | Appendix E: Coding Scheme | 259 |
| | Appendix F: Description of Inter-Coder Reliability | 261 |
| | Appendix G: Course Syllabus of Intercultural Business Communication..... | 262 |

LIST OF TABLES

| | |
|---|----|
| Table 1: Course Descriptions of Nine ESP Courses for MA-BIC | 9 |
| Table 2: Data Collection Timetable | 92 |
| Table 3: The Content of Interview | 96 |

LIST OF BAR CHARTS

| | |
|--|-----|
| Chart 1: Distribution of Evaluative and Interactional Feedback for Eight TTSD | 134 |
| Chart 2: Evaluative Feedback Strategies in Six TTSD (TTSD 1, 2, 5, 6, 7 and 8)... | 138 |
| Chart 3: Interactional Feedback Strategies in Six TTSD (TTSD 1-4, 6 and 7) | 148 |
| Chart 4: Percentages of Content of Teacher Verbal Feedback | 157 |

DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I, YAOWARET THARAWOOT declare that the thesis entitled ANALYSIS OF TEACHER VERBAL FEEDBACK IN A THAI POSTGRADUATE CLASSROOM and the work presented in the thesis are both my own, and have been generated by me as the result of my own original research. I confirm that:

- this work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
- where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
- where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;
- where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;
- I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
- where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;
- ~~none of this work has been published before submission, or [delete as appropriate]~~ parts of this work have been published as: ~~[please list references]~~

Refereed Publications

Tharawoot, Y. (2009) Teacher-student interaction analysis: A teacher's provision of discursal feedback through classroom observation. In Ibba, D. (ed.) (2009) *Interlingüística XIX: La lingüística entre los jóvenes investigadores*. Girona: Catalunya. pp. 805-815.

Signed:

Date:

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank all people who have helped, inspired and given me the possibility to complete this thesis.

It is a pleasure to express my gratitude wholeheartedly to my family. Where would I be without them? My parents deserve special mention for their inseparable support. My father, Lieutenant Colonel Nakorn Tharawoot, and my mother, Somporn Tharawoot, are the persons who put the fundamental my learning character, showing me the joy of intellectual pursuit ever since I was a child. Moreover, they are the ones who sincerely raised me with their caring and gently love. Tun and Toon, thanks for being supportive, caring and lovely siblings. I also owe my loving thanks to all my relatives.

I would like to express my deep and sincere gratitude to all my supervisors, Professor Mike Grenfell, Professor Nick Foskett, Dr Ros Foskett, and Professor Jill Bourne whose help, stimulating and understanding suggestions and encouragement helped me in all the time of research for and writing of this thesis. Their wide knowledge and their logical ways of thinking have been of great value for me. Furthermore, they always kindly granted me their time for reading thesis and gave their critical comments about it. I am indebted to them more than they know.

Besides my supervisors, I would like to thank my thesis examiners: Dr Gill Clarke, Dr Carmel O'Sullivan, Dr Ghazala Bhatti, and Dr Laura Domínguez for their encouragement, insightful comments, and useful questions.

I am deeply grateful to the Royal Thai government for financial support during my study in United Kingdom. My sincere thanks also go to all officers at The Office of Educational Affairs, London, and at The Office of the Civil Service Commission, Bangkok, Thailand for all their assistance before and during studying at University of Southampton.

Moreover, I must thank to School of Education and Faculty of Law, Arts and Social Sciences, University of Southampton for financial support for the conferences in Spain and Greece.

I also want to thank all officers at School of Education, especially Anna Lyon and Jan State for all their supports and assistance during studying here. Furthermore, I owe my most sincere gratitude to Adrian C Halnan, Williams Simon, and Desiree Cranfield, who gave me the opportunity to work with them.

I was extraordinarily fortunate in having Assistant Professor Dr Ngamthip Wimolkasem and Dr Neelawan Winichakorn as my advisors. I could never have embarked and started my doctoral study without their suggestions. Thank you.

Many thanks go to all my life-long friends in Thailand and Southampton, UK. All of them always cheer me up during PhD study. Especially, I would like to give my special thanks to the one whose patient love enabled me to complete this thesis. He always told me, “If studying for PhD is easy, everyone does it” when I had difficult moments.

Finally, I would like to thank everybody who was important to the successful realisation of thesis, as well as expressing my apology that I could not mention personally one by one.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This is an analytic and descriptive classroom-centred study in an English for Specific Purposes postgraduate classroom in Thailand. It fundamentally follows the ideas of classroom-centred research (CCR) explained by Allwright (1983), Gaies (1983), Bailey (1985), van Lier (1988), and Allwright and Bailey (1991). They explain that the purpose of classroom-centred research on second language learning and teaching including English as a Foreign Language (EFL), English as a Second Language (ESL), English for Specific Purposes (ESP), and English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and so on (van Lier, 1988) is to *describe* as fully as possible the picture of second language learning and teaching as a means to increase knowledge and understanding of how instruction and learning happen and to identify the classroom situation that promotes or hinders learning. In so doing, it generates hypotheses rather than setting out hypotheses and testing them. Moreover, classroom-centred research draws attention to the principal approach of direct classroom observation as well as the introspective method, which includes interviews, questionnaire, and diary study (Allwright, 1983).

As classroom-centred research focuses on investigating the processes of second language learning and teaching, the areas of study in this field are varied. One of the areas which has received the most attention in classroom-centred research is the study of teacher talk or the teacher's language (Bailey, 1985). Teacher talk has attracted researchers' attention because of its importance for the organisation of the classroom and for the process of second language acquisition. Edwards and Mercer (1987) explain that talk in the classroom context is not only a product of learning activities, but also an important essential process in supporting learning. Similarly, Allwright and Bailey (1991) add that teacher talk is one of the major ways to convey information as well as control learner behaviours. Furthermore, according to Myhill *et al.* (2006), talk 'is the dominant medium for teaching and learning; both teachers and students use talk to support learning more during a school day than they use

either reading or writing' (p. 52). Consequently, the success of students' outcomes may depend on the type of language used by teachers. Based on all these factors, teacher talk is important, and thus becomes the focus of a substantial amount of classroom-centred research. Features of teacher talk that have been investigated include the amount and type of teacher talk, teacher explanations, teacher commands, error corrections, teacher questions and teacher feedback (Bailey, 1985).

The present study investigates teachers' feedback which is verbal feedback provided to students' contributions in an ESP postgraduate classroom. I chose to investigate this topic because before studying further for a PhD, I wanted to study teaching techniques and strategies which would be able to enhance opportunities for Thai students to participate in classroom discussion in English. I tried to study this issue from many books, articles, and journals which are in libraries and via the internet. I finally found that there were interesting explanations from Dudley-Marling and Searle (1991). Dudley-Marling and Searle explain that in many classrooms students are unwilling to talk, or although they talk (always relating to teachers' questions), they often give short responses. This is caused by factors such as personality (that is, shyness) or language ability to speak in the target language. Moreover, there are two factors which also affect students' willingness to use their language in the classroom: the nature of teachers' invitations to students to talk and the nature of teachers' responses to students' talk (Dudley-Marling and Searle, 1991: 40). It can be concluded that the factors which Dudley-Marling and Searle cited are teachers' questions and feedback. Although I was interested in studying both of them, I had to choose only one topic because I wanted to investigate it in depth. Therefore, I had to find more information about teachers' questions and feedback in order to support my consideration and decision. Finally, I decided to investigate teachers' feedback because a number of theoretical articles and reviews of empirical research involving the importance of teachers' feedback in the classroom provided strong support for such a decision. For example, Cullen (2002) describes that teachers' feedback, is what distinguishes classroom talk from many speech events outside the classroom because outside the classroom it is not necessary to provide feedback because it is 'always optional and unpredicted' (Francis and Hunston, 1992: 136) while in the classroom context for every subjects, teachers' feedback is usual and required.

Similarly, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) discuss the importance of teachers' feedback as follows.

So important is feedback that if it does not occur we feel confident in saying that the teacher has deliberately withheld it for some strategic purpose. It is deviant to withhold feedback continually.

(Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975: 51)

They also argue that if teachers do not provide feedback, students cannot understand the purpose of the teacher's questions so feedback acts as a compulsory, unavoidable feature of the classroom where the teacher initiates exchanges. Moreover, according to Hullen (1989: 113), teachers' feedback is important because it 'leads to the next exchange unit. It is the point in classroom discourse where a step forward is made. Such a step forward may involve a focus on clarification of a new linguistic item or improved accuracy of a complex lexical chunk'.

Although there are many researchers (e.g. Hullen, 1989; Francis and Hunston, 1992; Cullen, 2002) who support the importance of teachers' feedback, it was the assertion of Nassaji and Wells (2000) that made me decide to study teachers' feedback. They explain that 'teachers' selection of feedback is much more important than the choice of the kinds of initiating questions (whether it is a display question whose answer is a single right answer or referential question whose answer is invited a range of acceptable answers) for the development of classroom discussion' (Nassaji and Wells, 2000: 400). Based on their quantitative findings from nine elementary and middle school teachers, Nassaji and Wells found that when students were given feedback which was evaluative, students' participation in dialogue was hindered because they thought that the exchange had ended and the teacher wanted no further information from them. In contrast, even when the teacher initiated a sequence with a display question, it could develop into a collaborative dialogue if the teacher 'avoids evaluation and instead requests justification, connections or counter-arguments and allows students to select in making their contributions by themselves' (Nassaji and Wells, 2000: 400). Although Nassaji and Wells' (2000) research

suggests that teachers should avoid evaluative feedback in order to encourage students to participate more in classroom interaction, it is still necessary for some teaching situations. For example, when the teacher asks questions for checking up on students' knowledge about the content of study previously taught or being taught at the moment, it is the responsibility of the teacher to evaluate students' responses in order to let them know what the correct answer is. Therefore, feedback functions which teachers choose to provide for students' responses or contributions depend on several factors such as an instruction's purpose, the teacher's goals or expectations.

To my knowledge, research about teachers' feedback has only been conducted in mainstream primary and secondary classrooms. The present study brings those concepts into postgraduate classrooms which can be expected to contain more teacher-student interaction in whole class style teaching than passive reception of information which can be normally found in primary, secondary, and undergraduate classrooms in Thailand. As Forman (2005) describes, Thai students maintain considerable verbal reticence in a classroom, in particular an English classroom. Consequently, in most English classrooms teachers find many difficulties interacting with their students, and this would accord with my own teaching experiences. Normally, when I questioned my students, I did often not get answers. The students would only shake their heads, nod or answer by using a short word, such as "Yes" or "No". According to Forman, although Thai students are friendly, sociable and academically able, they do not like to say anything in class, in particular, in English classes. They tend to be passive and answer only direct questions. In addition, they do not like to participate in classroom discussions and rarely raise their hands to answer questions even though they know the answers. This brings about a boring atmosphere in class. According to Jittisukpong (2005), Thai students wish they could speak English fluently but most of them think English is too challenging for them to be competent because of these difficulties:

- interference from the mother tongue (Thai) particularly in pronunciation, syntax, and idiomatic usage
- lack of opportunity to use English in their daily lives
- unchallenging English lessons
- being passive learners

- being too shy to speak English with classmates
- lack of responsibility for their own learning

(Jittisukpong, 2005: 95)

As pointed out by Suk-a-nake *et al.* (2003), all Thai students are required to study English grammar and lexis from grade one to undergraduate level or above, that is, approximately 16 years. These sixteen years are mostly dominated by a teacher-centred, book-centred, grammar-translation method and an emphasis on rote memory. English is taught as a passive subject. There is little exposure to interaction in English classes. Most English classes are teacher-oriented and teacher-directed. Furthermore, classes are large (frequently 35-50 students in a class), which is difficult for the teacher whose goal is to develop the students' communicative competence. Moreover, students have little or no acceptance of, or responsibility for, their own learning. Thai students see knowledge as something to be transmitted by the teacher rather than discovered by the students. Therefore, they find it normal to engage in modes of learning which are teacher-centred and in which they receive knowledge rather than interpret it. According to Suk-a-nake *et al.*, most Thai students are not confident in either speaking or listening to English. Similarly, Khru Kate (Teacher Kate), an untrained Thai teacher whose monolingualist methods and publications have been very popular in Thailand, comments that 'at present, most English teachers, especially at state schools, still speak Thai when they teach... That is not the way to help students develop their verbal skills' (Pusaksrikit, 2002 cited in Forman, 2005: 103). Moreover, as McMurray (1998: 6 cited in Forman, 2005: 98) points out, many EFL students have developed English language proficiency 'without the benefit of communicative methodology, travel abroad, or high levels of face to face exposure with native speakers'. In summary, it is highly possible that Thai students are not competent listeners and speakers because they have few opportunities to practice these two skills in either the classroom or their indigenous community.

As mentioned previously, I selected postgraduate classrooms to be the setting of the current study. I decided to investigate teachers' feedback in these classrooms based on my experiences of the possibility of differences in provision of feedback of the teachers in postgraduate classes. When I studied for a Master's degree in English for Business and Industry, I found that my classmates and I were expected to make contributions to discussion when topics were raised. After we expressed our opinions, the teacher provided us with various feedback. For example, if the teacher asked us for personal information or our opinions, he always provided feedback which supported me or made me willing to talk far more. On the other hand, if the teacher wanted to check up on our knowledge about the content of study previously taught or being taught at the moment, sometimes he provided us with critical feedback for our incorrect contributions. I would say that at that time the underlying questions about teachers' feedback that triggered my interest was 'Does the choice of feedback depend on the course objectives and the teacher's teaching goals?', and 'In what ways does the teacher, through his or her feedback, provide or hinder the opportunities for the students to achieve the course objectives or his or her teaching goals?' Inevitably, the question I started with has been redefined and there are more research questions. These research questions have directed the research to where it is right now. (See research questions in Section 1.4.)

This research looks into teachers' feedback given to postgraduates who were enrolled in the Master of Arts in English for Business and Industry Communication. Not only is it interesting to find out how teachers in postgraduate classrooms provide feedback for students' contributions but is it also interesting to find out how the teachers' selection of feedback is related to the course objectives and their personal teaching goals. Moreover, in Thailand, to my knowledge, there are no studies about teachers' feedback. Therefore, I have designed this study with a hope of contributing to the beginning of research on teachers' feedback in Thailand. It can be concluded that this classroom-centred research is aimed at investigating several aspects of feedback which were provided by Thai teachers at university level. These aspects include functions, strategies, and content of feedback. Furthermore, the study is targeted at exploring the objectives of the courses that the teachers taught and the teachers' personal teaching goals. By employing the approaches of classroom observation and

interview, the present study describes in detail the relationship between the teachers' feedback, the teachers' personal teaching goals, and the objectives of the courses that the teachers taught. Moreover, it discusses how the teachers' feedback can provide or hinder the opportunities for the students to achieve these objectives and goals.

Before describing this research study further, I want to explain that in this study I use the term *teacher verbal feedback* which I name instead of the term *feedback* taken from the third move of IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback) exchange (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975). There are two reasons for my preference as follows.

- The term *feedback* is quite broad. Feedback can be verbal, written or paralinguistic. Since this study focuses on feedback which a teacher provides by speaking, I specify it as verbal feedback.
- In the classroom, both teacher and student can provide verbal feedback for the speaker's contribution. Since I focus on verbal feedback provided by a teacher, I specify it as teacher verbal feedback.

I argue that the term, teacher verbal feedback, is appropriate for the current study because it meets this research's general purpose that is to investigate teachers' verbal feedback. From now on this term will be used.

1.2 The Context of the Study

The context of the present study is the Department of Languages of the Faculty of Applied Arts at a public Thai university in Bangkok. The Department of Languages is responsible for offering foundation English courses to undergraduate students from all faculties. Moreover, it provides two Master of Arts: the Master of Arts in English for Business and Industry Communication (MA-BIC) and the Master of Arts in Translation for Education and Business (MTEB). However, for this research, I selected the MA-BIC to be the setting of my study because it met one of the criteria which is that English is used as a medium of instruction. The criteria for selecting

the participants are discussed in detail in Section 3.4.3, Chapter 3. Therefore, ESP courses of MA-BIC are focused upon and described.

There are nine ESP courses which are required for postgraduates to complete their MA-BIC degree as follows.

- Advanced Graduate English
- Principles of Applied Linguistics
- Advanced Aural and Oral Communications
- Cross-Cultural Communication
- Statistic and Research Methodology
- Intercultural Business Communication
- Intercultural Pragmatics
- Project Presentation
- Seminar in English for International Communication

These courses are taught in English. Advanced Graduate English, Principles of Applied Linguistics, Advanced Aural and Oral Communications and Cross-Cultural Communication are required courses for first year postgraduate students in the first semester, whereas Statistic and Research Methodology, Intercultural Business Communication and Intercultural Pragmatics are for the second semester. Project Presentation and Seminar in English for International Communication are required courses for second year students in the first semester and the second semester respectively. These ESP courses' descriptions are summarised in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Course Descriptions of Nine ESP Courses for MA-BIC

| Courses | Description |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| Advanced Graduate English | Development of proficiency in academic reading and writing with a grammar focus. Reading assignments draw upon an extensive selection of articles as well as informational and critical essays. Sentence and paragraph-level writing assignments target various organisational strategies. |
| Principles of Applied Linguistics | Principal concept of applied linguistics such as phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics including the applications in major contributions such as sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, pedagogy and their applications in business and industrial contexts. |
| Statistics and Research Methodology | Research methodology and techniques for the analysis of research data; types of research methods; quantitative, qualitative, action research, evaluation research, tools for research, steps in preparing a research proposal; an evaluation of a research project; analysis of results using parametric and non parametric statistics; report writing, and applications of research findings. |
| Cross-Cultural Communication | Methods for successful multicultural and international communication. Strategies for overcoming problems and obstacles in cross-cultural communication. |
| Advanced Aural and Oral Communication | Conversation techniques in various contexts, product description, socialising skill, meeting and arrangement; describing trends and giving company results; explaining systems and processes and how to negotiate a business agreement; explaining language functions such as various requests for opinions, advice and suggestions. |
| Intercultural Business Communication | Process and functions of communication. Principles underlying communication behaviour. Practice in analysing communication through oral and written discourse. |

| Courses | Description |
|--|--|
| Intercultural Pragmatics | The linguistic and semiotic features of human discourse. The course emphasises the varied uses that humans make of communicative codes such as language and gesture in different social interaction. |
| Project Presentation | Effective presentation techniques such as organisation materials, using aids, designing multimedia and selecting appropriate language. Opportunities for project presentations in public forums are provided. |
| Seminar in English for International Communication | Business and social etiquette, oral and non-verbal communication patterns as well as the tools necessary to analyse cross-cultural conflicts in institutional and community environments and their diversity in life styles. |

(MA-BIC Course Description)

At the Department of Languages, there are 28 full-time Thai teachers and 9 part-time foreign teachers. Of the 9 part-time foreign teachers, 5 are Americans, 3 are Australian, and 1 is Canadian.

Among the 28 full-time Thai teachers, 3 hold a Doctoral degree in English as an International Language, 2 hold a Doctoral degree in Applied Linguistics, 1 holds a Doctoral degree in TESOL and Applied Linguistics, 1 holds a Doctoral degree in Education Management and the other 21 have Masters degrees in various fields: Linguistics, Applied Linguistics, Teaching English as a Second Language, International and Intercultural Communications, and Translation. One of the university policies requires teachers who have a Bachelor degree to teach only the first or second year students, whereas teachers with a master degree or higher can be assigned to teach ESP courses to students at higher levels.

The participant in the current study was a Thai part-time teacher. He was invited to teach the Intercultural Business Communication course. In this course there were three students. The discussion of how I selected the participant and the profile of the participant will be presented in Section 3.4.3 and Section 3.4.4, Chapter 3.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

There are four purposes to this classroom-centred research. The first purpose, in accordance with the prevalent notion that teaching is *goal directed* (Dalis *et al.*, 1975), is to identify the course objectives and the personal teaching goals the teacher had for the students to accomplish as a result of his teaching.

The second purpose is to investigate three aspects of the teacher's verbal feedback: functions, strategies, and content.

The third purpose is to explore whether the use of teacher verbal feedback provided opportunities for the students to attain the course objectives and the personal teaching goals the teacher had for them.

Finally, from this research, I wanted to provide knowledge and understanding of teacher verbal feedback with a hope of contributing to the beginning of research on teachers' verbal feedback in Thailand.

1.4 Research Questions

The current study was designed to explore three aspects of teacher verbal feedback in relation to the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals.

Therefore, this classroom-centred research attempts to find answers to the following research questions.

Related to Purpose One

1. What are the objectives of the course the teacher teaches?
2. What are the personal teaching goals the teacher has for his students to achieve?

Related to Purpose Two

3. What are the functions of verbal feedback provided by the teacher in the classroom?
4. What are the strategies used by the teacher in providing verbal feedback?
5. What is the content of verbal feedback provided by the teacher?

Related to Purpose Three

6. Does the teacher's verbal feedback give opportunities for the students to attain the course objectives?
7. Does the teacher's verbal feedback give opportunities for the students to accomplish the personal teaching goals the teacher has for them?
8. If yes, how are opportunities to reach these course objectives and these personal teaching goals provided through the teacher's verbal feedback?
9. If not, how are opportunities to attain these course objectives and these personal teaching goals blocked through the teacher's verbal feedback?

1.5 Significance of the Study

Before discussing the present study's significance, it is important to recognise that by studying one participant teacher, the rich, in-depth, vivid, unique descriptions of teacher verbal feedback in relation to the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals can provide the following five general significances.

This research is significant, firstly, because it examines two aspects of teacher verbal feedback: functions and strategies including the aspect that has not yet been investigated, that is, the content of teacher verbal feedback. The current study also

attempts to relate how the teacher's use of these aspects of verbal feedback can provide opportunities for, or can serve as a barrier to, the students reaching the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals.

Secondly, research is needed to broaden knowledge of teacher talk; in particular, the use of teacher verbal feedback in the situation of teaching postgraduates in ESP classrooms, a context which has never been examined. Therefore, the present study contributes to the small body of research on teacher verbal feedback in ESP postgraduate classrooms.

Thirdly, it is hoped that the current study may help Thai teachers to reflect on their teaching as well as gain some knowledge and insights about developing their use of verbal feedback, and organising patterns of classroom communication meeting course objectives and teaching goals, and being appropriate for students' abilities, interests and motivation.

Fourthly, the present study may give inspiration to Thai teachers to conduct classroom-centred research to investigate their own verbal feedback or other aspects of teacher talk, such as teacher instructions, or teacher questions, in relation to teachers' personal teaching goals and course objectives.

Lastly, this classroom-centred research may provide knowledge to benefit teacher educators in training Thai teachers to incorporate teacher verbal feedback and the organisation of patterns of classroom communication to meet course objectives and teaching goals. Also to encourage them to ensure that teacher verbal feedback is appropriate for students' abilities, interests and motivation and that their teaching can promote students' thinking skills and communicative abilities and get them more involved in classroom discussions.

(See Chapter 8 for detailed information about the implications of the present study.)

1.6 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into eight chapters. This introductory chapter introduces the background to the study, the context and purpose of the study, research questions, and significance of the study.

Chapter 2 reviews related literature in the two major areas of teacher talk and teachers' teaching goals. The first section provides detailed descriptions of teacher talk. Moreover, reviews of research on two aspects of teacher talk (amount and type of teacher talk, and teacher verbal feedback) are presented. The sub-section on teacher verbal feedback discusses the functions and strategies of teacher verbal feedback. The second section, Teachers' Teaching Goals, describes the relationship between teachers' teaching goals and their teaching practice.

Chapter 3 describes the research methodology, including an overview of research methodology for the current study, and the methodological rationale and the quality criteria of this study including ethics. This chapter also discusses the actual research procedure, including how I gained permission to access the classroom from the Department of Languages, how I selected the participant, the profile of the participant, the data collection procedures and the data analysis.

Chapter 4 presents the findings based on the interview data on the objectives of the course the teacher taught, and the personal teaching goals the teacher had for his students.

In Chapter 5, I present the findings based on the classroom observation data on three aspects of teacher verbal feedback: functions, strategies and content.

Chapter 6 provides the findings on how the teacher's verbal feedback can provide opportunities, or can serve as a barrier to the students reaching the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals.

Chapter 7 presents the discussion of the main findings reported in Chapter 4, Chapter 5, and Chapter 6. Moreover, in this chapter research questions are presented, the findings related to the questions are shown and answers to the questions are discussed. Comparisons are also made between the findings of the current study and those of previous studies.

In Chapter 8, the implications of this research are discussed. They include: implications for teachers in Thailand, and implications for teacher education in Thailand. Moreover, the strengths of the current study are explained, and the suggestions for future research are provided.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

The main purpose of the present study is to explore how a Thai teacher's verbal feedback, in relation to the course objectives and his personal teaching goals, provided or blocked opportunities for the students to achieve those objectives and goals. To build the whole framework of this research, I present the review of related literature in two dimensions: (1) Teacher Talk, and (2) Teachers' Teaching Goals. The first dimension, teacher talk, which includes teacher verbal feedback, is significant since the focus of this research is on teacher verbal feedback, a salient aspect of teacher talk. The second dimension, teachers' teaching goals, is also important because this research is designed based on the belief that teaching is goal-oriented. Therefore, it is necessary to review the literature that concerns the relationship between the teacher's teaching goals and his or her teaching practice.

2.2 Teacher Talk

This section deals with the importance of teacher talk. For amount and type of teacher talk and teacher verbal feedback, they will be explained in Section 2.2.1 and Section 2.2.2 respectively.

Teacher talk is defined as 'the language typically used by teachers in the second language classroom' (Lynch, 1996: 6). In Ellis's (1984) terms, teacher talk is 'the special language the teacher uses when addressing second language learners in the classroom' (p. 96). Teacher talk has attracted researchers' attention (e.g. Edwards and Mercer, 1987; Nunan and Lamb, 1996; Myhill *et al.*, 2006) because of its importance for the organisation of the classroom and for the process of second language acquisition. Since teacher talk seems to be the major source of input for students in second language classrooms, it has been hypothesised that there is a potential effect of teacher talk on students' comprehension and the learning process.

Edwards and Mercer (1987) explain that in the classroom talk ‘is one of the materials from which a student constructs a way of thinking’ (p. 20) because it is not only a product of learning activities, but also an important essential process in supporting learning. Based on Vygotsky’s (1978 cited in Edwards and Mercer) theory, ‘teachers may well lead students on to new levels of conceptual understanding by interacting and talking with them’ (p. 20). Moreover, according to Nunan and Lamb (1996), teacher talk is described as follows.

Talk is the essential tool of the teacher’s trade. Needless to say, talk is critical to the learning process. For second language, there is the additional fact that the medium is the message. In other words, the tool (that is, the language through which the learning process is managed) is also the artefact that teachers and students are trying to construct with the tool.

(Nunan and Lamb, 1996: 60)

Similarly, Myhill *et al.* (2006) describe that, talk ‘is the dominant medium for teaching and learning; both teachers and students use talk to support learning more during a school day than they use either reading or writing’ (p. 52). Myhill *et al.* also list the objectives underpinning the use of talk made by teachers for supporting students’ learning and thinking as follows.

- use talk as a tool for clarifying ideas;
- use exploratory, hypothetical and speculative talk as a way of researching ideas and expanding thinking;
- work together logically and methodically to solve problem, make deductions, share, test and evaluate idea;
- ask questions to clarify understanding and refine idea;
- use talk to question, hypothesise, speculate, evaluate, solve problems, and develop thinking about complex issues and ideas;
- recognise and build on other people’s contributions;
- contribute to the organisation of group activity in ways that help to structure plans, solve problems and evaluate alternatives.

(DfEE, 2001, Section 2: 23-32 cited in Myhill *et al.*, 2006: 2)

In summary, based on the quotation above talk has a very important role in classrooms. Basically, teachers can transmit their knowledge about the course content through talk to students who can extend that knowledge by using talk to recognise and build on teachers' talk. If the students still wonder what the teachers have said, they can ask questions to clarify understanding and refine ideas. This leads to better learning because the students are able to research ideas and expand thinking from the teachers' teaching. In particular, in higher education it is necessary to provide opportunities for students to think and express their ideas. They should learn to think for themselves because teachers cannot teach them to think, but they can give a chance to the students to engage in thinking through their talk. For example, instead of telling the whole information about the course content immediately, the teachers should give some ideas or clues about that information first. This allows the students to explore, hypothesise and speculate about the information the teachers gave.

Given the importance of teacher talk previously discussed, it is not surprising to see a growing number of studies (e.g., Bellack *et al.*, 1966; Musumeci, 1996; Nassaji and Wells, 2000; Walsh, 2002) conducted in the area of teacher talk. Aspects of teacher talk that have been empirically investigated include the amount and type of teacher talk, teacher explanations, error correction, teacher speech modifications, teacher questions and teacher verbal feedback (e.g., Jarvis and Robinson, 1997; Lyster and Ranta (1997); Farooq, 1998; Hughes and Westgate, 1998; Garcia, 2005; Lee, 2007). In the following sections, I will present a brief review of research on two aspects of teacher talk: amount and type of teacher talk, and teacher verbal feedback. The first aspect is selected because it will guide the explanation of the findings about the nature of classroom interaction, whereas the second aspect is the focus of the current study.

2.2.1 Amount and Type of Teacher Talk

Research both in the first language (L1) and the second language (L2) classrooms on classroom discourse has agreed that teachers tend to dominate classroom speech. For

example, in their studies of classroom discourse, Bellack *et al.* (1966) audio taped fifteen high school teachers and their 345 students studying the same lesson. They reported that teachers did more talking than the students did. Moreover, there was a common teaching cycle which included the four basic pedagogical moves: structuring moves (used for organising or contextualising what follows), soliciting moves (used to elicit a response from student, usually in the question form), responding moves (responses to soliciting moves), and reacting moves (caused by previous moves but not elicited by them). Among these moves the teachers' main responsibilities were to solicit and react.

Similarly, from their research, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) discovered that language in the classroom followed a very rigid sequence, and that speaking patterns were highly structured. They explain that in the interaction between a teacher and students normally the teacher initiates talk in classroom (usually by questioning), one of the students attempts to answer the question and the teacher evaluates the student's response with such phrases as "Good," "That's right," or "No, that's not right". This pattern fell into a teaching pattern, that is, *Initiation-Response-Feedback* (IRF) which can be seen in every classroom at most educational levels as illustrated in Example 1 below. This IRF pattern is most obvious in the teacher-led lesson or recitation, in which a teacher controls both the development of a topic and who gets a turn to talk.

(1)

| | | |
|----------|----|-------------------------------------|
| I | T: | What's the boy doing? |
| R | S: | He's climbing a tree. |
| F | T: | That's right. He's climbing a tree. |

(Cullen, 2002: 117)

In the IRF exchange, the teacher decides who will participate, when students can take a turn, how much they can contribute, and whether their contributions are worthy and

appropriate or not. This close control of opening and closing moves tends to reduce longer exchanges (Edwards and Westgate, 1994; Wells, 1999). Therefore, the IRF exchange is widely accepted by classroom discourse researchers as a useful category of analysis and continues to be used to the present. Furthermore, it has been the target of some criticism in the development of talk in the classroom because it fails to provide students with chances to ask questions themselves, choose topics which interest them, and negotiate meaning. For example, based on data from her own and others' classrooms, Cazden (1988) explains that the IRF exchange helps the teacher to control the interaction more than it supports students to learn the content of the lesson. Similarly, for Myhill *et al.* (2006), this exchange causes unfair interaction between a teacher and students because the teacher spontaneously possesses two-thirds of the turns in any sequence while every student in the classroom needs to share their one-third chance to contribute. Myhill *et al.* quote 'recitation script' from Goodwin (2001 cited in Myhill *et al.*) to illustrate their point. The recitation script, which is very similar to the IRF exchange, provides more time for the teacher than for students to talk. The teacher can choose one of the students to speak but the students have little opportunity to select themselves to be speakers. Moreover, responses the students give tend to be short, and the teacher does not persuade the students to elaborate their answers. Alexander (2003 cited in Myhill *et al.*) summarises the characteristics of this form of interaction as follows.

interactions tend to be brief rather than sustained; teachers ask questions about content, but students may ask questions only about points of procedure; closed questions predominate; students concentrate on identifying 'correct' answer; there is little speculative talk or 'thinking aloud'; the student's answer marks the end of an exchange and the teacher's feedback formally closes it.

(Myhill *et al.*, 2006: 15)

From all the explanations of the negative impact of the IRF exchange on students' participation in classroom interactions above, it seems that this typical teaching pattern should be avoided.

Unequal behaviour during the interaction described previously can be discussed in terms of the power differential between a teacher and students (Nassaji and Wells, 2000). Since the classroom is a place where there are more than two people gathered together for teaching and learning: one person has a role as a teacher who can dominate the classroom talk or what happens in the classroom while the others (students) are offered a role as a person who answers the teacher's questions and carries out the teacher's instructions. In the words of Johnson (1995): 'Teachers control what goes on in classrooms primarily through the ways in which they use language' (p. 9). Walsh (2002) lists features in EFL classrooms in any institutional discourse setting as follows.

- Teachers largely control the topic of discussion.
- Teachers often control both content and procedure.
- Teachers usually control who may participate and when.
- Students take their cues from teachers.
- Role relationships between teachers and students are unequal.
- Teachers are responsible for managing the interaction which occurs.
- Teachers talk most of the time.
- Teachers modify their talk to students.
- Students rarely modify their talk to teachers.
- Teachers ask questions (to which they know the answers) most of the time.

(Walsh, 2002: 4)

From the above features it seems that teachers themselves and their talk potentially affect students' contributions in the classrooms. Musumeci's (1996) research involving teachers in content-based second language classrooms at the university showed that there was little or no negotiation in the classroom. The teachers talked most of the time and initiated most exchanges through display questions. Additionally, teachers could modify their speech easily or clearly to the students who seemed to not understand what they said previously while the students were rarely required to modify their speech. Moreover, sustained discussion in which the teachers and the students resolve incomplete or inaccurate messages happened rarely or not at all in these classrooms. As Musumeci argues: 'teachers in the third

semester content-based Italian course speak more, more often, control the topic of conversation, rarely ask questions for which they do not have answers, and appear to understand absolutely everything the students say, sometimes before they even say it' (Musumeci, 1996: 314).

Based on the review of research on the amount and type of teacher talk explained above, it can be concluded that teacher talk has often been characterised as controlling; reinforcing the asymmetry of power between a teacher and students. Moreover, the distinguishing features of teacher talk can be summarised as the teacher asks a lot of questions, initiates discussion topics, and attempts to control the content of classroom tasks. As mentioned in Section 1.1, Chapter 1, there are two factors affecting students' willingness to speak in the classroom: teachers' questions and verbal feedback (Dudley-Marling and Searle, 1991). However, according to Nassaji and Wells (2000), teachers' selection of verbal feedback is much more important than the choice of the kinds of initiating questions for the development of classroom discussion. Nassaji and Wells describe that although the teacher initiates a discussion with a display question whose answer is a single right answer, he or she can sustain the discussion by avoiding evaluation and instead requesting more explanations, justification, or connections from students. Consequently, based on the importance of teacher verbal feedback previously mentioned, I decided that this would be the focus of my research. In the following sections, I review studies by other authors on teacher verbal feedback including its functions and the strategies used by teachers.

2.2.2 Teacher Verbal Feedback

There are many different explanations about teacher verbal feedback. According to Miller (2002 cited in Konold *et al.*, 2004: 64), teacher verbal feedback:

follows a student action and shapes future behaviour. Feedback is an important aspect of every school day and plays a crucial role in the teaching/learning process. The primary purposes for providing feedback are to reinforce appropriate student behaviour, let students know how they are doing, and extend learning opportunities.

This definition makes clear what teacher verbal feedback means in general. It explains the primary purposes of teacher verbal feedback which are to strengthen students' appropriate behaviour, make students know about their performances, and provide students with more learning opportunities. Based on these purposes, teacher verbal feedback has an important role in the classroom. Cullen (2002) argues that teacher verbal feedback is what distinguishes classroom talk from many speech events outside the classroom because outside the classroom it is not necessary to provide verbal feedback because it is 'always optional and unpredicted' (Francis and Hunston, 1992: 136) while, in the classroom context, teacher verbal feedback is usual and expected. Similarly, Nassaji and Wells (2000) explain that the function of verbal feedback inside and outside the classroom is different. Normally, its function outside the classroom is to acknowledge the given information, as the following example.

(2)

- 1 A: Which way should I go to get to the station?
- 2 B: Take the first street on the left and then the second right.
- 3 A: **Thanks very much.**

(Nassaji and Wells, 2000: 377)

In Example 2, A asks B about the way to go to the station in line 1, then B tells A the destination in line 2. Therefore, A only thanks B for helping without evaluating B's information in line 3.

On the other hand, in the classroom after one of the students answers a teacher's question, the teacher can evaluate the student's answer, as the following example.

(3)

- 1 Teacher: Which way did the Wolf go to Red Riding Hood's
Granny's cottage?
- 2 Student: He took a short cut through the forest.
- 3 Teacher: **That's right.**

(Nassaji and Wells, 2000: 377)

In Example 3, the teacher asks the students about the way that the wolf goes to Red Riding Hood's granny's cottage in line 1, and then one of the students gives the correct answer in line 2. Finally, the teacher evaluates the student's response in line 3.

In summary, teacher verbal feedback is a compulsory, necessary feature of the classroom. According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), 'a teacher rarely asks a question because he wants to know the answer; he asks a question because he wants to know whether a student knows the answer. In such a situation the student needs to know whether his or her answer was right or not' (pp. 36-37). Consequently, when a teacher poses a question to students, and then one of the students gives an answer to that question, the teacher has to provide verbal feedback for the student's response. Otherwise, the student does not know whether his or her answer is correct or not, and he or she cannot understand the purpose of the teacher's question.

Furthermore, from both Example 2 and Example 3 above, it can be concluded that the function of verbal feedback inside and outside the classroom is different because it depends on a questioner's knowledge. Normally, outside the classroom the questioner asks about unknown information from a person assuming that he or she knows the answer. Therefore, when that person gives the wanted information, the questioner only acknowledges it without any evaluation or comments (see Example 2). On the other hand, inside the classroom the questioner who normally is a teacher

can evaluate students' contributions whether they are correct or not because he or she already knows the correct answer (see Example 3).

In fact, in the classroom there are various functions of verbal feedback that a teacher can provide for students' contributions besides evaluation. According to Nassaji and Wells (2000), teacher verbal feedback functions are related to the teacher's questions which can demand different information. They explain that there are three main categories of information that a teacher always asks students as follows.

- *Assumed Known Information* (where a teacher already knows the answer and is concerned to discover whether students can supply it), e.g., 'Who was the king of France? Let's see who remembers this.'
- *Personal Information* (where the information is known only to the person addressed), e.g., 'What did other people think when they were watching that experiment? Did it surprise you the way that the water mixed or didn't mix?'
- *Negotiatory Information* (where the 'answer' is to be reached through open-ended discussion between a teacher and students) e.g., 'Neil has said that there are not enough troops... What are you saying in response to that?'

(Nassaji and Wells, 2000: 384-385)

As mentioned previously, there is a relationship between the function of teacher verbal feedback and a teacher's question. For example, when the demand is about information that is *assumed to be known* (Assumed Known Information), it can be expected that the teacher will provide evaluative feedback. On the other hand, if the information is *personal* (Personal Information), the teacher cannot predict what students' answers will be. Therefore, his or her verbal feedback is likely to be a comment or a request for further information from the student who gave the information. For Negotiatory Information which demands *students' opinions, explanation or conjectures*, there are two options for the teacher to provide verbal feedback for the students' contributions. The first option is to evaluate the students' contributions while the second one is to offer his or her opinions on an equal footing or invite further student contributions. These options are not based on the teacher's

knowledge, but it depends on his or her willingness whether to give serious consideration to the students' beliefs, opinions, and explanations or not.

Moreover, Chaudron (1988) defines teacher verbal feedback as a 'complex phenomenon with several functions' (p. 152). Although this definition was given 19 years ago, it is still true. It is confirmed by Lee (2007) that teacher verbal feedback is a complex phenomenon and has several functions. He explains as follows.

teachers not only respond to whether the student's second turn answers are correct, adequate or relevant but also to how they are produced: accurately, convincingly, or reluctantly. Even for correct answers, teachers often ask students to elaborate, reformulate or defend their answers.

(Lee, 2007: 181)

It can be concluded from Chaudron's (1988) definition, and Lee's (2007) explanation about teacher verbal feedback that the provision of verbal feedback is a complex phenomenon which a teacher can provide various functions such as evaluative and corrective feedback. As Wells (1999) explains, teacher verbal feedback can be more than evaluation. It can also be 'an opportunity to extend the student's answer, to draw out its significance, or to make connections with other parts of the students' total experience' (p. 200). Therefore, the information conveyed through teacher verbal feedback should be not only to let students know how well they have performed but also to increase their interests and motivation to participate a bit more in a discussion. However, a teacher has to think what function of verbal feedback is appropriate for each student's contribution because it can impact positively or negatively on the student's willingness to participate in the discussion a bit more. For example, if the teacher asks for the students' opinions, his or her verbal feedback should focus on content more than the form of a student's contribution. Since the student may not feel confident to express more opinions if the teacher corrects his or her contribution's grammatical structure.

Furthermore, teacher verbal feedback has long been the focus of researchers' attention, owing to its important role in the teaching-learning process. As several researchers (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975; Hullen, 1989; Nassaji and Wells, 2000; Cullen, 2002) have agreed, a teacher's provision of verbal feedback is regarded as a valuable medium of instruction and an encouragement for students' willingness to speak (as mentioned in Section 1.1, Chapter 1). As discussed previously, normally in the classroom, a teacher decides who will participate, when students can take a turn, how much they can contribute, and whether their contributions are worthy and appropriate. This situation fails to provide the students with chances to ask questions themselves, choose topics which interest them, and negotiate meaning. However, there are several researchers (Wells, 1993; Hughes and Westgate, 1998; Rex and McEachen, 1999; Boyd and Maloof, 2000; Boxer and Cortés-Conde, 2000; Duff, 2000; Nassaji and Wells, 2000; Sullivan, 2000) who propose that this traditional situation can be broken through teacher verbal feedback. For example, Wells (1993) suggests that teachers can make different use of verbal feedback in IRF exchange, beyond the evaluation, for checking students' knowledge. He discusses that teacher verbal feedback can be used to extend the students' answer, to draw out its significance or to make connections with other parts of the students' total experience during lesson topics, so as to create a greater equality of participation. Consequently, teachers can provide extending rather than evaluating verbal feedback so that 'it is in this third step in the *co construction* of meaning that the next cycle of the learning-and-teaching spiral has its point of departure' (Wells, 1993: 35). Moreover, based on Hughes and Westgate's (1998) research, it is possible to create interaction which is more productive for students' participation or construction of knowledge. Their study sets out to explore whether it is possible to identify moves or enabling strategies which the teacher can use to promote better quality talking and thinking of students. The teacher in their research avoided any direct evaluation. She did not play the expert-evaluator-examiner role, but appeared to build upon the students' previous contributions. Therefore, the students seemed able to express ideas available to them from their everyday experience. This situation can be illustrated in the following extract from Hughes and Westgate's study.

(4)

- 238 Teacher: What do you think?
- 239 Katie: Well...you could test it
- 240 Teacher: **I think you might need to do that, you might need to test it. Do you think, Michael, that wood with holes in would sink or float?**
- 241 Michael: Sink
- 242 Teacher: **Why?**
- 243 Michael: Because ships when they've got holes in water comes through and they sink
- 244 Katie: Yes, well, that might be different wood
- 245 Teacher: **Ah, right, Katie, so you think it might be different sorts of wood**
- 246 James: Well, if it's got all shaved...all like em...all, if it's got changed up a lot and all the shavings are in wood in water...there'll be nothing left

(Hughes and Westgate, 1998: 183)

In Example 4, the teacher does not act as an evaluator of the students' responses, but seems to build on the students' previous contributions. Most importantly, the teacher tries to use her students' knowledge (lines 239, 243, 244) as a starting-point for further discussion; then she either extends it or encourages the students to extend it for themselves (lines 240, 242, 245). From Example 4, it can be concluded that teacher's verbal feedback could promote an interactive learning climate. The teacher tried to provide verbal feedback which led or encouraged the students to express more opinions or explanation based on their knowledge or experiences.

Similarly, Rex and McEachen (1999) studied in a high school English literature class by posing hypotheses about why the students considered something they found in the text boring, odd, or confusing, and then supporting the claims, linking them to

specific pieces of evidence. They found that in addition to brief affirmations of the students' contributions, the teacher elaborated on them or further probed the students' understandings by asking additional questions. Moreover, he did not overtly challenge or evaluate them with statements like "That's not right", when the students' interpretations were considered inappropriate or unwarranted. Rather, he acknowledged the students' contributions, and then offered his own interpretation along with evidence from the text. The students also were encouraged to question and probe each other's interpretations, and question the teacher's readings of specific passages.

In their studies of two university English-as-a-second-language classrooms, Boyd and Maloof (2000) and Boxer and Cortés-Conde (2000) found that teachers repeated or recast students' contributions in order to affirm their contributions and make them available to the full class for their consideration. In this way, each student utterance was linked together and woven into the larger classroom discourse. This, in turn, helped to maintain topical coherence by building a collective knowledge base upon which all students could draw for subsequent contributions. The authors of both studies explain that through students' extended participation in their classroom interactions, student appropriation of new words and ideas was facilitated.

Likewise, Duff's (2000) examination of a high school English immersion classroom in Hungary showed that, in interactions promoting students' participation, the teacher often provided verbal feedback for student responses by repeating or paraphrasing their contributions, and offering them back to the class for further discussion. Duff suggests that such verbal feedback served as an important means of encouraging students' attempts to express their own thoughts and opinions on the topics, validate the concepts and ideas initiated by students, and draw their attention to key concepts or linguistic forms.

Sullivan's (2000) study of a university English-as-a-foreign-language classroom in Vietnam led to similar conclusions. In her research, Sullivan reveals how the teacher supported students' participation in the building of a shared base of knowledge through his frequent affirmations, elaborations, and other kinds of verbal feedback to

students' contributions. Moreover, Sullivan discusses that such building of extended networks of talk among the class members also lent a humorous, light-hearted side to learning in that both the teacher and students could use their collectively constructed knowledge to play on each other's words and opinions. This use of humour enhanced the students' enjoyment of their classroom interactions and motivated them to continue participation. This provided them with extensive opportunities not only to become more affiliated with the course content but to build on and sustain their interpersonal relationships as a community of English language learners as well.

Based upon their seven years of action research, Nassaji and Wells (2000) describe that when the student is given verbal feedback which is evaluative or the teacher does not expand upon his or her ideas, or search for possible reasons, the student's participation to further dialogue is hindered because he or she thinks that the exchange has ended and that the teacher wants no further information from him or her. In contrast, according to Nassaji and Wells, even when the teacher initiates a sequence with a display question, it can develop into a collaborative dialogue if the teacher avoids evaluation and instead requests justification, connections or counter-arguments and allows students to select in by making their contributions themselves.

Hall and Walsh (2002), in their review of literature on recent developments in teacher-student interaction and second language learning, point out that a motivating learning climate is characterised by teachers' contributions that encourage students to participate by asking them to elaborate on their responses, comment on the responses of others, and propose topics for discussion. Furthermore, the classroom is characterised by teachers' actions that treat students' responses as valuable and legitimate regardless of whether they are 'right', and attempt to understand the students' expressed thoughts from the students' particular perspectives rather than impose their own views on what the students are attempting to say.

Although Nassaji and Wells (2000) and Hall and Walsh (2002) agree that teachers' evaluative and corrective feedback should be avoided because it hinders students' further participation and interactive learning climate, it is still necessary for some teaching situations. For example, when a teacher asks students to read a passage and

questions about it in order to check their understanding, then one of the students gives the answer which can be correct or wrong, it is the responsibility of the teacher to evaluate his or her response in order to let that student and the class know what the correct answer is. This situation can be illustrated in the following example.

(5)

- 1 Teacher: How many dwarfs live with Snow White?
- 2 Student: Seven.
- 3 Teacher: **That's right.**

In Example 5, the teacher wants to check whether the students know the exact number of dwarfs who lives with Snow White or not so he poses the question in line 1. Then one of the students gives the correct answer in line 2. Therefore, the teacher evaluates the student's answer in line 3.

It can be concluded that although several researchers (e.g., Nassaji and Wells, 2000; Hall and Walsh, 2002) agree that teachers should avoid evaluative feedback in order to encourage students to participate more in classroom discussions, functions or strategies of verbal feedback which the teachers choose to give to the students' responses or contributions depends on several factors such as an instruction's purpose, the teachers' intention or expectation. Based on Leont'ev's (1981 cited in Wells, 1999) theory of activity, it can be explained that the choice of verbal feedback depends on 'the perspective of the teacher's (implicit) theory of education, as he or she plans what learning opportunities to provide and how the students are to engage with them' (p. 171). Therefore, teacher verbal feedback can be a positive and negative variable for the teaching and learning climate because it depends on the teachers' decision.

In the following sub-sections, I review the existing studies relevant to teacher verbal feedback functions and strategies. First, teacher verbal feedback functions are

described, and then strategies that teachers use to provide verbal feedback are discussed.

2.2.2.1 Teacher Verbal Feedback Functions

As discussed previously, in the classroom, teacher verbal feedback has two main purposes. The first purpose is to let students know how well they have performed, and the second one is to increase their interests and motivation to talk far more. For the first purpose, it seems that a teacher focuses on the correctness and adequacy of a student's contribution. On the other hand, for the second purpose, a teacher focuses on messages which a student tries to express without evaluation, correction or criticism. There are several researchers who classify verbal feedback functions based on these purposes. For example, Cullen (2002) assesses the pedagogical importance of teacher verbal feedback in supporting learning, and how teachers can use it to best effect. Based on his data in an English language secondary classroom in Tanzania, he terms the function focusing on the correctness and adequacy of a student's contribution as *evaluative* and the function focusing on content as *discoursal*. He describes evaluative feedback as follows.

It is used to provide feedback to individual students about their performance, and in particular, in the language teaching classroom, to allow learners 'to confirm, disconfirm and modify their interlanguage rules' (Chaudron, 1988: 133).

The focus is on the form of the learner's response: whether, for example, the lexical item or grammatical structure provided by the learner was acceptable or not. The feedback may be an explicit acceptance or rejection of the response (e.g., 'Good', 'Excellent', 'No', 'Nearly') or some other indication that the response was not acceptable (e.g., repetition of the response with a low rising, questioning intonation).

Evaluative feedback typically, but not exclusively, co-occur with 'display' questions in the initiation move, that is, questions which the teacher asks in order to elicit a pre-determined response.

(Cullen, 2002: 119)

For discorsal feedback, Cullen explains its purpose as follows.

To pick up students' contributions and to 'incorporate them into the flow of (classroom) discourse' (Mercer, 1995: 26), in order to sustain and develop a dialogue between the teacher and the class: the emphasis is thus on content rather than form.

There is no explicit correction of the form of the student's response move, although the teacher may give implicit feedback by reformulating the utterance in a linguistically more acceptable form.

Discorsal feedback typically co-occurs with questions which have a 'referential' rather than a display functions (i.e. where there is no right or wrong answer predetermined by the teacher).

(Cullen, 2002: 120)

According to Cullen's (2002) explanation about evaluative and discorsal feedback above, it can be concluded that each function supports learning in different ways. Evaluative feedback is used on the basis of accuracy or correctness, for example, of information supplied or of linguistic form used, as the teachers in Example 1, p. 19, Example 3, p. 24 and Example 5, p. 31 do. On the other hand, discorsal feedback generally focuses on the message or content a student is trying to contribute, as can be seen in Example 4, p. 28.

Another category of teacher verbal feedback functions comes from Garcia's (2005) study. Based on the analysis of classroom interactions between children and with their teacher both in first and second language contexts in Madrid, Garcia has distinguished two main functions of teacher verbal feedback: *pedagogic* and *interactional* feedback. Pedagogic feedback she defines as 'acknowledgement or comment made by the teacher, with the purpose of correcting or evaluating the

student's performance' (Garcia, 2005: 12). On the other hand, interactional feedback is 'comment made by the teacher, with no evaluative or corrective purpose, which may enhance the student's linguistic production. This type of feedback includes expressions of agreement, disagreement or acknowledgement' (Garcia, 2005: 12).

In the following section, I comment on Cullen's (2002) and Garcia's (2005) categories of teacher verbal feedback functions, and also justify the category of teacher verbal feedback functions for the present study.

2.2.2.2 Category of Teacher Verbal Feedback Functions for the Study

In this section, I summarise the functions of teacher verbal feedback for the current study, and explain why I use them.

Cullen (2002) and Garcia (2005) use different terms for classifying two functions of teacher verbal feedback. The first function is to let students know how well they have performed, and the second one is to increase their interests and motivation to talk far more. Although their terms are different, they have similar features for each function. In the present study, the terms, *evaluative feedback* from Cullen and *interactional feedback* from Garcia, will be used. These terms themselves are clear and understandable because the terms both refer to their main purpose. Evaluative feedback can refer to its purpose which is evaluative while interactional feedback refers to interactional purpose where a teacher provides verbal feedback for keeping an interaction or a discussion with a student going. Now I summarise what evaluative and interactional feedback for this research means as follows.

Evaluative feedback is teacher verbal feedback which:

- focuses on the correct form or content of a student's contributions;
- shows a teacher's attempt to correct a student's contributions directly or indirectly;

- shows a teacher's evaluation, criticism, displeasure or rejection to a student's contributions.

Interactional feedback is teacher verbal feedback which:

- focuses on the content of a student's contributions without being concerned with the correct form of a student's contributions;
- reformulates a student's contributions without rejection in order to keep discussion continue if a student's contributions are wrong in grammatical structure;
- shows a teacher's intention to encourage a student to talk far more;
- uses a student's contributions to make a discussion move forward.

After describing the category for teacher verbal feedback functions in the present study and their meanings, in the next section, I review studies on teacher verbal feedback strategies.

2.2.2.3 Teacher Verbal Feedback Strategies

In this section, I explain and discuss teacher verbal feedback strategies from other previous studies.

The early strategies of teacher verbal feedback are classified by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). They usually consist of the acts of *accepting*, *evaluating* and *commenting*. According to Sinclair and Coulthard, a teacher provides the first act; *accepting*, to indicate that he or she has heard or seen a student's response or contribution and that it is an appropriate one. Accepting is realised by 'a closed set consisting of 'yes', 'fine', 'good', or by a repetition of the reply' (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975: 37). The example of this function can be exemplified in Example 1, p. 19, Example 3, p. 24 and Example 5, p. 31 quoted above. For the second act, *evaluating*, 'a teacher presents his or her estimation of the student's response and creates a basis for proceeding. Evaluating is usually realised by a statement,

sometimes by a tag question including words and phrases such as ‘good’, ‘interesting’. Normally, it is often preceded by accepting’ (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975: 37, 43). Moreover, a teacher uses it to comment on the quality of a student’s response or contribution. It is usually used when the student’s response is wrong, as can be seen in the following example:

(6)

- 1 T: What about this one? This I think is a super one. Isobel, can you think what it means?
- 2 S: Does it mean there’s been an accident further along the road?
- 3 T: **No.**

(Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975: 35)

It seems that accepting and evaluating acts are overlapped. As mentioned earlier, usually a teacher shows acceptance of a student’s contribution before evaluating it. However, there are some cases that a teacher evaluates a student’s contribution and lets the student find the correct answer before accepting it. It can be seen in the following example.

(7)

- 1 T: What about this one? This I think is a super one. Isobel, can you think what it means?
- 2 S: Does it mean there’s been an accident further along the road?
- 3 T: **No.**
- 4 S: Does it mean a double bend ahead?
- 5 T: **No, look at the car.** (tilts picture)
- 6 S: Slippery roads?
- 7 T: **Yes. It means be careful because the road’s very slippery.**

(Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975: 35)

In Example 7, the teacher evaluates the student's answer twice in lines 3, 5 and 7). However, in line 5 besides evaluating the answer the teacher helps the student finding the correct answer by showing the picture. Therefore, the student can give the correct answer in line 6. Finally, the teacher accepts it in line 7. This acceptability's procedure of a student's response can be explained by Hewings (1992). Hewings argues that the acceptability of a response is necessary. The teacher has three options. Firstly, the teacher can provide a negative assessment – reject the responses, indicating that it was unacceptable. Secondly, he or she can withhold the negative assessment until a later stage or give partial acceptance. The final option is for the teacher to provide a positive assessment – indicate that the response was acceptable (p. 183). For the last act, *commenting*, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) describe that it is used when a teacher wants to provide additional information, exemplify, expand, or justify a student's response or contribution, as can be seen in the following example:

(8)

S: Are the number for le – for the letters?

T: **Yes. They're – that's the order, one, two, three, four.**

(Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975: 36)

It seems that Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) strategies of teacher verbal feedback can be used for both evaluative feedback and interactional feedback. Teachers can accept, evaluate and comment on the content or form of students' contributions. However, these strategies can be only used to let the students know whether their contributions were accepted or not. There is no further strategy showing what the

teachers do when the student's contributions were incorrect or how they encourage them to talk far more.

After Sinclair and Couthard (1975) proposed verbal feedback strategies which teachers can use when providing verbal feedback to students' contributions, there are many researchers who have adopted, adapted, and developed Sinclair and Couthard's teacher verbal feedback strategies for their studies. One of the most important studies was conducted by Lyster and Ranta (1997), who analysed 18.3 hours of teacher-student interaction in four Grade 4/5 French immersion classrooms during subject-matter and French language arts lessons. In their study, they used audio-recordings to record these interactions. Drawing on categories from previous models as well as adding new categories derived from the analysis of teacher-student interaction in these classrooms, Lyster and Ranta develop an analytic model to code error treatment sequences in terms of evaluative feedback strategies. The explanations (Lyster and Ranta, 1997: 46-48) and examples (Lightbown and Spada, 2006: 126-127) of six different evaluative feedback strategies are as follows.

1. *Explicit correction* – refers to the explicit provision of the correct form, with the teacher clearly indicating what the student had said was incorrect.

S: The dog run fastly.

T: 'Fastly' doesn't exist. 'Fast' does not take *-ly*. That's why I picked 'quickly'.

2. *Recasts* – this involves the teacher's reformulation of all or part of the student's utterance, without the error. These generally tend to be implicit although some are more salient than others.

S1: Why you don't like Marc?

T: Why don't you like Marc?

S2: I don't know, I don't like him.

3. *Clarification requests* – these indicate to the students that the teacher has misunderstood their utterance or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or reformulation is required. This verbal feedback strategy can refer to either problems in comprehensibility or accuracy or both.

T: How often do you wash the dishes?

S: Fourteen.

T: Excuse me.
S: Fourteen.
T: Fourteen what?
S: Fourteen for a week.

4. *Metalinguistic feedback* – contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance without explicitly providing the correct form. Metalinguistic comments generally indicate that there is an error somewhere.

S: We look at the people yesterday.
T: What's the ending we put on verbs when we talk about the past?
S: e-d

5. *Elicitation* – these can be three types: first, teachers elicit completion of their own utterance by strategically pausing to allow students' to 'fill in the blank' (for example, 'It's a...'). Second, teachers use questions to elicit the correct form (for example, 'How do we say *x* in English?'). Third, teachers occasionally ask students to reformulate their utterance.

S: My father cleans the plate.
T: Excuse me, he cleans the???
S: Plates?

6. *Repetitions* – these refer to the teacher's repetition, in isolation of the students' erroneous utterance, usually signified by an adjustment in the teacher's intonation.

S: He's in the bathroom.
T: Bathroom?

Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that the teachers in their research provided evaluative feedback using recasts over half of the time (55%). Elicitation feedback was offered in 14% of the cases, clarification requests 11%, metalinguistic feedback 8%, explicit correction 7%, and repetition 5%. They point out that the low percentage of repetition is rather deceptive because teachers often produce repetitions along with other strategies of evaluative feedback. Moreover, Lyster and Ranta conclude that the strategies that allow for negotiation of form are elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests and repetition. Considering Lyster and Ranta's evaluative feedback strategies, it can be concluded that explicit correction tells students directly that their contributions are wrong. On the other hand, the other five

strategies imply that what students said is incorrect. Moreover, their purpose is to let students repair their erroneous contributions themselves.

In her study, Oberli (2003) observed one teacher's teaching in his EFL adult classroom in Korea for 70 minutes in order to investigate his verbal feedback. Oberli compared the use of evaluative feedback and the use of interactional feedback. For analysing the evaluative feedback strategies, she adopted Lyster and Ranta's (1997) strategies. However, her research's findings are different from Lyster and Ranta's study. In her study, the teacher used elicitation the most and recasts were used the least. The reason may be the research context is different, or the teachers of each study have different preferred teaching styles. While Lyster and Ranta conducted their research in primary classrooms, Oberli observed one teacher's verbal feedback in an EFL adult classroom. Therefore, the teacher in Oberli's study tried to encourage students to repair their incorrect contributions themselves. This can be confirmed by the findings of using explicit correction which was not used by the teacher. However, after observing an adult ESL classroom for four weeks, Panova and Lyster (2002) found that the teacher strongly preferred to use recasts rather than the other strategies which prompt students to self-repair. They discuss that the students' low proficiency level may not have allowed the teacher to use the other strategies that invite greater students' participation in negotiating form. The teacher explained that although the student had been placed in Level 2 which is an early intermediate level, she considered the proficiency of the students in this group to be at a beginning level. Since the students' problems in comprehension and their limited oral and written production abilities with respect to vocabulary and sentence structure, the teacher may have viewed recasts as a suitable strategy for providing exemplars of the target language.

Moreover, for analysing interactional feedback strategies, Oberli (2003) adopted Richards and Lockhart's (1996) strategies which are as follows.

1. *Acknowledging an answer*: the teacher acknowledges that a student's answer is correct by saying, for example, "Good," "Yes, that's right" or "Fine."

2. *Indicating an incorrect answer*: the teacher indicates that a student's answer is incorrect by saying, for example, "No, that's not quite right," or "Mmm."

3. *Praising*: the teacher compliments a student for an answer, for example, by saying "Yes, an excellent answer."

4. *Expanding or modifying a student's answer*: the teacher responds to a vague or incomplete answer by providing more information, or rephrasing the answer in the teacher's own words.

For example:

T: Does anyone know the capital of the United States?

S: Washington.

T: Yes, Washington, D.C. That's located on the east coast.

5. *Repeating*: the teacher repeats the student's answer.

6. *Summarising*: the teacher gives a summary of what a student or group of students has said.

7. *Criticising*: the teacher criticises a student for the kind of response provided.

For example:

T: Raymond, can you point out the topic sentence in this paragraph?

S: The first sentence.

T: How can it be the first sentence? Remember, I said the first sentence is not always the topic sentence in every paragraph. Look again!

(Richards and Lockhart, 1996: 189)

After analysing the data, Oberli found that the teacher used *expanding or modifying a student's answers* the most. This showed that the teacher tried to participate in and add content to the discussion. Moreover, *acknowledge answer* which was the second strategy used by the teacher helped to create a positive affective climate. This made students feel encouraged when participating. However, there is no use of praise or criticism in her research. Oberli concluded that in her study, the teacher used interactional feedback more than evaluative feedback. This might be because of the teaching purpose which was to make the classroom interactive, or the teacher's

teaching style. Therefore, the teacher preferred encouraging the students to participate in the discussion to intervening when errors were produced.

Similarly, Farooq (1998) investigates teacher verbal feedback in an EFL classroom for beginning-level Japanese students whether it produces language from students or not. He explains that the students' English ability was lower basic, lower than survival level in that they could barely ask or respond to any question without assistance from the teacher. Therefore, the teacher tried to use verbal feedback strategies which encourage the students to talk far more. In Farooq's study, there are seven strategies of teacher verbal feedback as follows.

- *Praise or encourage*: praising, complimenting, telling students what they have said or done is valued.
- *Use ideas of students*: clarifying, using ideas, interpreting ideas, summarising ideas. The ideas must be rephrased by the teacher but still recognised as being student contributions.
- *Repeat students' response verbatim*: repeating the exact words of students after they participate.
- *Correct without rejection*: telling students who have made a mistake the correct response without using words or intonation which communicates criticism.
- *Give directions*: give directions, requests or commands which students are expected to follow.
- *Criticises students' response*: telling the student his response is not correct or acceptable and communicating by words or intonation criticism, displeasure, annoyance, rejection.

(Farooq, 1998: 19)

After analysing the data, Farooq found that the teacher provided verbal feedback to respond to the content and correcting errors. In order to support the students' participation, the teacher extended the discussion by using ideas of the students,

repeating the students' response verbatim and showing his praise or encouragement. Moreover, he tried to neglect the students' incorrect contributions because he did not want to prevent the students from responding. However, if the teacher found that what the students said was wrong, he gave directions or clues leading to the correct or expected answer without explicit correction.

Another interesting research on teacher verbal feedback was done by Cullen (2002). In this study, Cullen investigates a particular aspect of teacher talk—the teacher's provision of verbal feedback—and examines the role it plays in EFL or ESL classroom discourse. As mentioned in Section 2.2.2.1, there are two main functions of teacher verbal feedback identified in Cullen's study which are evaluative feedback and discursal feedback. However, in the article 'Supportive teacher talk: the importance of the F-move', Cullen focuses, in particular, on discursal feedback and the strategies which the teacher in the data uses to build on students' contributions and develop a meaning-focused dialogue with the class. After analysing lesson transcripts from video recordings of secondary school English classes in Tanzania, he found that there were four specific strategies of discursal feedback: *reformulation, elaboration, comment, and repetition.*

Cullen (2002) explains that the teacher made frequent use of *reformulation* to repair the student's contribution to ensure that the content of the contribution is available and also audible without interrupting the flow of discourse the teacher is developing with the class as can be seen in the following example.

(9)

T: Anything else? Yes?

S6: He is telling him now to be under his control.

T: **Now you are under my command.** You have to do whatever I want you to do.

(Cullen, 2002: 121)

For the second strategy, *elaboration*, the teacher used it to help ensure understanding and to add humour to the proceedings. Moreover, it helps to add and extend the student's original response. The teacher's elaborations provide a linguistically richer source of input for the class and show that he or she listens to what the student said with interest. It can be seen in the following example.

(10)

T: Yes?

S9: I won't do anything, I'm going to die.

T: She won't do anything. She'll just close her eyes...

Laughter...and say: "Take me if you want—if you don't want, leave me."

(Cullen, 2002: 121)

The third strategy is *comment*, which is different from elaborating in that the teacher is not directly trying to add the meaning of what the student has said but is adding a spontaneous comment of his or her own. Cullen describes that the teacher used comment to pick up on the student's response (by repeating it) and then add her comment. Moreover, it was used to promote natural and communicative language use in the classroom as the following example.

(11)

T: Yes, please?

S11: I will be very frightened and collapse...

T: You'll collapse? **So you will die before the plane crashes.**

(Cullen, 2002: 121)

The last strategy which was found in Cullen's research is *repetition*. The teacher used this strategy to repeat the student's contribution to confirm, question, or express surprise without relating the form of what the student said. In the following example, the teacher repeats the student's contribution ('the plane would fall down') to confirm the idea but not the form in which it was expressed. In this situation, 'the repetition acts as a way of contrasting the dispreferred with the preferred item ('it would crash'), thus drawing the students' attention more directly to it' (Cullen, 2002: 125).

(12)

T: ...What do you think would happen to the plane? Yes please?

S7: The plane would fall down.

T: **The plane would fall down.** It would crash, and all the passengers unfortunately would die. Maybe some would survive, but most likely they would die.

(Cullen, 2002: 121)

Cullen (2002) concludes that the teacher in his study tried to clarify, build on the ideas that the students expressed in their responses and support learning by creating a climate which was rich in language and humour by using the verbal feedback strategies discussed previously.

In a more recent study, Fu (2005 cited in Taylor and Fu, 2006) adopted Cullen's (2002) teacher verbal feedback strategies in order to study discorsal feedback of native and non-native speaker teachers of English. She investigates classroom data provided by five native English speaking teachers working in Britain with multilingual adult classes, and five Chinese teachers of English working in China with monolingual adult classes of similar level and type. Moreover, alongside Cullen's discorsal feedback categories, she identifies two other strategies: *further*

information and *self disclosure*. Fu explains *further information* in that ‘it occurs where the teacher volunteers new information that is relevant to, but does not arise from, the student’s utterance itself’ (p.3). For *self disclosure*, it refers to ‘a teacher’s utterance that reveals emotional response or tells a personal anecdote relevant to the student’s contribution’ (p.3). These strategies are exemplified in the following extract from Fu’s (2005 cited in Taylor and Fu, 2006) data.

(13)

- 1 T: What do people wear in funerals, red or black?
- 2 S: White.
- 3 T: **After the Queen Mother died ... Do you know the Queen Mother? She was a very old lady. We had an official mourning. We didn’t have to wear black. I’m shocked, she was dead.**

(Taylor and Fu, 2006: 3)

In the above example, the teacher provides verbal feedback which is about factual and cultural information in line 3. This information is relevant to the topic (funerals), rather than to the student’s contribution (colour of funeral clothes). According to Fu, this discursal feedback strategy is further information. Moreover, the teacher says ‘I’m shocked, she was dead’ (line 3) which is self disclosure.

In her data as a whole, Fu (2005 cited in Taylor and Fu, 2006) finds that the native speaker teachers picked up students’ contributions to extend the discussion. This created learning and participation opportunities for the students because they could express more opinions about their previous contributions. On the other hand, the Chinese teachers of English rarely used discursal feedback. Normally, they concluded the exchange and quickly moved on, with ‘OK’, ‘Good’, ‘All right’, or ‘Any other ideas?’ The following example shows the interaction between Chinese teacher and a student in Fu’s research.

(14)

- 1 T: Now I'd like to give some questions for discussion. The boy thinks the Christmas was both best and worst. Why? Another question: have you ever experienced anything that first made you miserable and then happy? If yes, please tell us. OK, these two topics, just pick up one. For the first, which group would like to say something?
- 2 S: I'll say something about my experience. My birthday. My parents are out of town. That day is my birthday. On that morning, my father phoned and said that we are busy and couldn't go home. I was very sad, went to school. After school, I found my parents were at home. Then I laughed and cried.
- 3 T: **Thank you so much.** And just now she gave the answer of the second question. I'd like you to say something about the first question.

(Taylor and Fu, 2006: 4)

In Example 14, after the student told about her birthday story, instead of asking for more information or showing interest, the teacher concludes the discussion by saying "Thank you so much" (line 3) and moves on. This hinders the student to talk far more.

Moreover, after analysing her classroom data, Fu (2005 cited in Taylor and Fu, 2006) interviewed the ten teachers who had provided her with classroom data about their use of, and attitude to, verbal feedback in general. The native English speaking teachers mentioned that they saw communication as the main aim of English Language Teaching, and as congruent with discursal feedback. In particular, they mentioned concern with affective factors such as learner anxiety and self esteem. The Chinese teachers of English complained about their lack of training in teacher

talk, and viewed their own level of language proficiency both as a barrier to communication and as a threat to teacher authority in class. They also mentioned inhibiting constraints, such as time, class size and examination requirements.

Taylor and Fu (2006) discuss the findings from Fu's (2005 cited in Taylor and Fu, 2006) study that sociocultural and political factors might have inhibited the use of discursal feedback in the Chinese context. Furthermore, they discuss the impact of the notion of *harmony*, which might be responsible for the adoption of strategies such as silence, non-assertiveness and self-effacement. They also explain the fact that the Chinese teachers of English were working in a non English-speaking environment, where it was not necessary to communicate in English. Finally, they consider that the Chinese teachers' perception of themselves as having low economic status may have made them unwilling to take the initiative in giving discursal feedback.

In the following section, I justify the categories of teacher verbal feedback strategies for the current study.

2.2.2.4 Categories of Teacher Verbal Feedback Strategies for the Study

In Section 2.2.2.2, I explained why the term *evaluative feedback* from Cullen (2002) and the term *interactional feedback* from Garcia (2005) are used for analysing functions of teacher verbal feedback in the present study. In this section, after reviewing the strategies of teacher verbal feedback from other previous studies, I provide a rationale for selecting the categories of strategies for this study. In this research, the categories of teacher verbal feedback strategies are classified into two groups. The first category is for evaluative feedback strategies and the second one is for interactional feedback strategies. For analysing the strategies of evaluative feedback, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model was selected because it provides a tool for identifying individual teacher styles in the treatment of error during classroom interaction in detail. However, some strategies from their category such as explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback and elicitation were adapted because they are only used to indicate that the form of the student's contribution is incorrect. But, in the present study evaluative feedback focuses on the correct or adequate form or

content of a student's contribution. The following categories of evaluative feedback strategies are used in this research.

- *Explicit correction* refers to the explicit provision of the correct form or content. The teacher clearly indicates what the student had said was incorrect.

- *Recasts* involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of the student's contribution, without the error.

- *Clarification requests* indicate to the student that the teacher has misunderstood his or her contribution or that the contribution is ill formed in some way and that a repetition or reformulation is required.

- *Metalinguistic feedback* contains either comments, information, or questions related to the correctness or adequacy of form or content of a student's contribution, without explicitly providing the correct form or content.

- *Elicitation* refers to three techniques that the teacher uses to directly elicit the correct form or content from the student. First, the teacher elicits completion of his or her own contribution. Second, the teacher uses questions to elicit the correct form or content. Third, the teacher occasionally asks the student to reformulate his or her contribution.

- *Repetition* refers to the teacher's repetition of the student's erroneous contribution.

Two methods of analysis of the strategies of interactional feedback were considered: Cullen's (2002) and Richards and Lockhart's (1996). I chose Cullen's category because all strategies in this category are under interactional feedback. On the other hand, some strategies from the category of Richards and Lockhart can be used for analysing evaluative feedback strategies such as indicating an incorrect answer and criticising. The following categories of interactional feedback strategies are used in the current study.

- *Reformulation*: to repair the student's contribution to ensure that the content of the contribution is available and also audible without interrupting the flow of discourse the teacher is developing with the class.

- *Elaboration*: to help ensure understanding, to add humour to the proceedings, and to add and extend the student's original contribution.

- *Comment*: to pick up on the student's contribution (by repeating it) and then add a comment of the teacher.

- *Repetition*: to repeat the student's contribution to confirm, question, or express surprise without relating the form of what the student said.

In conclusion, the research discussed previously in Section 2.2.2.1 and Section 2.2.2.3 considers the categories of teacher verbal feedback functions and strategies, and their effects on students' participation in classroom discussions in ESL and EFL primary and secondary classrooms. However, despite the considerable body of research both in ESL and EFL on various aspects of teacher verbal feedback, including teacher verbal feedback functions and strategies, to my knowledge, there is as yet no published research which looks at the content of teacher verbal feedback. Consequently, in this study I investigate that neglected area along with other important aspects of teacher verbal feedback, namely, the functions of the feedback and the strategies used by the teacher. This research also contributes to the sparse body of research on teacher verbal feedback in ESP postgraduate classrooms. Moreover, as mentioned previously, normally research both in ESL and EFL classrooms focuses on several aspects of teacher verbal feedback and their effects on students' participation, to my knowledge, there is as yet no published study which investigates teacher verbal feedback in relation to course objectives and the teachers' personal teaching goals. Therefore, in this research I also examine this neglected topic.

In the following section, I review the literature about the relationship between teachers' teaching goals and their teaching practice.

2.3 Teachers' Teaching Goals

In this section, I review the literature about the relationship between teachers' teaching goals and their teaching practice because this study is concerned with verbal feedback of a Thai teacher in relation to his personal teaching goals and the course objectives.

Many researchers (e.g., Dalis *et al.*, 1975; Nespor, 1984; Thornton, 1985; Buck *et al.*, 1992) suggest that teachers' behaviours are guided by their goals, intentions, thoughts, judgments, and decisions. According to Dalis *et al.* (1975), teaching is goal directed. They explain that 'both students and teachers using their energies toward the eventual mastery of something to be learned. Their common purpose is to bridge the student's knowledge or skills gap' (p. 3). As Nespor (1984) points out, teachers' behaviours are propelled by their intentions and goals. In a similar opinion, Thornton (1985) describes that there is considerable correspondence between teachers' teaching goals, what ensues in the classroom, and what students learn. Thornton explains further that if this assumption is not made, curriculum planning and most educational policymaking will be pointless activities. Significant research on teaching has indicated that there is a relationship between teachers' teaching goals for their students and the teachers' teaching practices. For example, Elliot's (1976) research highlights the importance of teachers' teaching goals in their teaching practice. In his study, Elliot conducted in-depth interviews with eight teachers who consistently and successfully implemented individualised personalised learning style in their classrooms. He asked these teachers to explain what their teaching goals were for their students, their thoughts and ideas about teaching. The teachers were also asked to define individualised, personalised teaching. A set of questions was designed to help the teachers focus on their classrooms, in terms of routines, activities, structure, decisions, planning and the like, and also to focus on their classrooms at different points in time during the year. For example, "What do you do in the first two weeks of school?", "What are some of the most important teaching decisions you make each day?" From the interviews the findings included there were the five common goals—developing a sense of personal adequacy and self esteem, self-expression, basic academic skills, independent learning and interdependent learning—described by these teachers. However, the most common goal which

expressed by five of the eight teachers was to concern for the development of a sense of *personal adequacy* among the students. Based on both the interviews and from observing the classrooms, Elliot suggests several important thoughts and ideas common to teachers who individualise and personalise learning in their classrooms. First, these are *goal-oriented* teachers. These teachers focused on a set of goals that gave commitment and meaning to what they did in the classroom. Second, there is a focus on *meeting the individual needs of children*, and clear perceptions on how to do this. Third, these teachers were characterised by a *high degree of personal growth and development*. Finally, Elliot explains that to develop a better understanding of the teaching of many different kinds of teachers using many different styles of teaching, it is important to understand in some depth and detail how teachers with different goals and styles practice the teaching craft and what they think about teaching and learning.

Buck *et al.* (1992) also investigated several factors which may influence teachers' emphases in instructional practices. The factors examined include teachers' pedagogical beliefs, achievement goals for their students, and perceptions of the school culture as predictors of their instructional practice. The participants in this research were 117 classroom teachers in two elementary and two middle schools. These participants were asked to complete surveys which included items on these factors. The finding showed that teachers' instructional practices were strongly related to the achievement goals they held for students. Moreover, the results suggested that the teachers' pedagogical beliefs and the teachers' perceptions of their school's dominant values and beliefs could influence their teaching behaviours.

Dalis *et al.* (1975) present the teachers' goal statements and the teaching strategies the teachers employ to elicit those goals. In their paper, Teaching strategies and the classroom, they explain that most things teachers do in their classrooms can be classified as one of the six goals many teachers hold for their students. These six goals are: (1) acquire information; (2) develop concepts; (3) develop skills; (4) develop awareness; (5) develop inquiry strategies; and (6) express and discuss opinions and ideas. Moreover, Dalis *et al.* describe that different goals required different lesson climates, a different structure for the lessons, the teacher does different things as he or she interacts with students. Therefore, different goals for students require different teaching strategies. For example, to achieve the goal of

concept development, teachers may use teaching techniques that are different from the ones used to achieve the goal of skill development. To achieve the former goal, teachers either involve students in an activity, a series of activities or they may use a series of questions or statements in a class or group discussion format to stimulate the students' use of those intellectual processes necessary to build the desired concept. The teacher also makes it possible for the students to get feedback about their work; about the concept they are building so they will know if they are on the right track or not. To achieve the latter goal, teachers may tell students about a skill they are to learn, point out how the skill may be useful to them, describe or demonstrate the specific skill to be learned, and give opportunity for students to practice the desired skill and get feedback on their performances. Dalis *et al.*'s study also suggests that teachers who find themselves working toward a range of goals in the classroom should be more sensitive to changes in teaching strategies when they shift the kind of goals they are working for at the time.

Nespor (1984) provides another interesting study. The purpose of his case study was to describe one teacher's English classroom, her goal statements, and her explanations for her actions. Data were gained from videotapes of the classroom and several stimulated recall interviews. In these interviews, the teacher was asked to watch the tapes of her teaching and describe her goals, thoughts, or decisions at particular points in the class session. Nespor also conducted several unstructured interviews to ask the teacher about her background, career, and general views and beliefs about teaching; on her perceptions of the students in the class observed; on her views about the nature and sources of discipline problems; and on the administrative and community influence that she felt affected her classroom practice. The study revealed that there were two general themes or principles which guided the participant teacher's classroom practice. The first principle was the necessity of the close affective relationship between the teacher herself and her students. The second principle was the need to keep class work interesting, maintain a relaxed atmosphere and avoid routine and boredom as much as possible. Moreover, based on the teacher's interviews, it could be concluded that goals were not necessarily pre-existing determinants of action, but were sometimes discoveries after the act. As significant, the sources that influenced the teachers' goals or principles of teaching

were from her own experiences as a student, educational psychology courses, and the testimony of her own students.

Interestingly, the finding of Nespor's (1984) study is in agreement with the notion, proposed by several educators (e.g., Grossman, 1990; Richards and Lockhart, 1996; Johnson, 1995) that teachers' frames of reference have an influence on how the teachers develop their goals in teaching and how they make sense of what and how they teach. According to Johnson (1995), there are three aspects of *teachers' frames of reference*. First, *teachers' professional knowledge* is related to and informed by their personal values and purposes. Therefore, what teachers know and believe about teaching cannot be separated from who they are as people and what they do in their classrooms. Connelly and Clandinin (1988 cited in Johnson, 1995: 30) claim that teachers' professional knowledge, which they term as *personal practical knowledge*, is embedded in and inseparable from teachers' practices because it helps teachers in dealing with new situations. It is also reformulated through experience and reflection. Moreover, Lee Shulman and his colleagues at Stanford University in the Knowledge Growth in Teaching Project (Shulman, 1986 cited in Johnson, 1995: 31) propose a model of teachers' professional knowledge which includes four general areas as follows.

- *Subject matter knowledge* includes knowledge of the major facts and concepts in a subject area as well as its major paradigms; how the area is organised; its fundamental theories, claims, and truths; and central questions of further inquiry (Grossman, Wilson, and Shulman, 1989).
- *General pedagogical knowledge* represents general knowledge about teaching that cuts across subject areas, including beliefs and skills related to general principles of curriculum and instruction, learners and learning, and classroom management (Shulman, 1987).
- *Pedagogical content knowledge* is 'the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organised, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction' (Shulman, 1987: 8).
- *Knowledge of context* includes the ecology of learning in the classroom: that is, the context-specific knowledge that teachers use to adapt their instruction to the demands of the specific school setting and/or the needs

of individual student within the unique context of their classrooms (Lampert, 1985).

(Johnson, 1995: 31-32)

Shulman's (1986 cited in Johnson, 1995: 31) model of teachers' professional knowledge above can be applied to teachers' experiences during their second language teaching practicum. For example, it can be assumed that some teachers will enter the classrooms with a great deal of knowledge about the language they are supposed to teach. This subject matter knowledge may consist of their tacit knowledge of their native language and any explicit knowledge they may have learned about their native language through both formal and informal study. Moreover, it can be assumed that some teachers will enter their classrooms with some knowledge of the ecology of learning in second language classrooms, as well as the unique culture of classrooms based on their prior experiences as a student and memories of their own teachers.

The second aspect of teachers' frames of reference is explained by Johnson (1995) is *teachers' theoretical beliefs*. This aspect is viewed as the philosophical principles, or belief systems, that guide teachers' expectations and decisions. Teachers' theoretical beliefs are also thought to act as filters through which teachers make instructional judgements and decisions. Therefore, understanding teachers' theoretical beliefs leads to understanding the filter through which teachers make decisions while teaching. For example, some teachers believe that grammar errors should be corrected immediately. Others believe that learning is more effective when it involves collaboration rather than competition. For me, I believe that if students like learning English, they can learn it well. Therefore, I try to make my students like learning English by finding interesting and fun activities for them such as games, role play, etc. Johnson explains that the ESL teacher in her research about the relationship between ESL teachers' theoretical belief and their instructional practices described her theoretical beliefs as being consistent with the communicative explanations of second language learning and teaching. The teacher believes that second language learning takes place in meaningful interactions in which students

become participants in real-life activities. She also emphasised the importance of using authentic language within realistic contexts, with focusing on meaningful communication over grammatical accuracy. After observing the teacher's classroom teaching, Johnson found that the teacher provided instruction that was consistent with her theoretical beliefs. For example, in all of her reading lessons, the teacher used authentic texts and normally asked students to relate to the readings in some personal way such as asking students to define the main idea of a reading passage by providing their own definitions of some vocabularies.

According to Johnson (1995), although theoretical beliefs about learning and teaching may shape the nature of many teachers' instructional practices, this may not be the case for all teachers, in all instructional contexts. Some teachers, in particular, inexperienced teachers, are frustrated by the realities of classroom life that they encounter because they try to provide second language instruction that is consistent with their theoretical beliefs. For example, in Johnson's study, one teacher described that there was a gap between what she believes is good second language teaching and what she saw herself doing during teaching. In one of interviews, the teacher said:

Sometimes I feel guilty because I feel like I am wasting their time. I am supposed to be teaching them English but unless the stuff they talk about is meaningful, the kids didn't care about it, and it becomes a silly exercise to fill up time. Sometimes I know I am intentionally wasting time, just to get through the period, and I hate myself for doing that. I know there is a gap between what I believe I should be doing and what ends up actually happening.

(Johnson, 1995: 36-37)

Johnson (1995) discusses that after her long-range planning and the strategies which she had developed to deal with the realities of the classroom, this teacher could lessen some of the tensions she had experienced earlier in the practicum. Moreover, he summarises that some teachers use their prior teaching experiences to lessen or solve problems which they find in the present classrooms. This is the last aspect of teachers' frames of reference which is *teachers' understandings of their teaching*

experiences. Johnson summarises that teachers' frames of reference are significant to understanding how teachers think, talk, act, and interact in second language classrooms. In addition, Richards and Lockhart (1996) and Grossman (1990) claim that teaching experiences or experiences of what works best, and the awareness of established practices within the school culture, such as teaching styles, were also important factors that could have affected the teachers' beliefs about teaching, which then transferred to the development of their teaching goals and teaching behaviours.

In conclusion, the literature reviewed above has suggested that the teachers' teaching goals can be influenced by the pedagogical beliefs which may be from the teachers' own experiences as students, their educational background, their teaching experiences, and their perception of the beliefs and values of the school culture. Moreover, teachers' instructional practices are linked to their teaching goals, thoughts, and intentions. Therefore, to understand the actions of teachers, it is necessary to understand the cognitive activities which produce those actions. Consequently, in the current study, through interviewing, I tried to explore the participant teacher's cognitive thinking, including his teaching goals that guided his teaching acts as well as the factors which formed his teaching goals. Such findings could help me develop explanations as to why the teacher in this study taught the way he did, and as to whether his verbal feedback gave opportunities for students to achieve the goals.

2.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter consisted of two sections: (1) Teacher Talk, and (2) Teachers' Teaching Goals. In the first section, Teacher talk comprised two aspects: amount and type of teacher talk, and teacher verbal feedback. The former aspect is important because it leads to the development of explanations about the findings in the current study regarding the nature of classroom interaction. The latter aspect, teacher verbal feedback, is significant since it is the main focus of this research, and it contains information about the functions and strategies of teacher verbal feedback. In the second section, Teachers' Teaching Goals, literature which was reviewed is related

to the relationship between teachers' teaching goals for their students and their teaching practices, and also the sources that influence the teachers' teaching goals.

After reviewing the considerable body of research both in ESL and EFL on various aspects of teacher verbal feedback, I found that there were three neglected areas: the content of teacher verbal feedback; teacher verbal feedback in ESP postgraduate classrooms; and teacher verbal feedback in relation to course objectives and teachers' personal teaching goals. Therefore, in this study I address these gaps along with other important aspects of teacher verbal feedback, namely, the functions and strategies of teacher feedback. This is accomplished by investigating how teacher verbal feedback provides or hinders opportunities for postgraduates to accomplish course objectives and teachers' personal teaching goals. Furthermore, in Thailand, to my knowledge, there is no research about teacher verbal feedback. Therefore, I have designed this study with a hope of contributing to the research on this topic in Thailand.

In the next chapter, the research methodology adopted in the current study is described.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research methodology and principles underpinning the current study with the rationale provided for the choice of data collection procedures and data analysis. It consists of three major sections. In the first section, I present a brief overview of research methodology for this study. Next, a detailed description of the methodology rationale and the quality criteria including ethics are provided in the second section. Finally, I describe about my actual research procedure, including how I gained access permission from the Department of Languages, how I selected the participant, the profile of the participant, the data collection procedures and the data analysis.

3.2 Overview of Research Methodology

This section presents a brief outline of the key aspects of the research methodology adopted in this research, the details of which will be provided in the following section, Section 3.3. Before presenting the brief outline of research methodology, I restate the research questions below.

1. What are the objectives of the course the teacher teaches?
2. What are the personal teaching goals the teacher has for his students to achieve?
3. What are the functions of verbal feedback provided by the teacher in the classroom?
4. What are the strategies used by the teacher in providing verbal feedback?
5. What is the content of verbal feedback provided by the teacher?
6. Does the teacher's verbal feedback give opportunities for the students to attain the course objectives?

7. Does the teacher's verbal feedback give opportunities for the students to accomplish the personal teaching goals the teacher has for them?
8. If yes, how are opportunities to reach these course objectives and these personal teaching goals provided through the teacher's verbal feedback?
9. If not, how are opportunities to attain these course objectives and these personal teaching goals blocked through the teacher's verbal feedback?

The research methodology for the present study was determined by its purpose. Since the purpose of my research is to investigate different aspects of teacher verbal feedback that happened naturally in a postgraduate classroom in relation to the course objectives and a teacher's personal teaching goals, I considered this study *classroom-centred research*. According to Allwright (1983), Gaies (1983), and Allwright and Bailey (1991), classroom-centred research is research centred on the classroom that investigates the process of second language learning and teaching. Rather than setting out specific hypotheses about cause and effect relationship and testing them, classroom-centred research puts an emphasis on describing, in the greatest possible detail, what actually goes on in the second language classroom with an aim to identify the phenomena that promote or hinder learning (Allwright and Bailey, 1991). As description is the key term of classroom-centred research (Gaies, 1983), the principal approaches of studying second language learning and teaching are either observation or introspection (asking people to answer questions) or a combination of these two. Based on the nature and principles of classroom-centred research discussed previously, the data collection approach I chose for the current study was a combination of both observation and introspection – interview. I provide a brief description of each approach below.

For this classroom-centred research, the purpose of interviewing was to obtain as much information as possible regarding the teacher's perceptions, experiences, thoughts, points of view, and personal teaching goals. In this study, I conducted one interview with the participant teacher after the end of observations. The reasons that I could interview him only once at the end of the observations can be seen in Section 3.4.5.2. Moreover, the interview was recorded to ensure that everything said was saved for further transcription and analysis. The format of the interview was *semi-*

structured which is between highly-structured (questions and order are determined ahead of time) and unstructured (essentially exploratory - no predetermined set of questions) (Merriam, 1998). Merriam describes that although semi-structured interview is guided by a list of questions or issues to be explored, the exact wording or the order is not determined ahead of time. Therefore, it could provide me with an opportunity to respond to the situation at hand and to the emerging new ideas on the topic. Moreover, I undertook a thematic analysis of the course objectives from the course syllabus (see Appendix G) in order to substantiate the findings from the interview. It can be concluded that the interview could help me to answer the first and second research questions (see p. 59).

For the purpose of observation, it was to record the teacher's teaching, through audio recording and field notes, for later transcription and analysis. Since I wanted to get rich, in-depth, vivid, unique data about different aspects of teacher verbal feedback, observation in the naturalistic situation could give me this chance. Furthermore, I did not use a coding scheme or previously defined categories during observation because it would have given a very restricted view of what is actually happening. It also may make me miss important behaviours of relevance to the study and the data would not have been as in-depth as simply observing the behaviour which is occurring. Therefore, the current study conformed to the aim of *less-structured observation* in that the observations were open in order to record as much as possible about the physical, social and temporal context in which teacher verbal feedback occurred (Foster, 1996). The detail of such contexts was useful for later analysis. In order to take full account of different aspects of teacher verbal feedback, I acted as *the passive observer*. This role has no interaction with the participants during data collection (Spradley, 1980). The reason I adopted this role is that it allowed me to have time for taking notes which were used for reflections on the observations and issues raised since I did not interact with the participants. Besides taking notes, I used audio-recording which provided a more complete and accurate record of behaviour and could be used to supplement or check data records from my field notes. This was useful in assessing the validity of data recorded live – field notes (Foster, 1996). Moreover, being the passive observer, I tried to be as unobtrusive as possible in order to minimise the impact on the data collected. That is, I did not participate in any classroom activities, try to change the situation being observed or

ask for any extra activities which were not part of the regular lesson. In summary, less-structured observation as a passive observer could help me find the answers for the third to ninth research questions (see pp. 59-60).

For collecting the data by using observation, interview, and documentary analysis, I followed the advice of previous researchers (e.g., Allwright and Bailey, 1991; Bogdan and Biklen, 2007) on the use of *methodological triangulation* by using a combination of more than one dissimilar approach of data collection such as interviews, observations, and physical evidence to study the same unit. This helps to confirm data collected in one way with data collected in a different way or to increase confidence in the interpretation. Bogdan and Biklen (2007) explain that many sources of data are better in a study than a single source because multiple sources lead to a fuller understanding of the phenomena you are studying. According to Denzin (1970 cited in Merriam, 1988), ‘the rationale for this strategy is that the flaws of one approach are often the strengths of another, and by combining approaches, observers can achieve the best of each, while overcoming their unique deficiencies’ (p. 69). In summary, the methodological triangulation is to confirm the accurate picture of a particular phenomenon to be obtained.

Moreover, the approach for data collection and data analysis I selected for this classroom-centred research is a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches rather than the rigid adherence to one approach over another (van Lier, 1988; Allwright and Bailey, 1991). That is, I made multiple observations of the participant teacher. Later, I transcribed the eight segments which were the discussion between the teacher and the students from each lesson. The reasons that I decided to code and analyse eight transcribed teacher-student discussions (TTSD) (see Appendix D for one of eight TTSD) can be seen in Section 3.4.6.2. After that, I calculated the frequency and percentage of coding categories of each aspect of teacher verbal feedback. By doing so, I employed quantitative approach to analyse the data that were originally qualitative in form – transcripts. Based on the results, gained from quantitative data analysis along with the qualitative data from the transcripts, then I provided a detailed description of the occurrence of different aspects of verbal feedback the teacher used in his teaching. As for the qualitative data obtained from interview, I used qualitative data analysis in which I classified

these data according to categories relevant to the first, second and sixth to ninth research questions (see pp. 59-60). Then based on the findings about teacher verbal feedback obtained from classroom observation along with the interview data and documentary analysis (the course syllabus), I considered whether or not the teacher's verbal feedback could provide opportunities for the students to accomplish the course objectives and the personal teaching goals he had for them. As this is an analytic and descriptive research, I also attempted to provide more than one interpretation in relation to how the teacher's verbal feedback either provided or blocked opportunities for the students to reach the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals. The rationale for multiple interpretations, according to Fanselow (1990), is to help me see things in different perspectives instead of limiting myself to my preconceived notions or individual biases about good or bad teaching. Fanselow also explains that the purpose of giving more than one interpretation of teaching is 'simply to try to remind that each event we see can be interpreted in ways different from our usual ways of doing it because we are each limited by the ideas of reality we have' (Fanselow, 1990: 190).

After the brief outline of the key aspects of the research methodology adopted in the current study, in the following section I explain in detail the methodology rationale and the quality criteria for the study including ethics.

3.3 Methodology Rationale

This section provides the theoretical framework of the present study. Firstly, the interpretative research paradigm is explained. Secondly, I describe the principles of classroom-centred research. Thirdly, the rationale for a qualitative approach is provided. Fourthly, I explain data collection approaches of classroom-centred research. Fifthly, qualitative data analysis is discussed. Finally, I provide a description of this study's quality criteria including ethics.

3.3.1 Interpretative Paradigm

According to Cohen *et al.* (2007), the nature of research inquiry can be from two perspectives, *normative* and *interpretative*. The normative paradigm contains two major ideas: ‘human behaviour is essentially rule-governed and it should be investigated by the approaches of natural science’. On the other hand, the interpretative paradigm is characterised by ‘a concern for the individual’ (Cohen *et al.*, 2007: 21). Kincheloe and McLaren (1994) note about an interpretative paradigm as follows.

The knowledge that the world yields has to be interpreted by men and women who are a part of that world. What we call information always involves an act of human judgement. From a critical perspective this act of judgement is an interpretative act.

(Kincheloe and McLaren, 1994:144)

Cohen *et al.* (2007) explain that the purpose of studies based on the interpretative paradigm is to understand the ‘subjective world of human experience by focusing on action which may be thought of as *‘behaviour-with-meaning’* which is intentional behaviour and is future-oriented’ (p.21). For example, a teacher who nods his head in the classroom after listening to a student’s answer performs an action which is understandable to the student. This teacher’s action leads the student to question the reason for the teacher’s action or interprets the action as accepting her answer. In summary, the interpretative researcher begins with the individual and tries to make sense of the individual’s interpretations of the world around him. This makes it essential for the data to be generated by the research act where theory follows the research rather than precedes it.

In choosing between the normative and the interpretative paradigm, I adopted the latter in this classroom-centred research. My decision was based on the fact that the current study focused on providing rich, in-depth, vivid, unique descriptive data

about three aspects of teacher verbal feedback in relation to the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals and using models developed for the physical sciences was not appropriate. Therefore, an interpretative paradigm was more suitable for this research than normative paradigm. As Schofield (1993) noted, for researchers doing work based on this paradigm, the goal is to describe a specific group in fine detail and to explain the patterns that exist, certainly not to discover general laws of human behaviour. Moreover, some characteristics of the interpretative paradigm which were taken into consideration in this study involve firstly a focus on the individual characterised by 'a small-scale research'. Secondly, the interpretative paradigm adopts the perspective that 'human actions continuously recreate social life'. Thirdly, the interpretative study is 'largely non-statistical' and 'understands actions/ meanings rather than causes' (Cohen and Manion, 1994: 39). Consequently, this classroom-centred research involved a small sample of one teacher, did not make use of systematic quantitative coding systems, and investigated the meanings of the participant in his verbal feedback during the conduct of a lesson. Moreover, throughout every stage of doing this study, in particular, data collection and analysis the importance and conception of interpretation was always kept in mind. I reminded myself constantly of the words of Clandinin and Connelly (1991) as follows.

Initially a narrative researcher is concerned with description, that is, a recording of events in field notes, a recording of participants' talk in interviews, and a recording of their stories. But even in these descriptive records, there is an interpretative quality, for when we tell stories of ourselves to others...we are engaged in offering interpretation of the stories we are living.

(Clandinin and Connelly, 1991: 275)

3.3.2 Principles of Classroom-Centred Research

Allwright (1983), Gaies (1983) and Allwright and Bailey (1991) agree to take classroom-centred research (or simply *classroom research*) as a cover-term for a

whole range of research studies on classroom second language learning and teaching including EFL, ESL, ESP, EAP, and so on (van Lier, 1988). According to Allwright (1983: 191) and Allwright and Bailey (1991: 2), classroom-centred research is just that ‘research centred on the classroom, as distinct from, for example, research that concentrates on the inputs to the classroom (the syllabus, the teaching materials) or on the outputs from the classroom (learner achievement scores)’. Allwright and Bailey discuss that this research approach does not ignore or try to devalue the importance of such inputs and outputs. It simply tries to investigate what happens inside the classroom when students and teachers come together. Since the unifying factor of classroom-centred research is that ‘the emphasis is solidly on trying to understand what goes on in the classroom setting’ (Allwright and Bailey, 1991: 2), this approach does not view classrooms as the *setting* for research, but as the *object* of research. Moreover, according to Allwright and Bailey, rather than setting out to test specific hypotheses about cause and effect relationship, classroom-centred research puts an emphasis on describing, in the greatest possible detail, what actually goes on in the second language classroom with an aim to identify the phenomena that promote or impede learning. Similarly, van Lier (1988) describes that if researchers go in the classrooms with the specific purpose of finding *good* or *bad* aspects of teaching, learning or interaction, or of locating specific examples of behaviours pre-specified as being of interest, those researchers are in danger of losing a complete record of all the events that occurred in a given situation.

van Lier (1988) describes how at the beginning of doing a research project by using classroom-centred research approach many researchers try to focus on the context of interaction and create specific problems for research. The areas which have received the most attention in classroom-centred research to date are: patterns of participation, the speech and behaviour of teachers, the treatment of learners’ errors, and individual student (or teacher) variables in the classroom (Bailey, 1985). Whatever the focus of attention, one common characteristic of classroom-centred research is that it is descriptive in nature. It usually involves observation, recording and transcription that lead to thick description (van Lier, 1988). As description is the key term of classroom-centred research (Gaies, 1983), the principal approaches of studying second language teaching and learning are either observation or introspection (refers

to research techniques that involve, for example, asking people to answer questions) or a combination of these two (Allwright, 1983; Allwright and Bailey, 1991).

3.3.3 Rationale for a Qualitative Approach

A qualitative approach is derived from work in the social sciences, in particular, anthropology, in which fieldworkers try to make a complete record of all the events that occurred in a given situation. Its general aim is to provide rich, descriptive data, in this case about what happens in the second language classroom (Day, 1990). Moreover, while a quantitative approach is obtrusive and controlled, objective, generalisable, outcome oriented, and assumes the existence of *facts* which are somehow external to and independent of the observer and researcher, a qualitative approach makes the assumption that all knowledge is relative, that there is a subjective element to all knowledge and research, and that holistic, ungeneralisable studies are justified (Nunan, 1992).

According to Strauss and Corbin (1990), there are several considerations when deciding to adopt a qualitative research methodology. They explain that a qualitative approach can be used to better understand any phenomenon about which little is yet known. It can also be used to gain new perspectives on things about which much is already known, or to gain more in-depth information that may be difficult to convey quantitatively. Therefore, a qualitative approach is appropriate in situations where one needs to first identify the variables that might later be tested quantitatively, or where researchers have determined that quantitative measures cannot adequately describe or interpret a situation. Research problems tend to be framed as open-ended questions that will support discovery of new information.

Similarly, Creswell (1998) describes that one might select a qualitative study because of:

- the nature of the research question which often starts with a *how* or a *what* so that initial forays into the topic describe what is going on;
- the topic needs to be *explored*. By this, it means that variables cannot be

easily identified, theories are not available to explain behaviour of participants or their population of study, and theories need to be developed.

- the need to present a *detailed* view of topic.
- the need to study individual in their *natural setting*.
- the interest in *writing* in a literary style in which the writer brings himself or herself into the study, the personal pronoun 'I' is used, or perhaps the writer engages a storytelling form of narration.
- *sufficient time and resources* to spend on extensive data collection in the field and detailed data analysis of 'text' information.
- *audiences are receptive* to qualitative research.
- the need to emphasise the researcher's role as an *active learner* who can tell the story from the participants' view rather than as an "expert" who passes judgment on participants.

(Creswell, 1998: 17-18)

Although a qualitative approach does not produce findings which are arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification, some researchers statistically analyse their data (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Allwright and Bailey (1991) provide different approaches to transcripts. Firstly, the researcher can count any number of discourse features, ranging from the amount of teacher-talk to the frequency of use of certain words/ phrases. Alternatively, they suggest a close textual analysis, which need not involve any form of counting. The third possibility is a combination of both the qualitative and quantitative approaches. Allwright (1983) counted the number of turn-getting moves found in transcripts of ESL classes. This is essentially a quantitative analysis of data that was originally qualitative in form. In fact, this indicates that even a numerical analysis has to be treated qualitatively at some stage as the researcher will have to make the decision on how best to interpret the figures. Bailey (1984) for example, successfully combined both approaches in what is now termed *hybrid research* (Allwright and Bailey, 1991). Several second language classroom researchers are calling for combined approaches rather than an adherence to one approach over the other (e.g., Ellis, 1984; van Lier, 1988). Although the current study is primary qualitative, it also makes use of rudimentary numerical analysis, as recommended by Allwright and Bailey (1991) so that patterns of behaviour and speech could be identified.

3.3.4 Data Collection Approaches

According to Allwright (1983) and Allwright and Bailey (1991), basically, research on second language teaching and learning can be done either by observation, or by some form of introspection, or by some combination of these two. As discussed previously in Section 3.2, the data collection approach I chose for this research was a combination of both observation and introspection—interview. In the following sections, I provide a general description of each approach.

3.3.4.1 Classroom Observation

Patton (1990) notes that a popular form of data collection in naturalistic or field research is observation of participants in the context of a natural scene. Observational data are used for the purpose of description – of settings, activities, people, and the meanings of what is observed from the perspective of the participants. Observation can lead to deeper understandings than interviews alone, because it provides knowledge of the context in which events occur, and may enable researchers to see things that participants themselves are not aware of, or that they are unwilling to discuss. As part of research, observation can be used for a variety of purposes. For example, it might be employed in the preliminary stages of a research to explore an area which can then be studied more fully by using other approaches such as interviews or surveys (Foster, 1996).

According to Merriam (1998), researchers might want to collect data by observation for many reasons. Firstly, since an observer is an outsider, he or she can notice things that have become routine to the participants themselves, things that may lead to understanding the context. Secondly, observations are also conducted to triangulate emerging findings; that is, they are used in conjunction with interview and documentary analysis to substantiate the findings. Finally, observations provide some knowledge of the context or provide specific incidents, behaviours, and so on that can be used as reference points for subsequent interviews.

When researchers select observation as their research approach, they have to plan and conduct it in a systematic way by using appropriate techniques for the purposes at hand. Creswell (1998) provides a series of observational steps as follow.

- Select a site to be observed. Obtain the required permissions needed to gain access to the site.
- At the site, identify who or what to observe, when, and for how long. A gatekeeper or key informants help in this process.
- Determine, initially, a role as an observer.
- Design an observational protocol as a method for recording notes in the field.
- Record aspects such as portraits of the informant, the physical setting, particular events and activities, and your own reactions.
- During the observation, have someone introduce you or you are an outsider, be passive and friendly, and start with limited objectives in the first few sessions of observation.
- After observing, slowly withdraw from the site, thanking the participants and informing them of the use of the data and their accessibility to the study.

(Creswell, 1998: 125-126)

In the current study, I followed all Creswell's (1998) guidance which was systematically established procedures for classroom observation. Moreover, before observing a setting, researchers have to decide which approach they will use for observation. According to Foster (1996: 60), there are a number of different approaches to observational research. One important distinction is between *more-structured* (sometimes referred to as *systematic*) observation and *less-structured* (sometimes referred to as *ethnographic* or *unstructured*) observation. Foster explains that these two approaches originate in different academic traditions, and have different aims, purposes and procedures. More-structured observation aims to produce accurate quantitative data on particular pre-specified observable behaviours or patterns of interaction. These data concern the frequency, duration or, in some cases quality of particular behaviours, and may also record the types of people involved, or the physical, social or temporal context in which the behaviour occurs. The essential characteristic of more-structured observation is that before the data

collection begins the purposes of the observation, the categories of behaviour to be observed and the approaches by which instances of behaviour are to be allocated to categories, are worked out, and clearly defined. Moreover, the role of the observer is to follow carefully the instructions laid down in the observation schedule, thereby minimising observer subjectivity.

On the other hand, less-structured observation aims to produce detailed, qualitative descriptions of human behaviour that illuminate social meanings and shared culture. These data are combined with information from conversations, interviews and, where appropriate, documentary sources to produce an in-depth and rounded picture of the culture of the group, which places the perspectives of group members at its heart and reflects the richness and complexity of their social world. Moreover, less-structured observation is characterised by flexibility and a minimum of pre-structuring. This does not mean that the observer begins data collection with no aim and no idea of what to observe, but there is a commitment to approach observation with a relatively open mind, to minimise the influence of the observer's preconceptions and to avoid imposing existing preconceived categories. The aim of less-structured observation is also often to develop theory, but here theory tends to emerge from, or be grounded in, the data. Rather than developing a theory and then collecting data specially to test that theory, data collection, theory construction and testing are interwoven (Foster, 1996: 61-63).

In this classroom-centred research, I selected less-structured observation as an approach for observation (see Section 3.2 for the detailed reasons for choosing this approach). Normally, for recording data, a less-structured observation technique is the use of field notes. These are notes taken either during the observation itself when this is possible, or shortly afterwards, and they form a running record of the researcher's observations (Foster, 1996). For this study, I took notes during the observations and after each lesson I summarised my opinions about it. Finally, I made notes on the whole picture of the classroom such as teaching activities and practices, in particular the provision of teacher verbal feedback relating to the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals (see Section 3.4.5.1 for a summary of this classroom's teaching activities: presentation and classroom discussion). Moreover, Foster explains that it is impossible to record everything that

happens in a particular situation. Therefore, selection is inevitable and necessary. What is written down depends on the initial research questions and the stage the research has reached. However, it is very important to record as much detail as possible about what was said, both verbally and non-verbally. In general, the more detailed the description, the more likely it is to be accurate, and the less likely to be subject to distortion. Moreover, according to Day (1990), field notes should be as descriptive and objective as possible, and should not be judgmental or evaluative. For example, instead of writing 'Students are interested in the lesson,' it is more helpful to write, 'The students are focusing on the task at hand' (Day, 1990: 45). As discussed previously, it is not possible to record everything happening in the classroom by taking notes. Therefore, observers should find other techniques to help them. Normally, audio and video recordings are used. Day explains that audio and video recordings are the most neutral techniques for observation. They have the potential of capturing the essence of the classroom and their recordings can be listened to or viewed over and over. By doing this, it allows the participants to see the recordings and agree on an interpretation of an event or behaviour. Similarly, Foster (1996) describes that the advantages of audio and video recordings is that they provide a more complete and accurate record of behaviour and can be used to supplement or check data records produced by the researcher, such as field notes or tallies produced by systematic observation. However, one of the disadvantages to the use of both audio and video recordings is the fact that they are intrusive, with the latter much more so than the former (Day, 1990). Day suggests one way to reduce the impact of equipment in the classroom is for observers to set up the equipment before participants arrive, and allow them to examine the equipment before class begins. In the present study, I used audio-recording because I focused only on the teacher's verbal feedback.

As mentioned previously about observation's steps, 'determine a role as an observer' is one of the steps. Foster (1996) explains that while collecting information as an observer, researchers have to select which role they act in the setting. This depends on the purposes of the research, the nature of the setting, the means of gaining access and the observational approach employed. Foster lists four types of the researcher's role which he took from Gold's (1958 cited in Foster, 1996: 73) article and Junker's (1960 cited in Foster, 1996: 73) book as the complete observer, the observer as

participant, the participant as observer and the complete participant. He describes each role as follows.

- *The complete observer*: the researcher has no interaction with the subjects during data collection. The benefit of the complete observer role is that it should eliminate the reactivity which stems from the immediate physical presence of the observer.

- *The observer as participant*: the observer interacts with subjects, but does not take an established role in the group. In such cases the nature of the researcher's identity may be more fully developed and negotiated, and the researcher may be more likely to construct roles which involve greater participation, but the essential role is that of researcher.

- *The participant as observer*: This involves the researcher taking an established, or certainly a more participant, role in the group for the bulk of the research.

- *The complete participant*: the researcher plays an established role in the group and is fully immersed in that participant role, but uses his or her position to conduct research.

(Foster, 1996: 73-76)

Based on the description of the observer's roles above, I thought that I was the complete observer because I intended not to participate or involve in any activities in the classroom. However, when I read about the complete observer's description carefully from Merriam (1998), I found that normally this role is 'either hidden from the group (for example, behind a one-way mirror) or in a completely public setting such as an airport or library' (p. 101). Therefore, I thought that I was not the complete observer because I sat in the classroom for observing. Then I read the other roles carefully in order to find which role was appropriate for me the most. At first, I thought that maybe I was the observer as participant, but based on its description which is 'the observer interacts with subjects' (Foster, 1996: 73-76), I thought that I was not the observer as participant because I did not interact with my participant. It can be concluded that the description of the observer's roles above made me confused. Consequently, I tried to find other categories of the observer's role from other writers. Finally, I found the following category from Spradley

(1980) easy to understand. Spradley explains that he categorised the observer’s role based on the degree of his or her involvement, both *with* people and *in* the activities he or she observes. The following table shows five types of participant that range along a continuum of involvement (Spradley, 1980: 58).

| DEGREE OF INVOLVEMENT | TYPE OF PARTICIPANT |
|-----------------------|---------------------|
| High | Complete |
| | Active |
| | Moderate |
| | Passive |
| Low | |
| (No involvement) | Non participation |

Based on the above table, finally I knew which role I took. I was the passive observer who ‘presents at the scene of action but does not participate or interact with other people to any great extent’ (Spradley, 1980: 59). Spradley explains that about all the observer needs to do is find an *observation post* from which to observe and record what goes on. It can be concluded that based on the purpose of this study which is to investigate and describe different aspects of teacher verbal feedback in-depth, I chose to act as the passive observer. (See Section 3.2 for the detailed reasons for taking this researcher’s role.)

However, being the passive observer may make participants uncomfortable because they are aware of the presence of the observer. Therefore, this makes them say things in a different way. According to Allwright and Bailey (1991),

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

(Allwright and Bailey, 1991: 68)

Allwright and Bailey (1991) suggest the preliminary steps for solving this problem. Before collecting the data, researchers should get written permission from all the people involved, so that everybody at least has some idea of what is going to happen, and a real opportunity to get out of it altogether if they want to. Moreover, researchers will guarantee the confidentiality of their data, and the anonymity of all participants in any published reports. In particular, in order to minimise the problem about reactivity, researchers have to be patient. If they make repeated visits to the classroom, familiarise their participants with any intrusive data collection devices (such as videotape recorders), make themselves available before and after observations, and maintain an openness to the people involved in the study, these people will probably grow accustomed to them (Allwright and Bailey, 1991: 71). See Section 3.4.5.1 for detailed explanations of what I did when observing this classroom.

3.3.4.2 Interview

As discussed previously, introspection is one of classroom-centred research's data collection approaches. Introspection refers to research techniques that involve asking people to answer questions. Researchers ask people to introspect, to reflect on their experience by interviewing them or by giving them questionnaires to respond to (Allwright, 1983). Since I wanted to get in-depth information about the participant teacher's perceptions, experiences, thoughts, points of view, and teaching goals, I selected interview to be another data collection approach.

According to Cannell and Kahn (1968 cited in Cohen and Manion, 1994: 271), interview has been defined as 'a two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research-relevant information, and focused by him on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction, or explanation'. Patton (1990) explains that an interview helps to find out what is in and on someone else's mind. As Patton explains:

We interview people to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe...We cannot observe feelings, thoughts, and intentions. We cannot

observe behaviours that took place at some previous point in time. We cannot observe situations that preclude the presence of an observer. We cannot observe how people have organised the world and the meanings they attach to what goes on in the world. We have to ask people questions about those things. The purpose of interviewing, then, is to allow us to enter into the other person's perspective

(Patton, 1990: 196)

Similarly, Seidman (2006) describes that an interview provides access to the context of people's behaviour, and thereby provides a way for the researchers to better understand the meaning of that behaviour. Consequently, the data from the interview could help me gain deeper insights into the teacher's thoughts, feelings, and intentions. All these things could not be directly observed.

Moreover, according to Seidman (2006), the purpose of in-depth interview is not to get answers to questions, nor test hypotheses, and not to evaluate. He explains that one key of the interview's basic assumptions is to be interested in others. Similarly, Walker and Adelman (1990 cited in Hopkins, 2002: 110) suggest that interviewers have to be a 'sympathetic, interested and attentive listener, without taking an active conservative role; this is a way of conveying that they value and appreciate the interviewee's opinion'.

According to Merriam (1998), there are three types of interviews: *highly structured*, *semi-structured*, and *unstructured*. For a highly structured interview which sometimes is called a standardised interview, the questions and the order in which they are asked are determined ahead of time. The problem with using this type of interview in qualitative research is that rigidly adhering to predetermined questions may not allow interviewers to access participants' perspectives and understandings of the world. The second type of interview is the semi-structured interview which is more open-ended and less structured. Semi-structured interviews assume that individual respondents define the world in unique ways. This is different from the highly structured interview which assumes that respondents share a common vocabulary. Merriam explains that in semi-structured interview either all of the questions are more flexibly worded, or the interview is a mix of more or less

structured questions. The format of this type of interview allows the researcher to respond to the situation at hand, to the emerging worldview of the respondent, and to new ideas on the topic. The last type of interview is an unstructured, informal interview which is particularly useful when the researcher does not know enough about a phenomenon to ask relevant questions. Thus there is no predetermined set of questions, and the interview is essentially exploratory. One of the aims of the unstructured interview is learning enough about a situation to formulate questions for subsequent interviews. This type of interview is appropriate with a skilled researcher because he or she has to handle the great flexibility demanded by the unstructured interview (Merriam, 1998).

In the present study, I selected semi-structured interview to be another data collection approach. This type of interview is between a highly structured interview and an unstructured interview (Merriam, 1998). Although a semi-structured interview is guided by a list of questions or issues to be explored, the exact wording or the order is not determined ahead of time. Therefore, it could provide me with opportunities to respond to the situation at hand and to the emerging new ideas on the topic.

In conducting the interview, Seidman (2006) suggests the first principle of interview is 'listen more; talk less' (p. 84). Moreover, there are two techniques about asking questions suggested by Seidman. The first suggestion is to 'avoid leading questions'. A leading question is one that influences the direction the response will take. Seidman explains that sometimes the lead is in the intonation of the question which implies an expectation. Sometimes it is in the wording, syntax, and intonation of the question, as when an interviewer asks, "Did you *really* mean to do that?" Sometimes the lead is in the conclusion implied by the question. One interviewer, listening to a participant's story about her family and her early schooling, asked: "Your parents pushed you to study, didn't they?" (Seidman, 2006: 84). Another suggestion about asking questions is 'ask open-ended questions'. According to Seidman, an open-ended question 'establishes the territory to be explored while allowing the participant to take any direction he or she wants' (Seidman, 2006: 84). This type of question does not presume an answer.

Spradley (1979) suggests two types of open-ended questions which are relevant to in-depth interview. One is the *grand tour* question in which the interviewer asks the participant to reconstruct a significant segment of an experience. For example, “Could you describe the main things that happen during the school year, beginning in September and going through May or June?” (Spradley, 1979: 86). Spradley explains that responses to grand tour questions offer almost unlimited opportunities for investigating smaller aspects of experiences. Since grand tour questions lead to such rich descriptions, it is easy to overlook these new opportunities. Therefore, Spradley suggests another type of open-ended questions which is *mini-tour* questions. Mini-tour questions are identical to grand tour questions, but they deal with a much smaller unit of experiences. For example, “Could you describe what you do when you take a break at Brady’s Bar?”, “Could you describe to me how you take phone calls in your work as a secretary?” (Spradley, 1979: 88).

Similarly, Merriam (1998) summarises that questions are very important for interviewing. Therefore, in order to get meaningful data a researcher must ask good questions. The interviewer should avoid three types of questions: multiple questions, leading questions, and questions that can be answered yes or no. First, multiple questions—either one question that is actually a double question or a series of single questions that does not allow the respondent to answer one by one should be avoided, for example, “How do you feel about the instructors and the classes?” Secondly, leading questions should also be avoided because they show a bias or an assumption that the researcher is making, which may not be held by the participant, for example, “What emotional problems have you had since losing your job?” Finally, all researchers should not ask yes/no questions because they give researchers no information. This type of questions offers an easy way out for the reluctant, shy, or less verbal respondent. Moreover, it can shut down or slow the flow of information from the respondents. See Section 3.4.5.2 for detailed explanations of the interview with the teacher.

3.3.5 Qualitative Data Analysis

After finishing the data collection process, the next stage was to analyse the data collected from the classroom observations and interview. Therefore, there was one question in my mind before data analysis, it was ‘How do I start to analyse my data?’ Since I was a new qualitative researcher, I tried to find guidance which is easy to understand for doing qualitative data analysis from several previous qualitative researchers. In this section I provide a general description of qualitative data analysis. For the detailed explanation about how I analysed the data for the current study, see Section 3.4.6.

In general, qualitative data analysis involves ‘organising, accounting for and explaining the data’ (Cohen *et al.*, 2007: 461). Similarly, Bogdan and Biklen (2007) explain that qualitative data analysis involves working with the data, organising them, breaking them into manageable units, coding them, synthesising them, and searching for patterns. Moreover, there is another clear explanation about qualitative data analysis of Hatch (2002). Hatch conceptualises the general data analysis process as ‘*asking questions of data*’ (p. 148). He describes that data analysis is a way to ‘organise and interrogate data in ways that allow researchers to see patterns, identify themes, discover relationships, develop explanation, make interpretations, mount critiques, or generate theories’ (Hatch, 2002: 148). Therefore, it always involves synthesis, evaluation, interpretation, categorisation, hypothesising, comparison, and pattern finding.

Tesch (1990) explains that ‘analysis is not the last phase in the research process; it is concurrent with the data collection or cyclic’ (p. 95). Although analysis can occur throughout the data collection process, I decided to analyse the data after collecting them because I am a new researcher. Therefore, it is difficult and complicated for me to do data collection and analysis at the same time. Bogdan and Biklen’s (2007) following judgment supports my decision.

The beginning researcher should borrow strategies from the analysis in-the-field mode, but leave the more formal analysis and interpretation until most

of the data are in. Problems of establishing rapport and getting on in the field are complicated and too consuming for beginners to enable them actively pursue analysis. There is just too much to juggle at one time. In addition, new researchers often do not have the theoretical and substantive background to plug into issues and themes when they first arrive on the scene. To do ongoing analysis and interpretation, one must have an eye for the conceptual and substantive issues that are displayed—something someone new to the field is not as likely to have as an old-timer.

(Bogdan and Biklen, 2007: 160)

According to Miles and Huberman (1994), in general, before analysing the qualitative data which is normally in the form of handwritten or typed field notes, notes indicated after field contact, or tape recordings of interviews or other events in the field setting, these basic, raw data must be processed before they are available for analysis. For example, raw field notes must be converted into *write-ups* which is an ‘intelligible product for anyone, not just for the field-worker. It can be read, edited for accuracy, commented on, coded, and analysed using any of the approaches researchers are about to describe’ (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 51). Moreover, direct tape recordings of field events must be processed in some way. For example, the field-worker listens to or watches the tape, makes notes, selects excerpts, and makes judgments or ratings. More typically, the tape is transcribed into text. Similarly, Creswell (1998) explains at an early stage in the analysis process, researchers organise their data into folders, index cards, or computer files. Besides organising files, researchers convert their files to appropriate text units (e.g., a word, a sentence, an entire story) for analysis either by hand or by computer. Materials must be easily located in large databases of text. As Patton (1980 cited in Creswell, 1998: 143) describes,

The data generated by qualitative methods are voluminous. I have found no way of preparing students for the sheer massive volumes of information with which they will find themselves confronted when data collection has ended. Sitting down to make sense out of pages of interviews and whole files of field notes can be overwhelming.

After organisation and conversion of the data, researchers continue analysis by getting a sense of the whole database. For example, Agar (1980 cited in Creswell, 1998: 143) suggests that researchers ‘read the transcripts in their entirety several times. Immerse yourself in the detail, trying to get a sense of the interview as a whole before breaking it into parts’. Moreover, Creswell (1998) suggests that during reading their data, researchers can write memos in the margins of field notes or transcripts in order to begin the initial process of exploring a database. Then researchers have to identify the most relevant segments of the text according to an organised scheme. Some categories quite often emerge from the data, without having to apply a fix taxonomy. Sometimes, researchers do the opposite: they apply a predetermined classification. It can be concluded that the two main models of qualitative data analysis are: inductive analysis and typological analysis (Hatch, 2002). Hatch explains that inductive analysis is ‘a search for patterns of meaning in data so that general statements about phenomena under investigation can be made’ (Hatch, 2002: 161). On the other hand, typological analysis starts by ‘dividing the overall data set into categories or groups based on predetermined typologies’ (Hatch, 2002: 152). According to Hatch, there are nine steps in typological analysis as follows.

1. Identify typologies to be analysed.
2. Read the data, marking entries related to your typologies.
3. Read entries by typology, recording the main ideas in entries on a summary sheet.
4. Look for patterns, relationships, themes within typologies.
5. Read data, coding entries according to patterns identified and keeping a record of what entries go with which elements of your patterns.
6. Decide if your patterns are supported by the data, and search the data for no examples of your patterns.
7. Look for relationships among the patterns identified.
8. Write your patterns as one-sentence generalisations.
9. Select data excerpts that support your generalisations.

(Hatch, 2002: 153)

In the present study, I selected typological analysis to analyse my data. This model is the appropriate data analysis strategy for this study because I already had an idea of what topic would be addressed in the data from the previous literature. For interview data, I developed categories which can be seen in Appendix B for analysing such issues as objectives of the course taught by the teacher, the teacher's personal teaching goals, the teacher's verbal feedback in relation to the objectives and the goals, and the teacher's views, thoughts, description, and reflection of his teaching. For observation data, since I wanted to investigate three aspects of teacher verbal feedback that happened naturally in the classroom, I selected and identified categories for analysing teacher verbal feedback functions, strategies, and content (see Appendix E for the coding scheme). Although Hatch developed typological strategies for analysing data from interview and focus groups, he explains that this model's applicability can be used for other types of data. Therefore, I thought that typological analysis could help me to analyse data collected from classroom observation and interview in order to find the answers for the first to fifth research questions (see p.59). See Section 3.4.6 for detailed explanations of how I analysed the data.

3.3.6 Quality Criteria

For doing classroom-centred research, researchers have to be concerned about its quality criteria about which there are three standards: *reliability*, *validity* and *generalisability* (Allwright and Bailey, 1991). Therefore, in the following sections I explain how I achieved these standards including ethical issues for the current study.

3.3.6.1 Reliability

According to Allwright and Bailey (1991), reliability is consistency of both the data collection and data analysis. That is, the research procedures must be consistent, both over time and across the variety of people who might use them. For example, the observational system, or the determination of the structures to be counted, or coding categories do not change from one day to the next. Allwright and Bailey explain that one area of obvious concern about reliability is in situations where there

is more than one observer who involves in trying to count or code the same things. For example, if the observers do not agree with each other, their findings are not reliable, and so not usable. Therefore, the suggestion for solving this problem is to establish '*inter-coder reliability*' (Allwright and Bailey, 1991: 46).

In this study, I observed the classroom alone by using less-structured observation that there was no preconceived category for teacher verbal feedback. Therefore, I was not concerned about coding reliability during the data collection. However, I was concerned about reliability when I analysed and coded the data. Consequently, in order to determine the code reliability when analysing the data, I invited my PhD classmate to participate in establishing inter-coder reliability. (See Section 3.4.6.2 for the detailed description for inter-coder reliability.)

3.3.6.2 Validity

Allwright and Bailey (1991) explain that validity concerns truth. Chaudron (1988b cited in Allwright and Bailey, 1991: 48) has discussed three types of validation which relate to classroom-centred research. The first type is *construct validation*, which involves 'trying to determine, usually through the use of two different measurements of the same underlying concept or trait (the construct)'. The second type is *criterion-related validity*, in which 'some form of measurement (usually an established and accepted instrument or test) is used to measure a trait along with another form (the procedure to be validated). Moreover, the latter is judged by how well its results correspond to the measurement derived from the former'. Finally, the last type of validation is *treatment validation*. This focus is related to 'the process component of process-product studies; the researcher tries to document that the treatment was in fact implemented and that it was identifiably different from whatever it was being compared with'.

The way which I enhanced the validity of the present study was to use methodological triangulation. Methodological triangulation is very close to the concept of construct validation. As discussed previously in Section 3.2, I used a combination of both observation and interview in order to confirm data collected in observations with data collected in interview. This helped me to increase confidence

when I analysed and interpreted the data. Another technique which I used for enhancing validity of this research was *member checks*, in which respondents are asked to corroborate findings (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 313-316). (See the detailed description of this technique adopted in this study in Section 3.4.6.1.)

3.3.6.3 Generalisability

As the name implies, generalisability involves ‘the extent to which the findings of a study can be generalised, or applied, to other (external) situations’ (Allwright and Bailey, 1991: 48). According to Schofield (1993), not all researchers in the qualitative tradition reject generalisation strongly, instead many of them give it very low priority or see it as essentially irrelevant to their aims. For example, Allwright and Bailey explain that in naturalistic enquiry, generalisability is not always a primary focus. On the other hand, Smith (1975: 88 cited in Schofield, 1993: 92) points out that ‘the goal of science is to be able to generalise findings to diverse populations and times’. As Allwright and Bailey discuss, naturalistic enquiry is non-interventionist and uses naturally happening groups, rather than artificially designed or randomly selected groups representing some wider population. Normally, classroom researchers deal with matters of opinion and interpretation. Therefore, they cannot simply use the statistical techniques which experimenters have developed to deal with the issue of generalisability.

Similarly, van Lier (1988) discusses the issue of generalisability in classroom-centred research. As it is context-based, analysis can therefore not have as its primary aim the immediate generalisability of findings. Moreover, he describes that when classroom-centred research is conducted *in* the classroom rather than *about* the classroom, the set of data must be kept small. According to van Lier, ‘one lesson may yield as much useful information as ten lessons, and probably a good deal more than fifty lessons. Small amounts of data can provide powerful analyses’ (p. 4). Therefore, the first concern must be to analyse the data *as they are*, rather than to compare them to other data to see how similar they are. He also summarises that ‘early generalising can be detrimental to classroom research: it often prevents depth of analysis’ (van Lier, 1988: 17). Allwright and Bailey (1991) agree with van Lier. They explain that instead of claiming that whatever has been discovered must be true

of people in general, a naturalistic enquirer will claim that whatever understanding has been gained by an in-depth study of a real-life classroom may illuminate issues for other people. For example, a diary study of just one learner by herself gave rise to productive thoughts about competitiveness and anxiety among adult second language learners (Bailey, 1983a cited in Allwright and Bailey, 1991: 51).

Since there was only one teacher who met the criteria I set for selecting the participant (see Section 3.4.3), the generalisation of the current study may be questioned. However, as a qualitative researcher who gives the generalisation very low priority and sees it as irrelevant to their studies' purposes, I was not concerned about this issue much. I did not expect whatever had been discovered in this study to be true for people in general. I only hope that any understanding about teacher verbal feedback in relation to the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals which had been gained by this in-depth study of a real-life classroom may illuminate issues for other people. As Schofield (1993) explained:

The qualitative research's goal is *not* to produce a standardised set of results that any other careful research in the same situation or studying the same issues would have produced. Rather it is to produce a coherent and illuminating description of and perspective on a situation that is based on and consistent with detailed study of that situation.

(Schofield, 1993: 93)

Therefore, I think that generalisation depends on the relationship between readers' experiences and the study. The data from this classroom-centred research may help to expand and facilitate the readers' understanding of teacher verbal feedback in relation to course objectives and teachers' personal teaching goals in their own situations. Consequently, the generalisation of the current study depends on the readers' acceptance of whether they can use some information from this study for their own situation or not. As I mentioned previously, I only hope that this research

can provide a whole picture about providing verbal feedback in relation to the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals in a postgraduate classroom. This can be used for understanding or reflecting on the provision of verbal feedback and possibly improving it.

In summary, I am interested in perceiving and validating the uniqueness of the story of the participant teacher and I also drew on other existing studies to develop my discussion and conclusion on teacher verbal feedback in relation to the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals. Moreover, although the present study did not aim to be generalisable, it could be a useful starting point for future research on Thai teachers' verbal feedback.

3.3.6.4 Ethics

According to Creswell (1998), because of the nature of the tradition of inquiry, a qualitative researcher faces many ethical issues that emerge during data collection in the setting and in analysis and dissemination of qualitative reports. Based on the criteria of the American Anthropological Association, there are appropriate standards for handling the ethical issues as follows.

- Protecting the anonymity of the informants
- Disclosing (or not) the purpose of the research
- Deciding whether (or how) to use information "shared off the record" in an interview in a case study
- Determining whether the researcher should share personal experiences

(Creswell, 1998: 132)

Similarly, Dewalt and Dewalt (1998) discuss that when a researcher meets participants for the first time, he or she must be sure to inform them of the purpose for being there and share adequate information and background. Moreover, after the

data collection, the researcher should allow the participants to check the accuracy of research's findings. According to Dewalt and Dewalt, advances in technologies, such as cameras and microphones, have made it possible to gather a significant amount of information about verbal and non-verbal behaviour of participants that might be considered an invasion of privacy or intrusive, in particular, if the participants are unaware of being observed. Since this study dealt with people, I was concerned about human subject ethics protection. Therefore, whether the teacher and the students were aware of it or not, I had to consider ethical issues which might arise. During data collection in the setting and in analysis and dissemination of the current study, I was always aware that the teacher and the students might feel threatened unless reassured that the information collected would remain confidential. Moreover, they might think that they were not doing a good job, and that someone was checking up on them. Furthermore, I admitted that my engagement in the process of teaching and learning was firstly felt to be disruptive or caused some nervous tension to both the teacher and the students. This problem would not enable me to accomplish the aim of allowing the data to present itself as naturally as possible. Therefore, I used various strategies which could minimise the ethical issues based on Allwright and Bailey's (1991) suggestion and standards of the American Anthropological Association mentioned above. Firstly, I asked for access permission from all the people involved in this research. Secondly, I explained the purposes of the current study to the teacher who described these purposes to his students later. I also gained both the teacher and the students' written consent to collect the data. In my application for consent I listed the purposes of this study, the requirements on the teacher and the students as participants, as well as their rights during and after the study. (See the informed consent form in Appendix A.) Thirdly, I guaranteed the confidentiality of my data, and the anonymity of all participants in any published reports. Fourthly, I made myself available before and after observations to let the teacher and the students ask questions about this research if they were still worried about my presence. I tried to maintain openness to them because I wanted to grow accustomed to them. Finally, I told the teacher and the students if they felt uncomfortable during my observations, they could tell me to stop the observation.

3.4 Actual Procedure

In this section, I explain what I did for the preparation of the data collection, the data collecting procedures, and the data analysis.

3.4.1 Selection of the Setting

I chose to do my research in the Department of Languages of the Faculty of Applied Arts at a public Thai university in Bangkok. I accepted that I selected this place to be the setting of the present study based on their accessibility. I have worked here for three years and used to study in its master programme before so I could ask for useful documents relating to this research easily. Normally in Thailand it is not easy for anyone to ask for any document from government institutions if he or she does not work in that institution.

Moreover, in fact, I decided to choose this place because I thought that at the beginning it is normal and easy for researchers to study the situations occurring at their workplace or the place they are staying. Normally, researchers' original purposes to do research are to solve the problems, improve, and change the problematic situation or only to study what happens in their places. Based on my experiences when I studied in the postgraduate programme of the Department of Languages, I found that my classmates and I were expected to make contributions to discussions when topics were raised. Some classrooms offered a supportive climate for us to make propositions and have our comment, by adding and by modifying understanding from personal experiences and from studied reading on relevant topics. On the other hand, other classrooms did not provide the above opportunities for us. This situation affects the students' learning and thinking development. It also hinders students from developing their language competence because if students generate output, it provides a means of enhancing their linguistic competence. This familiar problem can be found in every classroom of every educational level in Thailand. Consequently, I thought that postgraduate classrooms in the Department of Languages in the Faculty of Applied Arts could provide useful data for the current study. In addition, I preferred doing research in a postgraduate classroom to doing

research in an undergraduate classroom because normally there are not more than ten students in the postgraduate classroom. Furthermore, the nature of the teaching and learning of postgraduate level that a teacher has to encourage students to participate in classroom discussions by focusing on the content more than the form of what the students say provides me with more opportunities to see teacher verbal feedback than in the undergraduate classroom.

3.4.2 Gaining Access Permission

Before collecting the data, I made contact with the ‘*gatekeeper*’ of the research site for the purpose of gaining access (Creswell, 1998: 125). This is the Head of the Department of Languages. In the process, I initially talked with her on the telephone, requesting permission to conduct research at the Department of Languages. Then I wrote an official memo to the Head of the Department, stating the topic, nature, and purpose of my thesis proposal, as well as the tentative schedule for the data collection period. I also enclosed a copy of my thesis proposal and a letter of recommendation addressed to the Head of the Department written by my doctoral supervisor requesting the department approval of my data collection plan. After a short while, I received an email from the Head of the Department, informing me that she had approved my research plan.

3.4.3 Selection of Participants

Before going to collect the data, I set the criteria for selecting teachers to be the participants in this research as follows.

1. Thai nationality;
2. Use of English as a medium of instruction;
3. Willingness to participate in the study:
 - 3.1 Willingness to be observed and audio-recorded;
 - 3.2 Willingness to be interviewed and audio-recorded.

The first criterion was set because the purpose of the current study is to investigate only Thai teachers, not teachers of other nationalities. The second criterion was established because this research aimed to investigate the provision of teacher verbal feedback in English, not other languages. Finally, the third criterion was stated clearly in the informed consent form, since it was important that the participants in this study be willing to participate, that is, to be observed and interviewed while being audio-recorded several times.

As stated in Section 1.2, Chapter 1, I selected MA-BIC to be the setting of the present study since it met one of the criteria discussed previously; it uses English as a medium of instruction. Upon arrival at the setting, I learned that there were four courses for MA-BIC postgraduate students in the second semester as follows.

- Statistic and Research Methodology
- Intercultural Business Communication
- Intercultural Pragmatics
- Seminar in English for International Communication

However, for the second semester, there was only one course, Intercultural Business Communication which was taught by a Thai teacher. Consequently, I had to drop the other three courses because they did not meet one of the criteria; they were not taught by a Thai teacher. Therefore, the final number of the participants in this classroom-centred research was one teacher, who will hereafter be referred to as Ajarn (Aj) who I had not known before. I then approached Ajarn and provided more information about the purpose of this study and the methodology by which the data collection would be carried out. In order to avoid any possible bias to the validity of the data, the aim of the present study was explained as my general interest in teacher and students interaction. Moreover, I attempted to assure Ajarn that his participation in this study would in no way link to the evaluation of his teaching performance, hence would not affect his professional standing.

3.4.4 The Participant Profile

Ajarn is a part-time teacher who was invited to teach Intercultural Business Communication for MA-BIC. He is in his late 40s. After obtaining a Bachelor's degree in Education, majoring in Secondary Education, he started his first career as a tutor at English tutoring school. He taught upper-secondary students (Matayom VI) about English grammatical structures and reading comprehension in order to prepare them for taking the Joint Higher Education Entrance Examination (for admission to an institution of higher education) for almost three years. Then he was a soldier whose duties were translation and interpretation in the Royal Thai Army. After working in the Royal Thai Army for almost a year, he was granted a scholarship to study an English Teaching Development Course in Australia for six months. After completion, he returned to the Royal Thai Army and worked as an English teacher for twelve years.

Subsequently he continued his Master's degree in Bicultural Bilingual Studies at an American university. Upon receiving his Master's degree, he became a lecturer who is the specialist in Curriculum and Foreign Languages Instruction in the Department of Curriculum, Instruction, and Educational Technology in the Faculty of Education at the public university in Bangkok and he has worked in this university ever since. Ajarn has approximately 30 years of teaching experience. Aside from teaching, Ajarn has been invited as an ESP lecturer and a guest speaker about teaching English at several public and private universities. At the present time, to my knowledge, he pursues a doctoral degree in the field of Curriculum, Instruction, and Educational Technology at the university in Bangkok.

3.4.5 Data Collection Procedures

This research aims to investigate multiple aspects of teacher verbal feedback in relation to the course objectives and personal teaching goals the teacher had for the students to accomplish. The data were collected in the second semester of the academic year of 2006. The duration of the data collection was ten weeks, starting in

the first week of December, 2006 and continuing until the second week of February, 2007 as the following data collection timetable shows.

Table 2: Data Collection Timetable

| Date | Classroom Observations | Teacher Interview |
|-------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Thurs 30, Nov 2006 | Introductory meeting | |
| 1. Thurs 7, Dec 2006 | | |
| 2. Thurs 14, Dec 2006 | | |
| Mon 18-Sun 24, Dec 2006 | Midterm examination | |
| 3. Thurs 28, Dec 2006 | | |
| Thurs 4, Dec 2006 | Class cancelled | |
| 4. Thurs 11, Jan 2007 | | |
| 5. Thurs 18, Jan 2007 | | |
| 6. Thurs 25, Jan 2007 | | |
| 7. Thurs 1, Feb 2007 | | |
| Thurs 8, Feb 2007 | Class cancelled | |
| 8. Thurs 15, Feb 2007 | | |
| Mon 19-Sun 25, Feb 2007 | Final examination | |

3.4.5.1 Classroom Observation

Since the current study aims to provide rich, in-depth, vivid, unique descriptive data about teacher verbal feedback in relation to the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals, the main approach employed in collecting the data was *classroom observation*, in which I followed the aim of less-structured observation and played the role of the passive observer discussed previously in Section 3.2.

As showed in Table 2 above, I observed the classroom eight times because four classes were cancelled by Ajarn and the examinations. Eight sessions were observed once a week for a period of three hours. Moreover, a week before beginning data collection, introductions were made to the students. I was introduced to the students as an English teacher of the Department of Languages who had been granted a scholarship from the Thai Government to study for a doctoral degree in a British university and was currently collecting the data for my thesis. Moreover, Ajarn informed the students that the purpose of my observation was not at all to evaluate the teacher's nor the students' performances, but was for research. I also told both Ajarn and the students that they could discuss any aspects of my data collection if they wished. However, they were not made aware of the precise focus because they were informed that the purpose of the current study was to examine classroom interaction. At the end of the data collection, I thanked Ajarn and his students with a small gift for their participation.

The recording equipment used in observation was an mp3 player, with a highly sensitive microphone built-in. Audio recording was used because it was thought to be less intrusive than video recording and could be a neutral technique for observation (Day, 1990). Furthermore, it allowed me to check on the accuracy of the transcription because it could be listened to over and over. During observation, I placed the mp3 player which can record voices for almost four hours on a student's desk in the middle of the classroom in order to record the teacher's and the students' voices. Since the number of students was quite small, the mp3 player could pick up the voices well. Besides using the mp3 player, I took a note of what happened in the classroom during the observations. After finishing the data collection, I summarised what information I got from my note-taking. In summary, from the first day of the observations, I found that this class could be divided into two main parts: the students' presentation and classroom discussions as follows.

- Presentation (80%)

The teacher asked the students to give a presentation about doing business with the country they were interested in. As I noticed during the presentation, both the

teacher and the other students paid attention to the presenter. However, sometimes the teacher interrupted the presentation when he wanted to add more information about what the student was saying or when he wondered what the student said. For the students, they did not ask any questions or interrupt the presentation. Therefore, after each student's presentation, the teacher had to force the students to question the presenter. As I observed, if he did not force them to do, they would not do it. However, the questions they asked were display questions more than referential ones. The teacher often complained about it with me. After that the teacher gave comments and suggestions for each student. Normally he began with praise, for example, "Over all, generally, a nice presentation, especially the way you invented the characters and the pictures are very nice to look at." Then he made suggestions to the students about how to improve their next presentations.

- Classroom discussion (20%)

Besides the students' presentations, there were some classroom discussions. Generally, they are about the topics from the presentations, daily news or any topics the teacher raised. The discussion began with the teacher's question or statements. Normally, at first the students did not answer or say anything back immediately. So the teacher had to say more or encourage them to participate in the discussion. The students' contributions were quite short if they spoke in English. But if they spoke in Thai, they seemed more talkative.

Although the class lasted for three hours, I did not record all because more than half of the lesson it was the students' presentation as mentioned previously. I did not record the presentations because there was no provision of verbal feedback from the teacher. Although the teacher provided comments or suggestions after the students' presentations, these comments and suggestions were not counted as verbal feedback because they were not provided immediately following a student's contributions.

Besides audio-recording, I also took field notes which contained a whole picture of classroom activities. During observations, I sat at the right side by the wall and near the corner of the room. This position made me see the widest view of the entire

classroom. In my field notes, following Day's (1990) suggestion, I tried to note the events as objectively and neutrally as possible by avoiding the use of evaluative and judgmental language.

3.4.5.2 Interview

The other important technique which I used for collecting the data in this study is to *interview* the participant. The purpose of the interview was to get a special kind of information, in particular teacher verbal feedback in relation to the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals for his students to accomplish. In the current study, I conducted a semi-structured interview discussed previously in Section 3.2. I interviewed Ajarn on the last day of classroom observations (Thursday 15, February 2007) as shown in Table 2, Section 3.4.5, p. 92. I interviewed him once at the end of the observations. I did not interview him before observing his classroom or after each lesson because I would have had a set of ideas about the pre-specified classroom activities, in particular, the teacher's provision of verbal feedback in relation to the course objectives and the personal teaching goals he had for the students to accomplish. Under these circumstances I might have looked for whatever the teacher told me. Moreover, I could not interview the teacher immediately after each lesson because he had another class to teach.

In the interview, since English is not the first language for Ajarn and me, Thai was used instead. I decided to use Thai for interviewing based on Vygotsky's (1987 cited in Seidman, 2006) explanation. He explains that 'the thinking of both the participants and the interviewer is intertwined with the language they are using' (p. 105). Therefore, by using the language that we are fluent in ensured that Ajarn and I shared the same understanding of the meanings of the questions we were asking and answering. Moreover, using Thai allowed Ajarn to express his thinking and opinions freely. This was agreed by Ajarn.

Although using the language in which the interviewers and interviewees are fluent gives advantages discussed previously, it also has disadvantages. One of difficulties is translation. According to Seidman (2006), if interviewers are fluent in the participants' mother tongue and interview in that language, they will subsequently

face the complexity of translation. Vygotsky's (1987 cited in Seidman, 2006: 104) explanation about this issue is:

Finding the right word in English or any other language to represent the full sense of the word the participants spoke in their native language is demanding and requires a great deal of care.

For solving this problem, I asked Ajarn to check the correctness of interview's transcripts.

As mentioned earlier, I conducted the interview with Ajarn. The content of the interview is summarised in the following table.

Table 3: The Content of Interview

| Order | Interview Content | Examples of Questions |
|--------------|-------------------------------|---|
| 1 | Personal information | - Could you please tell me about yourself such as your educational background, your working experiences? |
| 2 | Past learning experiences | - I'd like you to think back to the time when you were in the university, studied English courses. What were your learning experiences like? |
| 3 | Current issues about teaching | - Can you tell me about the nature and objectives of this course? - What were your personal teaching goals? - Did you have any plans or expectation before teaching? - How did you teach towards the goal of promoting students to communicate in the classroom? |

| Order | Interview Content | Examples of Questions |
|-------|---|--|
| 4 | Dealing with unexpected situations | - After you knew that students' proficiency in English skills wasn't good so sometimes they couldn't understand what you said or they were afraid to express their opinions in English, how did you solve this problem? Or had you changed any teaching plans or your personal teaching goals? Or did you have any specific teaching goals for them? |
| 5 | Using teacher' talk such as question, feedback, etc. to support instruction towards the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals | - As you mentioned that the students hardly participated in classroom discussions, how did you encourage them to speak? Or if the students give contributions, what did you do after that? - Have you evaluated the students' contributions? Do you think your talk influenced the students' participation in the discussions? As you mentioned, the students couldn't understand all information about the course content you taught in English so did you have any teaching technique to teach them the course content? |
| 6 | Reflection on teaching and on self as a teacher | - Could you tell me about what you like or don't like in your teaching? |

As Table 3 shows, at the beginning of the interview I asked Ajarn for his personal information, such as educational background, and working experiences. Then the focus shifted a little to the past learning experiences that might influence his thoughts and teaching. After that, I asked him about the current situation of his teaching, including several issues such as the nature and objectives of the course, his personal goals in teaching the students, his views of students' performances, his preparation for teaching, and the teaching activities or techniques used. Next, the content of the interview focused on the ways which Ajarn dealt with unexpected problems and how

he solved the problems. I also asked him how he used his talk such as questioning and providing verbal feedback to support his teaching towards the course objectives and his personal teaching goals. Finally, I tried to encourage him to reflect on his teaching and himself as a teacher.

In conducting the interview, I attempted to follow the interview techniques suggested by Seidman (2006), Merriam (1998) and Spradley (1979). For example, I avoided leading questions which would affect the direction of the response. Therefore, I tried to use open-ended questions and allowed the participant to take any direction he wanted. One type of open-ended question I attempted was the *grand-tour question*, as defined by Spradley (1979), in which I asked Ajarn to reconstruct a significant segment of an experience. For example, I asked him “Could you reconstruct the time when you prepare your teaching of a lesson?” A grand-tour question could persuade the participant to provide quite a lengthy description. This also led to *mini-tour questions* which dealt with a smaller unit of experience, for example, “Could you tell me more about the presentation, like what its purpose is and how you use it in class?” Moreover, other interviewing techniques I often used included restating and reinterpreting what the participant said. The former was to reinforce what had been said by way of explanation, whereas the latter was to prompt the participant to explain what he had said. I found these two techniques useful because they could give the participant opportunity to clarify some ideas and provide more information. I also found the silence technique quite helpful because it could give the participant time to think of more information to add. Furthermore, sometimes I shared some of my own teaching experiences which I thought were related to the participant, for example, the experience of how I handled students who said unexpected contributions. I realised that sharing experiences with the participant helped me build rapport in our relationship. Since the participant could recognise the commonalities of our experience shared between us, he developed trust in me. Consequently, this trust allowed the free flow of information. During the interview, I also took some notes to facilitate active listening. These working notes helped me concentrate on what the participant was saying. Moreover, they assisted me in formulating the appropriate and relevant questions to the issues being discussed.

3.4.6 Data Analysis

In the following sections, I explain how I analysed the data from the classroom observations and the interview. The database consists of 12 hours and 23 minutes of transcribed interaction from classroom observations and two hours of transcribed interview data. The data analysis of this study is based on typological analysis strategies which apply a predetermined classification to analyse the data (see Section 3.3.5 for a description of this model and the reason it was used). Firstly, I present a description of analysing interview data in order to find the answers for the first and second research questions (see p. 59). Secondly, I describe how I analyse observation data for answering the third to fifth research questions (see p. 59). For the sixth to ninth research questions (see p. 60), I discuss their answers in Chapter 6. In order to answer these questions I took some descriptions and interpretations of the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals and three aspects of teacher verbal feedback to discuss whether or not teacher verbal feedback provided opportunities for the students to accomplish the objectives and the goals the teacher had for them.

The descriptions of analysing the data from interview and classroom observation are below.

3.4.6.1 The Analysis of Interview Data

First of all, the data obtained from the interview were transcribed. Then I carefully read the transcribed interview and found and marked themes which related to the categories for interview data (see Appendix B for interview data categories). Finally, I summarised and put these themes into the interview data categories. After organising the data into categories, I asked Ajarn to read the interview report in order to ensure validity of this research. Moreover, I encouraged him to feel free to add more information or correct the data that he thought were inaccurately analysed. This technique is called *member checks* (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). However, Ajarn did not make any changes or comments on the interview report.

3.4.6.2 The Analysis of Observation Data

The data gained from classroom observation were also transcribed for further analysis. First, I listened to the mp3 files of all the lessons. Instead of analysing the whole eight transcribed lessons, the eight segments which were the discussion between Ajarn and his students from each lesson were selected and transcribed. I coded and analysed only eight transcribed teacher-student discussions (TTSD) because normally verbal feedback occurred when Ajarn set discussions to encourage a talk between the student or the students and him about the course content or a topic which normally he raised it himself. During discussions the students were asked to exchange their ideas, opinions or comments. After the students gave contributions, Ajarn always provided them with verbal feedback. On the other hand, when he gave a lecture, there was no discussion. Moreover, although he provided the students with comments or suggestions after their presentations, these comments and suggestions were not counted as verbal feedback because they were not provided immediately following a student's contributions.

Eight TTSD were transcribed by using the software Transcriber and typed onto word files showing numbered turns of talk (see transcription conventions in Appendix C and an example of transcripts in Appendix D). In the transcripts pseudonyms have been used for one teacher and three students: Aj, S1, S2 and S3. Once finished, eight TTSD were coded. Firstly I used the *move* as the unit of analysis in the tradition of Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). According to Sinclair and Coulthard, a typical exchange in teacher-student interaction has three moves: Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF). In the present study the feedback move was only analysed. The following is an example of verbal feedback that the teacher provided for the student's contribution from this study.

(1)

- | | | | |
|---|-----|--|----------|
| 5 | Aj: | What is 'culture shock' to your understanding? | I |
| 6 | S2: | (Speaks Thai – The cultures which shock people?) | R |
| 7 | Aj: | Uh Huh. Ok. Can you elaborate more? | F |

Then the teacher's verbal feedback moves were analysed further based on the pre-set categories: Functions, Strategies, and Content. These categories helped me to investigate multiple aspects of teacher verbal feedback. They were developed from several researchers' sources, namely, Fanselow (1988), Lyster and Ranta (1997), Cullen (2002), and Garcia (2005). (See Appendix E for the coding scheme, and Section 2.2.2.1 and Section 2.2.2.2, Chapter 2 for the description of each source and the rationale for using them.) I provide a description of each category and how I coded them as follows.

Functions

The first category, 'functions of teacher verbal feedback,' adopted from Cullen (2002) and Garcia (2005), consists of two types as follows.

1. Evaluative feedback is teacher verbal feedback which:

- focuses on the correct or adequate form or content of a student's contribution.
- shows a teacher's attempt to correct a student's contribution directly or indirectly.
- shows a teacher's evaluation, criticism, displeasure or rejection to a student's contribution.

2. Interactional feedback is teacher verbal feedback which:

- focuses on the content of a student's contribution without being concerned with the correct form of a student's contribution.
- reformulates a student's contribution without rejection in order to keep discussion continue if a student's contribution is wrong in grammatical structure.

- shows a teacher's intention to encourage a student to talk far more.
- uses a student's contribution to make a discussion move forward.

I identified teacher verbal feedback functions by considering Ajarn's questions. According to Nassaji and Wells (2000: 384), there are three main categories of information that teachers always ask students: *Assumed Known Information*, *Personal Information*, and *Negotiatory Information*. (See Chapter 2 for the detailed description about three main categories of information.) Normally, when teachers ask a question where they already know the answer (Assumed Known Information), it can be expected that the teacher will provide evaluative verbal feedback. On the other hand, if they ask about Personal Information or Negotiatory Information where they cannot predict what a student's answer will be, their verbal feedback is likely to be a comment or a request for further information from the student. For example, in Example 1 above, the teacher begins with the question "What is 'culture shock' to your understanding?" (line 5), to which he already knows the answer (Assumed Known Information). After S2 says "The cultures which shock people?" in Thai (line 6), he provides verbal feedback "Uh huh. Ok" (line7). I labelled this verbal feedback function as evaluative feedback.

Strategies

The second category is 'strategies of providing verbal feedback' which was classified into two categories based on two teacher verbal feedback functions discussed previously. First, evaluative feedback strategies 1.1 – 1.6 were borrowed from Lyster and Ranta (1997). However, some adopted strategies such as 1.1, 1.4 and 1.5 had to be adapted because they are only used to indicate that the form of the student's contribution is incorrect. But, in the present study evaluative feedback focuses on the correct or adequate form or content of a student's contribution. Secondly, for interactional feedback, all strategies were from Cullen (2002). The evaluative feedback strategies and interactional feedback strategies are as follows.

1. Evaluative feedback

1.1 *Explicit Correction* refers to the explicit provision of the correct form or content. The teacher clearly indicates what the student had said was incorrect.

1.2 *Recasts* involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part the student's contribution, without the error.

1.3 *Clarification requests* indicate to the student that the teacher has misunderstood his or her contribution or that the contribution is ill formed in some way and that a repetition or reformulation is required.

1.4 *Metalinguistic feedback* contains either comments, information, or questions related to the correctness or adequacy of form or content of a student's contribution, without explicitly providing the correct form or content.

1.5 *Elicitation* refers to three techniques that the teacher uses to directly elicit the correct form or content from the student. First, the teacher elicits completion of his or her own contribution. Second, the teacher uses questions to elicit the correct form or content. Third, the teacher occasionally asks the student to reformulate his or her contribution.

1.6 *Repetition* refers to the teacher's repetition of the student's erroneous contribution.

2. Interactional feedback

2.1 *Reformulation*: to repair the student's contribution to ensure that the content of the contribution is available and also audible without interrupting the flow of discourse the teacher is developing with the class.

2.2 *Elaboration*: to help ensure understanding, to add humour to the proceedings, and to add and extend the student's original contribution.

2.3 *Comment*: to pick up on the student's contribution (by repeating it) and then add a comment of the teacher.

2.4 *Repetition*: to repeat the student's contribution to confirm, question, or express surprise without relating the form of what the student said.

After identifying teacher verbal feedback functions, I analysed further what strategy the teacher used for each function. For example, in Example 1 above, after the teacher evaluates the student's answer by saying "Uh huh. Ok" (line 7), he is still not satisfied with the answer. Therefore, he used the strategy, elicitation, to elicit more explanation about the answer from the student by saying "Can you elaborate more?" (line 7).

Content

The third category, 'content of teacher verbal feedback,' was taken from Fanselow's (1988) FOCUS (Foci for Observing Communication Used in Settings). According to Fanselow, the content of teacher verbal feedback can be classified into three major categories: Life, Procedure, and Study. Life can be described as forms of greeting and other types of ritual language, personal feeling, or information and general knowledge. Procedure can be described as matters of administration, law, bureaucracy, and directions. Study can be described as communicating a topic of instruction, whether language, other academic subjects, hobbies, or skills. The following example shows teacher verbal feedback content about life.

(2)

- 1 **I** Aj: What I would like to mention, learning English for international communication. Starting up. I think that I will be lucky if I was born as American or British or Scottish. Do you think so? Do you think if we were born as British, Scottish, Australian, New Zealander, American you are lucky, but why some American or British or some foreigners want to be Thai? But I have a few American friends they want to be Thai very much.
- 2 **R** S2: Some Thai people want to be American.
- 3 **F** Aj: Why? It seems that while a foreigner wants to be Thai, Thai want to be a foreigner.

(Excerpt from TTSD 4)

In Example 2, the teacher raises the topic that he would be lucky if he had been born as American, British or Scottish, but his American friends want to be Thai very much in line 1. S2 expresses that some Thai people want to be American in line 2. Then in line 3, the teacher provides verbal feedback by asking the student why Thai people want to be a foreigner. He also provides his personal knowledge that while a foreigner wants to be Thai, a Thai want to be a foreigner. Therefore, this teacher verbal feedback content was coded as life because it contains information concerning the teacher's personal knowledge.

In summary, based on the categories of teacher verbal feedback discussed previously, the observation data were coded, tallied and counted to calculate the frequencies and percentages of occurrences of the teacher's aspects of verbal feedback. The results of these findings are discussed in Chapter 5 to provide answers to research questions regarding the teacher's use of verbal feedback in his teaching. Moreover, to determine the coding reliability, I invited my PhD classmate from the School of Education at University of Southampton to participate in establishing inter-coder reliability. First, I provided this coder with a training session. That is, I gave her a detailed explanation of the coding categories and made sure she comprehended every single point clearly. Then I asked her to practice coding some transcripts from the observation data. After that, both of us examined each other's coding and discussed both the agreements and disagreements of our coding. The actual coding by the second coder began when she was certain that she thoroughly understood the characteristics of coding categories. Once coding was finished, the inter-coder reliability was calculated by adapting and adopting Bijou, Peterson, Harris, Allen, and Johnson's (1969 cited in Gay, 1996: 272) formula which they use to calculate interobserver reliability. Bijou, Peterson, Harris, Allen, and Johnson explain that 'to calculate reliability using both observer agreement and disagreement, they divide the number of agreements by the total number of agreements and disagreements' as follows.

$$\frac{\text{number of agreements}}{\text{number of agreement} + \text{number of disagreements}}$$

According to Barlow and Hersen (1984: 128), the reliability between two coders or observers should be from .70 or to .90 for the satisfactory level of agreement. In this research, after the coding reliability was estimated, it was found that the inter-coder reliability for the categories was as follows.

Functions = .83, Strategies = .78, and Content = .75

3.5 Chapter Summary

The focus of this chapter has been on research methodology. The chapter included three main sections. The first section presented the overview of research methodology of the current study. The second section comprised a discussion of the methodology rationale of this study, including interpretative paradigm, principles of classroom-centred research, rationale for a qualitative approach, data collection approaches: classroom observation and interview, qualitative data analysis, and quality criteria, including reliability, validity, generalisability, and ethics. The final section which explained actual research procedure comprised six sub-sections, including selection of the setting, gaining access permission, selection of participants, the participant profile, data collection procedures, and data analysis. In the sub-section, Data Analysis, it also presented the description of three categories of teacher verbal feedback: functions, strategies, and content.

The next chapter presents the findings on the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS ON THE COURSE OBJECTIVES AND THE TEACHER'S PERSONAL TEACHING GOALS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings based on the interview data on the objectives of the course Ajarn taught, and the personal goals he had in teaching his students. This chapter consists of two sections: (1) The Course Objectives, and (2) The Teacher's Personal Teaching Goals. The first section presents a general description of the course Ajarn taught, including the objectives for the course. The discussion in this section is based mainly on the information from the course syllabus (see Appendix G). The second section, based only on the interview data, presents Ajarn's statements of personal teaching goals, and descriptions of his instructional practices to reach his goals and the course objectives. In this section, the interview transcripts translated from Thai are used for supporting the findings' explanations. The point of describing the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals is not only to understand them for their own sake, but also to set the stage for a later discussion of findings in Chapter 6 (Findings on Reaching the Course Objectives and the Teacher's Personal Teaching Goals). Chapter 6 presents the findings on how the teacher's verbal feedback could give opportunities for the students to reach the course objectives and the personal teaching goals the teacher had for the students to accomplish, or could serve as a barrier to the students reaching those objectives and goals.

4.2 The Course Objectives

In this section, I discuss the evidence for answering the first research question which is 'What are the objectives of the course the teacher teaches?' The course that Ajarn taught was Intercultural Business Communication which is one of the courses for the Master of Arts in English for Business and Industry Communication (MA-BIC) (see the information about MA-BIC in Section 1.2, Chapter 1). As mentioned in the course syllabus, this was a required course offered to all the first year students in the

second semester. The requirements for this course consisted of a final examination (40 points), assessment of work or classroom activities (20 points), assessment of the assigned tasks (20 points), quizzes (10 points), and class attendance (10 points). For class attendance, as a policy of the Department of Languages, students who are absent from the class more than three times will not be allowed to take the final examination.

The objectives of the course, as indicated in the course syllabus are as follows.

1. The students will be able to define major concepts in cross-cultural communication and intercultural business communication.
2. The students will be able to apply different approaches to deal a business with people from different countries around the world.
3. The students will be able to appreciate the cultural diversity of people in business communication.

It may be said that although there were three course objectives, these objectives focused on helping the students expand their intercultural business communication knowledge.

Furthermore, as pointed out by the Head of the Department of Languages, normally she appoints a working committee to prepare the course syllabi for undergraduate courses. The working committee is a group of full-time teachers appointed by the Head of the Department to be in charge of developing the course syllabi and supplementary sheets for the course and producing and compiling the examination questions from other teachers who teach the course. However, for postgraduate courses, it is not necessary to appoint a working committee to prepare the course syllabi because normally there is only one class for each postgraduate course. Therefore, at the Department of Languages all postgraduate course syllabi are prepared by the full-time or part-time teachers themselves. The teachers are allowed to develop their own course syllabus, materials or supplementary sheets for the courses, and produce the examination questions. Since the teachers are allowed to

develop their own course syllabus or materials, problems such as the inequity of the grading requirements sometimes emerged. To clarify, some teachers might have high criteria of evaluation, whereas others might not. This would result in complaints from both the students and the teachers.

4.3 The Teacher's Personal Teaching Goals

In this section, I discuss the evidence for answering the second research question which is 'What are the personal teaching goals the teacher has for his students to achieve?' The section first presents Ajarn's statements of personal teaching goals and his description of instructional practices in his teaching through which he worked towards achieving these goals. I then offer a discussion of Ajarn's personal teaching goals in which I synthesise the knowledge I gained from interviewing him.

In the interview, Ajarn was asked to state the personal teaching goals he had for his students to accomplish. After analysing his goals, I found that the first goal was similar to the course objectives mentioned in the last section which aimed at improving the students' intercultural business communication knowledge.

Ajarn's personal teaching goals are as follows.

1. To provide knowledge about intercultural business communication for the students.
2. To help the students become independent learners.
3. To encourage the students to participate in classroom discussions more.
4. To improve the students' English speaking skill.

If I consider the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals superficially, it seems that the goals were more specific than the objectives. Furthermore, they seemed not to be related to the course objectives, or they were not

suitable and necessary for postgraduates because the students should already have achieved them before studying further in higher education.

As Ajarn said in the interview (Excerpt 1) below, since the students had limited proficiency in English, it was difficult for him to teach them or improve their knowledge, about the course content which was the course objectives and his first personal teaching goal, by using English which was used as a medium of instruction and communication in this classroom. Consequently, the teacher had to lower his teaching standard and adapt his teaching techniques in order to be appropriate for them.

(1)

1 On the first day of the class, I described the course's description to the
2 students in English. I also told them that we had to communicate in
3 English because this is the international programme. Then I asked
4 them many questions about their general information. When I
5 questioned them, they had hardly answered my questions. They were
6 quiet. This shocked me because it seemed that they cannot speak
7 English. But, I didn't use Thai although they tried to speak Thai with
8 me. I told them to use English only. Moreover, I asked them to write
9 a short essay because I wanted to test their proficiency in English skills
10 more. After I read their essays, I was shocked again. You
11 know...after a few sessions, I thought that the students couldn't
12 understand all what I said so I could not teach what I intended to. This
13 confirmed that they are limited English proficient students. So at that
14 time I thought "What should I do?" So firstly I decided to lower my
15 teaching standard, and adapt my teaching techniques in order to be
16 appropriate for the students. As a teacher, I had to boot up my
17 students' spirits. Because they had a lot of anxiety and uncertainty
18 about learning in English, I had to reduce them. I had to give them
19 encouragement. I think that since the students are non-English majors,
20 they are not competent in English. However, I told them that they had

21 to try to use English. I don't care about using correct grammatical
22 structure. I only wanted them to speak.

According to Ajarn's description of the students' behaviours in the classroom in Excerpt 1, it can be concluded that these students who were quiet had hardly answered his questions (line 5). They were also anxious and uncertain about learning in English (lines 15-16). As pointed out by Ajarn, the students were limited English proficient students (lines 12-13). He compared these students' proficiency in English skills with his previous students' English proficiency as follows.

(2)

1 Normally, when I teach the postgraduates of the international
2 programme, I only speak in English. Like I did in the last semester,
3 since those students could communicate in English well I could speak
4 in English all the time. The students were enthusiastic to answer every
5 question I asked. Sometimes they asked me questions and raised
6 topics for discussion themselves. So the classroom atmosphere was
7 lively. I think that the students felt relaxed or were confident in
8 expressing opinions in English, maybe because their proficiency in
9 English skills, in particular, speaking skill was quite good. But the
10 students this semester were different than those students. As you saw
11 in the classroom, they were passive. They were very quiet. I think
12 English is their barrier to participation in classroom discussions.
13 Although there was one student who was quite talkative, she preferred
14 to speak in Thai. Particularly, the students didn't say anything when I
15 asked them for their opinions about the topic being discussed. So I
16 tried to encourage them to speak by using various ways.

As Ajarn expressed in Excerpt 2, the students' proficiency in English skills was lower than his previous students' English proficiency. He described the previous

students as enthusiastic and confident students. They also participated in classroom discussions he raised, and sometimes raised topics for discussing themselves. This made the classroom atmosphere was lively. (See lines 4-7.) On the other hand, the present students were very passive and quiet (line 11). Moreover, they did not participate in classroom discussions (lines 14-15).

Based on the two excerpts above and after reconsidering his personal teaching goals carefully, I found that Ajarn set the goals, in particular the last three goals, in order to support the students reaching the course objectives. Moreover, his first personal teaching goal shows that he still intended to improve the students' intercultural business communication knowledge. By this, he meant that the students could define major concepts in cross-cultural communication and intercultural business communication. He also wanted the students to be able to apply different approaches to do business with people from different countries around the world, and be able to appreciate the cultural diversity of people in business communication. As Ajarn explained his first personal teaching goal as follows.

(3)

1 First of all, after finishing this course, I want my students to be able to
2 define major concepts in cross-cultural communication or intercultural
3 business communication. I mean, at least they can apply different
4 techniques or ideas which they learned to do business with foreigners
5 from different countries. So they have to understand the cultural
6 diversity of people in business communication. I set these goals based
7 on the course objectives. In fact, although some students had
8 experiences of working with foreign colleagues, they don't have
9 knowledge about contacting foreigners. They don't know how to
10 deal with people who come from different cultures. I think English is
11 their barrier to learning about these.

As claimed by Ajarn in Excerpt 3, the students' proficiency in English skills was a barrier to reaching the first personal teaching goal (lines 10-11) including the course

objectives. As Ajarn described in Excerpt 1, after a few sessions, he thought that the students could not understand all what he said in English so he could not teach what he intended to (lines 11-12). Therefore, he had to lower his teaching standard and adapt his teaching techniques in order to be appropriate for the students (see Excerpt 1, lines 14-16). Here is how Ajarn explained his teaching techniques to achieve the first goal including the course objectives:

(4)

1 Since the students had hardly participated in discussions, in particular,
2 relating to the course content, I had to encourage them to do so. For
3 example, I tried to raise discussion topics which were close to the
4 students' interests such as their personal information or personal and
5 general knowledge. Then I asked them about their opinions,
6 explanation or conjectures about these topics. I found that discussion
7 about topics in which the students are interested helped to encourage
8 them to speak. Since the topics were about their personal and
9 general knowledge, it's easy for them to express their opinions. When
10 the students said something, I tried to relate their contributions to the
11 course content. I also encouraged them to think about their personal
12 knowledge and experiences and opinions, as well as general
13 knowledge relating to the course content. Because I wanted them to
14 have a chance to connect the area of study being learned to their
15 previous knowledge or life experiences. I think this gave the students a
16 better idea of the course content, and helped them increase their
17 interests and motivation toward learning.

In Excerpt 4, Ajarn explained that in order to encourage the students to speak he tried to raise discussion topics close to the students' interests such as their personal information or personal and general knowledge which asked for their opinions, explanation or conjectures (lines 3-6). When the students provided contributions, through his verbal feedback he tried to relate the course content to their contributions (lines 9-11). Moreover, Ajarn motivated the students' thinking about their personal

knowledge and experiences and opinions, as well as general knowledge in relation to the course content (lines 11-13). He thought that the students would have an opportunity to connect the area of study being learned to their previous knowledge or life experiences (lines 13-15). This opportunity gave the students a better idea of the course content. It also helped increase their interests and motivation towards learning (lines 15-17).

Furthermore, in describing his teaching practices to reach the first goal and the course objectives, Ajarn asked the students to give a presentation about doing business with a country in which they were interested. He said that giving a presentation was advantageous because the students could have an opportunity to search information about doing business with foreign countries. Since they had to present this information to their classmates, they had to be very familiar with the material they would present. For Ajarn, giving a presentation might help develop the students' self-confidence and the ability in many ways such as accessing resources, finding materials they plan to present, giving a presentation to other people. Here is how he expressed it:

(5)

1 I intended to ask the students to give a presentation before teaching
2 them. Although I found that their proficiency in English skills,
3 in particular, speaking skill was low, I didn't change my mind. I think
4 that this is the way which can force them to prepare themselves for
5 giving a presentation and speak English. It also helped to improve the
6 students' self-confidence and abilities in many ways. First of all, they
7 had to find information about the country that they intend to present
8 themselves. Therefore, from reading this information, it may help
9 them learn about that country's culture, tradition or how to deal with
10 people in that country, in particular, when they want to do business
11 with them. This may help them to understand some concepts about
12 intercultural business communication that I taught them before. Or it
13 may help them to understand what I will teach them in the next
14 sessions easier. Moreover, the students had to rehearse their

15 presentation often before the actual presentation. They could practice
16 it before their friends or family. You know, I used to tell them that
17 they can practice in front of the mirror. I also told them that “Good
18 preparation and practice will reduce your anxiety”. I also told them
19 that they should not read from their slides. They can have the rehearsal
20 before the actual presentation, if they are not professional presenter or
21 teacher whatever. But we are friends, we are classmates so stress fight,
22 stress fight can take place, but if they have a perfect rehearsal, maybe
23 they don’t show any sign of excitement or too nervous. Moreover,
24 since they had to practice the presentation several times, this may help
25 them improve their English speaking skill.

In Excerpt 5, Ajarn explained that giving a presentation helped the students in many ways (lines 3-6). For example, since the students had to find information about the country that they intended to present, it might help them learn about that country’s culture, tradition or how to deal with people in that country, in particular, when they want to do business with them (lines 6-11). Therefore, this might help the students to understand some concepts about intercultural business communication that Ajarn taught them before, or it may help them to understand what he will teach them in the next sessions easier (lines 11-14).

After describing Ajarn’s teaching techniques which he used for helping the students reach the course objectives and his first personal teaching goal, I then explain other three personal teaching goals he set for the students to achieve.

For the second personal teaching goal, Ajarn wanted to help the students become independent learners. According to Candy (1991 cited in Oxford Centre for Staff and Learning Development, Oxford Brookes University, 2008), independent study is ‘a process, a method and a philosophy of education whereby a learner acquires knowledge by his or her own efforts and develops the ability for enquiry and critical evaluation’ (p. 1). Moreover, Candy explains independent learning skills allow students to review, record and reflect on their learning, set targets for improvement

and make and use action plans. Here is how Ajarn expressed about independent study:

(6)

1 I think sometimes the students are not mature. For example, while I
2 was teaching, they chatted with each other. They didn't pay attention
3 to what I was teaching. Moreover, I think that these students don't
4 have a common sense of being independent learners. When they were
5 listening to their friend's presentation, they didn't take any notes.
6 They didn't ask any questions to the presenter, or comment on the
7 presented information. You know, one of the students used to ask me
8 where she could find information about the country she wanted to
9 present. I told her that it wasn't my responsibility to tell her. You
10 have to search the information yourselves. I told the students that there
11 are many sources which they can get this information such as the
12 Internet, books. As you know, most Thai students, they always say
13 that they don't have time, they have so many assignments. For this
14 excuse, I couldn't accept it. Particularly, my students are postgraduate,
15 I want them to be independent learners who become actively involved
16 in their own learning so that they can make decisions and take actions
17 dealing with their own learning. Since this is a postgraduate course,
18 the students have to work hard. I can't teach them basic knowledge
19 such as giving a presentation. They have to increase this knowledge
20 themselves.

In Excerpt 6, Ajarn discussed that the students were not mature and independent learners (lines 1, 3-4). Sometimes they chatted with each other and did not pay attention while he was teaching (lines 2-3). They also did not question or comment on the presentation their classmate gave (lines 6-7). Moreover, Ajarn said that one of the students used to ask him where and how she could find information about the country she wanted to present (lines 7-9). For Ajarn, the students always made an unreasonable excuse by saying that they did not have time, or they had many

assignments to do (lines 12-13). He also expressed that he wanted his students to become actively involved in their own learning so that they could make decisions and take actions dealing with their own learning. In short, he wanted them to be independent learners. (See lines 15-17.) Based on this excerpt, the interpretation for him helping the students become independent learners might be that Ajarn wanted them to be more responsible for their studying such as finding information about the course content before or after attending the class. In Ajarn's opinion, since their English proficiency was a barrier for reaching the course objectives and the first personal teaching goal, the students should try to improve this proficiency and learning skills such as pay more attention to the instruction and their classmates' presentations.

In describing his teaching practices to reach the second personal teaching goal, helping the students to be independent learners, Ajarn stressed the importance of creating a supportive climate which encouraged the students' interests, motivation and self-confidence to learn by supporting their efforts. As he said:

(7)

1 If we want our students to be independent learners, or become actively
2 involved in their own learning so that they can make decisions and take
3 actions dealing with their own learning, we have to make them feel
4 confident about what they did or what they will do. This helps to
5 improve their confidence and motivation to learn. So when they try to
6 do something, we have to support their efforts. For example, I
7 had to nominate who would speak. Otherwise, there was no volunteer.
8 Therefore, when they said something, although what they said wasn't
9 correct, I had to boot up their spirit by giving feedback which showed
10 that at least what they said was interesting. It is important to create a
11 supportive climate in the classroom by cheering the students up,
12 encouraging them and improving their confidence. I didn't want to
13 make them lose face and self-confidence. Otherwise, next time
14 they wouldn't be willing to talk again. Moreover, if I asked them to
15 express their opinions about something that wasn't related to the

16 course content, I would get them to express their opinions freely. I
17 wouldn't judge what they said was right or wrong. Correcting the
18 students' contributions may break the flow of discussion because most
19 Thai students are afraid of making mistakes. If their contributions are
20 often evaluated or corrected, this can increase the level of anxiety and
21 discourage the students' participation in further discussion. So
22 normally, I asked them for more explanation, so they had to speak
23 more. I thought this also might help them practice speaking English.
24 Moreover, I thought that asking them to explain what they said further
25 showed them that I paid attention to when they were talking, or
26 I was interested in what they were saying. I always told them that I
27 didn't care about their grammatical structures although they used it
28 wrongly. Because this was the postgraduate classroom the content of
29 what they said was more important than the use of correct grammatical
30 structures.

In Excerpt 7, Ajarn expressed his view that the ways which helped the students to be independent learners were to make them feel confident about what they did or what they will do. Therefore, when they tried to do something, we had to support their efforts. This helped to improve the students' confidence and motivation to learn. It also encouraged the students to become actively involved in their own learning so that they could make decisions and take actions dealing with their own learning. (See lines 1-5.) Moreover, by giving support to the students' efforts, Ajarn gave an example about providing verbal feedback for their contributions. In lines 7-9, he said that although the students said something wrong, he had to boot up their spirit by giving verbal feedback which showed that at least what they said was interesting. Ajarn also explained that it was important to create a supportive climate in the classroom by cheering the students up, encouraging them and improving their confidence (lines 10-12). Furthermore, if they discussed something that wasn't related to the course content, Ajarn would let the students express their opinions freely (lines 16-17). Sometimes he also asked them to explain what they said further. He believed that this showed the students that he paid attention and listened to what they were saying, or he was interested in what they were saying (lines 19-21).

Moreover, in order to give support to the students' efforts through providing verbal feedback, Ajarn explained that if the students' contributions were incorrect, he preferred to use verbal feedback strategies that prompted the students to self-repair rather than inform the students of their incorrect contributions and then correct their contributions immediately. He always asked for more explanation or confirmation from the students. He believed that this might make them aware about their contributions. Here is how Ajarn expressed it:

(8)

1 If the students said something wrong, firstly I told them indirectly that
2 what they said was wrong. Normally, I asked them to explain their
3 contributions more. I thought that this could make them be aware
4 about their contributions. Or sometimes I asked them to make sure
5 about their contributions by asking the question such as "Are you sure
6 that it is right?" Normally, I didn't tell the students immediately that
7 their contributions were wrong, and correct them. I wanted to let the
8 students find the mistakes and correct them themselves. This enabled
9 them to solve the problems themselves. I think that prompting the
10 students to self-repair led to better learning because in order to find the
11 correct answer the students had to research ideas, expand thinking
12 from what I taught, and negotiate the correct form or content. The
13 negotiation of correct form or content could also encourage them to
14 speak because they had to respond to my evaluative feedback. For me,
15 this is one of qualifications of being independent learners because the
16 students had to seek out the correct answer themselves. I also believe
17 that when the students found the correct answer themselves, they were
18 more self-confident. But if their contributions were still wrong and
19 they couldn't find the correct answer themselves, I would tell them.
20 And I would explain more about the answer.

In Excerpt 8, Ajarn said that he tried to provide an opportunity for the students to repair their incorrect contributions themselves before telling and explaining them the

correct answer (lines 6-8). By doing this, in lines 14-18, Ajarn claimed that he believed that it enabled the students to solve the problems themselves because they had to seek out the correct answer without depending upon him. He also believed that this was one of qualifications of being independent learners. Moreover, when the students found the correct answer themselves, they were more self-confident. (See lines 14-18.)

For the third personal teaching goal, Ajarn indicated a concern for encouraging the students to participate in classroom discussions more. He believed that learning would be more enjoyable if the students were involved in classroom discussions. As he put it:

(9)

1 One of my goals, you know, is to make my students participate in a
2 discussion more. I don't want to see them just sit quiet in my class. I
3 want them to be an active student. The more the students participate in
4 classroom discussions, the more enjoyable the learning is.

In Excerpt 9, Ajarn claimed that he believed that if the students participated in classroom discussions more, the teaching and learning environment would be more enjoyable (lines 3-4). Therefore, he did not let his students sit quietly because he wanted them to be active students (lines 2-3). As Ajarn said in the following excerpt, he tried to create a safe learning climate where his students could express their opinions.

(10)

1 So, sometimes I tried to create a safe learning climate where the
2 students could express their opinions. Like I tell my students that I
3 don't want perfect speech. Just speak. So, I sometimes ignore their

4 wrong statements in grammatical structure because I want to encourage
5 them to speak out freely without being corrected all the time.

As mentioned earlier, since Ajarn wanted the students to participate more in classroom discussions, he tried to create a safe learning climate. In Excerpt 10, he explained how he created a safe learning climate in his classroom. For example, he told the students that he did not want perfect speech; he only wanted them to speak (lines 2-3). Moreover, sometimes he ignored the students' wrong contributions in grammatical structure because he wanted to encourage them to speak out freely without being corrected all the time (lines 3-5). These statements are similar to Ajarn's statements in Excerpt 7, p. 117 as follows.

21I
22 always told them that I didn't care about their grammatical structures
23 although they used it wrongly. Because this was the postgraduate
24 classroom the content of what they said was more important than the
25 use of grammatical structures correctly.

In order to reach the third goal which was to encourage the students to participate in classroom discussions more, Ajarn expressed as the following view:

(11)

1 In my opinion, we should show to our students that we are supportive
2 and helpful. We want to help them as much as possible, not only in
3 their studies but also their personal matters. For example, when they
4 feel discouraged in learning, we need to help them, give them
5 encouragement, and give them support. Moreover, whenever they
6 come to see us, we should give them time and support. If we can do
7 this, the students will feel closer to us, they will trust us. And then

8 they would somehow pay more attention to their studies, and be
9 willing to participate in classroom discussions.

In Excerpt 11, Ajarn stated that during teaching, he often had positive attitudes and personality. That is, he tried to show the students that he really cared for them and would always be there for the students to help them in their studies or even some personal matters (lines 1-3). This helped him to gain trust from his students (line 7). Furthermore, this might make the students pay more attention to their studies, and be willing to participate in classroom discussions more (lines 8-9).

Moreover, Ajarn emphasised the necessity for a teacher to be patient with the students because this would help build a relaxing and friendly classroom climate, thereby encouraging the students to participate in classroom discussions more. As he put it:

(12)

1 Sometimes I say “Patient” in my mind several times. For example, one
2 of the students asked me a permission to give a presentation in Thai.
3 Although she knew that the course was an international programme
4 which we had to communicate in English only, she dared to ask
5 permission to present in Thai. You know, I can tell you the truth. At
6 that time, I felt angry. I didn’t understand why she dared to do this. I
7 think it was a silly request. But I had to tell myself that I had to be
8 kind and calm. In fact, I wanted to tell that student to quit this course.
9 She’s not mature and lacked responsibility. She is postgraduate in an
10 international programme so she shouldn’t ask for a silly request like
11 this. But if I did, this might increase her anxiety. So I had to count
12 numbers in my mind for calming myself down. As a teacher, you have
13 to understand your students, give them sympathy, and be friendly. So
14 be patient!

In Excerpt 12, Ajarn explained that sometimes he had to be patient, kind and calm (lines 1 and 7) when the students said or did something inappropriate in class unless the students might be more anxious. He also said that since he was their teacher, he had to understand them, give them sympathy, and be friendly (lines 12-13).

Finally, for the fourth personal teaching goal, Ajarn indicated a concern for helping the students improve their English speaking skills since the students' English proficiency in particular, speaking skill was low. In Excerpt 2, lines 11-12, Ajarn reasoned that English was the students' barrier to participation in classroom discussions. Therefore, improving the students' proficiency in English speaking skill was a primary and important factor for enhancing the students' classroom participation which also led to better learning of the students as Ajarn explained in the interview (see Excerpt 11).

To work towards the fourth goal, as Ajarn pointed out, first of all, he tried to help his students recognise the importance of learning English. He believed that if the students recognised the benefits from having a good command of English, they would be more motivated and thus work harder on their learning. As Ajarn expressed:

(13)

1 I always tell my students about the importance of English language. In
2 particular, if they want to do business with foreign businessmen, they
3 have to speak in their language well. Therefore, at least they should
4 communicate in English because English is a common language in all
5 the countries all over the world. English is a means of international
6 business communication. As far as we know, Thai students always
7 learn English for the exam, not for their future like for their jobs, or
8 their future studies. I think that it will help them a lot. If my students
9 see what English can do for them, they would want to learn it. At
10 least, they would try to use it more or work harder than this.

In order to help the students recognise the importance of learning English, Ajarn stated that during teaching, he sometimes had small talk with the students. He indicated the advantages of having a strong command of English, and gave some examples about how English has played an important role in helping people to succeed in their lives. Here is how Ajarn expressed it:

(14)

1 You know, I always have a small talk with my students. Like...I
2 explained why we need another language to the students. I told them
3 that if they want to do some business in some countries, and they know
4 a few greeting words in that language, those businessmen will be
5 impressed by their greeting words. Like...I told them that I was a
6 Master of Ceremonies at an important official staged event. And I had
7 to introduce the 12 participating countries. I introduced
8 like...Representing India, and I said “Namaste” India. From France, I
9 said “Bonjour” France. From Japan, “Domo arigato” Japan. I also told
10 the students that if we want to get a better job. But, you’re
11 monolingual, or able to speak only one language. It’s quite common.
12 At least you can speak Thai, maybe your Thai isn’t very good in term
13 of writing or maybe speaking, but reading and listening is ok. So it is
14 better to learn other foreign languages than know only one language
15 because it surely helps you to get a better job. Finally, I told them if
16 they want to read, use foreign languages or learn foreign languages, try
17 hard work. Then goal commitment should be successful.

In Excerpt 14, Ajarn stated that if the students wanted to do some business in some countries, and they knew a few greeting words in that language, those businessmen would be impressed by their greeting words (lines 3-5). He also said that if the students wanted to get a better job, it was better to learn other foreign languages than know only one language (lines 9-15).

Moreover, given the goal of improving the students' English speaking skills, Ajarn suggested that it was essential that the students try to speak English in class with the teacher. This was a way to help the students develop their speaking skills. It was also from the teacher's own experiences that learning English was to learn to speak, and that it needed some practice. The more the students practiced speaking, the more they could overcome their language problems and shyness. As Ajarn explained:

(15)

1 In my opinion, learning English is to learn to communicate, to speak. I
2 told the students that to learn any languages you must get any
3 opportunities to practice that language, if you want to be good at
4 speaking, you must speak most of the time. Also when you speak, you
5 have to think that language, no more time translating. If you are
6 bilingual, maybe you can have code switching from one language to
7 the other. Moreover, you must be positive or you must be self-
8 confident. You also have to try very hard to overcome any difficulties
9 like shyness, and also you can improve your speaking ability. I told
10 them I couldn't tell you how long it takes, or how long you have to
11 spend time for learning because it depends on your motivation.

In Excerpt 15, Ajarn said that he suggested that the students should practice speaking English or other foreign languages if they wanted to be able to communicate in those languages well (lines 1-4). Moreover, he advised them not to be shy to speak any language, but they should use it confidently (lines 7-9). As Ajarn explained in the excerpt, it was difficult to tell how long the students had to learn any foreign language in order to use it fluently because it depended on their motivation (lines 9-11). From this excerpt, it can be concluded that Ajarn tried to tell his students how to improve their English proficiency.

Since this classroom used English as a medium of instruction and communication, the students in this class were automatically forced to use English. Consequently, it provided opportunities for the students to practice speaking English. However, as

Ajarn claimed in Excerpt 1, line 7, the students tried to speak Thai with him. Therefore, when they used Thai in responding to his questions, through verbal feedback, he asked them to give their contributions again in English. Here is how he expressed it:

(16)

1 Since this class is an international programme, English was used as a
2 medium of instruction and communication. However, the students
3 often used Thai in responding to my questions. So every time they did,
4 through my verbal feedback I asked them to give their answers again in
5 English.

In Excerpt 16, it can be concluded that Ajarn tried to encourage the students to speak English although they would use it incorrectly by asking them to say it again if they used Thai. As he claimed in Excerpt 15 above, “to learn any languages you must get any opportunities to practice that language, if you want to be good at speaking, you must speak most of the time” (lines 2-3). Therefore, since normally Thai students only have an opportunity to use English when they are in EFL/ ESL classrooms or in any classroom which English is used as a medium of instruction and communication, Ajarn had to encourage his students to use it as much as they could.

4.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the findings from the interview data and course syllabus on the objectives of the course and the teacher’s personal teaching goals. The objectives of the course, Intercultural Business Communication included: (1) to enable the students to be able to define major concepts in cross-cultural communication and intercultural business communication, (2) to enable the students to be able to apply different approaches to deal business with people from different countries around the world, and (3) to enable the students to appreciate the cultural diversity of people in business communication. For personal teaching goals, the teacher set four goals for

the students which included: (1) to provide knowledge about intercultural business communication for the students, (2) to help the students become independent learners, (3) to encourage the students to participate in classroom discussions more, and (4) to improve the students' English speaking skill.

As the teacher claimed in the interview, the students had limited proficiency in English (see Excerpt 1, lines 12-13), and they were not independent learners (see Excerpt 6, lines 3-4). For the teacher, these weak characteristics were a barrier for him to make the students achieve the course objectives and his first personal teaching goal which was to improve the students' intercultural business communication knowledge. Consequently, the teacher had to lower his teaching standard and adapt his teaching techniques in order to be appropriate for the students. He also set three personal teaching goals which focused on developing the students' English proficiency, encouraging their participation in classroom discussions and helping them to be independent learners. After analysing the teacher's interview, it can be summarised that he intended that these goals should support the students reaching the course objectives and his first personal teaching goal. More detailed discussions of how the teacher provided opportunities for the students to achieve the course objectives and his personal teaching goals through his verbal feedback will be presented in Chapter 6.

In the following chapter, I provide the findings on three aspects of teacher verbal feedback: functions, strategies, and content.

CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS ON ASPECTS OF TEACHER VERBAL FEEDBACK

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings based on the classroom observation data on three aspects of teacher verbal feedback. It is divided into three sections: (1) Functions of teacher verbal feedback, (2) Strategies of teacher verbal feedback, and (3) Content of teacher verbal feedback. In these sections, I first present the quantitative results of the particular aspects of teacher verbal feedback employed by Ajarn. Then I provide descriptions and illustrations of the teacher's discourse in order to discuss the occurrence of different features of each aspect of teacher verbal feedback in the classroom. Moreover, at appropriate points in these sections, some comments have been made with regard to certain patterns of the teacher's verbal feedback. The point of describing three aspects of teacher verbal feedback is not only to understand them for their own sake, but also to set the stage for a later discussion of findings in Chapter 6 (Findings on Reaching the Course Objectives and the Teacher's Personal Teaching Goals) on whether or not the teacher's verbal feedback gave opportunities for the students to accomplish the course objectives and the personal teaching goals the teacher had for them.

5.2 Aspects of Teacher Verbal Feedback

The analysis of three aspects of teacher verbal feedback -- functions, strategies and content -- provides the evidence for answering the following three research questions.

3. What are the functions of verbal feedback provided by the teacher in the classroom?
4. What are the strategies used by the teacher in providing verbal feedback?
5. What is the content of verbal feedback provided by the teacher?

As discussed in Section 3.4.6.2, Chapter 3, instead of analysing the whole eight transcribed lessons, the transcribed teacher-student discussions (TTSD) from each lesson were chosen. These eight TTSD were coded firstly based on IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback) exchange (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975) as the following example.

(1)

| | | | |
|----|-----|--|----------|
| 17 | Aj: | Uh huh. Do you think you can manage your time wiser? | I |
| 18 | S2: | Sleeping less and work hard. | R |
| 19 | Aj: | That's not the point. <laughing> | F |

(Excerpt from TTSD 1)

After that, from out of eight TTSD I counted the number of teacher verbal feedback which there was 117 moves. Then these teacher verbal feedback moves were analysed further based on the pre-set categories: functions, strategies, and content (see Section 3.4.6.2, Chapter 3 for the detailed data analysis). In the following sections, I present the findings and discussions on these three aspects of teacher verbal feedback. (Please note that all teacher verbal feedback is in bold. Moreover, if any specific teacher verbal feedback function, strategy and content are focused on, they will be also in italics.)

5.2.1 Functions of Teacher Verbal Feedback

This section provides the evidence for answering the third research question (see p. 128). From an examination of the data, there were two different functions of teacher verbal feedback: evaluative feedback and interactional feedback. For the current study, evaluative feedback and interactional feedback were defined as follows.

Evaluative Feedback (EF) is teacher verbal feedback which:

- focuses on the correct or adequate form or content of a student's contribution.
- shows a teacher's attempt to correct a student's contribution directly or indirectly.
- shows a teacher's evaluation, criticism, displeasure or rejection to a student's incorrect contribution.

Interactional Feedback (IF) is teacher verbal feedback which:

- focuses on the content of a student's contribution without being concerned with the correct form of a student's contribution.
- reformulates a student's contribution without rejection in order to keep discussion continue if a student's contribution is wrong in grammatical structure.
- shows a teacher's intention to encourage a student to talk far more.
- uses a student's contribution to make a discussion move forward.

As described in Section 3.4.6.2, Chapter 3, I identified teacher verbal feedback functions by considering the teacher's questions. According to Nassaji and Wells (2000: 384), there are three main categories of information that teachers always ask students: *Assumed Known Information* (AKI) (where a teacher already knows the answer and is concerned to discover whether students can supply it), *Personal Information* (PI) (where the information is known only to the person addressed), and *Negotiatory Information* (NI) (where the answer is to be reached through open-ended discussion between a teacher and students). From this study I found that when Ajarn asked his students for assumed known information, he always provided evaluative feedback for the students' contributions as the following example shows.

(2)

- 24 Aj: Do you know what 'classic' mean?
- 25 S2: (Speaks Thai – Classic is basic. Its meaning is similar to) original.
<laughing>
- 26 Aj: ***Ok. Many times people they like to use the casual words but they don't know the real meanings of the words. Good. You are the good example.***

(Excerpt from TTSD 2)

In Example 2, the teacher asks S2 what the word 'classic' means in line 24. In line 25, after the student gives a correct answer, the teacher provides verbal feedback for her answer that "Ok. Many times people they like to use the casual words but they don't know the real meanings of the words. Good. You are the good example" (line 26). This verbal feedback shows the teacher's evaluation to S2's contributions. Thus, it can be concluded that from the beginning to the end of the discussion the teacher has already known the definition of classic. Therefore, he could evaluate what S2 said.

On the other hand, when the teacher asked for the students' personal information, he gave interactional feedback such as commenting or asking for further information about what the student was talking as follows.

(3)

- 1 Aj: Why you said you have so many things to do such as?
- 2 S2: Such as work on my office and teaching my students.
- 3 Aj: ***Are you a tutor?***
- 4 S2: Yes. I'm a tutor.
- 5 Aj: ***You are a tutor so you have your tutees. How many tutees?***
- 6 S2: Ah, eight

In Example 3, when the teacher asks S2 why she has so many things to do in line 1, he cannot know what S2 will answer because it is the personal information of S2. Then S2 responds that besides working in the office she also teaches students in line 2. The teacher is interested in S2's teaching job so he asks her further in lines 3 and 5. Since the talking topic was about S2's personal information, the teacher could not evaluate her contributions. He provides verbal feedback which shows his intention to encourage the student to talk far more by questioning in lines 3 and 5.

Moreover, when the teacher required information for negotiation or discussion by asking for the students' opinions, explanations, and conjectures, sometimes he evaluated the students' responses or invited further student contributions as follows.

(4)

- 1 Aj: What I would like to mention, learning English for international communication. Starting up. I think that I would be lucky if I was born as American or British or Scottish. Do you think so? Do you think if we were born as British, Scottish, Australian, New Zealander, American you are lucky, but why some American or British or some foreigners want to be Thai? But I have a few American friends they want to be Thai very much.
- 2 S2: Some Thai people want to be American.
- 3 Aj: *Why? It seems that while a foreigner wants to be Thai, Thai want to be a foreigner.*
- 4 S2: (Speaks Thai – They are power countries and have social capitalism. They can live anywhere in the world. They can be English teachers, but for us it has difficulties to live in other countries. We cannot teach Thai to foreigners.)
- 5 Aj: **Ok. That's a good point.**

In Example 4, the teacher raises the topic that he would be lucky if he was born as American, British or Scottish, but he says that his American friends want to be Thai very much in line 1. S2 expresses that some Thai people want to be American in line 2. Then the teacher asks her, “Why? It seems that while a foreigner wants to be Thai, Thai want to be a foreigner” (line 3). This shows that the teacher wants the student to express her opinions further. After S2 explains the reason in line 4, the teacher tells her what she explained is a good point in line 5. This verbal feedback to S2’s contributions reveals that the teacher is satisfied with S2’s opinions. It can be concluded that the function of teacher verbal feedback in line 3 and line 5 is interactional feedback. Both teacher verbal feedback moves focuses on a student’s opinion without correction or criticism because they show the teacher’s intention to encourage the student to talk far more and use the student’s contributions to make a discussion move forward.

In summary, three categories of information: Assumed Known Information, Personal Information and Negotiatory Information represent the teacher alternative as to the function of verbal feedback. The degrees of representation as far as its supportive, motivational value are concerned when the teacher asked the students for personal information or negotiatory information. On the hand, when he focused on criticism or evaluation, he asked for assumed known information.

Based on considering the categories of information that Ajarn asked his students, I can decide which verbal feedback function he provided for the students’ contributions. After analysing each teacher verbal feedback function, I put together in one group all the teacher verbal feedback moves which were forms of evaluative feedback and interactional feedback. Then I counted the number of times each teacher verbal feedback function was provided, I found that Ajarn provided interactional feedback more than evaluative feedback for the students’ contributions as can be seen in Chart 1 below.

I first provide an overview of two functions of teacher verbal feedback: evaluative feedback and interactional feedback, discuss the rationale behind the preference for one group over another, and move on to identify the specific strategies for each function in the next section (5.2.2). The following bar chart represents the distribution of the functions of teacher verbal feedback across the data from Ajarn's class that was investigated. As discussed previously, there were two teacher verbal feedback functions: evaluative feedback (EF) and interactional feedback (IF).

Chart 1: Distribution of Evaluative and Interactional Feedback for Eight TTSD

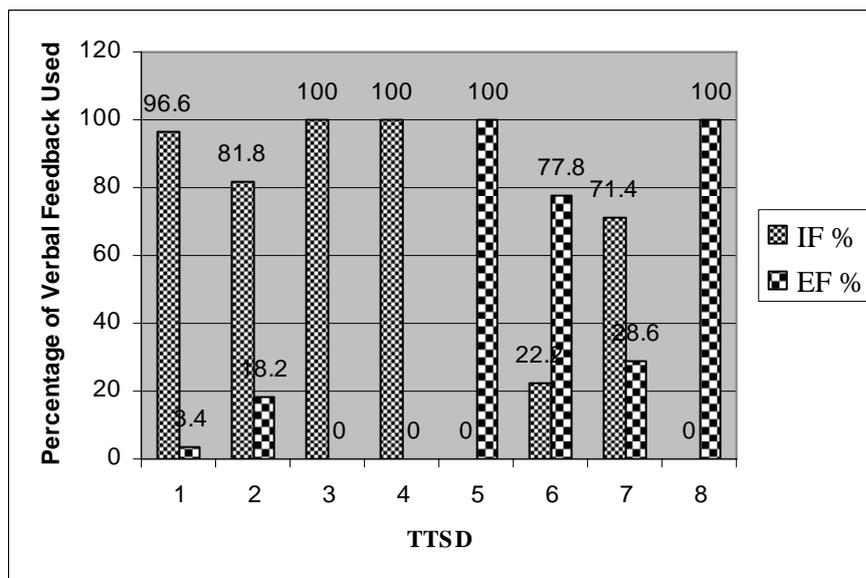


Chart 1 shows the use of each teacher verbal feedback function during each TTSD (eight TTSD) from eight lessons. The vertical axis shows the percentage of teacher verbal feedback functions used and the horizontal axis compares the eight TTSD listed e.g., 1 = TTSD 1. As can be seen from the chart, there is a consistent trend for the use of interactional feedback compared to evaluative feedback by Ajarn. The figures suggest that almost half of 117 teacher verbal feedback moves in eight TTSD analysed is interactional feedback (90 or 76.9%) compared to evaluative feedback

(27 or 23.1%). This result confirms what the teacher described in the interview (see Excerpt 10 in Section 4.3, Chapter 4) that he wanted to encourage the students to speak out freely without being corrected all the time so he ignored their wrong contributions. Moreover, the high occurrence of interactional feedback means that more than half of the teacher verbal feedback moves contained in the TTSD analysed are supportive, motivational in nature than critical or evaluative. It is also clear from the data in the chart that while there is general preference for interactional feedback, the difference among teacher verbal feedback move's function varied from TTSD to TTSD. As can be seen from the bar chart in TTSD 1, 2, 6 and 7 both verbal feedback functions were found while in TTSD 3 and 4 there was only interactional feedback and there was only evaluative feedback in TTSD 5 and 8. Furthermore, after reconsidering the chart carefully, it can be found that the teacher preferred to use interactional feedback at the first half of the sessions (TTSD 1 – TTSD 4) while at the last half of the sessions (TTSD 5 – TTSD 8) he provided evaluative feedback more than interactional feedback. The interpretation of this phenomenon might be that since the students' English proficiency was a barrier for the students to reach the course objectives and the teacher's first personal teaching goal which aimed at expanding their intercultural business communication knowledge, at the first half of the sessions the teacher tried to create safe classroom climate where the students could participate in classroom discussions freely. This environment might help the students increase their interests and motivation toward learning. After that, at the last half of the sessions, he could teach about the course content to students. By doing so, he always raised discussion topics relating to the content of the course. However, since the students had not known much about these topics, sometimes they gave incorrect contributions. Consequently, the teacher had to provide evaluative feedback for these contributions. Finally, based on the figures it can be concluded that across eight TTSD, in TTSD 1-4 and 7 the teacher is highly supportive and motivational, in TTSD 5, 6 and 8 the teacher concentrated on more criticism and evaluation than support and motivation.

5.2.2 Strategies of Teacher Verbal Feedback

In this section, I discuss the evidence for answering the fourth research question (see p. 128). Since in this study there are two functions of teacher verbal feedback: evaluative feedback and interactional feedback, I discuss each function's strategies separately. Firstly, evaluative feedback strategies are explained. Then I describe the strategies of interactional feedback.

5.2.2.1 Evaluative Feedback Strategies

Based on the percentages of the occurrence of each teacher verbal feedback function discussed previously, evaluative feedback was less emphasised by Ajarn. In the present study, six strategies of evaluative feedback: explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, repetition, elicitation, and metalinguistic feedback are borrowed from Lyster and Ranta's (1997) taxonomy. The following are definitions of these six strategies of evaluative feedback:

Explicit Correction (EC) refers to the explicit provision of the correct form or content. The teacher clearly indicates what the student had said was incorrect.

Recasts (Rc) involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of the student's contribution, without the error.

Clarification Requests (CR) indicate to the student that the teacher has misunderstood his or her contribution or that the contribution is ill formed in some way and that a repetition or reformulation is required.

Metalinguistic Feedback (MF) contains either comments, information, or questions related to the correctness or adequacy of form or content of the student's contributions, without explicitly providing the correct form or content.

Elicitation (E) refers to three techniques that the teacher uses to directly elicit the correct form or content from the student. First, the teacher elicits completion of his or her own contribution. Second, the teacher uses questions to elicit the correct form or content. Third, the teacher occasionally asks the student to reformulate his or her contribution.

Repetition (Rp^{EF}) refers to the teacher's repetition of the student's erroneous contribution.

Normally, Ajarn asked a question to which he already knew the answer (Assumed Known Information) but he wanted to know whether the students could supply it or not and when one of the students responded, he provided evaluative feedback for the student's contributions. If the information the students gave was correct or met the teacher's expectation, Ajarn sometimes simply made the evaluation in the forms of praising or giving acknowledgement such as 'Yes', 'Ok' or 'Good'. If not, he provided evaluative feedback which made the students know that what they said was not correct directly or indirectly. In this classroom among six evaluative feedback strategies mentioned above Ajarn used three strategies which are explicit correction, elicitation and metalinguistic feedback. Alongside Lyster and Ranta's (1997) teacher verbal feedback taxonomy, I identified two other strategies: Giving clues (GC) and Criticising (Cr). In my terminology, 'giving clues' occurs when Ajarn wanted to give the students a clue for the right answer. 'Criticising', in my terms, was used by Ajarn to criticise or satirise the students' contributions. The following bar chart displays the percentages of the occurrence of these strategies.

Chart 2: Evaluative Feedback Strategies in Six TTSD (TTSD 1, 2, 5, 6, 7 and 8)

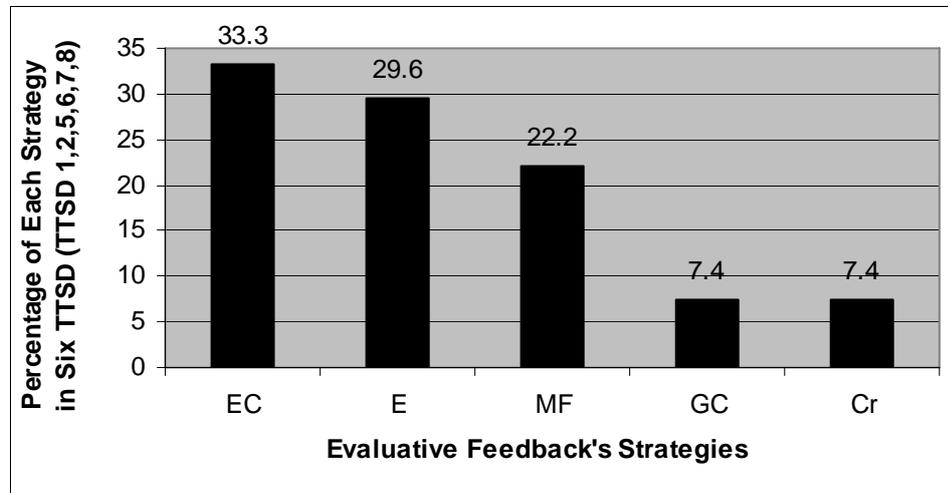


Chart 2 shows the use of each evaluative feedback strategy in six TTSD (TTSD 1, 2, 5, 6, 7 and 8). The vertical axis shows the percentage of each strategy used and the horizontal axis compares the five strategies listed: Explicit correction (EC), Elicitation (E), Metalinguistic feedback (MF), Giving clues (GC) and Criticising (Cr). As shown in Chart 2, Ajarn used explicit correction the most often; that is nine (33.3 %) out of 27 evaluative feedback were explicit correction. Elicitation was found to occur in second place (8 or 29.6%). Next, metalinguistic feedback was used 6 or 22.2%. For giving clues and criticising, they were equally used 2 or 7.4%.

In the following, I further examine the occurrence of each strategy of evaluative feedback in the classroom, starting with explicit correction, proceeding to elicitation, followed by metalinguistic feedback, and finishing with giving clues and criticising respectively.

Explicit correction

The above data evidently showed that explicit correction was the most favoured strategy of evaluative feedback used by the teacher in this study. This finding surprised me because I thought that Ajarn would avoid letting the students know

immediately that their contributions were incorrect or unacceptable to him. As he claimed in the interview (see Excerpt 8 in Section 4.3, Chapter 4), he would tell them indirectly or try to let them repair their contributions themselves. However, an analysis of TTSD 1, TTSD 6, and TTSD 8 indicated that in using explicit correction, the teacher did not really correct the form or content of the students' contributions, but rather correct the students' misunderstanding. Here are some examples of explicit correction.

(5)

- 62 Aj: Do you understand what New Year resolution means?
63 S3: Solution in New Year?
64 S2: Solution. Solution. (Speaks Thai – solution)
65 Aj: *No, resolution, not solution. New Year resolution.*

(Excerpt from TTSD 1)

In Example 5, the teacher begins a discussion by asking the students whether they understand the definition of New Year resolution or not in line 62. He gets two responses from two students. The first student is S3 who assures herself about the teacher's question by asking him back that, "Solution in New Year?" (line 63) while the second one is S2 who says that "Solution. Solution. (Speaks Thai – solution)" (line 64). These responses show that both students do not understand what New Year resolution means. Therefore, the teacher tells them directly that what they said is wrong and they misunderstood. He says "No, resolution, not solution. New Year resolution" (line 65).

(6)

- 12 Aj: In term of doing business with whatever countries. So this is what I want, not like the marketing plan, research plan. We focus on all of these. And if we take a look at (xxx) in some countries they have to maybe the (xxx) to get thing done easily

and in Asia countries you have some connections maybe your business for (xxx) and non verbal behaviours of course it's a part of communication. It's also important. Maybe you feel that I don't know I have contract with many foreigners from many countries when I was in the military, but that in term of military context so kind of you're the boss and subordinate, command (xxx). Of course we learned some cultural aspects from them but not in the business context. So if you want to talk or discuss about this context. You have to clarify what it is "context"

13 S2: Contact. <being confused>

14 Aj: *Context. Context.*

(Excerpt from TTSD 7)

In Example 6, while the teacher is explaining that it is necessary to find information about the business context before doing business with whatever countries in line 12, S2 interrupts his explanation and says "Contact" (line 13). This shows that S2 misunderstood about the word 'context' so the teacher tells her immediately that he is talking about 'context' not 'contact' in line 14.

Sometimes, although the students' contributions did not answer the teacher's questions, the teacher still gave the students an opportunity to express their opinions. However, since their contributions' meaning sometimes was not reasonable enough or it was not acceptable to the teacher. Eventually, he informed the students of their incorrect or unacceptable contributions to him by using explicit correction, as shown in the next example.

(7)

9 Aj: ...Ok. How to do business in Vatican City? The story's quite interesting because we don't know much about Vatican. If you are business person, what type of business except the tourism?

- 10 S2: In the first time I don't understand about the word, er, business, it means. But in my way business is everything makes to the money.
- 11 Aj: **Ok.**
- 12 S2: Yeah. So! Business of me in Vatican, to take someone or everyone into Vatican City. And er...to lead them travel the Vatican City and keep the money from them. I think that. I'm not sure that it's true or not.
- 13 Aj: *It's right in a way but it's wrong in a way either.* <laughing>

(Excerpt from TTSD 8)

In Example 7, the teacher asks S2 what other types of business except the tourism she can do in Vatican City in line 9. Then instead of answering the question, S2 explains what she thinks about business in line 10. Although the teacher does not get the expected answer from S2, he is still willing to listen to what the student tries to explain. This can be seen when the teacher says, "OK" (line 11). However, finally the teacher tells the student that her explanation is still not satisfactory by saying "It's right in a way but it's wrong in a way either" (line 13).

Elicitation

The data of the current study revealed that elicitation ranked as second for Ajarn's class. Through analysing the data, I found that a number of elicitations served as a means for Ajarn to elicit the correct contributions from the students by questioning as shown in the following example below.

(8)

- 15 Aj: ...Did you watch TV lately about the Prince of Bhutan, who had been in Thailand? How do you feel when people perform a 'wai' to a public? Should someone tell you that if you are a

prince, you should not return any 'wai' or perform any 'wai' to anyone. Should you? <laughing> What's his name?

16 S2: Jigme

17 Aj: **Jigme. *The whole name?***

18 S2: Jigme Khesar Namgyel.

19 Aj: **No, Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck.**

(Excerpt from TTSD 6)

In Example 8, after the teacher talks about the Prince of Bhutan, he asks the students about the Prince's name in line 15. S2 gives the answer which is Jigme in line 16. Although this answer is correct which can be seen from the teacher's repetition (Jigme) in line 17, the teacher is still not satisfied with it. Since he wants to get the Prince's full name, he elicits the expected answer from the student in line 17. However, the student's answer is still not correct. Therefore, the teacher corrects it and tells her the correct answer in line 19.

Metalinguistic feedback

The provision of metalinguistic feedback in this classroom was less than explicit correction and elicitation. An analysis of the transcripts showed that it was used to provide comments or information related to the correctness or adequacy of content of the students' contributions as shown in the following example below.

(9)

17 Aj: What is the context of the university where most students are male?

18 S2: (Speaks Thai – Since there are many male students, we have to understand their social context.)

19 Aj: ***Ok. It can be concluded that before you communicate or contact with someone coming from different culture, you***

have to study their cultural contexts. So you have to act like man to get along with them? <laughing>

(Excerpt from TTSD 7)

In Example 9, the teacher asks S2 what the context of the university where most students are male is in line 17. Then in line 18, the student explains what she thinks about the context of this type of university. In line 19, the teacher provides metalinguistic feedback by commenting the student's explanations that "So you have to act like man to get along with them?" This statement shows that the teacher tries to tell the student indirectly that her contributions are not acceptable to him.

Giving clues

In the present study, giving clues which as already discussed was not in the six strategies was the least favoured strategy of evaluative feedback used by Ajarn. Normally, Ajarn used it to give hints to the students in order to lead them to find the correct answer themselves as the following example shows.

(10)

- 11 S3: My opinion is, 'culture shock' is it changes or adaptation or progress.
- 12 Aj: Er. Of what?
- 13 S3: Of culture, when it changes, it can make social better.
- 14 Aj: **Who will be affected?**
- 15 S3: People in social.
- 16 Aj: *Er you mean people in that society or the new comer from outside?*
- 17 S3: Er I think the new comer.

(Excerpt from TTSD 5)

This excerpt was taken from the discussion between the teacher and the students about what 'culture shock' means. In this discussion, the teacher tries to make the students find what 'culture shock' means themselves. In Example 10, S3 tries to guess its meaning. The teacher's verbal feedback in line 12 implies that while S3's answer is not wrong, he is looking for something else that is preferable or clearer. This can be seen in the way the teacher organises his verbal feedback which his comment begins with "Er" that conveys a somewhat hesitant acceptance of S3's answer. The teacher's next question, "Of what?" (line 12) is an initiation of correction and clarification which provides S3 with a chance to find the right answer. That is to say, this move shows that the teacher uses his verbal feedback to do an evaluation, while initiating another three-move sequence by showing a distinctive method of action; the teacher is asking S3 to clarify the answer. S3's task is then to figure out what is changed by culture shock. However, this question receives another unsatisfactory answer (line 13) from her, and therefore, the teacher begins a series of giving a clue leading to the correct response in lines 14 and 16. The first clue, "Who will be affected?" (line 14) shows that the teacher leads S3 to focus on who will be affected by culture shock. Unfortunately, S3's answer which is "People in social" (line 15) is unclear. However, instead of rejecting the answer immediately the teacher asks S3 to confirm her response by giving the second clue. He provided a choice for the student that "You mean people in that society or the new comer from outside?" (line 16) Unlike the previous clue, in this clue the teacher provides S3 with two choices which are 'people in that society' or 'the new comer from outside.' This makes S3 be aware that her answer may be incorrect because the first choice is the same as her previous answer. Thus, she selects the second choice which is the right answer. It can be concluded that giving the students a choice could narrow the student's responses, since the correct answer was already contained in the question itself. The student needed only to pick up the right choice.

Criticising

Criticising is another strategy which is not in the six strategies already discussed. It was used to criticise or satirise the students' contributions. However, from analysing the data, it was evident that Ajarn hardly used it. I found that there were two situations which he used this strategy as follows.

(11)

- 1 Aj: Do you know there is flood in Vatican? I've just watched TV,
 the Discovery channel.
- 2 S2: Farting. Farting is the light diet but it's farting or flooding.
- 3 Aj: **Flooding.**
- 4 S2: I see. (Speaks Thai – Flood. I think that you are
 talking about) farting. Flood (Speaks Thai - When did it
 happen? There wasn't flood as far as I know from my
 resources) What a year you can find from?
- 5 Aj: **Recently.**
- 6 S2: Really?
- 7 Aj: **The news's about the flooding.**
- 8 S2: Really? But it's up the hills. It's high. Vatican, how floods
 on hills.
- 9 Aj: *You have to make sure about Vatican.*

(Excerpt from TTSD 8)

In Example 11, the teacher asked S2 if she heard the news about flooding in Vatican in line 1. Based on her knowledge, S2 answers that there was not flood in Vatican. She also asks the teacher back when it happened in line 4. Then the teacher answers “Recently” (line 5). Instead of accepting the answer, S2 shows that she hesitates to believe what the teacher said by saying “Really?” (line 6). The teacher insists that he got this information from the news in line 7. However, S2 still argues that it is impossible to have flood in Vatican because this city is on the hill in line 8. This information about Vatican which S2 gave makes the teacher know that S2 has not known much about this city, but she tried to show that she knows more about it. Therefore, the teacher criticises S2's contributions that “You have to make sure about Vatican” (line 9).

(12)

- 31 S2: A stork or (xxx) (Speaks Thai – I’m sure for its meaning which is ‘stork’ or not. Giving a stork for a present is not good because a stork is a symbol of death. Er...handkerchief (Speaks Thai – I’m not sure for its meaning which is ‘handkerchief’ or ‘scarf’.)
- 32 Aj: (Speaks Thai – **Handkerchief**.) <confirming the meaning of ‘handkerchief’>
- 33 S2: (Speaks Thai – Handkerchief.)
- 34 Aj: (Speaks Thai – **Scarf**) <telling what is ‘scarf’ in English>
- 35 S2: Ok
- 36 Aj: *This is vocabularies for primary school.* <laughing>

(Excerpt from TTSD 2)

In Example 12, S2 describes about suitable souvenirs for Chinese, but she is not sure about handkerchief’s meaning. This can be seen when she says, “Er...handkerchief (Speaks Thai – I’m not sure for its meaning which is ‘handkerchief’ or ‘scarf’)” (line 31). Therefore, the teacher tells S2 its meaning in line 32, and explains what scarf is in English in line 34. Finally, he says, “This is vocabularies for primary students” (line 36). This shows the teacher’s criticism about S2’s knowledge.

5.2.2.2 Interactional Feedback Strategies

As clearly shown in Chart 1 (p. 134), interactional feedback was more frequently used than evaluative feedback by Ajarn. In this research, all interactional feedback strategies were from Cullen (2002). The following are definitions of the strategies of interactional feedback.

Reformulation (Rf) is used to repair the student's contribution to ensure that the content of the contribution is available and also audible without interrupting the flow of discourse the teacher is developing with the class.

Elaboration (El) is used to help ensure understanding, to add humour to the proceedings, and to add and extend the student's original contribution.

Comment (C) is used to pick up on the student's contribution (by repeating it) and then add a comment of the teacher.

Repetition (Rp^{IF}) is used to repeat the student's contribution to confirm, question, or express surprise without relating the form of what the student said.

Moreover, an analysis of the data revealed that there was another strategy which Ajarn used besides four strategies mentioned above. Ajarn motivated the students to explain further about their previous contributions by questioning. Therefore, I named this strategy as Questioning (Q).

In the current study, almost all interactional feedback strategies focused on the content of the students' contributions more than their accuracy or correctness of information supplied or of the linguistic form used. Although reformulation was used to repair all or part of the student's response to ensure that the content of an individual student's contributions was available and also audible to the rest of the class, it did not change the student's original idea. The strategies evident in the interactional feedback ranged from a focus on concern and interest values, natural communication, and the supportive and motivational role of Ajarn. For example, reformulation, elaboration and repetition are indicative of Ajarn's concern and interest in how the students expressed their ideas or what information the students tried to express. They also imply the teacher's support. Comment shows that the teacher promoted natural and communicative language in the classroom because he made a personal, often humorous response to what the students had just said. Moreover, it may be a motivation to encourage the students to talk far more after the teacher's comments. For questioning, it is the direct way indicating that the teacher

encouraged the students to explain further about their previous contributions. The following bar chart displays the percentages of the occurrence of interactional feedback strategies.

Chart 3: Interactional Feedback Strategies in Six TTSD (TTSD 1-4, 6 and 7)

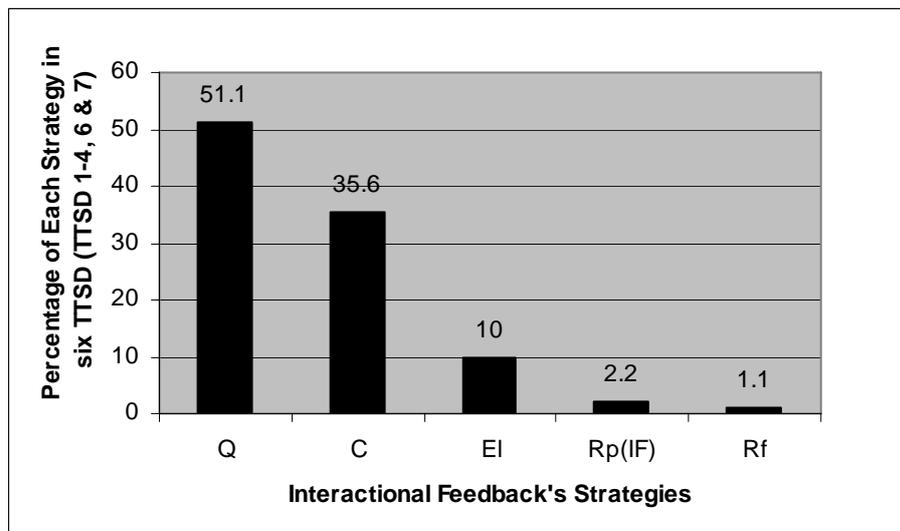


Chart 3 shows the use of each interactional feedback strategy in six TTSD (TTSD 1-4, 6 and 7). The vertical axis shows the percentage of each strategy used and the horizontal axis compares the six strategies listed: Questioning (Q), Comment (C), Elaboration (El), Repetition (Rp^{IF}), and Reformulation (Rf). It can be seen from the chart that among the interactional feedback strategies, Questioning was used by Ajarn most often (46 or 51.1%). Ajarn used this strategy which is for motivation purpose to ask the students to describe further about their contributions. Questioning was utilised repetitively and consistently over other strategies in all six TTSD. This strategy was used the most because it is the easiest way to encourage the students to talk far more. Normally in any classrooms when teachers question, at least one of the students will give responses. Comment is the second strategy which was used most often by Ajarn (32 or 35.6%). This strategy could create more participation

from the students in the classroom because after Ajarn provided his comments for the student's contributions, the student spoke further or other students also share their opinions about the talking topic. For the other three strategies, elaboration, repetition and reformulation were used 10%, 2.2% and 1.1% respectively.

Next I will examine further the occurrence of each strategy of interactional feedback in the classroom, starting with questioning, proceeding to comment, followed by elaboration, and finishing repetition and reformulation respectively.

Questioning

Questioning is the strategy which is not on the list of strategies taken from Cullen (2002). As clearly indicated in Chart 3 (p. 148), Ajarn used this strategy the most to encourage the student to describe her contributions further by questioning as the following example.

(13)

- 143 Aj: How can you improve your speaking skill?
144 S1: I want to practice with my friends.
145 **Aj:** *Who? Do you have any foreign friends?*
146 S1: I have my foreigner friend in America.
147 **Aj:** *And how often do you meet him or her?*
148 S1: She comes and now she went to Pakistan. Next month, next time she will come.
149 **Aj:** *She will come and visit you here?*
150 S1: Yes.

(Excerpt from TTSD 1)

In Example 13, the teacher asks S1 how she can improve her English speaking skill in line 143. Then S1 answers that she practices it with her friends in line 144. In line 145, the teacher asks S1 further, "Who? Do you have any foreign friends?" S1

explains that she has an American friend in line 146. The teacher continues asking S1 how often she meets her friend in line 147. After S1 answers, “She comes and now she went to Pakistan. Next month, next time she will come” (line 148), the teacher still asks her further, “She will come and visit you here?” (line 149). These questions in lines 145, 147 and 149 help to encourage the student to talk far more. From the conversation it can be seen that S1 only gives the answer to the question that the teacher asks without adding or extending more information about her answer. This performance can be seen in many Thai classrooms. Therefore, teachers have to ask further if they want more information or explanation.

Comment

The data of this research revealed that comment ranked as second for Ajarn’s class. As described previously, this strategy is different from elaboration because the teacher does not directly try to add and extend the meaning of what the student has said. Through analysing the transcripts, I found that Ajarn used it for simply adding a spontaneous comment of his own as shown in the following example.

(14)

- 54 Aj: Why don't you have any plan for getting married?
55 S1: Nobody likes me.
56 Aj: *It depends on, you know, normally I would like to tell that nowadays many working women prefer to stay single because they are independent. They can help themselves. They've got work, job, salary, money. Maybe no need to get a boyfriend or husband. But it depends on how you want your life, life style.*
57 S2: But I want.

(Excerpt from TTSD 1)

In Example 14, the teacher asks S1 the question “Why don’t you have any plan for getting married?” (line 54), to which S1 answers that “Nobody likes me” (line 55). Then the teacher provides verbal feedback by commenting what S1 said in line 56. His comment is not related to S1’s contribution but it is his opinion about Thai women’s decision on getting married at the present. Since the teacher expresses his comment simply and friendly S2 dares to express her wish directly in line 57. It can be concluded when the teacher comments on the student’s contributions, it helps to encourage the speaker or the other students to participate more in the discussion.

In another example, it shows that comment helped to encourage the students to participate more in classroom discussions and promote natural and communicative language use in the classroom. In this excerpt after S3 told the teacher and her classmates that she is already engaged, the teacher congratulates her and asks her further about her story as follows.

(15)

- 71 S3: Because I engaged already.
- 72 Aj: **Oh! Congratulation. So when?**
- 73 S3: So my boyfriend, he got master degree already. So he must work in Surathani.
- 74 Aj: **What work does he do?**
- 75 S3: I don’t know in English word. But I know rubber. You know?
- 76 Aj: **Ok. The rubber industry.**
- 77 S3: A lot of palm rubber.
- 78 Aj: **Ok.**
- 79 S3: Yes. So he thinks he and me think a lot.
- 80 Aj: **Uh huh. About what?**
- 81 S3: About business.
- 82 Aj: **So why are you worried about that?**
- 83 S3: Because it’s far away.
- 84 Aj: **Both of you are far away.**

- 85 S3: Yes. So it's impossible. Because my mom and my cousins think it's impossible.
- 86 Aj: **Impossible for what?**
- 87 S3: Two person two persons...
- 88 Aj: **I see. To separate. To stay separately when you get married.**
- 89 S3: Yes, because I study two years.
- 90 Aj: **Ok. So when are you making plan to get married? Sorry, it is quite too personal.**
- 91 S3: I think beginning now. So I think after this term I have to think a lot I must study or...
- 92 Aj: **You will continue or you will stop.**
- 93 S3: Yeah.
- 94 Aj: *So, that is a big decision.*
- 95 S3: Yes. It's big problem.
- 96 Aj: *Or maybe you get married, but you still keep on your study.*
- 97 S3: But my mother thinks he looks for new girlfriend.
- 98 Ss: <laughing>
- 99 Aj: **So you mean that...**
- 100 S3: And I look for...
- 101 Aj: **Another boyfriend. How come? You must maintain your love, you should be stable enough. Not break up your love.**
- 102 S3: I'm confused now.
- 103 Aj: **Yeah. So you think love is not always happy.**

(Excerpt from TTSD 1)

In Example 15, after S3 said that she has engaged in line 71, the teacher immediately congratulates her in line 72. Then S3 continues talking about her boyfriend in line 73. The teacher shows that he is interested in her story by asking the question, "What work does he do?" (line 74) After telling her boyfriend's job, S3 begins to tell her concerned story in line 79. Then the teacher asks her what she is concerned about in line 80. S3 tells him about the story in lines 81, 83, 85, 87 and 89. After

S3's every contribution, the teacher asks S3 further questions about it in his verbal feedback moves in lines 82, 84, 86 and 88. The friendly atmosphere increases in line 90 which the teacher says, "Sorry, it is quite too personal." This reveals that he is concerned about asking S3's personal story because he recognises what he is asking for is not related to the course contents. At this point he begins to change the role of teacher to the role of S3's friend. This contribution is the beginning of informal or friendly conversation between the teacher and S3. Although the teacher is concerned that he should not talk about S3's personal story, S3 is willing to tell her story further. In line 91 she answers that she plans to get married soon so she thinks about her study whether she will stop it or not. Then the teacher shows his sympathy to S3. He tells S3 that, "This is a big decision" (line 94). He also comments that S3 should keep on her study after getting married in line 96. However, in line 97 S3 changes the talking topic by saying that, "But my mother thinks he looks for new girlfriend." This contribution is the beginning of the friendliest discussion which can be seen in lines 100 and 101. After S3 told that her mother thought that her boyfriend is looking for a new girlfriend in line 97, in line 100 it seems that she is telling that she is also looking for a new boyfriend. However, the teacher interrupts her contributions by completing the end of her contributions by adding the word 'boyfriend' himself in line 101. It can be seen that the teacher acts as S3's friend who is able to sense her thought. Moreover, he expresses his comment about S3's thought that "How come? You must maintain your love, you should be stable enough. Not break up your love" (line 101). There is another comment from the teacher in line 103 which is "Yeah. So you think love is not always happy" after S3 says, "I'm confused now" (line 102).

After reading this excerpt, I thought that I was reading the conversation of two friends. It seems that S3 is telling her love story to her friend and asking for some advice and comments from him. The teacher plays the role of S3's friend. He shows his interest in her story by asking questions and giving his comments and some advice through his verbal feedback. Consequently, as can be seen in the excerpt, S3 was more eager to participate in the discussion than usual. As I observed in the classroom, I found that normally S3 had hardly participated in any classroom discussions. The interpretation for this case might be that since Ajarn tried to show the student that he really cared for her and was willing to help her in her studies or

even some personal matters as he mentioned in the interview (see Excerpt 11, lines 1-3), the student dared to tell and discuss her story with the teacher.

Elaboration

Elaboration accounted for 10% in Ajarn's classroom. The transcripts showed that Ajarn used it to add and extend the students' original responses as shown in the following example.

(16)

- 33 S2: (Speaks Thai – Can I explain it in Thai? In my opinion, it should try because based on considering GDP or other factors in China. In China cosmetics are in only an upper marketing which is small. On the other hand, although a lower marketing has a little buying power, there are not any cosmetics in it. Therefore, we should consider this point than other points whether there is a chance or not)
- 34 Aj: **Ok. And many investors or business persons are very interested to invest in China because if you can get a market there a very huge market.**

(Excerpt from TTSD 7)

In Example 16, after S2 explains that before investing in cosmetics in a lower Chinese market (line 33), investors have to consider possibility, the teacher shows his agreement by saying the word "Ok" in line 34. Moreover, he elaborates S2's opinions that "And many investors or business persons are very interested to invest in China because if you can get a market there a very huge market." To elaborate what the student said helps to add and extend the student's contributions. This makes the student herself and the other students understand more about the talking topic. It also shows that the teacher is interested in listening to what the students said.

Repetition

From analysing the transcripts, it was evident that Ajarn hardly used repetition. It was used to repeat the student's contribution to confirm, question, or express surprise. For example:

(17)

- 1 Aj: Why you said you have so many things to do such as?
- 2 S2: Such as work on my office and teaching my students.
- 3 **Aj: Are you a tutor?**
- 4 S2: Yes. I'm a tutor.
- 5 **Aj: *You are a tutor so you have your tutees.***

(Excerpt from TTSD 1)

In Example 17, the teacher asks S2 why she has so many things to do and also asks for examples in line 1. After S2 answers that she has to work and teach students in line 2, the teacher provides verbal feedback by asking further about her teaching job that "Are you a tutor?" (line 3) Then S2 accepts that she is a tutor (line 4). Finally, the teacher repeats what S2 said that "You are a tutor" (line 5). This can reveal that he is surprised with this information.

Reformulation

In the current study reformulation was the least favoured strategy of interactional feedback used by Ajarn. Although reformulation was used to repair the student's contribution in order to provide the class with model of correct usage, it did not interrupt the flow of discussion Ajarn was developing with the class.

(18)

- 119 Aj: Ok. So how often do you think you can visit her? Twice a year?

- 120 S1: One year. One time.
121 Aj: **Once a year. That's not very often.**
122 S1: My mother, she lives alone.

(Excerpt from TTSD 1)

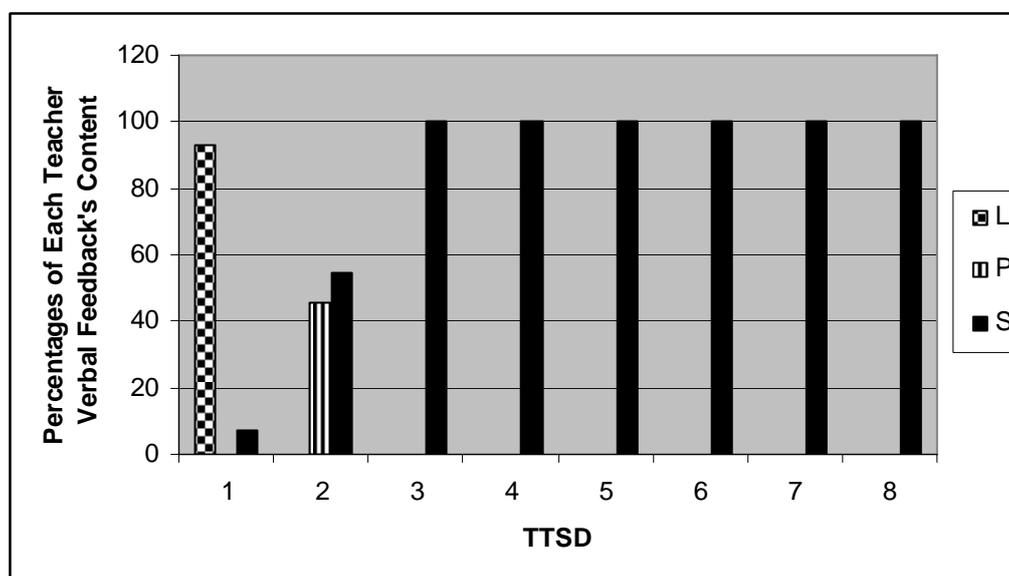
In Example 18, the teacher asks S1 how often she plans to visit her mother a year (line 119). In line 120, S1 answers that she intends to visit her mother once a year. However, her response is incorrect because she used the wrong vocabulary, 'one year and one time.' Since the student's wrong contributions are not serious and the teacher does not want to interrupt what the student is talking about he provides verbal feedback for the student by formulating S1's previous contributions instead of telling her directly and commenting her answer that "Once a year. That's not very often" (line 121). The teacher's decision of choosing this verbal feedback strategy makes the student continue talking about her mother in line 122.

5.2.3 Content of Teacher Verbal Feedback

In this section, I discuss the evidence for answering the fifth research question (see p. 128). This section first provides the findings of the quantitative data on the content of teacher verbal feedback that Ajarn provided in his teaching. Then it explains the occurrence of each content category.

According to Fanselow (1988), the content category is divided into three major categories: Life (L), Procedure (P), and Study (S). *Life* can be classified as formulas of greeting and other types of ritual language, personal feeling, or information and general knowledge. Matters of administration, laws, bureaucracy, and directions are classified as *procedure*. Communicating a topic of instruction, whether language, other academic subjects, or skills is classified as *study*. The following bar chart shows the percentages of the occurrence of content of teacher verbal feedback in each TTSD. Content is listed as Life (L), Procedure (P), and Study (S).

Chart 4: Percentages of Content of Teacher Verbal Feedback



The bar chart shows the percentage of content of teacher verbal feedback in eight TTSD. The vertical axis shows the percentage of each content provided and the horizontal axis compares the eight TTSD listed e.g., 1 = TTSD 1. As Chart 4 shows, the content of teacher verbal feedback provided in TTSD 1 fall into two categories which are life-content (93.1%) and study-content (6.9%). In TTSD 2, Ajarn provided teacher verbal feedback which contained procedure-content (45.5%) and study-content (54.5%). Moreover, the data showed that Ajarn provided only teacher verbal feedback, corresponding to 100%, which contained study-content in TTSD 3, TTSD 4, TTSD 5, TTSD 6, TTSD 7, and TTSD 8.

If the findings in Chart 4 are compared with the results in Chart 1 (see Section 5.2.1, p. 134), it can be seen that the occurrence of evaluative feedback and study-content was similar. The interpretation for this similar occurrence might be that normally the teacher used evaluative feedback for correcting the students' incorrect contributions which were about information that the teacher already knew. Therefore, besides correcting those contributions, he provided study-content.

In Example 19, after the teacher tells that he celebrated his New Year with his family members in line 46, S3 asks him, “Sorry, do you have family?” (line 47). This contribution implies that S3 wants to know whether the teacher is married or not. Then the teacher immediately answers that they are his parents and says that S3 should not ask this question to him in line 48. Although, for the teacher, this question is personal and is not appropriate to be asked which can be seen when he says, “You shouldn’t ask me about this” (line 48), he does not blame S3 seriously. He tells S3, “That’s ok. We have known for a few months already. That’s fine. That’s fine” (line 50). It can be concluded that the content of teacher verbal feedback moves in lines 48 and 50 contained life-content which concerned his feeling and opinions about asking personal life. Moreover, in this example it was observed that the student engaged herself in the discussion by questioning the teacher about his marital status. Normally, the interaction between the teacher and the students seemed to be a one-sided dialogue since it was only the teacher who introduced the topic and asked questions.

Aside from teacher verbal feedback about the teacher’s personal feeling and opinions about the students’ contributions, the data revealed some teacher verbal feedback which requested the students to provide their personal acts in relation to something. Examples of this teacher verbal feedback are shown in the following.

(20)

- 113 Aj: What is your New Year resolution? <nominating S1>
 114 S1: I’m going to practice my English and I’m going to manage
 about my time. And I’m going to spend more time with my
 mother.
 115 Aj: *How can you do that? So you have three New Year
 resolutions.*
 116 S1: Visit her more, take care of my mother.
 117 Aj: *Where’s your mom?*
 118 S1: Sukhothai.
 119 Aj: *Ok. So how often do you think you can visit her? Twice a
 year?*

- 120 S1: <laughing> One year. One time.
121 Aj: **Once a year. That's not very often. <laughing>**

(Excerpt from TTSD 1)

In Example 20, the teacher asks S1 about her New Year resolution in line 113. In line 114, S1 answers that she intends to improve her English skills and manage her time more effectively. She also wants to spend more time with her mother. Then in his verbal feedback move (line 115) the teacher requests S3 to explain how she can do those three resolutions. S3 explains about her third resolution which is to spend more time with her mother. She says that she intends to take care of and visit her mother more often in line 116. In line 117, the teacher asks S3 where her mother lives. After the student answered his question in line 118, he asks her further, “Ok. So how often do you think you can visit her? Twice a year?” (line 119). This verbal feedback requested the student’s act regarding how often she can visit her mother. In line 120, S3 answers that she intends to visit her mother once a year. Then the teacher comments on her answer that “Once a year. That’s not very often” (line 121). This verbal feedback shows the teacher’s personal opinions in relation to the student’s intention.

Procedure-Content

Normally, in this classroom Ajarn hardly ever provided verbal feedback containing procedure-content which was used for managing the organisation of the students and materials, the establishment of classroom procedures to facilitate the work of the class and deal with disruptions and threats to classroom order. Since this is a postgraduate classroom he tried to make the students feel free to express their opinions. He respected what they expressed and did as he explained in the interview (see Excerpt 7 in Section 4.3, Chapter 4). However, there was one situation which Ajarn provided verbal feedback containing procedure-content. This situation was found at the beginning of TTSD 2. In the situation, S2 wanted to give a presentation in Thai instead of English, but Ajarn rejected her request. Here, this situation

seemed like an argument between Ajarn and S2. In fact, if S2 accepted to give a presentation in English, there was no further argument. The following excerpt displays how Ajarn managed the classroom and maintain his authority in class through his verbal feedback containing procedure-content.

(21)

- 1 S2: Ok. Hello everybody. And Hello everyone. (Speaks Thai - I would like to introduce myself first. My name is <her full name> I am the student of International Communication. First I would like to tell you that. This subject is communication so for this presentation I would like to speak in Thai because we can understand in Thai the most. Ok, let's begin.
- 2 **Aj: *Wait! I don't allow you to speak in Thai.***
- 3 S2: (Speaks Thai - Really? Ok. There isn't anything too difficult to do.) I can do.
- 4 **Aj: *Of course, you can do but why you want to have Thai presentation? <wondering and looking upset>***
- 5 S2: Because I am Thai <pointing to herself> This is a Thai. <straightening her arm to S1> This is a Thai. <straightening her arm to S3> And this is a Thai. <straightening her arm to the teacher with downing her knees, smiling face and laughing>
- 6 **Aj: *This is an international programme so otherwise you have to quit this programme. <looking displeased and acting like saying 'go away' when he says 'quit this programme'>***
- 7 S2: Ok, but I think if some the passages or some the words we should to communication with Thai language but for the understanding more than (Speaks Thai - Can you allow me to speak in Thai for some parts?)
- 8 **Aj: *You can make a translation because it's very difficult to understand so that is your good point because you can make anyone understand what you are going to say even this a***

technical words this' s what we call 'communicative competence' we call 'strategic competence'

9 S2: Ok. (Speaks Thai - It's not a problem.)

(Excerpt from TTSD 2)

In Example 21, the teacher's verbal feedback in line 2 shows that he entirely rejects S2's request for giving a presentation in Thai in line 1. In fact, in her response in line 3, S2 already accepts to give a presentation in English "(Speaks Thai – Really? Ok. There isn't anything too difficult to do.) I can do." Since the teacher asks her further why she wants to give a presentation in Thai if she can do it in English in line 4. Therefore, in line 5 S2 gives a reason, "Because I am Thai. This is a Thai. This is a Thai. And this is a Thai." Her reason makes the teacher unsatisfied. This becomes visible in his verbal feedback move in line 6, "This is an international programme so otherwise you have to quit this programme." Although this verbal feedback shows that the teacher is unsatisfied with her previous contributions (line 5), S2 still resists in line 7, "Ok, but I think if some the passages or some the words we should to communication with Thai language but for the understanding more than (Speaks Thai – Can you allow me to speak in Thai for some parts?)" The teacher's next verbal feedback move in line 8, "You can make a translation because it's very difficult to understand so that is your good point because you can make anyone understand what you are going to say even this a technical words, this what we call 'communicative competence' we call 'strategic competence'" displays that the teacher insists on his decision that S2 cannot give a presentation in Thai.

The interpretation for this situation might be that since the teacher tried to maintain order in the classroom, he had to say something to let the student know that what she was saying or doing was not appropriate. Teacher verbal feedback in lines 2, 4, 6, and 8 not only clarifies what the teacher wanted the student to do, but also puts an end to what she has repeatedly tried to do or to avoid giving a presentation in English. That is to say, I also find in these verbal feedback moves that the teacher asserted his exclusive right to control the rules in his classroom as he deals with the unexpected and repeated avoidance of giving a presentation in English of S2.

Study-Content

As Chart 4 shows, teacher verbal feedback containing study-content was provided in every TTSD. In this classroom, this teacher verbal feedback concerned the course content and some academic suggestions such as improving language proficiency and giving a presentation effectively.

Since the students' proficiency in English skills is not good sometimes it was difficult for the teacher to lecture on the course content to the students in English. Ajarn said in his interview that the students could not understand all that he explained in English so he could not teach what he intended to (see Excerpt 1, lines 11-12, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4). Accordingly, he tried to find ways to teach or inform the students about the course content or some academic suggestions such as improving their language proficiency and giving a presentation effectively. Consequently, as Ajarn claimed in the interview (see Excerpt 4, lines 9-11, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4), when he provided verbal feedback for the students' contributions, he tried to relate the course content or academic suggestions to what the students said.

The following example illustrates the teacher verbal feedback that Ajarn provided about learning language.

(22)

- 22 Aj: It's very surprising for some American volunteers; they stay here for a few months, of course before coming to Thailand, they have to study sometimes but then they set up here for a few months, but they can speak Thai fluently.
- 23 S2: (Speaks Thai - It is like learning Korean or Chinese which we can understand and speak within a few months. But I do not understand why I cannot speak English which I have learned for a long time.)
- 24 Aj: **That's why?**
- 25 S2: (Speaks Thai - I do not know either.)

26 Aj: *Of course to learn any languages you must get any opportunities to practice that language, if you want to be good at speaking, you must speak most of the time. Also when you speak, you have to think that language, no more time translating. If you are bilingual, maybe you can have code switching from one language to the other. Can you do it? Yes, of course. You must be positive or you must be self-esteem. How long does it take? How long will you have to spend time for learning? Ok. It depends on your motivation, Raeng Joong Jai <translation of 'motivation' in Thai>, aptitude, Kwaam Ta-nat <translation of 'aptitude' in Thai>, time, Way-laa <translation of 'time' in Thai>. How close the new language? It means that how close the new language with our language. Of course Thai and English are quite close in some grammatical aspects. The basic concept is Thai and English subject, verb, object like Chinese. But sometimes if you depends too much on translation (Speaks Thai - I angry you." in Thai) 'Angry' in Thai is verb, but in English 'angry' is adjective. Someone understands that 'angry' means Groht <translation of 'angry' in Thai> So they say "I angry you." Can foreigners understand that?*

(Excerpt from TTSD 4)

In Example 22, the conversation begins when the teacher talks about American volunteers who can speak Thai fluently although they stay in Thailand for a few months or they have learned to speak Thai before coming to Thailand in line 22. Then S2 agrees with the teacher's contributions by adding more examples of learning foreign languages like Korean and Chinese which can be learned within a few months in line 23. Instead of answering to S2's doubt immediately the teacher asks her back that "That's why?" (line 24). However, S2 insists that she does not know the answer in line 25. Consequently, the teacher takes this opportunity to instruct S2

and the other students indirectly how to learn to speak English in line 26. There are two aims conveying in this teacher verbal feedback move (line 26). The first aim is to answer to S2's doubt while the second one is to instruct the students how to learn English effectively.

In another example, teacher verbal feedback containing study-content which was concerned how to make a presentation attractive as follows.

(23)

- 1 Aj: Actually, you know? If you want to attract the audiences,
 what are you going to do with your presentation? <looking at
 S1 and walking back and forward to her>
- 2 S1: <smiling>
- 3 Aj: *So this is quite a common, normal presentation. Maybe we
 have. This is the academic presentation so I should not
 attract the audiences by doing something special or not
 strange but I think it's more interesting. So what are you
 going to do?*
- 4 S1: Ask them...
- 5 Aj: **Ask them about what?**
- 6 S1: Any questions? <laughing>
- 7 Aj: **Ok. After your presentation, that's good. But you don't ask
 any questions to the audiences. Do you have any questions
 to us?**
- 8 S1: I can tell them...
- 9 Aj: **About what?**
- 10 S1: Please give your quiet. Not ask me. <laughing and smiling>
- 11 Aj: **Why? Why? So as a presenter you are well-informed. You
 have lot of information than the audiences so feel free to ask.
 To make sure you are self-confident. You're well-prepared.
 You're well-informed so "Any questions?" If you don't
 know, you can just, Ok, next time I will come back and I will
 give you an answer. Of course anyone can't know all. And**

how can you make your presentation more interesting at the beginning?

12 S1: <smiling and being silent>

13 Aj: **How?**

14 S1: I don't know.

15 Aj: **Ok. Supposing that the audiences don't know what your presentation is about. Try to think when you want to make your presentation interesting. Your topic itself is interesting because there are many topics you can talk about Japan. Especially, when you mention about the bowing which there are three levels, aren't they? You may persuade audiences to bow like Japanese because we have not met Japanese often or when you meet Japanese you just shake hand with them. So how do you feel if you see Farang performs a wai to Thai counterpart or to Thai friends? We will impress with their performing, a wai, right? The same. So that's when you have the demonstration like in Japanese bow fifteen degrees or more than that or deeper. But I have a big belly so I can't do. I can't respect to elderly or Japanese elderly. <laughing> And for the women, they have to do like this. And also the Ofuro, it's very interesting because it's contrasting to the Thai bathing style. Onsen or the food. Or you have something like more, you know, for the audiences to taste, to hear or anything that can make your presentation interesting. For example, you can introduce Japanese songs. Do you know any Japanese songs?**

16 S1: <laughing>

17 Aj: **No?**

18 S1: I don't know any Japanese songs.

19 Aj: **Subaru, Jojosan, Kendo whatever or TV cartoons. And one thing you do not mention. This is the part we call a high culture. I'm sorry. The popular culture, cartoons, Japanese cartoons. Cartoons may not be related to adult but they attract Japanese teenagers. The Japanese cartoons attract**

all teenagers of the world. Even right now the French teenagers are interested to Japanese cartoons. Foreigners begin to be interested in it.

(Excerpt from TTSD 3)

In Example 23, after S1 finished her presentation, the teacher asks her how to make her presentation more attractive in line 1. Instead of answering the question, the student keeps silent in line 2. This may convey the message that she does not know an answer or she does not understand the teacher's question. Then the teacher reformulates his question in line 3. Although this receives an answer from S1, it seems incomplete. Since the student only said, "Ask them" (line 4) and stopped talking, the teacher asks her further in line 5. In line 6, S1 answers that, "Any questions?". Although the teacher acknowledges her answer, this answer makes the teacher ask S1 back that, "But you don't ask any questions to the audiences. Do you have any questions to us?" (line 7). Then S1 answers, "I can tell them" (line 8). In line 9, the teacher asks her what she intends to ask the audiences. Her answer, "Please give your quiet. Not ask me.", (line 10) makes the teacher surprised. This becomes visible when the teacher says, "Why? Why?" (line 11). Moreover, in line 11 the teacher takes this opportunity to instruct S1 and the other students about giving a presentation. This teacher verbal feedback containing study-content leads to a series of teacher verbal feedback fitting in this category in lines 15 and 19. In both line 15 and 19, the teacher explains S1 how to make her presentation more attractive.

In another example, when the teacher provided verbal feedback for the students' contributions, he tried to instruct how to do business in foreign countries to the students. This topic is regarding the course content.

(24)

28 Aj: If you are asked to be or to work in any business field, what field do you want to work? As you said like in China there are so many female in cooperation. If you want to introduce some

cosmetic products and you said the buying power of women in China is very low compared to men so is that investment on cosmetics work?

29 S2: cosmetics work <being confused>

30 **Aj:** *Is it good to have cosmetic investment in China?*

31 Ss: <being silent>

32 **Aj:** *You said that Chinese women's buying power is low, isn't it? So is it ok to open cosmetic market in China?*

33 S2: (Speaks Thai – Can I explain it in Thai? In my opinion, it should try to do because based on considering GDP or other factors in China. In China, cosmetics are only invested in an upper marketing which is small. There is no cosmetic market opened in a lower marketing because it is seen that it has a little buying power. However, we should not consider about buying power too much. There may have more opportunity in lower marketing than in an upper marketing.)

34 **Aj:** *Ok. And many investors or business persons are very interested to invest in China because if you can get a market there a very huge market.*

35 S2: Like India. Idea is about the religion. (Speaks Thai – Women have to make up by using herbal cosmetics only.)

36 **Aj:** *Ok. So you mean in China?*

37 S2: Yeah.

38 **Aj:** *So they put herbal cosmetic on?*

39 S2: (Speaks Thai - It is difficult to...)

40 **Aj:** *change their attitude. Ok. So you see to do business is not easy so you have to do more research not only about the consumers but also the attitude and the culture.*

(Excerpt from TTSD 6)

In Example 24, the teacher begins a discussion by asking the students “If you are asked to be or to work in any business field, what field do you want to work?” (line 28). Since he is afraid that the students will not understand his question, in line 28 he also gives an example about investing on cosmetics in China. This example is from the student’s presentation. He asks the students, “As you said like in China there are so many female in cooperation. If you want to introduce some cosmetic products and you said the buying power of women in China is very low compares to men so is that investment on cosmetics work?” (line 28). In line 29, it can be seen that S2 does not understand the question when she says, “cosmetics work”. Therefore, the teacher reformulates his question in line 30. However, S2 including the other students still do not understand the question which becomes visible in line 31. Instead of telling the students an answer, the teacher tries to reformulate his question again by saying, “You said that Chinese women’s buying power is low, isn’t it? So is it ok to open cosmetic market in China?” (line 32). Finally, S2 understands the question, but she asks the teacher a permission to explain her answers in Thai (line 33). The teacher allows her to do by nodding. The interpretation for this situation might be that since sometimes the teacher wants the students to feel free to express their opinions without language difficulty, he lets them to use Thai for explaining their answers. Although the students do not practice speaking English, at least they can express their thought freely. This encourages the students to participate more in classroom discussions.

As can be seen in line 34, although S2 expresses her opinions in Thai (line 33), the teacher does not comment on her opinions in Thai. This shows that the teacher tries to tell the students indirectly that he still wants them to speak in English. His intention gets success. In line 35, S2 elaborates the teacher’s previous contributions in English that India is a very huge market like China. Moreover, she raises a new topic when she says that women have to make up by using herbal cosmetics only. S2’s contributions make the teacher confused a bit because he is not sure what nationality of the women she is talking about so he asks, “So you mean in China?” (line 36). After the student says, “Yeah” (line 37), he also asks her again about her previous contributions in line 38. In line 39, besides answering the teacher’s question, S2 expresses her opinion that it is difficult to change Chinese women’s attitude about using herbal cosmetics in line 39. This student’s contributions provide

an opportunity for the teacher to teach the students about doing business which is one of the course content. Therefore, in his verbal feedback in line 40, he says, “So you see to do business is not easy so you have to do more research not only about the consumers but also the attitude and the culture.” This verbal feedback contains study-content which aims to instruct the students that it is necessary to understand consumers’ attitude and culture before doing business with them.

5.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the findings based on classroom observation data on three aspects of the teacher’s verbal feedback. The first aspect—functions of teacher verbal feedback—included: (1) evaluative feedback, and (2) interactional feedback. In this study, the teacher used interactional feedback more than evaluative feedback.

For the second aspect, strategies of teacher verbal feedback, which were divided into two groups, included strategies of evaluative feedback and strategies of interactional feedback. Evaluative feedback strategies included: (1) explicit correction, (2) elicitation, (3) metalinguistic feedback, (4) giving clues, and (5) criticising. Among these strategies, although the teacher used explicit correction more than the others, he did not use it for correcting the students’ contributions. He used it for correcting the students’ misunderstanding. For elicitation and metalinguistic feedback, they were found to occur in second and third place respectively. For giving clues and criticising, they were equally used. Interactional feedback strategies included: (1) questioning, (2) comment, (3) elaboration, (4) repetition, and (5) reformulation. Among these strategies questioning was used by the teacher most often. The interpretation for the high occurrence of questioning might be because it was an easy way to encourage the students to speak a bit more. Comment was the second strategy which was used most often by the teacher while elaboration, repetition and reformulation were found to occur in second, third and fourth place respectively.

Finally, for the third aspect – content of teacher verbal feedback – included three categories, namely Life, Procedure, and Study, study-content which was about the course content and some academic suggestions such as improving language

proficiency and giving a presentation effectively was provided by the teacher most often. For life-content and procedure-content, they were only found once.

More detailed discussions of three aspects of teacher verbal feedback can be seen in Chapter 7. The next chapter presents the findings on reaching the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals.

CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS ON REACHING THE COURSE OBJECTIVES AND THE TEACHER'S PERSONAL TEACHING GOALS

6.1 Introduction

As mentioned previously in the introduction of Chapter 4 and Chapter 5, the descriptions of the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals, and three aspects of teacher verbal feedback: functions, strategies, and content are the stages for discussing the findings in this chapter. Therefore, the finding discussion of this chapter is based on the information from quantitative data, interview data, observation notes, and transcripts. In this chapter, I present two findings. Firstly, it examines how the teacher's verbal feedback could provide opportunities or serve as a barrier for his students to reach the course objectives. Secondly, it considers how the teacher's verbal feedback could provide opportunities or serve as a barrier for the students to accomplish his personal teaching goals.

6.2 Reaching the Course Objectives

In this section, I discuss how the teacher's verbal feedback could provide opportunities or serve as a barrier for his students to reach the course objectives. The discussion of this section also provides evidence for answering the following research question.

6. Does the teacher's verbal feedback give opportunities for the students to attain the course objectives?

8. If yes, how are opportunities to reach these course objectives and these personal teaching goals provided through the teacher's verbal feedback?

9. If not, how are opportunities to attain these course objectives and these personal teaching goals blocked through the teacher's verbal feedback?

As presented earlier, the course that Ajarn taught was Intercultural Business Communication. The objectives of this course are as follows.

1. The students will be able to define major concepts in cross-cultural communication and intercultural business communication.
2. The students will be able to apply different approaches to deal business with people from different countries around the world.
3. The students will be able to appreciate the cultural diversity of people in business communication.

As claimed by Ajarn in the interview (see Excerpt 1, lines 10-16, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4), after a few sessions, he thought that the students could not understand all of what he said so he could not teach what he intended to. Therefore, he had to lower his teaching standard, and adapt his teaching techniques in order to be appropriate for the students. In describing his teaching practices to help the students reach the course objectives, he asked them to give a presentation about doing business with the country in which they were interested. As Ajarn said in the interview (see Excerpt 5, lines 3-14, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4), he thought that giving a presentation could force the students to prepare themselves for the presentation. They had to find information about the country that they intended to present themselves. Therefore, from reading this information, it might help them learn about that country's culture, tradition or how to deal with people in that country, in particular, when they wanted to do a business with them. This might help them to understand some concepts about intercultural business communication that he taught them before. Or it might help them to understand more easily what he would teach them in the next sessions.

Another teaching technique which Ajarn used to help the students reach the course objectives was the use of his verbal feedback. By doing this, he attempted to provide information about the course content through his verbal feedback. As for the content of teacher verbal feedback, the data from Chart 4 (in Section 5.2.3, Chapter 5, p. 157) clearly showed that Ajarn put an emphasis on study-content. Teacher verbal

for (xxx) and non verbal behaviours of course it's a part of communication. It's also important.

(Excerpt from TTSD 7)

In Example 1, after S2 mentioned the acronym, LESCANT in her presentation, the teacher asks her to explain a bit more about it in line 1. In line 2, since S2 only describes what each letter is, the teacher has to ask for its elaboration from her again in line 3. Since S2's answers which she tries to provide in lines 8 and 10 are still unsatisfactory, in line 11, the teacher takes this opportunity to explain the importance of knowing about language, environment and technological considerations, social organisation, context and face-saving, authority conception, nonverbal communication behaviour, and time conception before doing a business with foreign countries. Considering the teacher's verbal feedback, in particular in line 11, it clearly showed that the teacher tried to teach the students about intercultural business communication.

Furthermore, as Ajarn explained in the interview (see Excerpt 4, lines 1-11, in Section 4.3, in Chapter 4), since the students had hardly participated in classroom discussions, in particular, relating to the course content, he had to encourage them to do so. For example, he tried to raise discussion topics which were close to the students' interests such as their personal information or personal and general knowledge. Then he asked them about their opinions, explanation or conjectures about these topics. After the students said something, he tried to relate the course content to their contributions through his verbal feedback. Furthermore, as Ajarn claimed in the interview (see Excerpt 4, lines 11-15, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4), he encouraged the students to think about their personal knowledge, experiences and opinions, as well as general knowledge relating to the course content. Since he wanted them to have a chance to connect the area of study being learned to their previous knowledge or life experiences. An analysis of the transcripts showed that through using interactional feedback strategies such as comment or elaboration, the teacher could add and extend the students' original contributions by providing

information about the course content. The following excerpt illustrates how Ajarn's attempt was made.

(2)

- 1 Aj: ...Do you think you are lucky to be a Japanese woman? And why?
- 2 S2: (Speaks Thai – I think that the present day is not as same as the previous period when O-chin was alive because everything is changed) Have you ever seen O-Chin? <turning to other students> O-Chin is a woman of a Japan. She is suffer because she takes care everything with her husband, her family, her son, and mother-in law.
- 3 Aj: **Anything else?**
- 4 S2: The value of Japan I think now is changed.
- 5 Aj: **If you have a chance to watch NSK TV programme on...**
- 6 S2: (Speaks Thai – What does it mean?)
- 7 Aj: **NSK? The national Japanese television broadcasting, you will see that they, from time to time they present something cultures about Japan and it's so very profile, very terrific, very deep. I like that very much. It talks about Japan in detail. It is amazing. They present about the Japanese cultures in whatever aspects food, clothing, how to make Sake there are more than 200 kinds of Sake, or even the Japanese noodle or mention about the Bonsai, the dwarf shoot, Bonsai, Ton Mai Krae <translation of 'the dwarf shoot'> or Ikabana, the art of flower invention.**
- 8 S2: (Speaks Thai – I see. Sakura. <Japanese flowering cherry>)
- 9 Aj: **Japanese's flower invention.**
- 10 S2: <turning to other students and laughing at herself because she misunderstands about Ikabana>
- 11 Aj: **What does it mean when the Japanese people bow? Does it show you something?**
- 12 S2: Respect.

- 13 **Aj:** **What's respect? Respect. What is the difference?**
<performing different bowing of Japanese>
- 14 S2: (Speaks Thai – It shows respect.)
- 15 **Aj:** **The more they respect, the more they bow politely. Did you watch TV lately about the Prince of Bhutan, who had been in Thailand? How do you feel when people perform a 'wai' <Thai greeting> to a public? Should someone tell you that if you are a prince, you should not return any 'wai' or performs any 'wai' to anyone. Should you? <laughing> What's his name?**
- 16 S2: Jigme
- 17 **Aj:** **Jigme. The whole name?**
- 18 S2: Jigme Khesar Namgyel.
- 19 **Aj:** **No, Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck.**
- 20 S2: Wow.
- 21 **Aj:** **No, no. This is we have to recognise. He is His Royal Highness the Crown Prince of...?**
- 22 S2: Tibet.
- 23 **Aj:** **No, Bhutan. *So when you have to deal something officially, you have to know the proper and correct name, otherwise it will become like you don't respect that person.***

(Excerpt from TTSD 6)

In Example 2, after S2 finished her presentation about doing business with Japan, the teacher begins a discussion by asking her, “Do you think you are lucky to be a Japanese woman? And why?” (line 1). The teacher’s questions requests the student to express her opinions. After S2 provides an answer in line 2, the teacher still encourages her to say more in line 3. When she expresses her opinion about Japan further in line 4, he recommends her to watch NSK which is the national Japanese television programme if she has a chance in line 5. However, S2 does not know what NSK is so she asks the teacher for its meaning in line 6. In line 7, the teacher

explains that NSK presents various Japanese cultures. After he mentions the word, Ikabana which is the art of flower invention, instead of saying the word, Ikabana, in line 8 S2 says the word, Sakura which is Japanese flowering cherry because she misunderstands. Therefore, the teacher has to correct her contribution in line 9. Then instead of criticising S2's misunderstanding, he goes on with the discussion by posing two questions about the Japanese bow, "What does it mean when the Japanese people bow? Does it show you something?" (line 11). These questions show that the teacher tried to keep the discussion going and encourage the student to speak. Since in line 7 he described the national Japanese television programme, in line 11 he raised the discussion topic about one of Japanese traditions which was the Japanese bow. After S2 provides an answer in line 12, the teacher asks her for more explanations in line 13. However, S2 cannot explain further. She only says the same answer in Thai in line 14. Therefore, in line 15, the teacher explains the correct answer. He also gives an example of the Prince of Bhutan who performed a 'wai' to a public during visiting Thailand. He describes that in fact it is not necessary for the prince to return any 'wai' or perform any 'wai' to anyone. Then he asks the students for the prince's name in line 15. S2 gives the answer in line 16, but the teacher is not satisfied with her answer because he wants the prince's full name. However, the new answer which S2 gives in line 18 is not satisfactory because it is not completed. Finally, the teacher has to provide her the correct answer in line 19. His answer makes S2 surprised as can be seen when she says "Wow" (line 20) because the teacher can remember the prince's full name which is quite long. On the other hand, for the teacher's opinions, he describes, "So when you have to deal something officially, you have to know the proper and correct name, otherwise it will become like you don't respect that person" (line 23). This verbal feedback shows that the teacher taught S2 including the other students about a proper manner which they should use when they deal with other people officially. This also displays the teacher's intention to add information about the course content, intercultural business communication through his verbal feedback.

In brief, in this excerpt, it shows that the teacher attempted to make the lesson more meaningful and interesting to the students by relating the discussion topic, Japanese bow, to the manner of the Prince of Bhutan who was popular for Thai people. Although the discussion topic that the teacher raised was not related to the course

content, the teacher tried to link the course content to the student's contributions through his verbal feedback. He also attempted to stimulate the student's thoughts by providing verbal feedback containing life-content (general knowledge) (see lines 5, 7, and 15), and study-content (the course content) (see line 23). As Ajarn explained in the interview (see Excerpt 4, lines 15-17, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4), to connect the area of study being learned to the students' previous knowledge or life experiences gave them a better idea of the course content, and helped them increase their interests and motivation toward learning. In response to the teacher's verbal feedback, S2 had to use her common background knowledge about the discussion topics. During this time, the teacher received continuous responses from her. S2's responses ranged from single words to clauses. A situation like this, however, was not found very often in this class, where the students were seemingly shy and reserved. Therefore, it may be said that through his verbal feedback the teacher could encourage the student to speak more.

Moreover, as discussed previously in Section 5.2.1, Chapter 5, through analysing the transcripts, I found that when Ajarn asked his students for assumed known information which he had already known an answer, he always provided evaluative feedback for the students' contributions. Normally, assumed known information which Ajarn asked for from the students was related to the course content. When the students said something about the course content which was wrong, Ajarn always provided evaluative feedback for their contributions. He often used the strategies that prompted the students to self-repair such as elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and giving clues. Through these strategies, he elicited the correct form or content from the students, provided comments, information related to the correctness of the form or content of their contributions, or gave them clues for the right answers. It may be said that Ajarn helped the students try to find the correct information about the course content themselves. This might promote the students' thinking skills and communicative abilities, and get them more involved in the classroom discussions. As Ajarn explained in the interview (see Excerpt 8, lines 9-12, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4), prompting the students to self-repair led to better learning because in order to find the correct answer the students had to research ideas, expand thinking from what he taught, and negotiate the correct form or content.

In particular, in higher education it is necessary to provide opportunities for the students to think and express their ideas. They had to learn to think themselves because the teacher could not teach them to think, but he could give a chance to the students for thinking through his verbal feedback. For example, instead of telling the whole information about the course content immediately, Ajarn gave some ideas or clues about that information first. This allowed the students to explore, hypothesise and speculate about the information he gave. In short, it enhanced opportunities for the students' better learning and thinking about the course content. The following TTSD illustrates how Ajarn's attempt was made.

(3)

- 1 Aj: Word explaining intercultural transformation 'culture shock',
shock to self-reflection, (xxx) from the individual to society.
- 2 S2: (Speaks Thai – Teacher) 'culture shock' <wondering culture
shock's meaning>
- 3 **Aj: *What is 'culture shock'?***
- 4 S2: (Speaks Thai – Can you explain me what culture shock is?)
- 5 **Aj: *What is 'culture shock' to your understanding?***
- 6 S2: (Speaks Thai – The cultures which shock people?)
- 7 **Aj: *Uh Huh. Ok. Can you elaborate more?***
- 8 S2: <being silent>
- 9 **Aj: *How's about the others' opinions based on your
understanding?***
- 10 S2: (Speaks Thai – I don't understand indeed so I ask you.)
- 11 S3: My opinion is, 'culture shock' is it changes or adaptation or
progress.
- 12 **Aj: *Er. Of what?***
- 13 S3: Of culture, when it changes, it can make social better.
- 14 **Aj: *Who will be affected?***
- 15 S3: People in social.
- 16 **Aj: *Er you mean people in that society or the new comer from
outside?***
- 17 S3: Er I think the new comer.

18 **Aj:** **Ok. It can be concluded that culture shock is the strange feelings that the new comer has when he or she visits a foreign country or a new place for the first time.**

(TTSD 5)

In TTSD 5, the focus of the lesson at that moment was to explain the meaning of ‘culture shock.’ The teacher’s first contributions are to describe this word to the students in line 1. However, S2 interrupts the teacher’s description by saying the word ‘culture shock’ in line 2. This signals that she does not understand its meaning. Instead of telling S2 the meaning immediately, he tries to make the student find what ‘culture shock’ means herself by asking her back, “What is ‘culture shock?’” (line 3). After S2 provides the answer in line 6, which is still not satisfactory, the teacher asks her to elaborate her answer in line 7, and also encourages the other students to provide the explanation of ‘culture shock’ in line 9. In lines 11, 13, 15, and 17, S3 tries to provide the answer meeting the teacher’s expectation. However, the teacher has to help her to come up with the correct and expected answer by asking for elaboration in line 12 and giving clues in lines 14 and 16. Finally, after encouraging the students to find the meaning of ‘culture shock’ themselves, he makes a conclusion about the information the students had given previously and adds more explanations about culture shock in line 18. On the whole, it may be said that the teacher gave the students opportunities to increase their knowledge about intercultural business communication. This was done through the use of teacher verbal feedback in an attempt to stimulate the students to find the correct information about the course content themselves. It was unusual to see the teacher give up easily by providing the answers to his own questions. Instead, he would keep on providing verbal feedback which prompted the students to arrive at the expected responses. This may lead to better learning because the students were able to research ideas and expand thinking from what the teacher taught.

In summary, it may be said that Ajarn gave the students opportunities to broaden their intercultural business communication knowledge which was the course objectives. This was done through asking the students to give a presentation about

doing business with the country in which they were interested, coupled with the use of verbal feedback in an attempt to stimulate the students' thinking about the course content. The above three examples clearly showed that at times, Ajarn provided evaluative feedback with study-content and interactional feedback with life-content; this verbal feedback explained information relating to intercultural business communication. As can be seen in Example 3 above, through his evaluative feedback strategies such as elicitation and giving clues, Ajarn encouraged the students to find the meaning of culture shock by themselves. As Ajarn claimed in the interview (see Excerpt 8, lines 9-12, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4), prompting the students to self-repair led to better learning because in order to find the correct answer the students had to research ideas, expand thinking from what he taught, and negotiate the correct form or content. Moreover, through his interactional feedback strategies such as questioning, Ajarn also encouraged the students to think about their personal knowledge and experiences and opinions, as well as general knowledge relating to the information about the Japanese bow (see Example 2 above). As Ajarn said in the interview (see Excerpt 4, lines 15-17, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4), connecting the area of study being learned to the students' previous knowledge or life experiences gave them a better idea of the course content, and helped them increase their interests and motivation toward learning. At this point, although it was difficult to pinpoint whether the students' comprehension of intercultural business communication was developed, the teacher's efforts could have had a positive influence on the students to some degree; that is, they were automatically kept alert and motivated towards their learning. This can be seen through the students' attempts to give answers when the teacher encouraged them to do so through his verbal feedback.

6.3 Reaching the Teacher's Personal Teaching Goals

In this section, I discuss how the teacher's verbal feedback could provide opportunities or serve as a barrier for his students to reach his personal teaching goals. The discussion of this section provides the evidence for answering the following research questions.

7. Does the teacher's verbal feedback give opportunities for the students to accomplish the personal teaching goals the teacher has for them?

8. If yes, how are opportunities to reach these course objectives and these personal teaching goals provided through the teacher's verbal feedback?

9. If not, how are opportunities to attain these course objectives and these personal teaching goals blocked through the teacher's verbal feedback?

As Ajarn pointed out, there were four personal teaching goals he had for his students. They included:

1. To provide knowledge about intercultural business communication for the students
2. To help the students become independent learners
3. To encourage the students to participate in the classroom discussion more
4. To improve the students' English speaking skill

First of all, I want to explain that since the second and fourth goals seemed to be long-term ones and concerned the students' private moments; it was hardly possible to tell exactly whether or not Ajarn could help the students to reach these goals. However, I will attempt to use the existing data in examining how much opportunity Ajarn gave the students to achieve these goals.

6.3.1 The Teacher's First Personal Teaching Goal

As Ajarn pointed out in the interview, his first personal teaching goal was set based on the course objectives (see Excerpt 3, lines 6-7, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4). It is noteworthy that this goal was similar to the course objectives in that they both aimed at expanding the students' intercultural business communication knowledge. Therefore, the discussion of this personal teaching goal will bear a resemblance to those presented earlier. That is, the data of this study revealed that by having the

students give a presentation; Ajarn gave the students opportunities to improve their intercultural business communication knowledge. As Ajarn explained in the interview (see Excerpt 5, lines 6-14, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4), since the students had to give a presentation, they had to prepare themselves. They had to find information about the country that they intended to present themselves. Therefore, from reading this information, it might help them learn about that country's culture, tradition or how to deal with people in that country, in particular, when they want to do a business with them. This might help them to understand some concepts about intercultural business communication that he taught them before or it might help them to understand what he would teach them in the next sessions easier. With regard to Ajarn's verbal feedback, the data suggested that Ajarn attempted to provide the information about course content through verbal feedback which linked to the students' previous contributions, and stimulated the students' thinking about the content of the course.

6.3.2 The Teacher's Second Personal Teaching Goal

The second personal teaching goal Ajarn had for the students was to help the students become independent learners who are actively involved in their own learning so that they can make decisions and take actions dealing with their own learning. This goal, as this teacher believed, could be achieved through making the students feel confident about what they did or what they would do by giving them support (see Excerpt 7, lines 1-4, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4). An analysis of transcripts showed that Ajarn always gave support to the students' efforts when the students tried to participate in classroom discussions through his verbal feedback. The data from Chart 1, in Section 5.2.1, Chapter 5, p. 134 showed that more than half of 117 teacher verbal feedback moves in eight TTSD analysed was interactional feedback (90 or 76.9%) compared to evaluative feedback (27 or 23.1%). This means that Ajarn tried to use verbal feedback functions which urged and supported the students to participate in classroom discussions. Since interactional feedback focused on the content of the students' contributions more than their accuracy or correctness of information supplied or of the linguistic form used, he responded affirmatively to the content and then ignored the students' ill-formed contributions

by moving on to topic continuation. This phenomenon can be seen in Example 18, in Section 5.2.2.2, Chapter 5.

Moreover, as Ajarn explained in the interview (see Excerpt 8, lines, 1-12, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4) that if the students' contributions were incorrect, he preferred to use evaluative feedback strategies that prompted the students to self-repair rather than inform the students of their incorrect contributions and then correct their contributions immediately. He also always asked for more explanation or confirmation from them. Ajarn believed that this might make the students be aware about their contributions. Moreover, the students could seek out correct answers without depending upon the teacher. This was one of the qualifications of being independent learners. Through analysing transcripts, I found that Ajarn put an emphasis on using evaluative feedback strategies that prompted the students to self-repair such as elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and giving clues rather than explicit correction and criticising. The data from Chart 2, in Section 5.2.2.1, Chapter 5, p. 138 indicated that the combined total distribution of the second group (elicitation (29.6%), metalinguistic feedback (22.2%), and giving clues (7.4%)) was greater than the combined total distribution of the first group (explicit correction (33.3%) and criticising (7.4%)). The examples of prompting the students to self-repair can be seen in Example 8, Example 9, and Example 10, in Section 5.2.2.1, Chapter 5.

To sum up, it may be said that Ajarn gave opportunities for the students to help them become independent learners by making them feel confident about what they did or what they would do by giving them support. For example, through his verbal feedback, he gave support to their efforts when they tried to participate in classroom discussions.

6.3.3 The Teacher's Third Personal Teaching Goal

The third personal teaching goal, as Ajarn indicated, was to encourage the students to participate in classroom discussions more. As Ajarn claimed in the interview (see Excerpt 2, lines 10-16, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4), the students were passive and very

quiet. They did not say anything when he asked them for their opinions about the topic being discussed. Therefore, he tried to encourage them to speak by using various ways because he believed that learning would be more enjoyable if the students were involved with classroom discussions (see the interview, Excerpt 9, lines 3-4, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4). As I observed the classroom, I found that Ajarn tried to create a safe learning climate where his students could express their opinions. As he said in the interview (see Excerpt 10, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4), he told his students that he did not want perfect speech so he sometimes ignored the students' wrong statements in grammatical structure because he wanted to encourage them to speak out freely without being corrected all the time. Moreover, as Ajarn pointed out in the interview (see Excerpt 7, lines 17-21, Section 4.3, Chapter 4), correcting the students' contributions might break the flow of discussion because most Thai students are afraid of making mistakes. If their contributions are often evaluated or corrected, this can increase the level of anxiety and discourage the students' participation in further discussion.

Therefore, in regard to the teacher's verbal feedback, the quantitative data clearly suggested that Ajarn provided interactional feedback more than evaluative feedback (see Chart 1, in Section 5.2.1, Chapter 5, p. 134). As discussed previously, interactional feedback focused on the content of the students' contributions more than their accuracy or correctness of information supplied or of the linguistic form used. The data also revealed that Ajarn normally provided interactional feedback when he asked the students about a topic not relating to the course content such as the students' personal information, the students were willing to participate in the discussion because they felt free to express their opinions. Consequently, after the students provided contributions, Ajarn tried to keep the discussion going by using interactional feedback strategies which clarified and built on the ideas that the students express in their contributions such as reformulation, elaboration, comment, repetition and questioning. Although the forms of the students' contributions were incorrect, he responded with great enthusiasm to their content. The examples of the situation mentioned can be seen in excerpts in Section 5.2.2.2, Chapter 5.

Sometimes Ajarn provided interactional feedback containing life-content. Two possible advantages could be identified from using this verbal feedback. Firstly, the

verbal feedback stimulated the students' thinking about themselves and their own personal knowledge or experiences in terms of the lessons being studied. As a result, the lesson became more interesting and meaningful to the students. Secondly, since interactional feedback containing life-content engaged the students to share their personal knowledge, thoughts, and experiences, the classroom atmosphere evidently changed to be more relaxing, enjoyable, and exciting. All these effects can be seen as follows.

(4)

- 17 Aj: What is the context of the university where most students are male?
- 18 S2: (Speaks Thai – Since there are many male students, we have to understand their social context.)
- 19 Aj: *Ok. It can be concluded that before you communicate or contact with someone coming from different culture, you have to study their cultural contexts. So you have to act like man to get along with them? <laughing>*
- 20 Ss: <laughing>
- 21 S2: No, I don't. <laughing> (Speaks Thai –If you compare their social context with secondary schools which have only female students, female students speak differently from male students do.)

(Excerpt from TTSD 7)

In Example 4, the teacher asks S2 what the context of the university which most students are male is in line 17. Then in line 18, the student explains what she thinks about the context of this type of university. In line 19, the teacher provides metalinguistic feedback by commenting on the student's explanations that "So you have to act like man to get along with them?" (line 20). This statement shows that the teacher teases S2 by asking if she has to act like a man to get along with male

students. This statement brought laughter to the whole class including S2 who immediately replied that she does not act like a man in line 21.

This example showed that the use of Ajarn's interactional feedback containing life-content could make the lesson more interesting and meaningful to S2, as she had an opportunity to take part in the classroom discussion and exercise her thoughts about the lesson by making use of her personal knowledge and experiences. Moreover, the classroom atmosphere seemed to become more relaxing, fun, and pleasant when Ajarn teased S2 in line 19. This behaviour evidently reflected his liveliness, friendliness, and humour. This climate also could possibly make the students feel comfortable in this class which can be seen through how they felt at ease, once in a while laughing in line 20, and possibly resulted in their increased motivation towards learning.

In addition, interactional feedback containing life-content was found to reflect Ajarn's positive attitudes towards his students, in particular his caring and concerns about the students. As Ajarn explained in the interview (see Excerpt 11, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4), he tried to show the students that he really cared for them and would always be there for the students to help them in their studies or even some personal matters. This helped him to gain trust from his students. Furthermore, this might make the students pay more attention to their studies, and be willing to participate in classroom discussions more. The following excerpt is an example.

(5)

- 90 Aj: Ok. So when are you making plan to get married? Sorry, it is quite too personal.
- 91 S3: I think beginning now. So I think after this term I have to think a lot I must study or...
- 92 Aj: *You will continue or you will stop.*
- 93 S3: Yeah.
- 94 Aj: *So, that is a big decision.*
- 95 S3: Yes. It's big problem.
- 96 Aj: *Or maybe you get married, but you still keep on your study.*

- 97 S3: But my mother thinks he looks for new girlfriend.
- 98 Ss: <laughing>
- 99 Aj: **So you mean that...**
- 100 S3: And I look for...
- 101 Aj: **Another boyfriend. *How come? You must maintain your love, you should be stable enough. Not break up your love.***
- 102 S3: I'm confused now.
- 103 Aj: **Yeah. *So you think love is not always happy.***

(Excerpt from TTSD 1)

In Example 5, the discussion begins when the teacher asks S3 when she will get married in line 90. Moreover, in this line the teacher says, "Sorry, it is quite too personal." This statement reveals that he is concerned about asking S3's personal story because he recognises what he is asking for is not related to the course contents. At this point he begins to change the role of teacher to the role of S3's friend. This contribution is the beginning of informal or friendly conversation between the teacher and S3. Although the teacher is concerned that he should not talk about S3's personal story, S3 is willing to tell her story further. In line 91 she answers that she plans to get married soon so she thinks about her study whether she will stop it or not. Then the teacher shows his sympathy to S3. He tells S3 that, "This is a big decision" (line 94). He also comments that S3 should keep on her study after getting married (line 96). However, in line 97 S3 changes the talking topic by saying that, "But my mother thinks he looks for new girlfriend." This contribution is the beginning of the friendliest discussion which can be seen in lines 100 and 101. After S3 told that her mother thought that her boyfriend is looking for a new girlfriend (line 97), in line 100 it seems that she is telling that she is also looking for a new boyfriend. However, the teacher interrupts her contributions by completing the end of her contributions by adding the word 'boyfriend' himself (line 101). It can be seen that the teacher acts as S3's friend who is able to sense her thought. Moreover, he expresses his comment about S3's thought that "How come? You must maintain your love, you should be stable enough. Not break up your love"

(line 101). There is another comment from the teacher in line 103 which is “Yeah. So you think love is not always happy” after S3 says, “I’m confused now” (line 102).

As Example 5 displayed, Ajarn tried to give some suggestions and comments on S3’s problem. It seems that he tried to act as her friend. His behaviour made the classroom’s atmosphere comfortable and friendly as can be seen when S3 dared to tell about her personal story, and participated more in the discussion. Moreover, Ajarn assumed the typical role of a Thai teacher whose job is not only to provide knowledge to students but to teach the students morality and knowledge of the world: what is right or wrong. This is shown through how he tried to tell S3 that she could get married, but still keep on with her studies. He also suggested her to be a good girlfriend. By doing so, Ajarn explicitly showed his positive attitudes towards S3; that is, he displayed his concerns and caring for her.

Therefore, it may be concluded that Ajarn tried to encourage the students to participate in the classroom discussions more which was his third personal teaching goal.

6.3.4 The Teacher’s Fourth Personal Teaching Goal

The fourth personal teaching goal, according to Ajarn, was to improve the students’ English speaking skill. To reach this goal, first of all Ajarn stated in the interview (see Excerpt 13, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4) that he had to help the students recognise the importance of learning English. He claimed that he always made small talk with the students, pointing out to them that having strong command of English would be helpful to their future studies and career (see Excerpt 14, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4). However, through analysing the transcripts, I found that only once did Ajarn have this kind of small talk with the students, as shown in the following excerpt:

(6)

14 Aj: Ok. Why do we need another language?

- 15 S2: For communicating with foreign businessmen, like I do in my workplace.
- 16 Aj: *Yes. If you want to do some business in some countries, you know a few greeting words in that language, they will be impressed, you know, by your greeting words. Like on the first week that I skipped the class, you remember? I was an MC at the World Aerobic Gymnastic Championship held in Indoor Stadium, Hua Mak. And I had to introduce the participating countries, 12 of them. I introduced like Representing India and I said Namaste <Indian greeting word> India and from France and I said Bonjour <French greeting word> France. From Japan, Domo Ari Gato <Japanese greeting word> from Japan. Get a better job. Of course, if you're able to speak only one language, it's quite common at least you can speak Thai, maybe your Thai is not very good in term of writing or maybe speaking, but reading and listening is ok. So it is better to learn other foreign languages than know only one language because it surely helps you to get a better job. Try hard work, goal commitment should be successful.*

(Excerpt from TTSD 4)

In Example 6, in line 16, the teacher tries to tell the students if they can speak more than one language, it will be useful in their future career. Based on this data, it may be said that Ajarn's attempt to teach the students to see the importance of learning English so that they would increase their motivation beyond the level of 'learning to pass the test' was minimal. As Ajarn indicated in the interview (see Excerpt 13, lines 6-8, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4), Thai students always learn English for the exam, not for their future like for their jobs, or their future studies. However, for the students in this classroom, it might be said that it was easy for them to understand how acquiring the language could be advantageous to their careers or future studies because all of them were working. As shown in Example 6 above, when Ajarn asked the students

why they needed another language in line 14. Then in line 15 S2 answers that she used foreign language to communicate with foreign businessmen. It shows that in response to the teacher's question, S2 used her working experiences.

Moreover, to reach his fourth personal teaching goal which was to improve the students' English speaking skill, Ajarn tried to encourage the students to speak English in class. As discussed previously, since their proficiency in English skills, particularly speaking skill, was low, the students hardly participated in classroom discussions. One way which Ajarn used to encourage the students to speak English in class was asking them to give a presentation. As he said in the interview (see Excerpt 5, lines 3-5, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4), giving a presentation could force them to speak English. Furthermore, since the students had to practice the presentation several times, Ajarn thought that this might help them improve their English speaking skills (see Excerpt 5, lines 23-25, in Chapter 4).

The opportunity for the students to communicate in English was greater when Ajarn provided verbal feedback which encouraged the students to speak. For example, he preferred to use evaluative feedback strategies that prompted the students to self-repair such as elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and giving clues, rather than explicit correction and criticising. As Lyster and Ranta (1997) discuss, teacher verbal feedback strategies such as metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and clarification requests of error create opportunities for negotiation of form or content by promoting more active student involvement in the error treatment process than teacher verbal feedback strategies that reformulate students' errors (i.e., recasts and explicit correction) do. For interactional feedback, since it focused on the content of the students' contributions more than their accuracy or correctness of information supplied or of the linguistic form used, it provided opportunities for the students to speak more in classroom discussions. Moreover, the interaction between Ajarn and the students became more natural when Ajarn used comment which was one of interactional feedback strategies and was used often (32 or 35.6%) (see Chart 3, in Section 5.2.2.2, Chapter 5, p. 148). As Cullen (2002) explained comment is used to promote natural and communicative language use in the classroom. The following excerpt is an example.

(7)

- 17 Aj: Uh huh. Do you think you can manage your time wiser?
- 18 S2: Sleeping less and work hard.
- 19 Aj: ***That's not the point.*** <laughing>
- 20 S2: What did you ask? <not being sure about her answer meeting the teacher's question or not>
- 21 Aj: ***That's not the point. I mean that how can you manage your time wisely. If you say that normally you sleep eight hours a day, so maybe you think you just sleep six hours or four hours.***
- 22 S2: Yes, and when I do something, I must to be attended. When I work, I'm very try attend.
- 23 Aj: ***Ok. That's a good point. But if you sleep late, you think you can work more effectively.***
- 24 S2: Yes. <laughing>
- 25 S3: But I think if I sleep late, not about four or five hours I wake up in the morning after I'm confused. I cannot remember yesterday or past time.
- 26 Aj: ***Ok. So you are going to say that you can't concentrate on thing you are doing or going to do.***
- 27 S3: Yes.

(Excerpt from TTSD 1)

In Example 7, the teacher first uses referential question to solicit the students' personal opinions on 'how to manage time wiser' in line 17. Then after S2 provides an answer by saying, "Sleep less and work hard" (line 18), the teacher comments on her response by saying, "That's not the point" (line 19). However, S2 cannot understand what the teacher tried to say so she asks the teacher what he asked in line 20. Therefore, the teacher elaborates his previous contribution in line 21. After this, S2 explains when she does something, she always concentrates on it in line 22. In line 23, the teacher admires what S2 expressed, and asks her further, "But if you

sleep late, you think you can work more effectively?” After S2 accepts by saying “Yes” (line 24), at this point, A3 immediately jumps into the discussion by expressing her view that if she sleeps less than four hours, she will be confused when she gets up in line 25. Then the teacher summarises what S3 tried to say in line 26. On the whole, this excerpt clearly showed that through the use of comment, the teacher could successfully engage the students in an extended discussion. Furthermore, it occurred once that S3 was also so eager to participate in the discussion as can be seen in line 25.

Besides, as Ajarn claimed in the interview (see Excerpt 16, lines 2-5, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4), the students often used Thai in responding to his questions. So every time they did, through his verbal feedback he asked them to give their answers again in English. This is shown in the excerpt below.

(8)

- 15 S2: Ok. Start. How to business with China. Why? Why? Why?
 (Speaks Thai – Why) I want to introduce you about China and
 the tricks and tips when you communication with them.
 (Speaks Thai – I can speak shortly in English but in Thai is
 longer.) <smiling and laughing> This is the map of China.
 This is the language and symbol of China. Ok. Cross cultural
 Chinese. That’s the reason why I want to contact with China.
 China is constantly in the news and is on the fast-track to
 becoming a future economic heavy-weight more than
 everyone in Asia. Ok. That is the first cross cultural China.
 The Chinese tends to want to be relationship before get down
 to business. That is the point. So you must to study about
 LESCANT, L-E-S-C-A-N-T <spelling the word> of China if
 you want to business with them. L language, E
 environmental and technology, S social organization, C
 context, A authority conception, N non verbal behaviour and
 the last Time, time is important with Chinese because time is
 business, time is the money. That is the concept of them. Ok,

next. Contact. This is Dragon Bone. Ok. Dragon Bone are often used to predict the future (xxx) (Speaks Thai – When you do business with Chinese, please bring Dragon Bone with you. They will accept to do business with you surely.)

16 **Aj:** *English. English.*

(Excerpt from TTSD 2)

In Excerpt 8, S2 is presenting information about doing business with Chinese by using both English and Thai in line 15. Although the students were asked to give a presentation in English, sometimes they used Thai. Therefore, once S2 speaks in Thai, the teacher tells her to use English in line 16.

It might be said that the use of teacher verbal feedback gave opportunities for the students to use English in communicating with the teacher in the classroom. The data also suggested that Ajarn hardly used Thai in his speech. Consequently, it may be said, the students in this class were automatically forced to do the same thing: to use English as a means of communication. However, it occurred that the students used Thai in responding to Ajarn's questions. As mentioned previously, every time they did, they would be asked to give their contributions again in English. Ajarn's efforts on this matter clearly reflected his goal in encouraging the students to use English as much as possible in the classroom, since it seemed to be the only place where the students could have a chance to speak the language. In summary, through providing verbal feedback which encouraged the students to speak, helping the students recognise the importance of learning English, and encouraging the students to speak English in class, Ajarn apparently taught towards his fourth personal teaching goal in giving opportunities to help the students improve their English speaking skills.

6.4 Chapter Summary

In this chapter the findings on reaching the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals are presented. The chapter consists of two main sections. The first section focused on how the teacher's verbal feedback could provide opportunities for, or serve as a barrier to, the students reaching the course objectives. In summary, it may be said that Ajarn gave the students opportunities to broaden their intercultural business communication knowledge which was the main course objective and his first personal teaching goal. This was done through asking the students to give a presentation about doing business with the country in which they were interested, coupled with using evaluative and interactional feedback strategies in an attempt to stimulate the students' thinking about the course content, or provide the course content through these feedback strategies (study-content).

The second section considered how the teacher's verbal feedback could provide opportunities or serve as a barrier to the students reaching the teacher's personal teaching goals. To sum up, the teacher tried to help the students become independent learners which was his second personal teaching goal by making them feel confident about what they did, or what they would do, by giving them support through his verbal feedback. For the third personal teaching goal, it may be concluded that the teacher taught towards this goal in attempting to encourage the students to participate in the classroom discussions more by creating a relaxed, fun, and pleasant classroom atmosphere. Moreover, through his verbal feedback and his teaching, he clearly reflected his positive attributes: being caring, loving, friendly, and lively, which resulted in the students' increased motivation towards learning and participation. Finally, in summary, through providing verbal feedback which encouraged the students to speak, helping them recognise the importance of learning English, and supporting them to speak English in class, the teacher taught towards his fourth personal teaching goal in helping the students improve their English speaking skills.

The next chapter provides review of main findings and discussion.

CHAPTER 7: REVIEW OF MAIN FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I present discussion of the main findings reported in the previous three chapters. Moreover, the research questions are presented, the findings related to the questions are shown and answers to the questions are given. I also compare the findings of this study with those of previous studies.

This chapter consists of five main sections: (1) Discussion of the Findings on the Course Objectives and the Teacher's Personal Teaching Goals, (2) Discussion of the Findings on Teacher Verbal Feedback Functions, (3) Discussion of the Findings on Teacher Verbal Feedback Strategies, (4) Discussion of the Findings on Teacher Verbal Feedback Content, and (5) Discussion of the Findings on Reaching the Course Objectives and the Teacher's Personal Teaching Goals.

7.2 Discussion of the Findings on the Course Objectives and the Teacher's Personal Teaching Goals

In this section, I discuss the findings on the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals. These findings provide the evidence for answering the first and second research questions as follows.

1. What are the objectives of the course the teacher teaches?
2. What are the personal teaching goals the teacher has for his students to achieve?

The data gained from Ajarn's interview and the course syllabus disclosed three interesting points between the course objectives (see Section 4.2, in Chapter 4) and the teacher's personal teaching goals (see Section 4.3, in Chapter 4). Firstly, if these

objectives and these goals were considered superficially, it seems that the goals were not related to the objectives, or they were not suitable and necessary for postgraduates because the students should already have achieved them before studying further in this international programme. During observing the class, I heard Ajarn tell the students that they should improve their personal abilities to learn efficiently in postgraduate programmes, in particular, international programmes themselves. By this, he explained to them that they should have a basic knowledge and skills for studying in higher education before they would be postgraduates. Therefore, if they did not have those knowledge and skills, it was their responsibility to improve them. Although Ajarn said that it was the students' responsibility to prepare themselves well before studying further for a postgraduate degree, it seemed that he could not ignore his students. It was highly possible that he felt sympathetic towards his students. As he put it clearly in the following interview.

16As a teacher, I had to boot up my students' spirits. Because
17 they had a lot of anxiety and uncertainty about learning in English, I
18 had to reduce them. I had to give them encouragement. I think that
19 since the students are non-English majors, they are not competent in
20 English. However, I told them that they had to try to use English. I
21 don't care about using correct grammatical structure. I only wanted
22 them to speak.

(Excerpt 1 in Section 4.3, Chapter 4, pp. 110-111)

Besides Ajarn's sympathy towards his students, after reconsidering his personal teaching goals carefully and analysing his interview, I found that he set his personal teaching goals, in particular the last three goals, in order to support the students reaching the course objectives and his first personal teaching goal which focused on expanding the students' intercultural business communication knowledge. As Ajarn claimed in the interview, it was difficult to teach the students towards achieving these objectives and this goal because the students were not mature, had a low proficiency in English, and had hardly ever participated in classroom discussions. It

might be said that Ajarn set the last three personal teaching goals after he recognised the students' problems. As Nespor (1984) found from the interview data, teaching goals were not necessarily pre-existing determinants of action, but sometimes discoveries after the act.

Secondly, on the whole I also found that some of Ajarn's personal teaching goals were developed from his personal and teaching experiences. This finding was congruent with what Johnson (1995) maintains, i.e. that the teachers' frames of reference are important factors to help us understand how teachers think, talk, act, and interact in the classroom. One important aspect of teachers' frames of reference includes the notion that a conception of teaching is embedded in and inseparable from teachers' practices, experiences and reflection. Connelly and Clandinin (1988 cited in Johnson, 1995: 30) term these practices, experiences, and reflection the *personal practical knowledge*. Moreover, teachers' practices from teaching experiences contribute to how teachers deal with new teaching situations. The data from this study also accorded with this aspect of teachers' frames of reference. For example, for Ajarn, owing up to the experience of succeeding in his life because of knowing foreign languages, he recognised the importance of having a strong command of English. Consequently, one of his personal teaching goals was to help the students improve their English speaking skills, and a salient factor to reach this goal was to help his students recognise the importance of learning English. Moreover, according to Ajarn, one of his personal goals in teaching was to encourage the students to participate in classroom discussions more in order to make the teaching and learning more enjoyable to both the teacher and the students. As he recounted, this goal evolved from his experience when he taught the students of this course in the last semester. That is, in that classroom the students were enthusiastic to answer every question he asked. Sometimes they asked him questions and raised topics for discussing themselves so the classroom atmosphere was lively. Therefore, Ajarn believed that in order to make the lesson more interesting and stimulating, the students should be given an opportunity to be involved in learning. In another, different example, based on his teaching experiences, Ajarn realised that most Thai students appeared to be dependent learners, lacking an acceptance to be responsible for and make decisions about their own learning. With this in mind, he developed as one of his personal teaching goals to help the students be independent learners.

Finally, the data from the interview, to some extent, confirmed the notion suggested by researchers such as Nespor (1984) and Buck *et al.* (1992) that the achievement goals the teachers endorse for their students manifest themselves in the teacher's instructional practices. In this research Ajarn formulated his personal teaching goals and stated that he taught the students or created the classroom climate according to his goals. For example, as stated by Ajarn, one of his personal teaching goals was to encourage the students to participate in classroom discussions more. Therefore, he said he tried to create a relaxing, comfortable classroom atmosphere that would motivate the students to talk or to respond to his questions. As he suggested, this could be done through exhibiting positive attitudes and personality to his students (see Excerpt 11, in Section 4.3, Chapter 4).

7.3 Discussion of the Findings on Teacher Verbal Feedback Functions

In this section, I discuss the findings on the functions of teacher verbal feedback. As mentioned previously in Section 5.2.1, Chapter 5, these findings provide the evidence for answering the third research question which is 'What are the functions of verbal feedback provided by the teacher in the classroom?'

From an examination of the data about the functions of teacher verbal feedback, I found that Ajarn provided two functions of verbal feedback: evaluative feedback and interactional feedback. Moreover, it can be seen that he used a high proportion of interactional feedback, but a very low proportion of evaluative feedback. The interpretation for the high occurrence of interactional feedback might be because this was a postgraduate classroom where Ajarn tried to urge and support the students to participate in classroom discussions. The finding about functions of teacher verbal feedback in the current study was in agreement with previous research by Wells (1993), Farooq (1998), Hughes and Westgate (1998), Rex and McEachen (1999), Boxer and Cortés-Conde (2000), Boyd and Maloof (2000), Duff (2000), Nassaji and Wells (2000), Sullivan (2000), and Oberli (2003) which suggested that interactional feedback was the most frequent function provided in the classroom where a teacher wanted to encourage students to talk far more or support them to participate in classroom discussions. As Oberli (2003) concluded in her study, the fact that the

teacher used interactional feedback more than evaluative feedback might be because of the teaching purpose which was to make the classroom interactive. Therefore, the teacher preferred encouraging the students to participate in the discussion to intervening when errors were produced. On the other hand, as Nassaji and Wells (2000) describe, when the student is given verbal feedback which is evaluative or the teacher does not expand upon his or her ideas, or search for possible reasons, the student's participation to further dialogue is hindered because he or she thinks that the exchange has ended and that the teacher wants no further information from him or her. Similarly, based on the interview data in this study, Ajarn stated that correcting the students' contributions may break the flow of discussion because most Thai students are afraid of making mistakes. If their contributions are often evaluated or corrected, this can increase the level of anxiety and discourage the students' participation in further discussion. As Amy Tsui, mentioned by Nunan (1999: 233-235 cited in Oberli, 2003: 17) explains, among five reasons being cultural factor that functions in a number of Asian cultures inhibiting students from speaking up in front of their peers Tsui identified, students' fear of mistakes and derision are prominent. She suggests one of elaborating strategies to overcome this fear which is to focus on content rather than form. This can lower anxiety because students are not inhibited about making mistakes.

As mentioned previously in Section 1.4, Chapter 1, I chose to investigate teacher verbal feedback in postgraduate classrooms because based on my learning experiences there was more active participation in classroom discussions than passive reception of information so there were differences in provision of verbal feedback of the teachers in postgraduate classes. However, from observing this postgraduate classroom, I found that classroom interaction or discussion hardly happened in this classroom. This might happen because this classroom was an international programme so English was used as a medium of instruction and communication. However, since the students' proficiency in English skills, in particular, speaking skill was low; the students hardly participated in classroom discussions. Although, the students had had at least 16 years of English learning experience prior to study in postgraduate programme, as Ajarn mentioned in the interview (Excerpt 2, line 12, Chapter 4) their English ability was their barrier to participate in classroom discussions.

Moreover, I have aimed to appraise and integrate at least two views. These are my own learning and teaching experiences; what Thai teachers and students have said to me about causes which result in poor interaction between the teacher and students. Firstly, Thai culture gives an importance to studying. Because of this, teachers are highly respected by students, parents and by society. According to Simon (2001: 340 cited in Forman, 2005: 100), the teacher's role is described as that of 'friend and helper of pupils in master-disciple relationship'. Moreover, in most Thai classes, teacher-centred approaches are used for the instructional method. Teachers have the main role to present the information for studying and to control the learning process of students. They also determine the lesson objectives and take the primary responsibility for guiding the instruction by explanation of the information and modelling. Then this is followed by student practice. Therefore, Thai students do not feel comfortable to ask questions or give opinions because they are taught to be quiet and respectfully listen to the teacher. Because of this, Thai students have little or no experience in interaction with the teacher, such as questioning, commenting or giving feedback. Secondly, shyness and lack of self-confidence produces little interaction. Thai students will only smile, look down, look at each other and giggle, but nobody speaks when the teachers call on them to participate in class. Shyness and lack of self-confidence might be caused by educational backgrounds. Thai students have studied reading and writing for many years, but they have never actually had to speak. Therefore, they are not confident about their English speaking. Normally, most Thai students do not have much knowledge of English vocabulary and structures to make spoken sentences. When they want to speak English, they often think in Thai first and translate the thought to English. This process leads to incorrect structures and vague vocabulary. Consequently, when Thai students speak English, they are terrified of making a mistake, saying something wrong and losing face. Similarly, in his research, Farooq (1998) found that the students' cultural and educational background and the concept of saving face compelled them to remain silent when responding in English. Furthermore, as mentioned in Section 1.1, Chapter 1, factors such as personality (that is, shyness) or language ability to speak in the target language make students unwilling to talk, or although they talk (always relating to teachers' questions), they often give short responses (Dudley-Marling and Searle, 1991).

Normally, in the current study if Ajarn raised a discussion topic about the course content previously taught or being taught at the moment, the students hardly expressed their opinions about it. Since it was the topic which he had already known its information, he could evaluate or correct the students' contributions.

Consequently, the students might be too concerned about their mistakes to dare to talk in a discussion because as I observed the students' behaviours during classroom discussions, I found that they could barely ask or respond to any question without assistance from Ajarn. Therefore, at times, I found that Ajarn tried to create a safe learning climate where the students could express their opinions. For example, he let the students know that mistakes were inevitable and not to be afraid of mistakes in class. Ajarn often told them that perfect speech was not one of his goals so they could do their best to produce appropriate contributions. Therefore, he tried to ignore the students' contributions which had incorrect forms because he wanted encourage the students to speak out freely without being corrected all the time. Whatever Ajarn did in order to create a safe learning climate for his students was the same he said in the interview as follows.

16As a teacher, I had to boot up my students' spirits. Because
17 they had a lot of anxiety and uncertainty about learning in English, I
18 had to reduce them. I had to give them encouragement. I think that
19 since the students are non-English majors, they are not competent in
20 English. However, I told them that they had to try to use English. I
21 don't care about using correct grammatical structure. I only wanted
22 them to speak.

(Excerpt 1 in Section 4.3, Chapter 4, pp. 110-111)

Similarly, Wells (1993) and Rex and McEachen (1999) explain in their studies instead of evaluating students' contributions, the teachers provided verbal feedback for their contributions by asking them to expand on their thinking, justifying, or clarifying their opinions, or making connections to their own experiences. However,

sometimes Ajarn had to provide evaluative feedback for serious incorrect information which the students gave because if he ignored it, this might make the students misunderstand. (See Example 5 and Example 6 in Section 5.2.2.1, Chapter 5.)

Moreover, sometimes Ajarn tried to create classroom conditions that encouraged successful student participation, and provide a varied and stimulating learning climate. According to Hall and Walsh (2002), a motivating learning climate is characterised by teachers' contributions that encourage students to participate by asking them to elaborate on their responses, comment on the responses of others, and propose topics for discussion. In this classroom-centred research, Ajarn encouraged the students to speak by raising discussion topics close to their interests. When Ajarn asked the students about a topic not relating to the course content such as the students' personal information, they were willing to participate in the discussion because they felt free to express their opinions. Therefore, after the students provided contributions, Ajarn tried to keep the discussion going by providing interactional feedback which clarified and built on the ideas that the students expressed in their contributions. Although the forms of the students' contributions were incorrect, Ajarn responded with great enthusiasm to their content. The situation mentioned can be seen from Appendix D for TTSD1. Likewise, the teacher from Farooq's (1998) study in an EFL classroom for beginning-level Japanese students tried to use verbal feedback strategies which encouraged the students to talk far more because his students' English ability was lower basic, lower than survival level in that they could barely ask or respond to any question without assistance from the teacher. After analysing the data, Farooq found that in order to support the students' participation, the teacher extended the discussion by using ideas of the students and showing his praise or encouragement. Moreover, he tried to neglect the students' incorrect contributions because he did not want to prevent the students from responding.

Furthermore, as Hall and Walsh (2002) explain, in order to create a motivating learning climate, teachers should treat students' responses as valuable and legitimate regardless of whether they are 'right', and attempt to understand the students' expressed thoughts from the students' particular perspectives rather than impose their

own views on what the students are attempting to say. In this classroom, sometimes the students expressed opinions which were not related to a discussion topic, but Ajarn had never overlooked their attempts for participating in the discussion. He acknowledged and built on what the students knew and provided opportunities for them to contribute to what was being discussed. This created a positive affective climate that the students become motivated and confident in their ability to participate because it showed that the teacher encouraged and supported their participation. The situation mentioned can be seen in the following excerpt.

- 3 Aj: So this is quite a common, normal presentation. Maybe we
 have. This is the academic presentation so I should not
 attract the audiences by doing something special or not
 strange but I think it's more interesting. So what are you
 going to do?
- 4 S1: Ask them...
- 5 Aj: *Ask them about what?*
- 6 S1: Any questions? <laughing>
- 7 Aj: **Ok. After your presentation, that's good. But you don't ask
 any questions to the audiences. Do you have any questions
 to us?**
- 8 S1: I can tell them...
- 9 Aj: *About what?*
- 10 S1: Please give your quiet. Not ask me. <laughing and smiling>

(Excerpt from TTSD 3)

In the excerpt above, Ajarn's verbal feedback (lines 5, 7 and 9) reveal that although the student's answers do not respond to both questions which he asked, he does not ignore what the student said. Conversely, Ajarn raises the student's contributions as a next discussion topic.

It can be concluded that both evaluative and interactional feedback may have the potential to be supportive of different aspects of student learning. For example, when a teacher asks students to read a passage and questions about it in order to check their understanding, then one of the students gives the answer which can be correct or wrong, it is the responsibility of the teacher to evaluate his or her response in order to let that student and the class know what the correct answer is. On the other hand, if the teacher wants to encourage the students to talk far more, instead of evaluating the students' contributions he or she should request for further information from the students, clarify or build on the ideas that they expressed in their contributions. Therefore, it is important to select the appropriate verbal feedback function for each student's contribution because it can impact positively or negatively on the student's participation. Moreover, since through verbal feedback the teacher can create or reduce students' opportunities for achieving the course objectives or his or her personal teaching goals, it is necessary to select the appropriate function for students' contributions.

7.4 Discussion of the Findings on Teacher Verbal Feedback Strategies

In this section, I discuss the findings on teacher verbal feedback strategies. As mentioned previously in Section 5.2.2, Chapter 5, these findings provide the evidence for answering the fourth research question which is 'What are the strategies used by the teacher in providing verbal feedback?' Since in the present study there are two functions of teacher verbal feedback: evaluative feedback and interactional feedback, I discuss the findings of each function's strategies separately. Firstly, evaluative feedback strategies are discussed. Secondly, I discuss the strategies of interactional feedback.

7.4.1 Discussion of the Findings on Evaluative Feedback Strategies

In this section, I discuss the findings on the strategies of evaluative feedback.

In this research, the data indicated that, of five strategies of evaluative feedback: explicit correction, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, giving clues, and criticising, explicit correction was the predominant strategy used by Ajarn. Elicitation was the second most often used by Ajarn. Moreover, metalinguistic feedback was found to be used as the third most frequent by Ajarn, whereas giving clues and criticising were hardly used at all.

From an examination of evaluative feedback strategies, some important points could be identified. Firstly, normally, teachers use explicit correction because they want to save time in informing students of their incorrect contributions so that teachers can proceed with other activities. Therefore, when I found that Ajarn used this strategy more than the other strategies, I was surprised. As discussed previously, this class was for postgraduates so, as I observed the classroom, Ajarn tried to avoid letting the students know immediately that their contributions was incorrect or unacceptable to him. He told them indirectly or tried to let them repair their contributions themselves. However, an analysis of the transcripts revealed that Ajarn did not use explicit correction for correcting the form or content of the students' contributions, but rather correcting the students' misunderstanding. (See Example 5 and Example 6, in Section 5.2.2.1, Chapter 5.) He also used it when he gave the students an opportunity for expressing their opinions; yet, their ideas were not reasonable enough or it was not acceptable to him. This eventually led Ajarn to inform the students of their incorrect contributions. (See Example 7, in Section 5.2.2.1, Chapter 5.) Therefore, Ajarn's purpose in using explicit correction was not indeed primarily an evaluative or corrective feedback.

Secondly, five strategies of evaluative feedback: explicit correction, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, giving clues, and criticising used by Ajarn could be classified into two groups. The first group including explicit correction and criticising, was the strategy which the teacher corrected or criticised the students' contributions immediately. For the second group: elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and giving clues were used when the teacher tried to make the students repair their incorrect contributions themselves. As shown in Chart 2 (see Section 5.2.2.1, Chapter 5, p. 138), the combined total distribution of the second group: elicitation (29.6%), metalinguistic feedback (22.2%), and giving clues (7.4%) were

greater than the combined total distribution of the first group: explicit correction (33.3%) and criticising (7.4%). This means that Ajarn strongly preferred to use evaluative feedback strategies that prompted the students to self-repair such as elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and giving clues, rather than explicit correction and criticising. He always elicited the correct form or content from the students, provided comments, information related to the correctness of the form or content of their contributions, or gave them clues for the right answer. Ajarn used these strategies to convey the message to the students that their contributions were incorrect or yet unacceptable, and that they should reconsider or clarify them. This finding was in agreement with previous research by Oberli (2003), Farooq (1998), Lyster and Ranta (1997) which suggested that evaluative feedback strategies that prompted the students to self-repair were used more than explicit correction and criticising. In Farooq's study, if the teacher found that what the students said was wrong, he gave directions or clues leading to the correct or expected answer without explicit correction. However, this finding was not in agreement with Panova and Lyster's (2002) research which occurred in an adult ESL classroom. After observing the classroom for four weeks, Panova and Lyster found that the teacher strongly preferred to use recasts rather than the other strategies which prompt students to self-repair. They discuss that the students' low proficiency level may not have allowed the teacher to use the other strategies that invite greater students' participation in negotiating form. Since the students' problems in comprehension and their limited oral and written production abilities with respect to vocabulary and sentence structure, the teacher may have viewed recasts as a suitable strategy for providing exemplars of the target language. On the other hand, in the current study although the students' proficiency in English skills, in particular, speaking skill was low, Ajarn preferred to use evaluative feedback strategies that prompted the students to self-repair, rather than correcting or criticising the students' contributions immediately. The interpretation for the high occurrence of evaluative feedback strategies that prompted the students to self-repair might be because Ajarn wanted the students to negotiate the correct form and content of their previous contributions. As he said in the interview (see Excerpt 8, lines 10-14, in Chapter 4), the negotiation of correct form or content could help the students research ideas, expand thinking from what he taught, and encourage the students to speak to respond to his evaluative feedback. An analysis of the transcripts showed that since Ajarn did not provide the

correct form or content but instead provided clues to help the students consider how to correct their incorrect contributions, the negotiation of correct form or content occurred. Similarly, Lyster and Ranta (1997) discuss that student-generated repairs are important in learning because they indicate active engagement in the learning process on the part of students. This active engagement occurs when there is negotiation of correct form or content, or when the students have to think about and respond to the teacher's verbal feedback in some way. Moreover, this negotiation of form or content occurs when the teacher does not provide the correct form or content but instead provides clues to help the student consider how to reformulate his or her incorrect contributions. As Lyster and Ranta discuss, teacher verbal feedback strategies such as metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and clarification requests of error create opportunities for negotiation of form or content by promoting more active student involvement in the error treatment process than teacher verbal feedback strategies that reformulate students' errors (i.e., recasts and explicit correction) do. Furthermore, since Ajarn tried to let the students self-correct, he allowed time and provided appropriate cues for the student to self-repair. This teacher's behaviour was congruent with van Lier's (1988) argument. He argues that teachers should delay the use of evaluative or corrective techniques that 'deny the speaker the opportunity to do self-repair, probably an important learning activity' (van Lier, 1988: 211). At least, this could improve the students' ability to monitor their own contributions.

Thirdly, it is evident that Ajarn used a large number of elicitation comparing with using metalinguistic feedback and giving clues. This finding was congruent with previous research conducted by Oberli (2003). As pointed out earlier in Section 5.2.2.1, Chapter 5, elicitation is the strategy that elicits the correct contributions from the students. An analysis of the transcripts showed that most elicitation found in this research was in form of questioning and was used to ask for further explanation or clarification from the students such as "Can you elaborate more?", "Of what?", "Who will be affected?" The teacher's preference of using elicitation might be because of the simplicity for Ajarn to pursue the correct answer from the students. The students' problem in English comprehension and their limited English speaking abilities with respect to vocabulary and sentence structure, Ajarn might have viewed elicitation as a suitable strategy for pursuing correct answers from the students. In

short, elicitation seemed to be a simpler and more effective strategy for the students to comprehend or be aware about their previous contributions whether they were correct or not because Ajarn asked for more explanation or confirmation from them.

7.4.2 Discussion of the Findings on Interactional Feedback Strategies

In this section, I discuss the findings on the strategies of interactional feedback.

Regarding the strategies of interactional feedback, the data indicated that, of five strategies of interactional feedback: reformulation, elaboration, comment, repetition and questioning, questioning was the most frequent strategy used by Ajarn. Comment was the second strategy which was used most often by Ajarn. In addition, elaboration was found to be used as the third most frequently by Ajarn, whereas repetition and reformulation were hardly used at all, in particular reformulation which was used only 1.1%. The interpretation for the low occurrence of reformulation might be because for providing interactional feedback the teacher focused on the content of the students' contributions more than their accuracy or correctness of information supplied or of the linguistic form used. Since reformulation was used to repair all or part of the student's response to ensure that the content of an individual student's contributions was available and also audible to the rest of the class, it was used less than the other strategies. An analysis of the transcripts showed that normally, Ajarn responded affirmatively to the content and then ignored the students' ill-formed contributions by moving on to topic continuation. He also responded affirmatively to the content and then reformulated the students' error, or reformulated the error and then responded affirmatively to the content (see Example 18, in Section 5.2.2.2, Chapter 5 for an example).

Moreover, as previously mentioned, among interactional feedback strategies Ajarn used a large amount of questioning. As pointed out earlier in Section 5.2.2.2, Chapter 5, questioning is the direct way indicating that the teacher motivated the students to clarify and explain further their previous contributions. Such questions are also authentic in the sense that they are asking something genuinely unknown to the teacher, so ratifying the importance of the students' original responses, at the

same time as also creating an opportunity for the students to expand upon their original responses. By asking a related or additional question through his verbal feedback, Ajarn also could suggest that the students needed to think further or explore a particular aspect they might have overlooked. Moreover, this showed that he was interested in the students' contributions because he tried to pursue more information. Similarly, Wells (1993) suggests, instead of closing down the exchange with a short evaluation of the students' answers, the teachers more often asked the students to elaborate or clarify, and in other ways treated their responses as valuable contributions to the continuing discussion. Furthermore, questioning was the predominant strategy of interactional feedback used by the teacher, this might be because it was an easy way to encourage the students to speak a bit more. Normally, after the students provided short and simple answers or expressions, they stopped talking. Since questions require responses and thus serve as a means of obliging the students to contribute further. In addition, as discussed previously, because of the students' low English ability, Ajarn might have viewed questioning as a suitable interactional feedback strategy for encouraging the students to clarify or expand their previous contributions. Sometimes he appeared to adjust his questions to his sense of their understanding when he found that the students could not understand the questions he asked.

Besides questioning, another interactional feedback strategy which Ajarn quite often used was comment. An analysis of the transcripts showed that he picked up the students' contributions, normally by repeating them, and then added his comments on them or shared his personal experience relevant to them. As I observed the classroom, I found that this strategy could promote natural and communicative language in the classroom because Ajarn made a personal, often humorous response to the students' contributions. This finding was congruent with Cullen's (2002) research which found that comment was used to promote natural and communicative language use in the classroom. Similarly, Sullivan (2000) discusses that humour enhanced the students' enjoyment of their classroom interactions and motivated them to continue participation. By offering a comment on what the student said, Ajarn signalled that this was his opinion and the subject was therefore open to debate. An extension to this verbal feedback was to directly elicit the speaker's or other students' reactions to this student's contribution or Ajarn's comment. Interestingly,

comment is noticeably similar to the ‘alternatives to questions’ proposed by Dillon (1994). Dillon suggests the use of statements stating what is on your mind, or is of interest to you in relation to what the student has just been saying. He describes that ‘student responses to teacher statements are longer and more complex than their answers to teacher questions’ (Dillon, 1994: 79). Moreover, signals include fillers or verbal encouragers, phatics or quiet exclamations, and passing the turn at talk to another speaker can ‘encourage the speaker on. They also ‘open the floor for further participation, all the while giving the teacher something to say or do without actually taking a turn at talk or holding the floor’ (Dillon, 1994: 88).

For the other two interactional feedback strategies: elaboration and repetition, although Ajarn hardly used these strategies, they were also useful to encourage the students’ participation. By using them, Ajarn signalled to the students the importance of attending and listening to the speaker, and of getting the speaker’s meaning right before reacting to it. An analysis of the transcripts showed that when Ajarn elaborated what the student said through his verbal feedback, it helped to add and extend the student’s previous contributions. This made the student herself and the other students understand more about a discussion topic. It also showed that the teacher is interested in listening to what the students said. (See Example 16, in Section 5.2.2.2, Chapter 5.) Similarly, after analysing the data, Oberli (2003) found that in her study the teacher expanded or modified students’ answers because he wanted to add more content to the students’ previous contributions. For repetition, Ajarn used it to repeat the student’s contribution to confirm, question, or express surprise as can be seen in Example 17, in Section 5.2.2.2, Chapter 5. As I observed the discussion (Example 17), when Ajarn repeated what the student said, it encouraged the student to talk far more. The finding was in agreement with previous research by Duff (2000) who found that to promote students’ participation, the teacher often provided verbal feedback for student responses by repeating or paraphrasing their contributions, and offering them back to the class for further discussion. Duff discusses such verbal feedback served as an important means of encouraging students’ attempts to express their own thoughts and opinions on the topics.

It can be concluded that by using the strategies of interactional feedback, Ajarn's supportive behaviour was explicit here. Close attention was paid to what had gone before, and Ajarn referred back to what the students contributed earlier to the discussion and built upon it or followed their ideas as an impetus for further discussion. This showed that he appeared to use his students' knowledge as a starting-point; he then either extended it or encouraged the students to extend it for themselves. Moreover, Ajarn restated the student's contributions by paraphrasing and linking with other students' responses. As I observed the classroom and analysed the transcripts, these verbal feedback strategies made the students not only talk far more, but they also talk far better in response to Ajarn's verbal feedback. Furthermore, Ajarn appeared to play his enabling role, encouraging and even provoking the students' speculation. He attempted to use whole class teaching as a means of creating an interactive learning climate by careful using of interactional feedback strategies and forgoing control of the lesson. He encouraged peers to respond to each other's contributions by inviting peer reviews and agreements or disagreements. Sometimes this made the students volunteer contributions and ideas, and ask questions themselves. Moreover, in order to create an interactive learning climate, Ajarn showed authentic engagement by exclamations of interest and surprise, questions of clarification, and statements relating the responses to his own experiences or opinion.

7.5 Discussion of the Findings on Teacher Verbal Feedback Content

In this section, I discuss the findings on the content of teacher verbal feedback. As mentioned previously in Section 5.2.3, Chapter 5, these findings provide the evidence for answering the fifth research question which is 'What is the content of verbal feedback provided by the teacher?'

As for the content of teacher verbal feedback, the present study indicated that there were three content: life-content, procedure-content and study-content. From an examination of the data on content of teacher verbal feedback, three important points should be noted. Firstly, it was evident that most verbal feedback Ajarn provided in his teaching contained study-content. In this research, teacher verbal feedback

containing study-content was found to provide two sub-categories of study-content: the course content and some academic suggestions such as improving language proficiency and giving a presentation effectively. As shown in Chart 4, Section 5.2.3, Chapter 5, p. 157, Ajarn provided verbal feedback containing study-content in all eight TTSD, in particular in TTSD 3, TTSD 4, TTSD 5, TTSD 6, TTSD 7, and TTSD 8, he provided only teacher verbal feedback, corresponding to 100%, which contained study-content. The result of this data, coupled with the data on function of teacher verbal feedback which found that evaluative feedback was used the most frequently in order to provide study-content, clearly reflected the function of evaluative feedback. Normally, evaluative feedback is provided by teachers when they focus on the accuracy or correctness of information supplied or of the linguistic form used of the students' contributions. In the current study, when the students' contributions were incorrect, Ajarn provided clues, comments, information or explanations which contained study-content for the students in order to lead them to the correct answers or explain the correct answer. Moreover, sometimes he provided study-content through interactional feedback which focused on the content of the students' contributions more than their accuracy or correctness of information supplied or of the linguistic form used. As already discussed, because of the students' low English ability sometimes it was difficult for the teacher to encourage the students to participate in classroom discussions, in particular, about the course content. Therefore, as Ajarn explained in the interview (see Excerpt 4, in Chapter 4), he tried to raise discussion topics close to their interests such as the students' personal information or personal and general knowledge which demanded the students' opinions, explanation or conjectures. After the students gave contributions, through interactional feedback Ajarn attempted to relate study-content such as the course content or academic suggestions to the students' personal and general knowledge at appropriate times during the discussions. In so doing, he provoked the students' thinking about their personal knowledge and experiences and opinions, as well as general knowledge in relation to the topics being discussed. Therefore, the students had an opportunity to connect the area of study being learned to their previous knowledge or life experiences. Consequently, as I observed, the lesson possibly became more interesting and meaningful to the students. As important, the classroom atmosphere was also changed to become more relaxed, since when Ajarn's verbal feedback concerned the students' personal experiences or topics of

interest, the students felt more energetic and enthusiastic to participate in the discussion. As Wells (1999) suggests ‘teachers should engage students’ interests and stimulate them to respond by making their own sense of the problem and by constructing a personal solution to it with the resources, both personal and cultural, that they have at their disposal’ (p. 207).

Secondly, as can be seen in Chart 4, Section 5.2.3, Chapter 5, p. 157, teacher verbal feedback with life-content occurred only in TTSD 1 (see Appendix D) which was a discussion about New Year activities and resolution. Since the topic of the discussion was related to personal information and experiences during New Year time, most teacher verbal feedback fit in this category. The data indicated that teacher verbal feedback containing the area of life-content was interactional feedback. Basically, most of the interactional feedback with life-content contained the information about personal experiences and general knowledge. An analysis of TTSD 1 indicated that some interactional feedback strategies such as questioning requested the students to provide some information concerning their personal knowledge, acts, and experiences. The other strategies such as elaboration and comment provided some information about the teacher’s personal knowledge, acts, and experiences for the students. Furthermore, at times, Ajarn provided interactional feedback which contained the area of life-content (general knowledge and life personal experiences) to invite the students to relate the situation in their real lives with the lesson being studied. Two important points could be inferred from the use of this teacher verbal feedback. Firstly, since the students had an opportunity to make use of their common background knowledge in relation to the lesson being studied, it was likely, or at least possible, that the lesson became more interesting and meaningful to them. Secondly, the teacher verbal feedback could encourage the students to participate more actively in the classroom discussion, as can be seen from the way the teacher received continuous responses from the students during the time when this verbal feedback was provided. A situation like this rarely happened since in this class. Therefore, it may be said that when the topic discussion was something that interested them or that they could share their common knowledge about, they were more motivated to participate in the discussion. As suggested by Fanselow (1987), it is highly possible that the students will have more self-involvement and personal associations when teachers relate the area of study they teach to the

students' personal knowledge or experiences. It can be concluded that the teacher's instructional practices, to some extent, provided opportunities for the students to activate their background knowledge in terms of the lesson being studied.

Thirdly, in this research, teacher verbal feedback with procedure-content which was used for managing the organisation of the students and materials, the establishment of classroom procedures to facilitate the work of the class and dealing with disruptions and threats to classroom order. Through analysing the data, I found that there was one situation which Ajarn provided verbal feedback containing procedure-content (see Example 21, in Section 5.2.3, Chapter 5). The interpretation for the low occurrence of teacher verbal feedback containing procedure-content might be because this class was for postgraduates so Ajarn tried to make the students feel free to express their opinions. He respected what they expressed and did by creating classroom conditions that encouraged successful student participation, and providing a varied and stimulating learning climate. Consequently, he normally respected what the students expressed and did. However, this finding was not congruent with Thai culture which gives an importance to studying. As discussed previously in Section 7.3, because of this, teachers are highly respected. In most Thai classes, teacher-centred approaches are used for the instructional method. The teacher has the main role to present the information for studying and to control the learning process of students. Moreover, they determine the lesson objectives and take the primary responsibility for guiding the instruction by explanation of the information and modelling. Then this is followed by student practice. Therefore, Thai students do not feel comfortable to ask questions or give opinions because they are taught to be quiet and respectfully listen to the teacher.

7.6 Discussion of the Findings on Reaching the Course Objectives and the Teacher's Personal Teaching Goals

In this section, I discuss the findings on how the teacher's verbal feedback could provide opportunities or serve as a barrier for his students to reach the course objectives and his personal teaching goals. As mentioned previously in Section 6.2

and Section 6.3, Chapter 6, the discussion of this section provides the evidence for answering the following research question.

6. Does the teacher's verbal feedback give opportunities for the students to attain the course objectives?

7. Does the teacher's verbal feedback give opportunities for the students to accomplish the personal teaching goals the teacher has for them?

8. If yes, how are opportunities to reach these course objectives and these personal teaching goals provided through the teacher's verbal feedback?

9. If not, how are opportunities to attain these course objectives and these personal teaching goals blocked through the teacher's verbal feedback?

The present study indicated that generally Ajarn's verbal feedback seemed to provide opportunities for his students to reach the course objectives and his personal teaching goals. However, it is noted that merely considering teacher verbal feedback was insufficient to draw conclusions as to whether or not Ajarn taught towards reaching the objectives and the goals. I attempted to use the existing data to examine how much opportunity Ajarn gave for the students to achieve the course objectives and his personal teaching goals through his verbal feedback.

This section consists of four main sub-sections. In the first sub-section, I discuss how Ajarn's verbal feedback could provide opportunities or serve as a barrier for his students to reach the course objectives and his first personal teaching goal. The next sub-sections presents discussions on how Ajarn's verbal feedback could provide opportunities or serve as a barrier to the students reaching the second, the third and the fourth personal teaching goals respectively.

7.6.1 Discussion of the Findings on Reaching the Course Objectives and the Teacher's First Personal Teaching Goal

In this section, I discuss the findings on reaching the course objectives and the teacher's first personal teaching goal. I argue about these objectives and this goal simultaneously because as mentioned in Section 6.3.1, Chapter 6 Ajarn set his first personal teaching goal based on the course objectives so they were similar. Both of them aimed at expanding the students' intercultural business communication knowledge.

As Ajarn mentioned in the interview (see Excerpt 2 and Excerpt 6 in Section 4.3, Chapter 4), the students' proficiency in English skills was low and they were not independent learners so it was difficult for him to make them achieve the course objectives and his first personal teaching goal. However, to some extent, he made an attempt to help the students reach these objectives and this goal. For example, Ajarn lowered his teaching standard, and adapted his teaching techniques in order to be appropriate for the students. He also set three other personal teaching goals which focused on developing their English proficiency, encouraging their participation in classroom discussions, and helping them to be an independent learner to support the students reaching the course objectives and his first personal teaching goal.

Moreover, in teaching towards the course objectives and his first personal teaching goal, Ajarn used both evaluative and interactional feedback strategies. Through evaluative feedback strategies such as giving clues and elicitation containing study-content (the course content), he prompted the students to self-repair because he believed that it led to better learning because the students were able to research ideas and expand thinking from what he taught. By using interactional feedback strategies such as questioning containing life-content, Ajarn also encouraged the students to think about their personal knowledge and experiences and opinions, as well as general knowledge. He believed that connecting the area of study being learned to the students' previous knowledge or life experiences gave them a better idea of the course content, and helped them increase their interests and motivation toward learning. It can be concluded that the aims of teacher verbal feedback in this classroom were to support the students' better learning and thinking about the course

content by encouraging them to research ideas and expanding thinking from what he said through verbal feedback. These aims were the same as the objectives underpinning the use of talk made by teachers for supporting students' learning and thinking as Myhill *et al.* (2006: 52) list (see Section 2.2, Chapter 2).

Along with his verbal feedback, Ajarn also asked the students to give a presentation about doing business with the country which they were interested in. He thought that the presentation was the way which could make the students find information about the country that they intended to present themselves. Therefore, from reading this information, it might help them learn about that country's culture, tradition or how to deal with people in that country, in particular, when they wanted to do business with them. This might help them to understand some concepts about intercultural business communication that he taught them before or he would teach them in the next sessions more easily.

In summary, Ajarn tried to use his verbal feedback and design and implement activities (e.g., giving a presentation) which were well matched to his students' existing knowledge and skills. By doing so, the students got opportunities to achieve the course objectives and the teacher's first teaching goal. At this point, although it was difficult to pinpoint whether the students' comprehension of intercultural business communication was developed, the teacher's efforts could have had a positive influence on the students to some degree; that is, they were automatically kept alert and motivated towards their learning. The students' motivation can be seen through their attempts to give answers when the teacher encouraged them to do through his verbal feedback (see excerpts in Chapter 5 for examples of this situation).

7.6.2 Discussion of the Findings on Reaching the Teacher's Second Personal Teaching Goal

One of Ajarn's personal teaching goals was to help the students become independent learners, which, he believed, could be done by enhancing the students' self-confidence about what they did or what they would do. The data from this research

showed that almost half of 117 teacher verbal feedback moves in eight TTSD analysed was interactional feedback. This meant that Ajarn always gave support to the students' efforts when the students tried to participate in classroom discussions through his verbal feedback. Since interactional feedback focused on the content of the students' contributions more than their accuracy or correctness of information supplied or of the linguistic form used, it urged and supported the students to participate in classroom discussions. Therefore, using interactional feedback created a positive affective climate that the students became motivated and confident in their ability to participate. Moreover, at times, if the students' contributions were incorrect, Ajarn preferred to use evaluative feedback strategies that prompted the students to self-repair rather than inform the students of their incorrect contributions and he then corrected their contributions immediately. By doing so, the students could seek out correct answers without depending upon the teacher. The teacher believed that it enabled the students to solve the problems themselves which was one of qualifications of being independent learners.

The conclusion drawn from all the above data was that Ajarn seemed to make an attempt to help the students become independent learners. However, his teaching practice in this matter was found to correspond to his belief about independent learners. That is, the focus should be placed on making the students confident of what they did or what they would do because it is a primary and important factor for helping the students become independent learners. Consequently, Ajarn's instructional practices, to some extent, provided opportunities for the students to be independent learners in the sense that they would be confident of what they did or what they would do, but not in the sense that they could actively involved in their own learning so that they can make decisions and take actions dealing with their own learning. Moreover, the interpretation for helping the students become independent learners might be because if the students reached this goal, they would take more responsibilities for their learning. They would find more information about the course content outside the classroom before or after each lesson. By doing so, the students would get more understanding of the course content.

7.6.3 Discussion of the Findings on Reaching the Teacher's Third Personal Teaching Goal

The current study showed that Ajarn taught towards his third personal teaching goal of encouraging the students to participate in classroom discussions more. He believed that learning would be more enjoyable if the students were willing to take part in the classroom discussions. This shows that Ajarn set this goal based on his theoretical belief. According to Johnson (1995), teachers' theoretical beliefs are viewed as the philosophical principles, or belief systems, that guide the teachers' expectations and decisions. These beliefs are also thought to act as filters through which the teachers make instructional judgements and decisions. To reach this goal, this study found that he provided the large number of interactional feedback with life-content. Three possible benefits from this verbal feedback could be identified as follows. Firstly, this verbal feedback stimulated the students' thinking about their personal knowledge or experiences in terms of the lesson being studied. Consequently, the lessons became more inspiring to the students since they had a chance to connect themselves with the topics being studied. Secondly, interactional feedback containing life-content could create a positive classroom atmosphere where the students engaged in sharing their personal thoughts, knowledge, and experiences in the class. The positive classroom atmosphere could be seen by the laughter and teasing between Ajarn and the students (see Excerpt 4 in Section 6.3.3, Chapter 6 for a sample of this situation). As Sullivan (2000) explained, the use of humour enhanced the students' enjoyment of their classroom interactions and motivated them to continue participation. Thirdly, the use of this verbal feedback also reflected Ajarn's positive attitudes, in particular his friendliness, liveliness, sincerity, loving, caring, and concern about the students' well-being. All these constituted the building of trust and intimate climate in the classroom community where the students could feel more at ease and comfortable about communicating with Ajarn. Equally important, the use of interactional feedback with life-content also reflected how Ajarn assumed the typical role of a Thai teacher whose job as a second parent to the students in teaching them morality and knowledge of the world.

It can be concluded that after observing Ajarn's classroom, I found that he provided instruction that was consistent with his theoretical beliefs as mentioned previously.

In all of his lessons, Ajarn tried to encourage the students to participate in classroom discussions more by using interactional feedback containing life-content because he believed that learning would be more enjoyable if the students took part in the classroom discussions. Moreover, when he enhanced the students' enjoyment of their classroom interactions and motivated them to continue participation, this provided the students with extensive opportunities to become more affiliated with the course content (Sullivan, 2000).

7.6.4 Discussion of the Findings on Reaching the Teacher's Fourth Personal Teaching Goal

Concerning the personal teaching goal of improving the students' English speaking skill, I found that Ajarn's teaching seemed to respond well to this goal. To help the students improve their English speaking skill he helped the students recognise the importance of learning English and also giving them an opportunity to speak English as much as possible in class. According to the interview data, Ajarn stated that frequent small talk with the students on how a strong command of English could be beneficial to their future studies and career would help them recognise the importance of learning English. As a result, the students might want to put more effort into their studies. However, the observation data showed that Ajarn had this kind of small talk with his students only once. In this small talk, he tried to encourage the students to learn more than one language, as it might be useful for them in their future career.

Moreover, to improve the students' English speaking skill, the data of this research showed that Ajarn provided verbal feedback which gave the students an opportunity to speak English as much as possible in class. For example, through evaluative feedback strategies which prompted the students to self-repair such as elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and giving clues, Ajarn created opportunities for negotiation of form or content by promoting more active student involvement in the error treatment process. In addition, for interactional feedback, since it focused on the content of the students' contributions more than their accuracy or correctness of information supplied or of the linguistic form used, it provided opportunities for the

students to speak more in classroom discussions. In particular, when Ajarn used comment which was one of interactional feedback strategies responding to the students' contributions, the interaction between Ajarn and the students became more natural. Furthermore, he was quite conscientious with the students in terms of using English as a means of communication in the classroom. Consequently, I observed that the students in this class made an attempt to speak English with Ajarn. Still, there were times when the students gave their responses in Thai. When this occurred, through his verbal feedback Ajarn would request the students to try to provide the response again in English.

Ajarn's encouragement and support for the students' participation through his evaluative and interactional feedback described previously was congruent with what Mitchell (1973) discusses that one of the teachers' responsibilities is to help students improve language skills themselves through their talk. These skills can be improved partly by imitating the teachers, but the skills can be developed more by participation in two way communication. Therefore, the way in which teachers interact with their students is very important because it can either support or hinder students' language and thinking development. It can be concluded that teacher-student interaction plays a main role in students' language development, especially for students who have hardly ever used English for communicating outside class, and particularly in the formal classroom environments found in Thailand where students are not encouraged to initiate conversation.

Moreover, to improve the students' English speaking skill by encouraging the students to speak English as much as possible in class, Ajarn asked the students to give a presentation. According to the interview data, he claimed that asking the students to give a presentation could force them to speak English. Since the students had to practice the presentation several times, he thought that this might help them improve their English speaking skills.

7.7 Chapter Summary

This classroom-centred research explored how a Thai teacher's verbal feedback, in

relation to the course objectives and his personal teaching goals, provided or blocked opportunities for the students to achieve those objectives and goals. Based on the rich, in-depth, vivid, unique descriptions of the data, the present study provides the following main findings.

Firstly, after the teacher recognised that it was difficult to expand the students' intercultural business communication knowledge which was the course objectives and his first personal teaching goal; he set the other three goals to enable them to reach these objectives and this goal. These goals were: to help the students become independent learners, to encourage the students to participate in classroom discussions more, and to help the students improve their English speaking skill. Moreover, I found that these three personal teaching goals were developed from his personal and teaching experiences such as the experience of succeeding in his life because of knowing foreign languages, the experience of teaching the students of this course in the last semester, and the experience of teaching Thai students who appear to be dependent learners. Finally, the teacher tried to teach the students or create the classroom climate according to his personal teaching goals.

Secondly, the teacher used a high proportion of interactional feedback, but a very low proportion of evaluative feedback because one of his personal teaching goals was to encourage the students to participate in classroom discussions more. Furthermore, since the students' proficiency in English speaking skill was low, and they were quite shy and lacked self-confidence, the students hardly participated in classroom discussions. Consequently, the teacher tried to avoid providing evaluative feedback for the students' contributions. He also explained that if their contributions were often evaluated or corrected, this could increase their level of anxiety and discourage their participation in further discussion.

Thirdly, among five strategies of evaluative feedback: explicit correction, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, giving clues and criticising, explicit correction was the predominant strategy used by the teacher. In the current study, this strategy was not indeed primarily an evaluative or corrective feedback, but it was used for correcting the students' misunderstanding. Moreover, the teacher preferred to use evaluative feedback strategies that prompted the students to self-repair, rather than correcting or

criticising the students' contributions immediately because he wanted the students to negotiate the correct form and content of their previous contributions. These strategies prompting the students to self-repair were: elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and giving clues. As the teacher explained in the interview (see Excerpt 8, lines 10-14, in Chapter 4), the negotiation of correct form or content could help the students research ideas, expand thinking from what he taught, and encourage the students to speak in order to respond to his evaluative feedback. Furthermore, among these strategies, elicitation was the predominant strategy used by the teacher. The interpretation for the high occurrence of this strategy might be because it seemed to be a simpler and more effective strategy for the students whose English proficiency was low to comprehend or be aware about their previous contributions whether they were correct or not because the teacher asked for more explanation or confirmation from them.

Fourthly, among five strategies of interactional feedback: questioning, comment, elaboration, repetition and reformulation, questioning was the predominant strategy used by the teacher. The teacher used a large amount of questioning because of the students' low English ability he might have viewed questioning as a suitable strategy. This strategy created an opportunity for the students to expand upon their original contributions. Moreover, by asking a related or additional question through his verbal feedback, the teacher could suggest that the students needed to think further or explore a particular aspect they might have overlooked. Questioning also showed that he was interested in the students' contributions because he tried to pursue more information. Besides questioning, another interactional feedback strategy which the teacher quite often used was comment. This strategy could promote natural and communicative language in the classroom. As I observed the classroom and analysed the transcripts, interactional feedback strategies made the students not only talk far more, but they also talk far better in response to the teacher's verbal feedback.

Fifthly, there were three types of teacher verbal feedback content: study-content, life-content, and procedure-content. Most of the verbal feedback given by the teacher in his teaching contained study-content which provided the course content and some academic suggestions such as improving language proficiency and giving a

presentation effectively. Although it was found that evaluative feedback was used the most frequently in order to provide study-content, sometimes the teacher provided this type of content through interactional feedback. Moreover, teacher verbal feedback containing the area of life-content which contained the information about personal experiences and general knowledge was interactional feedback. After analysing the transcripts, I found that the teacher received continuous responses from the students during the time when interactional feedback containing life-content was provided. Therefore, this feedback made the lesson more interesting and meaningful to the students because they had an opportunity to make use of their common background knowledge and personal experiences in relation to the lesson being studied. Interactional feedback containing life-content could also encourage the students to participate more actively in the classroom discussions. Finally, the teacher hardly provided verbal feedback containing procedure-content which was used for dealing with disruptions and threats to classroom order because this class was for postgraduates so he tried to make them feel free to express their opinions.

Finally, the teacher tried to use his verbal feedback and design and implement activities (e.g., giving a presentation) which were well matched to his students' existing knowledge and skills in order to help students reach the course objectives and his personal teaching goals. For the course objectives and his first personal teaching goal, the teacher attempted to expand the students' intercultural business communication knowledge. To achieve these objectives and this goal, he used both evaluative and interactional feedback strategies focusing on study-content (the course content) and asked the students to give a presentation about doing business with the country which they were interested in. For the second personal teaching goal, the teacher tried to help the students become independent learners. This goal, as the teacher believed, could be achieved through making the students feel confident about what they did by giving them support. Therefore, he provided interactional feedback which urged and supported the students to participate in classroom discussions more than evaluative feedback. He also used evaluative feedback strategies prompting the students to self-repair. These strategies made the students be aware about their contributions and seek out correct answers without depending upon the teacher. For the third personal teaching goal, the teacher tried to encourage the students to participate in classroom discussions more. To reach this goal, he provided a lot of

interactional feedback, in particular with life-content. This verbal feedback stimulated the students' thinking about their personal knowledge or experiences in terms of the lesson being studied. It also could create a positive classroom atmosphere where the students engaged in sharing their personal thoughts, knowledge, and experiences in the class. For the fourth personal teaching goal which focused on improving the students' English speaking skill, the teacher helped the students accomplish this goal by helping them recognise the importance of learning English, and also giving them an opportunity to speak English as much as possible in class. In summary, although it was difficult to pinpoint whether the students achieved the course objectives and the personal teaching goals, the teacher's efforts would have had a positive influence on the students to some degree; that is, they were automatically kept alert and motivated towards their learning. This can be seen through the students' attempts to give answers when the teacher encouraged them to do through his verbal feedback (see excerpts in Chapter 5 for examples of this situation).

With these valuable findings, in the following chapter, I will address the implications, the strengths of this study and the suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

The current study was an analytic and descriptive classroom-centred research which aimed to investigate three aspects of the teacher's verbal feedback in relation to the course objectives and the personal teaching goals the teacher had for his students to accomplish. This research was conducted at the Department of Languages of the Faculty of Applied Arts of a public university in Thailand for about ten weeks. The findings from this study were based on classroom observations and an interview with the participant teacher. The data were analysed by both quantitative and qualitative methods. The quantitative method entailed the calculation of frequencies and percentages of the aspects of the teacher's verbal feedback. Based on these quantitative data, a qualitative analysis of the transcripts was then made to describe the occurrence of each aspect of verbal feedback provided by the teacher in his teaching. The qualitative methods also entailed the interpretation of the teacher's verbal feedback to consider the degree to which he provided opportunities for the students to reach the course objectives and the personal teaching goals he established for the students to accomplish.

In the following sections I first discuss the implications for teachers in Thailand and for teacher education in Thailand. Next, strengths of this study are explained. Finally, I provide suggestions for future research.

8.2 Implications

Based on the findings in the present study, two implications are drawn. The first implication is for teachers in Thailand; and the second one is for teacher education in Thailand. These implications are described in the following sections.

8.2.1 Implications for Teachers in Thailand

1. To increase interactional feedback with different areas of content

The major issue that emerged from the findings of this research on teacher verbal feedback functions was in agreement with previous research conducted by Wells (1993), Farooq (1998), Hughes and Westgate (1998), Rex and McEachen (1999), Boxer and Cortés-Conde (2000), Boyd and Maloof (2000), Duff (2000), Nassaji and Wells (2000), Sullivan (2000), and Oberli (2003) which suggested that interactional feedback was the most frequent function provided in the classroom where a teacher wanted to encourage students to talk far more or support them to participate in classroom discussions. Based on the findings of the current study, in using interactional feedback, it is further advised that teachers consider relating different areas of content in their interactional feedback. For example, teachers may attempt to use interactional feedback strategies that connect students' personal feelings (life-content: personal) or information with things (life-content: general knowledge) with what students learn in class (study-content). This would lead to more involvement and personal associations in the students' comments about aspects of the study of the course content or about a discussion topic at the moment.

In this research, interactional feedback with both study-content and life-content provided benefits for the teacher as it could encourage the students to participate in classroom discussions more. Especially, interactional feedback containing study-content provided benefits for the teacher as it could also provide the information about the course content. As mentioned previously, since the students' proficiency in English skills was not good sometimes it was difficult for the teacher to lecture on the course content to the students in English. Consequently, the teacher tried to lower his teaching standard and adapt his teaching techniques in order to be appropriate for the students. Normally, when the teacher raised a discussion topic about the course content previously taught or being taught at the moment, the students hardly expressed their opinions about it. Since it was the topic which the teacher had already known its information, he could evaluate or correct the students' contributions. Consequently, the students might be too concerned about their mistakes to dare to talk in the discussion because as I observed the students'

behaviours in the classroom, I found that normally they could barely ask or respond to any question without assistance from the teacher. Therefore, in order to provide an opportunity for his students to understand the course content more easily, the teacher tried to use a new way of teaching. He attempted to create a safe learning climate where the students could express their opinions freely, and he also could lecture on the course content to the students. In so doing, firstly, the teacher raised a discussion topic close to the students' interests such as their personal information or their personal and general knowledge which demanded from the students' opinions, explanation or conjectures. Then after the students gave contributions, through his interactional feedback strategies such as questioning, comment, and elaboration containing study-content he attempted to relate the course content to the students' personal and general knowledge or life experiences at appropriate times during the discussion. Therefore, the students had an opportunity to connect the area of study being learned to their previous knowledge or life experiences. This might help them to understand some concepts about the course content previously taught or being taught at the moment more easily. Furthermore, as I observed the classroom, the lessons became more interesting and meaningful to the students, and the students were more energetic and enthusiastic to participate in the discussions.

As I discussed in Section 7.3, Chapter 7, normally Thai students are shy and lack self-confident when they speak English. Although they have studied English for many years, they have never actually had to speak English. Moreover, they tend to be passive and answer only direct questions (Forman, 2005; Jittisukpong, 2005). Consequently, given the previously mentioned positive impact of interactional feedback with different areas of content, i.e., study-content and life-content, I recommend that teachers in Thailand increase this feedback more in their teaching. Based on this feedback, it may encourage students to employ their background knowledge, personal feelings, experiences, and opinions in relation to the content of the lesson. This, I believe, will enhance the students' involvement because they find that the topic of discussion is meaningful to them.

2. To increase evaluative feedback strategies prompting students to self-repair

Another issue that sprang from the findings on teacher verbal feedback is the use of evaluative feedback strategies. According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), Cazden (1988), Edwards and Westgate (1994), Wells (1999), and Myhill *et al.* (2006), in the classroom, a teacher is the person in authority whose job is to impart knowledge and skills. The teacher's task is also to evaluate and correct the students' performances according to the criteria he or she sets. The students are relatively passive recipients of knowledge, and they also expect the teacher to be totally in charge of their learning. As such, the typical pattern of classroom interaction in the transmission model is IRF (Initiation–Response–Feedback) (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975). In this IRF pattern, normally a teacher initiates talk in the classroom (usually by questioning), one of the students who is expected to provide a brief but correct answer to the question responds to it. Then after the teacher evaluates the student's response with such phrases as "Good," "That's right," or "No, that's not right", the student's participation to dialogue is hindered because he or she thought that the exchange ended and the teacher wants no further information from him or her. However, evaluative feedback has some merit in that sometimes teachers have to provide evaluative feedback for serious incorrect information which students give because if they ignore it, this may make the students misunderstand.

As the current study showed, the structure of the teacher's evaluations differed, depending on whether the students' contributions are correct or incorrect. If a contribution was correct, through his evaluative feedback strategies the teacher would repeat that contribution as an affirmation or offer positive reinforcement to the students before asking for further explanation or giving the next initiation. When a contribution was incorrect, through the strategies of evaluative feedback the teacher would repeat the question, or modify the question, or give another initiation with acceptability clues as an indication of how the question should be answered correctly. However, after analysing the transcripts, it could be concluded that the teacher preferred to use evaluative feedback strategies that prompted the students to self-repair such as elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and giving clues, rather than explicit correction and criticising. In using these strategies, the teacher attempted to encourage the students to research ideas and expand thinking from what he taught.

Moreover, since the students had to negotiate the correct form or content of their previous contributions, this negotiation encouraged them to speak more. Similarly, as Lyster and Ranta (1997) discuss, evaluative feedback strategies such as metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and clarification requests of error create opportunities for negotiation of form or content by promoting more active student involvement in the error treatment process.

Given the previously mentioned positive impact of evaluative feedback strategies which prompt students to self-repair such as elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and giving clues, I recommend that teachers in Thailand increase these strategies more in their teaching. In using these strategies of evaluative feedback, teachers can sustain a discussion. Therefore, it is not only interactional feedback, but also evaluative feedback strategies which prompt students to self-repair and as such both can promote more students' participation in the classroom. Moreover, since Thai students normally lack self-confidence and are shy when they speak English teachers should provide these strategies. If they tell the students directly and immediately that their contributions are incorrect, it may make them lose face and lack self-confidence. Consequently, next time they would not be willing to talk again. As Ajarn explained in Excerpt 7, Section 4.3, Chapter 4, correcting the students' contributions may break the flow of discussion because most Thai students are afraid of making mistakes. If their contributions are often evaluated or corrected, this can increase the level of anxiety and discourage the students' participation in further discussion.

3. To organise patterns of classroom communication meeting course objectives and teaching goals, and being appropriate for students' abilities, interests and motivation

In addition to the issue about teacher verbal feedback, the patterns of communication in the classroom should be taken into consideration. As mentioned earlier in Section 7.3, Chapter 7, Thai culture gives an importance to studying. Because of this, teachers are highly respected by students, parents and by society. According to Simon (2001: 340 cited in Forman, 2005: 100), the teacher's role is described as that

of ‘friend and helper of pupils in master-disciple relationship’. Moreover, the teachers, who have a much higher status than students, are regarded as second parents whose task is not only to impart knowledge to students but to teach morals and mold the students to be good citizens in the society as well. The image that is generally assigned to a teacher is that of a *righteous individual* who is expected to be right and ready to provide knowledge at all the times. As such, students are trained to be quiet and respectfully listen to the teacher whatever the teacher says rather than to initiate or negotiate the outcome of the learning process.

As I observed the pattern of classroom communication in this research, I found that the pattern was similar to the IRF pattern—teacher Initiation, student Response, and teacher Feedback (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975). I found that the teacher was the authority who controlled classroom communication; he maintained the right to talk to any students in the class at any time. In view of this factor, the social status of teachers and students mentioned above, we can understand more clearly why the teacher in the present study or Thai teachers need to maintain their ‘righteous’ and ‘impartor’ of knowledge’ image through the use of teacher-front orientation and IRF pattern. However, I found that although the teacher in this research depended on IRF pattern, he tried to break this pattern by providing interactional feedback more than evaluative feedback. As Wells (1993) explains, although the teachers often questioned students, instead of closing down the exchange with a short evaluation of the students’ answers, they more often asked the students to elaborate or clarify, and in other ways treated their responses as valuable contributions to the continuing discussion. It can be concluded that ‘in the hands of different teachers, the same basic discourse format can lead to very different levels of student participation and engagement’ (Nystrand and Gamoran, 1991 cited in Wells, 1999: 169). Therefore, it can be used by the same teacher, in different contexts, to achieve very different purposes.

According to Johnson (1995), the ways in which teachers organise the patterns of classroom communication often depend on the pedagogical purpose of the lesson. For this study, based on observing the classroom, interviewing the teacher, and analysing the transcripts, I found that the teacher organised the pattern of communication in the classroom by depending on the course objectives and his

personal teaching goals. Since the course objectives and one of his personal teaching goals was to provide knowledge about intercultural business communication for the students, when the teacher raised a discussion topic about it, he exerted greater control over patterns of communication in order to impart as much as knowledge as possible to his students and make sure that they all received that knowledge. Therefore, he carried this responsibility by giving recitation, using a known question-answer mode of interaction, and providing evaluative feedback. In so doing, he could be sure that he fulfilled his job as a good teacher and at the same time retaining the power to control what went on in the classroom as well. On the other hand, after he recognised that the students hardly participated in a classroom discussion because their proficiency in English speaking skill was not good, he was willing to lower his teaching standard and adapt his teaching techniques in order to be appropriate for them. If the teacher depended too much on IRF pattern, his teaching behaviours would block opportunities for the students to participate in classroom discussions. Since one of his personal teaching goals was to encourage the students to participate in classroom discussions more, he tried to create a relaxing and friendly classroom climate where the students could contribute freely. Consequently, the teacher changed his verbal feedback function. With an aim to promote the students' participation, he provided interactional feedback more than evaluative feedback. As mentioned earlier, interactional feedback focuses on the content of students' contributions more than their accuracy or correctness of information supplied or of the linguistic form used. As such, the use of interactional feedback encouraged the students to participate in classroom discussions more. It can be concluded that the teacher in the present study tried to adjust his use of verbal feedback according to the course objectives and his personal teaching goals. As Walsh (2002) explains:

appropriate language use is more likely to occur when teachers are sufficiently aware of their goal at a given moment in a lesson to match their teaching aim, their pedagogic purpose, to their language use. Where language use and pedagogic purpose coincide, learning opportunities are facilitated; conversely, where there is a significant deviation between language use and teaching goal at a given moment in a lesson, opportunities for learning and acquisition are missed.

(Walsh, 2002: 5)

Given the previously mentioned organisation of patterns of classroom communication, I recommend that teachers in Thailand should organise patterns of communication which meet course objectives and their teaching goals, and are appropriate for students' abilities, interests and motivation.

8.2.2 Implications for Teacher Education in Thailand

Considering the findings of the present study and the implications discussed in the previous section, I propose the following suggestions for teacher education in Thailand.

1. To provide knowledge about the use of teacher verbal feedback

An emphasis should be placed on the use of teacher verbal feedback as it is a central part of teaching and learning. Research in ESL/EFL classrooms shows evidence that the predominant use of evaluative feedback does not give opportunities for students to expand on their thinking, justify, or clarify their opinions, or make connections to their own experiences. Evaluative feedback simply lets students know that their previous contributions were incorrect. The dominance of evaluative feedback in the ESL/EFL classroom, therefore, seems to block the opportunity for students to engage in extended discourse on real topics, using real language, and real time. However, evaluative feedback had some merit in that it can foster students' participation if teachers use evaluative feedback strategies which prompt students to self-repair. Furthermore, research indicates that interactional feedback benefits in the classroom where a teacher wants to encourage students to talk far more or support them to participate in classroom discussions. If used in the classroom, in consequence, it can provide students with opportunities to engage in an extended discussion.

In accordance with the current emphasis on communicative language teaching and the new concept of the teaching/learning process suggested earlier, teacher education may implement the goal of providing verbal feedback to promote the students' thinking skills and communicative abilities rather than to let students know how well

they have performed. Based on this goal, initially, teacher educators might provide teachers with basic knowledge about characteristics of teacher verbal feedback such as functions of teacher verbal feedback, strategies of teacher verbal feedback, and benefits or drawbacks of teacher verbal feedback functions. Teacher educators then might put an emphasis on interactional feedback as they evidently can engage students in real communication. This might be done by providing more information about how various levels of interactional feedback help improve the students' thinking abilities. In the light of this, teacher educators may find the research by Cullen (2002) useful. This research provides detailed information about the pedagogical importance of teacher verbal feedback in the context of classroom interaction.

Moreover, it is recommend that teacher educators present to teachers the ideas of relating different areas of content in their verbal feedback. According to Fanselow (1988), the content of teacher verbal feedback consists of three main areas: Life, Procedure, and Study. Typically, ESL/EFL teachers provide verbal feedback that contains only one area, i.e., study-content. Such verbal feedback is no doubt 'evaluative feedback.' As the focus now is shifted toward incorporating more interactional feedback in teaching, teachers need to take into consideration the relation of different areas of content such as life-content (general or personal knowledge) with study-content. In so doing, teachers can provide students with opportunities to reflect on their background knowledge or personal experiences or opinions in connection with the new knowledge of the lesson. As a result, students are engaged in more meaningful communication in the classroom.

Finally, it is noted that teacher educators should bear in mind that teaching is a decision-making process. As such, the teacher educator's task is not to prescribe but to provide information which would serve as a knowledge base for the teachers to draw upon when making their own plans and decisions. For example, in the current study, after the teacher recognised that it was difficult to help the students expand their intercultural business communication knowledge, he decided to lower his teaching standard and adapt his teaching techniques in order to be appropriate for his students. If he did not do these, the students could not get any knowledge from his class. Furthermore, the information about classroom verbal feedback will help the

teachers become aware of all the possibilities in deciding the appropriate functions, strategies and content of verbal feedback to use to promote the students' thinking and communicative abilities, while taking into account the objectives of the course and their own teaching goals, the students' abilities and motivation, and time available.

2. To reconceptualise the organisation of patterns of classroom communication

The primary issue that teacher education needs to consider is to reconceptualise the organisation of patterns of communication in the classroom. Instead of only reinforcing the traditional concept of teaching as teacher-controlled or teacher-directed, or IRF pattern, teacher educators can implement a concept of organising patterns of communication in the classroom that depend on course objectives and teachers' teaching goals. Such a concept is that teachers can organise patterns of communication in their classrooms to meet course objectives and their teaching goals, and be appropriate for their students' abilities, interests and motivation. For example, if teachers want to impart as much knowledge as possible to their students and make sure that they all received that knowledge, the role of the teacher in this process is as an authority and imparter of knowledge. Therefore, teachers can organise patterns of classroom communication as teacher-controlled or teacher-directed, or IRF pattern. Based on this IRF pattern, the majority of verbal feedback teachers provide will be evaluative feedback which focuses on the accuracy or correctness of information supplied or of the linguistic form used of students' contributions, whose content is categorised as study-content. On the other hand, if teachers expect their students to be active participants who are responsible for constructing their own personal knowledge, the role of the teacher in this process is no longer as an authority and imparter of knowledge, but a facilitator, facilitating the students' learning by providing a setting in which the students can play an active and inquiring role in their own learning. Moreover, their pattern of classroom interaction (IRF) and classroom organisation (teacher-controlled) has to be broken by instead of closing down the exchange with a short evaluation of the students' contributions, teachers should provide interactional feedback in order to ask students to elaborate or clarify their contributions.

If the concept of the organisation of patterns of classroom communication mentioned above can be initially implemented, it might then lead to change in the teaching practices since teachers will look at their classrooms through new eyes and with new understanding. Furthermore, the social distance between teachers and students in Thai culture, which is the important barrier to the sharing of knowledge, negotiation of learning, and free flow of communication in Thai EFL/ESL/ESP classrooms, will be narrowed since the teachers will attempt to work through to teach according to the new understanding of the organisation of patterns of communication in the classroom.

8.3 Strengths of the Study

As previously mentioned in Chapter 2, I was interested in investigating three neglected areas: the content of teacher verbal feedback; teacher verbal feedback in ESP postgraduate classrooms; and teacher verbal feedback in relation to course objectives and teachers' personal teaching goals. Therefore, the present study addressed these gaps along with other important aspects of teacher verbal feedback, namely, functions and strategies by investigating how teacher verbal feedback provides or hinders opportunities for postgraduates to accomplish course objectives and teachers' personal teaching goals. I had also designed this research with a hope of contributing to research on teacher verbal feedback in Thailand.

Although there was only one participant because he met the criteria I set for the selection of the participants, I was not concerned about the generalisability of the study's findings because this study could provide the rich, in-depth, vivid, unique descriptions of teacher verbal feedback in relation to the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals. Since the teaching context of the participant teacher's classroom can reflect in a sense the culture of the wider ESP postgraduate teaching community, the findings might have been more representative with a larger sample in a number of classrooms, or allow for comparisons to be made across classrooms. Moreover, the present study has been documented in such a way as to permit others in situations they regard as similar in certain respects to make decisions

about whether any part of the findings and conclusions drawn here might be applied and tested in other contexts.

8.4 Suggestions for Future Research

This classroom-centred research is an attempt to examine the provision of verbal feedback of a Thai teacher in an ESP postgraduate classroom. The study also investigated whether the use of the teacher's verbal feedback, in particular the function, strategy and content of verbal feedback, could provide or block the opportunities for the students to accomplish the course objectives and the teacher's personal teaching goals he set for the students. It is hoped that the findings, discussions, and implications presented earlier will contribute to the classroom-centred research on the area of teacher verbal feedback in the Thai ESP postgraduate context. Moreover, as the process of developing this research enabled me to raise awareness and generate new ideas of teaching. However, I suggest that there is no best way to teach. The kind of teaching that works in one setting is not guaranteed to work in another, different setting. Therefore, readers/ teachers should not attach themselves to only one way or method that works the best. Instead, they should consistently explore new ways of teaching practices. It is also my hope that this research might provide some insights to the readers/ teachers to begin the journey of exploring their teaching.

However, as this research is one of a few studies in the area of teacher verbal feedback in the ESP context, it, therefore, raises the following suggestions for future studies.

1. The findings of the current study indicated that the majority of verbal feedback the teacher provided in teaching an ESP postgraduate class was interactional feedback, urging and supporting the students to participate in classroom discussions. Further study should be conducted to investigate whether the use of teachers' verbal feedback, in particular the function, strategy and content of verbal feedback, in different level of education, i.e., primary, secondary or undergraduate classes, or in different subject classes, i.e., EFL/ESL, would bear similar results. This

investigation was beneficial as it would provide us more information on whether different teaching situations would affect the use of teacher verbal feedback.

2. As this research dealt with a Thai teacher, a similar analytic and descriptive research should be carried out to explore the use of classroom verbal feedback by native speakers of English in relation to their teaching goals. This study would enable us to gain more insights about how teachers from different cultures perceive the teaching and learning process and establish goals in teaching, as well as teach towards their goals.

3. It would be interesting to conduct an experimental study about the students' attitudes towards the teachers' use of verbal feedback. The data collection in this research might be done by both quantitative method—responding to questionnaires—and qualitative method—a series of interviews. Furthermore, both quantitative and qualitative data analysis could be employed in the study. The information gained from this study might be beneficial to teacher education in its preparation of novice teachers to suit the education reform in Thailand.

4. It would also be interesting to conduct a research to investigate the strategies of interactional feedback according to different levels of thinking that will engage the students' involvement by providing verbal feedback. As Hall and Walsh (2002) point out, a motivating learning climate is characterised by teachers' contributions that encourage students to participate by asking them to elaborate on their responses, comment on the responses of others, and propose topics for discussion. Therefore, teachers' selection of verbal feedback is important for this climate. As such, this research would assist teachers in providing suitable verbal feedback to stimulate the students' participation.

REFERENCES

- Allwright, D. (1983) Classroom-centred research on language teaching and learning: A brief historical overview, *TESOL Quarterly*, 17(2): 191-202.
- Allwright, D. and Bailey, K. M. (1991) *Focus on the Language Classroom: An introduction to classroom research for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bailey, K. M. (1985) Classroom-centred research on language teaching and learning. In Celce-Murcia, M. (ed.) (1985) *Beyond Basics: Issues and research in TESOL*. Cambridge: Newbury House. pp. 96-119.
- Barlow, D.H. and Hersen, M. (1984) *Single Case Experimental Designs: Strategies for studying behaviour change*, 2nd edn. New York: Pergamon Press Inc.
- Bellack, A., Kliebard, H., Hyman, R. and Smith, F. (1966) *The Language of the Classroom*. New York: Teacher College Press.
- Bogdan, R.C. and Biklen, S. K. (2007) *Qualitative Research for Education: An introduction to theory and methods*, 5th edn. New York: Pearson.
- Boxer, D. and Cortés-Conde, F. (2000) Identity and ideology: Culture and pragmatics in content-based ESL. In Hall, J. K. and Verplaetse, L. S. (eds.) (2000) *Second and Foreign Language Learning Through Classroom Interaction*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum. pp. 203–219.
- Boyd, M. and Maloof, V. M. (2000) How teachers can build upon student-proposed intertextual links to facilitate student talk in the ESL classroom. In Hall, J. K. and Verplaetse, L. S. (eds.) (2000) *Second and Foreign Language Learning through Classroom Interaction*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum. pp. 163–182.
- Buck, R., Lee, M-O., and Midgley, C. (1992) Teachers' goals, beliefs, and perceptions of school culture as predictors of instructional practice, *ERIC*, viewed 25 August 2006.
<http://eric.ed.gov/ERICDocs/data/ericdocs2sql/content_storage_01/0000019b/80/13/01/89.pdf>
- Cazden, C. (1988) *Classroom Discourse: The language of teaching and learning*. Portsmouth. N.H.: Heinemann.
- Chaudron, C. (1988) *Second Language Classrooms: Research on teaching and learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Clandinin, D. and Connelly, F. (1991) Narrative and story in practice and research. In Schön, D. (ed.) (1991) *The Reflective Turn: Case studies in and on educational practice*. New York: Teachers College Press. pp. 258-281.

- Cohen, L. and Manion, L. (1994) *Research Methods in Education*, 4th edn. London: Routledge.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., and Morrison, K. (2007) *Research Methods in Education*, 6th edn. New York: Routledge.
- Creswell, J. W. (1998) *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing among five traditions*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Cullen, R. (2002) Supportive teacher talk: the importance of the F-move, *ELT Journal*, 56(2):117-127.
- Dalis, G. T., Strasser, B. B., Loggins, D. C. and Cowan, R. (1975) Teaching strategies and the classroom (Report No. SP 012601). California: Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 153961).
- Day, R. R. (1990) Teacher observation in second language teacher education. In Richards, J. C. and Nunan, D. (eds.) (1990) *Second Language Teacher Education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. pp. 43-61.
- DeWalt, K. and DeWalt, B. (1998) Participant observation. In Bernard, H. R. (ed.) (1998) *Handbook of Methods in Cultural Anthropology*. Walnut Creek: AltaMira Press. pp. 259-300.
- Dillon, J. T. (1994) *Using Discussion in Classrooms*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Dudley-Marling, C. and Searle, D. (1991) *When Students have Time to Talk: Creating contexts for learning language*. Portsmouth, N.H.: Heinemann.
- Duff, P. (2000) Repetition in foreign language classroom interaction. In Hall, J. K. and Verplaetse, L. S. (eds.) (2000) *Second and Foreign Language Learning Through Classroom Interaction*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum. pp. 109–138.
- Edwards, D. and Mercer, N. (1987) *Common Knowledge: The development of understanding in the classroom*. London: Methuen.
- Edwards, D. and Westgate, D. (1994) *Investigating Classroom Talk*. London: Falmer Press.
- Ellis, R. (1984) *Classroom Second Language Development*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Elliot, S. (1976) A study of individualised, personalised teaching (Report No. SP 479023). Philadelphia, PA: Temple University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 161864).
- Fanselow, J. F. (1987) *Breaking rules*. New York: Longman.

- Fanselow, J. F. (1988) What kind of a flower is that?: An alternative model for discussing lessons. In Fine, J. (ed.) (1988) *Second Language Discourse: A textbook of current research*, v. 25. Norwood, NJ: Ablex. pp. 59-85.
- Fanselow, J. F. (1990) "Let's see": Contrasting conversations about teaching. In Richards, J.C. and Nunan, D. (eds.) (1990) *Second Language Teacher Education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. pp. 182-197.
- Farooq, M. U. (1998) *Analyzing Teachers Questioning Strategies, Feedback and Learners' Outcomes*, viewed 5 August 2006.
<<http://www.cels.bham.ac.uk/resources/essays/farooq1.pdf>>
- Forman, R. (2005) *Teaching EFL in Thailand: A bilingual study*. PhD Thesis. Sydney: University of Technology, Sydney, viewed 5 January 2008.
<<http://epress.lib.uts.edu.au/dspace/bitstream/2100/552/2/02whole.pdf>>
- Foster, P. (1996) Observational research. In Sapsford, R. and Jupp, J. (eds.) (1996) *Data Collection and Analysis, Part II Data Collection*. London: Sage Publications. pp. 57-93.
- Francis, G. and Hunston, S. (1992) Analysis everyday conversation. In Coulthard, M. (ed.) (1992) *Advances in Spoken Discourse Analysis*. London: Routledge. pp. 123-161.
- Gaies, S. J. (1983) The investigation of language classroom process, *TESOL Quarterly*, 17(2): 205-216.
- Garcia, A. L. (2005) The effect of teacher feedback on EFL learners' functional production in classroom discourse, *Anglogermanica Online* 2005, viewed 8 April 2006.
<<http://www.uv.es/anglogermanica/2005/Llinares.htm>>
- Gay, L. R. (1996) *Educational Research Competencies for Analysis and Application*. New York: Macmillan.
- Grossman, P. L. (1990) *The Making of a Teacher: Teacher knowledge and teacher education*. New York: Teachers College.
- Hall, J. K. and Walsh, M. (2002) Teacher-student interaction and language learning, *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 22: 186-203, viewed 2 October 2006.
<<http://journals.cambridge.org/download.php?file=%2FAPL%2FAPL22%2FS0267190502000107a.pdf&code=7314ff2644da046f28e851f47f408cbf>>
- Hatch, J. A. (2002) *Doing Qualitative Research in Education Settings*. Albany, New York: State University of New York Press.
- Hewings, M. (1992) Intonation and feedback in the EFL classroom. In Coulthard, M. (ed.) (1992) *Advances in Spoken Discourse Analysis*. London: Routledge. pp 183-196.

- Hopkins, D. (2002) *A Teacher's Guide to Classroom Research*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Hughes, M. and Westgate, D. (1998) Possible enabling strategies in teacher-led talk with young pupils, *Language and Education*, 12(3): 174-191.
- Hullen, W. (1989) Investigation into classroom discourse. In Dechert, H. (ed.) (1989) *Current Trends in European Second Language Acquisition Research*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Jittisukpong, P. (2005) Teaching and learning English in Thailand in the new era, *Kasem Bundit Journal*, 6(2): 94-99.
- Johnson, K. (1995) *Understanding Communication in Second Language Classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kincheloe, J. and McLaren, P. (1994) Rethinking critical theory and qualitative research. In Denzin, N. and Lincoln, Y. (eds.) (1994), *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Newbury Park: Sage Publications. pp. 138-157.
- Konold, K. E., Miller, S. P. and Konold, K. B. (2004) Using teacher feedback to enhance student learning, *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 36(6): 64–69, viewed 2 October 2006.
<http://www.cec.sped.org/Content/NavigationMenu/AboutCEC/International/StepbyStep/ResourceCenter/InstructionalStrategiesCurriculum/VOL.36NO.6JulyAugust2004_TEC_Konold_36-6.pdf>
- Lee, Y. (2007) Third turn position in teacher talk: Contingency and the work of teaching, *Journal of Pragmatics*, 39(6): 180-206, viewed 17 July 2008.
<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science?_ob=ArticleURL&_udi=B6VCW-4MS9R5P-1&_user=126770&_rdoc=1&_fmt=&_orig=search&_sort=d&view=c&_version=1&_urlVersion=0&_userid=126770&md5=ae3eebd1eb0467cb56592959abf0386>
- Lightbown, P. M. and Spada, N. (2006) *How Languages are Learned*, 3rd edn. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lincoln, Y. S. and Guba, E. G. (1985) *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Lynch, T. (1996) *Communication in the Language Classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lyster, R. and Ranta, L. (1997) Corrective feedback and learner uptake, *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19: 37-66.
- Merriam, S. B. (1988) *Case Study Research in Education: A qualitative approach*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Merriam, S. B. (1998) *Qualitative research and case study: Applications in education*, Revised and expanded from case study research in education. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Miles, M. B. and Huberman, A. M. (1994) *Qualitative Data Analysis*, 2nd edn. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Mitchell, A. (1973) *Speech Communication in the Classroom*. London: Pitman Publishing.
- Musumeci, D. (1996) Teacher–learner negotiation in content-based instruction: communication at cross-purposes?, *Applied Linguistics*, 17(3): 286–325.
- Myhill, D., Jones, S., and Hopper, R. (2006) *Talking, Listening, Learning: Effective talk in the primary classroom*. Berkshire: Open University Press.
- Nassaji, H. and Wells, G. (2000) What’s the use of ‘triadic dialogue’?: An investigation of teacher-student interaction, *Applied Linguistics*, 21(3): 376-406.
- Nespor, J. (1984) Issues in the study of teachers’ goals and intentions in the classroom, *ERIC*, viewed 25 August 2006.
<http://eric.ed.gov/ERICDocs/data/ericdocs2sql/content_storage_01/0000019b/80/32/22/d2.pdf>
- Nunan, D. (1992) *Research Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. and Lamb, C. (1996) *The Self-Directed Teacher*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Oberli, C. (2003) *Questioning and Feedback in the Interactive Classroom: Exploring strategies*, viewed 16 December 2006.
<<http://www.cels.bham.ac.uk/resources/essays/oberliM1A.pdf>>
- Oxford Centre for Staff and Learning Development, Oxford Brookes University. (2008) Independent learning: some ideas from the literature. *Learning and teaching resources and support, Learning*, viewed 4 March 2009.
<http://www.brookes.ac.uk/services/ocsd/2_learnth/independent.html>
- Panova, I. and Lyster, R. (2002) Patterns of corrective feedback and uptake in an adult ESL classroom, *TESOL Quarterly*, 36(4), 573-595.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990) *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods*. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.
- Rex, L. A. and McEachen, D. (1999) “If anything is odd, inappropriate, confusing, or boring, it’s probably important”: The emergence of inclusive academic literacy through English classroom discussion practices, *Research in the Teaching of English*, 34, 65-129, viewed 7 December 2008.
<<http://www-personal.umich.edu/~rex/RT0341Anything.pdf>>

- Richards, J. and Lockhart, C. (1996) *Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Schofield, J.W. (1993) Increasing the generalisability of qualitative research. In Hammersley, M. (ed) (1993) *Educational Research: Current issues*. London : Paul Chapman.
- Seidman, I. E. (2006) *Interviewing as Qualitative Research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences*, 3rd edn. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Sinclair, J. and Coulthard, M. (1975) *Toward an Analysis of Discourse: The English used by teachers and pupils*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Spradley, J. P. (1979) *The Ethnographic Interview*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Spradley, J. P. (1980) *Participant Observation*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Strauss, A. and Corbin, J. (1990) *Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.
- Suk-a-nake, R., Heaton, S. L., Chantrupanth, D., Rorex, P. D. (2003) Thai university EFL learners' oral responses to various spoken question types, *SLLT*, 12: 19-32, viewed 5 January 2008.
<<http://www.sc.mahidol.ac.th/sclg/sllt/Issue2.pdf>>
- Sullivan, P. (2000) Spoken artistry: performance in a foreign language classroom. In Hall, J. K. and Verplaetse, L. S. (eds.) (2000) *Second and Foreign Language Learning Through Classroom Interaction*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum. pp. 73–90.
- Taylor, L. and Fu, S. (2006) Aspects of teachers' feedback on students' contributions in class, *IATEFL Research SIG Newsletter*, viewed 26 August 2008.
<<http://associates.iatefl.org/pages/materials/pd20.doc>>
- Tesch, R. (1990) *Qualitative research: Analysis Types and Software Tools*. New York: Falmer Press.
- Thornton, S. J. (1985) How do teachers' intentions influence what teachers actually teach and what students experience? *ERIC*, viewed 25 August 2006.
<http://eric.ed.gov/ERICDocs/data/ericdocs2sql/content_storage_01/0000019b/80/32/15/f9.pdf>
- van Lier, L. (1988) *The Classroom and the Language Learner*. New York: Longman.
- Walsh, S. (2002) Construction or obstruction: teacher talk and learner involvement in the EFL classroom, *Language Teaching Research*, 6(1): 3–23.

Wells, G. (1993) Reevaluating the IRF sequence: a proposal for the articulation of theories of activity and discourse for the analysis of teaching and learning in the classroom, *Linguistics and Education*, 5(1): 1-37.

Wells, G. (1999) *Dialogic Inquiry: Toward a sociocultural practice and theory of education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Informed Consent Form

Researcher: Miss Yaowaret Tharawoot, MPhil/ PhD student of School of Education, University of Southampton, United Kingdom

Supervisor: Professor Mike Grenfell

Purpose of the Study:

The purpose of the study is to examine multiple aspects of a teacher and students interaction.

Procedures Involved in this Study:

The study will be conducted from the first week of December 2006 and continuing until the second week of February 2007. In this study the data collection procedures can be divided into two main procedures: observation and interview. The researcher will conduct the classroom observations by using audio recording and accompanied by field-notes. After the end of the observations, the interview will be conducted with the teacher by the researcher. It aims to obtain as much information as possible regarding the teacher's perceptions, experiences, thoughts, points of view, and teaching goals.

Changing Your Mind about Participation:

Your participation in this research is voluntary. You are free to withdraw from participation at any time. To do so, indicate this to the researcher by saying, "I no longer wish to participate in this study".

Confidentiality:

If you choose to participate, all information will be held on strict confidence. To ensure the confidentiality of individuals' data, each participant will be identified by a participant identification code known only to the researcher. Moreover, only the

researcher will have accessed to the data obtained from classroom observations and interview. Then, these data will be destroyed after my study is finished. If you have any questions regarding this study at any time, you may discuss them with me at ++66 (0)8 7210 6966, ++44 (0)77 3815 7865 or e-mail me at yt@soton.ac.uk. Moreover, if you have any questions about your rights as a participant in research, please feel free to contact School of Education, University of Southampton at ++44 (0)23 8059 3475 or soeadmin@soton.ac.uk . You will be given a copy of this form to keep.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please sign the statement below. Thank you very much for your help. I greatly appreciate your willingness to cooperate and participate in this study.

I have read and understood the information on this form and I consent to be the participant in this study. I understand that my responses are completely confidential and that I have the right to withdraw at any time.

Name (Please print) _____
Signature _____
Date _____

Appendix B: Interview Data Categories

1. Personal information
 - 1.1 Name
 - 1.2 Age
 - 1.3 Educational background
 - 1.4 Teaching experiences
 - 1.5 Working experiences

2. Past learning experiences

3. Information about the course being taught
 - 3.1 Nature of the course
 - 3.2 Textbook (s) used
 - 3.3 Course requirements
 - 3.4 Course objectives

4. Personal teaching goals for students

5. Strategies of teaching towards the course objectives and the personal teaching goals

6. Teaching procedures
 - 6.1 Preparation in teaching a lesson
 - 6.2 General steps of teaching a lesson

7. Reflection
 - 7.1 On characteristics of a good teacher
 - 7.2 On Thai students
 - 7.3 On own teaching
 - 7.4 On own provision of verbal feedback

Appendix C : Transcription Conventions

| | | |
|---------------------|---|--|
| (.) | = | brief pause |
| (xxx) | = | unclear speech – impossible to transcribe |
| < > | = | additional comments on way of speaking and any feature which I wish to comment on, and description |
| ... | = | stopping talking |
| (Speaks Thai – ...) | = | translation from Thai to English |

Appendix D: The Transcribed Teacher-Student Discussions 1 (TTSD 1)

Participants: Ajarn = Aj

Student 1 = S1

Student 2 = S2

Student 3 = S3

Duration: 1 hour 44 minutes

- 1 Aj: Why you said you have so many things to do such as?
- 2 S2: Such as work on my office and teaching my students.
- 3 Aj: Are you a tutor?
- 4 S2: Yes. I'm a tutor.
- 5 Aj: You are a tutor so you have your tutees. How many tutees?
- 6 S2: Ah, eight
- 7 Aj: Eight.
- 8 S2: persons <completing S2's statement in line 6>
- 9 Aj: So in one class or different time?
- 10 S2: No, different time and many subjects.
- 11 Aj: Ok, what do you teach?
- 12 S2: Mathematics and chemistry for Entrance. <Thailand's college and university entrance>
- 13 Aj: Uh huh. So that's why you don't have time.
- 14 S2: What?
- 15 Aj: So that's why you don't have time. So that's the reason why you don't have time, enough time for your study.
- 16 S2: I can share time to study to work and to do special job. <laughing>
- 17 Aj: Uh huh. Do you think you can manage your time wiser?
- 18 S2: Sleeping less and work hard.
- 19 Aj: That's not the point. <laughing>
- 20 S2: What did you ask? <not being sure about her answer meeting the teacher's question or not>

- 21 Aj: That's not the point. I mean that how can you manage your time wisely. If you say that normally you sleep eight hours a day, so maybe you think you just sleep six hours or four hours.
- 22 S2: Yes, and when I do something, I must to be attended When I work, I'm very try attend.
- 23 Aj: Ok. That's a good point. But if you sleep late, you think you can work more effectively.
- 24 S2: Yes. <laughing>
- 25 S3: But I think if I sleep late, not about four or five hours I wake up in the morning after I'm confused. I cannot remember yesterday or past time.
- 26 Aj: Ok. So you are going to say that you can't concentrate on thing you are doing or going to do.
- 27 S3: Yes.
- 28 Aj: Ok. How's about your New Year? <nominating S1>
- 29 S1: I'm watching television and sleep and I want to take a rest.
<laughing>
- 30 S2: <laughing>
- 31 Aj: Not special at all on your New Year day.
- 32 S2: That's special for me. <laughing>
- 33 Aj: Did you go to any countdown places?
- 34 Ss: No. No. <laughing>
- 35 S1: Because the bomb and have no money.
- 36 Aj: Uh huh. How's about you? <nominating S3>
- 37 S1: I still on train because I go to the south.
- 38 Aj: You went back to your hometown?
- 39 S1: No, my boyfriend's hometown.
- 40 Aj: Oh, I see.
- 41 S1: When the bomb occurred on the thirty or thirty-one <hesitating>
- 42 Aj: The thirty-first.
- 43 S1: Thirty- first. I sit down or I sit on the train and call to my mother. She's working at night on Ratchadaphisek road. Bomb occurred Ratchada Soi 8, mother told me, but my mother's working at Soi 4.
- 44 Aj: Soi 4.

45 S2: What's about...? <looking at and asking Aj>

46 Aj: I celebrated my New Year with my family members. I cooked what in Thai we call Gra-por bplaa. <Thai food's name>

47 S3: Sorry, do you have family?

48 Aj: No, my parents. You shouldn't ask me about this. <laughing>

49 S3: I would like to know. <laughing>

50 Aj: That's ok. We have known for a few months already. That's fine. That's fine. But all of you here also stay single, right? You got married?

51 S2: No.

52 Aj: Any plan?

53 S2: No way.

54 Aj: Why don't you have any plan for getting married? <being surprised and laughing>

55 S1: Nobody likes me. <laughing>

56 Aj: It depends on, you know, normally I would like to tell that nowadays many working women prefer to stay single because they are independent. They can help themselves. They've got work, job, salary, money. Maybe no need to get a boyfriend or husband. But it depends on how you want your life, life style.

57 S2: But I want. <laughing>

58 Aj: Ok, you want. So wish you good luck and success. <laughing>

59 Ss: <laughing>

60 Aj: By the way, and also on New Year day we have the resolution, New Year resolution. What does it mean?

61 Ss: <being silent>

62 Aj: Do you understand what New Year resolution means?

63 S3: Solution in New Year?

64 S2: Solution. Solution, Gaan Gae Bpan-haa (Speaks Thai – solution)

65 Aj: No, resolution, not solution. New Year resolution.

66 S2: Resolution. <confused face>

67 S3: Good and bad things in the past time.

68 Aj: Not quite. It's something that you want to change about yourself or something in the past you want to do it better on the New Year, on the coming year.

69 S3: I see. I think I must more concentrate about my life.

70 Aj: Uh huh. So in what aspect? Because everyone's life too big, too general. In what aspect, you want to concentrate on your life as you said.

71 S3: Because I engaged already. <laughing and being shy>

72 Aj: Oh! Congratulation. <being surprised> So when?

73 S3: Thank you. My boyfriend, he got master degree already. So he must work in Surathani.

74 Aj: What work does he do?

75 S3: I don't know in English word. But I know rubber. You know?

76 Aj: Ok. The rubber industry.

77 S3: A lot of palm rubber.

78 Aj: Ok.

79 S3: Yes. So he thinks she and me think a lot.

80 Aj: Uh huh. About what?

81 S3: About business.

82 Aj: So why are you worried about that?

83 S3: Because it's far away.

84 Aj: Both of you are far away.

85 S3: Yes. So it's impossible. Because my mom and my cousins think it's impossible.

86 Aj: Impossible for what?

87 S3: Two person two persons...

88 Aj: I see. To separate. To stay separately when you get married.

89 S3: Yes, because I study two years.

90 Aj: Ok. So when are you making plan to get married? Sorry, it is quite too personal.

91 S3: I think beginning now. So I think after this term I have to think a lot (.) I must study or...

92 Aj: You will continue or you will stop

93 S3: Yeah.

94 Aj: So, that is a big decision.

95 S3: Yes. It's big problem.

96 Aj: Or maybe you get married, but you still keep on your study.

97 S3: But my mother thinks he looks for new girlfriend.

98 Ss: <laughing>

99 Aj: So you mean that...<laughing>

100 S3: And I look for...<laughing>

101 Aj: Another boyfriend. <laughing> How come? You must maintain your love, you should be stable enough. Not break up your love.

102 S3: I'm confused now.

103 Aj: Yeah. So you think love is not always happy. <laughing> So this's your plan. Ok. And what are your New Year resolutions?
<nominating S2> The foreigners always ask. Do you have any New Year resolution?

104 S2: Develop myself and efficiency.

105 Aj: In what way? Your look? Your intellectual?

106 S2: Everything in my life, I will do.

107 Aj: I don't want to hear everything. I want to hear a specific thing.
<laughing> Because you know Thai or students always say that anything or everything. I just want to hear that tell me just one or a few things.

108 S2: A few things. Um, I want to adjust and think more how plan I'm not sure. If I know answers I will tell you later.

109 Aj: In the interview, you cannot postpone your answers later on. They will not listen to the (xxx).

110 S2: Um, work hard more and interesting about some stories about my life, my family, my sister.

111 Aj: You mean that you will take good care of them, look after them? So what do you mean?

112 S2: <laughing> (Speaks Thai – Excuse me, what did you ask me?)

113 Aj: <smiling> Ok. What is your New Year resolution? <nominating S1>

114 S1: I'm going to practice my English and I'm going to manage about my time. And I'm going to spend more time with my mother.

115 Aj: How can you do that? So you have three New Year resolutions.

116 S1: Visit her more, take care of my mother.
117 Aj: Where's your mom?
118 S1: Sukhothai.
119 Aj: Ok. So how often do you think you can visit her? Twice a year?
120 S1: <laughing> One year. One time.
121 Aj: Once a year. That's not very often. <laughing>
122 S1: My mother, she lives alone.
123 Aj: Uh huh. So how's about her health? She's still healthy?
124 S1: Ok. But she's old, very old.
125 Aj: So maybe you just more than once time a year. Three times a year to visit her?
126 S1: Four times.
127 Aj: Is it possible?
128 S1: It's possible if one in three months.
129 Aj: Once per three months. Ok. And how's about practicing your English? How can you do that?
130 S1: I want to my listen and concentrate with my listen and conversation and writing.
131 Aj: You mean listening and speaking skills?
132 S1: Listening and speaking skills.
133 Aj: So all skills?
134 S1: All skills.
135 Aj: And how can you do that?
136 S1: I'm going to watch TV with News Line every night.
137 Aj: So you have cable TV at home?
138 S1: No. <laughing>
139 Aj: No.
140 S1: And in my cyber dict.
141 Aj: Ok. And how's about your speaking skill?
142 S1: Speaking skill.
143 Aj: How can you improve your speaking skill?
144 S1: I want to practice with my friends.
145 Aj: Who? Do you have any foreign friends?
146 S1: I have my foreigner friend in America.

- 147 Aj: And how often do you meet him or her?
- 148 S1: She comes and now she went to Pakistan. Next month, next time she will come.
- 149 Aj: She will come and visit you here?
- 150 S1: Yes.

Appendix E: Coding Scheme

| Transcripts | Move | Category of Information | Teacher Verbal Feedback | | |
|-------------|------|-------------------------|-------------------------|------------|---------|
| | | | Functions | Strategies | Content |

Move:

| | |
|------------|-----|
| Initiation | = I |
| Response | = R |
| Feedback | = F |

Category of information:

| | |
|---------------------------|-------|
| Assumed Known Information | = AKI |
| Negotiatory Information | = NI |
| Personal Information | = PI |

Teacher verbal feedback functions:

| | |
|------------------------|------|
| Evaluative feedback | = EF |
| Interactional feedback | = IF |

Teacher verbal feedback strategies:

Evaluative feedback

| | |
|-------------------------|--------------------|
| Explicit correction | = EC |
| Recasts | = Rc |
| Clarification requests | = CR |
| Metalinguistic feedback | = MF |
| Elicitation | = E |
| Repetition | = Rp ^{EF} |
| Giving clues | = GC |

Criticising = Cr

Interactional feedback

Reformulation = Rf

Elaboration = El

Comment = C

Repetition = Rp^{IF}

Questioning = Q

Teacher verbal feedback content

Life = L

Procedure = P

Study = S

Appendix F: Description of Inter-Coder Reliability

$$\text{Reliability} = \frac{\text{Number of Agreements}}{\text{Number of Agreements} + \text{Number of Disagreements}}$$

| Categories of Teacher Verbal Feedback | Coder 1 | Coder 2 | Agreement | Disagreement | Reliability |
|---------------------------------------|---------|---------|-----------|--------------|-------------|
| Functions | | | | | |
| Strategies | | | | | |
| Content | | | | | |

Appendix G: Course Syllabus of Intercultural Business Communication

Course Description

1. Process and functions of communication
2. Principles underlying communication behaviour
3. Practice in analysing communication through oral and written discourse

Course Objectives: After the course, students will be able to

1. Define major concepts in cross-cultural communication and intercultural business communication.
2. Apply different approaches to deal business with people from different countries around the world.
3. Appreciate the cultural diversity of people in business communication.

Teaching Methods

- | | |
|--|-----|
| 1. Lecture | 25% |
| 2. Lecture and discussion | 25% |
| 3. Brainstorming and discussion of case study so that students learn to analyse and solve problem | 25% |
| 4. Making a summary of the main points or presentation of the results of researching or the assigned task | 25% |

Evaluation

- | | |
|---|-----|
| 1. Final exam | 40% |
| 2. Assessment of work or classroom activities | 20% |
| 3. Assessment of the assigned tasks | 20% |
| 4. Quizzes | 10% |
| 5. Class attendance | 10% |

Recommended and Reference Books

1. Badger, I. (2003) *Everyday Business English*. Great Britain: Scotprint, Haddington.
2. Badger, I. and Pedley, S. (2003) *Every Business Writing*. Great Britain: Scotprint, Haddington.
3. Comfort, J. (2000) *Business across Cultures*. England: York Associates.
4. Dales, P. and Wolf, J. C. (2000) *Speech Communication Made Simple: A Multicultural Perspective*, 2nd edn. New York: Addison Wesley Longman.
5. Gibson, R. (2000) *Intercultural Business Communication*. Spain: Oxford University Press.

Suggested Websites

1. Home-Doing Business- The World Bank Group:
[www.doingbusiness.org/usiness in the Asia-Pacific](http://www.doingbusiness.org/usiness%20in%20the%20Asia-Pacific): www.msi-network.com/content/db/asia-pacific/doing_business_in_asiapacific.aspx
2. Cross-cultural communication – Wikipedia, the free encyclopaedia:
[en. wikipedia.org/wiki/Cross-cultural_communication](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cross-cultural_communication)
4. Cross-Cultural Communication:
www.colorado.edu/conflict/peace/treatment/xcolcomm.htm