

**A STUDY OF STUDENT-LECTURER INTERACTION IN COMMUNICATION AND  
STUDY SKILLS CLASSES AT THE UNIVERSITY OF BOTSWANA**

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## **ABSTRACT**

This thesis examines classroom talk amongst students and lecturers at the University of Botswana (UB). It aims to find out whether or not classroom interaction can help to develop students' oral skills in Communication and Study Skills (CSS) classes at UB. The mixed methods approach was used and three research instruments were explained as follows; twenty-seven classroom observations and systematic observations were used amongst nine lecturers who offered CSS to first year students. In addition, there were two phases of lecturer interviews and one phase of students' interviews. All three research instruments were used to analyse the classroom discourse quantitatively and qualitatively.

Using the Initiation, Response, Feedback (IRF) analytical tool and the Sociocultural Theory (SCT), it was found out that generally, a combination of the lecturers' initiation and their feedback of the interaction were high as illustrated by 62%, indicating that the lecturers dominated classroom talk. Nine (9) CSS lesson extracts were used to analyse the classroom discourse qualitatively. From the nine lecturers observed, nine lesson extracts were analysed using one of the teaching transactions. The findings revealed that the lecturers teaching style contributed to the quality of classroom interaction. Secondly, the length of the teaching strands indicated the quality of classroom talk. All students and lecturers' interviewed had mixed views about the quality of classroom interaction. They all felt that there was need for effective spoken interaction and that students were passive during classroom interaction.

The findings from this thesis act as an eye-opener regarding how interaction takes place in the CSS classrooms. Furthermore, since this is a pioneering study on classroom interaction at UB, it will act as a referral point for future studies within the institution and other institutions of higher learning in Botswana.

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## **AUTHOR'S DECLARATION**

I hereby declare that this thesis is original work of mine except where due reference is made.  
This work has not previously been presented for an award at this, or any other University.

# **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

## **1.1 Introduction**

This chapter explores the background to this study and its context. The context of the study focuses on the research problem, the research gap and motivation of the study. The aforementioned three aspects not only place the study in context, but are also inter-related. Section 1.4 reports on the aims of the study. Following the aims the research questions are identified, and finally the organisation of the thesis.

## **1.2 Background to this Study**

This particular study investigated student-lecturer interaction at the University of Botswana (UB). The objective of the study was to establish whether or not students interact during CSS lessons. The focus was mainly on the types of responses that they provide during the aforementioned lessons. The students' responses were considered together with the initiations and the feedback, all of which contribute to quality classroom interaction. In order to determine the nature of classroom interaction, a closer look into these three interactional moves were considered. In relation to the students' responses, the focus was on whether these were elaborate, short or simple. Regarding the initiations, the focal point was on how lecturers asked students questions, in terms of identifying whether these were open or closed. On the other hand, how lecturers provided students with information was considered. Just like the students' responses, the concentration was on whether the information provided was elaborate or short. More attention was also given relating to feedback. In cases where there was feedback, how much of it was provided, and what kind of the feedback was given was investigated. Finally, the relationship of the aforementioned three aspects that contribute to classroom interaction was considered. This was done, by considering whether the teaching exchanges were short or long. Generally, all the above considerations were able to shed some light on whether or not the students are helped to develop their oral communicative skills.

### **1.3 Context of the Study**

Research has shown that most of the time classrooms are dominated by teacher talk (e.g., Arthur & Martin, 2006; Basturkmen, 2003; Hardman, Abd-Kadir & Smith, 2008; Hargreaves, Moyles, Merry, Paterson, Pell & Esarte-Sarries, 2003; Kasule & McDonald, 2006; Njuguna, 2012; Tabulawa, 1998). Another most significant current discussion in Discourse Analysis is that lecturers still dominate classroom interaction (e.g., Basturkmen, 2003; Bentley, 2010; Xie, 2008). In all the various educational contexts presented above, there is a concern regarding teacher/lecturer domination of classroom talk.

Questions have been raised, however, about students' articulation in Botswana tertiary education, more especially in undergraduate programs (The Republic of Botswana, 1994). From a linguistic angle, one of the aims of the Communication and Study Skills Unit is that students should communicate effectively by using amongst others, spoken forms for academic and professional purposes (University of Botswana, 2006; 2011; 2014). However, from my observation as a CSS lecturer for seven years, when students are asked to talk in the classroom, most of them -feel it is like a 'burden' and not a strategy that will help them whilst still studying, or even during their life after university, whether in the work-place or during social occasions. It seems the students associate classroom talk in CSS classes with the lecturer providing them with information (lecturer centeredness) rather than them contributing more talk in class (student centeredness).

In addition to the concern raised above, there is no study that has been carried out on classroom interaction at the University of Botswana. Students and lecturers interact in the classroom during CSS, but how they interact has not been investigated. In addition, the extent to which students and lecturers interact in CSS classes has not been examined. Central to the entire discipline of classroom interaction, it is argued that although interaction has been widely studied in settings such as the United Kingdom, Asia, the United States of America and Australia, in some settings it has not, or only little has been done (Ohta, 2000; Rowley-Jolveti, & Carter-Thomas, 2005). However, based on the above authors' observation and my own experience, no studies have investigated classroom interaction in higher learning in Botswana. The existing studies in Botswana have concentrated on classroom interaction in some of the primary and secondary schools only. As a result of the foregoing reasons, this

thesis attempts to fill the existing research gap regarding classroom interaction in CSS classes. Generally, the preceding state of affairs has motivated me to carry out this study.

#### **1.4 Aims of the Study**

This study aimed to find out whether or not classroom interaction can help to develop students' oral skills in Communication and Study Skills (CSS) classes at UB. The research examined the amount of initiation, response, feedback moves provided in the classes and drew some conclusions regarding classroom interaction based on the quantity and quality observed. Additionally, the aforementioned three moves were measured by the amount of information provided by both lecturers and students. The quality of student-lecturer interaction in the CSS classes was studied because the main purpose of these classes is to develop the students' oral communication skills (University of Botswana-2006; 2012; 2014).

#### **1.5 The Research Questions**

This study has three main research questions and under each there are four sub research questions, as indicated below:

##### Main research question 1:

What kinds of interactions occur between students and lecturers in CSS classes?

##### Sub-questions:

- 1.1 What kinds of questions are asked by the lecturers?
- 1.2 What kinds of responses do the students provide?
- 1.3 What kinds of feedback (if any) do the lecturers provide?
- 1.4 To what extent are lecturer-student interactions extended?

##### Main research question 2:

From the lecturers' perspectives, how successful are classroom interactions in terms of developing their students' communicative competence?

##### Sub-questions:

- 2.1 How successful are the questions provided by the lecturers?
- 2.2 How successful are the responses provided by the students?

2.3 How successful is the feedback (if any) provided by the lecturers?

2.4 How successful is the overall classroom interaction?

Main research question 3:

From the students' perspectives, how successful are the classroom interactions in terms of developing their communicative competence?

3.1 How successful are the questions provided by the lecturers?

3.2 How successful are the responses provided by the students?

3.3 How successful is the feedback (if any) provided by the lecturers?

3.4 How successful is the overall classroom interaction?

## **1.6 The Organisation of the Thesis**

This thesis is made up of nine chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the study by focussing on important aspects such as background, context of the study and its aims. Additionally, the chapter addresses the research questions that drove this study.

Chapter 2 examines Botswana's overall educational system. This covers the University of Botswana, which further extends to the Communication and Study Skills Unit. The secondary and primary school contexts are also outlined. The foregoing educational context is examined to help situate the study and illuminate on the type of classroom interaction studied in this thesis.

Chapter 3 critically reviews the literature with three main aspects that shed some light on classroom interaction in CSS classes. The first part explores classroom interaction. The theoretical framework that was used to bench-mark the said classroom interaction follows together with related theories. The related analytical tools will be examined with more emphasis on the tool used for this study.

Chapter 4 presents and evaluates the methodology that was used in collecting data for this study. A mixed method approach was used to allow triangulation of the results, and ultimately solicited rich data regarding lecturer-student interactions. Also, important aspects of the study are discussed, such as the sample, data collection and data analysis procedures. Finally, the ethical considerations that were employed are interpreted as an indication that the data collection was carried out within the expected research guidelines.



The next three chapters present the findings of this study. Chapter 5 presents and analyses the quantitative results, which are drawn from the systematic observations. The overall initiation, response and feedback moves used in the CSS classes are analysed. Drawing from the said overall picture, each of the moves are also studied with the initiation moves also examining in-depth the type of questions that were used in the CSS classes. The whole chapter focuses on the quantitative results of the study.

Chapter 6 centres on analysing the discourse that was used in the CSS classes. Particular attention was focused on one of the teaching boundaries, from one of the three lectures observed per each lecturer. This chapter addresses the qualitative results of the study.

Chapter 7 expands on the last two chapters by bringing to the fore the perceptions of both the lecturers and the students regarding classroom interaction. This is another qualitative results chapter used to support the data from the first two analysis chapters (5 and 6).

Chapter 8 discusses the findings of the three analysis chapters and consolidates the main claims of this study. This is done by using the three main research questions of this study, as signposts.

The last chapter in this thesis (chapter 9) sums up the whole study by highlighting the implications and recommendations for classroom interaction. It also addresses the limitations and provides some suggestions for further research.

## **CHAPTER 2: CONTEXT OF THE STUDY**

### **2.1 Introduction**

There is substantial information about Botswana's educational system. However, this chapter has trimmed the information only to address the education system with a focus on student-lecturer interactions in Communication and Study Skills (CSS) classes taken by first year students at the University of Botswana. This chapter examines three broad issues that relate to student-lecturer interactions. The first section focuses on the background of the University of Botswana (UB) and of the Communication and Study Skills Unit, because the latter contributes to the educational structures of UB. Secondly, the chapter evaluates the Botswana secondary and primary school system, because the students go through the said educational structures before joining the university. Finally, this chapter discusses the medium of instruction in Botswana educational structures. A synopsis of the language used in Botswana schools sheds some light on spoken interaction in CSS classes. Further, an evaluation of the aforementioned helps the understanding of the state of educational affairs in Botswana, and ultimately draws informed conclusions from the study.

### **2.2 The University of Botswana**

Since 1982 the University of Botswana (UB) was the only state university in Botswana, until in August 2012 when the Botswana International University of Science and Technology (BIUST) was opened. The UB's vision is to be a leading academic centre of excellence in Africa and the world (University of Botswana, 2008; 2012; 2014). The UB has seven faculties namely, Business, Education, Engineering and Technology, Health Sciences, Humanities, Science, and Social Sciences.

The University of Botswana has two semesters that together make up a whole academic year. The academic year starts in August of one year and ends in May of the following year. The first semester starts in August and ends in December of the same year. The second semester, which marks the end of UB's academic year, starts in January and ends in May of the same year. At the end of each semester there are examinations carried out and these contribute to the students' overall grade on completion of the programme of study. The said overall grade is normally calculated as a Grade Point Average (GPA).

The UB admits three cohorts of students; one group of the students, which comprises the majority of students admitted to UB are pre-service. These are mostly the students who have successfully completed their Botswana General Certificate of Secondary Education (BGCSE). The said students are from government secondary schools, which admit a higher number of students. Further to the preceding cohort of secondary school leavers are a minority who have successfully completed the International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE). This latter group in Botswana is made up of students who attended private schools. Finally, UB admits in-service students from various employment sectors in the country. These could be from government, parastatal or private.

The classrooms at UB are designed in the following two ways: One of these, which is the most common, is that the chairs and the tables are screwed onto the floor in a horizontal manner facing the lecturer's table and the white board. Additionally, there is presentation equipment, which is comprised of a computer resting on a podium and an overhead projector (OHP) next to the lecturer's table. Figure 2.1 below illustrates the common seating arrangement.

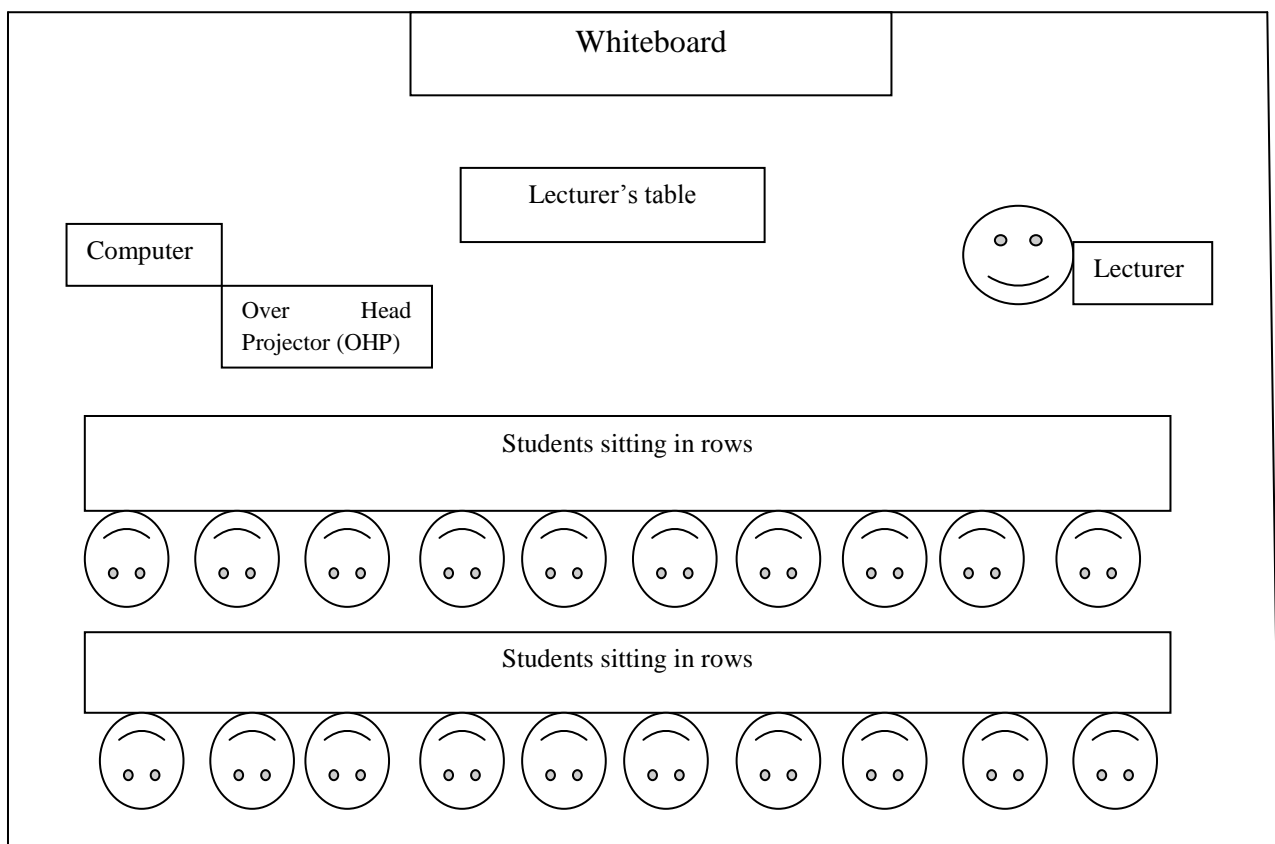


Figure 2.1: The common seating arrangement in the University of Botswana classrooms

The second seating arrangement, which is not common, is that the movable chairs and tables are set up in groups. The students sit in these groups and face the lecturer and the whiteboard, and the lecturer's table. Additionally, some of the classrooms have the presentation equipment, which is comprised only of a computer resting on a podium. This uncommon seating arrangement is found in newly built classrooms. Figure 2.2 below illustrates the uncommon seating arrangement at UB.

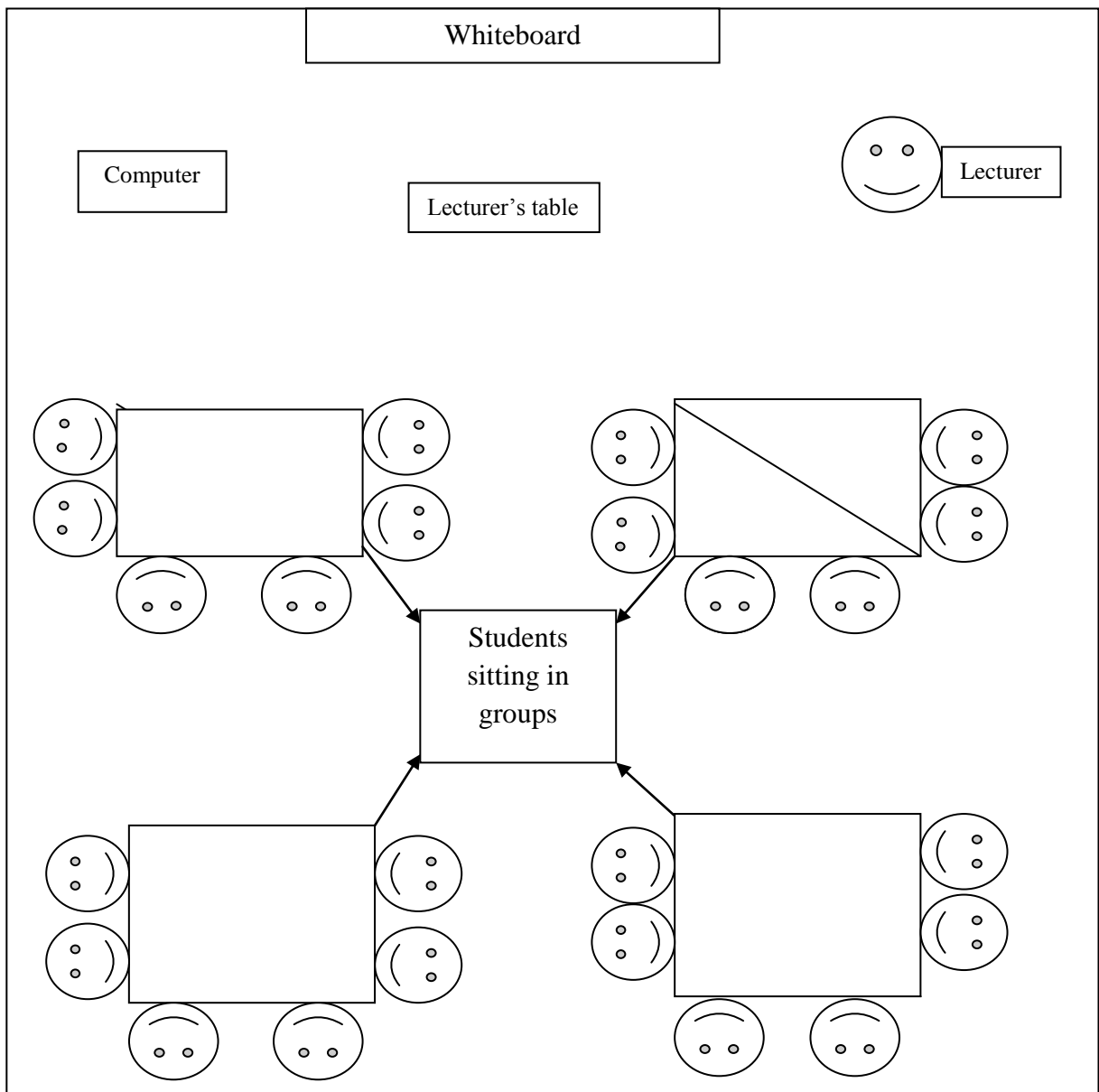


Figure 2.2: The uncommon seating arrangement in the University of Botswana classrooms

Previous studies have reported that a relationship exists between the physical classroom organisation and the tasks carried out therein (Galton, 1996; Galton, Hargreaves, Comber,

Wall & Tony, 1999). Other studies have explicitly considered the importance of physical classroom organisation. Kelly & Stafford (1993) found that, “the importance of the physical environment including seating arrangements as well as strategies which can be used to encourage effective participation by all members in the group.” (p.18). Thus, working as a group facilitates classroom talk amongst students. Recent evidence further suggests that physical organisation of the classrooms can facilitate classroom talk (Leftein & Snell, 2014). It can be argued that the students can talk more or less depending on how they sit in the classroom. This argument is used later on in this thesis to determine the nature and success of classroom talk in CSS classes.

### **2.3 The Communication and Study Skills Unit (CSSU)**

The Communication and Study Skills Unit is at the moment one of the General Education Courses (GEC). The GEC’s are courses within the UB that are designed to service the whole University to help the students acquire various skills irrespective of the faculty in which the student is studying. The courses are compulsory in the first year unless a student studied them before joining the university. The latter could be the case if the student joins the UB as an in-service students (refer to section 2.2). Further, students are exempted if there is proof in the form of a transcript, that they studied and passed the course within a period of 1 to 5 years. Communication and Study Skills also offers post year one courses as options within the GEC program (University of Botswana, 2006; 2014).

In this study, CSS is a skill based course offered to all the first year students at the UB. Failure to successfully pass CSS results in the student re-taking the course, as it is compulsory. If the student fails, he/she does not graduate at the end of the course (University of Botswana, 2012). In 2010/2011 academic year, the course code changed from GEC to COM with all the seven faculties within UB having different course codes, as follows:

Business: COM 121 and 122

Education COM 161 and 162

Humanities: COM 111 and 112

Engineering and Technology: COM 131 and 132

Health Sciences: COM 101 and 102

Science: COM 141 and 142

Social Sciences: COM 151 and 152

(Source: University of Botswana, 2012, 2014)

For each of the course codes above, one is for the first semester and the other is for the second semester. The first course code is meant to lay the foundation regarding academic literacy, and the second one is to develop what was learnt in semester one, with more emphasis on developing professional skills. It can be claimed that during the first semester the classroom talk addresses a number of literacies, whilst in the second semester it is more specific. Another point worth mentioning is that each of the faculties above form clusters, in order to draw the course outline that will be used in each of the two semesters.

## **2.4 Botswana Secondary Schools**

In Botswana, there are both government and private secondary schools, just like the primary schools discussed in section 2.5. These two are discussed in the sub-sections that follow in this thesis.

### **2.4.1 Government Secondary Schools**

Government secondary schools are divided into junior and senior secondary schools. The aforementioned are two separate institutions in terms of location and the programs of study. A junior secondary school is three years namely Form 1, 2 and 3. There is no automatic progression from junior to senior secondary education. There is an examination that the students sit for, at the end of their third year (Form 3) of junior school, for them to acquire a Junior Certificate (JC). Based on the students' good academic performance, they are then placed in a senior secondary school for two years to pursue Form 4 and 5. In Form 5 the students sit for the Botswana General Certificate of Secondary Education (BGCSE). It is good academic performance in the BGCSE that determines the students' progression to the University of Botswana. For some years the students were offered free education at government schools until in 2006 when there was the introduction of school fees (IRIN Africa, 2005).

## **2.4.2 Private Secondary Schools**

There are some private secondary schools in Botswana and the school fees are much higher than those of government secondary schools. The private secondary school programs do not have junior and senior school like the government schools. The students automatically progress from Form 1 to 5. As indicated at section 2.2, students in private schools can progress to another year to pursue the International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE). On the basis of good academic results in both BGCSE and/or the IGCSE the students are admitted to the University of Botswana.

## **2.5 The Botswana Primary Schools**

Primary schools are run by both the government, and the private sector, and pupils enrol for seven years. The difference between these two is that government primary schools offer free education to the pupils whilst parents have to pay for the private ones. Although government schools are free, and the government encourages all children to attend, attendance is not compulsory (Spaull, 2011). However, research has established that about 16% of the children who are eligible to attend, are still missing from government primary schools (Chilisa, 2002; Pansiri, 2008). The government primary schools are divided into lower and upper primary. The lower primary is from Standard 1 to 4 and at Standard 4, the pupils write attainment test. The said test determines whether one progresses to the next level or repeats Standard 4. On the other hand, the upper primary is from Standard 4 to 7. Within the government run primary schools there has always been automatic promotion to junior secondary schools after Standard seven, which is the final year at primary school. However, there was a paradigm shift at the beginning of 2014 because the parents of the pupils, who did not do well at the end of Primary school, could let their children repeat (Republic of Botswana, 2013). The preceding paradigm shift affected the pupils who obtained a Grade D or Ungraded, both of which are 'fail' grades. The grades at Botswana primary schools range from A to Ungraded.

## **2.6 Medium of Instruction in all Three Educational Structures**

English is used as a medium of instruction in all the main educational structures in Botswana (primary and secondary schools as well as at the University of Botswana) (Republic of Botswana, 1994, p. 18). Even though this is the case, it is only in the first year of primary

school (Standard 1), that the medium of instruction is Setswana, except for English lessons. Setswana is regarded as the first language for most students although for some it is a second language. It can be claimed that the provision of English in primary schools adequately prepares students for university.

## **2.7 Chapter Summary**

This chapter presented an overview of the Botswana educational context. The main emphasis was on the University of Botswana and the Communication and Study Skills Unit. The aforementioned were looked into in order to create a platform that helps in the understanding of student-lecturer interaction. To further provide an illumination of the topic discussed in this thesis, the other educational structures in Botswana (primary and secondary schools) that provide the UB with students were considered.



## **CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter examines three main sections of the literature that relates to classroom interaction. The first section reviews the different key aspects of classroom interaction. The second section addresses the theoretical framework from other educational contexts leading up to the university level. Finally, the approaches and analytical tools relevant to this study are discussed. As in the case of the second section on the theoretical framework, a focus on the tools helps to explain the characteristics of classroom talk and how they can be measured.

### **3.2 Classroom Interaction: Key Aspects**

Classroom interaction has been found in the past and in this thesis, to have a number of key components which together help to understand student-lecturer talk in Communication and Study Skills classes. These key aspects are amongst others, the importance, the types and the pedagogical trend of classroom interaction.

#### **3.2.1 Classroom Interaction**

Classroom interaction is an important aspect of the text and it facilitates understanding in the classroom in a number of ways. According to Allwright (1984), classroom interaction is, “the fundamental fact of classroom pedagogy-the fact that everything that happens in the classroom happens through a process of live person-to-person interaction” (p. 156). By way of explanation, classroom interaction is very important in the classroom because it depicts the manner in which lecturers and students exchange oral information with each other. Also, how both the lecturers and the students talk reveals whether the teaching and learning is a success or not. For Oxford (1997), “in the L2 classroom, interaction relates to: (a) types of language tasks, (b) learners’ willingness to communicate with each other, (c) learning style dimensions affecting interaction, and (d) group dynamics” (p. 449). From the latter definition, four examples of what really happens during interaction are stated. Thus, the activities assigned to students in the classroom can help them to talk. Also, students can talk if they have the drive within them to do so (intrinsic motivation). Students can also talk depending on the approach that teachers apply in the classroom. Finally, how students

approach tasks when they are asked to work in groups contributes to classroom talk. Therefore, the two definitions above are similar because Oxford extends Allwright's, providing a clearer and more detailed picture of classroom interaction.

Relating the above working definitions to the UB context, students are assisted by their lecturers to acquire oral communicative competence. Both definitions above are useful to this thesis because the University of Botswana CSS classes are English as second language (L2) classrooms. The lecturers help students to learn through the use of their second language (L2), which for this study is English. Hardman (2008a) notes, "enabling students to become more adept at using language is seen as one of the major goals of education" (p.253). In Hardman's exploratory analysis of classroom talk, he was able to show that students have to be skilled in their use of language in order to develop the oral communicative skills. He further stated the benefit of being skilled in the use of language as a way of achieving the educational goals. Furthermore, in these classrooms, the lecturers and the students exchange oral information which unfolds in the teaching/learning style that the lecturer has planned. These could be in whole-class or group presentations. In addition, the educational goal, which is the motivation for my study, is achieved (refer to section 1.4).

### **3.2.2 Why is Classroom Interaction Important?**

Having reviewed what classroom interaction is in sub-section 3.2.1, this section reviews why classroom interaction is important. Miller (2004) gives a more embracing reason relating to the importance of classroom interaction and second language learning, pointing out that, "to view language as discourse, we need to incorporate a number of perspectives ... the importance of access to linguistic resources" (p. 292). Thus, numerous aspects have to be considered and these relate to classroom interaction and language. Based on Miller's observation some points relating to why interaction is important are reviewed below. Also, the reasons that follow involve a number of points of views that ultimately depict the importance of classroom interaction in learning contexts such as the University of Botswana-CSS classes.

### **3.2.2.1 Contributes to Dual Synergy**

A number of scholars have pointed out that classroom interaction is important for both learners and teachers. Relating to the aforementioned synergy, Hall and Verplaetse (2000) suggest that, “the oral interaction that occurs between teachers and students...-its role is especially consequential to the creation of learning environments and ultimately to the shaping of individual learners’ development” (p. 9). In providing the importance of interaction, the above authors think of teachers and students as the main contributors to the interaction. This is because neither a teacher nor students can talk alone. Additionally, they point out that during the interaction process, students are the main focus as the process helps them to develop orally. Developing on the idea raised by Hall and Verplaetse (2000) above, Smith and Higgins (2006) assert that, “emphasis has often been placed on teacher talk and, more specifically, on the questions teachers ask” (p. 485). From the latter scholars’ idea, the importance of interaction is mainly on the questions that teachers pose during the teaching and learning process in order to get feedback from students. The said process thus, indicates the oral interaction between teachers and students. The points raised above, relating to interaction being two-fold are summed up by Slimani (1992) who views discourse as, “jointly constructed by contributions from both parties so that learners are not just passively fed from the instructor’s plan” (p. 197). This last point thus indicates that teachers and students exchange oral information in the classroom, with the aim of assisting students in having an upper hand in the interaction.

### **3.2.2.2 It Helps in Cognition**

Another reason relating to the importance of classroom interaction is that it helps students to develop cognitively by thinking before they talk. In addition, cognitive development provides opportunities for more student talk as questions asked can be open ended and students can provide various answers. Cazden and Beck (2003) prepares us for the understanding of classroom interaction and cognition by stating that, “if we are to understand and foster students’ communicative abilities to nurture the development of complex cognitive skills, we must have a way to describe the trajectory of their growth as users of language” (p. 167). This means that interaction and cognition work together through the use of language. The scholars, Cazden and Beck (2003) maintain that there should be a description of cognition and language use. On the basis of their caution, the points that follow in this sub-

section endeavour to explain why classroom interaction is important in students' cognitive development.

Cognition and classroom interaction go hand in hand and they both contribute to patterns of interaction. Roth and Bowen (1995) describe how interaction leads to cognition, relating cognition to a metaphor, "the metaphor of cognitive apprenticeship also implies patterns of interaction between the teacher and the learner. Depending on the situation, the teacher may model expertise-in-use, coach the students or scaffold their initial attempts in a new skill..." (p. 77). The main point here is that as teachers help students to talk, that leads to cognition and results in patterns of interaction.

Still describing cognition and interaction, some scholars have attempted to relate the two to Sociocultural Theory (SCT). Mercer, Wegerif and Dawes (1999) point out that,

Building on the work of Vygotsky... researchers have elaborated a sociocultural theory of intellectual development in which language has three crucial, integrated functions: as a *cognitive tool* which children come to use to process knowledge; as a *social* or *cultural tool* for sharing knowledge amongst people; and as a *pedagogic tool* which one person can use to provide intellectual guidance to another (p. 96).

That is, classroom interaction is important as a cognitive tool because learners think of what to say in the form of responses and of course, their own initiations. The said process relates in way to the dual synergy already discussed in section 3.2.2.1, because teachers assist students to think and talk, hence developing their oral communicative competence. Another point relating to that of Mercer et al. above is that of scaffolding, which Roth and Bowen (1995) refer to. This is because the teacher scaffolds classroom interaction so that students can make oral contributions. Additionally, students think of their responses, hence interaction contributes to their cognitive development.

Finally, in a conclusive manner, Michaels, O'Connor and Resnick (2008) have drawn attention to interaction and its contribution to students' cognitive development. The scholars argued that, "sensemaking and scaffolded discussion, calling for particular forms of talk, are seen as the primary mechanism for promoting deep understanding of complex concepts and robust reasoning" (p. 284). The results of the research by Michaels et al., above signify that

when students and teachers interact, there is some scaffolding done by the teacher during the process.

### **3.2.3 Quality interaction as a social relationship of classroom talk**

Having reviewed the importance of classroom talk, this section examines the two aspects that contribute to classroom interaction. The two aspects are mainly quality (where the students are helped by their practitioners to contribute more to the classroom talk) and domination (where lecturers lead the classroom talk more than the students). Relating to the above relationships, Cullen (1998) argued that, “interest in teacher talk within the profession has since shifted away from a concern with quantity towards concern with quality” (p. 179). This shows the importance of quality classroom talk as opposed to the domination of the same by the teachers. On the basis of the observation made by Cullen above, this study attempts to find out which of the said social relationships is evident in CSS classes of the University of Botswana.

Previous studies have reported on the quality of interaction where an intervention was provided. Wasik, Bond and Hindman (2006) described quality and intervention in relation to classroom talk when they argued, “...providing opportunities for children to talk and develop language skills is an important aspect of high-quality programs and effective interventions” (p. 64). This suggests that student talk in the classroom is a good attribute. For Murcia and Sheffield (2010), “the overall quality of classroom talk was higher in the post IWB intervention lessons” (p. 428). Thus, classroom talk can be good if there is also exchange of information and the use of whiteboards. In relation to the work of Murcia and Sheffield (2010), quality classroom talk and the use of the whiteboards is examined in CSS classes of the University of Botswana.

In addition to the exploration of quality classroom talk, some scholars have suggested that it can be maintained, “when partners engage critically but constructively with each other’s ideas” (Mercer, 1996, p. 369). This suggests that teachers and students exchange oral information by way of teachers asking students questions so that in the end the students think and come up with more answers or comments. For Mercer (1996), collaborative activity in the classroom is a good indicator of quality interaction. Building on Mercer’s point of view,

Alexander (2008b) has identified a number of indicators of collaborative activity in the classroom. He proposes that:

The quality of classroom talk depends on many factors: the speaking and listening skills of children and teachers, teachers' subject knowledge (for taking children's thinking forward requires understanding of the directions which that thinking might take), classroom climate, classroom organization, and so on (p. 40).

As can be seen from the three quotations about quality classroom talk, various forms of interventions are important as ways of assisting students to talk. It could be through the use of white boards, or classroom organisation such as working in group or pairs (refer to Figure 2.2 and section 3.2.5).

Moving specifically to the quality of interaction at universities, Tapper (1996) and Richards (2006) have investigated the importance of initiations in the classroom. Additionally, Tan (2007) claims that, "questioning has been, for thousands of years, one of the most popular modes of teaching and much class time has been devoted to it" (p. 88). That is, at the university level, most of the classroom talk is depicted by asking the students questions. Suviniitty (2010) suggests the importance of questions by stating what they do and points out that, "questions are also used as organizers" (p. 48). This may well address the fact that some of the questions are open and others are closed. Therefore, depending on how they are asked, that can lead to quality classroom interaction and more talk from the students.

In further commenting on quality classroom talk at the university level, Xie (2008) concluded that there is absence of quality classroom and noted that, "...the teachers should relax their control and allow the students more freedom to choose their own topics so as to generate more opportunities for them to participate in classroom interaction" (p. 19). Thus, there should be more student talk in university classrooms. An overall suggestion to avoid lecturers' dominance of classroom talk is identified by Bentley (2010) who points out, "this is the moment when new knowledge is assimilated and when dialogic learning takes place" (p. 234). According to Bentley, if both the lecturer and the students engage in a dialogue, such interaction helps the students to acquire new ideas. It can be argued that Bentley's point of view is supported by other research of classroom talk that dialogic teaching is the best and a true foundation of learning (Alexander, 2008b). Using all the collective ideas above about

lecturer domination in universities, this study aimed to find out if the same situation exists in the University of Botswana CSS classes or not.

### **3.2.4 Types of Classroom Interaction**

Three types of interaction have been identified by researchers of classroom interaction. Moore (1989) identified the following; learner-content interaction, learner-instructor interaction and learner-learner interaction. More recently, Navaz (2012) described the preceding distinctive features of interaction and stated that, “they are: teacher-pupil interaction (questions provoke thoughtful answers and answers provoke further questions); student-student interaction (children build on each others’ contributions); teacher-student one-to-one monitoring; questioning; response to questions; feedback on responses; and student talk” (p.66). This means that classrooms should consist of dialogic teaching as stated in the last paragraph. Although there are three types of class classroom interaction, this thesis will only address learner-instructor interaction, as that is the focus of this study. This thesis focuses on student-lecturer interaction, which falls under learner-instructor or teacher-pupil interaction indicated by the above authors.

Furthermore, in the sub-sections that follow, this thesis endeavours to review the two types of learner-instructor interaction. These are dialogic and traditional types.

#### **3.2.4.1 Traditional**

The traditional type of learner-instructor interaction is the one that does not give learners enough opportunity to talk. According to Chitera (2009), “the learners’ opportunities for participating productively in the classroom in multilingual classroom are very limited and constrained” (p. 52). This explanation suggests that the extent to which students talk is inadequate. Another example that explains the traditional type of interaction was presented by Arthur (1996) who pointed out that, “...traditionally rooted interaction patterns such as those that are characterised by a rhythmic questioning and group response” (p. 29). Arthur provides an insight into teachers’ questions by stating that they follow a certain pattern which results in choral responses. A relationship exists between the points raised by the two authors above about the traditional pattern of interaction. This is because they all talk of students’ oral contribution that is narrow, as explained by terms such as limited, constrained and rhythmic.

### **3.2.4.2 Dialogic**

There is also a type of learner-instructor interaction known as dialogic interaction, which is the opposite of the traditional type of interaction. In this type, students think before they talk and this helps them to provide oral information that is elaborate. The notion of dialogic teaching is described by Alexander (2008b) as a distinctive pedagogical approach because, “Children, we now know, need to talk, and to experience a rich diet of spoken language, in order to think and to learn” (p. 9). From the above definition, for learning to effectively take place, there is need for the learners to think and show an outstanding amount of talk. For Mercer (2003) “‘dialogic talk’ is that to which both teachers and pupils make substantial and significant contributions and through which the pupils thinking on a given idea or theme is helped to move forward” (p. 74). Mercer also emphasises the importance of learner thinking before talk, as this helps them to develop their oral skills. In conclusion, Åberg, Mäkitalo and Säljö (2010) link this type of interaction with Sociocultural Theory and state that, “in a socio-cultural and dialogic perspective...argumentation must be viewed as a creative practice, which involves a capacity to articulate ideas and arguments in contextually relevant manners” (p. 15). The preceding authors stressed Socio-cultural Theory, dialogic perspectives and argumentation and relate these three with the students’ abilities to express their ideas in a detailed manner.

### **3.2.5 Group Work and Interaction**

It is also important to note that interaction can take place in various ways. One of these is group work. In addressing group work and classroom interaction, this section examines the definition and the types of group work. Finally, attention is given to the advantages and disadvantages of group work, and classroom interaction.

#### **3.2.5.1 Definition of Group Work**

Group work has been defined in a number of ways by different scholars. Blatchford, Kutnick, Baines and Galton (2003) argue that, “it should be clear that there is more to group work than sitting students in groups and asking them to work together” (p. 155). This means that the students’ seating arrangement in groups can or cannot contribute to effective thinking



and oral communicative competence. In defining group work, Cohen and Lotan (2014) argue that it is the, “students working together as a group small enough so that everyone can participate on a clearly assigned learning task. Moreover, students are expected to carry out their task without direct and immediate supervision of the teacher” (p. 1). The authors emphasise that the number in a group should be small enough to enable all group members to interact independently, without the teacher’s assistance. From a related perspective, Kelly and Stafford (1993) maintains that,

Small group on the other hand provides opportunities for intellectual and personal growth which cannot be achieved so easily in a standard lecture situation. Because the small group is a more personal situation, it provides opportunities for interaction between the tutor or lecturer and students and among students. Such interaction can foster active learning and learning at a high conceptual level, and can help students to achieve a sense of independence and responsibility for their own learning (p. 1).

For the latter scholars, just like the former ones, group work helps students to work independently hence to have control over their learning. However, Kelly and Stafford (1993) took a step further to relate a small group and the practitioner’s intervention in terms of classroom talk.

### **3.2.5.2 Types of Group Work**

Group work has been categorized into a number of classifications to help understand classroom interaction. In relating group work to the organisational context, Alexander (2008b) presented a number of these as follows:

- Whole class teaching (teacher and class)
- Collective group work (teacher led)
- Collaborative group work (pupil led)
- One-to-one (pupil pairs)

Adapted from Alexander, R. (2008b). *Towards dialogic teaching: Rethinking classroom talk* (4<sup>th</sup> Ed.) (p. 40). York: Dialogos.

The above types indicate the various ways in which groups can develop in the classroom. One of these, whole-class teaching (teacher and class) is where the teacher addresses all the

students in the classroom. A relationship exists between this type of group work and what other scholars above (Kelly & Stafford, 1993) refer to as large, “because of the physical layout of lecture halls and the number of students involved” (p. 1).

On the other hand, collective group work is where the teacher addresses the students as a whole group. The difference between collective group work and whole-class teaching is that within the first category, teachers teach and can pose questions to the group as and when they find it fit. However, with collective group work, it can be argued that there is no teaching; rather the teacher solicits information through questions from the whole group within a particular class.

The third type (collaborative group work-pupil led) is where students work on their own as a small group, without the teacher’s input to the discussion. This type correlates with the argument presented by Cohen and Lotan (2014) in their definition of group work (refer to subsection 3.2.5.1). Finally, the one-to-one (pupil pairs) is considered in this study. From this type, it can be seen that sometimes students are asked by a lecturer to work in pairs. A look at all the four types of classroom groupings helped to find out whether all or some of them contribute to quality classroom interaction in CSS classes. Additionally, if they all did, the extent of this was examined.

### **3.2.5.3 Advantages and Disadvantages of Group Work**

Having defined and reviewed the types of group work, the following sub-section examines both the advantages and disadvantages of group work. Research has shown that group work is advantageous because it enables students to develop intellectually and personally in their use of oral communicative competence.

McGroarty (1991) in describing the advantages of group work claimed, “the five linguistic advantages related to group work are (a) more opportunity to produce output, which then acts as input for learning; production of (b) more redundant language, which can encourage skills in fluency and comprehension; production of language which is (c) appropriate in level of linguistic accuracy; (d) appropriate in the shape of linguistic units; and (e) more varied in discourse patterns” (p. 41). From this definition, group work is found to actively support the students to use language to the fullest and to help them in their intellectual growth.

Still on the advantages of group work and its relationship to classroom discourse, Long and Porter (1985) have drawn up a number of these as follows:

- a) Increases the quantity of language practice opportunities amongst the students
- b) Improves the quality of classroom talk
- c) Individualises instruction
- d) Creates a positive affective climate in the classroom
- e) Increases student motivation

Adapted from: Long and Porter (1985) p. 207-208

Similar to the above advantages presented by McGroarty (1991), students, in their groups, have an opportunity to develop their use of language. However, the latter authors add an aspect of individual growth, such as the desire to learn.

Even though group work has the advantages stated above, there are also some disadvantages attached to it. Time constraints have been noted as a disadvantage whilst working in groups. Brahm and Kleiner (1996) indicated that there is lack of flexibility, “by only being able to deal with one problem at a time...Another disadvantage is the amount of time needed to prepare for the activity” (p. 35). Because of insufficient time to work on a particular task, the group might not complete the task hence contributing to insufficient classroom talk by the students. Also, classroom organisation can be a disadvantage when dealing with large groups. Kelly and Stafford (1993) reported that, “this is often limited in large groups because of the physical layout of lecture halls and the number of students involved” (p. 1). The quotation signifies that a large group of students can be a limitation because if the students are many in a class, some of them might just remain silent for the rest of the lesson or lessons as it may not be easy for them to all talk within a specific lesson time.

### **3.2.6 Classroom Interaction and Pedagogical Trends**

Apart from quality, types of classroom interaction and group work, other aspects exist and contribute to classroom interaction. One of these aspects relates to the pedagogical trends from secondary school to university. As a result, this section describes what happens in terms of classroom interaction and the students’ transition from secondary to university.

The students admitted to the University of Botswana are from secondary school. However, there are both the negative and positive aspects relating to the transition from secondary

school and classroom interaction. An analysis of students' transition from secondary school to university was carried out by Tsui and Law (2007). In their analysis, they found out that there are both negative and positive aspects that are caused by the transition and these contribute to the students' spoken interaction. Regarding the negative aspects, Tsui and Law (2007) found out that the process involves students going to 'unfamiliar territory' (p. 1290). This is because students have left secondary school which was familiar territory to them for five or six years (refer to section 2.4). The preceding point is based on the fact that most students are admitted to university just after completing secondary school. Therefore, for most of them the university is 'unfamiliar territory' and more especially when it comes to how they are expected to talk during lessons.

However, elsewhere, Maloof (2000) draws our attention to how the aforementioned educational gap can be addressed. Maloof's study states that, "the teacher can create explicit opportunities for students to actively participate in the classroom discourse by focusing on a topic that is of interest or relevance to students..." (p. 140). The suggestion from Maloof might result in effective classroom interaction if teaching and learning opportunities such as, asking open-ended questions with students providing elaborate answers, are created. This is because open questions allow more thinking and the whole interaction process can ultimately engage students in prolonged dialogic teaching and learning. The point raised by Maloof (2000) corresponds to what (Alexander, 2008b; Bentley, 2010) widely investigated when they reported that dialogic teaching is the best, and a true foundation for learning.

Nonetheless, some positive aspects attached to classroom interaction and the transition from secondary school to university, have been noted. One of these is that students' cognitive development rises to a higher level. Tsui and Law (2007) state that, "crossing boundaries forces participants to take a fresh look at their long-standing practices and assumptions, and can be a source of deep learning" (p. 1290). This implies that at university, students are provided with information that is 'challenging' and 'advanced', hence their ability to realise a good paradigm shift regarding their thinking. Another positive aspect related to classroom interaction and transition from secondary school to university has been drawn by Schultz and Hull (2002) when they assert that, "people use discourses to affiliate and display their membership in particular social groups" (p. 22). In other words, students use classroom interaction in all educational contexts; this could be at secondary school or at university. Additionally, students largely talk in the classroom. A relationship exists between the points raised by the above authors, as they all provide an interconnected advantage of classroom talk

and the various educational contexts. This is because thinking deeply of what to say is important whether at secondary school or university.

### **3.2.7 Communicative Competence and Classroom Interaction**

As the current study investigates the development of oral communicative competence as an aspect of classroom interaction, this subsection briefly discusses what communication competence is, the key researchers in the said area, and the relationship between communicative competence and classroom interaction.

Communicative competence is a combination of facets used in classroom talk. According to Hymes (1972) communicative competence is, "...knowing what to say to whom in what circumstances and how to say it" (p. 1). Thus, Hymes (1972) suggests that people have to talk about what they know and talk in a certain way to whomever they talk. Savignon (1976) states that, "Communicative Competence is defined as what native speakers know which enables them to interact effectively with each other" (p. 1). Canale (1983) argues that, "communicative competence refers to both knowledge and skill in using this knowledge when interacting in actual communication" (p. 5). In other words, having in mind what to say is accompanied by how to say it so that at the end a goal of having said something constructive is achieved. In the three scholars' definitions of communicative competence, the group of people interacting and how they interact can lead to quality classroom interaction.

Hymes is believed to be the key researcher of communicative competence. Canale (1983, p. 2) argues that Hymes introduced the concept of communicative competence in the mid-1960s. Adding to the issue of pioneering the concept, Hymes (1972) referred to himself as, "the father of communicative competence" (p. 1). It is worth pointing out that some scholars (e.g., Canale; 1983; Habermas, 1970; Romaine, 1987; Savignon, 1976; 1983) continued to research the area. All the researchers of communicative competence emphasise talk and knowing what one is talking about. Thus in a classroom situation, teaching and learning revolves around talk and both teachers and students should know what they are talking about.

Turning to how developments in Communicative Competence (CC) might be measured, there are a number of such measurements. These are important in this thesis because they will help to find out whether they were employed in CSS classes. Four such developments of CC will be discussed in this paragraph. It is worth mentioning that the said developments are adapted from Savignon (1976) revolve around four categories of tests. According to the scholar,

testing for CC helps “so that we and our students know how well we are doing what we purport to be doing” (p. 6). This suggests that by testing for oral CC, the lecturers and the students will have an idea of whether the classroom interaction is successful or not. This testing could be done by asking the students some questions and the students’ responses will determine whether there is quality classroom interaction or not.

Secondly, the developments of CC can be measured as a form of motivation. Thus if on studying the classroom interaction, there are more student responses which are also elaborate, both the students and the lecturers will be motivated. This is because the students’ oral engagement will be an identifier to both the students and the lecturers that there is dialogic interaction. The dialogic interaction signifies student-centred learning as opposed to lecturer centred learning.

The third measurement of CC involves academic and professional information. This is because having measured the students’ and the lecturers’ talk, “teachers and researchers can learn more about second learning language strategies” (Savignon, 1976, p. 7). This measurement is important because it will contribute to both the literature on classroom interaction and practice (refer to section 9.3). Also, this measurement will be beneficial because this thesis studies student-lecturer interaction in English, which is a second language and a medium of instruction at UB.

The final development of CC can be measured by testing the “functional-skills for real world work” (Savignon, 1976, p. 8). This is because, at UB, part of the CSSU mandate is to develop the students who can interact very well academically and at the world of work. This can happen if after studying at UB, the students can effectively interact with the clientele. This could be done by asking the clients open and genuine questions that would eventually lead to achieving the vision and mission statements of their work establishments.

In conclusion, the relationship between classroom interaction and communicative competence, the manifestation of talk in the classroom indicates its quality between the teacher and the students. At the centre of this relationship is what Ortega (1997) terms, “the proportion of teacher “talk” and student language production” (p. 86). This suggests that as teachers talk with students, they should be cognisant of the amount of talk that they engage in so that the elaborate amount of talk comes from students. Oxford (1997) argues that interaction is one of the communicative strands in a language classroom. That is, if students know what to talk

about in the classroom, they can willingly do that without being forced. As a result, there is more student talk in the classroom.

### **3.2.8 Code-switching and Classroom Interaction**

Finally, code-switching is reviewed in the literature as it might help to understand the nature and effectiveness of interaction in CSS classes. Previous studies have defined code-switching as the constant alternation between languages by either teachers or students during interaction (Pfaff, 1979; Sert, 2005). For Pfaff (1979), code-switching is, “the constant alteration from one linguistic system to another” (p. 293). From this definition, it can be claimed that if both teacher and students have knowledge of two languages they can switch between them. It can further be argued from this definition that even if there is one language which is used as a medium of instruction, either the teacher or students can switch to their second language. From a bilingual context, Sert (2005) cited Trudgill (2000) defining code-switching according to its purpose; the scholar noted, “speakers switch to manipulate or influence or define the situation as they wish, and to convey nuances of meaning and personal intention” (p. 2). From the latter definition, code-switching is used by teachers and students to express themselves in a ‘better’ way, as a person has the leeway to say what he/she wants. A relationship exists between the two definitions, and this is the alternation between languages. The only difference is that Sert (2005) provides ways in which the alternation can be done. One of these is the freedom to say something in the way that one feels confident. Based on the above definitions, a number of scholars have identified some reasons why code-switching takes place and these are discussed below.

Some scholars have attempted to explore the purpose of code-switching in some classrooms. These studies have found that code-switching is done for the sake of emphasising the point (Setati, 1998; Setati, Adler, Reed & Bapoo, 2002). The reason of point emphasis in a way connects to the definition given by Sert (2005), because people may switch from one language to the other in order to express themselves more easily. Additionally, some scholars have shown that code-switching is used to hold the floor (Elridge, 1996). As opposed to emphasising the point, the teacher or student might code-switch in order to have a prolonged interaction. Reviewing all the aforementioned reasons, it can be argued that there are number of contributing factors that explain code-switching.

### 3.3 Theoretical Framework

#### 3.3.1 Other Relevant Theories Regarding Classroom Interaction

Some theories can be used in reviewing spoken interaction, depending on the focus of the study. One of these is Piaget's Cognitive Development (1964).

##### 3.3.1.1 Piaget's Cognitive Development Theory

Piaget's Cognitive Development Theory focuses on children's reasoning about the world that surrounds them (Cameron, 2001; Huitt & Hummel 2003; Lourenço & Machado, 1996; McLeod, 2009; Piaget, 1970). For Piaget (1964, 1970) the aforementioned theory had stages, which he tabulated as follows:

| STAGE                       | DEVELOPMENTAL ACTIVITY  |
|-----------------------------|---|
| First: The sensory-motor    | A pre-verbal stage.   |
| Second: Pre-operational     | The development of language.  |
| Third: Concrete operational | Children operate on objects and not yet on verbally expressed hypotheses. |
| Fourth: Operations          | Formal or hypothetical deductive operations.                              |

Table 3.1: Stages of Piaget's Cognitive Development (Adapted from: Piaget, 1964, pp. 176-179)

It can be argued that Piaget's Cognitive theory has three attributes: 'reasoning', 'development' and 'learning'. Piaget (1964) stated that, 'development' is spontaneous whilst 'learning', "... is provoked by situations-provoked by a psychological experimenter; or by a teacher, with respect to some didactic point; or by an external situation" (p.176). This suggests that classroom interaction is initiated by the teacher and requires students to think before they orally share their point of views with the rest of the members in the classroom.

Piaget stated that the final stage of cognitive development is applicable to adults. Piaget (1964) stated that, "the operative aspect includes operations and actions which lead from one state to another. In children of higher stages and in adults, the figurative aspects are subordinated to the operative aspects" (p. 186). Thus, a review of the cognitive development



of University of Botswana students, who are ‘adults’, can reveal how classroom talk develops within a lesson. This is because it is in stages such as the introduction, development and conclusion of the lesson.

### **3.3.2 The Sociocultural Theory (SCT)**

This sub-section focuses on Sociocultural Theory and its relevance to classroom interaction research. In developing this argument, I intend to state briefly what Sociocultural Theory is. Then this thesis explores mediation, scaffolding and co-construction of knowledge, because they are the main principles that support the methodological approaches used in this study. Finally, I provide justification for using SCT.

The SCT is a theory of learning established by Vygotsky and is defined as a theory of cognitive development that emphasises the importance of socially shared activities (Huong, 2003; Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Lantolf and Thorne, 2006; Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1985). The socially shared activities are classroom talk because the lecturer and the students exchange information by using language.

Vygotsky further stated that SCT provides methodological tools for investigating the social, cultural and historical tools that help shape the human being. On the basis of what the above scholars have observed, it can be seen that SCT encompasses how students and lecturers talk in the classroom. Language can be used in mediation, scaffolding and co-construction of knowledge, all of which are individually discussed in the sub-sections that follow.

#### **3.3.2.1 Mediation**

One of the major ways in which students and lecturers exchange information is through mediation. According to researchers of the Sociocultural Theory (e.g., Kozulin, 2002; Turuk, 2008) mediation is central in a number of studies inspired by Vygotsky’s ideas. This suggests that one cannot use SCT without making reference to mediation.

Turuk (2008) states that, “Mediation according to Vygotsky refers to the part played by other significant people in the learners’ lives, people who enhance their learning by selecting and shaping the learning experiences presented to them” (p.250-251). From another definition angle, Cameron (2001) states that mediation, “has applications in both lesson planning and in

how teachers talk to pupils minute by minute” (p.8). From the above definitions, mediation is a mechanism that mainly uses language within planned lessons in order to enable the classroom talk between the lecturers and the students.

During the said mediation process, educational activities change to cognitive functioning (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Mercer, 2005; Tsui & Law, 2007; Xie, 2008). That is, educational activities such as classroom talk, largely involve thinking. Students think of the answers that they will provide and this helps to provide the information that is elaborate. Another aspect related to educational activities and cognitive functioning is that lecturers also think of the ‘best’ way to get information from their students. This can be by different ways, such as the proximity between the lecturer and the students, the students seating positions, the type of questions that are asked, the leeway provided to the students to not only respond but to also initiate classroom talk. Daniels (2001) summarised the preceding argument when he pointed out that, “the social/cultural/linguistic mediation of meaning serves to create a range of individual possibilities for understanding” (p. 10). Thus, for classroom interaction to be smoothly carried out, there is a need for the lecturer and the students to use language in an appropriate manner which will lead to quality classroom talk.

### **3.3.2.2 Scaffolding**

Another aspect of SCT that this thesis focuses on is scaffolding. Scaffolding is the assistance, in the form of language, provided to the student by the lecturer/interlocutor so that the student can think for him or herself and develop in learning (Galton, et al. 1999; Gorsky, Caspi, & Trumper, 2006; Lightbown & Spada, 2006; Turuk, 2008; van Hees, 2007). On the other hand, scaffolding can be provided by competent learners, as observed by Galton (1995). This suggests that the more capable students can help others to talk during the teaching and learning process. This can take place in situations such as pair or group discussions, or when the teacher asks them to clarify what is being discussed to the rest of the class. Whether scaffolding is provided by the lecturer or other students, it is determined by a repertoire of dialogic teaching that is being used (Alexander, 2008b). That is, scaffolding can be done in various ways in the classroom. One of these could be by guiding students to the correct answer. This can be done, by giving the students a clue or an incomplete sentence. Further, the lecturer can provide the students with linguistic assistance by asking them questions in the form of probing for more information. Some analysts, (e.g., Galton, 1995) cited Bruner 1985

who extended on the foregoing steps by providing the ultimate goal to be achieved by the students as they reported that, "...the tutor, in effect, performs the critical function of 'scaffolding' the learning tasks to make it possible for the child, in Vygotsky's words, to internalise external knowledge and convert it to a tool for conscious control" (p. 111). Thus, if there is assistance in the classroom, the students may be aware of their oral communicative competence by the amount of dialogic responses.

### **3.3.2.3 Co-construction of Knowledge**

Like other concepts of SCT, co-construction of knowledge has been defined. Some scholars, (e.g., Galton, et al., 1999; Gorsky, Caspi & Trumper, 2006; Mercer, 2010; Ng'ambi & Hardman, 2004) have defined co-construction of knowledge as the joint undertaking of ideas between students and one person who is thought to be knowledgeable (for example, the teacher). In other words, co-construction of knowledge cannot be studied without considering how students and teachers talk in the classroom. In addition, some studies have shown that the said undertaking guides both the teachers' and the students' thinking (Abd-Kadir and Hardman, 2013; Hardman, 2008a). From the above definition, there should be mutual understanding between the lecturers and the students as they interact in order to develop the students' critical thinking and abilities to express themselves in various contexts.

A relationship exists between what the above scholars (Abd-Kadir & Hardman, 2013; Galton et al., 1999; Gorsky, et al., 2006; Hardman, 2008a; Mercer, 2010; Ng'ambi & Hardman, 2004) have noted, because if teachers and students share ideas, they first of all think of the information. This is because a lecturer can ask questions, so that students think and share the knowledge with the rest of the class. The students can also ask questions for clarification and the answers can come from either their peers or the lecturer. All of this suggests the working together of both parties that leads to student-lecturer spoken interaction.

Taken as a whole, the three aforementioned concepts; mediation, scaffolding and co-construction of knowledge, have the ability to develop classroom talk. This is because all the three concepts use language in order for classroom talk to take place. Gibbons (2003) supports the use of language by both teachers and the students in classroom interaction. This suggests that language is at the centre of classroom talk.

### **3.3.2.4 Justification for Using SCT**

Having reviewed the three aspects of SCT above (mediation, scaffolding and co-construction of knowledge), some components discussed are relevant in benchmarking student-lecturer talk. Alexander (2012) suggests that, “classroom talk ‘requires students to think, not just to report someone else’s thinking’” (p.3). As Alexander reminds us, the students can think if SCT is implemented and specifically focuses on mediation, scaffolding and co-construction of knowledge. The lecturers knowing how to provide the appropriate mediation, scaffolding and co-construction of knowledge can help in developing the students to take the lead in classroom talk.

Linked with the above view, SCT also aligns well with the research questions of this study because through mediation, scaffolding and co-construction of knowledge, strong conclusions for the study can be drawn relating to the quality and effectiveness of interaction in CSS classes. This is because considering co-construction of knowledge in CSS classes supports the issue of developing students’ oral communicative skills. This is determined by focusing on the chains of the teaching exchanges; whether they are long or short and how elaborate the answers are. Additionally, the same major contribution is addressed by focusing on how scaffolding is used in the classroom. Whether clues, closed and open questions are used; all serve as important attributes of scaffolding. Finally, mediation addresses the aim of this thesis, because when students interact in the classroom, they need to think so that they come up with detailed responses. In conclusion, the SCT acts as a ‘melting pot’ of various aspects that address student-lecturer interaction. An overall justification of using SCT is supported by Steele (2000) who writes, “assessment of the speaking skill is now frequently conducted in a socio-culturally contextualized framework that reflects more authentically communication situations in the real world” (p.202). This suggests that SCT shows how classroom talk develops.

### **3.4 The Approaches and Analytical tools of Spoken Interaction**

This subsection discusses two aspects (Conversational Analysis and Discourse Analysis) that relate to analysing discourse. The said two aspects are the umbrella approaches to spoken interaction and the specific analytical tools. Reviewing the approaches and the tools shows the relationship between the two main features and ultimately provides an in-depth picture for

analysing classroom interaction. Finally, the subsection addresses the analytical tools of which the IRF is the one used in this study.

### **3.4.1 Approaches to Classroom Interaction**

For this study only two approaches (Conversation Analysis and Discourse Analysis) are presented and reviewed, the second of which is the focus of this study. Additionally, this thesis focuses on only two approaches because according to previous studies (see Aijmer & Stenstrom, 2005; Hatch, 1981) Discourse Analysis (DA) is broad. To further indicate the linkage of these approaches to the analytical tools, Svennevig (2001) argues that "...interaction is used as the basis for analyzing actual instances of talk" (p. 1). Thus, DA is used to indicate the lower level of analysis. In reference to Svennevig's (2001) point of view, DA is used as the basis of this study's analytical tool (the IRF). The connection between the two is considered in addition to how they measure classroom interaction.

#### **3.4.1.1 Conversation Analysis**

There is yet another approach to spoken interaction known as Conversation Analysis (CA). Its founder was Sacks, who worked for a sociology department at a university in the United States of America and it gradually spread to other parts of the world (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998; Liddicoat, 2007). According to (Heritage & Clayman, 2010), CA was first developed in the 1960s and Sacks worked on CA with Schegloff and Jefferson at the University of California. In relation to its function, it focuses on two main linguistic aspects, namely ordinary conversation and institutional talk.

According to Kasper (2006), CA is defined as,

how participants understand and respond to one another in their turns at talk, with a central focus on how sequences are generated. (...) the objective of CA is to uncover the tacit reasoning procedures and sociolinguistic competencies underlying the production and interpretation of talk in organized sequences of interaction". (p.83)

From the above definition, CA is the analysis of talk between two people. The two people can be the lecturer and the students.

Even though CA is an approach that can be used to analyse spoken interaction as reflected from the above definition, there has been main point of views about it, which render the approach not applicable to this thesis. These focus on the methodology and the theoretical framework. With regard to the methodology, there have been different opinions from different sources. Harris (2012) claims that, “Conversation Analysis (CA) can be placed at the narrow-angle end of what is a continuum” (p.24). This suggests that the theory does not say much about classroom interaction.

Another major problem with CA is that, “...its methodological procedures are in some key respects deficient: that it fails to take account of the essentially argumentative nature of everyday discourse....” (Wooffitt, 2005, p. 158). It can be argued that CA might not be used to investigate the nature of classroom interaction because of a lack of a proper and established system in place. Consequently, if CA can be used to measure classroom interaction, some important language aspects such as, the type of responses used, the type of questions used and feedback might be overlooked.

In terms of CA being used with Sociocultural Theory, some writers have challenged its claims on two grounds. One of the main criticisms is that, “... it does not, or cannot, address the kinds of topics which are central to traditional sociological inquiry...” (Wooffitt, 2005, p. 158). This suggests that CA is not a convincing approach to use in analysing classroom interaction because it does not explicitly address the student-lecturer talk which is a characteristic of sociological inquiry. Similar to Wooffitt (2005), Wetherell (1998) is cited by Billig (1999) as stating that, “CA needs to be augmented by social theory in order to examine the ideological aspects of language” (p. 544). Both the use of ‘sociological inquiry’ and the use of ‘social theory’ by the last two authors are indicators that CA cannot be used as a yardstick in the study of student-lecturer interaction.

### **3.4.1.2 Discourse Analysis**

This particular sub-section addresses an area of linguistics known as Discourse Analysis (DA). Just like CA above, the following two main categories; methodology and the theoretical framework are reviewed in order to justify why this thesis focuses on DA and not CA. Regarding the methodology, DA has been viewed as by some scholars as both broad and specific (Short, 1994; van Dijk, 1997). For Short (1994) Discourse Analysis “centres on

the examination of linguistic organization of spoken language above the level of the sentence” (p. 949).

Discourse Analysis is the analysis of patterns that people’s utterances follow when they take part in different domains of social life (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002, p. 1). From the above definition, is talk between two people who can be the lecturer and students. This definition is relevant to this thesis as its purpose is to consider the kinds of interactions and establish whether they were successful. Having considered these said aspects will lead to among others, the patterns of classroom interaction that were used in CSS classes.

The aforementioned broader sense of discourse is reflected in the above quotation by the use of “spoken language above the level of the sentence”. It can be argued that as students and their lecturers examine and use extended classroom talk, this reflects the broad sense of discourse. The indicators of such are the time taken by both the students and the lecturers when they talk. If one of them takes a longer time to elaborate on the point, then that is an aspect of discourse in a broader sense. Additionally, the above broad types of DA can be associated with complexity. DA has been observed by other scholars (e.g., Serratrice, 2014; Short, 1994) as highly ambiguous and complex as it covers other concepts such as language, communication, interaction, society and culture (van Dijk, 1997).

On the other hand DA has been reviewed by some scholars, alongside the Sociocultural Theory. According to Fairclough (1992), “discourse is socially constructive ..., constituting social subjects, social relations, and systems of knowledge and belief, and the study of discourse focuses upon its constructive ideological effects...” (p. 36). This suggests how DA can comfortably be examined alongside SCT. This view is supported by Mercer (2004) who argues, “I call this methodology ‘sociocultural discourse analysis’ to distinguish it from other approaches and because it is based on a sociocultural perspective on the nature and functions of language, thinking and social interaction” (p.138). It can be argued that when lecturers and students interact in the classroom, they use language. Prior to one of the said parties saying something in class, they think of what to say, how to say it and why. All these form part of the ‘intersection’ mentioned earlier on, which is now unpacked so that there could be quality and effective classroom interaction.

### **3.4.2 Analytical Tools of Classroom Interaction**

Central to the entire discipline of Discourse Analysis are a number of analytical tools. This thesis examines two of the tools before focusing on the one used to analyse the findings of this study.

#### **3.4.2.1 Flanders Interaction Analysis Category (FIAC)**

Flanders (1960) designed a spoken interaction analytical tool and the focal aspects of this theory were divided into three. The three main aspects were teacher talk, student talk and the silent moments (Flanders, 1966; Li., Shouhui & Xinying, 2011; Njuguna 2012). Flanders (1966) defined and explained the FIAC thus:

Interaction analysis is a system for observing and coding the verbal interchange between a teacher and his pupils. The assumption is made that teaching behavior and pupil responses are expressed primarily through the spoken words as a series of verbal events, which occur one after another (p. 1).

The above information suggests that as teachers and students talk, the information is observed and recorded accordingly. Students and teachers produce spoken words, which can be analysed as they occur.

#### **3.4.2.2 Initiation-Discussion-Response-Feedback (IDRF)**

Another analytical tool that can measure classroom interaction is Initiation-Discussion-Response-Feedback (IDRF) by Wegerif (1996). In defining the IDRF, Wegerif, Littleton & Jones (2003) stated that it is when,

children in a pair or group respond to a prompt from the computer by ‘sitting back’ to discuss together their response the educational content of this interaction exchange can be transformed. This is what has been referred to as the IDRF educational exchange. (p. 3)

Thus, in the IDRF, the students use the computers to learn and during the process there is a time of classroom interaction.



Relating to the effectiveness of classroom interaction, the following scholars, Mercer., Littleton and Wegerif, 2004 explained that classroom interaction can also be analysed by introducing ‘discussion’ to the students. This particular aspect takes place between the initiation and the response of classroom talk. In the IDRF, the last characteristic (the feedback), is the same as in the IRF structure. In explaining the advantage of the foregoing pattern of classroom interaction, Moate (2010) notes that, “IDRF explicitly moves away from quick fire responses, giving space for learners to think, generate ideas and presentational means before publically responding and receiving teacher feedback...” (p. 43). That is, students think of the answers hence leading to elaborate responses and more classroom talk from the students.

Overall, IDRF is the analytical model used in studies on online lessons and spoken interaction, and computers were used to ‘scaffold’ the classroom interaction (Mercer et al., 2004). This is because, as the students work on their computers, there is initiation’, which is followed by ‘discussion’ as the students work in pairs or in small groups as revealed by Grieshaber (2010). After, there is ‘response’ and finally ‘feedback’ from the teacher. However, this analytical tool is brought to the fore because lecturers can still use the ‘discussions’ before the students’ responses and finally, the lecturers’ feedback. Further, the IDRF tool is relevant to analysing classroom interaction because there was a possibility of observing some CSS online lessons.

### **3.4.3 Specific Analytical Tool: The IRF Moves**

The analytical tool to be reviewed in this sub-section is initiation, response, feedback (IRF) by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975, 1992). As mentioned at the beginning of section 3.4, IRF was used to analyse the findings of this study. According to Richards (2006) the IRF pattern was developed by Bellack et al., in 1966 as a teaching cycle, and it was later given distinctive features by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). The two authors (Sinclair and Coulthard), came up with a rank scale of discourse. This particular study focuses on one of the rank scales which they called “moves”. According to them these moves are in a tripartite structure (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Wills, 1981) known as initiation, response, feedback (IRF).

All the following observations seem to disentangle the capacity at which the IRF is an outstanding analytical tool. One of the reasons is that the IRF is broad because various

repertoires of classroom talk can be drawn. Further, there seem to be a lot of verbal aspects within the F-move. This is because the lecturer can probe the students to give more information. Also, related to the said probing, students have to think of not only the correct answer but also an elaborative one. Another point that ties-up with the students' responses and thinking, is that they have to ensure that they infer their responses to real life examples. This aspect is paramount in CSS classes, because it is a reflection of understanding what they are talking about. On the whole, the interaction reflects quality classroom talk.

Having introduced the IRF moves, I now proceed to discuss some important aspects of the said analytical tool. The key aspects of IRF moves are that classroom discourse is both hierarchical and sequential (Atkins, 2001; Hellermann, 2003; Wells, 1993). This suggests that interaction starts with the lecturer who initiates the teaching and learning process because he/she has planned what the lesson is going to capture. Thereafter, the students respond to the lecturer's initiation. Finally the lecturer provides some feedback to the students' responses.

Because the IRF is used to analyse classroom discourse in the University of Botswana CSS classes each of the three parts of the preceding analytical structure are reviewed in the three sub-sections that follow. Examining the structure's individual components corroborates the information already presented above. Additionally, a review of each of the three parts of the IRF helps in drawing conclusions regarding the nature of classroom interaction in the said classes.

#### **3.4.3.1 The Initiation (I-Move)**

According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), the Initiation Move is the first part of talk during classroom interaction. It can be in various ways, such as providing information, asking questions, checking understanding or directing the class to carry out a task. All the aforementioned ways are dominated by the teacher, as observed by Cornbleth and Korth, 1980; Nystrand and Gamoran; 1990 and Yu, 2009. However, there are some minimal cases where students initiate spoken interaction as noted by Wells (1993) and Waring (2009). Ohta (2000) also observes, "in this approach, previously sharp edges defining who is 'speaker' and who is 'hearer' become blurred; speakers or hearers collaboratively produce utterances which they jointly own" (p. 51). This suggests that both students and lecturers can provide information in class, and it can be claimed that this depends on how the lecturer had planned

the stages of the lesson. However, what has not been discussed, regarding either the lecturer or the students initiating classroom talk, is the nature of information that both can provide.

Initiations also play an important role during classroom talk. Rasku-Puttonen, Lerkkanen, Poikkeus and Siekkinen (2012) identified that these could be in the following ways: i) teacher-child interaction through asking questions, ii) teacher supporting children's participation and, iii) teacher allowing the children to initiate ideas. Nonetheless, some studies indicate that students' initiations of interaction are still minimal (Thornbury, 1996). Recent developments regarding students' initiations have heightened the need to explore ways in which students can also have an input in initiating interaction. Because of the existing state of affairs, this thesis considers whether first year students taking CSS at the University of Botswana initiate classroom interaction or not. If they do, the degree to which they initiate is investigated in order to establish the nature of interaction. Further, if they do, what types of students' initiations are used, are explored. On the other hand, if they do not, this thesis attempts to find out the contributing factors.

To expand on the role of the initiation move, the various forms of classroom talk are discussed below, as this can later on in this thesis help in establishing how both lecturers and students initiated classroom talk.

Classroom interaction can be in the form of lecturers providing the students with information. Sinclair and Coulthard, (1992) stated that the I-Move as an informative, "is an act whose function is to pass on ideas, facts, opinions, information and to which an appropriate response is an acknowledgement that one is listening" (p. 9). It can be inferred that lecturers provide information in various ways, because they are the ones who have the lesson objectives. From the said objectives they plan how the classroom talk is going to develop. As a result, they end up providing students with information on the new topic that will later enable them to respond.

Further, the I-move can also be in the form of the lecturer asking questions. Sinclair and Coulthard (1992, 1975) stated that, it is an act whose function is to request a linguistic response from the students. Some scholars have built on the above definition by indicating the person responsible for asking questions. They state that the teacher is the one who asks for the linguist response (Hardman, Smith & Wall, 2003). What is known about the questions asked during classroom interaction is largely based upon their various types. Questions can be closed (display) or open (Hardman, Abd-Kadir & Tibuhinda, 2012; Lynch,

1996). Both types of questions are said to have different functions (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). Closed questions do not enable students to think critically in terms of the answers that they provide. As a result of the closed nature of these types of questions, some scholars call them display questions, because students have to display the information known by the teacher (King, 1990). On the other hand, open questions result in detailed spoken interaction, because students can critically think before they share their responses. It can be argued that when an open question is posed, students do not just ‘scratch the surface’ for answers, instead they consider different points of views to support their answers. Additionally, such questions lead to lengthy and interesting classroom talk.

Another point worth mentioning, which was reviewed at the beginning of this sub-section (3.4.3.1), is that students can also ask questions during the initiation move. Thornbury (1996) described the students’ contributions when he identified that, “a high proportion of student-initiated questions would suggest a healthy distribution of the ‘ownership’ of classroom discourse, which in turn would tend to promote more ‘investment’ on the part of the learner....” (p. 282). Some advantages can be drawn from student-initiated questions and one of these is that the students will feel that classroom interaction is student-centred as opposed to it being lecturer-centred. The second advantage is that the students’ oral competence will grow from one level to another. This is because they have ‘a wide platform’ where they can talk rather than just waiting to talk during the response move, which is discussed in section 3.4.3.2. Finally, the action under discussion will lead to the students not only being able to talk during lectures rather they will have developed a life-long skill. They will use the said life-long skill in different contexts, such as in the workplace and social contexts like family or community meetings.

However, according to Nassaji and Wells (2000), questions posed by the lecturer or teacher can co-exist with provision of information. This suggests that a lecturer can provide students with information and pose some questions and if the questions have been responded to, he or she will retract to the provision of information. The point raised by Nassaji and Wells (2000) is discussed herein, as it might shed some light on the way CSS lecturers initiate classroom talk in terms of provision of information and asking questions.

In addition to the important aspects that make up the initiation move during interaction, is the checking of understanding by the lecturer. Research such as that conducted by Liu (2008) and Walsh (2011) reports that teachers check for confirmation during the teaching and

learning process. It can be argued that approaches such as checking, help teachers to monitor classroom talk. This is because instead of waiting until the end of the lesson, interaction flaws such as not following the topic can be rectified earlier. Nevertheless, checking interaction at intervals should be done with caution to avoid de-motivating the students. Caution could involve amongst other measures, taking note of the frequency of checking by the teacher, the level at which the students are and some pedagogical aspects, such as whether the lesson is revision or a new lesson. From the aforementioned perspective, lecturer checks during a revision lesson could be boring for students, whilst applying the same technique during a new lesson could be an important feature.

The final aspect for consideration under the initiation move, is the teacher giving directives. Directives are acts where the speaker wants the hearer to do something (Coulthard, 1985; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992). On the basis of the above scholars' demonstration of the teacher giving students directives, it can be argued that teachers can refer students to carry out various activities in the classroom. During student-lecturer talk, directives can be offered by the lecturer, for example, referring students to relevant reading sources where applicable. Nonetheless, some of the directives offered in general could be non-verbal. Although this study focuses on verbal interaction in the classroom, the non-verbal is brought to the fore as this can be used by lecturers to improve the nature of classroom talk.

#### **3.4.3.2 The Response (R-Move)**

The response move is the second step during classroom interaction. The R-move refers to the response or reply to the teacher's questions, and it normally comes from the students (e.g., Coulthard, 1975; Francis & Hunston, 1992; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Torrance & Pryor 1995). From the research of the above scholars it can be seen that, in most cases during classroom interaction, students respond to what the lecturer has initiated. Students respond to the questions posed by the lecturer or the teacher 'to solicit a linguistic response' (Kasper, 2001). During this step, students have the upper hand in the answering of the questions raised in class in their endeavour to keep up with the tempo of the nature of classroom interaction.

Even though the belief discussed in the last paragraph seems to be the main understanding of students' responses, it can be maintained that there could be cases where students respond to

what other students have initiated. This assumption comfortably links with the students' initiations raised by Thornbury (1996) above (refer to section 3.4.3.1). Other students' initiations could either be in the form of questions or ideas. The preceding view is also supported by Boyd and Rubin (2006), who argue that there are classroom instances that enable students to expand or comment on what their counterparts have said. Considering the two aforementioned perspectives, it can be argued that responses to classroom interaction can be in two different ways. The students can respond to the lecturer or to their colleagues in an effort to develop quality oral communication skills.

Another divergent measure to the response move is that the lecturers can also respond to students' questions, if there are any, as discussed in section (3.4.3.1). Hellermann (2003) argues that the teacher can respond at the same time as the student and this response is done in "a slightly falling contour" (p. 89-90). From the aforementioned points, two issues explain the point raised by Hellermann (2003) versus the nature of classroom interaction. One view is that the lecturer can provide a response because the students do not come up with the correct answer. Secondly, the lecturer can, together with the students, make a response. In terms of the latter opinion, the lecturer might have thought that the students do not know the correct answer, so he or she then provides one. However, on realising that the students have thought about the answer, that is why they then both provide an answer. Further to the said assumption, if the lecturer realises that a student has an answer, then the lecturers will respond in 'a slightly falling contour'. It can be maintained that 'a slightly falling contour' is the lecturer's attempt to pave way to the development of the students' oral skills. Nonetheless, there could be a limitation attached to both the lecturer and the students providing answers simultaneously. Studies of oral communicative competence (Thornbury, 1996) report that this could be as a result of inadequate 'wait time' by the lecturer. According to Thornbury (1996) 'wait time' is, "... the time teachers allow students to answer questions, before, for example, asking another student, rephrasing the question, or even answering their own question themselves" (p. 282). Moreover, Ingram and Elliott (2014) state that the 'wait time' could be challenging. The interpretation of Ingram and Elliott's statement is that there is competition or disorder regarding student-lecturer interaction. On the whole, this 'controversial' issue is used to establish the quality of classroom talk in CSS classes.

The types of responses in class are an important phenomenon in spoken interaction. During the R-move, students can answer individually or they can give a choral answer depending on

various factors. Some of the factors might be how well the students know the answer, how they have been given the ground rules in class by the lecturer, the lecturer’s directive or it could be determined by the students’ age and the level of education.

Numerous studies in classroom discourse claim that the above types of student responses (individual and choral) are prevalent during the teaching learning process (e.g., Abd-Kadir and Hardman, 2007; Ingram & Elliott, 2014; Jin & Cortazzi, 1998; Molinari, Mameli & Gnisci, 2013; Pontefract & Hardman, 2005). For Abd-Kadir and Hardman (2007), there were more choral responses than individual ones in the classes that they observed. According to the scholars, the said pattern had a negative impact on the quality of classroom interaction because it, “prevented the pupils from engaging in more creative and higher levels of thinking. It therefore led to the perpetuation of a restrictive, often monotonous, model of teaching and learning with little exposure to different functions of language” (Abd-Kadir & Hardman, 2007, p. 10). It can be argued that a relationship exists between the type of responses used by students in the classroom, their critical thinking and the nature of classroom interaction. The said relationship portrays a process of spoken interaction. This process can be illustrated in Figure 3.5 below:

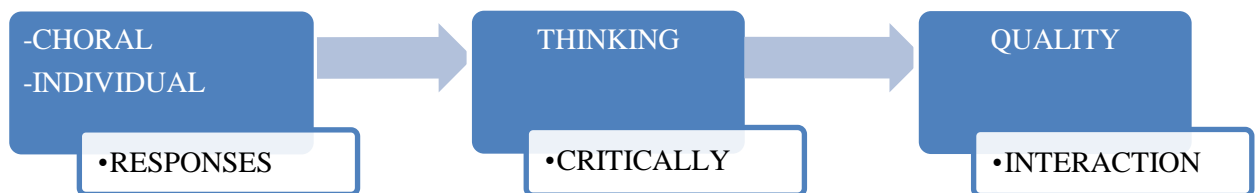


Figure 3.5: The relationship between the students’ responses and quality classroom interaction

### 3.4.3.3 The Feedback (F-Move)

The feedback move marks the last part of the IRF structure. Cullen (2002) developed the following definition: “The ‘F- Move’ refers to the ‘Follow up’ or the ‘Feedback’ move identified by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) in their well known analysis of classroom discourse, as the third move in the I-R-F exchange structure...” (p.117). From the above definition, the F-move is provided to the responses made earlier on during classroom talk, as

discussed in section 3.4.3.2. This suggests that, for the foregoing structure to complete classroom talk, there is a need to comment on the responses made earlier on.

Relating to the said comments, it has been suggested that the feedback is for the teacher as noted by Nassaji and Wells (2000) who wrote, “the teacher always has the right to provide the third move.” (p. 377). Nassaji and Wells’s use of the adverb, ‘always’ suggests that after a response, the teacher or the lecturer must provide feedback. In the current study, the said way of providing feedback, was used to establish who provided feedback in CSS classes, in particular whether the lecturers solely provided the feedback or that also the students gave input.

Some studies (e.g., ARE paper, 2003; Cullen, 2002; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Waring, 2008) have discussed the feedback move and considered various aspects of the move, such as its purpose and how it can be revealed. The F-move has been reported to carry, “two broad pedagogical roles” (Cullen, 2002). In specifying the said roles, Hellermann (2003), states that the F-move is an important element in ending the teaching exchange. In addition, Hellermann highlights that the end of the teaching exchange can lead to a new teaching exchange. In summing up, the two advantages that the scholar notes are:

In the classroom, a teacher’s repetition of a student’s words acknowledges and evaluates student participation (Sinclair & Brazil 1982) while reshaping or revoicing that participation to meet the subject-matter agenda of the teacher, and, finally, to shape the trajectory of the immediately following discourse. The systematic use of prosodic cues with these repetitions allows for the co-construction of some kind of assessment of the student response by the teacher (2003, p. 83).

This is because in the F-move being evaluative, it can be argued that it is the same as ending the teaching exchange. Further, it can be argued that the discursal aspect within the F-move suggests the beginning of a new teaching exchange. In referring to the last pedagogical role suggested by Cullen (2002), and Hellermann (2003) above, Ackers and Hardman (2001) identify that the F-move is important in eliciting a teaching exchange. Finally, the foregoing pedagogical role can be viewed as, a good indicator of a dialogic aspect in the classroom because it reveals a ‘quality classroom climate’ (Alexander, 2008b).



From the aforementioned two advantages, it can be argued that these are interlocked. This is because the teacher can end the teaching exchange by acknowledging the student's response, or as Hellermann (2003) further argues, the lecturer can just repeat the student's response. On the other hand, the same F-move can be used to 'elicit a teaching exchange' if the teacher asks a probing question to allow the student to say more about the answer. From another perspective, Chin (2006) has investigated the function of the F-move in four ways. According to this scholar, the four ways are affirming the student's answer, accepting the answer and then asking another related question, correcting the answer, and evaluating comments or reformulating the question. Interestingly, Chin condenses the four advantages of the F-move to two. The scholar believes that affirming and correcting elements does not provide for more student talk, whilst accepting and evaluating call for more student talk. It can be argued that Chin's last two points relate to what the other scholars above have found out (Ackers and Hardman, 2001; Cullen, 2002; Hellermann, 2003; Nassaji and Wells, 2000). From the foregoing unanimity amongst the researchers, the F-move still has two main advantages. These are that the F-move can be used at the end of the teaching exchange or to start a new teaching exchange.

The above two advantages, therefore, suggest that the F-move plays a dual role in classroom interaction. These two advantages of feedback are very important in establishing that classroom interaction is tackled from all angles. Further, the importance lies in that the students will end up having 'a larger contribution' of the interaction and thus this dual role of interaction can minimize the lecturer's domination of the spoken interaction.

Other studies conclude the foregoing interlocking idea of the F-move by indicating that indeed there is a 'dual role' attached to the F-move. Cullen (2002) points out:

In this interaction, the teacher's follow-up moves play a crucial part in clarifying and building on the ideas that the students express in their responses, and in developing a meaningful dialogue between teacher and class. In doing so, the teacher supports learning by creating an environment which is rich in language and humour (p. 124).

From the above quotation, the F-move is important as it can be used by lecturers to open a dialogue in the classroom. In relation to Cullen (2002)'s observation, Nassaji and Wells (2000) state that the F-move is used, "...by evaluating the students' contribution for its

conformity to what he or she considers to be a correct or acceptable response” (p. 377). Cullen’s (2002) evaluation is expanded to both closing a teaching exchange and opening a new one. From all that the above authors have stated about the F-move, it can be argued that it is important in terms of its two main roles. If the teacher finds it fit to end the teaching exchange it will be accomplished. On the other hand, if the teacher probes for more information the same will be done by beginning a new teaching exchange. For Cullen (2002) this expanded move functions as a discursual move. Conclusively, the feedback move that opens a new teaching exchange is the best, as it contributes to the development of quality classroom talk amongst the students.

Building on the issue of quality feedback mentioned in the last paragraph is the development of students’ cognitive skills. These are important in this thesis because if higher order skills are employed in the classroom, there would be more students’ talk. It is worth mentioning that the students’ cognitive skills tie in with Bloom’s taxonomy of educational objectives. Bloom taxonomy’s key proponent was an American Educational Psychologist named Benjamin Bloom (Seifert, 1991, p. 448). Bloom came up with three learning domains however this study focuses only on cognitive development as it explains spoken interaction. According to him, the taxonomy starts with lower order cognitive skills and ends with the highest order cognitive skills. The lower order skills are lighter and do not offer ample thinking as compared with the highest order skills.

The taxonomy is as follows, beginning with the lower order cognitive skills and ending with the highest cognitive skills, which are good for student-lecturer interaction:

Step 1. Knowledge: Being able to remember ideas but with minimal elaboration from either the students or the lecturer.

Step 2. Comprehension: Showing understanding by expanding on an idea.

Step 3. Application: Using an idea in particular situations. Students can apply better speaking skills during their group presentations, in other subject areas other than CSS or even outside the classroom.

Step 4. Analysis: Examining each of the ideas raised and hence opening up student-lecturer interaction.

Step 5. Synthesis: Coming up with what is common from the different aspects.

Step 6. Evaluation: Making a judgement of the ideas.

(Adapted from: Huitt, W. (2004). Bloom et al.'s taxonomy of the cognitive domain.)

Each of the six steps becomes increasingly complex and as a result offers enough thinking which opens up the interaction in class. Numerous studies have attempted to explain that a question tests critical thinking if it asks for more than just 'recall' and also addresses open-ended questions (Hardman & Ng'ambi, 2003; King, 1990; Wasik, Bond, & Hindman, 2006).

Building on the above findings by Cullen (2002) that feedback also functions as a discursual move, further studies of classroom interaction (e.g., ARE paper, 2003; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Waring, 2008), have found that although classroom interaction is important, teacher follow-up to student responses may foster or impede opportunities for interaction. This indicates that if learners do not make use of feedback, it is an indication of missed opportunities (DeWitt & Hohenstein, 2010; English, Hargreaves & Hislam, 2002; Li, 2013). Teacher follow-up can impede opportunities for interaction if a strict IRF pattern is followed. This implies that there is no new information that builds from the F-move. New information can be provided by both teachers and students, and examples of this could be asking questions or making comments that will extend classroom talk. On the other hand, if the students' responses are followed up by probing questions, the students also ask questions, which are in turn answered by other students, that will improve the nature of classroom talk. Generally, investigating the nature of interaction could result in finding some insights into whether the F-move is being utilised or not in CSS classes.

### **3.5 Criticisms of the IRF moves**

Despite the advantages of the IRF moves reviewed in the last subsection, there are some criticisms attached to this structure of interaction. Relating to the foregoing point Wegerif (2004) explains that, "the criticism of the limiting effects of the IRF in teacher student dialogue has been carried over to IRF type exchanges with computers" (p. 181).

Reflecting on the criticism of the limiting effects mentioned by Wegerif (2004) above, a number of these are discussed. One of these is that some classroom discourse researchers view the IRF pattern as mainly characterised by teacher dominance in terms of interaction (Lemke, 1992; Nystrand & Gamoran 1991; Wood, 1992). For the aforementioned authors the IRF pattern is mainly a teacher-centred strategy rather than a student-centred one.

Another related point of the IRF pattern is that other scholars see it as limiting students' participation (Garton, 2012; Ozemir, 2009). Ozemir (2009) points out that other academics view the analytical tool as not involving the students because, "... teachers have the rights to initiate speech, to distribute turns and evaluate students' utterances, whereas students have much more restricted participation rights, opportunities to ask questions, and negotiate meaning..." (p. 117). Thus, the students' ability to talk is overlooked by teachers. The most important solution to the ineffectiveness of the IRF pattern, however, has come later with Garton (2012) when she explains that her study,

...has identified some of the ways in which learners actively contribute to what has been previously seen as a more rigid form of interaction. Far from being constrained by the classroom turn-taking system, learners are able to engage in complex and sophisticated interactional network. They can take control of the organisational sequences in classroom talk, depending on the type of activity they are involved in, so as to direct the interaction in a way that better suits their learning needs (p. 42).

Given the solution by Garton (2012) above, this thesis seeks to find out whether or not the students in CSS classes develop their oral skills.

### **3.6 Justification for using the IRF model**

The IRF analytical model of classroom interaction has been chosen for this particular study because I agree with the containment hierarchy designed for the approach. This is because for student-lecturer talk to emerge, there has to be a consideration of structures such as the IRF. If this hierarchy is not observed there might be amongst other issues, silent classrooms. Furthermore, in the main structures there are the smaller aspects of talk to focus on. Examples of these are initiation, response and feedback. This shows that as the lecturer and the students talk, there is a certain element that is addressed at that point in time.

Another reason for using the IRF model is because of its progressive nature. This is because the nature and pattern of interaction develops leading to quality practice. In an example of the feedback move, the dialogue is not closed or completed. There is provision for further dialogue which can be done by probing or redirecting the question. Feedback acts as a bridge

to interaction, more especially if it is expanded by asking questions. This helps the talk to be lively and the students to develop cognitively.

Further, IRF moves are used to analyse this particular study as they relate to SCT. This is because as lecturer and students talk in the classroom, they do so in a social and cultural manner. The said manner is further revealed through mediation, co-construction of knowledge and scaffolding, which have been discussed in section 3.3.2. During the process, language is used and this helps students to develop their oral communicative competence.

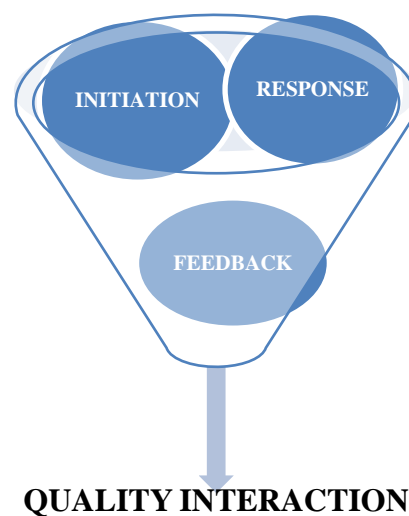


Figure 3.6: How IRF moves leads to quality interaction

### 3.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter considered three main aspects of the literature that are relevant to this thesis. These are classroom interaction, Sociocultural Theory and the analytical tool (the IRF). The important factor about classroom interaction is that there should be quality interaction between the lecturers and the students. Quality interaction helps students to develop cognitively and to develop into better speakers. Related to this is that the said type of interaction minimises lecturer dominance in CSS classes. Even though quality interaction is of vital importance, it is indicated from the literature that there are still some constraints to the foregoing important aspect. Some of these are large class sizes, code-switching and the students' transition from high school to university.

Another main factor was to review the literature regarding the theoretical framework that would be used to benchmark the findings relating to interaction. SCT was therefore used with specific reference to mediation, co-construction of knowledge and scaffolding. These three were reviewed as they relate very well to the development of quality classroom interaction. As noted by Tabulawa (2013), a socio-cultural approach should be used as a basis for teaching and learning. In an endeavour to find out how lecturers and students interact during the teaching and learning process in CSS classes, SCT was found to be a relevant theory.

Lastly, the analytical tool to be used in this thesis was also reviewed. Given the fact that the IRF pattern is seen as attempting to develop students' oral skills, the said tool is used in this thesis. This is because as noted by Cullen (2002) the, "two broad pedagogical roles" within the IRF make the tool more applicable to measure educational practice. In investigating the quality of interaction in CSS classes, it would be helpful to consider whether the tool is used to 'end a teaching exchange' or to 'start a new teaching exchange' (Hellerman, 2003). On the whole, having presented and reviewed classroom interaction, the SCT and IRF, the summary indicates that there is a synergy between the three aforementioned features. The said synergy was used in this study to examine the quality of student-lecturer interaction in CSS classes.

## **CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY**

### **4.1 Introduction**

The earlier chapter reviewed the literature and outlined the different aspects of classroom interaction, the theoretical framework and the analytical tools relevant to this study. This chapter describes the methodology of the study. The overview of the study is described in detail. The section that follows addresses the research design and its justification. Section 4.4 discusses the location of the study and this is followed by the participants of the study, methods of sampling and research ethics. Section 4.8 addresses the pilot study before moving on to another section that discusses the research instruments. Following these is a section that explains the data collection. The last two sections (4.11 and 4.12) explain the data analysis procedures and the reliability and validity of the research instruments.

### **4.2 Overview of the Research**

The overall purpose of this study was to examine the quality of student-lecturer interaction in CSS classes at the University of Botswana in order to establish how effective it is in developing students' communicative competence. In other words, this study aimed to find out whether or not classroom interaction helps to develop students' oral skills, which is the main goal of these classes.

The following research questions and sub-questions were used to examine student-lecturer interaction in CSS classes at the University of Botswana.

1. What kinds of interactions occur between students and lecturers in CSS classes?
  - 1.1 What kinds of questions are asked by the lecturers?
  - 1.2 What kinds of responses do the students provide?
  - 1.3 What kinds of feedback (if any) do the lecturers provide?
  - 1.4 To what degree are the lecturer-student interactions extended?
2. From the lecturers' perspective, how successful are classroom interactions in developing their students' oral communicative competence?
  - 2.1 How successful are the questions provided by the lecturers?
  - 2.2 How successful are the responses provided by the students?
  - 2.3 How successful is the feedback (if any) provided by the lecturers?

2.4 How successful is the overall classroom interaction?

3. From the students' perspective, how successful were the classroom interactions in developing their oral communicative competence?

3.1 How successful are the questions provided by the lecturers?

3.2 How successful are the responses provided by the students?

3.3 How successful is the feedback (if any) provided by the lecturers?

3.4 How successful is the overall classroom interaction?

The above research questions were answered by using mixed methods research which involved both qualitative and quantitative research techniques. To further use a mixed methods approach, a sample was chosen which consisted of seven lecturers from the seven faculties of the UB. The seven faculties were; Business, Education, Engineering and Technology, Health Sciences, Humanities, Social Sciences and Science. The said sample was chosen using purposive or judgmental sampling as this enabled the researcher to check whether all the faculties offering CSS were represented. This was important, as overall representation would assist in drawing informed findings for the study regarding interaction in CSS classes. Also, another important aspect involves the instruments that were used to collect data in an endeavour to answer the above research questions. The instruments involved classroom observations, systematic observations and semi-structured interviews. These were used to triangulate the results and to provide a detailed understanding of how lecturers and students interacted in the CSS classes.

#### **4.3 The Research Design**

The research design helps one to understand how the research was carried out. According to Creswell (1994), "the design of a study begins with the selection of a topic and a paradigm. Paradigms in the human and social sciences help us understand phenomena..." (p. 1). Thus, the research design in this thesis focused on a mixed methods approach to help readers to understand how and why this research was carried out.



### 4.3.1 Mixed Methods

Mixed methods is a type of research where more than one method is used in analysing the data (Brannen, 2005). For this study to be viable, both qualitative and quantitative research techniques were used to collect and analyse data, with the two methods complementing each other. According to some authors (e.g., Biesta, 2012; Bryman, 2006; Hanson, Creswell, Clark, & Petska, 2005; Hardman, Abd-Kadir, Agg, Migwi, Ndambuku, & Smith, 2009; Ivankova, Creswell & Stick, 2006; Johnson, 1992; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007; Mercer, 2010) this type of research is also known as mixed methods research and its function is called triangulation (refer to section 4.3.3 below for more details).

Although this particular study used a mixed methods design, most of the data were qualitative. Qualitative study deals with words and observations and then indicates meanings of the words used and observations made (Dey, 1993; Taylor-Powell & Renner, 2003). This is because this study involved transcripts of lecturer and student interviews and video recordings of the spoken interaction in the classroom. Other scholars also support that qualitative analysis is fed by qualitative data sources such as narrations from interviews and observations (Martínez, Dimitriadis, Rubia & de la Funte, 2003). This suggests that qualitative is mainly about the views and expressions of the participants.

Interaction at university was described using quantitative research methods (refer to Chapter 5). Quantitative research methods deal with numbers (Dey, 1993). As a result, I used the three main categories (I-R-F moves), to analyse data (classroom interaction) in numbers. This study involved a descriptive record as referred to by Mason and Bramble (1978), and Kamba (2009). A descriptive record means that I gave an account of how spoken interaction developed in the CSS classes and this was done quantitatively.

On the other hand, the research involved case studies of individual lecturers (refer to Chapter 6). It focused on this qualitative aspect based on the fact that according to Kamba (2009), “in a case study the researcher explores a single entity or phenomenon (‘the case’) bounded by time and activity (e.g., a program, event, institution or social group) and collects detailed information through a variety of data” (p. 104). Thus, seven CSS classes were studied using classroom observations and after, these were used for comparative purposes.

In using mixed methods to describe classroom interaction in this study, sociocultural theory was used as a lens and the research questions were answered as follows: Research question 1

was answered by using all three instruments, namely; classroom observations, systematic observations and semi-structured interviews. This was because all three instruments revealed the quality of classroom interaction. This was done by using the initiation, response, feedback (IRF) moves in the classroom, as a yardstick. Finally, research questions 2 and 3 were answered using semi-structured interviews with both the lecturers and the students. Still using the IRF moves as a yardstick, both the lecturers and the students shared their views regarding the success of oral communicative competence in CSS classes.

#### **4.3.2 Justification for Using Mixed Methods**

In order to examine the quality and success of classroom talk, mixed methods design is advantageous because it helps achieve the numeric and qualitative data of classroom talk used by the lecturers and the students. The data was then interpreted, analysed and explained. This suggests that the spoken interaction in CSS classes was validated, as there was cross checking of the quantitative and the qualitative data, allowing for triangulation (Angouri, 2010; Johnson, 1992). Additionally, other researchers such as Ellis (1985) have argued that, "...qualitative analyses as well as quantitative analyses of input data are essential if we are to increase our understanding of how input affects second language acquisition (SLA)" (p. 69). Thus the use of mixed methods does not only provide the data but plays a vital role of enriching the data, hence a better understanding of the research findings. This justification about mixed methods relates to the sub-section that follows about triangulation.

#### **4.3.3 Triangulation**

Triangulation is the deepening and widening of one's understanding of both the analysis and findings of the study by using more than one method or source of data (Brannen, 2005; Bryman & Bell, 2011; Copland, 2012; Olsen, 2004). As it has already been pointed out in section 4.3.1, this function of mixed methods is important in examining the quality of student-lecturer interaction, as it offered an opportunity to have a broader picture of how classroom talk takes place in CSS classes. This was facilitated by the fact that two approaches were used. These two approaches were data and methodological triangulation.

There are various types of triangulation, however this particular study concentrated on only two which are referred to in the paragraph above. The said two approaches are the ones applicable to this particular study. Data triangulation was used in this thesis because of the

use of classroom observations and interviews. The interview data from both the lecturers and the students built upon the classroom observations (Silverman, 2006). Further, the different methods were used to corroborate the findings of the study (Angouri, 2010); hence, methodological triangulation. The use of qualitative and quantitative research helped to confirm the validity (accuracy) of the methods. Corroboration of the findings also helped to confirm the findings and helped in their interpretation. Finally, this thesis sought to find out if classroom interaction was a success in CSS classes. With this in mind both data and methodological triangulation was used.

#### **4.4 Location of the study**

This section focuses on the location where this study was carried. The section builds on section 2.2 to help provide an understanding of how the context relates to the methodology of the study. UB was until in August 2012, the only state university in Botswana.

Before 1982, there was amalgamation of universities amongst three states in Southern Africa namely Botswana (then Bechuanaland), Basutoland (now Lesotho) and Swaziland, who agreed to have one university. The university was, in 1 January 1964, called University of Bechuanaland, Basutoland and Swaziland (UBBS) (University of Botswana, 2015) and was based in Maseru, Lesotho. However, by 1978 there was a paradigm shift as two of the three countries (Botswana and Swaziland) withdrew from Lesotho and the former states then formed the University of Botswana and Swaziland (UBS) with the campus in Swaziland. In 1982 both states agreed to have separate national universities. As a result, the University of Botswana (UB) was established and it was based in Gaborone, the capital city of Botswana. UB has since grown independently until today, with now seven faculties. UB admits on merit both in-service and pre-service students. However, from 1982 to date, no study has been carried out regarding student-lecturer interaction.

#### **4.5 Participants of the Study**

The population for this study was all first year students and the lecturers of CSS at the University of Botswana for the academic year August 2011-May 2012. The total student population was 3 483, whilst the total lecturer population was 29. From this population, a sample was chosen. This view is supported by Mertens (1998, p. 112) who writes, “once the general nature of the respondents has been identified, it is time for the researcher to become

more specific about the information sources”. Since CSS is offered to all first years at the University of Botswana, a sample was chosen from the pool of all the CSS lecturers and students.

The sample consisted of those lecturers who agreed to being observed, of whom there were 7 in total. On the other hand, 356 students participated in the study. The said sample was categorised as follows:

| <b>Lecturer’s name</b>          | <b>Faculty</b>             | <b>Number of students</b> |
|---------------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|
| Pretty                          | Science                    | 30                        |
| Star                            | Science                    | 35                        |
| Star                            | Business                   | 47                        |
| Victor                          | Business                   | 41                        |
| Masterpiece                     | Social Sciences            | 43                        |
| Queen                           | Engineering and technology | 22                        |
| Princess                        | Humanities                 | 54                        |
| Glorious                        | Education                  | 54                        |
| Glorious                        | Health Sciences            | 30                        |
| <b>TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS</b> |                            | <b>356</b>                |

Table 4.1: Participants of the study

The above lecturer participants were given pseudonyms in order to maintain their anonymity. However, the names of the sample faculties were maintained in order to indicate that none of the faculties to which CSS is offered was left out. The students’ numbers varied within classes, because the enrolment depended on the students in the faculty, and because of some other administrative issues such as free CSS slots for students.

The above sample was accessed by writing them letters seeking permission through the Office of Research and Development (ORD) at the University of Botswana (refer to Appendices 1 and 2), and the Director and Deputy Director of the Centre for Academic Development (CAD), which CSS falls. The Deputy Director of CSSU sent out an e-mail to members of staff to inform them about my data collection. The classes observed were based within UB campus. I followed them to their respective venues as I was given the classroom venues by the lecturers.

The sample consisted of seven lecturers from the seven faculties of UB. The seven faculties are; Business, Education, Engineering and Technology, Health Sciences, Humanities, Social

Sciences and Science. However, as discussed in section 5.2, two of the lecturers observed taught CSS in the faculty of Science, and the other two taught in the faculty of Business making a total of nine lecturers. On the other hand, the sample consisted of students of the groups concerned. The sample students consisted of varying numbers of students from all the seven faculties mentioned above.

#### **4.6 Methods of Sampling and Justification**

Having been granted permission to carry out the study, a purposive sampling procedure was employed. This means that I knocked at all the offices and where there were lecturers, I shared with them the purpose of my study. Alternatively, the lecturers were sampled by calling their office phone numbers. If they were available, an appointment was made with them, in order to tell them about the purpose of the study face to face. Those who agreed to be observed whilst teaching and to be interviewed were then followed to their classes for the verbal consent (refer to Appendix 3) from their students. According to Creswell (1994), "...purposive or judgmental sample, wherein potential respondents are chosen on the basis of their convenience and availability" (p. 120). This suggests that the nine lecturers were chosen because they were available for face to face meeting and gave their consent. This type of sampling was chosen because the data collection involved capturing real lessons by video recording. Some people might be reluctant to be video recorded or to be observed as they thought that the recordings might be used to negatively rate their teaching styles.

#### **4.7 Research Ethics and Access to Research Participants**

Ethical concerns are important to consider when both piloting and conducting the main data collection of most research studies. Mason & Bramble (1978) define Research Ethics as "being cognizant of the rights and welfare of the subjects" (p. 354). Thus while carrying out research there are certain observations and steps that the researcher should be aware of and implement them. This is important to ensure that the research is carried out in an acceptable manner in terms of showing respect to the subjects. Mertens (1998) states that, "ethics in research are an integral part of the planning and implementation process." (p. 23). Based on the caution from Mertens above, to commence the research work, a number of steps were carried out in an endeavour to consider the ethical concerns of the research subjects. I sought permission throughout the data collection process (refer to Appendices 1 to 6). Initially,

permission was sought to collect data from the University of York through the Department of Education and my supervisor. This was done by completing the Research Ethics Form (refer to Appendix 6) and attaching the research proposal. The research proposal went through the University of York's ethics procedures that conform to the British Educational Research Association's Ethics Code.

Following seeking permission from the University of York, permission was sought from the University of Botswana to conduct the study. As it was the UB procedure, this was done whilst still in York in the United Kingdom. This was done by asking the following offices for permission: the Office of Research and Development (ORD) (Refer to Appendix 1), The Director-Centre for Academic Development, The Deputy Director-Communication and Study Skills Unit. The same letter was sent to the three offices mentioned above. Similarly, the research proposal went through the University of Botswana's ethics procedures and was reviewed by the Research Ethics Committee at UB. After being reviewed, permission was granted in writing by the same office (refer to Appendix 2).

The next step relating to ethical issues was carried out whilst in Botswana. I asked for the students' and lecturers' consent before carrying out the research. According to research methods scholars, informed consent has to be sought by the researcher, as this protects the rights of the participants from the risk of harm from the study (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Eichelberger, 1989; Mertens, 1998; Rubin & Rubin, 1995). The request for consent was carried out in two ways. One of these was by asking for verbal consent (refer to Appendix 3). During this procedure, the first visit to each class was used to explain a number of issues, from the overall purpose of the study to the ethical concerns suggested by earlier researchers. After verbal consent was given, both the lecturers and the students were given a written consent form to read and sign (refer to Appendices 4 and 5). Two written consent forms were signed, one was for the classroom observations whilst the other was for the interviews. After signing, these were submitted to me.

In maintaining confidentiality and anonymity, the identity of the participants was not made available during or after the study. Additionally, to maintain the participants' confidentiality, they were given pseudonyms (refer to Appendix 10). The privacy of the participants was maintained at all times (Creswell, 1994; von Diether, 2011). However, because of the nature of the study, some of the data formed part of this thesis, for example, where the participants' views of classroom interaction needed to be quoted and the faculties that were involved

during the classroom interaction. It can be argued that these could not be avoided because this thesis sought to examine classroom talk during the said lessons. Finally, as for the research site, which was mainly where the interviews were conducted, I ensured that there was no disturbance in the room (Creswell, 1994). This was done by putting up a notice on the door to avoid (a) disturbances by visitors (b) visitors associating the final information provided with any of the participants. I used an office that was far from the CSSU physical site.

#### **4.8 The role of the researcher as an ‘insider researcher’**

Building on the research ethics above this sub-section discusses my role as an insider researcher. According to Greene (2014), “Insider research is that which is conducted within a social group, organization or culture of which the researcher is also a member” (p. 1). This suggests that I was an insider researcher at the University of Botswana. This is because during both the pilot testing and the main data collection, I used UB to collect the data in Communication and Study Skills. This is because I have been a lecturer at the University of Botswana offering CSS since 2003 to 2010 when I went for further studies.

There are some benefits of being an insider researcher and one of these is that one already has an idea of what is going on within the institution. It is using the said idea that could help in coming up with focused research ideas in an endeavour to see a change for the better. The overall benefits of being an insider researcher have been summed up by Unluer (2012) when the author cited Bonner and Tolhurst (2002) who identified three key benefits as, “(a) having a greater understanding of the culture being studied; (b) not altering the flow of social interaction unnaturally; and (c) having an established intimacy which promotes both the telling and the judging of truth”. (p. 1). This means that as an insider researcher I have greater knowledge about the UB students and lecturers offering CSS. Additionally, I would use the aforementioned knowledge not to change the way the lectures are being conducted. Finally, I will be in a position to assess if the classroom interaction has not been hampered with. This is because I would be using the seven years that I have been in the system.

Even though being an insider researcher is advantageous as stated in the paragraph above, there are some disadvantages attached to the process. Some of these are that being an insider researcher can lead to relaxation, not researching the topic in depth and on the whole coming up with data that is not rich. In supporting the said disadvantage, Mercer (2007) states that,

greater familiarity can make insiders more likely to take things for granted develop myopia, and assume their own perspective is far more widespread than it actually is; the vital significance of the “unmarked” (Brekhus, 1998) might not be noticed; the “obvious” question might not be asked (Hockey, 1993, p. 206); the “sensitive” topic might not be raised (Preedy and Riches, 1988); shared prior experiences might not be explained (Powney and Watts, 1987, p. 186; Kanuha, 2000, p. 442); assumptions might not be challenged (Hockey, 1993, p. 202); seemingly shared norms might not be articulated (Platt, 1981, p. 82); and data might become thinner as a result. (p. 11).

In avoiding the drawbacks of being an insider researcher, I was open to a number of data collection methods as indicated in section 4.11. Additionally, in avoiding being myopic, the participants were free to suggest meeting times such as weekends and meeting them at home. Also, sensitive aspects were raised by both the students and the lecturers. As a result of this ‘wide spectrum’ in collecting the data, that is why the results of this study indicate the ‘good’ and the ‘not so good’ patterns of classroom interaction (refer to section 6.2).

#### **4.9 Pilot Testing of the Research Instruments**

Pilot testing is trying out the research instruments on subjects similar to the ones who will be used for the main study (Davies, 2007; von Diether, 2011). Pilot testing is important because if the instruments have got some problems, these can be rectified before carrying out the main task of collecting data.

The three research instruments; classroom observations, systematic observations and interview guides were piloted for the whole month of April 2011 in CSS classes at UB.

##### **4.9.1 Classroom Observations**

Classroom Observations are defined by Dikinya., Seeletso., Tloteng., Lesetedi., Molebatsi., & Ntuma (2008) as, “the need to get first hand data by watching how people or an object being studied behaves in a research setting or environment without direct contact with them” (p. 143). This suggests that one gathers data from the participants and later on the researcher analyses the behaviour that was displayed.



Initially permission to observe their classes was sought from the CSS lecturers. Those who agreed to be observed were briefed on what was to take place during the classroom observations. Five lecturers in the CSSU agreed to be observed. Before the exercise, I approached the students of the lecturers' classes concerned for their consent. Fortunately none of them disagreed and after which the lecturers and the students signed the consent forms. Ten classes were observed and each lecturer was observed twice where both the systematic observation and video recordings were carried out.

For recording the classroom observations, the DVD recorder was modified by changing the settings of its camera to a long recording mode also known as Long Play (LP). This was done so that the 30 minutes recording discs could cover the whole lesson without having to change the disc in the middle of the lesson as LP extends the recording time. This was done because there were no, one-hour DVDs either in York, United Kingdom or Gaborone, Botswana. Assistance was sought at UB where one technician helped to run the discs on long mode and taught the research assistant how to adjust the camera settings for all the lessons observed.

#### **4.9.2 The Systematic Observations**

Rajab (2013) defines Systematic Observations as, “schemes that lend themselves to quantifying and measuring the behaviours within the classroom environment, for instance teacher-student verbal encounters”. (p. 96). Thus, Systematic Observations are instruments designed to calculate the amount of classroom interaction. For this thesis, the answers derived from the calculations will help in answering the research questions of this study. Each lecturer was observed twice using the systematic observation schedule. There were no modifications to the coding system because the same major codes of initiation, responses and feedback were used for the main data collection. Also, the same sub-codes were used for the main data collection.

### **4.9.3 The Interview Guides**

Interviews are defined by Mason & Bramble (1978) as, “a verbal discussion conducted by one person with another for the purpose of obtaining information” (p. 298). Thus, there is a question and answer session between the interviewer and the interviewee. The main purpose of the said session is to obtain information for the interviewer’s study.

The other research instrument was that of conducting interviews. During the pilot exercise only the initial interviews were carried out with the lecturers because of time constraints. Five students were interviewed with one student from each class. This means that the post-interviews were not carried out because of the same reason of time limitations. This is because, according to the UB almanac, the pilot exercise encroached into the time when the lecturers and the students were busy with the end of the semester assessments (refer to section 2.2). The interviews were recorded using a digital voice recorder and four lecturers were interviewed. The fifth lecturer did not make it at the scheduled time because of other engagements.

In addition, the interview guide was modified where there was need. Some of the interview questions were made clearer so that the questions did not confuse the participants. From the responses provided by the participants, it became clear that there was a need for employing strategies such as probing in order to get more and rich information regarding student-lecturer interaction. As a result of the pilot study, the participants were asked to explain their answers (refer to Appendix 9 question number 5, and Appendix 10 question number 2).

### **4.10 Research Instruments**

Three types of research instruments were used for collecting data for this thesis. These were systematic observations, classroom observations and interviews. These were used to obtain and triangulate (refer to section 4.3.3) information relating to the quality and success of classroom interaction in CSS classes. Mercer (2010) states that it is logical to use two or more methods for analysing talk in a complementary way. The use of only one data collection method might not enrich the findings of a study.

#### **4.10.1 Systematic Observations**

Systematic observations of all the twenty-seven lessons were carried out. This was done, by using a checklist of items (refer to Appendix 7). The advantage of systematic observations is the recording and sequential analysis of the number of ‘talk turns’ between the lecturers and the students (Heap, 1992; Mercer, 2010). This particular instrument was used to ensure that I did not miss any important aspect of the spoken interaction. This was done, by ticking the various aspects of talk that were used by both the lecturers and the students. The checklist of items was also used to allow for the quantitative aspect of the study discussed in section 4.3.1. In this thesis, therefore, the extent of lecturer-student talk was measured within the total teaching time. Generally, the systematic observations were used in order to answer research question 1 in terms of the quantitative aspect. Therefore, the research instrument helped to find out the nature of classroom interaction in CSS classes.

According to Bryman (2006), a quantitative instrument, of which systematic observations are one, reveals important features about a case. Therefore this study revealed three main features observed in each of the twenty-seven classrooms. These three were the overall initiation, response and feedback (IRF) moves. As discussed in section 3.4.3, the IRF moves was used to analyse the data of this study. Also, in relation to systematic observations, the IRF moves were used to measure the quantitative aspect of the study. This is because I was in a position to draw conclusions regarding the nature and success of interaction that took place in CSS classes. In relation to the said features, the first item was the initiation (I-move). The researcher focused on the various ways of initiating the lesson. This I-move was split into six categories. Five of the categories were used by the lecturer who elicited some verbal information. The last category was used by one of the students who also made a verbal contribution in the form of a question (refer to Appendix 7). From the items, I considered who initiated the lesson, whether it was the lecturer or the students. Consideration of this move helped in the analysis of the nature and pattern of interaction.

The second main item that the researcher focused on was the response move. This particular move was checked considering three aspects. These were whether it was a male or female student who gave the response. For another aspect, the same was checked for choral responses. However, the talk turns between males and females were later combined in order

to smoothly and explicitly address the research, for two reasons. One was to align the data with this study's overall purpose of examining the quality of student-lecturer interaction in CSS classes. Secondly, this was done to bring to agreement the findings of the study and the dialogic teaching indicators identified by Alexander (2008b).

The final item that the researcher observed was the feedback move. In this particular move, a number of items were considered. These included amongst others, acceptance, praise, criticism, probing, commenting and elaborating on the answer. Some of these marked an end to a teaching exchange whilst some led to a new teaching exchange. The latter type, which led to a new teaching exchange, was amongst others in the form of probes. On the other hand, the type that ended a teaching exchange was in the form of comments and acceptance (refer to Appendix 7).

However, systematic observations have also been noted to have limitations that can affect the coding (Mercer, 2010; Mercer, Littleton & Wegerif, 2004). Such limitations include ambiguity of meanings, temporal development of meanings and utterances with the same surface form. However, the said limitations did not affect the coding for this study because the 'ticks' for this study mainly considered the IRF moves (discussed below) and were not related to the time as in a time analysis study. Another reason is that from the data collected, the issues that related to ambiguity and temporal development were very insignificant in terms of occurrences that would affect the coding. Examples of insignificant occurrences are found in Appendix 11.2, teaching exchange 5).

#### **4.10.2 Classroom Observations**

In addition to systematic observations, classroom observations were also used to collect data relating to the quality of student-lecturer talk in CSS classes. According to research methods scholars, classroom observation is where one gets first hand information by watching and recording how people being studied naturally behaves in a research setting (Dikinya, Seeletso, Tloteng, Lesetedi, Molebatsi & Ntuma, 2008; Eichelberger, 1989; Mertens, 1998). Additionally, the above scholars have revealed that the aforementioned research instrument is advantageous in a number of ways, such as for observing the physical environment, the human and the social environment, and program activities in order to obtain detailed and context related data. It is said that the facts not mentioned in the interview may be encountered during classroom observations hence enabling one to test for reliability and

validity of the data. Therefore, in this thesis, classroom observations were used in order to get data from the participants' natural setting (their classrooms) in order to come up with detailed information that could be used to explain the quality of classroom interaction. As a result, the classroom observations helped to answer research question 1, with particular focus on the qualitative aspect. This dimension helped with finding out more about how the lecturers and the students interacted in CSS classes.

Another aspect relating to classroom observations is that there are three main types. As Bryman and Bell (2011, p. 272) explain, *participant observation* "is primarily associated with qualitative research and entails the relatively prolonged immersion of the observer in a social setting in which he or she seeks to observe the behaviour of members of that setting". *Non-participant observation* "is used to describe a situation in which the observer observes but does not participate in what is going on in the social setting." Finally, *unstructured observation* "does not entail the use of an observation schedule for the recording of behaviour." The three types differ in relation to the methodological aspects employed. In this thesis, non-participant observation was used in that I (as the researcher) did not take part in the teaching and learning process. My task was to sit at the back of the room or in a place where I would not distract the student-lecturer interaction. Having secured a place to sit, I would record the classroom behaviour using the observation schedule already discussed in section 4.10.1. My purpose was to mark the behaviour that occurred in the classrooms and this was done by marking such behaviours on a form. On the other hand, the research assistant video recorded the class sessions so that at the end, I could answer the first research question of this study, which was, "What kinds of interactions occur between students and lecturers in CSS classes?" By so doing, I was able to come up with consolidated data that would add to the valuable results of this study.

For each of the seven lecturers observed, three visits were made across the whole semester. I planned to visit the said lecturers as follows: the first visits were at the beginning of the semester, the second visits were mid-way through the semester and the last visits were made towards the end of the semester. However, taking into consideration the ethical issues discussed in section 4.7, about the rights of the participants, the lecturers were given the leeway to suggest the date that was suitable for the classroom observations. This was also to enable the researcher to capture the classroom interaction when the lecturers were teaching at their preferred times.

Even though the classroom observation is advantageous, there are some disadvantages related to it, such as being time consuming and labour intensive. For this study, however, the said limitations were addressed by employing a research assistant. The research assistant video recorded the classroom lessons whilst I administered the systematic observations. After the lesson observations, the division of labour was addressed as I transcribed the observed data.

The observations for each of the classes were about fifty minutes in reality and on average, twenty minutes. A Canon DVD camcorder DC220 was used for the classroom observations. The capturing of the lessons was done by the research assistant using Verbatim or TDK mini DVD's. Thereafter the recorded lessons were downloaded to researcher's hard drive by the UB technician. The use of the camcorder enabled me to holistically capture the classroom interaction.

### **4.10.3 Interviews**

The third and final research instrument used to capture classroom interaction in CSS classes was the semi-structured interviews. Bryman and Bell (2011) argue that in a semi-structured interview:

The researcher has a list of questions on fairly specific topics to be covered, often referred to as an *interview guide*, but the interviewee has a great deal of leeway in how to reply. Questions may not follow on exactly in the way outlined on the schedule. Questions that are not included in the guide may be asked as the interviewer picks on things said by interviews (p. 467).

In conducting the semi-structured interviews for this thesis, I was guided by three interview guides (refer to Appendices 8, 9 and 10). The interviews mainly addressed initiation, response, feedback (IRF) moves but the students were free to broadly address the said topics according to their understanding. As a result, the questions asked were determined by the responses of the participants. Probing the participants also extended the interview to cover questions that were not in the interview guide.

Previous studies have reported that “interviews ... are used by researchers in all disciplines for many purposes” (Eichelberger, 1989, p. 133). Thus in this thesis the purpose of conducting interviews was to get the views of both the lecturers and the students regarding how they talked with each other during the teaching and learning process. Building on the

latter researcher's views of the overall purpose of interviews, (Mertens, 1998; Rubin & Rubin, 1995) demonstrated that interviews enable participants to share their thoughts about their world in a close and harmonious relationship. In this thesis, the participants were interviewed to get their views regarding the success of classroom interaction. Additionally, the participants were interviewed to triangulate the findings of this study (refer to section 4.3.3). Chisaka (2002) argues that methodological triangulation helps in getting the data that could not be obtained if only one form of data collection was used. This is because the interviews, the systematic and classroom observations could help in providing a deeper understanding of the nature of classroom interaction in CSS classes.

Each of the interviews lasted between 15 and 20 minutes. Seven lecturers who provided the data for this study were interviewed for both the initial- and post- interviews. Two students from each class volunteered to be interviewed, making a total of fourteen students. However, at the end of the interview session, only twelve students were interviewed as the other two did not honour their appointments. The Olympus WS-450S Digital Voice Recorder was used for the interviews. All the three types of interviews were later transcribed by the research assistant and I cross-checked them.

In carrying out the data collection for this study, the semi-structured interviews were divided into three categories. These involved the initial and post lecturer interviews, and these were then enriched with the students-interviews. The lecturers were interviewed twice in order to get enriched views on student-lecturer interaction. The lecturers' initial interviews were carried out approximately with the first classroom visits. I had prepared an interview schedule (refer to Appendix 8) to help me to solicit views relating to student-lecturer interaction in CSS classes. In order to investigate more in terms of classroom talk, post-interviews were also carried out (refer to Appendix 9). This was done towards the end of the data collection to enrich the ideas provided earlier on during the initial interviews. Finally, the third degree of the interviews was of the students. Similar to the other two lecturer interviews, a guide was used to solicit ideas from the students on how they interact with their lecturers (refer to Appendix 10). In supporting this move, Bryman and Bell (2011) state that it is not good to only get the information from one group of participants. All the three sets of interviews in this study enabled the researcher to answer research questions 2 and 3, which sought to get the lecturers' and the students' perspectives regarding the success of the interaction in terms of oral communicative competence in CSS classes.

#### **4.11 Methods of Data Collection and Justification**

Data regarding interaction can be gathered and analysed in various ways (van Dijk, 1997). Generally, as mentioned above in section 4.3.1 and 4.3.2, triangulating information collected offers richer information collected contributes to a broader picture of findings. The data were collected during the first semester of the 2011/12 academic year. This is the time the students come from secondary schools and as a result, the findings of this study would show a better picture of the spoken interaction of the students who would just have joined UB.

The other method of data collection involved the classroom visits. The intended data collection time was as follows: the first week of the semester, mid-semester and the three weeks before the end of the semester. It was thought that these three different points would be advantageous in three ways. One was to show the nature of classroom interaction within certain times of the semester. This would help in drawing informed conclusions of the study, i.e., whether there is a relationship between temporal length and spoken interaction at UB. Secondly, this arrangement would give the lecturers a chance to attend to other routine tasks such as, conducting tests and class exercises, which are part of the students' continuous assessment at UB. Finally, the three points of data collection would help to narrow the study. However, there was no 'free' time as the lecturers invited me to the classrooms as and when they thought it was convenient for them.

#### **4.12 Data Analysis Procedures**

Previous studies have reported that data analysis is the process of discovering themes, detecting patterns and concepts embedded within the facts or data to test a specific hypothesis (Dikinya., et al, 2008; Fitz-Gibbon & Morris, 1987; Rubin & Rubin, 1995). Based on the findings by the said scholars, the data were analysed in this thesis to find out the nature and effectiveness of interactions in CSS classes.

The data were analysed as follows:



#### 4.12.1 Classroom Observations

The classroom observations captured a total of twenty-seven lessons, which were video recorded by the research assistant and I later transcribed them. To analyse the lessons observed, a transaction was selected from one of the three lessons observed per lecturer. According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), “transactions normally begin with a preliminary exchange and end with a final exchange. Within these boundaries a series of medial exchanges occur” (p. 56). It is on the basis of this explanation that one of the transactions was selected and analysed for each of the nine lecturers so that the research question on the kinds of interaction could be answered.

In analysing the discourse for all the nine lecturers observed, the data were coded by numbers and pseudonyms provided for the lecturers (refer to Appendix 11) as a way of classifying the information. Some scholars (e.g., Basit, 2003; Bryman & Burgess, 1994) assert that coding is categorising and sorting out the data so that it makes sense, in order to aid in the next step of the research process, which is discussion of the results. Coding helps in that, after data collection, there is always a lot of data that needs to be consolidated by the researcher before analysing it.

Finally, the classroom observations were analysed to find out the quality of interaction in CSS classes at UB. This was done using Sinclair and Coulthard’s system of analysis, which they gave the distinctive features called IRF moves (refer to section 3.4.3). In addition, the ‘acts’ were used to further analyse the data. The ‘acts’ indicate the lowest rank of discourse. The IRF moves were used in this thesis to address the quantitative and the qualitative analysis. The analysis of each lesson transaction was done in two ways. One showed an explicit lesson transcript indicating the teaching exchanges, the participant within the exchange, the classroom talk, the IRF moves, and finally the acts. The second way indicated a visual illustration of the classroom talk, with the numbers on the right-hand side, indicating the teaching exchanges illustrated in the lesson transcriptions. This was done in two ways to offer a clear picture of how classroom talk unfolded, and how the parts were interrelated during the classroom talk.

The themes that emerged from the qualitative data of the discourse analysed were factors that contribute to the quality of classroom interaction and the control of the IRF moves. These factors were the lecturers teaching style, which involved two examples. These were the

length of the teaching exchanges, and the number of the teaching exchanges that resulted from the overarching initiation move. Finally, the following concepts were embedded within the qualitative data; ‘better’, ‘good’, and ‘not so good’, and helped to understand the pattern of classroom interaction in the CSS lessons.

#### 4.12.2 The Systematic Observations

In addition to the classroom observations, the data were also analysed using systematic observations. After making a check-list of items that resembled classroom talk in CSS classes, these were counted in order to come up with the quantitative results (refer to chapter 5). The IRF moves were used to analyse the discourse quantitatively. Doing so aligned with two advantages of systematic observations discussed in section 4.9.1, offered by Heap (1992) and Mercer (2010). Two routes were used to analyse the data and one of these involved analysing the overall interactions. Secondly, the information acquired was analysed by exploring the overall initiations, responses and feedback used in all the classrooms.

In analysing the twenty-seven lessons observed, the data were mainly divided into two main categories. The first category considered the total time in minutes of all the three lessons per lecturer. These were analysed as follows:

| <b>Lecturer</b>        | <b>Faculty</b>             | <b>Total time in minutes</b> |
|------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------|
| Pretty                 | Science                    | 59                           |
| Star                   | Science                    | 103                          |
| Star                   | Business                   | 72                           |
| Victor                 | Business                   | 54                           |
| Glorious               | Education                  | 53                           |
| Glorious               | Health Science             | 31                           |
| Masterpiece            | Social Science             | 25                           |
| Queen                  | Engineering and Technology | 82                           |
| Princess               | Humanities                 | 65                           |
| <b>Total data size</b> | <b>ALL FACULTIES</b>       | <b>544</b>                   |

Table 4.2 Summary of total time in CSS classes

The above total minutes were calculated as follows in order to find the average IRF moves in CSS classes:

a) **544 minutes = 20minutes**

**27 classes**

b) **544 minutes to the nearest tenth is 540 minutes = 100%**

The above calculation was based on the findings by Delamont and Hamilton (1984) who stated out that, “it should be remembered that statistical norms...apply to the population taken as a whole not to its individual members” (p. 8). Based on the above argument by Delamont and Hamilton (1984), the classroom observations which revealed the quantitative nature of classroom talk in CSS classes were considered within the whole population of the classroom observations (refer to chapter 5).

The second category of the classroom observations quantitatively examined each aspect of the analytical tool, i.e., initiation, response, feedback moves (IRF). For the three overall analytical tools, a further step was taken to consider the sub-types used in each. This was done by counting the frequency of the sub-types that fell under the IRF moves (refer to Appendix 7).

From each of the routes presented above, the claims of the study were identified. The themes that emerged from analysing the discourse quantitatively were lecturers’ domination of the classroom talk, and the students’ attempts to talk in CSS lessons.

### **4.12.3 The Interviews**

Finally, the data were analysed using the interview responses. These were important in getting both the lecturers’ and the students’ views regarding what they believed owed to the classroom interaction.

The responses were transcribed and later coded. According to Rubin and Rubin (1995, p 238), “coding is the process of grouping interviewees responses into categories that bring together the similar ideas, concepts, or themes you have discovered, or steps or stages in a process”. This was done by highlighting similar ideas raised under each aspect of the IRF moves, as presented by the lecturers and students.

The interviews were put into groups, one of which was the lecturers’ initial interviews. These were later followed by the lecturers’ post-interviews, the purpose of which was to enrich the initial interviews. Finally, these were followed by student interviews. All the

three types of interviews provided the qualitative results for this study. It is worth mentioning that the information elicited from both the lecturers and the students revolved around the IRF analytical tool.

The examples of how both the lecturers and the students perceived classroom interaction were selected from what the participants said. The examples selected were representative of what the majority of the participants pointed out. Particular excerpts from individual lecturers and students were presented taking note of the advice presented by Rubin and Rubin (1995) when they stated that, “as you continue with the data analysis, you weave these themes and concepts into a broader explanation of theoretical or practical import to guide your final report” (p. 226). On weaving the themes elicited from the interviews, it was found that there were both positive and negative views regarding the effectiveness of spoken interaction in CSS classes. The positive theme was that both the lecturers and the students felt that there was need for effective spoken interaction. They both identified that classroom interaction is a two way process because they (students and lecturers) have to exchange information in class. On the other hand, the negative theme was that both the lecturers and the students felt that the students were passive during interaction. All the above themes indicated that the data analysis helped to provide rich information (Bazeley, 2009) regarding classroom interaction.

#### **4.13 Reliability and Validity of the Research Instruments**

All the above instruments were checked for reliability and validity before being administered. Reliability is defined as the stability and the consistency of the instrument within a given context (Creswell, 1994; Mertens, 1998). The systematic observation, and the students’ and lecturers’ interview guides (refer to Appendices 7-10) were checked for reliability by the research supervisor before being administered. All this was done to ensure that I carried out quality data collection.

According to Bryman and Bell (2011), Reliability “refers to the consistency of a measure of a concept” (p. 158). This means that any research instrument that is being used should be used in the same manner for all the participants of the study. For Mertens (1998, p. 181), reliability parallels dependability in qualitative research. This suggests that the discourse and interviews analysed for this study should be trusted. In addressing the issue of trust in my results, the discourse was video recorded, transcribed and re-played a number of times so that

I do not miss any important aspect pertaining to quality classroom talk. On the issue of systematic observations, the classroom lessons were also observed a number of times from the video so that the results matched the previous ones. Finally, in developing trust in the interviews, two phases of interviews were administered to the lecturers in order to get as much information from the lecturers as possible regarding classroom interaction. Another issue related to trust, was that I also listened to the interviews and transcribed them despite the fact that this was initially done by the research assistant.

Still on the issue of reliability and classroom observations, two researchers capturing one lesson is of vital importance. Mertens (1998) argues that, “reliability of observations needs to be established. This can be done by having two observers view the same behavioral segment (often on videotape) and comparing their behavioral counts” (p. 149). The interaction in CSS classes was observed by two people (the research assistant and I). This suggests that the results would be consistent, because what was marked in the systematic observation would be the same as what the video captured regarding the IRF moves.

On the other hand, Mason and Bramble (1978), Mertens (1998) and Bryman and Bell (2011) defines validity of an instrument as the extent to which an indicator (or set of indicators) that has been devised to gauge a concept, measures what it was intended to measure. There are different types of validity, however this study only focused on two types of validity: content validity and external validity.

Content validity was used in order to check whether all the items were relevant to the purpose of the study regarding the quality and success of classroom interaction in CSS classes (refer to section 4.2). As a result, the classroom observations, the systematic observations and the interviews were pilot tested (refer to section 4.8) in order to judge the accuracy of all the instruments. In addition to pilot testing, I reviewed the classroom observations (lesson transcripts) a number of times to ensure that the lesson transcriptions provided the same results in terms of the classroom talk, the IRF moves and the acts. Lastly, in addressing content validity, I also reviewed the systematic observations and the interviews as already pointed out under reliability.

On the other hand, external validity in qualitative studies such as discourse analysis and the interviews is used in order to find out the “generalizability of the findings from the study” (Creswell, 1994, p. 158). Based on Creswell’s argument, the generalizability of the discourse analysed and of the interviews, was checked to see if it could be applicable to all CSS classes

within the University of Botswana. The discourse analysed and the interviews were judged for external validity because all the seven faculties at UB taking CSS were represented in providing the data for the both the aforementioned two forms of qualitative data; words and observations made (refer to section 4.3.1).

Another aspect of validity that relates to credibility is the internal validity. According to Bryman and Bell (2011), “*credibility*, which parallels internal validity-i.e. how believable are the findings?” (p. 43). As stated in terms of reliability, my academic supervisor checked the systematic observation, the students’ and lecturers’ interview guides, and one of the recorded lessons (refer to Appendices 7-11). Before analysing the quantitative results, my supervisor checked whether this was done well in terms of the IRF moves and the acts. Following this, I was asked at one of the supervision meetings to play one of the recorded lessons. Validating the research results is also supported by Creswell (1994) who states that “... another researcher might provide an ‘audit’ trail of the key decisions made during the research process” (p. 158).

#### **4.14 Chapter Summary**

This chapter has outlined a number of key issues pertaining to how the data for this thesis were collected. The research design was discussed by explaining the mixed methods approach taken and why this approach was used to examine student-lecturer interaction in CSS classes. An overview of the research location was also outlined. The participants of the study, and the methods of sampling were also discussed. Amongst others the research instruments were explained, including how they were piloted and used in the data collection. In addition, the research instruments were used to answer the research questions of the study as follows: The classroom observations and the systematic observation answered the first research question which read: (1) What kinds of interactions occur between the students and the lecturers in CSS classes? The three semi-structured interview guides answered the second and the third research questions which read: (2) From the lecturers’ perspectives, how successful are the interactions in developing their students’ oral communicative competence? And (3) From the students’ perspectives, how successful are the interactions in terms of developing their oral communicative competence? Finally, data collection and analysis of the study were also discussed as they played a major role in collecting data for this thesis. The

next three chapters now present how the above methodology was used to analyse the findings of this study.

## **CHAPTER 5: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF SYSTEMATIC OBSERVATIONS**

### **5.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter discussed the methodology that was used in this study. The analysis in this chapter is divided into two stages. The first stage looks at quantitative analysis of all the twenty-seven classes that were observed in terms of the overall IRF moves frequencies. The second stage of the analysis looks at the quantitative analysis of the lecturers' classroom discourse in terms of the specific aspects of the IRF moves. The two aforementioned stages together assist readers in understanding the quality of classroom interaction in CSS classes.

### **5.2 Overall Frequencies of IRF Moves in CSS Classes**

The information below discusses the nature of interaction for all the nine lecturers that were observed amongst the seven faculties of the UB. Two of the lecturers taught CSS in the Faculty of Science and the other two taught the Faculty of Business. For the other Faculties (Health Science, Humanities, Education, Social Science, Engineering and Technology), only one lecturer in each of the Faculties was observed teaching CSS. Each lecturer was observed three times and as a result, 27 lessons were observed within a period of three months.

A percentage breakdown of the IRF moves is given in Figure 5.1 below:

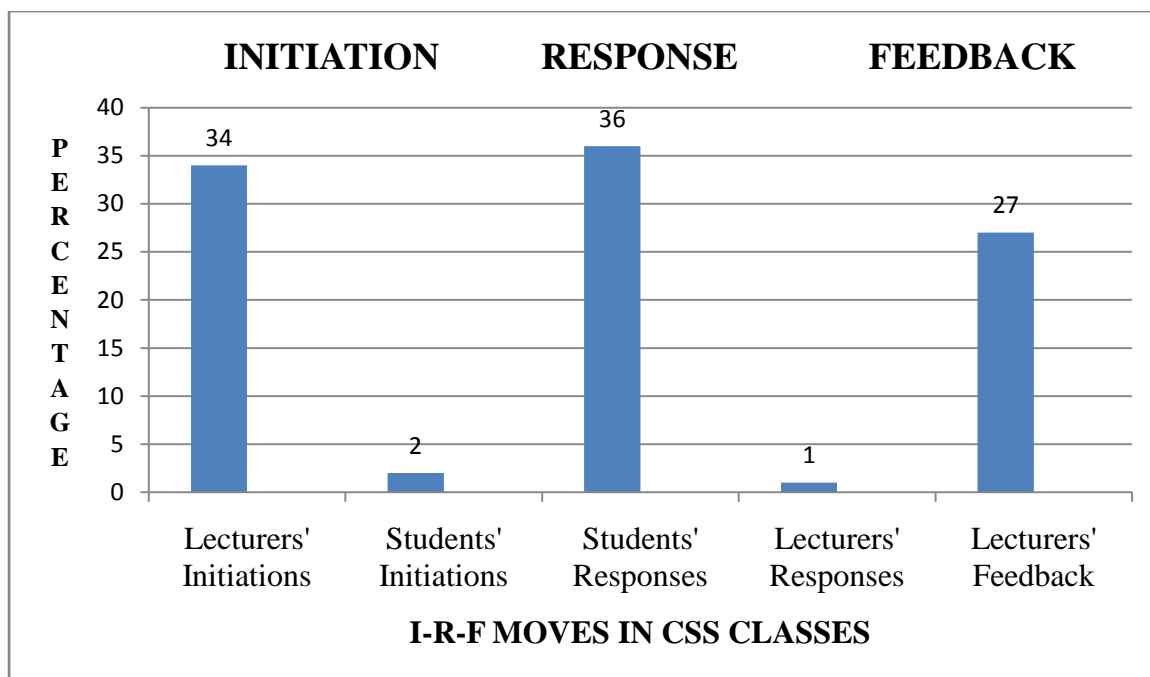


Figure 5.1: Frequencies of Classroom Interaction in all the Twenty-Seven Classes

### 5.2.1 Overall Classroom Talk

The total data size of the CSS classes was 540 minutes (100%) and on average the IRF moves per class were 20 minutes long. Figure 5.1 indicates the proportions of each element of the IRF moves within the total time. It can be noted that for all the 27 lessons, the overall lecturers' interaction was 62% of the time, versus 38% contributed by the students. Generally, the aforementioned figures indicate that the CSS lecturers talked three times more than the students. There have been a number of observations regarding student-teacher talk. One of these is that teachers dominate classroom talk (e.g., Arthur & Martin, 2006; Basturkmen, 2003; Hardman, et al., 2008; Hargreaves, et al., 2003; Njuguna, 2012; Smith, Kasule & McDonald, 2006; Tabulawa, 1998). Other studies of classroom interaction (e.g., Delamont, 1983) assert that teachers talk three or four times more than the pupils. Finally, some scholars (Delamont, 1983; Edwards & Mercer, 1987) claim that there is a 'two-thirds rule' across teachers, classrooms and countries where by teachers talk more than the students. These findings suggest that there is still more talk amongst educators, in the classrooms, although to varying degrees. It can be argued that this continuous professional set up is done in an endeavour to impart knowledge to the students in various ways, such as by providing them with new information, and asking them questions to solicit information from the students.



### 5.2.2 Initiation Move

The lecturers' initiations accounted for 34% of the whole data size. Generally, the lecturers' initiations can be said to be minimal because 34% is approximately one-third of the whole class teaching. It can be claimed that classroom interaction was shared comparatively within the IRF moves.

Further, the one-third showing lecturers' initiations are an indication that the lecturers demonstrated some variation regarding how they initiated the classroom talk. This is because of a number of reasons. One of these was that as indicated in Figure 5.1 above, there were glimpses of student initiations (2%). Through the lecturers' ways of teaching, the students initiated some questions that opened up a dialogue, because the students debated the issues that they had raised. Waring (2011) writes that student initiations can take place if they are being helped to learn. The learning opportunities observed by Waring were evident in some of the CSS classes. Although these were very, very infrequent as indicated by being only 2% of the whole data size (refer to Figure 5.1 above), it can be pointed out that these glimpses are a step in the right direction as far as developing quality classroom interaction is concerned. This is because there is an indication that the lecturers are moving away from the 'strict IRF' moves (Cazden, 1988; Li, 2013; Xie, 2009) that does not give the students more opportunity to talk and ask questions. Secondly, this indicates that the CSS lecturers attempt to set a fertile ground for dialogic discourse to develop (Netz, 2014). Supporting the assertion above, is the fact that there were in practice more student initiations than lecturer responses.

It is worth pointing out that the students' initiations in the observed CSS classes were two-fold. One way in which the students initiated the interaction was by stopping the lecturer and asking a question about what was being discussed. It is also interesting to note that in some cases the students offered some information. In most cases this happened if the students felt that the lecturer did not provide adequate information. In higher education it is important that students value their own contributions, and also that these initiations are valued by lecturers.

Secondly, out of the twenty-seven lessons, five were made up of student presentations, which contributed to less lecturer talk. Even though the students' initiations could be viewed as minimal, this is an indication of striving towards dialogic teaching. This is because if the lecturers dominate the classroom interaction as they use the triadic discourse (Lahlali, 2003;

Molinari, Mameli, & Gnisci, 2013), then ‘the belief of transforming the nature of classroom interaction’ (Alexander, 2008a) would still be far in CSS classes.

Finally, the lecturers varied their initiations by creating ‘learning talk’ (Alexander, 2008b). This is because the students portrayed a number of attributes such as explaining (refer to lecturer Glorious Health Science lesson on academic writing), evaluating (refer to lecturer Pretty’s lesson on reading), justifying (refer to lecturer Princess’s lesson on listening) and group discussions (refer to lecturer Masterpiece’s lesson on critical reading). It can be claimed that if the lecturers and the students feel free during the teaching learning process, dialogic classrooms occur. Some applied linguists refer to all the above attributes as ‘guided construction of knowledge’ (Chin, 2006; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Hardman, 2008a; Mercer, 1995). It can be claimed that both learning talk and guided construction of knowledge helped the students to talk, hence lecturer initiations in CSS classes only accounting for one-third.

### **5.2.3 Response Move**

As can be seen in Figure 5.1, it can also be noted that responses to the classroom talk came from both the students and the lecturers. The students’ responses were of a higher frequency of the whole data size as indicated by 36%. The said students’ responses came in two main forms. One of the forms was from individual students, whilst the second one was in choral form. Both forms of students’ responses were mainly used as a reply to the lecturers’ questions. There is a consensus amongst discourse analysts that individual and choral responses are prevalent during the teaching and learning process (e.g., Abd-Kadir & Hardman; 2007; Ingram & Elliott, 2014; Jin & Cortazzi, 1998; Molinari, et al, 2013; Pontefract & Hardman, 2005).

During most of the lectures, the students were expected to answer individually. It is worth mentioning that students were typically expected to answer individually rather than in choral form. This is because in cases where the students resorted to choral responses, they were immediately reminded of the fact that they should respond individually. Examples of these come from the following lessons: Lecturer Victor’s lesson on information literacy skills when he said, “we don’t chorus; we indicate by raising hands” (refer to Appendix 11.10, teaching exchange 8). Another related example was from lecturer Queen’s lesson on paragraphs when she said, “hands up! One person at a time” (refer to Appendix 11.23, teaching exchange 25).

In another related teaching trend that led to more individual responses than the choral ones, the lecturers nominated the students randomly. Even though the classroom organisation in the University of Botswana CSS classes is such that most of the chairs and tables are fixed to the floor (refer to Figure 2.1), the lecturers often called on the students at the back of the room to respond. This teaching strategy worked as the individual students ended up responding. An example of such was found in lecturer Princess's lesson on "Paragraph Development", excerpt below (refer to Appendix 11.27).

|    |   |   |
|----|---|---|
| 17 | L | You have written paragraphs, at the back; the paragraphs that you have written at UB at least. The ones that you can tick and say this is a good paragraph.<br>Back line; usually the back benchers talk a lot. What kind of back benchers are you?<br>What about when you talk of unity in a paragraph; What is it that we are referring to? Unity in what? Unity in what? In that paragraph. Unity in what?<br><b>Akere? (Isn't it?)</b> we have talked about a group of sentences and these sentences are based on different ideas. There is an idea that you are developing. So, unity in what?.....<br>What should be linked together? |
|    | S | The sentences.  |
|    | L | The sentences.  |
| 18 | S | Unity in the structure.   |

The same teaching strategy above was evident even in classrooms that had students sitting in groups. Lecturer Victor encouraged the students to talk by nominating them randomly within their groups. An illustration of this point was found in his lesson on "Information Literacy Skills", excerpt below (refer to Appendix 11.10).

|   |   |  |   |
|---|---|--|---|
| 3 | L | What else?<br>That table. That table to redeem itself. <b>"E seng jalo mabele a ga mmago a ta jewa ke tshupa"</b> (lest your mum's harvest will be devoured by pests). Yes. Don't hide or pray to your ancestors that they should cover you with soil. No. Just give us the answer.<br>What else? Why else do we communicate? Were people absent? Remember I give out what for tables that participate? I appreciate; so, I am watching; any table for that matter.<br>Yes.<br>Are you fishing me; you are doing this and then you duck. | I |
|   | S | To get things done.  | R |
|   | L | Yes.<br>To get things done. To get things done.  | F |

Kaur (2009) identified that evidence of individual responses in the classroom is a characteristic of good teaching practice, because they allow both the educationist and the students to hear what is being said. Furthermore, this characteristic enables other students and the lecturer to think about the response before moving on to the next point in the classroom interaction. Adding to the definition of good teaching practice, Alexander (2008a,

b) states that, all organisational contexts provide opportunities for dialogue if the potential of carefully thinking about and the planning of talk is involved. The above results suggest that individual responses co-exist with a number of factors. One of the factors is that the classroom context along with the dialogic context improves students' interaction. The second factor is that individual responses co-exist with excellent classroom debates.

Having looked at the main purpose of the individual responses in the last paragraph, the paragraph that follows attempts to explain how the students' individual responses were done in the CSS classes. The individual student responses allowed other students to expand on what their peers had said. Examples of these were found in the following lessons: Lecturer Star's lesson on communication barriers when the student said, "there are two points which have not been said" (refer to Appendix 11.5, teaching exchange 26). The other student expanded on some other communication barriers. Another example to indicate expansion succeeding an individual student response can be found in lecturer Glorious's lesson on listening and note-taking when the student said, "to add on what my colleagues said when talking about how to show that one is being attentive to what is being said" (refer to Appendix 11.17, teaching exchange 32). These expansions of classroom talk contributed to elaborate interactions and gave the students a chance to contribute orally their points of view. Discourse analysis studies show that during classroom talk, students respond to the teachers' questions or expand on the responses of their colleagues (Chin, 2006; Hall & Walsh, 2002). The above results suggest that individual students were asked to share, expand and clarify their thinking with others.

Another note worthy teaching and learning style that contributed to the students' individual responses was that the students were given a chance to respond to the overarching initiation move (I-Move). This trend was illustrated in all the lessons observed, and 3.5% of the time (540 minutes) the students responded to the said initiation move. The overarching I-Move was in the form of open questions from the lecturers. The students responded to them individually and consecutively in the absence of lecturer talk. It can be argued that the said technique, in a way, minimised the amount of lecturer talk because the lecturers did not always provide feedback. In addition, the progression of the teaching exchanges varied in terms of the IRF teaching and learning structure. This resulted in some instances of the student-lecturer talk being IR, IR before the IRF. Examples of such instances were evident in the following lessons: Lecturer Glorious' lesson on "reading and writing" (refer to Appendix 11.16, teaching exchange 14-15). One more example was reflected in lecturer Star's lesson

on “Academic writing style” (refer to Appendix 11.6, teaching exchange 5 to 6). Looking at how the students’ responses varied versus the IRF moves was an indication that the CSS lecturers desired to deepen the students’ reasoning. This was done by asking the students probing and uptake questions. The said variation is taken up in depth in the discourse analysis chapter that follows (chapter 6).

An additional factor that relates to the students’ responses to the aforementioned moves was that the said responses to lecturers’ questions took part in 19 minutes of the teaching time. It can be argued that such student responses comprised almost one lesson on average, out of the total 27 CSS lessons. This is because, as indicated at the beginning of section 5.2.1 above, the lessons were 20 minutes long on average. In analysing classroom talk, Littleton and Mercer (2012) state that such responses reflect, “a joint, dynamic engagement with ideas amongst partners” (p.234). Further, according to Mercer and Littleton (2007), when working together, students and teachers do not only interact, but they ‘interthink’ (p.4). The issue of how the students responded in CSS lessons suggest two factors. One of the factors was that the lecturers attempted to help the students to think and talk during the observed lectures. Secondly, the students also made an effort to think and talk meaningfully during lessons.

One more aspect regarding the students’ responses is that there were minimal choral responses. In most cases they occurred if the lecturers asked closed and ‘simple’ questions. The said interactional pattern was evident in most of the observed classes and was minimal. Instances of the choral responses were found in the following lessons: Lecturer Star’s lesson on “communication barriers.” (refer to Appendix 11.5, teaching exchange 11). Likewise, there was an example from lecturer Pretty’s lesson on “improving note-taking.” (refer to Appendix 11.1, teaching exchange 13). On realising that the choral response was not effective in terms of ‘producing extended teacher-pupil exchanges’ (Lefstein & Snell, 2014), the lecturers used that disadvantage to; extend on the classroom interaction during feedback. Alternatively, they rephrased the questions to deepen the students reasoning. Finally, the lecturers cautioned the students against choral responses and that made students retract the choral statements and lengthened the classroom talk. Interestingly, the students’ reversal of choral and very short (usually one word) words was replaced by an individual response that was detailed (usually a minimum of three words). Choral responses imply that they impede the psychological and verbal development of students.

Besides the students' individual and choral responses in the classroom, there were instances where the lecturers responded to the students' questions, indicated as 1% of the whole data size. Some lecturers resorted to responding to the students' questions. Instances of lecturer responses were found in Lecturer Pretty's lesson extract, shown below, on "reading for academic purposes" (refer to Appendix 11.2).

|           |          |  |
|-----------|----------|--|
| <b>14</b> | <b>L</b> | <b>"Ee" (Yes)</b>  |
|           | <b>S</b> | Does this mean we cannot read sources that are biased?   |
|           | <b>L</b> | You can. You can still use them but it depends on how you use them. You can also be critical on how you use them to say, "this is what they think" or "this is what they have discussed". You become critical as well. |

Another case was found in lecturer Masterpiece's lesson on "reading skills" (refer to Appendix 11.14) as indicated in the excerpt below:

|           |          |  |
|-----------|----------|--|
| <b>10</b> | <b>L</b> | If you are doing a research; in your proposal; you are trying to address the gap that is there. And if it is exactly the same, what gap are you addressing?                                      |
|           | <b>S</b> | What is a gap?   |
|           | <b>L</b> | Something that has not been done. When you are doing research you can say I was motivated by this. But if it is done here; what are you saying? In research you should come up with a new thing. |

Cazden and Beck (2003) note that the teachers also comment on students' responses. However, from the above two examples, the lecturers' responses were 'every elaborate,' deviating from what scholars of classroom interaction call 'guided co-construction of knowledge' (Gibbons, 2003; Hardman, 2008a; Mercer, 1995) that would just lead the student(s) to think and come up with an elaborate response. This suggests that the lecturers should just show the way and let the students experience their own 'quantum leap' regarding their thinking, and dialogic teaching and learning. This means that where the lecturers elaborated as a way of providing responses to the students there were some 'missed learning opportunities' (e.g., Abd-Kadir, & Hardman, 2007; DeWitt & Hohenstein, 2010; English, et al., 2002; Li, 2013; Morton 2012) for students to improve and develop their classroom interaction. However, it can also be argued that the lecturers' comments were critical for learning and quality interactions.

Nevertheless, it is interesting to point out that some of the students' questions were referred to other students to respond to. This approach led to fewer lecturer responses. Examples of

the said point were found during the following lessons: Lecturer Glorious' lesson on "the writing process":

|    |   |  |
|----|---|--|
| 22 | L | You want to say something?   |
|    | S | In punctuation, I don't know when was it; I was once taught that you can't place a comma before 'and'. But in most of the books that I read, I find a comma before 'and'; so I wonder. |
| 23 | L | Can anybody point out anything? what is right? or if may be you have observed the same thing.<br><b>mh</b>   |
|    | S | Yes. Is grammatically correct because whenever you see the word 'and' it means two things  |

There was also an example of the being asked to respond to the other student's question from lecturer Victor's lesson on academic writing (refer to Appendix 11.11).

|    |   |   |
|----|---|---|
| 17 | L | ...you can say "many Batswana today" or "It is surprising"; Vitality hasn't said, "it is surprising" but for you it is surprising. It is surprising that even in this day and age many Batswana still keep their money under their pillow and then in brackets you write (Vitality, 2002). Okay, For you, you have simply added the surprise element but the originator of the idea still remains Vitality and he has to be acknowledged.<br>Yes Young man. You have a question |
|    | S | When you say, "It is surprising.....", aren't you in some way injecting an opinion?   |
|    | L | Good question. "When you say it is surprising.....", according to the young man, aren't you injecting an opinion?<br>How would you respond to that?<br>Young lady   |
|    | S | It is. But when you are writing you cannot just take what the writer said. You have to take what the writer said and you have to make it a little bit of reporting.   |

Instead of the lecturers elaborating in-depth in an endeavour to answer the questions raised by their students, they instead 'passed the baton' to other students. This was done by some of the lecturers encouraging the rest of the class to individually respond. The striking aspect from the said teaching technique was that the students provided quality answers which were in the form of a stretch of sentences. Finally, this showed that the students considered their responses before answering. Comparing the above mentioned trend to other studies of classroom talk shows that, during the teaching and learning process, students can respond to the points raised by their colleagues (Chin, 2006; Hall & Walsh, 2002). The above results suggest that if the students are given opportunity to talk, there could be minimal lecturer talk.

The aforementioned ways of responding to the lecturers' questions, indicate that in CSS classes, the lecturers mainly expected two forms of responses from the students. These were individual and choral responses. Notably, some of the individual responses were students' individual presentations within various groups.

### 5.2.4 Feedback/Follow-up Move

Finally, the overall IRF moves figure above indicates the lecturers' feedback took up 27% of the whole teaching time. In their analysis, Nassaji and Wells (2000) found that, "the teacher always has the right to provide the third move" (p. 377). Referring to the CSS classes, the 27% was as a result of the lecturers mainly accepting or explaining some information that was raised by the students during their feedback.

In accepting the information, the lecturers immediately repeated the students' responses. Two reasons could be brought to the fore to explain why lecturers used repetition of students' responses during their feedback. One of these was that generally the CSS lecturers repeated the students' responses by repeating exactly what the students said. Another common way of accepting, was by the lecturers adding an affirmative 'Yes' after the said repetition. Examples of the lecturers accepting the information as a way of providing feedback are found in the following lessons. Lecturer Pretty's lesson on "reading for academic purposes" (refer to Appendix 11.2) as indicated in the excerpt below:

|    |   |  |   |
|----|---|--|---|
| 29 | L | "Ee" (Yes)   | I |
|    | S | The index.   | R |
|    | L | The index. Yes.<br>If you have two books; one with the index and the other without. You go for the one with the index. | F |

However, it is worth pointing out that in the above extract the 'accept' was immediately followed by the lecturer's comment. This is because lecturer Pretty commented on the usefulness of the index in reading for academic purposes.

The above point of accepting as a form of feedback can also be shown in the teaching exchange that follows:

|    |   |                           |   |
|----|---|---------------------------|---|
| 25 | L | Yes                       | I |
|    | S | Description of the crime. | R |
|    | L | Description of the crime. | F |

The above teaching exchange is found in Lecturer Princess's lesson on "paragraph development" (refer to Appendix 11.27).

In addition, the 27% is made up of the lecturers explaining the students' responses. This was done by the lecturers' providing additional information or lecturer comments to the students. Examples of these are found in the following lessons: Lecturer Queen's lesson on, "paragraphs" (refer to Appendix 11.23, teaching exchange 2) and lecturer Masterpiece's lesson on "critical reading" (refer to Appendix 11.13, teaching exchange 3). Various studies



have revealed that a number of factors such as, repetition and clarification of ideas, contribute to teachers' feedback (e.g., Chin, 2006; Cullen, 1998; Hellermann, 2003; Thornbury, 1996; White, Ruthven & Jose, 2005). On the other hand, Hardman, et al., (2008) contend that teachers rephrase, build or elaborate on student responses. It can be argued that accepting the information was a way of indicating to the students that their answers were correct. Furthermore, accepting could also be a sign that the student responded in a way that the lecturer had planned. Finally, the lecturers expanded on the points raised by the students, as a way of providing additional information.

It is also of importance to highlight the relationship of the students' responses to the lecturers' feedback. The students' responses and the lecturers' feedback in Figure 5.1 above are 36% and 27% of the time respectively. The two forms of classroom interaction are worth relating because most of the lecturers engaged the students in whole group and pair presentations at some point or points of the lessons in an effort to help them to have an upper hand in the classroom talk. Examples are found in lecturer Masterpiece's lesson on, "critical reading" (refer to Appendix 11.13, teaching exchanges 3-6) and lecturer Pretty's lesson on "reading for academic purposes" (refer to Appendix 11.2; teaching exchanges 15-36). Additionally, some lecturers planned their lessons such that the whole lesson comprised of students interactions with minimal lecturer talk. Examples were found in lecturer Star's lesson on, "communication barriers" (refer to Appendix 11.5, the whole lesson) and lecturer Glorious' lesson on, "writing" (refer to Appendix 11.18; whole lesson). The preceding methodological approaches of group and pair presentations during teaching and learning are similar to what Alexander (2008b; p. 37) calls 'repertoires' of dialogic teaching. This suggests that the CSS lecturers are aware that CSS is not a content course, rather it is a skills course, hence their attempt to develop the students' oral communication skills in various ways. Also, the use of various methods of teaching relates to the point that the lecturers seem to be moving away from the strict IRF move and attempt to employ characteristics of good practice, which are discussed in section 5.2.2. From the above figure, there is massive discrepancy between the overall lecturers talk and the students. It can be claimed that on the whole, the lecturers still dominate classroom talk in CSS classes.

### **5.3 Deeper Analysis of Initiation Move**

Having analysed the quality of classroom interaction from a broader view, this section analyse the quality of classroom interaction with specific consideration of the sub-types of initiation move (I-Move). This helps in understanding in-depth how initiation of classroom talk unfolded in the CSS classes. This understanding further enlightens the nature and patterns of classroom interaction by considering the various sub-types of I-Move in the said classes.

A percentage breakdown of the analysis of the I-Move is given in Figure 5.2 below:

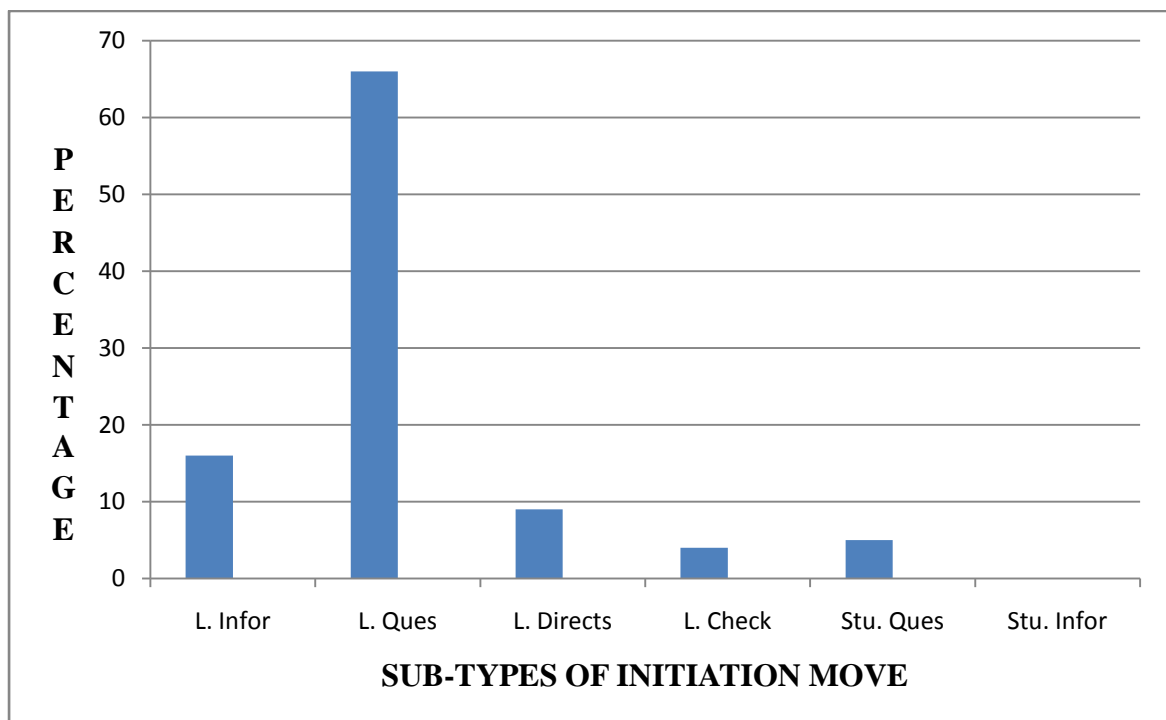


Figure 5. 2: Frequencies of the Types of Initiations in all the Twenty-Seven Classes

The figure above shows the initiation move, as it was used in all the twenty-seven lessons by all the nine lecturers observed, 95% consisted of the lecturers talk and only 5% of the students. It can then be claimed that most of the classroom talk in CSS classes of UB is initiated by the lecturers. As already discussed in the previous section, the lecturers dominated the classroom talk. They use various ways to dominate the classroom talk and these ways are discussed in-depth in the sub-sections that follow.

### 5.3.1 Analysis of ‘Informs’

According to Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) ‘Informs’ are part of the Initiation Move and are realized by a statement(s) and provides information. Out of 540 minutes (100%), there were

733 occurrences of the sub-types of initiations in all the twenty-seven CSS classes observed. From the above figure on initiations, 120 (16%) were characterised by the lecturers informing the students about the important aspects of the lesson. The lecturers informed the students in two main ways. One was in the form of transmission of information. This is in agreement with what Hall and Walsh (2002) refer to as imparting the official curriculum and subject matter during classroom discourse. Similarly, Rodrigues (2003) asserts that teachers informed students as a way of sharing their expertise and furthering the discussion. This aforementioned way of providing the information to the students was the case in all the twenty-seven lessons. Examples of this methodological aspect were found in lecturer Pretty's lesson on improving note-taking (refer to Appendix 11.1, teaching exchange 1), and lecturer Queen's lesson on reading (refer to Appendix 11.22, teaching exchange 1).

The second way, which is embedded under the 'inform' sub-type was by using starter acts. Examples of this were found in lecturer Princess's lesson on listening (refer to Appendix 11.25, teaching exchange 10) and lecturer Glorious lesson on reading and writing (refer to Appendix 11.16, teaching exchange 27). Molinari, et al., (2013) assert that multiple voices can be used to contribute to classroom discourse as a reflection of rigorous teaching. These results suggest that the lecturers at times provided information to the students. Further, they explained the topics and sub-topics being taught in a number of ways.

However, from the above representation, the lecturers' provision of information was on the lower side as compared with the lecturers' questions (66%), (which are interpreted in section 5.3.4). This noticeable aspect could be attributed to the fact that UB students are in a higher education context, and as a result they are expected to be knowledgeable on some topics that were discussed. It can also be argued that the lecturers initiated the classroom talk in a manner whereby the questions posed were more than the information provided because the students that they are teaching are regarded as the 'cream' of the society. That is why in some instances the lecturers would even refer the students to their previous schooling, such as secondary or primary schools. An example can be seen in lecturer Queen's lesson two on paragraphs (teaching exchange 18) where she said, "imagine you have been writing right from Standard One; primary school, JC, BGCSE those who did BGCSE, IGCSE or whatever, and now you are at tertiary level. I am asking you....". However, as Tsui and Law (2007) observed, there are both negative and positive aspects attached to students' transition from secondary school to university and classroom talk.

Another feature worth mentioning is that from Figure 5.2 above, there are no ‘student informs’. It can be argued that in the CSS classes, the interaction of students informing other students was not present. However, there were some glimpses of students providing information that co-occurred with students’ responses. Usually the students provided additional information following other students’ oral presentations to the whole class. Examples of these were found in some of the lessons, such as lecturer Star’s lesson on communication barriers (refer to Appendix 11.5, teaching exchanges 26-28).

|    |   |   |   |
|----|---|---|---|
| 26 | L | How many of them have been presented?   | I |
|    | S | <b>Presenter 6 cont’:</b> I think all of them.  | R |
|    | S | There are two points which have not been said.  | R |
| 27 | L | You are with her?   | I |
|    | S | There is a point of ethnocentrism. A tendency to believe that some people are superior.   | R |
|    | L | Ethnocentrism is a tendency to believe that some people are superior; like, we Batswana, we French, we Nigerians; judging, looking down upon other cultures; it is a barrier to communication.  | F |
| 28 | S | And the other point is stereotyping.  | R |
|    | L | Like white guys are always the best boyfriends-that is unnecessary generalisation. Like if you say you want to marry a girl from Kanye (one of the villages in Botswana); and your parents say “no, those girls are dangerous” - false generalisation. Just because your grandfather was frustrated by a girl from Kanye, it does not mean that all girls from Kanye are bad; He is bitter because ‘once upon a time, so many years, he was frustrated by a girl from Kanye, it does not mean that all girls from Kanye are like that’. Now you generalise. | F |

Another similar example was from lecturer Glorious’ lesson on listening and note-taking (refer to Appendix 11.17, teaching exchanges 32-34).

|    |   |   |   |
|----|---|---|---|
| 32 | L | If there are any questions now or if there are any comments.<br><b>Daniel</b>   | I |
|    | S | To add on what my colleagues said when talking about how to show that one is being attentive to what is being said. You can make a focus on the lecturer as she or he is communicating. But sometimes they might be passive listening because one might be looking at you; I can look at you but not active. That can be active or passive. One can look to someone but not actively listening.   | R |
|    | L | So you want to say that can be passive or active. So you are not always sure that the person who is looking at you is actually actively listening.  | F |
| 33 | S | I am thinking that, If somebody is not listening; you can tell. She will be starring and if someone is listening; they will be nodding to what you are saying.  | R |
|    | L | You have now opened a can of worms. People are interested in responding to what you have said.  | F |
| 34 | L | Okay, respond.  | I |
|    | S | Most of us are saying right now that we are different. And just as we are different I might be nodding my head but that does not mean I am listening. When I see that my mum says something that I don’t even like, I can say, “ <b>Mm, ke a go utwa mama. O bua nnete.</b> ” (Yes, I hear you mum. You are telling the truth) When I am not listening and I am up to something. Then she might think that I am listening when I am actually not listening. | R |

The above two examples illustrate that if group presentations are used by lecturers, the students think, evaluate and discuss the information provided. These relates to Alexander's (2008b) dialogic teaching that helps students to talk and experience a rich diet of spoken language in order to think and learn. In line with dialogic teaching is, "*Exploratory Talk*, in which partners engage critically but constructively with each other's ideas. Statements and suggestions are offered for joint consideration. These may be challenged and counter-challenged, but challenges are justified and alternative hypotheses are offered" (Mercer, n.d, p.2). This noticeable aspect suggests that there is room for students providing information during whole class teaching.

### **5.3.2 Analysis of 'Directs'**

Another point relating to the I-Move is that there were instances where lecturers directed the students, as illustrated by 66 occurrences (9%) of the teaching time. According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975, p. 41), "its function is to request a non-linguistic response." The CSS lecturers provided directions to the students in two main ways. One of these was to command the students to carry out some tasks such as writing and reading, and the students exchanged written tasks for each other's perusal. An example of such direction was found in lecturer Victor's lesson on note taking (refer to Appendix 11.12, teaching exchange 10) when he said, "I would take that down if I were you". Secondly, directions were provided by using pair or group discussions. This was illustrated in lecturer Glorious's lesson on listening and note taking (refer to Appendix 11.19, teaching exchange 34) when she said, "but now I want us to break into four groups. I want these people to work together (two, four, six) and then two, four, six to work together and then another two, four, six to work together; and these people work together. Okay. I am going to give you just short activities to look at and then give us feedback after a few minutes. But I would give each a paper that you will be looking at". It can be argued that even though the lecturers wanted to develop the students' oral communicative competence, this was used in relation to a variety of teaching methods. Also, it seems that the lecturers employed, "a range of expertise and experience" (Lefstein & Snell, 2014, p. 33) in nurturing quality classroom interaction.

### **5.3.3 Analysis of 'Checks'**

There is also another point relating to the I-Move known as 'checks'. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) defines the 'checks' as, "realised by a closed class of polar questions concerned with

being ‘finished’ or ‘ready’, having ‘problems’ or ‘difficulties’, being able to ‘see’ or ‘hear.’ They are ‘real’ questions, in that for once the teacher doesn’t know the answer” (p. 40). This suggests that in ‘checks’ the question and the response will be closed because in most cases one word responses are used. The lecturers in the CSS classes additionally initiated the classroom talk by checking on the students’ understanding as indicated by 28 occurrences (4%) of the teaching time. This particular aspect was done in two ways, and one of which was by using rhetorical questions. These questions were rhetorical because no answer was expected from the students. One such example is found in lecturer Pretty’s lesson on reading for academic purposes (refer to Appendix 11.2, teaching exchange 13) when she said, “people who look at gender issues, for instance, most of the time they tend to be biased, you know. Because they always look for women who are abused; and are always advocating for women’s rights and so forth. Isn’t it?” In agreement with some scholars that have analysed classroom interaction (e.g., Abd-Kadir & Hardman, 2007; Liu 2008; Walsh, 2011; Zhang, 2012) these types of questions are also known as ‘tag questions’ and can be used to initiate classroom interaction as a way of checking that the students are following the preceding interaction. The above results suggest that lecturer checks can be responded to by silence.

Secondly, in some other fewer cases, the lecturers checked the students understanding by using, “a closed class of polar questions” (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, p. 40). Two functions surround these types of questions, one of them being that students responded chorally with ‘yes’ or ‘no’. This was illustrated in lecturer Queen’s lesson on reading (refer to Appendix 11.22, teaching exchanges 4-5), where she asked questions such as, “do you understand what reading is all about? Do you understand what reading involves? Do you understand what I am saying?” These results suggest that lecturer checks co-exist with elicitations, which is discussed in-depth in section 5.3.4.

In CSS classes, it was also noted that the ‘closed class of polar questions’ were not always orally responded to (refer to section 5.3.3; paragraph 1). However, as the students worked in their groups, there were some instances where the lecturer-checks were responded to non-verbally with the accompaniment of some actions. Beforehand, the lecturers checked the structure of the groups or whether all students in the class belonged to a group. This was illustrated in lecturer Star’s lesson on project writing when she checked, “do we have people who are four? Anybody four? Can you join them? Join them please. Sometimes we cannot avoid it; one or two groups will have more students. Please do your election so that by the time you leave” (refer to Appendix 11.4, teaching exchange 11). Another example was found

in lecturer Glorious lesson on listening and note taking when she checked, “how far are we?” (refer to Appendix 11.17, teaching exchange 17). It can be claimed that lecturer-checks can be responded to through group formations in order to see that classroom talk develops effectually. A relationship exists between the said types of questions and the rhetorical ones, as there could be involvement of non-verbal cues. This is because ‘signs’ follow the spoken interaction from the lecturer.

### **5.3.4 Analysis of ‘Questions’**

This section analyses in depth the two types of questions used by the lecturers. Analysing the different categories of questions used by the lecturers helps in having a broader picture of how the lecturers interacted with their students. Further, the examination of the different questions helps to justify why the said questions were used in the CSS classes. Additionally, this section analyses the students’ initiations, which were in the form of questions. A look at both the questions used by the lecturers and the students helps in drawing conclusions that relate to the quality of classroom interaction in the CSS classes. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) defines the ‘Questions’ as a form of the I-Move that, “requests a linguistic response” (p. 40). Thus questions are asked by the lecturers and/or the students to get more information about the issue being discussed.

The above initiation table (Figure 5.2) indicates the total proportion of lecturer questions as 484 occurrences (66%). On the other hand, the students’ questions occurred only 34 times (5%) out of the whole teaching time. These results suggest that the CSS lecturers dominated the classroom talk. However, it can be argued that the 5% of students asking questions is a point to be appreciated as they contributed to the classroom talk. This massive discrepancy between the lecturers’ and the students’ questions is analysed individually to better understand classroom talk in the CSS classes.

Turning now to the lecturers’ questions, these were of two main types of questions; closed and open (refer to Figure 5.3 below). The said information relates to recent evidence that suggests that there are two main types of questions in EFL classrooms (Kirchhoff & Klippel, 2014). In defining the two types of questions, Hardman, et al., (2003) state that open-ended questions are those to which the teacher accepts more than one answer from pupils, and closed questions are those to which pupils provide the same answer, offers facts or provides a

single response. Providing additional information on closed questions, Ho (2005) demonstrated that closed questions require classification and labelling items.

A percentage breakdown of the analysis of the lecturer questions is given in Figure 5.3 below:

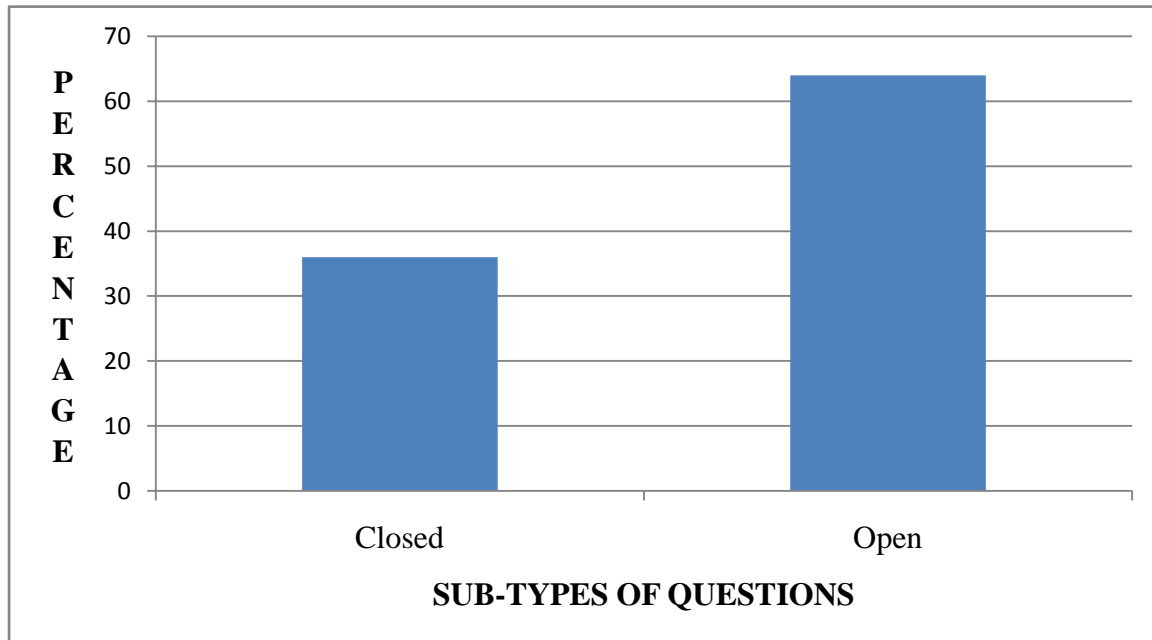


Figure 5.3: Frequencies of the Sub-Types of Questions in all the Twenty-Seven Classes

From the above illustration, the findings of the types of questions used in the CSS classes suggest that there was a huge discrepancy in the percentages of the questions used by the lecturers. This is indicated by 64% and 36% of open and closed questions respectively. This suggests that the lecturers used more open questions than closed ones. Two arguments are advanced regarding the above results, and they address the short-term and long-term instructional goals. The short-term goal indicates that, because the lecturers plan their lessons before class, it is possible that they also think of how best to solicit elaborate information from the students before they get into the lectures. Regarding the long-term goal, it can be argued that the lecturers want to develop the students' oral communicative competence. As a result, open questions end up being used mostly rather than closed questions, in an endeavour to impart to the students, life-long skills. Several studies have revealed that there are discrepancies relating to the two main types of questions. However, the said studies show that teachers mostly used closed questions, and that open questions were not frequently used during classroom interaction (Behnam, 2009; Hardman, et al., 2008; Saikko, 2007; Seedhouse, 1996; Smith, Hardman & Higgins, 2006). As open questions were



mostly observed in the CSS lessons, it can be argued that the teaching tends to be skills-focused. It could be that the lecturers are aware of the mandate of the CSS classes, in terms of developing the students' oral communication skills.

Moreover, by asking open questions, the students might be actively involved in the classroom interaction. Some of the lecturers even indicated during the lessons that they did not only require answers to questions from the students who raised their hands, but also from all the students. Lecturer Princess indicated in her first lesson on listening that she picks students randomly to respond to her questions (teaching exchange 19). There is a consensus amongst classroom interaction linguists that questions extend pupils linguistic resources as they build on what has been previously said (e.g., Boyd & Rubin, 2006; Chin, 2006; Cullen, 1998; English, et al., 2002; Gibbons, 1998). Analysing the use of open questions in the classroom is a way of gauging students' oral participation.

From the CSS classes observed, the open questions were illustrated in the following lessons: lecturer Star's lesson on academic reading (refer to Appendix 11.8)

|          |          |   |          |
|----------|----------|---|----------|
| <b>7</b> | <b>L</b> | You are reading about "Stock bonds" After reading about "Stock bonds", it has fascinated you. And you are like; ooh I am very excited with this information. What do you do? When something has excited you after reading it; what do you do? | <b>I</b> |
|          | <b>S</b> | You research much on it.  | <b>R</b> |
| <b>8</b> | <b>L</b> | Somebody was saying something.  | <b>I</b> |
|          | <b>S</b> | You share it.   | <b>R</b> |
|          | <b>L</b> | You share it.   | <b>F</b> |

From the above lesson extract, it can be seen that the students provided more than one answer to the question posed during teaching exchange 7 above. From the same lesson, teaching exchanges 7 to 11 provided various answers regarding what the students do after reading a source that has fascinated them.

Another example of an open question was from lecturer Pretty's lesson on reading for academic purposes (refer to Appendix 11.2)

|           |          |   |          |
|-----------|----------|---|----------|
| <b>18</b> | <b>L</b> | Why the publisher?  | <b>I</b> |
|           | <b>S</b> | If you take Macmillan and Oxford and compare them with others; they are reputable publishers. | <b>R</b> |
|           | <b>L</b> | Okay. I never thought of it in that way. Whether some publishers are more reputable or not.   | <b>F</b> |

Two teaching exchanges developed from the above lesson extract. The lecturer even alluded to the fact that she never thought that some publishing houses were more reputable than

others. The above results suggest that indeed, open questions have more than one answer, as observed by Hardman, et al. (2003). In the above two examples, the lecturers probed the students for more answers. Also, the lecturers built on a student's latter response with a subsequent question, as illustrated in lecturer Pretty's lesson extract above. Finally, there were examples of refocus questions where the lecturers re-structured the question because the initial one was not answered by the students. This was illustrated by examples such, "what are your impressions? How do you see your note taking ability so far?" (refer to Appendix 11.12). Additionally, because of the multifaceted nature of open questions, new information was brought up by the students, and this improved the quality of classroom interaction. Moreover, the above results of lecturer open questions suggest that they were varied and effective.

On the other hand, as indicated in Figure 5.3, the category of questions that was least used was closed questions. It is worth mentioning that these occurred in various ways. One of these is that the said questions were asked in the form of cued elicitations, where the lecturer always gave the students some clues to answering the question. Littleton (2011, p.149) defines cued elicitations as, "a way of drawing out from the students the information that is being sought by providing strong visual cues and verbal hints as to what answer is required." This type of questioning is shown in the two extracts below:

|          |           |                       |          |
|----------|-----------|-----------------------|----------|
| <b>6</b> | <b>L</b>  | Everybody,<br>It is-' | <b>I</b> |
|          | <b>Ss</b> | Information Literacy. | <b>R</b> |

Lecturer Victor's lesson on, "information literacy skills" (refer to Appendix 11.10)

|           |          |  |          |
|-----------|----------|--|----------|
| <b>29</b> | <b>L</b> | APA stands for what? What does it stand for class? American...? American...'<br>Class it stands for American what? | <b>I</b> |
|-----------|----------|--|----------|

Lecturer Star's lesson on, "academic writing" (refer to Appendix 11.9)

From the above examples it can be seen that the cued elicitations involved a simple repetition of words accompanied by verbal hints, with no new information added to the instruction. Some studies have revealed that cued elicitation, "inculcates the students into shared discourse with the teacher because knowledge is aided and 'scaffolded' by the teacher's questions, clues and prompts to achieve insights in which the pupils by themselves seemed incapable of" (Edwards & Mercer, 1994, p.194). In a related idea, Littleton (2011, p. 150) asserts that, "teachers try to create continuities in the experience of learners, for example, by referring to past events and implicating these in a joint construction of knowledge with their students." A considerable amount of literature has been published on teachers' use of cued

elicitations. These studies (Abd-Kadir & Hardman, 2007; Edwards & Mercer, 1994; Hardman, 2008a; Rajab, 2012; Scott, 1998) indicate that cued elicitations co-occur with closed questions. A similar trend of significance has been observed in the literature. Black (2005) carried out an investigation into teacher-pupil interaction and found that statements can also be used as cues. It can be claimed that from all the CSS classes observed, cued elicitation co-occurred with closed questions as statements and/or questions. This is because the students were guided in the appropriate completion of the required information.

Another point worth mentioning is that cued elicitation occurs at the same time as rising intonation. Further, cued elicitation tends to shift with a fast pace of questioning. The above results have a number of implications. One implication is that the cued elicitations in this study co-occurred with both closed questions and sought to display what the lecturer already knew. Finally, these questions were sometimes asked with a rising intonation and a fast pace. As discussed in the last paragraph, this could be because of the simple repetition involved during questioning.

The second important aspect about closed questions is that in most cases they tended to lead to choral responses, which are discussed in section 5.3.6 below. It can be argued that such closed questions generated a lower level of student interaction. This was because of the simple repetition of points that normally displayed the lecturers' knowledge of the answer.

Another way of posing closed questions is that they were responded to by one-word answers. Similar to cued elicitations, these were sometimes responded to in choral form, and also with 'Yes/No' responses. Such responses are illustrated in the excerpts below:

Lecturer Masterpiece's lesson on academic writing (refer to Appendix 11.15)

|          |           |                            |            |
|----------|-----------|----------------------------|------------|
| <b>1</b> | <b>L</b>  | Did you visit the library? | <b>R/I</b> |
|          | <b>Ss</b> | Yes                        | <b>R</b>   |

Lecturer Princess's lesson on listening (refer to Appendix 11.25)

|           |           |  |          |
|-----------|-----------|--|----------|
| <b>25</b> | <b>L</b>  | Do you understand everything that is said in this class? | <b>I</b> |
|           | <b>Ss</b> | No   | <b>R</b> |

Previous studies have reported that there was indeed the use of choral responses in the form of 'yes/no' (Albers., Hellermann & Harris, 2008). Adding to Albers, et al.'s observations,

some scholars state that this way of questioning could be highly used in verbal interaction (Dalton-Puffer, 2006; Smith, Hardman & Tooley, 2005). The implication is that the questions that require ‘yes/no’ choral responses are there, and they are rarely or highly used, depending on the students’ educational level, such as pre-primary, primary, secondary or university. It is worth mentioning that a relationship exists between cued elicitations and the ‘Yes/No’ responses, because they both co-occurred with both closed and display questions. Even though the choral responses were on the dip end in the CSS classes, this could suggest that the lecturers asked the students to respond as a whole class in order to emphasis a particular point.

On the other hand there were some closed questions that required very short answers (one or two words) rather than the common ‘Yes/No’ responses.

Lecturer Masterpiece’s lesson on academic writing (refer to Appendix 11.15)

| Exchanges | Participant | Classroom talk                          | Moves |
|-----------|-------------|---|-------|
| 2         | L           | What did you do?<br>What did you learn? | I     |
|           | Ss          | Cataloguing                             | R     |

Lecturer Glorious lesson on, “reading and writing (refer to Appendix 11.16)

| Exchanges | Participant | Classroom talk   | Moves |
|-----------|-------------|--|-------|
| 18        | L           | So, here; when you are still working on this, you have to give yourself at least 30 minutes undisturbed. In a conducive place where there are no distractions. Be in a conducive place.<br>What place is that? | I     |
|           | Ss          | The library.   | R     |

The above results suggest that if the students are asked questions where they have to display information known, either by both the lecturer and/or the students, short responses also occur. In conclusion, closed questions require short answers, and they also limit the students’ responses. This is because in most cases the lecturers asked questions, which were simple or those to which they already knew the answers. The said questions can be divided into two, namely, requiring one-word responses and displaying known information.

In Figure 5.2 above it can be seen that, there were some student initiations in the form of questions. These comprised 34 (5%) of the total initiations. This minimal number could suggest that the lecturers dominated the classroom talk. It is worth mentioning that the student initiations came in two forms. One of the ways was that in some cases they asked

questions out of own accord. The reason for this could be because there was information that the lecturer(s) did not cover within the teaching time. An example of this was in lecturer Victor's lesson on academic writing. One of the students asked, "when you say, 'It is surprising', aren't you in some way injecting an opinion?" (lesson two, teaching exchange 17).

Another reason for the students' questions could be because they could think of typical examples, which need to be explicitly aligned with what the lecturer has said. In an example, a student from lecturer Glorious lesson on listening and note-taking (lesson two, teaching exchange 7) in the Faculty of Education asked, "suppose I am sent to a social worker; or anybody is sent to a social worker to be counselled; where does it fall?" Some studies have identified that students can also initiate questions (Mori, 2002; Nassaji, Wells, 2000).

Another point, relating to the students' questions, is that there were instances where the students asked questions and provided some explanations. Examples of such questions were found in lecturer Glorious lesson on, "academic writing: the writing process," when the student said, "in punctuation, I don't know when was it; I was once taught that you can't place a comma before 'and'. But in most of the books that I read I find a comma before 'and'; so I wonder" (refer to Appendix 11.20, teaching exchange 22). On the other hand, one of lecturer Star's students asked a question and provided some explanations when she said, "I have a question about the non-verbal cues. There are some countries where looking at someone's eyes is a sign of being trustworthy and being a good communicator; but in Africa there are places where if you look somebody in the eyes they think you are being rude or you are making them uncomfortable". The excerpt above comes from the lesson about qualities of a good communicator (refer to Appendix 11.7, teaching exchange 30). These students' contributions could suggest that the students in the CSS classes made an attempt to 'think about what they hear' (Alexander, 2008b) and contributed some information to the whole class in the form of questions. Additionally, this contribution could suggest that the students also are also aware that the CSS classes aims to develop their oral competence, hence their desire to ask questions in class.

On the other hand, the lecturers called for questions from the students. This was done by posing questions such as, 'do you have any questions?' Such student questions were found at the end of most of all the lectures observed. An example can be found in lecturer Queen's lesson on paraphrasing (lesson three; p. 169) and lecturer Pretty's lesson on academic writing

(lesson three; p. 32). However, it is interesting to realise that both the students and the lecturers responded to some of these. However, there were some cases where the students were silent. It can be argued that the results obtained from both the two types of student questions were “internalised and applied” (Kranz, 2011) by the students. Finally, the above results suggest that students in the CSS classes were also encouraged to ask questions.

### **5.3.5 Analysis of ‘Code-switching’**

It is also interesting to note that analysing the sub-types of questions explains how some of these, were used by the lecturers. In most cases the lecturers resorted to code-switching from English to Setswana in their use of rhetorical questions. The vernacular rhetorical question used to draw the students’ attention to the point just mentioned was ‘Akere?’ (Isn’t it?). Some of the examples where ‘Akere?’ was used to check on the students’ understanding can be seen in lecturer Victor’s lesson on information and literacy skills (lesson one, teaching exchange 13) when he said, “Akere?’ (Isn’t it?) you guys like people who are resourceful?” The lecturer wanted to check on the students’ understanding of the importance of having information literacy skills. It can be concluded that when the lecturers checked understanding, the students would acknowledge or not, depending on the type of question.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that the rhetorical question ‘Akere?’ when translated to an English version takes the form of a tag question (refer to section 5.3.3). Nevertheless, both ‘Isn’t it?’ or ‘Akere?’ were minimally used by the lecturers to check the students’ understanding of the preceding information. The tag question under discussion was minimally used because the lecturers rarely checked whether the students were following the lesson or not. In an investigation of improving the quality of interaction in primary schools, some studies explain that teachers occasionally used tag questions to check the pupils understanding (e.g., Creese, 2006; Hardman, Abd-Kadir & Smith, 2008). It can be maintained that rhetorical and tag questions serve the same purpose (of checking) in classroom interaction.

### **5.4 Deeper Analysis of the Response Move**

This section analyses the responses that were used in the CSS classes. These were mainly in three categories as illustrated in Figure 5.4.

A percentage breakdown of the analysis of the lecturer questions is given in Figure 5.4 below:

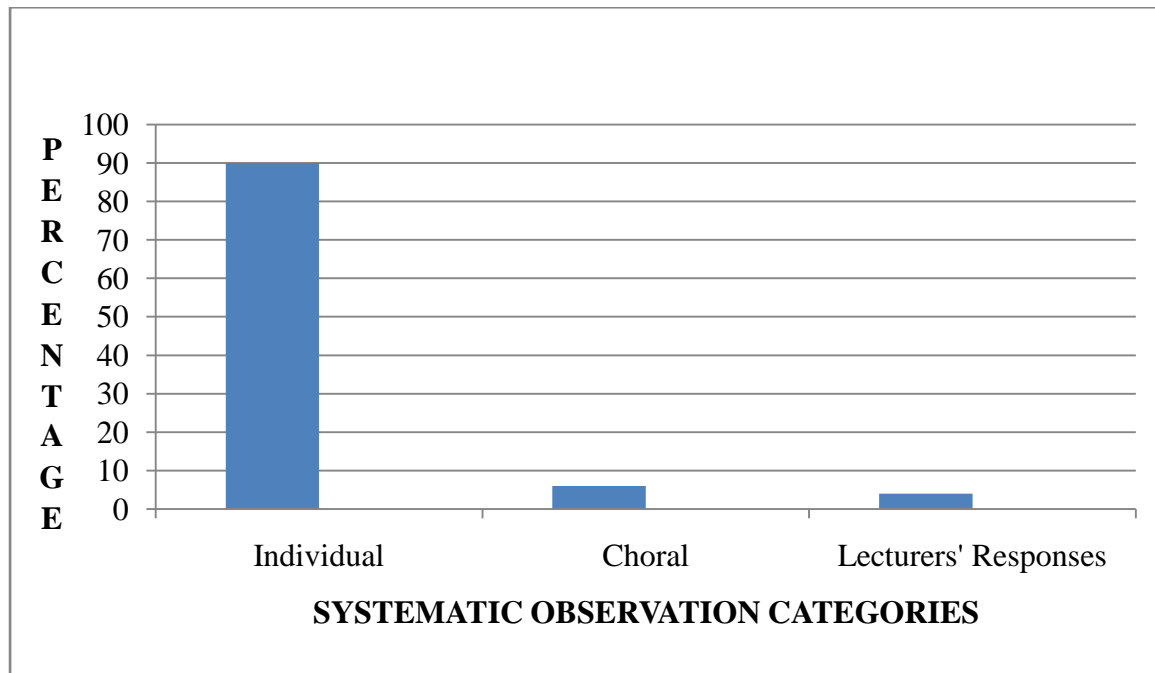


Figure 5.4: Frequencies of the Types of Responses in all the Twenty-Seven Classes

#### 5.4.1 Students' Individual Responses: Whole Class

Out of 540 minutes (100%), there was 36% of the student responses in all the twenty-seven CSS classes observed (refer to section 5.2). From the above illustration, the students' individual responses were the most frequent, as indicated by the vast majority of the whole responses. This could be because the lecturers in the CSS classes preferred the students to answer their questions in single form by raising their hands to bid for providing answers. Three reasons are advanced for preferring individual responses. One of the reasons could be that single responses indicate better classroom management, as all the members will hear one another, as the speaking skill will be practised in an orderly manner. Examples where individual responses were called for can be seen in lecturer Pretty's lesson on reading for academic purposes where the lecturer stated, 'okay. Let's have one person at a time' (refer to Appendix 11.2, teaching exchange 3). On the other hand, lecturer Victor in his lesson on information literacy said, 'we don't chorus; we indicate by raising hands' (refer to Appendix 11.10, teaching exchange 8). Studies have shown (Cortazzi, 1998; Coulthard, 1975; Cullen

2002; Dawes, 2004; Francis & Hunston, 1992; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Torrance & Pryor 1995) that the individual students responses are the most frequently used in classrooms. It can be concluded that individual student responses are the preferred mode of classroom talk as they might result in all the students being actively involved in the interaction. This is because the students and lecturers have a chance to listen, think and respond appropriately.

Another reason for individual responses could be because the lecturers want to monitor the students who talk in class versus those who do not (turn-taking) so as to consider equal distribution of classroom talk. That is why lecturer Queen in her lesson on paraphrasing said, “next. The last person; and a male this time. We have had two females this side” (refer to Appendix 11.24, teaching exchange 25). In another example, lecturer Princess in her lesson on listening said, “what about others? I pick at random. At the back; I like the back benchers. Yes. This side and then we go that side. How do you listen?” (refer to Appendix 11.25, teaching exchange 19). The same results of turn-taking during classroom interaction were found by a number of studies (e.g., Dawes, 2004; Liu, 2008; Maroni, Gnisci & Pontecorvo, 2008; Radford, Blatchford & Webster, 2011) when they stated that taking turns provides a pedagogical role as ‘classroom isolates’ will be rejected. It can be argued that individually taking turns to talk might assist all the students to fully take part in speaking.

Finally, the lone responses might be a form of extrinsic motivation to the students. Lecturer Victor stated in his lesson on information literacy, “what else? Remember I give out what for tables that participate? I appreciate; so, I am watching; any table for that matter.” (refer to Appendix 11.10, teaching exchange 3). From this example it can be seen that, the students can be motivated to talk in class, because they know that the lecturer will in some way appreciate their efforts. In another example, lecturer Star in the Faculty of Science lesson said, “what is it that you observed? When you cite, sources.....Class, can we talk? I told you that I am a communications lecturer, I do not talk to myself; I talk to students. How do we cite a source?” (refer to Appendix 11.6, teaching exchange 3). In lecturer Star’s example, it is very likely that the students will be motivated to talk because the lecturer is encouraging them. Some studies have revealed that motivation helps students to develop their own verbal ideas (Rodrigues & Bell, 1995; van Lier, 2008; Wells, 1993; Wilkinson & Silliman, 2000). It can be concluded that if lecturers motivate the students, that can contribute more to their verbal interaction. The individual students were helped by the lecturers to share verbal information with one another as a whole class. Finally, the same was done as members of the various groups shared information with the whole class.



#### **5.4.1.1 Students' Individual Responses: Group Work**

Having looked at the individual responses to the whole class, it is worth pointing out that there were some individual verbal responses during group work. The students were given a couple of minutes to discuss in groups; then, individual students later responded by verbally giving the answer to the rest of the class. These were part of the student-lecturer interaction, because the student who responded provided the whole class with an answer. These answers were immediately evaluated by the lecturers. Examples of these were discovered in the whole of lecturer Star's lesson on communication barriers (refer to Appendix 11.5). Another example of students' verbal demonstration can be found in lecturer Masterpiece's lesson on critical reading (refer to Appendix 11.13). The students talked to the whole class by verbally giving their answers to the class. A number of studies categorise such responses as 'exploratory talk' (Alexander, 2008; Barnes, 1992; Edwards & Jones 2001; Mercer & Dawes, 2008; Rudnitsky, 2013; Zhang, 2008), as learners try out their ideas on the whole class by explaining and justifying their answers. On the other hand, some scholars (e.g., Moate, 2010; Zhang, 2008) call such individual responses 'presentational talk' as the students present their ideas by responding to the question posed by the teacher. The above results suggest that both presentational and exploratory talk were used in the CSS classes. This is because the students who individually demonstrated the classroom talk involved both fellow students and the lecturers, which generated expanded spoken interaction with the whole class.

#### **5.4.2 Students' Choral Responses**

Another point worth mentioning regarding the students' responses is that 6% were choral responses (refer to Figure 5.4). Although these were very infrequent as compared to the individual responses, it is certain that there were instances where some of the lecturers wanted the students to respond in unison. An example can be found in lecturer Star's lesson in the Faculty of Science when she declared, "class can you check how much the project is worth. How much is the project worth?" (refer to Appendix 11.4, teaching exchange 1). The use of the noun 'class' may have led the students to provide a choral answer. Another illustration comes from lecturer Victor's lesson on information literacy skills (lesson one, teaching exchange 6) given below:

| Exchanges | Participant | Classroom talk        | Moves | Acts    |
|-----------|-------------|-----------------------|-------|---------|
| 6         | L           | Everybody,<br>It is-' | I     | n<br>el |

It is worth mentioning that the latter example occurred at the same time as cued elicitation and rising intonation. In the former teaching exchange, lecturer Victor had informed the students that the lesson was going to focus on information literacy. As a result, he wanted the students to repeat 'information literacy' in teaching exchange 6 above.

In addition, choral responses were given where the question needed a 'yes' or 'no' responses. An example of this was found in lecturer Pretty's lesson on reading for academic purposes when she asked if layout and presentation matters. The students together replied with a "yes" (lesson two, teaching exchange 20). In another example, lecturer Star's Faculty of Business students gave a choral answer of "no" when the lecturer checked if they had notes on an introductory paragraph (lesson three, teaching exchange 13). Previous studies have reported that there is indeed the use of choral responses in the form of 'yes/no' (e.g., Albers, Hellermann & Harris, 2008; Bunyi, 2005; Hardman, Abd-Kadir & Smith, 2008; Jin & Cortazzi, 1998; Littleton & Mercer, 2010; Liu, 2008; Vásquez, 2007; Xie, 2011). On the other hand some scholars have found that the use of 'yes/no' choral responses is highly used in verbal interaction (Chafi, Elkhouzai & Arhlam, 2014; Dalton-Puffer, 2006; Smith, et al., 2005). The implication is that the 'yes/no' choral responses are there, and they may be rarely or highly used depending on a number of factors, such as the nature of the course (whether content or skill-based). Secondly, how the choral responses are used may be determined by the students' educational level (pre-primary, primary, secondary or tertiary). It can be concluded that all three types of choral responses (unison, cued elicitations, yes/no), co-occur with closed questions, as discussed in section 5.3.4. Even though the choral responses were on the dip end in comparison with the individual ones, this might suggest that the lecturers asked the students to respond as a whole class in order to emphasise a particular point. Also, it could be maintained that the type of questions asked by the lecturers led to the type of responses.

#### 5.4.3 Lecturers' Responses

Lastly, it is worth mentioning another type of response, which unlike the other first four (individual, choral, cued elicitation, yes/no), was made by the lecturers. The lecturers'

responses made up 4% and were very rare for two reasons. One of the reasons was that the lecturers seldom responded to the students' questions. The lecturer responses followed where students initiated the question on their own accord. An example of this is found in lecturer Pretty's lesson on reading for academic purposes when she declared, "you can. You can still use them but it depends on how you use them. You can also be critical on how you use them to say, 'this is what they think' or 'this is what they have discussed'. You become critical as well" (lesson two, teaching exchange 14). Another example is from lecturer Star's lesson in the Faculty of Science when she said, "well you have to put the year. You can't just say 'according to Milna' and not indicate the year the source was published, because Milna might have various sources. In the academia, even the professors do that; the people who are supposed to be knowledgeable they support; supporting, supporting, supporting. The fundamental issue is supporting a well-developed paragraph" (lesson three, teaching exchange 13). One question that needs to be asked, however, is whether the lecturers are aware that by responding to the students' questions, they are limiting the students' chances to talk. This teaching strategy could have been successful if the lecturers had asked the students to respond to their peers' questions. This strategy would motivate the students and also help them to develop their classroom talk.

The second reason contributing to the rarity of lecturer responses might be that it was generally uncommon for the students to initiate a question. This is because, as indicated in Figure 5.1 and 5.2, the lecturers provided more information, which the students did not pursue in order to promote talk amongst them. From the observed lessons, few questions were posed at the end of a teaching transaction as illustrated in lecturer Princess's lesson on the reading process (refer to Appendix 11.26, teaching exchanges 24). At the end of the transaction the students were asked to apply what they had been talking about regarding the pre-reading stage. In order to have a clearer picture of the task, a student asked what they were actually expected to do. Another related example where students initiated a question at the end of the lesson transaction comes from lecturer Victor's lesson on note taking (refer to Appendix 11.12, teaching exchange 22). In the said lesson, the students were asked to work in groups and to work on outline notes. Following this they asked some questions relating to successful implementation of the task. The above findings are supported by other researchers (e.g., Boyd & Rubin, 2002; 2006; Hardman & Williamson, 1998; Thornbury, 1996) who state that precious little classroom discussion is initiated, and only in certain circumstances by the students, so as to allow the interchange of ideas. It can be claimed that the lecturers'

responses are determined by how they respond to the students' questions, and the student initiations to a question.

In conclusion, regarding the responses indicated in Figure 5.4, a significant discrepancy is observed between the individual responses and the latter two (choral and lecturers). It can be argued that CSS lecturers prefer individual responses rather than other types of response. Even though this is a good move, lecturers should capitalise on this by encouraging more elaborate individual responses. This could be done by lecturers encouraging the students to explain and justify their responses, hence promoting exploratory talk.

### 5.5 Deeper Analysis of the Feedback Move

This subsection looks at the feedback move, which according to the IRF exchange is the last element of the said discourse analytic structure. As indicated at the beginning of this chapter, a look at the F-Move helps in establishing the patterns of interaction in CSS classes in terms of the quality of classroom discourse.

A percentage breakdown of the analysis of the lecturer questions is given in Figure 5.5 below:

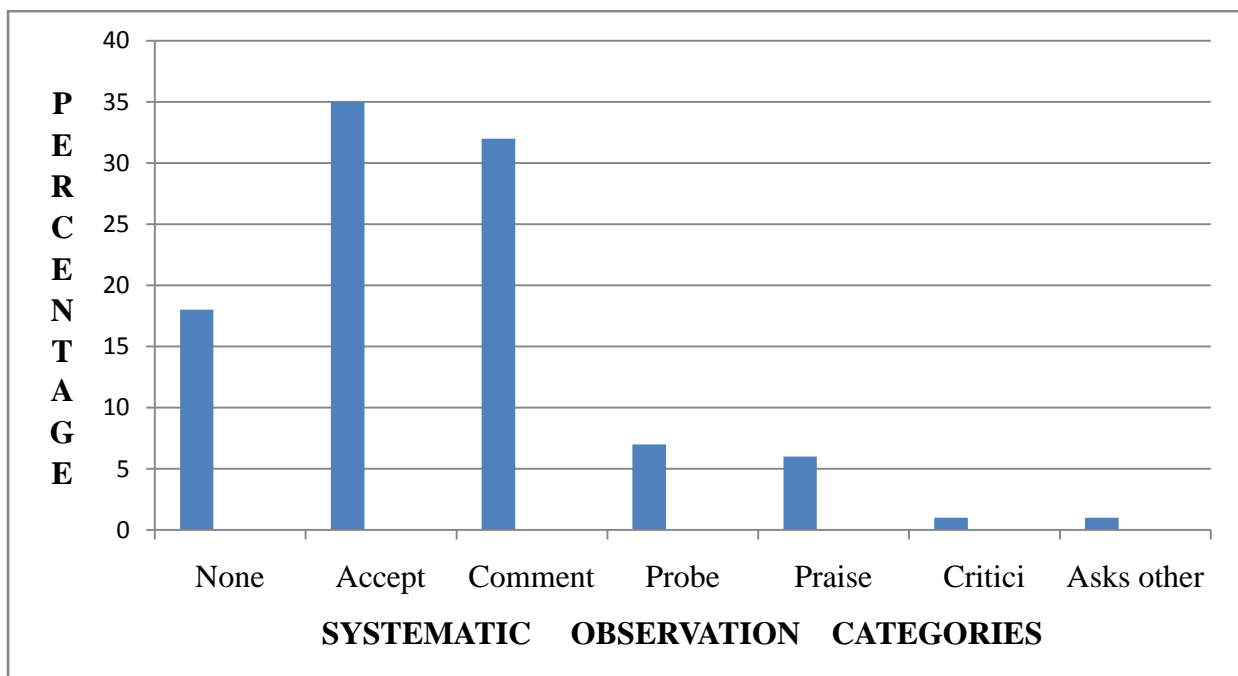


Figure 5.5: Frequencies of the Types of Feedback in all the Twenty-Seven Classes

Out of 540 minutes (100%), there were 27% of the Feedback in all the twenty-seven CSS classes observed. Generally, the lecturers explained and accepted points from the students. Further, they praised, probed or asked the students to go and carry out more research on the point raised. Relating to the aforementioned analysis of the overall feedback, there is a consensus amongst applied linguists that all feedback comes from the teacher, and that the said feedback accounts for the quality of interaction (e.g., Chin, 2006; Cullen, 2002; Torrance & Pryor, 1995; Waring, 2008; Wells, 1993). It can thus be claimed that the quality of feedback contributes to quality classroom interaction.

### 5.5.1 None

‘None’ feedback means that within a teaching exchange, there was no comment from the lecturer(s). This resulted in only the Initiation and Response pattern of classroom interaction. The ‘none’ feedback category indicated in Figure 5.5, this was 18% of the whole classroom feedback. It can be argued that sometimes classroom interaction lends its- self to the absence of feedback. This is a good development because in the lessons observed, the said instances occurred because the interaction was open to more responses from the students. Shi (2013) found that, “feedback was not given by the teacher immediately, with an intention to gain a more comprehensive view of students’ understanding” (p. 1978). An example of where the lecturer did not give the students’ feedback, was found in lecturer Pretty’s lesson on reading for academic purposes as illustrated below:

| Exchanges | Participant | Classroom talk  | Moves | Acts       |
|-----------|-------------|---|-------|------------|
| 27        | L           | “Ee mma” (Yes ma’am). You want to say something.  | I     | n          |
|           | S           | If a book is reliable; You look at the back cover where they summarise the contents of the book.  | R     | rep        |
| 28        | L           | What is it called?  | I     | el         |
|           | S           | The Blurb.  | R     | rep        |
|           | L           | The Blurb.<br>Because usually it outlines or summarises the source. Those are some of the things that give you the idea about the book. | F     | acc<br>com |

(Refer to Appendix 11.2, teaching exchange 27 to 28)

A similar example was found in lecturer Masterpiece’s lesson on critical reading (refer to Appendix 11.13, teaching exchange 4 to 5).

On the other hand, there was no feedback because the questions asked were closed. It can be argued that in some cases, lecturers use closed questions to help the student master the point that is being taught. Lecturer Victor’s lesson on academic writing below is a typical example of concentrating on students’ mastery of information.



It can be debated that most of the time the lecturers engage in lengthy teaching strategies as they conclude a teaching exchange.

### 5.5.2 Accept and Comment

According to Sinclair & Coulthard (1975), ‘Accept’ is a class of ‘act’ which is realized by a closed class of items – ‘yes’, ‘no’, ‘good’, ‘fine’ and repetition of pupil’s reply” (p. 43). Thus, the lecturer can acknowledge, evaluate or repeat the information as stated earlier (during the Initiation Move) by the student. On the other hand, Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) define ‘Comment’ as, “Realised by statement and tag question. It is subordinate to the head of the move and its function is to exemplify, expand, justify, provide additional information” (p. 42). This suggests that during the Feedback Move, the lecturer gives the students more details regarding their responses. It can be seen in Figure 5.5 that 67% of the feedback was in the form of accepting and comments points. As these were very frequent, they are discussed below so as to explain how and why they occurred.

#### 5.5.2.1 Accept

It can be noted from the above figure that the lecturers’ feedback comprised of accepting the students’ responses as indicated by 35%. The lecturers’ acceptance of the feedback move can be defined as mere repetition of the students’ answers. Some studies of classroom discourse (e.g., Hellermann, 2003) have attempted to explain that in accepting, “teachers make repetitive feedback moves following student responses”. In accepting, the lecturers agree that the preceding students’ response was correct. Some of these were very short, comprising one to five words. The example below from lecturer Star’s Faculty of Science lesson shows a short acceptance of the student’s response.

| Exchanges | Participant | Classroom talk  | Moves | Acts       |
|-----------|-------------|---|-------|------------|
| 8         | L           | Class there should always be a what?  | I     | el         |
|           | S           | A leader.   | R     | rep        |
|           | L           | A leader.<br>Even here at university there is a leader. Even in our government there is a leader. So you should elect a chairperson who will be an overseer of the task.... | F     | acc<br>com |

(Refer to Appendix 11.4, teaching exchange 8)

One of the reasons that contributed to this was that sometimes the lecturers just acknowledged that they had heard the answer. This was done by the lecturers repeating what the students had said. The said type of acceptance is similar in description to what Hellermann (2003) called ‘lexical repetition’. However, if the short answer of acceptance

was developed by providing comments as illustrated above, some scholars, (e.g., Ali & Iqbal, 2013; Chin, 2007; Zhang & Patrick, 2012) call it, ‘Affirmation-Direct Instruction,’ where the response is reinforced and followed by further exposition.

Furthermore there was a noticeable form of repetition that the lecturers used to accept the students’ responses. This was where the lecturers used the reported form to show that they had heard the answer. There could be three reasons for this. One of the reasons is that the lecturers repeat to accept a student’s response, and also for the benefit of the group’s understanding and hearing. The second reason could be that, although the lecturers have heard the response, by and large it was owned by that particular student. Finally, this way of accepting could also suggest that there was some more information that could make the answer stronger and more complete. An example of this type of feedback was found in lecturer Princess’s lesson on listening, and it is illustrated in the teaching exchange below:

| <b>Exchanges</b> | <b>Participant</b> | <b>Classroom talk</b>   | <b>Moves</b> | <b>Acts</b> |
|------------------|--------------------|---|--------------|-------------|
| <b>6</b>         | <b>S</b>           | I personally think I have good listening skills because when somebody is speaking I pay attention to what he or she is saying.  | <b>R</b>     | <b>rep</b>  |
|                  | <b>L</b>           | She says she thinks she has good listening skills because when somebody is speaking she pays attention, quietly to what he or she is saying. So she says she has good listening skills. | <b>F</b>     | <b>acc</b>  |

The above was part of teaching exchange 6, where the students were asked if they thought they had good listening skills. The significance of the above type of acceptance of students’ responses relates to what Chin (2007) calls, ‘focusing and zooming’. This is because the lecturer accepted the student’s response (that is the focusing). However, there could still be the ‘zooming’ aspect, for example asking the student questions such as, ‘what will be the determining factor that she is listening?’ It can be argued that this way of accepting the students’ answers co-exists with more elaborate repetitions (comprising six words or more).

### **5.5.2.2 Comment**

Another prominent aspect of classroom talk used by the CSS lecturers whilst providing feedback, were the lecturers’ comments. This was where the lecturers verbally provided a considerable amount of input following the students’ responses. It can be maintained that this particular aspect was mostly used by the lecturers as indicated by the 32% of the whole analysis of the feedback move.



Some of the reasons why the lecturers' comments were amongst the more frequent aspects of the feedback move could be that the students' responses were brief and sometimes incomplete. This was illustrated in lecturer Princess's lesson on paragraph development when the student responded that a paragraph should be mostly ten lines. The lecturer then commented by way of completing the missing information when she said, "mostly they should not be more than ten lines, but a paragraph should not be too choppy. But as we have said the paragraph should develop that common idea fully. Sometimes may be the idea should go to the second paragraph; the paragraph where may be in explaining it needs more than one paragraph" (Refer to Appendix 11.27, teaching exchange 10). Another related example appears in lecturer Queen's lesson on paragraphs when the student responded that, "you put your thoughts on paper." The student was responding to the manner in which one should put thoughts on paper when writing. The lecturer provided additional information by saying, "you try to organise your ideas. You try to organise your thoughts. You try to write your ideas in paragraphs. You try to sort out your ideas. That is what should happen at the right draft" (Refer to Appendix 11.23, teaching exchange 8). Previous research findings into the use of teacher comments indicate that teachers build on the students' responses by elaborating on the points raised (Howe, 2013; Jones, 2011; Siddiquee & Ikeda, 2013; Waring, 2011). In an endeavour to address the aforementioned loophole, the lecturers elaborated on the answers provided by the students. It can be argued that in the case where the students had missed some points in their answer, the lecturers provided comments to drive home the point that was under discussion. The lecturers' comments were under-utilised, as generally the students did not offer input on the feedback adding information that might lead to elaborated classroom discourse. These findings relate to existing literature that demonstrates that there are missed opportunities for opening dialogue in classrooms (e.g. Groenke, 2010; Mohr and Mohr, 2007; Wells & Arauz, 2006).

However, there were some glimpses of the students' stating additional information as demonstrated in lecturer Masterpiece's lesson extract below:

| Exchanges | Participant | Classroom talk  | Moves | Acts     |
|-----------|-------------|---|-------|----------|
|           | L           | Very good. Yes.<br>Or the hypothesis is that in Botswana it will not work   | F     | e<br>com |
| 12        | S           | An example can be the issue of Old age home; some people are trying to do it here and saying this is the time to have elderly homes in Botswana...and some people think it will not work out here because my "nkuku" (grandmother) will just want to be home and look after her chickens. | I     | inform   |

(Lesson two on reading skills, teaching exchanges 10-12)

From the above lesson extract it can be seen that the students and the lecturer were talking about what a research gap is. One of the students expanded on the lecturer's comments by giving the example of 'addressing a research gap' as indicated above. Chin (2006, p.1341) states that the type of student's response that immediately follows the teacher's feedback is an 'uptake'. This result, although minimally used in the CSS classes, might lead to 'uptake' on the lecturer's comments, replacing the simple informative feedback, and illuminating the type of feedback that the students can build on.

Nevertheless, some scholars (e.g., Boyd & Rubin, 2006; Kaya, 2014; Smith, Hardman, Wall & Mroz, 2004;) define uptake in the form of questions, where the teacher incorporates a pupil's answer into a subsequent question which results in the form of an elaboration or a follow-up question. Considering the latter definition and the classroom talk in the CSS classes, a reasonable amount of uptakes was evident during classroom interaction. Examples of these were found in the following lessons: lecturer Pretty's lesson on improving note taking where she said, "anything else? What is attractive; what does it mean? What else do you see?" (refer to Appendix 11.1, teaching exchange 5). The lecturer was expanding on the student's answer that patterned notes are attractive. Another example was in lecturer Masterpiece's lesson on reading skills where she asked, "what is the meaning of 'come to UB and be You?'" (refer to Appendix 11.14, teaching exchange 14). The lecturer was teaching about reading extensively, and billboards around Gaborone were cited as sources of information that can be read to get the hidden meaning. The above results suggest that 'two types' of uptakes (the student building on the lecturer's contribution and the lecturers' questions expanding on the students' responses) are used in the CSS classes. Further, it can be argued that the uptake questions extends classroom talk as more answers can be given by the students resulting in what Kaya (2014) calls 'a high level of evaluation.'

### **5.5.3 Probes**

Rahman (2014) define Probes as, "where the teacher asks the students to elaborate or explain, or to exemplify, expand, justify or provide additional information on an answer" (p. 255). Thus, as a result of the teacher asking open questions, probes help the students to come up with more and detailed information. Another key factor from the CSS classes was probing. Probing represents 7% of the overall feedback that the lecturers used. It can be explained that the lecturers stayed with the same student to help them answer the question. An example of

probing the same student occurred when lecturer Star taught about communication barriers, shown in the extract below:

| Exchanges | Participant | Classroom talk  | Moves | Acts     |
|-----------|-------------|---|-------|----------|
| 8         | S           | <b>Presenter 2 cont'</b> : And we also talked about perception. And another factor is focussing on ourselves rather than the other person. Some of the factors that cause this are defensiveness. We feel someone is attacking us; we can feel we are the centre of the activity.   | R     | rep      |
| 9         | L           | Let us talk about that one; defensiveness. How does defensiveness become a barrier?<br>Yes please   | I     | el<br>n  |
|           | S           | For example you think the way I talk is fine but the other people think it is not. You may defend yourself and say, 'I'm fine'.   | R     | rep      |
|           | L           | Very good.<br>The other person might feel offended. The other purpose; Like this naughty room mate who uses your toiletry and takes your food without your permission and when you talk to them they say, " <b>o tshwanetse wa tlhaloganyana</b> " ( <b>you have to understand</b> ) because we are students here, we don't have money; what do I need to do?" This person is defensive; they don't want to own up. Right. If you are defensive, do something about it. | F     | e<br>com |

(Refer to Appendix 11.5)

The lecturers in the CSS classes changed their way of questioning so as to enable the same students to come up with the desired answers. As a result, the interaction also opened up, because the probed student(s) in some cases answered with issues to debate as a whole class. It can also be assumed that the lecturers wanted to solicit more information before they could move on to the next step of classroom talk. Lefstein and Snell (2014) argue that teachers use a number of follow-up questions to probe responses from students and that this teaching style extends the teaching exchanges rather than immediately closing them down. Generally, probing could be seen as a step in the right direction as regards classroom interaction because the students will be aware that if they do not provide the whole class with convincing points, the lecturers will further question them. The aforementioned conclusion will also help CSS lecturers to produce students who can think critically and interact convincingly. In concluding the analysis of the functions of the F-move analysed above, it has been shown that the move plays two broad pedagogical roles, (Cullen, 2002; Hellermann, 2003) namely ending the teaching exchange and leading to a new teaching exchange. A relationship exists between types of feedback, such as probing and uptakes, and what some scholars refer to as recasting. This is a question that can be asked in such a way that the students are made aware that the previous answer was not correct (see Fukuya & Zhang, 2002; Kayi, 2010; Moser, et al., 2011; Panova & Lyster, 2002).

### 5.5.4 Praise

In this thesis, ‘Praise’ is defined as an act of approving the students’ answer by the lecturer. The said approval is indicated by the use of concepts such as excellent, brilliant, good, very good. From the above results, there was also an aspect of the lecturer praising the students after their responses. Praise comprised 6% of the whole teaching time. It was to a large extent provided as a way of providing positive reinforcement to the students. Since all the lecturers offered praise, it can be claimed that they were trained to follow the students’ responses with some praise as a way of motivating them to contribute. Examples of praise were found in the following lessons: lecturer Glorious’ lesson on listening and note-taking where one of the students was reporting to the whole class on aspects that help a person to listen effectively.

| Exchanges | Participant | Classroom talk  | Moves    | Acts       |
|-----------|-------------|---|----------|------------|
|           | <b>S</b>    | HOW DO YOU PREPARE YOURSELF TO LISTEN: You have to leave a healthy life style. Eating healthy, Exercising, Maintaining focus, for example, if you attend church be on that particular thing. Get enough rest, Be positive minded every time. Being able to deal with stress, maintain the right attitude. | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b> |
|           | <b>L</b>    | Thank you very much; That is very good.   | <b>F</b> | <b>e</b>   |

(Refer to Appendix 11.17, teaching exchange 18)

Another example comes from lecturer Princess’s lesson on listening:

| Exchanges | Participant | Classroom talk  | Moves    | Acts                   |
|-----------|-------------|---|----------|------------------------|
| <b>3</b>  | <b>L</b>    | What about others?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>              |
|           | <b>S</b>    | It helps to get the underlying message.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
|           | <b>L</b>    | Good, but give them a chance so that they say what they think. He says, It helps to get the underlying message. | <b>F</b> | <b>e</b><br><b>acc</b> |

(Refer to Appendix 11.25)

As illustrated in the two lessons extracts above, the general observation of how praise was used in the CSS classes, was that lecturers used it discriminatingly and appropriately. This is shown in how they did not only evaluate the students’ responses, but they also judged situations that could bring forth quality classroom talk. These findings support Gillies’s (2006) point of view that praises during classroom talk encourages students’ verbal behaviours. However, it is striking to realise that out of the whole teaching time, this positive action was only carried out 6% of the time. This suggests that the lecturers wanted to strike a balance as, Jin and Cortazzi (1998) caution that praises should be used sparingly.

### 5.5.5 Criticism

In this thesis, ‘Criticism’ is an act employed by the lecturer which indicates that rejection of the students answer. This could be done by comments such as, ‘Are you serious?’, ‘No’, ‘Not quite’. Another way that the lecturer provided feedback to the students was to criticise their answers. Nevertheless, this particular aspect was not frequently used as reflected by the 1% rate of occurrence. Examples of this were found in lecturer Queen’s lesson on reading:

| Exchanges | Participant |  | Moves | Acts    |
|-----------|-------------|--|-------|---------|
| 23        | S           | Comparing Skimming and scanning, how much time do you allocate to skimming?  | I     | el      |
|           | L           | That is a question; how much time do we allocate to skimming and scanning?<br>Yes sir  | I     | el<br>n |
|           | S           | To answer his question, I think that Skimming is brief; when doing it you look at the headings and subheadings, and Scanning you get a bit more into what you are reading. | R     | rep     |
|           | L           | Serious!?  | F     | e       |

(Refer to Appendix 11.22)

It can be argued that the number was very low because criticism is a form of negative reinforcement, and as a result it can prevent students from responding to the lecturers’ questions or comments. However, some of the CSS lecturers provided, what applied linguistics scholars call, ‘diagnostic feedback’ which the students could build upon, to adjust and scaffold their thinking (e.g., Jones & Wiliam, 2008; Pontefract & Hardman, 2005) and others (Chin, 2007; DeBarger, Penuel, Harris, & Schank, 2010) call ‘diagnostic questioning,’ that engages rather than ignores the students problematic ideas in order to promote conceptual change. These were found in lecturer Pretty’s lesson on reading for academic purposes, as illustrated below:

| Exchanges | Participant |   | Moves | Acts        |
|-----------|-------------|---|-------|-------------|
| 12        | L           | But what I’m saying is; Can you use it now? Is it something that you can cite with confidence? Can you use it in academic work?<br>Okay, let’s have the last comment and we go on. I think it is an issue that you can debate on. This is something that we can debate on-What do we mean by Reliability. | I     | el<br><br>i |
|           | S           | I think the information in the Wikipedia is so much but if we can find the author, the date and the publisher, it is reliable; Because it is something that we can trace.   | R     | rep         |
|           | L           | Okay.<br>I will put the question online for discussion; what do we mean by a reliable source?   | F     | acc<br>com  |

(Refer to Appendix 11.2)

Another example can be seen in lecturer Queen’s lesson on paragraphs, illustrated in the lesson excerpt below:

| Exchanges | Participant |  | Moves | Acts        |
|-----------|-------------|--|-------|-------------|
| 20        | L           | So what is your topic?   | I     | el          |
|           | S           | The question is written.   | R     | rep         |
|           | L           | You are saying an assignment concerning the use of building materials for construction over a wide river. The river is defined as a natural body of rain water flowing. Like I was saying, ‘Is the assignment about a river?’ because the topic sentence straight away tells me about the river. So that is why I am asking, ‘Is the assignment about a river?’  | F     | com         |
| 21        | L           | What is the assignment? Is the assignment about a river? Is the assignment about a river? because the topic sentence tells me about the river. So that is why I am asking ‘Is the assignment about a river?’<br>Yes “mma” (ma’am)  | I     | el<br><br>n |
|           | S           | We were trying to explain what the material we are going to use.   | R     | rep         |
| 22        | L           | What is the key issue here in your assignment? In your topic?  | I     | el          |
|           | S           | The use of building materials.   | R     | rep         |
|           | L           | The issue of building materials; that is the key issue here.<br>You don’t need to explain what a river is because the main issue is about building materials.<br><b>You see there are lot of problems now.</b><br>Do you think land is managed effectively in Botswana? <b>You know what, the problem is that you just plunge into the assignment without introducing anything.</b> Mh. You think land is managed effectively in Botswana and then; You feel land in Botswana is available and affordable to all citizens? Where do we start? How much land do we have?<br>There is no introductory paragraph here.<br>You just plunge into the assignment<br>Then you continue to say, “On the other hand”. What are you comparing this with? There are a lot of new hotels; new malls, <b>blah, blah, blah. There is a problem here.</b> So, Let me just give you a paragraph from a very old text that we have been using. “Mmm” (No) I will start with the elements of a paragraph. Okay.<br>We talked about the topic sentence that it should introduce the idea. | F     | acc<br>com  |

(Refer to Appendix 11.23, teaching exchanges 20-22).

The above results suggest that instead of the feedback only pointing to the students’ mistakes and closing the classroom interaction, some questioning approaches were used to help the students to critically think about their mistakes and to come up with the correct answers. Also, the above results indicate that both ‘diagnostic feedback’ and ‘diagnostic questioning’ contributes to quality classroom interaction.

Indeed, since University of Botswana students are academically mature in terms of age, they can accept the negative points raised about their answers. With the acceptance that they did not say the correct answer, this could be replaced by the students being motivated to say,

‘next time I want to provide a correct response’. Additionally, they could ask themselves questions such as, ‘where did I go wrong?’ and by so doing, that could help the classroom interaction open, hence promoting quality talk between the students and lecturers. Generally, this form of behaviour, if used, could be first accompanied by a positive comment and later on lead to where the problem is.

## **5.6 Chapter Summary**

This chapter investigated the overall frequencies of initiations, responses and feedback moves in order to establish the nature of interaction in the CSS classes. Establishing the nature of interaction in the said classes helps to find out whether or not the said classes assist the students in developing their oral communicative skills. It was found that generally, a combination of lecturer initiation and feedback in the interaction were high (62%), and this resulted in the lecturers dominating the classroom talk. Previous studies have reported that there is teacher domination during the teaching and learning process (e.g., Arthur & Martin, 2006; Basturkmen, 2003; Hardman., et al., 2008; Hargreaves., et al., 2003; Njuguna, 2012; Smith., et al., 2006; Tabulawa, 1998). This is because the lecturers take most of their time informing the students about the topics under discussion during the initiation move. Further, lecturers sum up the lesson by way of building more on what was said as a form of feedback. In conjunction with the aforementioned claim, it can be maintained that lecturers think that it was their duty to transmit information.

Secondly, the different sub-types of the IRF moves had meaning in CSS classes. It can be claimed that both learning talk and guided construction of knowledge helped the students to talk, hence one-third lecturer initiations in the CSS classes. The use of open questions by the lecturers suggests that they were varied and effective. The use of frequent individual student responses suggests that students are actively involved in the interaction. Finally, the highest distribution of ‘comments’ and ‘acceptances’ mean that the lecturers want the students to benefit in terms of understanding and hearing.

Finally, on the students’ side, their contribution equated to about two-fifths of the classroom talk and was in the form of responses. Although this was lower than the lecturers’ overall talk, it can be claimed that there was an attempt by the students in the CSS classes to talk. This claim is based on the one-fifth difference between the lecturers’ and the students’ input. Teaching strategies such as probing, uptakes and diagnostic feedback, contributed to bridging

the interaction of both students and lecturers. Another positive contribution came from the open questions that were used by the lecturers, more than using closed ones.



## **CHAPTER 6: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DISCOURSE**

### **6.1. Introduction**

The previous chapter analysed the overall quantitative results of all the twenty-seven classes, the overall initiations, responses and feedback that were used in the CSS classes. This next chapter analyses the discourse that was observed from nine of the selected classes so that, just like the previous chapter, the research question on the nature of interaction can be answered. These nine classes cover the seven faculties. In analysing the aforementioned discourse, one lesson transaction from each of the nine lectures observed was analysed. The claims based on the evidence of this chapter analysis are also presented. Furthermore, the relationship and the distinct features between the claims are explored.

It is worth mentioning the aims of the observed lessons analysed in this chapter. One of the aims was to find out the kinds of interactions employed in CSS classes. The aforementioned interactions were analysed focussing on the Initiations, Responses and Feedback provided during the observed lessons. Secondly, one of the aims was to find out if the interactions were successful or not. This particular aim sought to find out if the students' oral communication skills were developed or not. Finally, one of the aims of the observed lessons was to enrich the data from the systematic observations (chapter 5) and the interviews (chapter 6). All the above aims helped to find out if there was quality classroom interaction in CSS classes or not.

The analytical tool used for the lessons transcribed herein was the initiation, response and feedback (IRF) moves from Sinclair and Coulthard (1975, 1992) which has already been discussed in Chapter 3, the literature review. Furthermore, all the lessons were transcribed word-for-word, as demonstrated in the nine transcriptions.

### **6.2. Overview of the Overall Findings**

Two key claims have been drawn from the findings herein. One of the claims is that factors such as student numbers in a class, the faculty, the lecturers' academic qualifications and their teaching experience, do not significantly contribute to the nature of classroom interaction; instead it is the lecturer's teaching style that does. Secondly, the discourse

analysed for all the nine lecturers indicates that the use of the strict IRF pattern is not dominant.

The quality of classroom interaction was measured by identifying the degrees of the nature of classroom interaction. This was done, by categorising the lessons into the three groups as follows: a) ‘better,’ In this thesis, ‘better’ is defined as the lesson transaction that revealed a dialogic pattern of interaction. This is because of the following reasons: (i) the students talked more than the lecturer (ii) the students provided numerous responses which were also detailed in terms of the number of sentences provided (iii) the whole lesson transaction indicated a number of lengthy teaching exchanges (iv) there were a number of strands in each lesson transaction. In conclusion, the length of the strands indicated quality classroom talk. (b) ‘good,’ In this thesis, ‘good’ is defined as the lesson transaction that had a combination of both the dialogic and monologic pattern of interaction. This is because of the following reasons: (i) the students at some points of the lesson transaction talked more than the lecturer and on the other hand there were some points with the lesson transaction where the lecturer talked more than the students (ii) about half of the students’ responses were evident within a lesson transaction while the other half was made up of the lecturer’ talk (iii) there was a combination of both lengthy teaching exchanges and very short ones. (iv) the strands were evident within the teaching exchange but were minimal when comparing them with the ‘better’ category. In conclusion the length of the strands indicated ‘average’ quality classroom talk. (c) ‘not so good’. In this thesis, ‘not so good’ is defined as the lesson transaction that revealed a ‘strict IRF’ pattern of interaction. This is because of the following reasons: (i) the lecturer talked more than the students (ii) the students provided minimal responses which were also very short in terms of the number of sentences provided. Sometimes the student responded in only one word. (iii) the whole lesson transaction indicated very short teaching exchanges (iv) in most cases only one or two strands were evident in each lesson transaction. In conclusion, the aforementioned length of the strand(s) indicated ‘traditional’ classroom talk.

The rest of this chapter considers each lecturer as a case as follows:

### **KEYS TO ACRONYMS AND ILLUSTRATIONS**

|  |  |
|--|--|
| <b>On the left hand side of each transcript:</b> | <b>L-</b> Lecturer talk<br><b>S-</b> Individual student talk<br><b>Ss-</b> Choral answer from the students |
|--|--|

|   |  |
|---|--|
| <b>On the right hand side:</b>  | <p><b>IRF:</b> Initiation-response-feedback (IRF) analytic model from Coulthard (1977, 1985) and Sinclair and Coulthard (1975, 1992)</p> <p><b>Re-initiation:</b> There are two types of Re-initiation. The first type is when the teacher gets no response to an elicitation and consequently starts the initiation in one of the following ways:</p> <p>Repeating or re-phrasing the same question.</p> <p>Using one or more acts such as prompt, nomination or clue.</p> <p>The second type is when the teacher gets a wrong answer. He/she can either:</p> <p>Stay with the same student and try to get him or her round to the right answer.</p> <p>Move on to another student to solicit a correct response.</p> |
| <b>On the far left-hand side:</b>   | <p><b>Boundary exchanges:</b> These are statements that:</p> <p>a) Mark the beginning of a transaction: b) Tell the class what is going to happen.</p> <p><b>Teaching exchanges:</b> Mark a stretch of classroom discourse.</p>  |
| <b>On the far right-hand side:</b>  | <p><b>Acts</b>-Smaller discrete units that make up the moves (Coulthard, 1977). The analysis of the <i>acts</i> is important for this particular study, because they tell the reader more about the elements of interaction. One or more acts make up an initiation move, a response move and feedback move.</p>   |
| <b>On each of the transcript of classroom talk:</b>                                   | <p>Where <i>code-switching</i> has been used, the information is in bold and shown by speech marks “---”. The codes used are in Setswana, which is the national language in Botswana. The English translation immediately follows and it is also in bold and in brackets ( ).</p>  |
| <b>For each of the figures showing the visual illustration of the classroom talk:</b> | <p>The numbers on the right hand side indicate the teaching exchanges illustrated in the lesson transcriptions.</p>  |

Table 6.1 Keys to Acronyms and Illustrations

### 6.3 The pattern of Interaction in CSS Classes

#### 6.3.1 Faculty: Science

##### Lecturer A: Pretty

Transcript one is part of the lesson that was taught by a female lecturer with 17 years of teaching experience. A total number of 30 students attended this lesson. The lesson was about reading for academic purposes and it was an introduction of new material regarding

reading sources, such as journals, newspapers, textbooks, and pamphlets. For this lesson, the students sat in rows and exchanged information with the lecturer. The first part of the lesson covered ‘evaluation of some reading sources’. However, on transition to the second part of the lesson on ‘selection of the reading sources’, the students were asked to discuss what they consider in the process of selection. The discussion was done in groups and 10 minutes of the teaching time was allocated this activity. Thereafter, the students sat again in rows and whole class-teaching continued. The idea of changing the physical organisation of the classrooms in order to facilitate classroom talk has been observed as a good way of informing the students that they are engaging in something different that relate to classroom talk and learning in general (Lefstein & Snell, 2014, p. 129). Refer to the lesson transcript and figure one below for how the classroom interaction progressed:

### Transcript One

| Exchanges         | Participant | Classroom talk  | Moves     | Acts               |
|-------------------|-------------|---|-----------|--------------------|
| <b>Boundary</b>   | <b>L</b>    | We are looking at the physical features that help you determine the usefulness of a book. Okay! Where do we start? We can start anywhere.                   | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b>          |
| <b>Teaching 1</b> | <b>L</b>    | What did you discuss?<br>“Ee rra” (Yes sir)   | <b>I</b>  | <b>el<br/>n</b>    |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | You search for the date of publication.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>         |
| <b>2</b>          | <b>L</b>    | Okay. The date of publication.  | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>         |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | You look at the author and the publisher.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>         |
| <b>3</b>          | <b>L</b>    | Okay. The author and the publisher.   | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>         |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | Why the Publisher?  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>          |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | You take Macmillan or Oxford and compare it to with any others; they are reputable publishers.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>         |
| <b>4</b>          | <b>L</b>    | Okay. I never thought of it that way. Whether some publishers are more reputable or not.  | <b>F</b>  | <b>com</b>         |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | Disregard “tsabo” (those of) Collegium or whatever?   | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>          |
|                   | <b>Ss</b>   | Yes   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>         |
| <b>5 (a)</b>      | <b>L</b>    | Okay. Let’s have more people.   | <b>I</b>  | <b>cue</b>         |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | I look at the table of contents.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>         |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | The table of contents.  | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>         |
| <b>5 (b)</b>      | <b>S</b>    | If it contains what I want and then I take it into account. At the table of contents I also look at how many pages the book has.                            | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>         |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | So you look at how much has been covered in an article? How detailed are they in that particular area? So the table of contents will guide you in all that. | <b>F</b>  | <b>com</b>         |
| <b>6</b>          | <b>L</b>    | “Ee rra” (Yes sir)  | <b>I</b>  | <b>n</b>           |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | The title of the book.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>         |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | The title of the book.<br>And normally in most cases that’s where we start “Akere?” (Isn’t it?) The title, the author of                                    | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |

|                 |           |  |                        |                          |
|-----------------|-----------|--|------------------------|--------------------------|
|                 |           | the book; et cetera, et cetera. So those are some of the things you look at.   |                        |                          |
| <b>7</b>        | <b>L</b>  | <b>“Ee rra” (Yes sir)</b>  | <b>I</b>               | <b>n</b>                 |
|                 | <b>S</b>  | The layout and the presentation.   | <b>R</b>               | <b>rep</b>               |
|                 | <b>L</b>  | The layout and the presentation.   | <b>F</b>               | <b>acc</b>               |
| <b>8</b>        | <b>L</b>  | Does it matter?  | <b>I</b>               | <b>el</b>                |
|                 | <b>Ss</b> | Yes  | <b>R</b>               | <b>rep</b>               |
| <b>9</b>        | <b>L</b>  | Okay. Let’s have one person at a time<br>Why? Why does it matter?  | <b>I</b>               | <b>cue</b><br><b>el</b>  |
|                 | <b>S</b>  | A book with pictures, I can see what is happening. There is a lot of calculation in the brain. A picture is a symbol. It’s like translating.   | <b>R</b>               | <b>rep</b>               |
|                 | <b>L</b>  | May be you can say, “a book with graphics” because it’s not only pictures and images. It can even be tables and charts. That is easy to understand, that have summarised the information and so forth. This morning I was talking to one other class and this lady raised her hand and the first thing she said was a book without pictures she will dismiss it immediately because pictures are appealing to the eye. Pictures provide some visuals. It’s a strong representation of the information. | <b>F</b>               | <b>com</b>               |
| <b>10</b>       | <b>L</b>  | <b>“Ee” (Yes)</b>  | <b>I</b>               | <b>n</b>                 |
|                 | <b>S</b>  | You look at the size of the font as well.  | <b>R</b>               | <b>rep</b>               |
|                 | <b>L</b>  | The size of the font as well.<br>It will be part of the presentation etc, etc.   | <b>F</b>               | <b>acc</b><br><b>com</b> |
| <b>11</b>       | <b>L</b>  | <b>“Ee mma” (Yes ma’am).</b><br>You want to say something.   | <b>I</b>               | <b>n</b><br><b>cue</b>   |
|                 | <b>S</b>  | If a book is reliable; You look at the back side of the book.  | <b>R</b>               | <b>rep</b>               |
| <b>12</b>       | <b>L</b>  | What is it called?   | <b>I</b>               | <b>el</b>                |
|                 | <b>S</b>  | The Blurb.   | <b>R</b>               | <b>rep</b>               |
|                 | <b>L</b>  | The Blurb.<br>Because usually it outlines or summarises the source. Those are some of the things that give you the idea about the source. So, those are the things that give you an idea about the book.   | <b>F</b>               | <b>acc</b><br><b>com</b> |
| <b>13</b>       | <b>S</b>  | The index.   | <b>R</b>               | <b>rep</b>               |
|                 | <b>L</b>  | The index. Yes.<br>If you have two books; one with the index and the other without. You go for the one with the index.   | <b>F</b>               | <b>acc</b><br><b>com</b> |
| <b>14</b>       | <b>L</b>  | How does it help you?  | <b>I</b>               | <b>el</b>                |
|                 | <b>S</b>  | It refers you to the pages.  | <b>R</b>               | <b>rep</b>               |
|                 | <b>L</b>  | If you are interested to that particular, you know, you go straight to that particular topic, then you go to that topic.   | <b>F</b>               | <b>com</b>               |
| <b>Boundary</b> | <b>L</b>  | Okay.<br>It’s all about selective reading. You don’t want to read everything that would waste your time.   | <b>Fr</b><br><b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b><br><b>con</b>  |

Table 6.2: Transcript One: Analysed Discourse

The visual illustration below is meant to show the main question that built the teaching transaction. Also, coming out of the main question are some strands of interaction for each teaching exchange. These show the same point that was discussed before moving on to the next one. The length of the strand indicates how classroom interaction was used to explain the same point. Finally, the numbers 1-14 represent the teaching exchanges in each lesson transaction. The numbering is attached to different students as they shared the points they had discussed early in their groups. Finally, the numbering is attached to both the lecturer's main question and different questions where the lecturer probed the students.

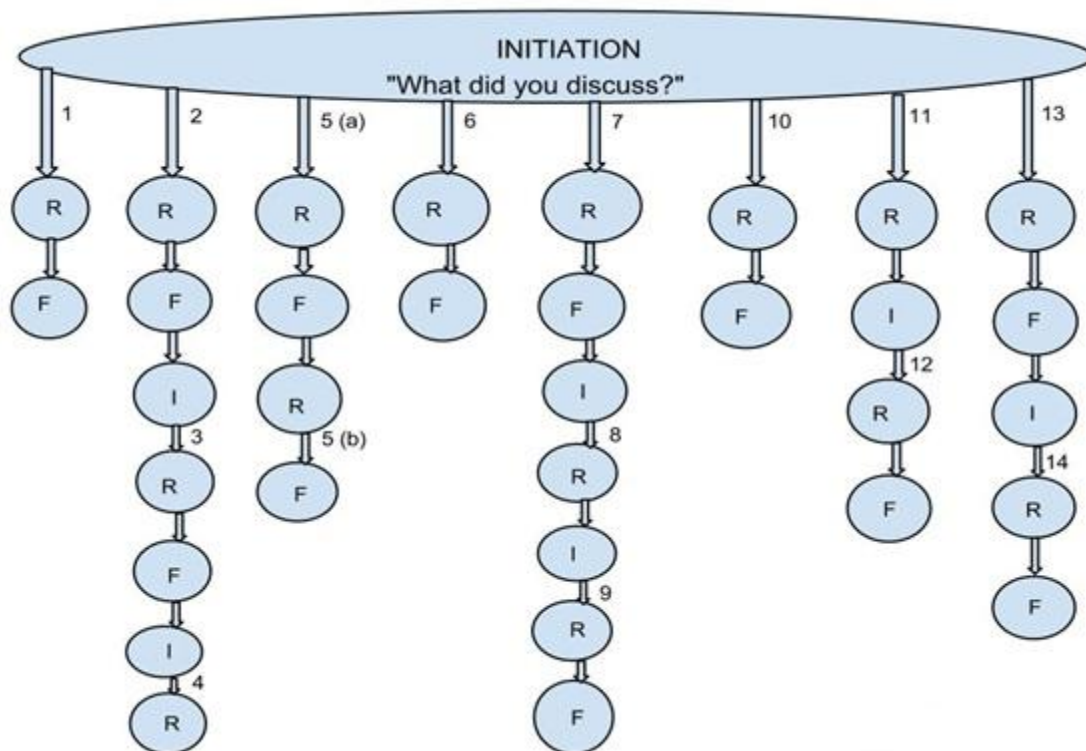


Figure 6.1: Transcript One Visual Illustration

The above type of question was open as it made the students come up with various answers. This type of question influences the pattern of interaction as numerous answers are expected. As a result, the pattern of interaction indicates dialogic teaching.

Lecturer Pretty's lesson excerpt and the visual illustration above show a great variation in the nature of classroom interaction. This is because the discourse unfolded in a way such that there was co-construction of knowledge and mediation (Galton, et al., 1999; Gorsky, et al., 2006; Hardman, 2008a; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Mercer, 2010) between the lecturer and the students. Co-construction and mediation were realised because the students critically thought

of the answers that they provided and shared the information with the lecturer. This is evidenced by, the students bringing up various points of views regarding what they had discussed about 'selecting a reading source'. This is also shown in the depth of the lesson transaction, which had 14 teaching exchanges, with some strands having 3 teaching exchanges (refer to Figure 1 above). Another significant example of the co-construction of knowledge and mediation between the preceding parties, was the breadth of the lesson transaction, which comprised 8 strands emanating from the overarching initiation move, 'what did you discuss'?

Another contributing factor to lecturer Pretty's great variation in the nature of classroom interaction was the dialogic interaction (Hall & Walsh, 2002; Mameli & Molinari, 2014; Scott, Mortimer & Aguiar, 2006) that is shown in the lesson transcript above. This is because both lecturer Pretty and her students shared knowledge that shows that there was critical thinking by the students. There is a large volume of published studies describing the role of interaction and cognitive development (Huong, 2003; Mercer, 2005; Mercer, et al., 1999; Staarman, et al., 2005; Wertsch, 1991). An example of such interaction and cognitive development is found in teaching exchanges 2 to 4 of lesson transcript one.

Both lecturer Pretty and the students discussed, in three teaching exchanges, the issue of the publisher being considered in selecting a reading source. An aspect of the students thinking critically was where they indicated that they evaluated the publishing houses as well. To further show the flow of the dialogic aspect, lecturer Pretty stated that she never thought that there were publishing houses that were more reputable than others.

Further, it can be argued that there was variation in the nature of classroom interaction because of the assistance that lecturer Pretty provided in terms of posing questions. Many scholars have argued that this kind of assistance is scaffolding (e.g., Gorsky, et al., 2006; Lightbown & Spada, 2006; van Hees, 2007). Scaffolding was provided in teaching exchange 2, shown by the fact that she did not close the interaction but instead probed the students regarding 'why the publisher is important in selecting a reading source.' Nevertheless, there were 3 teaching exchanges where the classroom interaction was traditional. This is because the said teaching exchanges consisted of only the IRF moves and the lecturer provided no scaffolding. This similar behaviour where the students are not offered a chance to think more about their responses, has also been observed by scholars (e.g., Cazden, 1988; Mameli & Molinari, 2014; Rajab, 2012; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975).

From the above lesson transcript and the visual lesson transcript, the significant aspect attached to the first initiation move was an open question. All fourteen teaching exchanges above were embedded under the question, ‘what did you discuss?’ Some scholars (Hardman, et al., 2012; Lynch, 1996; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992) assert that open questions can be used in class in order to solicit a linguistic response. It is on the basis of the mentioned literature findings that more than one answer can be provided to an open answer. An example to support the foregoing claim is found in teaching exchange 3 and 4 above. However, there were limits to how far the question, ‘what did you discuss?’ could be answered. This is because in teaching exchange 5(a) above, the lecturer probed for more responses. It can thus be claimed that probing the students helps them to come up with more responses. The issue of probing resulting in lecturer-student extended classroom talk has also been noted by Lefstein and Snell, 2014. Although lecturer Pretty used open questions, there were also some closed ones as indicated in teaching exchanges 4 and 8. This suggests that lecturer Pretty used both open and closed questions.

Regarding the response move, the majority of the student responses were short and simple. Out of the fifteen responses, two were made up of a one word response and another two was made up of two-word responses. This could be because of the closed questions asked by the lecturer. Examples of these are found in teaching exchanges 4, 8, 12, 13 (refer to lesson transcript one).

Despite this, eleven of the students’ responses were made up of sentences. It is also interesting to point out that there was a response that was made up of four sentences. This positive move is seen in teaching exchange 9. The view of varied types of responses within a lesson transaction is supported by Molinari, et al., (2013), who write that at the beginning of a transaction, the responses are short and simple and they become more elaborate during the second phase of questioning by the teacher. It can thus be maintained that if the students are asked more open questions and probed when they provide short and simple sentences, they can use more elaborate responses in the classroom.

Another point that relates to the nature of classroom interaction was lecturer Pretty’s feedback. The feedback that she provided was multifaceted in that there were instances where she just accepted the students’ responses. Further, there were instances where she accepted and immediately made a comment. Some of the feedback given was in the form of comments only, and other times feedback was followed by probing the students for more



information. Examples of such multifaceted responses are found in teaching exchanges 1, 3, 9 and 12 (refer to lesson transcript one).

Lecturer Pretty could have adopted the multifaceted responses as a teaching style because out of the 14 teaching exchanges, the different instances were almost equally used. Numerous studies have attempted to explain that feedback varies across different educational contexts (e.g., Duff, 2000; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Hardman, et al., 2008; Scott, 1998; Wells, 1993; White, et al., 2005). The belief is that when one offers feedback in the classroom, it can result in a number of different strategies, depending on the students' responses.

Generally, lecturer Pretty's classroom discourse indicates a variation in the nature of interaction. This is because her students were free to critically think and talk about the issues that relate to 'selecting a reading source'. The lecturer was able to ask the students open questions that led to longer and numerous strands of interaction, both in terms of the length and the breadth of the transaction respectively. Even though there were shorter strands consisting of only the strict IRF pattern, it can be concluded that the lesson was very good in developing the students' oral communicative competence. The said assertion is based on the fact that there were only 3 very short strands versus 5 long ones, which is more than half of the long interaction strands. Some authors (e.g., Arthur & Martin, 2006; Chin, 2006; Wells, 1993) have analysed interactions and found that there can be varied chains of teaching exchanges, depending on a number of issues such as questions posed, and students' and teachers' engagement in the classroom talk.

Another point worth mentioning about the visual illustration in Figure 1 is the breadth at which the exchanges emanate from the overarching question, 'what did you discuss?' Eight chains are embedded within the question. It can be claimed that the forenamed question was open because of the numerous strands that overlap from it. This view is supported by Hall and Walsh (2002), who wrote that subordinate activities can be embedded in a larger chunk of interaction. It can be concluded that open questions allow for more classroom talk.

An additional point regarding the above lesson is the type of questions that lecturer Pretty asked. The lecturer used some open questions and followed them up with 'why?' 'what?' and 'how?'. This is an indicator that the lecturer used probing questions. Examples of the questions are found in teaching exchanges 3, 9, 12 and 14. The aforementioned questions evident in lecturer Pretty's lesson, are supported by other scholars (e.g., Alexander, 2008b; p.41) who observed that, "teachers seek to shift from interactions which are brief and random

to those which are longer and more sustained". Furthermore, lecturer Pretty's questions and Alexander's observation, led to full and elaborate answers from the students. The students responded with long sentences of about more than ten words (teaching exchange 3) and some comprised two sentences (teaching exchange 5b). Finally, there was good feedback from the lecturer as the comments were exciting and revealing. Within the lecturer's feedback there were indicators of the students thinking and of development of oral communicative competence, because they did not just talk, rather they justified their points. Examples of such quality classroom interaction are in teaching exchanges 3 and 9. Additionally, a relationship exists between the quality stretches of lecturer-student interaction and the type of questions asked, as evident in teaching exchanges 5a to 5b, 7 to 9, 11 to 12 and 13 to 14. However, a 'missed educational opportunity' (DeWitt, Hohenstein, 2010; English, et al., 2002) to ask an open question was noted in teaching exchange 8, hence the students responded to the closed question with a very short and choral answer. In conclusion, lecturer Pretty's lesson transcript illustrates good quality of interaction because her questions led the students to provide quality answers with explanations, and the lecturer's feedback offered useful comments. Mercer (1996) and Alexander (2008b) point out that quality classroom talk can be maintained and that it depends on many factors, such as asking the students open questions.

### **6.3.2 Faculty: Engineering and Technology Lecturer B: Queen**

The following lesson was taught by a female lecturer. A total number of 22 students attended this lesson.

Similar to lecturer Pretty's lesson, the students sat in rows and exchanged information with the lecturer for the whole lesson. The lesson was about academic writing skills and it was a continuation of the lesson on academic writing from the previous week. It started with the stages of academic writing which was a revision of the previous lesson. Thereafter, new information about academic writing was presented and covered information such as paragraphs, including aspects like the types of sentences that make up a paragraph. In studying the paragraphs, the lecturer and the students referred to the paragraphs that the students had written in their groups outside the teaching (lecture) session. The group paragraphs were used to find out if the students had developed their paragraphs well.

## Transcript Two

| Exchanges  | Participant | Classroom talk   | Moves        | Acts                              |
|------------|-------------|--|--------------|-----------------------------------|
| Boundary   | L           | So, today let us look at the issue of paragraphs so that as we discuss this you look at your paragraphs, check whether you have written them accordingly or appropriately.<br><b>You are late. Why are you coming late? You had an emergency.</b>  | Fo           | s/ms                              |
| Teaching 1 |             | So, because you write in paragraphs, let us try to understand why these paragraphs are important and look at the elements of a paragraph. Okay. And look at the elements of a paragraph and we will start with what a paragraph is. Okay!<br>May be I should get it from you what a paragraph is from secondary school level. What do you think a paragraph is? What is a paragraph? What do you think a paragraph is?<br>What is a paragraph?<br><b>“Ee mma” (Yes ma’am)</b>  | I            | s<br><br>el<br><br>n              |
|            | S           | The incorporation of sentences. It’s a relation of the sentences.  | R            | rep                               |
|            | L           | The sentences should be related-that’s what you are saying.  | F            | acc                               |
| 2          | L           | What else? What else do you think a paragraph is? So can you name the types of sentences that you can find in a paragraph? Can you name the sentences that are related? What are the type of sentences can you find in a paragraph? You don’t know.<br>What type of sentences can you find in a paragraph?<br><b>“Ee rra” (Yes sir)</b>  | I<br><br>R/I | el<br><br>el<br><br>n             |
|            | S           | Congregated  | R            | rep                               |
|            | L           | Congregated  | F            | acc/e                             |
|            | S           | Compound   | R            | rep                               |
| 3          | L           | What is a compound sentence? So you mean you can start a paragraph with a compound sentence? What are you saying? Imagine you have been writing right from Standard One; Primary School, JC, BGCSE those who did BGCSE, IGCSE or whatever and now you are at tertiary level. I am asking you; What type of sentences can you find in a paragraph because she was talking of related sentences?<br>You can find a topic sentence. You can find a developmental sentence. You can find a concluding sentence; there are types of sentences. And when I read your paragraphs; I should find them in your paragraphs.<br>A paragraph is a collection of related sentences dealing with a single idea or a single topic. A paragraph is a collection of related sentences dealing with a single idea or a single topic. | I            | el/e<br><br><br><br><br><br><br>i |

|          |   |   |    |     |
|----------|---|---|----|-----|
|          |   | <p>So the basic rule in a paragraph is that ‘you keep one idea in one paragraph’. One idea in one paragraph. We don’t want a mixed bag of ideas in one paragraph. So, you introduce the idea with a topic sentence. You introduce the idea with a topic sentence.</p> <p>What is the topic sentence?</p> <p>To put it simply, a topic sentence is the first sentence in a paragraph. You know when I read the first sentence in your paragraph, it should give me an idea of what that paragraph is all about. It should give me an idea of what that paragraph is about. Who has their project here? <b>What is this? There are no paragraphs here.</b> I can just see the bullets and the numbering. Is this an essay? Whose assignment is this? <b>Are you serious?</b> (Lecturer laughing) Let’s see. Where are the subheadings here? What are you writing about? Why do you think Architecture is this this..<b>Development is wrong.</b> So, what is Architecture? That’s what I should be seeing as an introductory paragraph.</p> |    |     |
| 4        | L | Whose assignment is this?   | I  | el  |
|          | S | It is ours.   | R  | rep |
| 5        | L | So, what is Architecture? <b>“Bagaetsho” (colleagues)</b> , I cannot find what I want. So what is your topic?   | I  | el  |
|          | S | The question is written.  | R  | rep |
|          | L | You are saying an assignment concerning a wide river. The river is defined as a natural body of rain water flowing. Like I was saying; So, Is the assignment about a river because the topic sentence straight away tells me about the river.   | F  | com |
| 6        | L | Yes <b>“mma” (ma’am)</b>  | I  | n   |
|          | S | We were trying to explain.  | R  | rep |
| 7        | L | What is the key issue here in your assignment? In your topic?   | I  | el  |
|          | S | The use of building materials.  | R  | rep |
|          | L | <p>The issue of building materials. You don’t need to explain what a river is because the main issue is about building materials. <b>You see there are lot of problems now.</b> Do you think land is managed effectively in Botswana? <b>You know what, the problem is that you just plunge into the assignment without introducing anything.</b> Mh. You think land is managed effectively in Botswana and then; You feel land in Botswana and affordable to all citizens? Where do we start? How much land do we have?</p> <p>There is no introductory paragraph here. Then you continue to say, “On the other hand”. What are you comparing this with? There are a lot of...blah, blah, blah..<b>There is a problem here.</b></p>  | F  | com |
| Boundary | L | So, let me just give you a paragraph from a very  | Fo | ms  |

|  |  |                                   |  |  |
|--|--|-----------------------------------|--|--|
|  |  | old text that we have been using. |  |  |
|--|--|-----------------------------------|--|--|

Table 6.3: Transcript Two: Analysed Discourse

The visual illustration below is meant to show the main question that built the teaching transaction. Also, from the main question there are some strands of interaction indicating how the interaction unfolded. These illustrate the same point that was discussed before moving on to the next one. The length of the stretch of interaction indicates how classroom talk was used to explain the same point. Finally, the numbers 1 to 7 represent the teaching exchanges in each lesson transaction. The numbering is attached to different students as they shared the points on the main question asked. In addition, the numbering is attached to different questions. However, these were asked in checking the tasks presented by the students, regarding the paragraphs that they were asked to write outside class as a group. The good thing is that the tasks addressed writing paragraphs. Finally, the numbering is attached to both the lecturer's main question, different questions where the lecturer probed the students, and where the students were asked questions in relation to the task.

The said pattern of interaction is shown in tabular form above and in the visual illustration below:

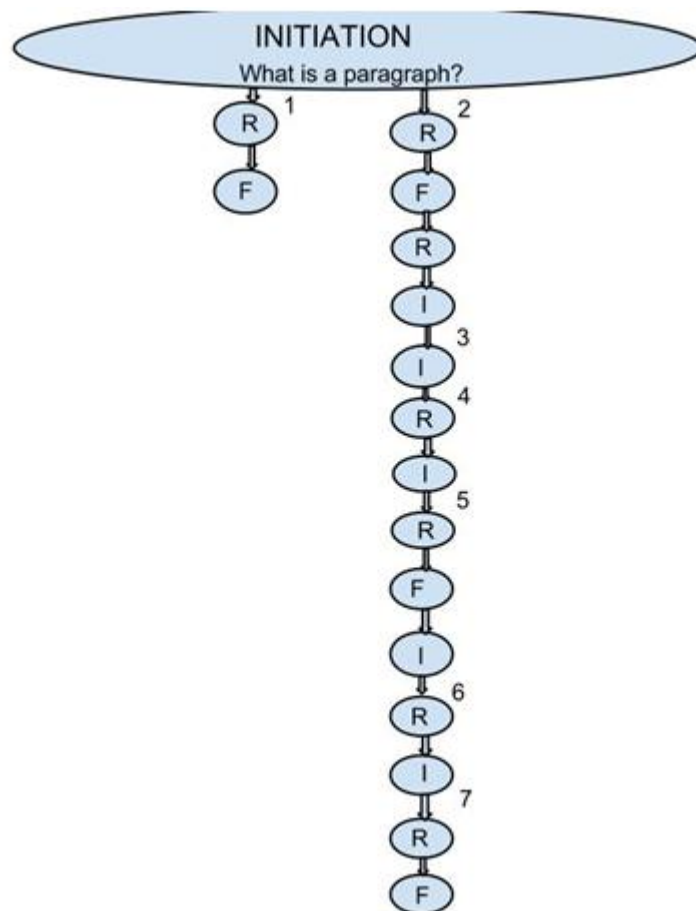


Figure 6.2: Transcript Two Visual Illustration

In the above lesson transcript the quality of interaction does not suggest the best classroom practice as the question is closed. This influences the pattern of interaction as the dialogue was mostly linear and followed a strict IRF pattern. This was because the pattern of interaction mostly expanded along a straight line, as the lecturer knew the potential answer.

Lecturer Queen's lesson excerpt and the visual illustration above show little variation in the nature of classroom interaction. The lesson was monologic (Christie, 2000; Lefstein & Snell, 2014; Mameli & Molinari, 2014), because most of the teaching exchanges closed the classroom talk. Examples are found in teaching exchanges 1, 2, 5 and 7 where the lecturer did not create a platform where the students could show their critical thinking or elaborate their points. Except for teaching exchange 1 where the student's response is made up of two sentences, the subsequent responses were either one word (refer to teaching exchange 2) or a phrase (refer to teaching exchange 5). With the said type of students' responses, the lecturer ended up talking more than the students (refer to teaching exchange 3).

On the same note of little variation regarding the nature of classroom talk, Dufficy (2009) indicates that where there is only one IRF strand, it is a traditional mode of classroom talk and it normally limits the interaction.

From lecturer Queen's lesson transcript and illustration above it can be seen that the main initiation move was a combination of the lecturer informing the students of how they normally write, and drawing a question from the information. It can thus be claimed that the question, 'what is a paragraph?' was closed. This is because the lecturer referred the students to previous writing experiences, their last school, and she also repeated the question. It can also be claimed that the lecturer wanted the students to display the same information that she had for the definition of a paragraph. Further, unlike lecturer Pretty's main initiation move (refer to 6.2.1) that solicited a number of different answers from the students, for lecturer Queen, only one student responded to the question, as illustrated by teaching exchange 1 and the illustration above, and then she switched to a different point of 'types of sentences' in a paragraph. Given the minimal students' responses to a question, it can be claimed that closed questions hinder the development of spoken interaction in the classroom. This view is supported by Burns and Myhill (2004) and Mercer and Dawes (2008), who writes that closed questions still dominate classroom talk and that these limit children's involvement.

Turning now to lecturer Queen informing the students on the issue of paragraphs, this was used alongside posing questions. It can be seen that after asking the students what a paragraph is in teaching exchange 1, the lecturer informed the students in teaching exchange 3 what a paragraph is and the type of sentences that constitute a paragraph. However, it can be argued that because the students did not provide the expected answers in the first two teaching exchanges, this might have led to lecturer Queen informing the students of the answers. Asking closed questions, as discussed in the paragraph above, may have contributed to the said move. The nature of lecturer Queen's initiations could also be linked to the teaching style. This is because in teaching exchange 3, she settled for a kind of teaching style where she posed a question and answered it herself. This assertion lies on the fact that besides the two questions that were raised in the first two teaching exchanges, there was an additional question, which she posed and answered. The said question is found in the mentioned teaching exchange where she asked about the topic sentence and immediately provided an answer. Nevertheless, the teaching style employed by lecturer Queen has not escaped criticism from other scholars such as (Hardman, et al., 2003), who argue that if

teachers replicated their interaction, there will be few opportunities for students to explore the classroom talk.

The kinds of responses that the students used are another issue. From lecturer Queen's lesson transcript above, it can be claimed that, as indicated in the first paragraph, there was use of one-word responses. An example was found in teaching exchange 2 (refer to transcription two).

Also, some of the students' responses were single sentences, which were short and simple. The preceding assumption is raised because the sentence was about five words long, as indicated in teaching exchange 6 (refer to transcription two).

If the student had considered elaborating on what they were trying to explain, the response could have been a sentence. Further, scaffolding was not provided so that the students could talk more by expanding on their responses. Elsewhere Schindelegger (2009) has argued that short and simple responses are evident in CLIL and EFL classrooms. It is worth pointing out that there is a relationship with the use of single sentences, as the same thing was seen in lecturer Pretty's students' responses. The only difference between the two lecturers' students' responses was that in lecturer Pretty's lesson, some students responses were either two sentences or more.

Relating to her feedback, lecturer Queen's lesson excerpt above comprised of two instances where she just repeated the students' responses (refer to teaching exchanges 1 and 2 of transcription two). Just repeating the students' responses meant that she did not build on their responses, nor did she provide mediation and scaffolding in order to improve the quality of classroom talk.

In addition, two of the feedback moves were made up of comments. Even where the lecturer made some comments as indicated in teaching exchange 5 (refer to transcription two), the lecturer closed the interaction. This is shown by the fact that there were no probing questions. However, research has consistently shown that the kind of feedback that teachers offer can limit the quality of classroom interaction (Chin, 2006; English, et al, 2002; Molinari & Mameli, 2013; Walsh, 2002). It is certain that lecturer feedback contributes in some way to the development of students' oral communication.

To summarise lecturer Queen's classroom interaction, the visual illustration (Figure 6.7) indicate only two strands. Abd-Kadir & Hardman (2007) and Burns & Myhill (2004) have



drawn attention to the presence of few educational opportunities in the classroom that lead to quality interaction. The data illustrated in Figure 6.7 implies a similar trend of few opportunities pertaining to classroom interaction.

However, at the beginning of the lesson transcript, there was evidence of good open and discursive questions. This is because in the first two teaching exchanges, the students were asked questions that required more than one answer relating to what a paragraph was. As in lecturer Pretty’s lesson transcript, lecturer Queen posed probing questions at the beginning of the lesson. Examples of such questions were ‘what do you think a paragraph is?’ and ‘what else do you think a paragraph is?’ It can be argued that the questions posed in the first two teaching exchanges, “took the students thinking forward,” as noted by Alexander (2008, p. 40). Although the lecturer’s questions sought to open up a dialogue, it can be observed that the students used very short responses, as evident in teaching exchanges 2 and 4. As a result of the short responses, lecturer Queen dominated the classroom interaction as far as her feedback was observed. The said lecturer domination was noted in teaching exchange 5 and 7 lecturer feedback and teaching exchange 1 lecturer initiation.

### **6.3.3 Faculty: Business Lecturer C: Victor**

The following lesson was the only one taught by a male lecturer in the CSS classes observed. His teaching experience was generally similar to that of other lecturers in this study in terms of the number of exits between establishments. The lesson started by a revision of some aspects of academic writing, which included the use of formal language and the use of emotions in academic writing. Unlike all the other groups discussed in this study, the students sat in groups of four to six students through-out the lesson. The classroom that was used for this lesson was a newly built one, and instead of fixed chairs and tables, it was furnished with moveable chairs and tables thus, students could easily sit in groups. The total number of students was 41.

### **Transcript Three**

| <b>Exchanges</b>  | <b>Participant</b> | <b>Classroom talk</b>  | <b>Moves</b> | <b>Acts</b> |
|-------------------|--------------------|--|--------------|-------------|
| <b>Boundary</b>   | <b>L</b>           | We said Academic Style of writing uses formal language. Uses formal language.  | <b>Fo</b>    | <b>ms</b>   |
| <b>Teaching 1</b> | <b>L</b>           | What did we say about formal language?<br>What did we say about language that is formal compared to the one that is non-formal? What did we say about formal language? | <b>I</b>     | <b>el</b>   |

|          |          |   |          |                     |
|----------|----------|---|----------|---------------------|
|          |          | Yes my dear   |          | <b>n</b>            |
|          | <b>S</b> | Word choice   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>          |
|          | <b>L</b> | The word choice;<br>Rather than say, “eh, the argument that my niggers and I are making...” <b>Akere? (Isn’t it?)</b> That’s what you guys say. Yes you talk of dudes. The other day the other young lady said, “hey dude”. That’s what you guys say.<br>Word choice; That’s what you guys say.<br>I realised she was using slang. So we avoid using slang. So we avoid slang. Word choice entails avoiding slang expressions.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>  |
| <b>2</b> | <b>L</b> | What else did we say?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>           |
|          | <b>S</b> | Shortened forms.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>          |
|          | <b>L</b> | Yes, Shortened forms. Shortened forms.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>          |
| <b>3</b> | <b>L</b> | What else?<br>Yes my dear.  | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>n</b>     |
|          | <b>S</b> | Use of abbreviations.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>          |
|          | <b>L</b> | We also avoid the use of abbreviations.<br>The type of thing that you do when writing sms’s; when you write your emails   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>  |
| <b>4</b> | <b>L</b> | Anything else about formal language?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>           |
|          | <b>S</b> | The use of nominalised expressions.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>          |
|          | <b>L</b> | We as much as possible use nominalised expressions; where we convert; where a verb form has been converted into a noun. Okay! “The expectation that all first years should write in an academic style is usually not observed by all lecturers”. Haa! “The expectation that all first years should write in an academic style”. So that whole phrase has been nominalised. That whole phrase has been nominalised compared to if you had said, “That all first year students should write in an academic style. That all first year students should write in an academic style, it’s something not observed by everybody. So, notice that the first one we have used the nominalised phrase. Notice that the first one is more effective-It’s a better usage. Yes; good | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>          |
| <b>5</b> | <b>L</b> | What else did we say?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>           |
|          | <b>S</b> | We use impersonal language.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>          |
|          | <b>L</b> | We don’t personalise; Yes. We don’t personalise propositions to ourselves. We don’t “I” things. We don’t “I” the ideas throughout. Although we know that you are the originator of the ideas it is considered inappropriate. The academic community feels you are sort of imposing. Okay! They feel you are arrogant. It’s called academic arrogance, in some instances.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc/<br/>com</b> |
| <b>6</b> | <b>L</b> | So by using; by minimising the use of personal pronouns you are minimising arrogance. You are respecting; so to speak; showing awareness that your audience is worthy to be respected. So, we avoid impersonalise expressions. We also avoid our opinions. “In my opinion, I think.” It’s your opinion.   | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b>            |

|                 |          |   |           |           |
|-----------------|----------|---|-----------|-----------|
|                 |          | <p>That many a times we find academic expressions use; We hedge, We hedge our views. “It can be noted that, “dada, dada, dada.” Not “you can see. It’s like you are pointing a figure at your reader and even compelling them to accept what you are saying as a true or correct position.</p> <p><b>Emotions;</b> “I totally disagree “hee” I totally disagree with the view that business communication is central to all disciplines at university. Notice that, “I totally disagree” you are revealing your emotions; your involvement. So academic writing, you should sort of take a step backwards; so that your emotions do not come out as paramount in what you are saying. It is not about how you feel. Your reader is not so much concerned with how you feel but it is the point that you raise. So, use language that is void of emotions, that is void of opinions.</p> |           |           |
| <b>Boundary</b> | <b>L</b> | And then awareness of other people’s research. I think that is where we stopped; awareness of other people’s research.  | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b> |

Table 6.4: Transcript Three: Analysed Discourse

The visual illustration below is meant to show the main question that built the teaching transaction. Also, from the main question there are some strands of interaction for each teaching exchange. These illustrated the same point that was discussed before moving on to the next one. The length of the strand indicates how classroom interaction was used to explain the same point. Finally, the numbers 1 to 5 represent the teaching exchanges in each lesson transaction. The numbering is attached to different students as they shared the points that relate to formal language. Finally, the numbering is attached to both the lecturer’s main question and different questions where the lecturer probed the students.

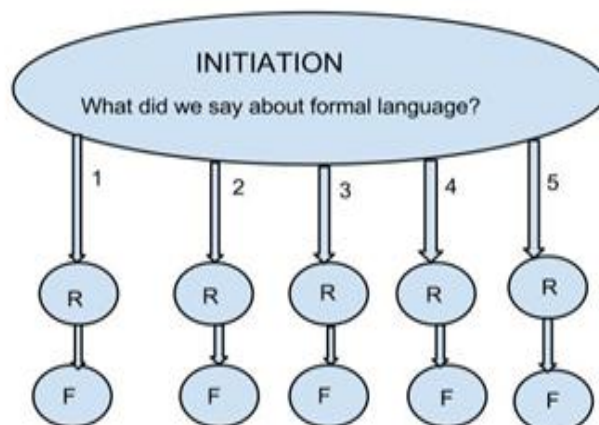


Figure 6.3: Transcript Three Visual Illustration

From the main question above, lecturer-students interaction was not expanded because of the closed question posed. This is because the lesson transaction was a revision and as a result, the lecturer knew what the answers to the questions were. It can be claimed that the pattern of interaction did not offer thinking and elaborate answers.

Lecturer Victor's lesson transcript and the visual illustration above show very little variation in the nature of classroom interaction. In the above lesson, none of the five teaching exchanges opened up to allow the students to give more information about aspects of formal language. Despite the fact that the lesson transcript above was a revision, there was no probing of the students for more information. Equally, the students did not provide more elaborate answers. Because of the numerous IRF teaching exchanges, both the nature and the pattern of interaction in lecturer Victor's lesson is what Sinclair and Coulthard (1975, 1992) describe as a three-part exchange structure or the IRF. On the same note, some scholars of classroom talk, (e.g., Arthur, 1996; Chitera, 2009; Hardman, et al., 2008; Sikoyo, 2010; Smith et al., 2005) call this type of teaching 'traditional patterns,' and reveal that they are evident in some educational contexts.

The most significant feature of lecturer Victor's lesson transcript above is that he was questioning the students. In his teaching exchange 1, he used a closed question that is he solicited information from the previous lesson, and anticipated the students' responses. Scott, et al., (2006) have demonstrated that there are instances where teachers review ideas at the beginning of a teaching sequence. The foregoing results in the use of questions such as, 'what did we say'? were reviewed, as this was the case in the above lesson transcript. Although it is a good way to start the lesson from known to unknown, the same comes with limiting the students' ability to think and talk, because they just retrieve from their memories what they already know.

In addition to lecturer Victor's subsequent initiations, which were also questions, there was repetition of concepts, which suggests that the questions were closed. This resulted in the lecturer asking questions such as, 'what else?' or 'anything else?' (refer to teaching exchanges 2-5). This type of questioning contributed to the students not talking much. Evidence of such is that the students answered the questions in short and simple sentences. As indicated in lecturer Victor's lesson, Sharpe (2008) has observed that sometimes the teachers use and reuse key words throughout the lesson.

The kinds of student responses were also examined in lecturer Victor's lesson transcript above. It is clear that the majority of the students' responses were very short and simple as illustrated in teaching exchanges 1 to 3. The reason for this lower standard of answering the lecturer's question could be due to the fact that the analysed lesson transcript was a revision of the previous lesson. As Hardman (2008c) reminds us, this could result in students' responses being very short and lasting on average five seconds, and therefore limiting their classroom talk.

The lesson excerpt above further illustrates the kinds of feedback that were used by lecturer Victor. The lecturer equally repeated and built on the students' responses. To give instances of lecturer Victor's feedback, in teaching exchange 2 he repeated the student's response. In addition, in teaching exchange 1 and 5 he built on the students' responses. The existing accounts in the said four teaching exchanges fail to resolve the discrepancies between where the lecturer just repeated a student's answer and where he explained the answer. This is because if teaching exchange 2 is considered, the question that arises is whether the lecturer could not expand or ask the students to expand on, 'shortened forms'. By so doing the nature of classroom interaction would have been more interesting and consequently, would have developed the students' spoken interaction. Perhaps the lecturer could have asked students what they mean by shortened forms, or to cite examples of the said forms, or asked them to use the wrong and the right forms in sentences. Another aspect to support the claim under discussion is that the analysed discourse was a revision of the previous lesson. It has conclusively been shown that merely repeating the students' responses does not help them to talk (Chin, 2006). There is a relationship between lecturer Victor's kind of feedback and lecturer Queen's (refer to 6.2.2). That is to say, they both talked a lot more during the feedback move. In conclusion, there is more lecturer talk that results in the students being minimally involved.

Overall, enough opportunity for talk was not provided for the students in lecturer Victor's lesson. Previous studies have reported that the strict IRF pattern limits students' opportunities to talk (Cazden, 1988; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Mercer, 2010; Xie, 2008). Nonetheless, there was a significant number of chains that were embedded within the main question, 'what did we say about formal language?' This is because all five teaching exchanges emerge from the overarching initiation move. It is the 'traditional' teaching discussed earlier on in this section that categorises the lesson as 'not good enough.' It would seem that because lecturer Victor was revising a lesson in the analysed discourse, that may-be

the results are as they are, because both the students and the lecturer were drawing the information from their past lesson. At the same time, the results suggest there could be an extended interaction since the information was a revision. Walsh and O’Keeffe (2010), and Ruthven, Hofmann and Mercer (2011) discuss the point, similar to what transpired in lecturer Victor’s lesson, of an overarching dialogic framework where teachers produce accounts of experience.

In summarising lecturer Victor’s questions, these were closed as they focused on what was done in the previous lesson. This is because he asked the students questions such as, ‘what did we say about formal language?’ (teaching exchange 1). Additionally, an example of the said type of question was found in teaching exchange 2 as well as the subsequent teaching exchanges. It is not surprising to note that these closed questions led to short recall responses from the students throughout the whole lesson transcript. Generally, the lecturer also provided short feedback in the form of repetition of the students’ answers. It can thus be claimed that closed questions co-occur with short student responses and short lecturer feedback. Further, it can be argued that quality classroom interaction is not determined by previous knowledge of both the lecturer and the students, but by how the lecturer endeavours to develop a rich talking atmosphere.

**6.3.4 Faculty: Humanities**  
**Lecturer D: Princess**

The following transcript is of a lesson taught by a female lecturer, and the total number of students was 54. For the whole of the lesson transcript below, the students sat in rows facing the lecturer as both parties developed the classroom talk. The lesson was a new topic about the reading process. In the transcript below, both the lecturer and the students discussed some aspects to be considered in selecting a reading source. After points on selecting a reading source, the lesson progressed to discussing reading as a process. Before this particular topic, there was a brief revision of other literacy skills such as writing and listening.

**Transcript Four**

| <b>Exchanges</b>  | <b>Participant</b> | <b>Classroom talk</b>   | <b>Moves</b>           | <b>Acts</b>           |
|-------------------|--------------------|---|------------------------|-----------------------|
| <b>Boundary</b>   | <b>L</b>           | Now, I want to get it from you as you are looking for information for the projects. | <b>Fr</b><br><b>Fo</b> | <b>m</b><br><b>ms</b> |
| <b>Teaching 1</b> | <b>L</b>           | When you get to the library and you pick a book; What do you do? a text,            | <b>I</b>               | <b>el</b>             |

|                 |          |  |                         |                           |
|-----------------|----------|--|-------------------------|---------------------------|
|                 |          | What do you do?<br>Do you just pick a text, sit down and read?<br>What do you do?  |                         |                           |
|                 | <b>S</b> | I look at the content.   | <b>R</b>                | <b>rep</b>                |
|                 | <b>L</b> | She says she looks at the content.   | <b>F</b>                | <b>acc</b>                |
| <b>2</b>        | <b>L</b> | Content where?   | <b>I</b>                | <b>el</b>                 |
|                 | <b>S</b> | Table of contents.   | <b>R</b>                | <b>rep</b>                |
|                 | <b>L</b> | Table of contents. So here we are looking at the table of contents. Table of contents; Yes.  | <b>F</b>                | <b>acc</b>                |
| <b>3</b>        | <b>L</b> | What else do you do; before you finally sit down and decide to read or decide to take the book to your room so that you can read further?<br>Yes   | <b>I</b>                | <b>el</b><br><b>n</b>     |
|                 | <b>S</b> | “Nna” (I), I usually look at the Index.  | <b>R</b>                | <b>rep</b>                |
|                 | <b>L</b> | She usually looks at the index; she says. The Index; to check if the topic she wants to read about is in the text or not.  | <b>F</b>                | <b>acc/</b><br><b>com</b> |
| <b>4</b>        | <b>L</b> | What about others? She looks at the index. What about others?<br>The index; look at the index.   | <b>I</b>                | <b>el</b>                 |
|                 | <b>S</b> | I think, just as they have already said; you analyse the Table of contents and the Index to search if it has the information you need.   | <b>R</b>                | <b>rep</b>                |
|                 | <b>L</b> | The table of contents and the Index.   | <b>F</b>                | <b>acc</b>                |
| <b>5</b>        | <b>L</b> | Anything else that you do?<br>Before you finally say this is the book that I want to read.<br>Yes  | <b>I</b>                | <b>el</b><br><b>n</b>     |
|                 | <b>S</b> | <b>Not audible response</b>  | <b>R</b>                | <b>rep</b>                |
| <b>6</b>        | <b>L</b> | Can you speak out louder so that they can hear you?  | <b>R/I</b>              | <b>el</b>                 |
|                 | <b>S</b> | I would go through the topic to see if it has the information that I need.   | <b>R</b>                | <b>rep</b>                |
|                 | <b>L</b> | She says she goes through the topic referring to the chapter. Let’s say you have identified in the table of contents; you go to that unit; you go to that chapter. You do most of what we call Pre-reading.      | <b>F</b>                | <b>acc/</b><br><b>com</b> |
| <b>Boundary</b> | <b>L</b> | Now, we are talking of the process. So the first phase is what is called Pre-reading stage. Before you start reading you need to do certain activities that will aid your understanding; aid your understanding. | <b>Fr/</b><br><b>Fo</b> | <b>m/</b><br><b>ms</b>    |

Table 6.5: Transcript Four: Analysed Discourse

The visual illustration below is meant to show the main question that built the teaching transaction about selecting a reading source. Also, from the main question there are some strands of interaction for each teaching exchange. These illustrated the same point that was discussed before moving on to the next one. The length of the strand indicates how

classroom interaction was used to explain the same point. Finally, the numbers 1-6 represent the teaching exchanges in each lesson transaction. In some instances the numbering is attached to the same students so that they develop their points. However, in other cases the numbering was attached to different students as they shared the points relating to how they select a reading source. Finally, the numbering is attached to both the lecturer's main question and different questions where the lecturer probed the students.

In addition to the above tabular transcript of classroom interaction in lecturer Princess's class, below is the visual illustration of the same:

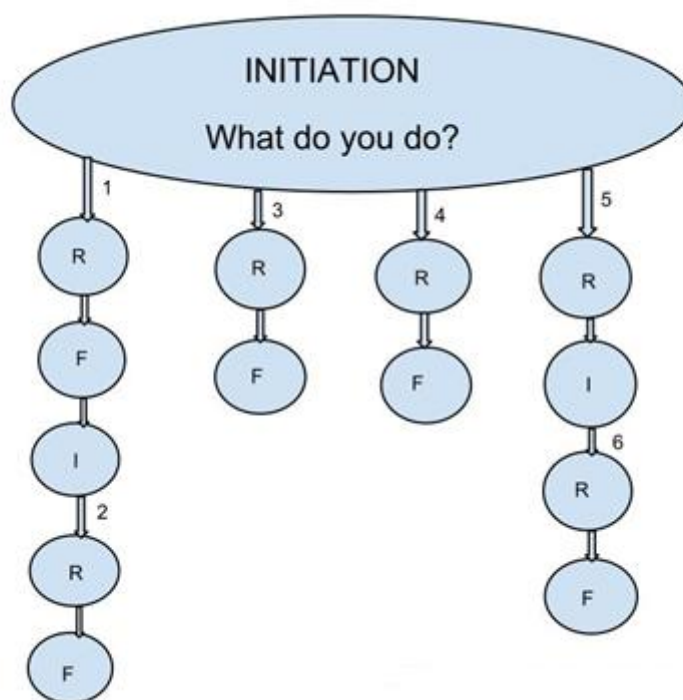


Figure 6.4: Transcript Four Visual Illustration

The above question was open as the lecturer did not have an idea of what the students do in selecting reading sources in the library. The pattern of interaction was open for a number of answers, as the students could come up with ways unknown to the lecturer. The pattern of interaction indicates dialogic pedagogy.

The main approach seen in the lesson transcript and the visual illustration above was the use of the strict IRF pattern, which was evident in 5 of the 6 teaching exchanges. In lecturer Princess's effort to encourage the students to come up with various answers regarding the important points they consider before reading a source, it was evident that the students'



responses revolved around the same answers. Teaching exchanges 1 to 4 centred solely on the 'table of contents' and 'the index'. Teaching exchanges 5 and 6 were also on the same point, because the student was not audible in teaching exchange 5 and only explicitly indicated that she 'looks at the title of the book' in the last teaching exchange (6). As a result, there was little variation in the whole lesson transaction.

However, similar to lecturer Pretty in section 6.2.1, there was evidence of scaffolding (assisting) the students to think and come up with different answers. This is seen in teaching exchange 2, where she probed the student to say more about the 'content' as illustrated in the first two teaching exchanges (refer to transcription four).

Nonetheless, the lecturer's scaffolding did not seem to be fruitful because of the type of question that was asked. This is because the student just added a word to the answer that was given in teaching exchange 1. It can be argued that probing questions can co-occur with closed responses, as was the case in the above two teaching exchanges.

From the above lesson transcript it can be seen that all of lecturer Princess's initiations are in the form of questioning. The questions used are a combination of closed and open, and this suggests that if the lecturer was aware that her previous question was not well answered she probed the student for more information. An example of such is found in teaching exchanges 1 and 2. There is a relationship between lecturer Princess's and lecturer Pretty's way of questioning. The said similarity is found in lecturer Pretty's teaching exchanges 1 to 3. Although the two lecturers probed, the only difference was that lecturer Pretty's question called for more student talk. The difference between the two is that lecturer Pretty's student gave a more detailed answer and lecturer Princess gave only a one-word answer. Conclusively, it has been shown that there is a need for teachers to use 'peripheral interaction' in order to promote classroom talk amongst the students (Ohta, 1999).

It is also worth noting the kinds of student responses in lecturer Princess excerpt above. Most of the responses were sole sentences as indicated in teaching exchanges 1, 3, 4 and 6. This could be because of how lecturer Princess posed her main question(s). This could suggest she wanted the students to list what they do as compared to replying in detail about what they do in selecting a reading source. Evidence is based on the following: i) the question, 'what do you do?' ii) the clue she provided in teaching exchange 1, 'do you pick a text, sit down and read?' Scholars such as Chin (2006) propose various ways that students can respond to a teacher's questions. Chin's proposal is reflected in lecturer Princess's lesson, because it

seemed the students interpreted the question in a different way until the lecturer gave them a clue about what she expected from them.

Further to the students' responses, are lecturer Princess's kinds of feedback. For the most part the lecturer restated the students' responses. In her limited use of comments, she did not elaborate on the responses. Furthermore, she did not maximise probing of the responses. An illustration of the claim under discussion is found in teaching exchanges 2 to 6. From the said teaching exchanges, it seems that is likely that the lecturer wanted the students to list the steps that they undertake at the pre-reading stage. This assertion is based on the fact that the students just mentioned steps, such as looking at the 'table of contents, index and chapter' of a book. Her feedback would have been much more useful in terms of student talk if she had adopted a 'probing' teaching strategy. From teaching exchange 2, an example of the aforementioned strategy could have been, 'what is a table of contents?' 'Why do you refer to it before you start reading?' 'How does it enhance one's pre-reading skills?' The same disadvantages in terms of classroom interaction were observed with lecturers Queen and Victor above. Maloof (2000) and Liu (2008) have examined the importance of teachers seeking clarification and building on students' utterances. On the whole, it can be argued that it is important for lecturers to draw on students' contributions for more information.

With regard to the extension of interaction in lecturer Princess's lesson above, there was a combination of very short and moderately long interaction strings. Two of the exchanges, 3 and 4, were made up of the exact IRF pattern, which made them very short. On the other hand, the remaining exchanges 1 to 2, and 5 to 6, were comprised of moderately long exchanges. The moderately low strings of interaction tell us that the lecturer followed up on the student responses only once. As for the other two short teaching exchanges, they suggest that the lecturer did not attempt to follow up on the students' responses. It can be claimed that the degree of excellent classroom interaction was hampered by a lack of probing the students for more responses. Previous studies have reported that some kinds of interactions do not contribute much to developing the students' linguistic and communicative competence (Xin, Luzheng & Biru, 2011). In conclusion, using limited probing questions in the classroom might result in less student talk.

Contrary to the strands discussed above, lecturer Princess's lesson started with a good open, genuine and discursive question, 'what do you do'? This is because the lecturer wanted the students to think of what they do when they go to the library to select a reading source. In

teaching exchange 2, the students were probed to say more about the answer provided in teaching exchange 1. Another point worth mentioning is that the lecturer ‘changed the classroom climate in order to meet the different kinds of learning task’ (Alexander, 2008b), by asking the question, ‘what about others?’ It can be argued that the interaction was opened up to the rest of the students because the lecturer wanted the students to respond to the question asked in teaching exchange 1. Another open question can be seen in teaching exchange 5 when the lecturer asked, ‘anything else that you do?’

### 6.3.5 Faculty: Social Science Lecturer E: Masterpiece

The lesson below was taught by a female lecturer, whose teaching experience expanded over three different establishments, like the other lecturers who were observed in this study. The lesson was about reading skills and this was the introduction of a new lesson. The whole lesson then covered aspects like plagiarism and the types of reading. For this lesson, the students sat in rows throughout the whole lesson and exchanged information with the lecturer. There were 43 students in the class. The transcript below only covered what effective reading entails.

#### Transcript Five

| Exchanges         | Participant | Classroom talk  | Moves     | Acts                   |
|-------------------|-------------|---|-----------|------------------------|
| <b>Boundary</b>   | <b>L</b>    | Today we are going to learn about Reading Skills. The topic for today is Reading Skills. Remember that we started with Communication, then Listening and Note Taking; now we are looking at Reading skills today. And under reading skills; Effective academic reading. Effective academic reading. Effective academic reading. So, I will read from this book on Effective Academic Reading; since I am the one who wrote the chapter. | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b>              |
| <b>Teaching 1</b> | <b>L</b>    | “Effective reading involves more eyes over the words”. Some people think that when you just move the eyes over the words you are reading. Why do we say that reading is more than moving the eyes over the words but is more than that?   | <b>I</b>  | <b>s</b><br><b>el</b>  |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | You have to understand the concept of what you are reading about.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>             |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | She says you have to understand the concept of what you are reading about.  | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>             |
| <b>2</b>          | <b>L</b>    | What do we mean by concept?<br>In other words I mean....  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b><br><b>cl</b> |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | In other words I mean, an example; you have to  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>             |

|                 |          |  |           |                            |
|-----------------|----------|--|-----------|----------------------------|
|                 |          | understand what you are reading about.   |           |                            |
|                 | <b>L</b> | Good! Very Good!<br>I like that word; “understand”.<br>Some people will say “Comprehend”. Right! So you have to comprehend; you have to understand what you are reading about. But it is a matter of storing what you are reading about; so that you remember it. So reading involves comprehension; you read to understand. That is why it is advisable according to research; not to read or study more than an hour without taking a break; you need to read an hour and take a break, you can take a break; do something else; if you were reading you can write for some time; rest for some time; join a writing group or discussion group or write an assignment or project. So it is very, very important to take breaks when you read for study. After sometime research shows that the mind just wonders. Just like our bodies get tired. The mind also gets tired. You don’t know that? If you just stay home for example; may be for a month; doing nothing; you just eat, bath, sleep; eat, bath, sleep; eat, bath; the first week you enjoy it; but after sometime you get bored. The mind; everything starts with the mind. | <b>F</b>  | <b>e/<br/>acc/<br/>com</b> |
| <b>3</b>        | <b>L</b> | Have you seen people who have retired? Those who retire early?   | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>                  |
|                 | <b>S</b> | They always go back.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                 |
| <b>4</b>        | <b>L</b> | Your mother went back? Why did she go back?<br>Not because they need more money  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el<br/>com</b>          |
|                 | <b>S</b> | They are bored.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                 |
|                 | <b>L</b> | At first she was excited. Went to Riverwalk, South Africa, all over.<br>But you get bored; especially that I think our culture; we are not a reading culture unlike people in the west. When they retire they start a new hobby; that is when they do a second Master’s degree; or another PhD; why? To occupy the mind. Because you know, reading occupies the mind. You don’t know that? Reading keeps your mind busy. But if there is nothing to exercise your mind and just thinking about the weekend. Intelligent people read and they learn new things; not just stuff from their discipline; they will read a science textbook or statistics because it keeps the mind sharp and focused. Those people are intelligent because they do not want people to do with human rights; to do with the law; stop sleeping a lot; just sleep for six hours; you shouldn’t also over stay.   | <b>F</b>  | <b>e<br/><br/>com</b>      |
| <b>Boundary</b> | <b>L</b> | Our purpose today is on academic reading.  | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b>                  |

Table 6.6: Transcript Five: Analysed Discourse

To further illustrate the spoken interaction in the lesson transcript above, below is the visual representation of the pattern of interaction. The visual illustration below is meant to show the main question that built the teaching transaction. It is interesting to point out that, from the main question there is only one strand of interaction for each teaching exchange. This illustrated the different points that were discussed in an endeavour to show the importance of reading. The length of the strand indicates how classroom interaction was used to explain the same point. However, from the same point, the lecturer used analogies from real life situations to show the importance of reading. The numbers 1 to 4 represent the teaching exchanges in each lesson transaction. The numbering is attached to different students as they talked about reading. Finally, the numbering is attached to both the lecturer's main question and different questions where the lecturer wanted to emphasise the importance of reading.

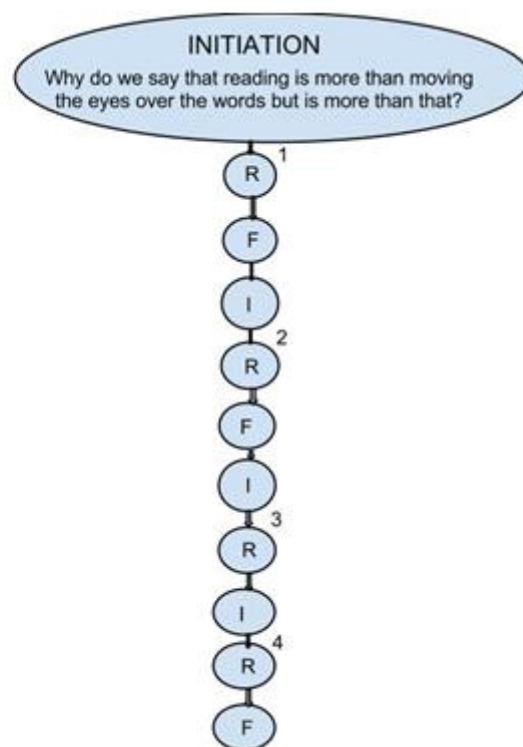


Figure 6.5: Transcript Five Visual Illustration

Lecturer Masterpiece's lesson excerpt and the visual illustration above show little variation in the nature of classroom interaction. An analysis of her classroom discourse shows it to be monologic (Christie, 2000; Mameli & Molinari, 2014). Mameli & Molinari (2014) state that

monologic interaction is where the “teacher controls the lesson by directing the discourse in a predetermined direction...guided by the teacher’s intent to maintain pace rather than sustain thinking and understanding” (p. 107). Even though the lecturer engaged in classroom talk with her students, she contributed most of the talk as indicated by the feedback she provided in teaching exchanges 2 and 4 above. This type of monologic situation is what Lefstein and Snell (2014) call, ‘talking over or past one another’. The same monologic pattern was found in lecturers Victor (6.2.3) and Queen’s (6.2.2) lessons. However, Masterpiece’s lesson transcript above is more similar in development of classroom discourse to that of lecturer Queen. This is because the latter has almost a single strand of interaction, whilst the former had only one strand. The same trend of ‘trying’ to probe was found in the above lesson, similar to Lecturer Princess’s (teaching exchange 2 in both lessons). Nevertheless, lecturer Masterpiece’s probing was followed by providing the clue of how to answer the question, as indicated by, ‘in other words I mean....’ (teaching exchange 2). It can be argued that Masterpiece’s probing co-occurred with a closed question. This is because the student did not bring up any new information, as indicated in the excerpt below (indicated in bold):

|                   |          |   |          |                  |
|-------------------|----------|---|----------|------------------|
| <b>Teaching 1</b> | <b>L</b> | ....Why do we say that reading is more than moving the eyes over the words but is more than that? | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>        |
|                   | <b>S</b> | <b>You have to understand the concept of what you are reading about.</b>                          | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>       |
|                   | <b>L</b> | She says you have to understand the concept of what you are reading about.                        | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>       |
| <b>2</b>          | <b>L</b> | What do we mean by concept?<br>In other words I mean....  | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>cl</b> |
|                   | <b>S</b> | In other words I mean, an example; <b>you have to understand what you are reading about.</b>      | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>       |

It can thus be concluded that closed questions do not develop students’ oral skills. This resulted in the lecturer talking more than the students, as illustrated in her feedback moves.

Lecturer Masterpiece’s lesson transcript above indicates that the initiations were numerous. The first teaching exchange comprised the lecturer informing the students and asking questions. The said combination shows that the lecturer wanted to lay a foundation from which to extract the questions that would enable the students to talk about reading effectively. However, this manner of initiating classroom talk ended up contributing to the monologic pattern already discussed in the last paragraph. This is because even in the uptake question (where the teacher incorporated a subsequent question) in teaching exchange 2, the lecturer decided to provide a guiding sentence. Chin (2007) demonstrates that students can be

stretched mentally through teacher-led discourse. Although it is good to have lesson objectives, this type of guidance could negatively hinder the students from talking more about reading skills.

Equally important to the nature of interaction in lecturer Masterpiece's lesson were the students' responses. It is worth mentioning that from the above lesson transcript it can be seen that the students responded in single sentences. This raises the question of whether the students were aware that such responses are not enough to develop them to talk in the classroom. This is because in all the students' responses there seems to be some 'missing information'. An example of the said assumption can be seen in teaching exchanges 3 and 4, where the students responded by 'they always go back' and 'they are bored'. In the former response, it can be argued that who are 'they' and where are they 'going back to?' The students' responses could have been more elaborate if they had provided more information in their answers. This would have helped them develop their oral communication skills.

In lecturer Masterpiece's lesson transcript above, there were only three instances of feedback. Demonstrations of the instances are found in teaching exchanges 1, 2 and 4. The data indicates three ways of providing the students with feedback. One of the ways was accepting by repeating the information said by the student. Secondly, there was acceptance followed by the lecturer's comment. It can be argued that accepting the students' responses was the most common way. Finally, the response was the lecturer's comment where she built upon the student's response. The feedback suggests that the lecturer provided the students with a lot of information hence contributing to the monologic pattern already discussed, as a point contributing to the little variation in the nature of interaction in lecturer Masterpiece's lesson. This raises the question as to whether the lecturer could not use 'scaffolding' by building on the students' responses to probe them further. An example comes in teaching exchange 4, where the lecturer's teaching approach could have been more effective if she had asked the student or the students to: i) explain why their parents were bored after retirement, ii) explain the affective, physical, and social behaviours the retired people portray immediately after leaving their jobs and, iii) how boredom relates to reading skills. Similarly, the same could have been done with teaching exchange 2, by the lecturer asking the students: (i) what comprehending a reading text involves, (ii) the steps for effective reading and, (iii) the negative aspects of reading or studying without a break. If the aforementioned suggestions from the feedback of two teaching exchanges were employed, they would have extended the interaction with the students. Previous studies have reported the importance of reducing

some of the teacher classroom talk, in favour of the children in order to meet the students' interactional needs (Read, 2006; Staarman & Mercer, 2010). Therefore, if the lecturers' feedback move is coupled with scaffolding in the form of probing questions, the students will talk more.

Overall, lecturer Masterpiece's interaction was a transaction made up of a chain of exchanges. This means that only one point was discussed within the whole teaching transaction. A number of studies in classroom interaction have found out that there could be some teacher's questions and students responses that end up building a long chain of exchanges (Abd-Kadir & Hardman, 2007; Chin, 2006; Mroz, Smith & Hardman, 2000). Even though it was good for the lecturer to ask the students some questions that enable them to engage in a longer strand, the limitation with this teaching strategy as employed here was that only one point was discussed. The said limitation can be compared to other lecturers such as lecturer Pretty, in her lesson transcription above (refer 6.2.1), where there was huge variation in interaction. Therefore, the breadth at which the exchanges emanate from the overarching question, 'why do we say that reading is more than moving the eyes over the words but is more than that?' Only one chain was embedded within the question, hence contributing to the little variation in the nature of classroom talk.

Although there was little variation in terms of the stretch of interaction, lecturer Masterpiece's questions were good, open, genuine, and discursive. In three of the four teaching exchanges she probed the students to provide quality and elaborate answers. Examples of the aforementioned questions are the use of, 'why?' and 'what?' (teaching exchanges 1, 2 and 4). It can be argued that the lecturer wanted to create an interaction where there was co-construction of knowledge. This is because the aforementioned type of questions sought the students to think and talk about reading. Additionally, in teaching exchanges 3 and 4, the lecturer desired to solicit quality interaction from the students by asking them questions that built on the idea of occupying the mind to avoid boredom. In their response, the students 'attempted' to offer quality answers, as in all the four teaching exchanges, they replied with sentences. However, the students' last three responses were not 'fully' explained as already mentioned in paragraph 3 of lecturer Masterpiece's lesson. In an example, teaching exchange 4 could have been explained more by citing some typical examples of what actually causes the boredom. This resulted in the lecturer's feedback being very elaborate, as she provided examples and advice relating to the boredom that the student had mentioned.



**6.3.6 Faculty: Education**  
**Lecturer F (i): Glorious**

The following lesson was taught by a female lecturer, who taught 54 students. The lesson was on listening and note taking and it was a new lesson on that particular topic. The lesson transcribed focused on things to listen to for entertainment. Some other aspects covered were how people listen, aids to effective listening, group discussions and presentations by the students. The whole lesson started off with a recap of what had been done the previous week on listening. In engaging in the classroom interaction, the students sat in rows and faced the lecturer throughout the lesson.

**Transcript Six**

| Exchanges         | Participant | Classroom talk   | Moves     | Acts   |
|-------------------|-------------|--|-----------|--|
| <b>Boundary</b>   | <b>L</b>    | But, we also listen in order to be entertained; for entertainment.   | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b>                                      |
| <b>Teaching 1</b> | <b>L</b>    | <b>What sort</b> of entertainment do we listen to?<br><b>What sort of things</b> do we listen to for entertainment?  | <b>I</b>  | <b>s</b><br><b>el</b>                          |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | We listen to poems.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                                     |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | We listen to poems.<br>And these poems; it's important that we listen to poems because they have a message for us.<br><b>Okay.</b> They have a message for us.   | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b><br><b>com</b>                       |
| <b>2</b>          | <b>L</b>    | What else do we listen to; for entertainment?  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>                                      |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | Music  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                                     |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | We listen to music;<br>and the composer of that song also has a purpose; has a message and we enjoy not only the lyrics.   | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b><br><b>com</b>                       |
| <b>3</b>          | <b>L</b>    | What else do we listen to? What about drama?<br>It also has a message that has been put before us.<br>And on Sunday we go to church;<br>Why do we go to church on Sunday? What drives us to go to church?<br><b>John</b> | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b><br><b>i</b><br><b>el</b><br><b>n</b> |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | To get inspiration.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                                     |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | To get inspiration; To get inspiration.  | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>                                     |
| <b>4</b>          | <b>L</b>    | Is it only at church where we listen for inspiration?  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>                                      |
|                   | <b>Ss</b>   | No   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                                     |
| <b>5</b>          | <b>L</b>    | Where else do we listen for inspiration?<br><b>Jane</b>  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b><br><b>n</b>                          |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | To motivational speakers.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                                     |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | To motivational speakers.<br>They talk to us; and their talk or presentation help us when we come across problems to realise that these are the things that happen to us in life and we overcome them.                   | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc/</b><br><b>com</b>                      |

|                 |          |  |           |          |
|-----------------|----------|--|-----------|----------|
| <b>Boundary</b> | <b>L</b> | Okay, Right.<br>We listen in order to improve our own communication.<br>We listen in order to improve our own communication skills. <b>How</b> does that happen? | <b>Fr</b> | <b>m</b> |
|-----------------|----------|--|-----------|----------|

Table 6.7: Transcript Six: Analysed Discourse

Before the analysis of the lesson transcript above, its visual illustration is included below (refer to Figure 6.6). The visual illustration below is meant to show the main question that built the teaching transaction. Also, from the main question there are three strands of interaction for each teaching exchange. These illustrated the same point before moving to the next one. The length of the strand indicates how classroom interaction was used to explain the same point. The numbers 1 to 5 represent the teaching exchanges in each lesson transaction. The numbering is attached to different students as they shared the points they made about listening for entertainment. Finally, the numbering is attached to the lecturer's main question.

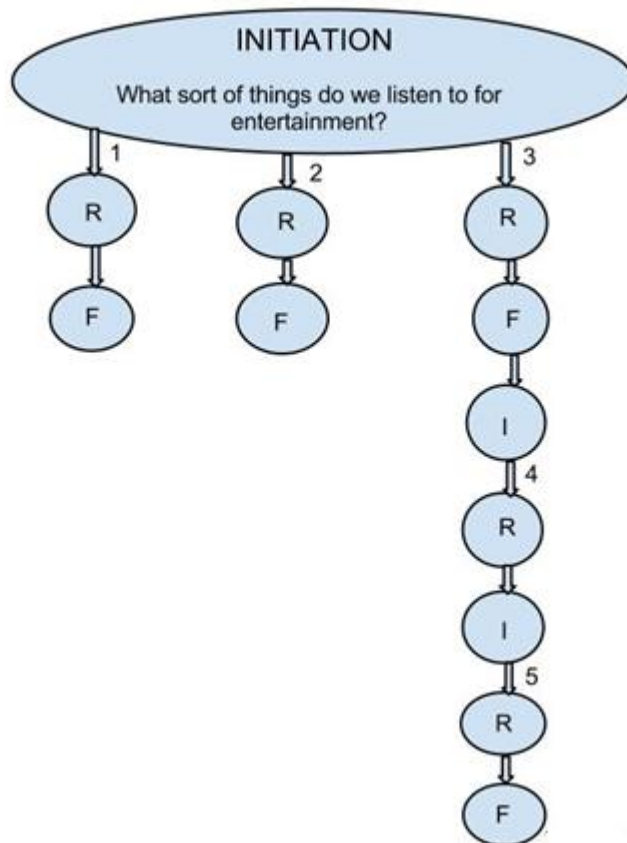


Figure 6.6: Transcript Six Visual Illustration

The main question above was open, as the lecturer did not know what the students would say. The students had the ability to come up with a number of situations when they listen for entertainment.

From lecturer Glorious' lesson excerpt and the lesson illustration, it can be seen that there was average variation in the nature of classroom interaction. Both the depth and the breadth of the lesson indicate a combination of both long and short exchanges of classroom talk, with the short exchanges being dominant. The average depth of the lesson is indicated by one strand of classroom talk, which was made up of three teaching exchanges. The average last teaching exchanges were because the lecturer asked the students about their reason for going to church on Sunday (as indicated in teaching exchange 3). The open question that was used stretched to the other two teaching exchanges. However, the IRF was a dominant pattern of classroom interaction, which can be seen in teaching exchanges 1 to 5.

Another contributing factor to the average variation in lecturer Glorious' lesson was the breadth of the teaching exchanges. The said lesson transaction had three chains which mostly revolved around the IRF pattern of interaction. It is evident that the lecturer maintained this pattern, since most of the teaching exchanges were followed by the question, 'what else?' and 'where else?' It can be argued that 'what else?' asked in the first two teaching exchanges was a closed question. Even though the lecturer started teaching exchange 3 with the same question, it is interesting to note that she resorted to an open question, 'why do we go to church on Sundays?' This question ultimately acted as a springboard to a longer sequence of exchanges (refer to teaching exchanges 3 to 5 above). It can be maintained that open questions facilitate longer classroom interactions hence improving the quality of students talk and classroom teaching in general.

From lecturer Glorious' lesson transcript above, it is apparent that her initiations were mainly questions, which comprised both closed and open questions. Nevertheless, the common questions were closed, similar to those used by lecturers Queen, Victor and Princess. This is because in most cases all the four lecturers asked the subsequent questions by starting with, "what else.....?" One question that needs to be asked, however, is whether the said lecturers are aware that their type of questioning has an impact on the development of the students' oral skills.

Another feature that explains the nature of spoken interaction in lecturer Glorious' lesson were the kinds of student responses. The way the students answered the lecturer's questions

was mostly in short and simple answers, as indicated by about three words. There is a conclusive link between the said responses and the other students' responses already interpreted above, such as in lecturer Masterpiece and lecturer Princess's classes. This could be because the students thought that providing the main ideas in reply to the lecturer's responses was enough. The observed students' responses might have been more convincing in the development of the students' oral communication skills if more particulars had been provided to the main ideas already observed. As an example, in teaching exchange 1, the student replied to the lecturer's question by saying that, 'they listen to poems for entertainment'. More particulars could have been added to the aforementioned response by stating, 'where' they listen to poems, for example at weddings, independence celebrations or cultural days. Further, the students could have stated 'what type of poems they listen to or asked whether they enjoy epics, English or Setswana poems. In their important evaluation of classroom discourse, Inagaki, Morita & Hatano (1999) were able to show that there were short and simple student answers, which were not justified or explained. However, Nassaji and Wells (2000) argue that students can contribute substantively, depending on how they are being guided by the teacher. Overall, the kinds of student responses in lecturer Glorious' class seem to have been propelled by the lecturer's teaching style.

Regarding the kinds of feedback used by lecturer Glorious', the lecturer accepted the students' responses, which were in turn followed by some comments. The said type of feedback is illustrated in three of five teaching exchanges. One of the limitations with the aforementioned interactional explanation is that the lecturer does not ask the students to support their answers with questions such as, 'why are poems used for entertainment?'; 'Why do people listen to music as a form of entertainment?' 'Why do you think people are inspired by going to church and listening to motivational speakers?' Similar to lecturer Masterpiece above (refer to 6.2.5), she did not probe the students for more information. Even though the two lecturers failed to probe the students, there is a noticeable disparity in the amount of feedback each provided. It could be argued that may-be lecturer Glorious is aware that the students should have a considerable amount of time to talk. This assertion is based on the fact that in one of her lessons she encouraged the students to talk (refer to her lesson on reading and writing-teaching exchange 12). A study by Liu (2008) reports that teachers should seek clarifications of student responses, and in turn reformulate their initiations. Thus, lecturer Glorious's feedback suggests that she did not build on the students' responses.

Regarding the extension of classroom interaction in lecturer Glorious' lesson, there was a combination of very short and longer chains of exchanges. The results are similar to what was found in Figure 6.9 but slight differences. It can be concluded that some lecturers use very short and then longer exchanges within a lesson transaction. Perhaps the lecturers want to vary their teaching methods within a teaching transaction. As already noted with the other transcriptions above, the long strands of exchanges are good, as they signify more students talk because the lecturers ask them to explain the points. Xin et al (2011) state that some kinds of interactions do not contribute much to the development of the students' linguistic and communicative competence. It has conclusively been shown that very short exchanges demonstrate a strict IRF pattern, which does not offer the students enough opportunity to talk, because the 'feedback move' is closed (Rajab, 2012; Xie, 2010). Therefore, lecturer Glorious' lesson indicates that there were instances in her teaching where she did not open up the classroom talk, but did so in others.

Even though an average variation in the length of interaction was observed in the above lesson transcript, there were instances where the lecturer used good, open questions. This is because in some teaching exchanges lecturer Glorious gave the students an opportunity to think of various answers relating to listening skills. This was done by probing the students, as found in teaching exchanges 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5. However in teaching exchange 4, a 'missed educational opportunity' (DeWitt & Hohenstein, 2010; English, et al., 2002) was observed, because the students responded with a choral and short answer of 'yes'. This was a missed opportunity for the students to provide elaborate and extended answers. Additionally, this was a missed opportunity for interaction because the students could have provided individual and numerous answers in terms of 'why' and 'how' the church inspires people during the listening process. The same glimpse of 'missed educational opportunity' was observed in one of lecturer Pretty's teaching exchanges. Another aspect that relates to the average interaction was the type of student responses. The students replied to the questions either with 'very short sentences' or with one-word responses. These types of responses can be observed in the whole lesson transcript. The final point worth mentioning from the above lesson transcript relates to the quality of feedback that was provided by the lecturer. The lecturer ended up providing feedback, which could be argued did not build on excellent co-construction of knowledge. This is because the students were not forthcoming with elaborate answers to create good quality classroom talk. Their responses within the whole lesson transcript above ranged between one and four words only. The said feedback contributed to

average quality classroom talk because the lecturer posed open questions, which were not in return detailed. This ultimately meant that the lecturer dominated the classroom talk in terms of initiation and feedback moves.

### 6.3.7 Faculty: Health Science Lecturer F (ii): Glorious

The following is part of a transcription of a lesson that was transcribed by one of the female lecturers in CSS. Although this lesson was taught by the same lecturer as in section 6.3.6 above, the students that were taught belonged to a different faculty of undergraduate students at the University of Botswana. The lecturer's teaching experience is the same as the one already highlighted under section 6.3.6. There were 30 students in this lesson.

The lesson started by revising reading skills. Thereafter a new lesson on listening skills was introduced. Similar to her Faculty of Education lesson above, the students sat in rows, however this was in a different classroom.

#### Transcript Seven

| Exchanges       | Participant | Classroom talk  | Moves                  | Acts                                   |
|-----------------|-------------|---|------------------------|--|
| <b>Boundary</b> | <b>L</b>    | Now, we move on to Listening and Note-taking  | <b>Fr</b><br><b>Fo</b> | <b>m</b><br><b>s</b>                   |
| <b>1</b>        | <b>L</b>    | Why do we listen?   | <b>I</b>               | <b>el</b>                              |
|                 | <b>S</b>    | To acquire message.   | <b>R</b>               | <b>rep</b>                             |
|                 | <b>L</b>    | Okay. To acquire message.<br>Can we say we listen in order to acquire facts, ideas, feelings and analyse them. We analyse whatever we are listening to. | <b>F</b>               | <b>e/</b><br><b>acc/</b><br><b>com</b> |
| <b>2</b>        | <b>L</b>    | Those who have just come have you registered?<br>What are the other reasons why we listen?  | <b>I</b>               | <b>d</b><br><b>el</b>                  |
|                 | <b>S</b>    | We listen to get enlightenment.   | <b>R</b>               | <b>rep</b>                             |
|                 | <b>L</b>    | We listen for enlightenment on issues that we do not understand. That's what we said; Right   | <b>F</b>               | <b>acc/</b><br><b>com</b>              |
| <b>3</b>        | <b>L</b>    | What is the other reason why we listen? Let's think of even outside; Why do we listen? Let us think even outside the university.                        | <b>I</b>               | <b>el</b>                              |
|                 | <b>S</b>    | For entertainment.  | <b>R</b>               | <b>rep</b>                             |
|                 | <b>L</b>    | Very good. Precisely.   | <b>F</b>               | <b>e</b>                               |
| <b>4</b>        | <b>L</b>    | What kind of situations provides us with the opportunity to listen and get entertained at the same time?  | <b>I</b>               | <b>el</b>                              |
|                 | <b>S</b>    | Music festivals.  | <b>R</b>               | <b>rep</b>                             |

|                 |          |  |           |            |
|-----------------|----------|--|-----------|------------|
|                 | <b>S</b> | Social gatherings.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b> |
| <b>5</b>        | <b>L</b> | Any other reason to add on to <b>your list</b> of purposes for listening? Why do we go to church for example? Don't we go to church because we want the priest to inspire us? We listen for inspiration. Is it only at church where we listen for inspiration? Who else do we listen to? | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>  |
|                 | <b>S</b> | Motivational speakers.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b> |
|                 | <b>L</b> | Motivational speakers.   | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b> |
| <b>6</b>        | <b>S</b> | We also listen to keep interaction flowing.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b> |
|                 | <b>L</b> | We also listen to keep interaction flowing. We also listen for interaction with others.  | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b> |
| <b>Boundary</b> | <b>L</b> | May be I should ask you this:<br>Do you think there is improvement in Communication through listening? <b>How?</b>   | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b>  |

Table 6.8: Transcript Seven: Analysed Discourse

To further support the above tabular student-lecturer talk, Figure 6.7 shows the visual illustration of lecturer F (ii)'s lesson. The visual illustration below is meant to show the main question that built the teaching transaction. Also, from the main question there are some strands of interaction for each teaching exchange. These illustrated the same point that was discussed before moving on to the next one. The length of the strand indicates how classroom interaction was used to explain the same point. Finally, the numbers 1 to 6 represent the teaching exchanges in each lesson transaction. The numbering is attached to different students as they answered a question about the purpose of listening. The numbering is also attached to both the lecturer's main question and different questions where the lecturer probed the students.

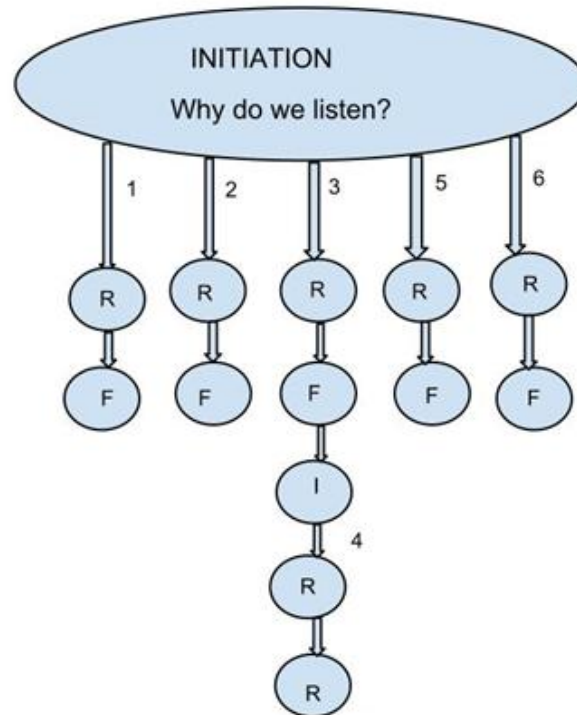


Figure 6.7: Transcript Seven Visual Illustration

The above question in the visual illustration was open, as the students could come up with numerous reasons unknown to the lecturer. The question influences the pattern of interaction, as it is open to a number of ways that they listen.

From lecturer Glorious's lesson transcript and the lesson illustration above, there was also average variation in the nature of classroom interaction. Both the depth and the breadth of the lesson indicate a combination of both short and long teaching exchanges, with short exchanges of classroom talk being dominant. However, there are two major differences between her two lessons (refer to 6.3.6 and 6.3.7). One of these is that the long progression of classroom talk comes in the middle of the interaction, whilst in the former lesson it was at the end. Another difference is that the former had only two short exchanges whilst the latter had four. Just like in the former lesson transcript, the first two exchanges were led by closed questions, and it can be argued that on realising that these do not bring about the desired results, she switched to an open question which brought about two exchanges. Nonetheless, the last two teaching exchanges changed to closed questions.

One of the key aspects of classroom interaction in one of lecturer Glorious' lesson transcript above was how she initiated her lesson. Like most of the lecturers discussed above, she mainly questioned her students. It can be argued that the questions were a combination of



both closed and open questions. This is because the first question posed in the above lesson was an open question. However, it can also be argued that some of the subsequent questions were closed. There are a number of reasons why some of the questions were closed. One of this is supported by teaching exchange 5 where the students were just asked to list the purposes of listening. Another reason to support that the questions were closed was that the student responses were in most cases short answers. Finally, the lecturer repeated the questions a number of times, as indicated in teaching exchanges 3 and 5. It can be concluded that if the lecturer had maintained the open questions, this could improve the students' talk by not only listing but expanding on their answers.

Besides the lecturer's initiations analysed in the above paragraph, there were some student responses. The students in the Faculty of Health Science used short and simple responses; a similar trend was observed in the previous lesson transcript of lesson with the Faculty of Education students. It is probable that the kinds of student responses were the same because the two classes were taught by the same lecturer, who was also teaching the same topic of listening skills. One question that needs to be asked, however, is whether there are practicalities attached to a lecturer teaching in two different faculties and the development of students' oral competence. In their review of two cohorts being taught by the same teacher, Rivkin, Hanushek and Kain (2005) identified that there is a relationship between the achievement gained by students and the observable teacher. Nevertheless, the aforementioned authors found out that the results were generally small in younger learners. It is likely that the kinds of student responses can be elaborate or short and simple, depending on amongst other reasons, the lecturer, the topic and the lesson objectives.

Another interesting point is lecturer Glorious' quality of feedback. On average she accepted the students' answers and this was followed by comments. Evidence of the said acts is found in teaching exchanges 1 and 2. It can be claimed that the lecturer did not only repeat the students' responses, she also expanded on the information given. As concluded from lecturer Glorious' lesson, the teachers' repetition of students' responses within the IRF pattern was investigated by Hellermann (2003). This could be because the lecturer wanted to indicate to the students that interaction is a two way process; the students provide their information and she in turn indicates whether the answer is correct by not only repeating it but by also building on it. This could possibly build the rapport between the lecturer and the students. Xie (2009) highlights the issue of mutual respect and trust amongst students as they interact. The students might not trust the lecturer if there is no confirmation of whether they are on

track or not. However, the aforementioned teaching approach might have been very effective if she had considered the students' answers to be very explicit and not 'just listing the purposes for listening'. Teaching exchange 5 generally showed that the lecturer expected the students to 'list' the points. The teaching strategy employed by lecturer Glorious could have been improved by probing the students for detailed answers. An example can be seen in teaching exchange 1, where the lecturer could have asked the student to say what is meant, and what is entailed in acquiring a message. Taking the said step would have given the student(s) an opportunity to interact more.

Overall, the interaction indicates that most of lecturer Glorious' teaching exchanges comprised of closed IRF exchanges, as reflected in exchanges 1, 2, 5 and 6. This can be seen in the fact that she did not ask the students to explain their responses except in the third exchange. Numerous studies have attempted to explain the aforementioned short interactions (e.g., Abd-Kadir, & Hardman, 2007; DeWitt & Hohenstein, 2010; English, et al., 2002; Li, 2013; Morton 2012) and have revealed that in the said instances, 'there were missed educational opportunities'. On the same note others, (Rajab, 2012; Xie, 2010) have argued that 'a strict IRF pattern' was used. Finally, some scholars suggest that the strict IRF pattern leads to missed opportunities, because such interactions do not contribute much to the development of students' linguistic and communicative competence (Xin et al., 2011). It can be argued that lecturer Glorious did not give the students a chance to support their reasons on 'why they listen' and this resulted in less student talk.

Having commented on the strands of interaction from the above lesson, it is worth pointing out that most of the questions that she used were good, open, genuine and discursive. She asked the students some of the questions that encourage them to think and come up with a number of varied answers. Some of the aforementioned questions could be found in teaching exchange 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5. In teaching exchange 1, by asking the question, 'why', the lecturer expected a number of responses from the students. Additionally, it can be argued that the said question was open to class discussion based on the responses the students raised. Another important aspect attached to the questioning mentioned above was that the lecturer probed the students for more information. This resulted in her asking questions such as, 'what are the other reasons?' (teaching exchange 2, 3 and 5). In response to the type of questioning mentioned above, the students came up with a number of responses, as indicated by the different answers in teaching exchanges 1 to 3. However, it can be noted that the students' responses were not very elaborate, as their answers were in point form. Also, to

support the issue of short responses, it can be claimed that the lecturer also wanted the students to merely list points, as indicated in teaching exchange 5. It can further be claimed that there was a ‘missed opportunity’ in terms of students’ providing elaborate answers. Some scholars have noted the aforementioned type of classroom interaction (e.g., Lefstein & Snell, 2014, 49) and point out that, “an ‘authentic’ teacher question would not necessarily foster student dialogue.” This trend of lecturer initiations and student responses contributed to the average classroom interaction, as the students did not really talk much to develop their oral communicative competence. Another point worth mentioning is that the lecturer’s feedback did not also provide additional information. In most of the feedback she merely accepted the students’ responses. With this kind of classroom interaction, it can be concluded that there were missed opportunities that could have lead to very detailed and quality classroom talk between lecturer Glorious and her students.

**6.3.8 Faculty: Business**  
**Lecturer G (i): Star**

This lesson transcript below was taught by one of the female lecturers. The transcription below was part of the lesson on reading skills. It was a new lesson about reading skills. Prior to the introduction of the new material below, lecturer Star had spent some of the lecture period taking the students through what would be expected of them in their group work on project writing. Similar to most of the lessons above, her 47 students sat in rows facing the lecturer. Nonetheless, out of all the lessons observed, the lesson transcript below was the only one where the lecturer used PowerPoint presentation in her interaction with the students.

**Transcript Eight**

| <b>Exchanges</b>  | <b>Participant</b> | <b>Classroom talk</b>   | <b>Moves</b> | <b>Acts</b>           |
|-------------------|--------------------|---|--------------|-----------------------|
| <b>Boundary</b>   | <b>L</b>           | Any questions and then I continue with my task for the day? Any questions? Questions, Comments. And please feel free to come to my office anytime if you need help.         | <b>Fo</b>    | <b>ms</b>             |
| <b>Teaching 1</b> |                    | Predict and prove<br>Can somebody unpack that one for us? Predict and prove. As you predict what are you doing? What are you doing? Predict and prove.<br>Yes <b>Samuel</b> | <b>I</b>     | <b>s<br/>el<br/>n</b> |
|                   | <b>S</b>           | You read about something and you put it into practise   | <b>R</b>     | <b>rep</b>            |
|                   | <b>L</b>           | Samuel says you read may be about a   | <b>F</b>     | <b>com</b>            |

|   |   |   |   |                     |
|---|---|---|---|---------------------|
|   |   | philosophy or theory and you say oooh so that you see how it works<br>Let's say I am reading a book on parenting, And the book says "I shouldn't scream to the teenager. I should sit them down and reason with the teenager. If I correct, I correct with love. Do you get the point? Aa ha!   |   |                     |
| 2 |   | Sense it.<br>Sense it meaning?  | I | i<br>el             |
|   | S | Sense it means that you feel the move in you as you are doing the project.  | R | rep                 |
|   | L | Does it move you? Identify with it. As you are doing your project; does it move you?  | F | com                 |
| 3 | L | Make inferences then draw conclusions.<br>What is inferring?<br>Yes <b>Bertha</b><br>Come and stand next to the lecturer because you are saying words of wisdom. Come stand next to me because all of us are going to present one day.  | I | i<br>el<br>n<br>d   |
|   | S | When you are reading like novels you expect something; it's like you imagine what is written on the text something like that. You imagine what is in the text.  | R | rep                 |
|   | L | You infer. You infer.<br>Or even before the end of it you can conclude that this thing might end this way.  | F | e<br>com            |
| 4 | L | vii. Summarise and synthesis: That is why I taught you note taking. You can't bring 100 pages to that group discussion. No! that 100 pages, summarise it to one page and say, "ladies and gentleman, this is what I have researched on; this, this, this, this".<br>viii. Check your understanding.<br>How do you check understanding with the rest of the group? | I | i<br><br>el         |
|   | S | You test yourself.  | R | rep                 |
|   | L | Excellent. These students are excellent.  | F | e                   |
| 5 | L | ix. And then the next one says "Build fluency"<br>How do you build fluency?<br><b>Mr Smith</b> , how do you build fluency? So my brother, how do you build fluency?   | I | i<br><br>el<br>n/el |
|   | S | Ya! I like it when you say build fluency. You can only be fluent if there is a reason behind that you will be influenced by any practical application.  | R | e<br>rep            |
|   | L | You can be a philosopher because you speak in big words lead it; lead it.<br>He says fluency because you can say it.  | F | com                 |
| 6 | L | You read about "Stock bonds" After reading about "Stock bonds", it has fascinated you. What do you do? When something has excited you; what do you do?  | I | i<br><br>el         |

|                 |          |   |           |            |
|-----------------|----------|---|-----------|------------|
|                 | <b>S</b> | You share it.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b> |
|                 | <b>L</b> | You share it.   | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b> |
| <b>7</b>        | <b>L</b> | And after sharing it? What do you do?   | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>  |
|                 | <b>S</b> | You research much on it.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b> |
|                 | <b>L</b> | After researching much on it? How do you share it?<br>And you get an allowance of <b>P1 700 (£170)</b> every month. Let me tell you the secret students. Did you listen to that twenty one who is already is a millionaire? He says you don't have to start with buying lot of shares; you start by <b>P100 (£10)</b> . So, don't wait until you graduate. Start now and by the time you graduate, you will buy yourself a car; cash. Trust me. | <b>F</b>  | <b>com</b> |
| <b>Boundary</b> | <b>L</b> | Let us stop here; we shall continue and look at specific reading strategies, that is, Skimming, Scanning, fast reading, SQ3R and others. Please send me those time lines by the end of business tomorrow.   | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b>  |

Table 6.9: Transcript Eight: Analysed Discourse

The visual illustration below (refer to Figure 6.8) is meant to show the main question that built the teaching transaction. Also, from the main question there are some strands of interaction for each teaching exchange. These illustrated the different points that were discussed before moving on to the next one. The length of the strand indicates how classroom interaction was used to explain the same point. The numbers 1 to 7 represent the teaching exchanges in each lesson transaction. The numbering is attached to different students as they shared the points about reading strategies. Finally, the numbering is attached to both the lecturer's main question and the different questions where the lecturer probed the students.

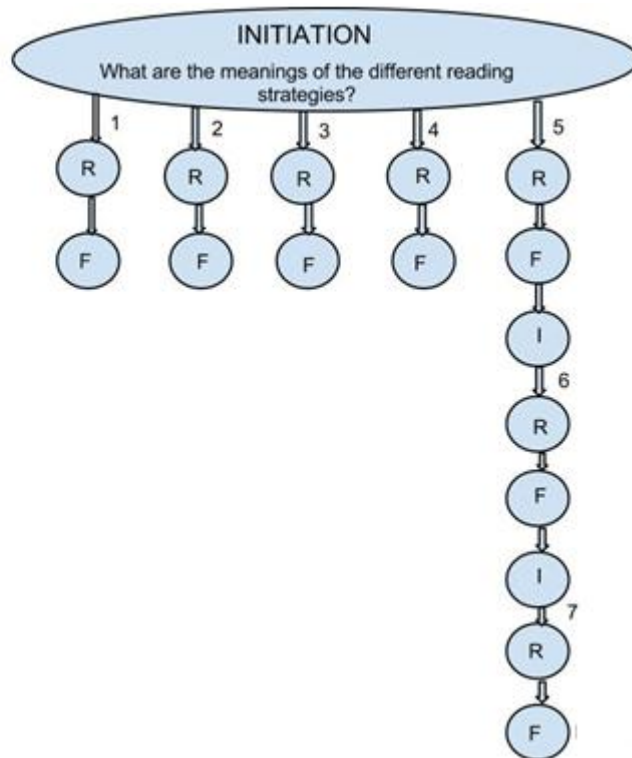


Figure 6.8: Transcript Eight Visual Illustration

The question indicated in the visual illustration above is open, as it suggests various meanings to different reading strategies. A number of answers could be brought up which are very new and interesting; as a result, the pattern of interaction would be good.

From lecturer Star's lesson transcript and the lesson illustration above, it can be seen that there was an average variation in the nature of classroom interaction. Both the depth and the breadth of the lesson indicate a combination of both short and long teaching exchanges. Similar to lecturer Glorious' lesson transcripts (refer to 6.3.6 and 6.3.7), short exchanges of the classroom talk were dominant. However, lecturer Star's lesson is more similar to lecturer Glorious's lesson for the Faculty of Education (refer to 6.3.6). The two are similar in that the short teaching exchanges preceded the longer one. The only difference is in the said Glorious's lesson, there were only two short teaching exchanges, and lecturer Star has four. For the first four teaching exchanges, the lecturer shared information with the students, referring to the PowerPoint presentation and later asking them questions about the main point captured in the presentation. Nonetheless, the teaching exchanges were closed, as already mentioned. It can be argued that this was because the lecturer wanted to complete the presented slides within the stipulated time. This is because she did not ask the students probing questions as could be the case in teaching exchange 1. The teaching style changed in

the last three teaching exchanges as the bullet-point, which said, 'build fluency' was developed until the end of the lesson transaction. Two reasons could be brought to the fore for such a change in the classroom interaction. One of the reasons could be that teaching exchange 5 was the last point on the PowerPoint presentation prepared. Being the last point now the lecturer developed the information. The second reason why the last point was developed until the end of the transaction could be that the lecturer was now sure that she would finish within the lecture time. This is because at the beginning of the lesson she spent some time talking to the students about how to write their projects. On realising that she still had some minutes then she built on the classroom interaction. It can be concluded that time can have a negative effect on the nature of classroom talk.

From lecturer Star's lesson transcript above, the most striking results emerge from her initiations. Her initiations resulted in a combination of providing the students with information and asking them questions. This was indicated in the first five out of the seven teaching exchanges. This suggests that her quality of interacting with the students had both similarities and differences with lecturer Queen and Masterpiece. The similarities were that all the three lecturers used a combination of both informing and questioning during some of their initiations. For lecturer Queen and lecturer Masterpiece, the similarities were in teaching exchange 1 of both their lesson transcripts. It can be argued that the aforementioned similarities indicate the lecturers' desire to always ground the students before asking them questions.

However, the striking feature that is different is that for lecturer Star the aforementioned combinations comprised five sevenths of her teaching exchanges. Another disparity is that she used shorter kinds for providing information, whilst the other two lecturers provided detailed information before posing a question. Generally, lecturer Star's quality of initiating classroom talk could be better, because the students attempted to talk more. Examples of this assertion are found in teaching exchanges 3 and 5. On the other hand, the responses from the students to the other two lecturers would have been much more detailed, if the lectures had not provided them with more information. It can be argued that minimal information from lecturers could lead to more students' talk.

Additionally, the majority of the students' responses in lecturer Star's lesson were in sentences. Examples of these are found in all the teaching exchanges except number 6. It can be claimed that the students' answers were mostly in complete sentences because of the

type of open questions asked by the lecturer. An example to support the aforementioned claim is found in teaching exchange 1, where the lecturer asked the students to ‘unpack what predict and prove in reading involves’. It can be argued that if one ‘unpacks’ a point, the listener is not sure of what the answer is going to be. The student can thus give information that the lecturer was not expecting. Cazden and Beck (2003) demonstrated that there is a relationship between students extended answers and open-ended questions. This shows that if the questions are open, the students’ answers will also be detailed.

Furthermore, lecturer Star provided some kind of feedback to her Faculty of Business students. The noticeable way, in which she gave her students feedback was that, unlike the other lecturers’ discourse already interpreted above, she did not repeat the answer but she built on the students’ answers. Illustrations of this kind of feedback are found in teaching exchanges 1, 2, 3, 5 and 7. It can be claimed that the lecturers’ feedback can be solely comments in response to students’ responses. This is because if lecturers always accept students’ answers, lessons can be less interesting more so that the university students are mature enough to follow the line of interaction with ease. Nevertheless, Inagaki, Morita and Hatano (1999) point out that there are cross-cultural differences in aspects of educational practice that relate to teaching and learning. In conclusion, the lecturers are free to determine how they provide feedback as long as excellence is considered in developing the students’ spoken interaction.

In conclusion to the three aspects of classroom interaction analysed above, was the extension of the interaction in lecturer Star’s lesson. Lecturer Star’s lesson illustrated a maximum of very short teaching exchanges (refer to exchanges 1 to 4) and one strand of long exchange (refer to exchanges 5 to 7 in Figure 8). There is a relationship between lecturer Star’s lesson and Glorious’ lesson in Figure 7. The only difference between the two was that the former’s long exchange was at the end of the lesson transaction and the latter’s was midway through the transaction. The said difference signifies that there were glimpses of quality interaction at various points of the lesson transcript. It is very likely that the lecturers created more classroom talk where they thought there was need. One question that needs to be asked, however, is whether the lecturers are aware that quality of interaction should be prevalent from the beginning up to the end of a lesson. This is because consistency in the nature of interaction will help in the development of students’ oral communicative skills. Surveys such as those conducted by Cazden and Beck (2003), Lyle (2008), Mercer, et al., (2004) and Mercer (2010) have shown that there is a need for teachers to employ methodological



consistency in order to maintain cognitively challenging classroom interaction. It can be argued that, if lecturer Star engaged the students using the same pedagogical strategy she used in exchanges 5 to 7 throughout the lesson transaction, there would have been development of quality classroom interaction amongst the students.

As in the other lesson transcripts already summarised above, lecturer Star started the lesson with a good, open, genuine and discursive question. This resulted in her asking the students to “unpack what ‘predict and prove’ means as it relates to reading skills. This question had the aforementioned attributes because in ‘unpacking’, there could be a number of answers from the students. Further, in ‘unpacking’ the lecturer is not sure of what answers the students will bring to the fore. Also, the lesson resulted in a stretch of open questions from teaching exchanges 1 to 7. Regarding the students responses, there was a mixture of elaborate and short answers. This is because sometimes they replied with complete sentences (teaching exchanges 1, 2, 3, 5), and in some instances with short answers, as in teaching exchange 4 and 6. It can be argued that on the whole, the students provided quality responses because there were more elaborate ones than short ones. Similarly, quality feedback was provided as the lecturer furnished the students with additional information, as can be seen in teaching exchanges 1 and 7. Another aspect of quality feedback is that lecturer Star did not want to talk much in providing feedback. This can be seen as a quality pattern of interaction, as it can be concluded that she endeavoured to allow the students to talk.

### **6.3.9 Faculty: Science Lecturer G (ii): Star**

The following lesson transcript is one of lecturer Star’s. The lesson began by the students being asked to discuss in groups of about 5 or 6 students, what they consider as communication barriers. After the discussion the lecturer asked some of the students from a group to come to the front of the class and present on behalf of their group. The students who chaired the group discussions were exempted from presenting the information. On the whole there were six presenters facing the rest of the students who also this time sat in rows, which represented their normal seating positions. Thirty-five students were in the class.

## Transcript Nine

| Exchanges         | Participant | Classroom talk   | Moves     | Acts           |
|-------------------|-------------|--|-----------|----------------|
| <b>Boundary</b>   | <b>L</b>    | Okay class, we have come to the end of the discussion. Now I want you to go back to your original seats and let's have (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6) six presenters. Let us have six presenters; stand in front. Each presenter you have only two minutes.                    | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b>      |
| <b>Teaching 1</b> | <b>L</b>    | Would you like to start presenting on communication barriers?  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>      |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | <b>Presenter 1:</b> Firstly, I have language. As you know we use different languages so this can be a barrier on the way we communicate.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>     |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | Can you give an example please?  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>      |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | <b>Presenter 1 cont':</b> For example some people use slang.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>     |
| <b>2</b>          | <b>S</b>    | <b>Presenter 1 cont':</b> Secondly, attitude. The attitude we have for each other. This may be a barrier when we communicate.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>     |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | Remember you have two minutes. Let me get my time. As you were discussing who ever came with it, can you elaborate on it.  | <b>F</b>  | <b>d</b>       |
| <b>3</b>          | <b>S</b>    | <b>Presenter 1 cont':</b> So, the other one is culture. As we know in this country we have different cultures so, it can be a barrier on how we communicate. For example, Bakgatla and Bangwato there; those who do not know their culture, it will be a barrier.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>     |
| <b>4</b>          | <b>L</b>    | Can you list the last two barriers?  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>      |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | <b>Presenter 1 cont':</b> The last two being; the system design and technical language.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>     |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | Ya, Team members please help the presenter because some of the points need you to elaborate. I take it that the person who came up with technical language can elaborate.  | <b>F</b>  | <b>d</b>       |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | Who came up with it?   | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>      |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | For example, like we are in Computer Science there are some terms we use in our course or Humanities there are some terms that they use in their course. If I do not understand the others language, it will be a barrier.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>     |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | Very good.<br>Okay let us give them the round of applause.   | <b>F</b>  | <b>e<br/>d</b> |
| <b>5</b>          | <b>S</b>    | <b>Presenter 2:</b> The first barrier we came up with is environmental barrier which basically means that someone is making noise. And someone is trying to communicate a certain message and obviously the message won't be heard properly; you won't understand. | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>     |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | Like some people making noise. (Lecturer's mobile phone rings) Like this phone is an environmental barrier; I forgot to switch it off.   | <b>F</b>  | <b>com</b>     |

|    |    |  |   |          |
|----|----|--|---|----------|
| 6  | S  | <b>Presenter 2 cont'</b> : And we also talked about perception. And another factor is focussing on ourselves rather than the other person. Some of the factors that cause this are defensiveness. We feel someone is attacking us; we can feel we are the centre of the activity.  | R | rep      |
| 7  | L  | Let us talk about that one; defensiveness. How does defensiveness become a barrier?  | I | d<br>el  |
|    | S  | The way I talk is fine but the other people think it is not.   | R | rep      |
|    | L  | Very good.<br>The other purpose; Like this naughty room mate who uses your toiletry and takes your food without your permission and when you talk to them they say “ <b>o tshwanetse wa tlhaloganya</b> ” ( <b>you have to understand</b> ) because we are students here, we don't have money. This person is defensive. If you are defensive, do something about it.  | F | e<br>com |
| 8  | S  | <b>Presenter 2 cont'</b> : Another barrier is the channel. For example if one is using a fax machine; the message might be not be clear. And we also have lack of planning as a barrier to communication.  | R | rep      |
| 9  | L  | Can someone give an example of planning as a barrier to communication? Like right now you are giving presentations; did you plan?  | I | el       |
|    | Ss | Yes  | R | rep      |
|    | L  | If it was not planned; it will be haphazard. Let's give a round of applause to the second presenter.   | F | com<br>d |
| 10 | S  | <b>Presenter 3:</b> Our first barrier was language. There are those people who are literate and those who are illiterate; those who know English and those who do not.<br>Our second one was culture. As we come from different backgrounds, for example, Muslims. The way you dress and the way you grow up at home.  | R | rep      |
|    | L  | Very good.<br>Can I give you an example; Last night, I was having visitors who came over to my house and they are going to be married soon. Clearly, I could see the difference between these two people's backgrounds because the guy talked with food in the mouth. And the lady kept on saying (lecturer uses non-verbal communication). When I went for dessert the woman showed him that it was not good. So, clearly background plays an important role. | F | e<br>com |
| 11 | S  | <b>Presenter 3 cont'</b> : Psychological barriers.   | R | rep      |
|    | L  | Very good.   | F | e        |
| 12 | S  | <b>Presenter 3 cont'</b> : And then we have noise.   | R | rep      |
|    | L  | Okay, Okay.  | F | acc      |

|          |   |   |    |     |
|----------|---|---|----|-----|
| 13       | S | <b>Presenter 3 cont'</b> : And the last one is physical barrier; may be not hearing properly. | R  | rep |
|          | L | Can I call those physiological barriers as opposed to physical barriers.                      | F  | com |
| Boundary | L | Can I request for six minutes of your time. Do you have a class?<br>Over to you. Thank you.   | Fo | ms  |

Table 6.10: Transcript Nine: Analysed Discourse

The visual illustration below (refer to Figure 6.9) is meant to show the main question that built the teaching transaction. Also, from the main question there are some strands of interaction for each teaching exchange. These illustrated the same point that was discussed before moving on to the next one. The length of the strand indicates how classroom interaction was used to explain the same point. The numbers 1 to 13 represent the teaching exchanges in each lesson transaction. The numbering is attached to different students as they shared the points they had discussed early in their groups. Finally, the numbering is attached to both the lecturer's main question, and to different questions where the lecturer probed the students.

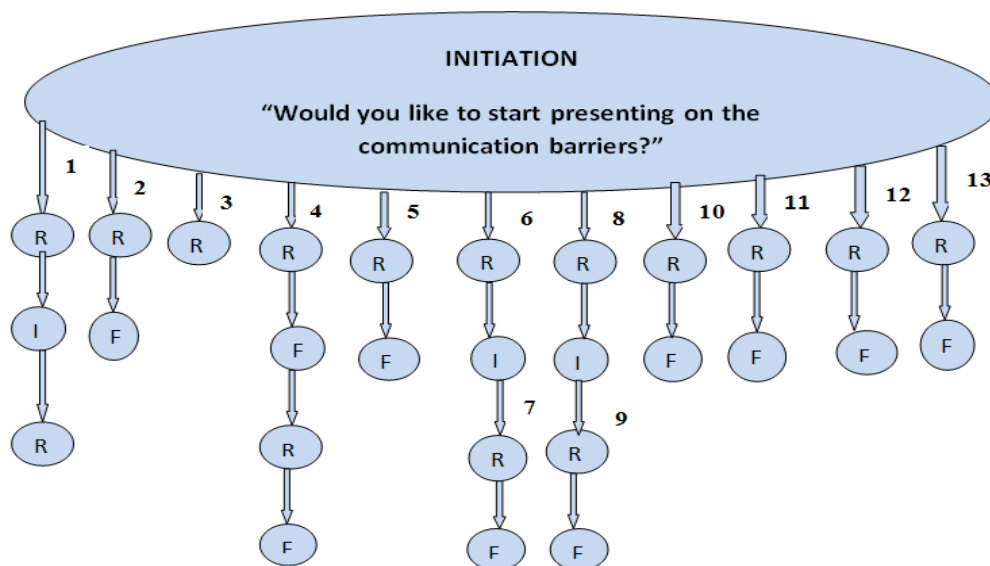


Figure 6.9: Transcript Nine Visual Illustration

The quality of the question within the above illustration is good because the question was open, as it suggested various communication barriers and more so because it followed group

work. The pattern of interaction was varied because the lecturer did not know what the students had discussed in terms of barriers of communication.

Lecturer Star’s lesson excerpt and the visual illustration above show a huge variation in the nature of classroom interaction. This is because the discourse unfolded in a way that included mediation, co-construction of knowledge and scaffolding (Galton, et al., 1999; Gorsky, et al., 2006; Hardman, 2008a; Lantolf & Thorne, 2007; Mercer, 2010) between the lecturer and the students. The co-construction of knowledge and mediation was achieved because the students critically thought of the answers that they provided and shared them with the lecturer. This was evidenced by, the students bringing up various points of views regarding what they had discussed about communication barriers. Examples of this are found in the whole lesson where in almost all the teaching exchanges the students brought up issues that contribute to communication barriers. Even when the lecturer asked for elaboration, they did it with ease. Another indication of the co-construction of knowledge and mediation was that not only did the presenters contribute to the interaction, but also other students who were members of the group made some contributions, as in teaching exchange 4 above. Finally, there was evidence of scaffolding as illustrated in teaching exchange 7. It can be argued that the students were not only required to present the key concepts, but they were helped to show their understanding of the points raised.

Another factor that contributed to the huge variation in the nature of classroom talk was the dialogic interaction (Hall & Walsh, 2002; Mameli & Molinari, 2014; Scott, et al., 2006) that took place during the lesson as can be seen in the transcript above. The students developed each other’s ideas and the lecturer in turn added some information, as in the teaching exchanges below, which are not shown in the lesson transcript above:

|           |          |   |          |            |
|-----------|----------|---|----------|------------|
| <b>21</b> | <b>S</b> | <b><u>Presenter 6:</u></b><br>Most of these have already been presented.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b> |
|           | <b>L</b> | How many of them have been presented?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>  |
|           | <b>S</b> | <b><u>Presenter 6 cont’:</u></b> I think all of them  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b> |
|           | <b>S</b> | There are two points which have not been said.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b> |
|           | <b>L</b> | You are with her?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>  |
|           | <b>S</b> | A tendency to believe that some people are superior.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b> |
|           | <b>L</b> | There is a tendency to believe that some people are superior;<br>like, we Batswana, we French, we Nigerians; judging, looking | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b> |

|    |   |   |   |          |
|----|---|---|---|----------|
|    |   | down upon other cultures; it is a barrier to communication.   |   |          |
| 22 | S | And the other point is stereotyping.  | R | rep      |
|    | L | Like white guys are always the best boyfriends-that is unnecessary generalisation. Like if you say you want to marry a girl from Kanye (one of the villages in Botswana); and your parents say “no” those girls are dangerous- false generalisation. Just because your grandfather was frustrated by a girl from Kanye, it does not mean that all girls from Kanye are bad; now you generalise. | F | com      |
| 23 | S | <b>Presenter 6 cont’:</b> The environment can also be very hot. When it is hot you have fatigue.  | R | rep      |
|    | L | Very good.<br>Like come summer-that is why I changed the class because October it can be very unbearable and you try to teach students it’s unbearable.   | F | e<br>com |

It is also interesting to note that where a dialogic situation was involved, thinking took place. This is because in the above lesson example, the presenter had initially stated that the points she had prepared, had already been presented. However, as the elaboration of the communication barriers continued, the presenter brought up a new point, as indicated in teaching exchange 23 above. A relationship exists between lecturer Star’s lesson and lecturer Pretty’s lesson at 6.3.1. The only difference between the two is that the latter’s lesson showed both co-construction of knowledge and a dialogic aspect, without the groups presenting in front of the class.

As regards, the initiations in lesson transcription 6.3.9 above, Lecturer Star mainly asked the students questions, which were related to communication barriers. It can be claimed that the lecturer used open questions, because the first question that was asked enabled the students to talk a lot more about the aspects that they consider to be communication barriers. The assertion is based on the fact that the question managed to solicit up to 24 exchanges (refer to Appendix 9.5; lesson transcription two).

Another factor that relates to the aforementioned open questions is that there was some probing. An example of this was found in teaching exchange 1. It has been suggested that open-ended questions contribute to extended student answers (Cazden & Beck, 2003). It can

be maintained that open questions are good because they not only extend the interaction, but they also enhance spoken interaction amongst the students.

Likewise, the majority of the students' responses in lecturer Star's lesson transcript were sentences. The said sentences were a combination of one to four sentences in a single response. An example of one sentence can be found in teaching exchange 1, and an example of the latter is found in teaching exchange 6. It can be claimed that if group discussions precede the student-lecturer talk, the students' answers will be more elaborate. There could be a number of factors that come to the fore regarding the aforementioned claim. One of these is that the students had ample time to digest the issue, and to agree or disagree on some points that relate to communication barriers at the collegial level. Another reason could be that the students were able to check with their peers whether or not they were on track. Further, the students could refer to some texts that address the issue under discussion. It is worth pointing out that a similar trend of student responses was found in lecturer Pretty's lesson (refer to transcription 6.3.1 above). The two lecturers (Pretty and Star) used the same procedure, whereby the students discussed a topic amongst themselves before the topic was discussed by the whole class. There is a consensus between previous researchers of classroom interaction that open questions can be used in the class to solicit a linguistic response, which is not known to the teacher (Hardman, et al., 2012; Lynch, 1996; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992). Although group discussions are out of the scope of this study, it can be argued that it is a teaching strategy that acts as a springboard to effective classroom interaction.

As already identified in the kinds of students responses in section 6.2.7, there is a relationship between the degree of interaction of two groups being taught by the same teacher, as observed by Rivkin., et al (2005). This is because in both of the two groups taught by lecturer Star (refer to 6.3.8 and 6.3.9), the majority of her students' answers were elaborated on in a sentence or more. Another point worth mentioning is that for the last two groups analysed herein, the lecturer taught different topics. This might suggest that the nature of interaction could be measured by how the lecturer initiates the classroom interaction and not the topic that is being covered during the lesson.

Further, the nature of feedback provided by lecturer Star in the Faculty of Science was considered. More than half of the feedback offered by the lecturer was in the form of comments. The same manner of executing the feedback was found in her Faculty of Business

lesson transcript. A case of such was found in the following teaching exchanges; 5, 7, 9, 10 and 13. It can be maintained that sometimes as the lecturers give feedback, they build on the students' responses in a variety of ways. This belief is based on the fact that lecturer Star used two prominent ways to provide the students with feedback. One of the ways was by using the conjunction, 'like'. Examples of this are found in teaching exchanges 5 and 7. It is worth pointing out that as she used the word, 'like' at the beginning of her feedback, she was joining the student's response with her comment. Even though it was good for the lecturer to make some comments, this teaching strategy could have been improved by asking the students to explain the points they raised. A similar concern was raised by one of the students in teaching exchange 19, that the lecturer's quality of feedback was a communication barrier.

Secondly, lecturer Star provided feedback by building on the students' responses. Illustrations of this can be found in the following teaching exchanges 9, 10 and 13. This second way of providing feedback was similar to what the other lecturers did as a way of giving feedback. Chin (2006) identifies that there are various ways teachers give feedback in the classroom. From the said varied ways of providing feedback in the classroom, the lecturer must talk minimally in order to add quality to the overall student oral input.

Overall, lecturer Star's quality of classroom interaction was varied because of trying to deviate from the monologic interaction. It has been suggested that classrooms should involve discourse that supports dialogic interaction (Chin, 2006). On a related issue, Cazden and Beck (2003) support the idea that classroom discourse should engage cognitively challenging interaction. It can be maintained that if students are asked to discuss a point or points in their groups, the said teaching strategy contributes positively to the entire student-lecturer interaction.

However, the striking feature about lecturer Star's mode of teaching is that it was conducted as exploratory teaching versus presentational. The lecturer created opportunities for interaction by, ensuring students had the chance to talk. This assertion is based on the fact that the students even talked of own accord, as demonstrated in teaching exchange 21. The relationship between exploratory and presentational talk has been widely investigated by scholars (Alexander, 2008b; Coultas, 2012; Maloof, 2000; Mercer & Dawes, 2008; Rojas-Drummond & Mercer, 2003; Zhang, 2008) and there is consensus that the former is a source of intrinsic motivation and beneficial to interaction, whilst the latter provides few



opportunities for the development of classroom talk. In conclusion, student presentations can create more student-lecturer interaction depending on the teaching approach followed by the lecturer.

Another point worth mentioning regarding the nature of classroom interaction in the above lesson (transcript nine) is the use of lecturer questions, student answers and the lecturer's feedback. There were some aspects of quality questioning used by lecturer Star and examples of these were found in teaching exchanges 1, 2 and 7. In teaching exchange 1, the lecturer used a probing question by asking the students to cite examples of how language can be a barrier to effective communication. A probing question contributes to quality classroom talk, because it encourages students to think, and this also paves the way for a number of elaborate responses from the students. In the example cited, on being probed the students replied in sentences of about six words to two sentences that included some rich detail pertaining to the question asked. An example of this can be found in teaching exchange 4. Further to the quality of interaction in teaching exchange 4, is the length of expanded classroom talk about one of the communication barriers. The type of questioning employed by lecturer Star enabled the students to be more detailed in their responses. This was the case in teaching exchange 3, where the student stated a point, which could be a communication barrier and elaborated on it by giving examples. It is also worth pointing out that the lecturer preferred in elaborate answers rather than ones in point form. This can be seen by the fact that even during the feedback move, the lecturer asked the students to elaborate on their points. Typical examples are evident in teaching exchanges 2 and 4. In an endeavour to sharpen and highlight effective student classroom talk, the lecturer brought to the fore examples that were rich in terms of relevance. This was indicated in teaching exchanges 5, 7 and 10. Although the lecturer's comments in the feedback move were good, some negative aspects were observed in teaching exchanges 9, 11, 12 and 13. These negative aspects have been noted by other scholars as 'missed educational opportunities' (DeWitt & Hohenstein, 2010; English, et al., 2002) because no detailed information was solicited from the students.

In concluding a discussion of the quality of interaction regarding the questions posed by this lecturer, it can be argued that the questions were good open, and discursive, as they raised a number of points from the students. Additionally, even the students who were not presenters managed to contribute to the classroom interaction. The foregoing contributed to quality interaction as the students were able to think and actively contribute to the classroom dialogue. Finally, the whole process led to quality feedback from the lecturer. Even the

typical examples that emanated from the classroom talk were used to sharpen the students' communicative competence.

#### **6.4 Chapter Summary**

This chapter analysed part of the discourse that was used by both the lecturers and the students in order to establish whether there were any variations in terms of the patterns and quality of classroom talk in the CSS classes. The data reveals that factors such as student numbers in class, the faculty, lecturers' academic qualifications and their teaching experience do not significantly contribute to the nature of classroom interaction; instead it is the lecturers' teaching style that does. Pianta, et al., (2008) demonstrate that various teaching strategies can be used to broaden students' oral skills. On the basis of the aforementioned key claim, three degrees of the nature of classroom discourse were identified. One of these, 'better', was found in two lessons taught by lecturer Pretty, and lecturer Star's Faculty of Science (transcripts one and nine respectively). The second rating was 'good' and examples of this were found in the following lecturers lessons: lecturer Star's Faculty of Business class, Glorious' lessons in both the Faculty of Education (transcript six) and faculty of Health Science (transcript seven), and lecturer Princess's lesson (transcript four). Finally, there were instances of the 'not so good' category found amongst the following lecturers: lecturer Queen (transcript two), lecturer Masterpiece (transcript five), and lecturer Victor (transcript three). The aforementioned three discourse patterns were measured by the length of the teaching exchanges; the longer the teaching exchange, the more the students were assisted in developing their oral communicative competence. Secondly, the discourse patterns were measured by the length of the strands; the longer stretches of student-lecturer interaction indicated quality classroom talk. Finally, the categorisation was based on the number of teaching exchanges that emanated from the overarching initiation move. This is because if numerous exchanges were embedded in a teaching exchange, it showed the various students' oral input in the lesson, which ultimately led to the amount of classroom interaction. Generally, all the said three patterns took particular interest in the co-construction of knowledge, mediation, scaffolding and the dialogic situation involved.

Finally, the discourse analysed for all the nine lecturers indicated that the use of the strict IRF pattern is not dominant. This finding is not supported by other research (e.g., Xie, 2010) that teachers at university also rely on the strict IRF pattern. Even though the CSS lecturers

mostly used the said pattern of exchange, there were some significant attempts by lecturers to instil oral communicative skills in the students. Examples of this conclusion can be found in lecturer Pretty's and lecturer Star's Faculty of Science lessons (transcripts one and nine respectively). Generally, all the nine classes observed indicate, varying degrees that the lecturers use open questions.

## CHAPTER 7: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF INTERVIEWS

### 7.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter analysed the discourse of nine of the lessons taught in CSS. This chapter presents the data that was collected from both the lecturers' and the students' semi-structured interviews. As reflected in sections 4.8.3 and 4.10.3, the data were analysed from 7 lecturers, who were interviewed before and after the class visits. Additionally, 12 students were also interviewed after all the class visits. These sets of interviews were designed to find out how the lecturers and the students perceived the effectiveness of classroom interaction in the CSS classes. The interviews helped to address the last two research questions of this study which are indicated below:

From the lecturers' perspective, how successful are classroom interactions in developing students' oral communicative competence?

Examples of the specific questions from the two lecturer interview guides were tabulated as follows:

| <b>SUCCESS OF CLASSROOM INTERACTION IN DEVELOPING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE</b> | <b>LECTURERS' PERSPECTIVE: INITIAL INTERVIEWS</b>   |
|--|---|
| Initiation of classroom talk   | 1. How do you initiate classroom talk?  |
| Student responses  | 2. Are there differences in the amount of learner talk between male and female students?<br>3. Who takes the lead during lectures? The lecturer, the students or both?<br>4. Why do you think the response to question 3 above is as it is?<br>5. How do you manage turn-taking in class?<br>6. When do you ask the students questions? At the beginning, in the middle or at the end?<br>7. Please support your answer |

|                     |  |
|---------------------|--|
| Lecturer feedback   | <p>8. Do you explain some aspects of the lesson?<br/>Which aspects do you normally explain?<br/>What makes you to feel there is the need to stop and explain points as the lesson progresses?</p> <p>9. Are there situations where you repeat the information?<br/>What makes you to repeat the information?<br/>Is repeating the information valuable to the students?<br/>If so, how is it valuable?<br/>Is repeating the information valuable to you as the lecturer<br/>If so, how is it valuable?</p> |
| General perceptions | <p>10. Do you think the students like to interact with one another through pair work/group work or the whole class during CSS lessons?</p> <p>11. Why is it so?</p> <p>12. What do you think ‘interaction’ is?</p>   |

Table 7.1 Examples of Questions Initially Asked the Lecturers

|  |  |
|--|--|
| <b>SUCCESS OF CLASSROOM INTERACTION IN DEVELOPING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE</b> | <b>LECTURERS’ PERSPECTIVE: POST INTERVIEWS</b>   |
| Initiation of classroom talk   | <p>1. You repeated what was discussed in the previous lesson. What made you to repeat this particular aspect of the lesson?</p> <p>2. Who normally takes the lead in class discussions; is it the students or the lecturer? What could be the reasons for this discrepancy?</p>  |
| Student responses  | <p>3. Generally, how was the students’ oral participation? Is this what you expected or not as you went to class? Please explain your answer.</p> <p>4. Have you noticed that there are some students who are reluctant to speak in class?<br/>How do you make them take part in the lesson?<br/>What do you think could be their reasons for not speaking?<br/>Have you identified if aspects like, socioeconomic background contribute to how students speak in class?</p> |

|                     |  |
|---------------------|--|
| Lecturer feedback   | 5. During the lesson, you repeated what the student(s) said. What made you to repeat this particular aspect of the lesson?   |
| General perceptions | 6. As I was observing the lesson, the students were actively involved. What do you think could be a contributing factor to such behaviour? /or the vigour that the students demonstrated? OR<br>As I was observing the lesson, the students were not actively involved. What do you think could be a contributing factor to such behaviour? /or taking time to respond to the question, task assigned? |

Table 7.2 Examples of Post-Observation Questions Asked of the Lecturers

How successful was the classroom interaction in terms of developing students' oral communicative competence from the students' perspective?

Examples of the specific questions from the students' interview guides were tabulated as follows:

| <b>SUCCESS OF CLASSROOM INTERACTION IN DEVELOPING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE</b> | <b>STUDENT PERSPECTIVES:</b>   |
|--|--|
| Initiation of classroom talk   | 1. Are the students eager to talk during CSS lessons?<br>2. Support your answer above.   |
| Student responses  | 3. How do the students respond to questions? This aims to find out if students respond to questions as a whole class or if they raise up their hands and respond individually.<br>4. Explain your answer for question 3 above  |
| Lecturers' feedback  | 5. What kind of feedback does the lecturer give to your questions?   |
| General perception   | 6. How would you describe student-lecturer talk during CSS lessons? Please tell me what normally happens from the beginning to the end of the lesson.<br>7. What is the behaviour of the participants? Do the students and the lecturer show positive attitudes towards the lesson? The indicators are:<br>-Attentiveness, |

|  |  |
|--|--|
|  | -Whether the students carried out the task as assigned by the lecturer |
|--|--|

Table 7.3 Examples of Questions Asked of the Students

To maintain the flow of the presentation in this particular chapter, the interview responses have been divided as follows:

- i) Initiation move during classroom interaction
- ii) Response move during classroom interaction
- iii) Feedback move during classroom interaction

All lecturers and the student interviews result in drawing authentic information, which later in the next chapter, is matched with the results from both the discourse analysis and the systematic observations of the classes. Finally, the whole interpretation process leads to triangulating the data for this study.

## **7.2 Lecturer Perceptions of the Quality of Classroom Interaction in CSS Classes**

This section presents and analyses the information derived from both the lecturers' initial and post-interviews.

### **7.2.1 Lecturer Perceptions of the Quality of Their own Initiations**

The general perception of the lecturers' initiations varied as they raised a number of different ways in which they initiate classroom talk.

In their interviews, when asked about how they initiated the classroom talk in CSS classes, the lecturers thought that they introduced the lesson in various ways, such as recapping on the previous lesson by either asking the students some questions or the lecturer briefly going over the lesson in order to link it with the current one. This suggests that the lecturers view going over the previous lesson, as an important aspect in terms of laying the foundation for the next lesson. On the other hand, some of the lecturers thought that they prefer telling the students a story that is related to the topic of the day. The reason for telling the story as a form of initiation is to break the monotony of always introducing the lesson in the same way. In addition, they stated that the introduction is used to inform the students about the subject matter or the content of the planned lesson. They said that the mode of the presentation varies from topic to topic and according to the class that is being taught. The lecturers gave this latter reason, because in CSS one lecturer can teach four different classes in at most two

faculties. As a result of the circumstances of these class allocations, the lecturers provide the students with information in order to help them complete the course outlines for the various classes. Finally, the lecturers thought that it is their duty to drive learning. This shows that on the whole, the lecturers perceive the quality of their initiations as attached to them as they have to see to it that the students are introduced to various topics of study. In summing up, the different ways in which the lecturers perceived the quality of their own initiations, one of them stated:

**Star:** I can talk at length on the theoretical issues so as to ground the students on the topic. This involves the use of various strategies such as recapping; particularly if there is a direct link between the two lessons. But I think recapping all the time is monotonous and boring. As a result, I sometimes narrate a story.

It can be argued that the lecturers used a variety of ways to initiate quality classroom talk. However, whilst it is good for the lecturers to drive the learning, the provision of too much information can hamper the students' opportunity to talk in the classroom. This is because even though the lecturers are doing it for good reason, the lecturers' recaps and storytelling on the whole contribute to more lecturer talk than the students. On the same note, some scholars have argued that teacher explanations during lessons still dominate some of the classes (e.g., Mroz, et al., 2000).

Further, the lecturers indicated that they initiate classroom talk by asking the students questions. The lecturers' use of questions analysed herein differ from the ones mentioned at the beginning of this subsection, because they are not attached to recapping. The lecturers stated that they pose questions that relate to the new topic. The good thing about this type of questioning is that the lecturers are aware that they have to use open-ended questions. This indicates that the lecturers help the students to expand and clarify their thinking with one another; hence there is a balance in encouraging quality oral participation in the classroom. That is why one of them indicated that they used 'probes' in order to solicit information from the students. The aforementioned point of view is supported by the following two excerpts:

**Star:** I also look at the students' non-verbals and if they say a lot to me I rephrase the question. I do not believe in only receiving answers from the students who have raised their hands; so I probe those who are quiet by asking them, 'what do you think?' This helps all the students to participate.



**Pretty:** Normally I ask the students questions and sometimes the question that I asked can take five minutes because it ends up being a discussion of that particular question. Another student can make a contribution to the same question that I asked and some students can respond to that contribution.

The above perceptions correspond to research into questions and classroom talk (e.g., Abd-Kadir & Hardman, 2007; Chin, 2007; Edwards & Mercer, 2013; Hardman & Williamson, 1998; Morton, 2012; Nystrand & Gamoran, 1990; Waring, 2008; Yu, 2009) that has identified that questioning enables the students to present their views. It can be argued that because the UB students are academically mature, the CSS lecturers preferred to get information from them by probing them to make oral contributions in class. This ultimately encourages participation and extends understanding of the initiated topic. Another point worth mentioning is the good practice of dialogic teaching (Alexander, 2008b) mentioned by lecturer Pretty above. This is because during classroom observations there were glimpses of lecturer-students continued oral contributions. Examples of these were noted during lecturer Pretty's and lecturer Masterpiece's lessons on reading for academic purposes (refer to Appendix 11.2 and 11.14 respectively), and lecturer Glorious' lesson on listening and note taking (refer to Appendix 11.17) as well as her other lesson on academic writing: the writing process (refer to Appendix 11.20). The students made some contributions to the lecturer's initiations which resulted in the students developing their communicative competence; thus making classroom talk effective.

Also, it is interesting to point out that the lecturers are cognisant of the fact that in some cases the students ask questions. It can be argued that the students, not just the lecturers, ask questions and provide explanations. One of the lecturers interviewed observed the importance of student questions in classroom talk, as illustrated in the excerpt below:

**Glorious:** There are times I give the students the leeway to ask questions at any time of the lesson.

Studies such as those conducted by Erlich and Borich (1979), Cornbleth and Korth (1980), Cullen (2002) and Gibbons (2003) have shown that there is need for students to initiate questions during classroom talk. It can be claimed that students, if encouraged to do so by the lecturers, are made aware that the spoken interaction is a two way process; hence their questions are important in the teaching and learning process. Furthermore, the students' questions are an indicator of quality classroom interaction. This is because both parties (the

lecturer and the students) are free to initiate the questions. Examples of the said questions were found in lecturer Glorious' lesson on reading and writing (refer to Appendix 11.16), lecturer Princess's lesson on listening (refer to Appendix 11.25), and lecturer Queen's lesson on paragraphs (refer to Appendix 11.23). However, very little of this actually occurred as indicated in the quantitative analysis chapter (refer to Figure 5.1). It can be concluded that if the students' questions during classroom interaction could be encouraged by the lecturers, that would sharpen the students' ability to think and talk.

## **7.2.2 Lecturers' Perceptions of the Quality of Students' Responses**

When asked about the effectiveness of responses during classroom interaction, the lecturers perceived the students responses in two main ways. One of the lecturers' overall perceptions of student responses was positive and the other one was negative.

### **7.2.2.1 Positive Perceptions**

One of the positive perceptions was that the students' responses could generate a dialogue in the classroom. This implies that the answers provided by the students provoked further questions rather than being used as terminal points. A relationship exists between this point and the one raised earlier on in section 7.2.1 about the quality of initiations. The same lecturer cited below, alluded to the fact that making contributions results in a dialogue. This point is supported by the following excerpt:

**Pretty:** More answers come from the students and the whole process can end up in discussions.

The above extract indicates that the lecturers view students' responses as being 'rigorous and academically productive' (Lefstein & Snell, 2014, p.23). Additionally, it can be claimed that such student responses result in 'supportive dialogic teaching' (Alexander, 2008a; Lefstein & Snell, 2014). As the above lecturer and authors have noted, classroom talk can be student dominated because they exchanged points of view before settling for a conclusion. Looking at the lessons observed there were instances where the students' responses ended up in a discussion. Examples of these are in lecturer Pretty's lesson on reading for academic purposes. The first four teaching exchanges were a discussion of whether Wikipedia is a reliable source (refer to Appendix 11.2). There was also an example of a student response leading to an extended discussion in one of lecturer Star's lessons. The last six teaching

exchanges opened up a dialogue (refer to Appendix 11.5). It can thus be concluded that some of the students' responses led to extended talk over about points raised in class.

Related to the above point, the lecturers thought that the students responded to their questions in two ways. They felt that the students respond individually or in choral form. A possible interpretation of the two ways of talk is that there is a mix in terms of the interaction. There could be a dialogue or a recitation, as indicated in the excerpt below:

**Victor:** They can bid to talk or they can just say out the answer; I am not particular on that aspect. Nevertheless, it is a question of being randomly chosen to talk so that they get engage.

It is interesting to point out that the lecturers indicated that they nominate the students who raise their hands and also those who do not. Two issues come to the fore regarding the said ways of responding in class. This could indicate that those students who raise their hands could have prepared themselves before coming to class. This is because in CSS classes, the students are given the course outlines at the beginning of the semester. Therefore, they could have referred to the course outlines for the topic that would be covered in the next class. On the other hand, the lecturer can just choose students randomly to get responses. Random selection seems to show that the lecturers feel that questions are a key to interaction. That is why they pose various questions to solicit answers in an endeavour to create dialogic classrooms. This way of interacting was found in almost all the classes observed.

Additionally, random selection could be viewed as a form of encouragement because the students always go to class knowing that they have to go and talk. Previous studies have reported that, as a teaching strategy, individual students respond to teachers' questions (Cullen, 2002; Wells, 1993). A relationship exists between practitioners' nomination and the students' individual responses because students can develop their oral communicative competence.

The other way the lecturers perceived the students responses was their use of choral answers in the classroom. Regarding the said aspect, one of the lecturers had this to say:

**Pretty:** If the question is exciting to them, they give choral answers.

From the above lecturer's perception of the students' responses, it is interesting to note that excitement about a question goes together with choral answers. The said observation suggests

that the students are also aware of the importance of their responses and so they all want to contribute at the same time. Also, this seems to suggest that may be students talk, depending on the nature of the question posed. However, the use of the conditional clause, 'If...' in the above comment suggests that the choral responses were minimal as opposed to the individual ones. This claim is based on the fact that all the lecturers interviewed indicated that they nominated the students to talk. Only two of the seven lecturers mentioned the issue of choral responses. Recent literature suggests that individual responses were more than the choral ones encountered at the secondary schools investigated in Syria (Rajab, 2013). On the basis of the aforementioned literature and the lecturers' observations, it can be claimed that choral responses are used less by students in higher learning, because the students are mentally mature enough to identify the appropriate classroom climate and interaction. Also, it can be claimed that the students are aware that they have to address the questions in depth. This suggests that they are aware that they have to move beyond 'yes/no' or simple recall and include some reasoning.

Besides the dialogic responses mentioned above, the lecturers also mentioned that the students mainly prefer to talk in their groups. This can be illustrated by the following extract:

**Queen:** They like to interact with other students; more especially during group work and either than that, the lessons are characterised by silence.

Although most of the lecturers thought that the students are free to talk in their groups, it can be argued that may-be in their groups, the students create a platform from which they can all take turns to talk, because of the minimal numbers in a group versus the whole class. It can also be argued that in their groups, the students believe that their knowledge is equal. Such aforementioned views reflect a general debate about the effectiveness of group work during lessons as discussed by various researchers (e.g., Blatchford et al, 2003; Bonwell & Eison, 1991; Chen, 2014; Chickering, Gamson & Poulsen, 1987; Long & Porter, 1985) who have shown that it is the equal participation of the students in a group that makes the group work successful. Additionally, it can be concluded that group work facilitates classroom interaction because the students are encouraged by their lecturers to participate and share their ideas with one another. However, the focus of this study does not involve a close analysis of student-student talk.

### 7.2.2.2 Negative Perceptions

Having analysed the positive ways in which the lecturers perceive the students responses, the negative perceptions are presented in this sub-section. In arguing why students like to interact in their groups, some of the lecturers felt that it was because they code-switch from English to Setswana. One of the lecturers said:

**Glorious:** The students tend to use a lot of code-switching from English to Setswana.

This suggests that in their groups the students are free to code-switch because in most cases they work on their own. The lecturers are not always part of their group discussions. This point relates to the one raised by the lecturers, that some students feel that they have a weak command of the English language. The issue of code-switching has been debated by scholars such as Arnfast and Jørgensen (2003), Arthur (1996), Elridge (1996), Mokgwathi (2011), Setati (1998), Setati, et al., (2002), Webb and Webb (2008), who have found out that code-switching is done for various reasons, such as briefly to keep the interaction flowing, for the sake of emphasising the point and holding the floor; and the speaker would then go back to the use of the language of instruction. A relationship exists between this interview response and some of the lessons observed, as code-switching was used not only during small group discussions but during whole class teaching. Examples of these were found in lecturer Star's lesson (refer to Appendix 11.7). It is also worth mentioning that it was not only the students who switched from English to Setswana; some of the lecturers also switched, as they commented on the students' responses, as illustrated during lecturer Princess's lesson (refer to Appendix 11.27).

The CSS lecturers observed were further asked why the students are not free to talk during whole class teaching. They had a number of reasons that they advanced, such as the large numbers of students in class, the seating positions in class, being passive, fear of being laughed at, weak command of the English language, and the experiences at the previous secondary schools they attended, such as government secondary schools.

The lecturers interviewed also thought that the classroom interaction was minimal because of large student numbers in class. This is because they thought it is not easy to develop the students' oral communication skills when there are about 50 or 60 students in class. The aforementioned point is illustrated in the following extract:

**Victor:** Some students take the whole semester without saying anything because of the large numbers. If classes were manageable then they would talk.

However, a number of scholars (e.g., Abd-Kadir & Hardman, 2007; Ackers & Hardman, 2001; Cazden, 2001; Cullen, 1998; Jin & Cortazzi, 1998; Kumar, 1992; Tapper, 1996; Trees & Jackson, 2007) argue that it is the quality of interaction that contributes to the success of classroom talk and not the class size. With the different point of views between the lecturers and the literature, it can be argued that the lecturers need to familiarise themselves with factors of best practice and classroom talk. From the classes observed, it can be claimed that it is indeed the quality of interaction that contributes to successful interaction and not the numbers. This is because most of the classes had almost the same numbers of students but interaction differed. An example of this is that lecturer Queen had almost the same number as lecturer Pretty (refer to table 4.1). Another example to support the issue of class numbers and interaction is that lecturer Star's Faculty of Science lesson had more students than lecturer Victor's Faculty of Business, but the former lesson was better than the latter in terms of students' oral contributions.

Another negative factor highlighted by the lecturers, was students being passive during classroom interaction. The lecturers thought that the students were passive and not free to talk in class. This view was captured in the extracts below:

**Star:** The students are not eager to talk and some ended up confessing to me that they are shy and they also have low self-esteem. I promised them a lesson on the Johari window so as to overcome such problems.

**Victor:** Some are reluctant because they think you are putting them on the spot.

**Queen:** The students are not really keen to respond to the questions because you have to dig them to do so. This results in minimal responses.

The above concerns suggest that generally the students' responses during whole class teaching are minimal resulting, in limited classroom talk in CSS classes. These minimal student responses in the classroom have also been noted by other scholars (e.g., Anderson, et al., 2003; Chickering & Ehrmann, 1996; Gorsky, et al., 2006; Hardman, 2008b; Mori, 2002; Hasan, 2006). In the lessons observed, there were instances of students being passive and not free to talk. Examples of such negative responses were noted during lecturer Princess's lesson on listening, teaching exchange 23 (refer to Appendix 11. 25). Even though lecturer

Princess probed the student to say why he maintains eye contact during listening, he responded with negative paralanguage “Mmm” (No) “Ga gona” reason “epe” (there is no other reason) (refer to Appendix 11.25, teaching exchange 23). Another example can be found in lecturer Victor’s lesson (refer to Appendix 11.10, teaching exchange 3), where the students did not explicitly show their intentions to provide responses. It is interesting to note that if the students merely sit in groups without being given the opportunity to talk prior to questions from the lecturer, there is an element of reluctance. The said claim was observed during the latter’s lesson, because the lecturer provided the students with information.

In explaining why the student talk is minimal, some of the lecturers indicated the students’ seating positions. One of the lecturers pointed out that:

**Pretty:** Those who sit at the back are passive.

As indicated in Chapter 1, the typical layout of most of the classes is in rows, where chairs and tables are fixed to the floor (refer to Figure 1.1). It is only in the Faculty of Business that the students sit in groups, because the building used is newly constructed and the chairs are not fixed to the floor. It can be argued that the said students prefer to sit at the back with the hope that the lecturers will only concentrate on talking to those in front. Another reason could be that the students relate sitting in the front with eagerness to talk. Numerous studies have attempted to explain factors that can lead to students being passive (e.g., Liu & Littlewood, 1997; Mroz, Smith & Hardman, 2000; Smith, et al., 2006). The scholars suggest that if teaching follows a ‘lecturing and drilling’ approach, the students will be passive. This implies that if the students are not encouraged to participate, they might be passive; this can lead to limited classroom interaction. This point relates to the following argument raised by a number of scholars (e.g., Abd-Kadir, & Hardman, 2007; Ackers & Hardman, 2001; Cazden, 2001; Cullen, 1998; Jin & Cortazzi, 1998; Kumar, 1992; Tapper, 1996; Trees & Jackson, 2007), that it is the quality of interaction that contributes to the success of classroom talk.

Further, the CSS lecturers believed interaction is minimal because some of the students fear being laughed at. This was captured by one of the lecturers when she said:

**Princess:** Some students do not answer the questions for fear of being laughed at.

The above point suggests that being laughed at when responding, is negative classroom behaviour, as noted by Kyriacou (2001). The said point relates to other forms of affective behaviour discussed at the beginning of this sub-section, when lecturer Star said that the

students are shy and have low self-esteem. It can be claimed that some behaviours can hinder student talk. Although negative behaviours in classrooms were noted by some of the lecturers interviewed, and well as some scholars such as Kyriacou (2001), during the classroom observations students did not laugh at each other's responses. It can be claimed that at higher learning, students respect each other's contributions.

Finally, in justifying the students' minimal responses, some of the lecturers view the use of the English language as a contributing factor. An example of such a view is as follows:

**Star:** Some of the students do not want to answer the lecturers' questions because of low proficient English language.

It can be argued that if one is a second language speaker of English, the aforementioned negative attributes can partly be responsible for the students' curtailed responses. This is because students might not be actively involved to talk. Over the past few decades some scholars have observed the same trend regarding second languages and their contribution to classroom interaction (e.g., Long & Porter, 1985; Tsui, 1996). The language used in the classroom is one of the most important aspects that relate to the success of interaction. This point was identified in some of the classes observed, as some students resorted to code-switching, where the medium of instruction is supposed to be English. It can be argued that where some students feel that they do not know the appropriate English words for concepts, they express themselves in Setswana as a way of driving their point home.

The aforementioned point is related to previous secondary school attended. Some of the lecturers stated that there are variations regarding the secondary schools attended. This can be demonstrated in the excerpts below:

**Star:** The schools that they attended also have an impact on their contributions because those who attended government schools are not confident and eloquent, but I do encourage them that there is no difference between schools, for example; Naledi and Maruapula.

**Queen:** May-be the students from English medium schools are more articulate.

The above comments suggest that the Botswana students who attended private schools are more proficient in the use of English than those who attended government schools. The impact of previous schooling on student participation and learning has also been observed by



several researchers (e.g., Biber, Conrad, Reppen, Byrd, & Helt, 2002; Littlewood, Liu & Yu, 1996; Lucas, Henze & Donato, 1990; Marks, 2000). Although the above point was raised by the lecturers, it can be argued that it really depends on an individual student, because there are more government schools than private ones in Botswana. Additionally in Botswana, English is the medium of instruction from primary school to tertiary education (refer to section 2.6).

### **7.2.3 Lecturer Perceptions of the Quality of Their Own Feedback**

The CSS lecturers viewed the quality of feedback in two ways. Besides their own feedback, they thought that the students also provided some form of feedback during lessons. As a result, this section is divided into two sub-sections of analysis.

#### **7.2.3.1 Lecturer Feedback**

When the lecturers were interviewed about how they perceive the feedback in their classrooms, they thought it is successful, because they sum up issues raised within the lesson. The following excerpt expresses the lecturers' views on the point discussed herein:

**Queen:** I sum up the points raised by the students.

The above point reflects that the lecturers repeat or positively evaluate the students' responses. In repeating, the lecturers believe in emphasising the points that they think are important. Additionally, in repeating, it can be argued that the lecturers merely restate the answers, which were provided by the students. This could practically imply that they agreed that the answer provided by the students was correct. Examples of where repetition was used as a way of emphasising the students' points are found in Appendix 11.23, teaching exchange 22 and Appendix 11.25, teaching exchange 2. On the other hand, the lecturers positively evaluate the students' responses by saying words or phrases such as, 'very good', 'absolutely', 'brilliant', 'beautiful stuff', 'thank you very much'. The aforementioned points are in line with Draper, Cargill and Cutt's (2002) argument that summing up the responses is real feedback to the teacher. This is because if the lecturers do not say something relating to the students answer, they might feel that the teaching exchange is left incomplete, because important information might not be reflected during the students' answer. Further, in case of positive evaluation from the lecturer, this might serve as a form of reinforcement that students' responses are appreciated, this might lead to more student talk. On the other hand,

the students might feel the same because they will not know whether their answers are correct or not. Additionally, the students might think that the lecturers are ignoring them. In conclusion, repetition might be a way of closing down a teaching exchange. However, in the case of positively evaluating the students' responses, this can open interaction because of the positive reinforcement.

Furthermore, the lecturers' views on the quality of the feedback move were that they expand on the students' responses. This can be captured in the excerpt below:

**Victor:** Following the students' responses I present my own observations and normally they are more elaborate.

This results in the lecturers providing more information on the points raised by the students. Just like the repetition analysed above, elaborating on the students' responses could close the interaction because detailed information has been provided. Cullen (2002) and Chin (2006) have reported that lecturers' feedback consists of some remarks after the students' responses. Examples of this way of being elaborate on the points made by the students can be found in Appendix 11.14, teaching exchange 2 and Appendix 11.16, teaching exchange 4. The aforementioned type of feedback can be viewed in two ways. One of the ways is that a lecturer's explanation could be followed by some information that the lecturer finds fit, regarding the point raised by the student. The second way is that explaining the students' responses could lead to more lecturer talk. There is a relationship between the preceding point and what the lecturers said about their perception of the classroom talk during the initiation move (refer to section 7.2.1). The relationship lay in the fact that during the initiation move, lecturers provide information, and in the feedback move they explain the information. It can thus be concluded that the lecturers talk more than the students.

### **7.2.3.2 Student Feedback**

The lecturers' perception of the quality of classroom talk is also related to the students. Some of the lecturers view the students as also being capable of evaluating a teaching exchange. This results in the students explaining their peers' responses. The excerpt that follows captures how some of the lecturers interviewed perceive the success of classroom talk:

**Pretty:** I make some remarks after the students' responses but it really depends, particularly if there was a debate; different perceptions on the issue. Sometimes what the student said will be enough to sum up the issue.

The above observation replaces the mere repetition of answers analysed in section 7.2.3.1, and provides informative diagnostic feedback that the students can debate. This type of feedback implies that the students can build on the classroom talk by exchanging ideas. In recent years, there has been an increasing amount of literature on sharing of information by teachers and students (e.g., Fernández-Cárdenas & Silveyra-De La Garza, 2010; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Hardman, 2008a, 2008c). It is interesting to note that the above scholars share the same sentiments as the CSS lecturers. This is shown by the fact that what is presented in the excerpt above tallies with the aforementioned scholars' views on lecturers and students sharing classroom talk. Additionally, the use of the phrase, '...but it really depends, particularly if there was a debate; different perceptions on the issue...' implies that students in the CSS classes can in some cases provide feedback in the form of a debate. If the lecturer feels that a teaching exchange has been addressed within the debate, then there is no feedback from the lecturer. It is worth mentioning that if all the lecturers could endeavour to develop the students' oral communicative competence, there would be more student talk than the lecturers. During classroom observations, there were instances where the students wanted to share information with the lecturer by engaging in a debate. Examples of these can be found in Appendix 11.17, teaching exchange 32-34. It can thus be concluded that dialogic teaching helps students to have more input in classroom talk.

### **7.3 Student Perceptions of the Quality of Classroom interaction in CSS Classes**

The section that follows presents and analyses the qualitative results from the students' semi-structured interviews. The themes used in analysing student perspectives are similar to those in the previous section.

#### **7.3.1 Students' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Lecturer Initiations**

All the students interviewed felt that the lecturers are the ones who provide them with information during lectures. It results in them recapping on the previous lesson and providing the students with new facts that relate to the topic under discussion. Other studies of teaching and learning (e.g., Abd-Kadir & Hardman, 2007; Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Ruiz-Primo & Furtak, 2007) support the view that the teachers provide students with

information during classroom interaction in order to provide assessment of learning. This is done using all the three methods of assessment such as diagnostic, formative and summative. The aforementioned point was reiterated by one of the students when he said:

**John:** The lecturer starts by recapping on the previous lesson and then gives us the content.

It is interesting to point out that what the students pointed out in their interviews relates with to what the lecturers also said. The said point could indicate that the lecturers are viewed by the students as ‘information providers’.

Additionally, what is raised in the excerpt above occurred during classroom observations. The recapping and unfolding of the new content mentioned was observed in some of the following lessons: lecturer Victor’s lesson (refer to Appendix 11.10; and 11.11), lecturer Masterpiece’s lesson (refer to Appendix 11.13), lecturer Glorious’ lesson (refer to Appendix 11.16, 11.17, 11.19, 11.20), and lecturer Queen’s lesson (refer to Appendix 11.22, 11.24). Providing the students with information could suggest that the lecturers feel that the classroom interaction is a two way process. This assumption is drawn on the fact that just as much as the students should share ideas with the whole class, the lecturers should also provide the foundation, hence initiations. This base will then help the students to think and talk in the right direction. However, providing the students with information might narrow the classroom talk. This is because students are not given the opportunity to talk hence classroom interaction might not be successful.

Also, when the students were interviewed about the success of spoken interaction in their classes they thought that it consisted of the lecturers’ questions. Most importantly, one of the students interviewed thought that the lecturer asks questions throughout, the lesson as reflected in the extract below:

**Jackson:** The lecturer asks us questions at lesson intervals.

Further to the type of questions, the students interviewed felt that they feel proud and confident when asked open questions. They also thought that the said questions are indicators that they are on the right track. Because the lecturers ask open questions, it can thus be deduced that the questions are structured in a way that provokes thoughtful answers from the students. On the other hand, the students felt that closed questions do not maintain order in the class, because in most cases they use choral responses. This implies that closed

questions relate to choral responses, which do not offer the students an opportunity to think and expand on their answers. In reference to the classroom observations, the issue of both open and closed questions throughout the lesson was noticed in all the lessons. An example of an open question was found in lecturer Princess's lesson (refer to Appendix 11.27, teaching exchange 26), whilst an example of a closed question was found in lecturer Victor's lesson (refer to Appendix 11.12, teaching exchange 12). It can thus be concluded that the CSS lecturers use a mixture of questions that either encourage classroom talk and those that close the interaction.

In relation to open questions, it can also be deduced that the posing of questions was the teaching style that the lecturers resorted to, for the reason that the lecturers regard the university students to be academically mature. As a result, they expect the students to research topics beforehand so that they can just facilitate the learning by asking them questions. The issue of teachers or lecturers asking students questions has also been researched by several scholars (e.g., Chin, 2006; Hardman, Smith & Wall, 2003; Mifka-Profozic, 2012; Wells, 1993) who indicate that teachers use various types of questions such as 'uptakes,' where they build on the student's response. Another type of question is 'probes' for more clarification from the same student. In conclusion, it can be claimed that open questions are the best, because they challenge students to think and to come up with elaborate answers.

Finally, in their interviews, when asked about the initiations during their lessons, few students felt that students themselves also ask questions in class. One of the students' views on the point under discussion is presented below:

**George:** Some of the students ask the lecturer questions.

This could suggest that there are instances in which the students stop the lecturer to ask questions. The said view was also evident during the classroom observations. Examples of students asking lecturers questions of their own accord can be found in Appendix 11.2, teaching exchange 9, and Appendix 11.20, teaching exchange 35. Thus, students extended their understanding by asking questions. From another perspective, the students also used their past experiences or prior learning to come up with questions that could solicit more information either from the lecturer or other students. Examples of such were also observed in the classroom observations (refer to Appendix 11.20, teaching exchange 22). Lastly, the students asked questions following an encouragement by the lecturer to do so. This could

facilitate understanding of concepts before moving on. Examples of such were found in the following lessons: Appendix 11.8, teaching exchange 7, and Appendix 11.25, teaching exchange 28. There has been increasing debate amongst some scholars on the issue of students asking questions, as reflected in research by Chin (2006), Cullen (1998), Hall and Walsh (2002), Nassaji and Wells (2000), Thornbury (1996), Wu, (1993). The authors caution that students ask questions for various reasons, such as seeking clarification from the teacher. The foregoing students' perceptions, and the studies above imply that at higher learning, students are aware that students posing questions is part of the development of oral communicative competence.

### **7.3.2 Student Perceptions of the Quality of Their own Responses**

When asked about the effectiveness of their responses during classroom interaction, the students perceived their responses in two main ways. One of the students' overall perceptions of the quality of their responses was positive and the other one was negative.

#### **7.3.2.1 Positive Perceptions**

Similar to the lecturers, the students in their interviews revealed that the discourse norms established were that their responses were both individual and choral in form. In terms of individual student responses, all the students interviewed agreed that they individually responded to the lecturer's questions. Below are some notes that support how the students view their individual responses in the classroom:

**Joshua:** We raise our hands to answer the lecturer's questions because it is more respectful and it shows that we have researched.

The students felt that it was good to answer the lecturers' questions individually because such a response indicates their motivation to participate and to go public with their thinking. This is because, having researched the topic, they were free and confident to share information with the rest of the class. This demonstrates that the lecturers will ensure that all or almost all the students individually take turns in class. This practice has also been observed by, Liu (2008), Maroni, Gnisci and Pontecorvo (2008), Walsh (2003). Supporting evidence for the preceding point was found in some lessons observed. Examples of these were found in the following lessons: lecturer Victor's lesson on information literacy skills (refer to Appendix 11.10, teaching exchange 8) and lecturer Princess's lesson on listening (refer to Appendix

11.27, teaching exchange 21). The lectures encouraged the students to raise their hands if they wanted to participate. Therefore, individual participation can help students to build on their own and each other's contributions.

Furthermore, if the students have done the research, there is a drive and confidence to talk, because they are definite that their answers are correct. Some scholars support the view that there are individual student responses to a teacher's questions during whole class teaching (Candela, 1998; DeWitt & Hohenstein, 2010; Gillies, 2006; Koole, 2010). A relationship exists between the students and the lecturers in the CSS classes regarding individual responses (refer to sub-section 7.2.2.1). However, the students did not mention the issue of being randomly chosen by the lecturers to talk.

On the other hand, some of the students interviewed thought that there were also choral responses. The reason why the students in the CSS classes mentioned choral answers was that they knew the answer(s), as illustrated in the extract below:

**Peter:** Sometimes there is an outburst because of the emotional attachment to the question.

It is interesting to point out, that the lecturers had the same perception (refer to sub-section 7.2.2.1). The lecturers also thought that if the question is exciting the students provide choral answers. From the students' and the lecturers' comments on the issue, both indicate that they are not nominated to say the answers, as is the case with the individual answers. As indicated earlier when analysing the trend of interaction, from the lecturers' point of view, choral responses are minimal. However, the use of the adverb of manner "sometimes", by one of the students interviewed reflects that choral responses are not common phenomena. The use of choral responses in the classroom, has also been discussed by other scholars of classroom interaction (e.g., Hardman, Abd-Kadir, & Smith, 2008; Leinhardt, Weidman & Hammond, 1987; Liu, 2008; Mehan, 1979). These studies state that choral responses are another way that students respond to teacher questions, more especially if the teacher knows the answer.

Even though the aspect of choral responses was raised by only a few of the students interviewed, it is worth mentioning as it shows the other way of responding to the lecturers' questions. Relevant examples of these types of responses were revealed in almost all the CSS lessons observed at the University of Botswana. Also, the students might want to indicate to

the lecturer that the question is easy for them. This view is supported by the above extract, where the student mentioned “emotional attachment”. The other point that links to the idea of emotional attachment is that may-be the students have learnt the topic in other educational systems such as at primary and secondary school.

### 7.3.2.2 Negative Perceptions

Another perception of the students’ responses is that that they were reluctant to talk during CSS lessons. Some students thought that their previous schooling and their weak command of the English language were contributing factors to being reluctant. This negative perception resulted in the same people contributing as captured in the excerpt below:

**Jacob:** I expect more talk in CSS but I do not see that happening. Some students are just passive and I don’t know whether it is a problem of speaking English. This is because some of these guys come from government schools. Those who come from private schools are more proficient in English because the schools are taught by expatriates. It is even scary because within the whole group of students, only a few are actively involved in the classroom talk.

Perhaps at government schools there is some code-switching between English and Setswana, because both the teachers and the students can understand each other. Similar to the view presented above, some scholars (Biber, Conrad, Reppen, Byrd & Helt, 2002; Littlewood, Liu & Yu, 1996; Lucas, Henze & Donato, 1990; Marks, 2000) also claim that previous schooling can contribute negatively to students’ spoken interaction. The scholars further suggest that if the language of instruction is not the students’ first language, there is an element of reluctance to talk in the classroom. The findings from the above extract suggest the following: (i) the students are not given ample time to talk in English despite the fact that it is the medium of instruction. This implies that students should have an upper hand in classroom talk, because they are the ones expected to acquire the oral communication skills; (ii) some lecturers are not strict regarding the use of English, hence the said ‘weak command of the English language’; (iii) it can also be noted that there is an evaluative statement that goes, ‘it is even scary because within the whole group of students, only a few are actively involved in the classroom talk’. It can be argued that the students perceive ‘speaking’ as an important aspect in their future endeavours.



In elaborating on the said lack of English language proficiency, some of the students thought that code-switching during CSS lessons was an indicator of this. Below is one of the student's responses:

**Jackson:** We feel good to answer questions in Setswana because it is our mother language.

It is very likely that the students regard the use of the vernacular (Setswana) during classroom interaction as the norm during instructional procedures. The issue of code-switching has been described as a common phenomenon in African schools (Arthur, 1996; Mokgwathi, 2011; Setati, et al., 2002; Webb & Webb, 2008). These scholars suggest that the contributing factors are that the students are either bilinguals or multi-linguals hence the minimal use of English, more especially on a day-to-day basis. In advising on the possible occurrence of code-switching, the above scholars indicate the dilemma of explaining oneself, because of being bilinguals or multi-linguals.

Another salient feature regarding how the CSS students perceive the quality of classroom talk was that, they stated that sometimes the lecturers responded to their questions. When asked about the responses to classroom interaction, one of the students pointed out:

**Abigail:** The lecturer sometimes gives responses to our questions because learning is a two way process. Alternatively, she asks us to go and research.

This suggests the overuse of responses, which lead to limited student talk. Hall (1997) argues that such turns, like practitioners' responses, establish a common knowledge about the issue under discussion. This is because both lecturers and the students are partners in the teaching and learning process. Examples of where the lecturers responded to the students questions were found in the following lessons: lecturer Pretty's lesson on reading for academic purposes (refer to Appendix 11.2, teaching exchange 14); lecturer Masterpiece's lesson on reading skills (refer to Appendix 11.14, teaching exchange 10) and lecturer Glorious' lesson on academic writing (refer to Appendix 11.20, teaching exchange 26).

In contrast to the lecturers immediately providing the students with responses, the act is 'delayed' for discussion to the next lesson. This approach is reflected in the last point made in the above extract. It is possible that in the next lesson, that is when the students might be asked to share information. This way of interacting could be part of a major oral communication resource (Hall, 1997). Evidence of 'delayed' lecturer responses were found

in the following lessons: lecturer Pretty's lesson on reading for academic purposes (refer to Appendix 11.2, teaching exchange 11 to 12), where the lecturer promised the students to put the information online as a way of answering the student's question. In another example, lecturer Glorious' lesson on academic writing (refer to Appendix 11.20, teaching exchange 22 to 23), the students were asked to go and do research following the student's question. Thus, 'delayed' responses help the students to take the initiative in their own learning, as they are asked to go and do research before the information is discussed in the next class.

### **7.3.3 Students Perceptions of the Quality of Lecturer Feedback**

The CSS students viewed the quality of feedback in two ways. Besides the lecturer feedback, they thought that the students also provided some form of feedback during lessons. As a result, this section is divided into two sub-sections of analysis.

#### **7.3.3.1 Lecturer Feedback**

In reference to lecturer feedback, the students interviewed thought that the lecturers explain some of the points raised by the students from the responses. Some students perceived the explanation as follows:

**Grace:** Details of the lesson are explained to the fullest because the lecturer starts by widely explaining the point and then she narrows it so that we understand. The lecturer also gives us examples.

This results in the lecturers making comments and giving examples in answer to the students' responses. In his study of the feedback move in secondary schools in Tanzania, Cullen (2002) also noted that teachers explain the students' utterances. Cullen (2002, p. 119) further came up with some other functions of the F-move that are related to explanation. The scholar stated that the said move is used to exemplify, expand, justify, provide additional information or evaluate student responses. The mentioned form of feedback could suggest that the lecturer agrees that the student's answer is correct. In relation to the classroom observations, the examples of what the students perceived can be found in lecturer Pretty's lesson on improving note-taking (refer to Appendix 11.1, teaching exchange 3) and lecturer Star's lesson on academic writing style (refer to Appendix 11.6, teaching exchange 2).

Another point of view relating to lecturers feedback is that the students interviewed thought that lecturers also correct students' mistakes. One of the students interviewed pointed out:

**Angela:** If we give wrong answers the lecturer corrects us.

This could indicate that a number of students have attempted to answer the question, but all have provided a wrong answer. Some studies of classroom talk refer to such feedback as 'corrective' feedback (Chin, 2006; Cullen, 2002; Waring, 2008). In the University of Botswana CSS classes, there were instances where the lecturers corrected the students' mistakes during the feedback move. Examples of these were found in the following lessons: lecturer Queen's lesson on paragraphs (refer to Appendix 11.23, teaching exchange 22), and lecturer Star's lesson on communication barriers (refer to Appendix 11.5, teaching exchange 15). In conclusion, the perceptions of lecturer feedback in the manner analysed in this paragraph, replaces the negative feedback on which the students can build. Instead of the lecturer correcting the mistakes, they could allow other students to contribute, and this could lead to successful classroom interaction.

### **7.3.3.2 Student Feedback**

Finally, it is interesting to point out that the students viewed their feedback as an important aspect of the classroom talk. The excerpt below captures what one of the students said:

**Edwin:** We realise that we have to work like an oiled machine; you scratch my back and I scratch yours. We get information from the lecturer and she gets information from us.

The above comment indicates that the students also thought that they have a role in evaluating their oral contributions to the rest of the class. This is because classroom talk is a two-way process, as both the students and the lecturers have to take turns in the exchanging of information. Examples where the students provided information as a way of feedback were found in lecturer Glorious' lesson on the writing process (refer to Appendix 11.20, teaching exchange 23), and lecturer Pretty's lesson on reading for academic purposes (refer to Appendix 11.2, teaching exchange 18 to 19). Although there were glimpses of the students' providing feedback during all the twenty-seven lessons observed, this was very minimal.

## 7.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter investigated both the lecturers' and students' perceptions relating to the effectiveness of classroom interaction in the CSS classes. It was found that both the lecturers and students had mixed views about the quality of classroom interaction. They both felt that there was a need for effective spoken interaction. This is because they both talked about classroom interaction as a two-way process in an endeavour to exchange information in class. Additionally, they both highlighted the role of classroom interaction in teaching and learning oral skills. Interacting in the classroom sharpened the students' skills for interacting in the world of work, on social occasions, and in other lectures at the University. A relationship exists between interaction, the university environment and life after graduating (Hardman, 2008b; Ward & Vega, 2012).

On the other hand, both the lecturers and the students felt that the students were passive. They viewed a range of issues as contributing to the aforementioned. Some of these were the students' seating positions in class, their previous schooling and large class sizes. Finally, both the lecturers and the students thought that the students lacked a strong command of the English language. The students viewed the issue of student passivity as having its causes in other issues such as code-switching between English and Setswana, fear of being laughed at, and being shy. This issue of being passive suggests limited classroom interaction.

## **CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS**

### **8.1 Introduction**

In this chapter, the most significant findings of the three analysis chapters are summarized, and the relationship between the said chapters is shown. Secondly, the purpose of the study and the research questions presented in the Methodology chapter are revisited. The subsequent sections discuss the most significant findings in relation to the research questions of the study in order to derive meaning from the said data analysis. Before providing the answer to each research question, this study endeavours to answer the four sub-questions that relate to the nature of classroom interaction between students and lecturers in CSS classes. All this is done in order to briefly explain “Student-lecturer interaction in CSS classes at the University of Botswana”. This discussion chapter is made up of five sections and these are discussed below.

### **8.2 Purpose of the Study and the Research Questions**

The overall purpose of this study was to examine the quality of student-lecturer interaction in CSS classes at the University of Botswana, so as to establish how effective it is in developing students’ communicative competence. The following research questions drove this particular study:

1. What kinds of interactions occur between the students and lecturers in CSS classes?
  - 1.1 What kinds of questions are asked by the lecturers?
  - 1.2 What kinds of responses do the students provide?
  - 1.3 What kinds of feedback (if any) do the lecturers provide?
  - 1.4 To what degree are the lecturer-student interactions extended?
2. From the lecturers’ perspective, how successful are classroom interactions in developing their students’ oral communicative competence?
  - 2.1 How successful are the questions provided by the lecturers?
  - 2.2 How successful are the responses provided by the students?
  - 2.3 How successful is the feedback (if any) provided by the lecturers?

2.4 How successful is the overall classroom interaction?

3. From the students' perspective, how successful are the classroom interactions in developing their oral communicative competence?

3.1 How successful are the questions provided by the lecturers?

3.2 How successful are the responses provided by the students?

3.3 How successful is the feedback (if any) provided by the lecturers?

3.4 How successful is the overall classroom interaction?

The contribution of the overall purpose is shown below against the research questions of the study.

### **8.3 Research Question One: What kinds of interactions occur between the students and lecturers in CSS classes?**

The above research question is the main question of the study because it can be answered using all three sources of data (the systematic observations, the lesson observations, and the interviews) that make up the matrix for this study.

#### **8.3.1 What Kinds of Initiations are Used by the Lecturers?**

It was found that most of the classroom talk in CSS classes at the University of Botswana, was initiated by the lecturers. This is shown by the fact that they mainly asked the students questions, provided them with information and directed them to carry out tasks in the classroom. Although some lecturers probed for more information, others did not. As a result, this contributed to the lecturers' initiations being approximately one-third (34%) of whole the class teaching (refer to section 5.2.2 and 5.3). Some questions were not varied or effective (e.g., lecturer Queen-refer to section 6.3.2, and lecturer Victor- refer to 6.3.3).

The lecturers' initiations came mainly in the form of open questions as illustrated by their taking up 66% of the whole teaching time (refer to section 5.3.4). This is because the lecturers think of how best to solicit elaborate information from the students. In general, this

was similar to what the lecturers stated during their interviews (refer to section 7.2.1), where lecturer Star and Pretty perceived the need to ask students open questions. The data indicates that the lecturers mostly used open questions, which encouraged the students to be actively involved in the classroom interaction. It can be argued that the lecturers want to develop the students' oral communicative competence.

Further to the students' active involvement in classroom interaction, was the use of uptakes where the lecturer used a student response to add on a subsequent teaching exchange. The students built on each other's oral contributions and this developed a dialogue. Similarly, the lecturers also built on the students' contributions, creating extended classroom interaction. Further to the two observations, the students became actively involved in the interaction (refer to section 5.5.3). The aforementioned speculation relates to Alexander's (2012) suggestion that, "classroom talk 'requires students to think, not just to report someone else's thinking'" (p.3). The findings from this study and from the literature reviewed indicate that uptakes contribute to quality classroom interaction.

From a theoretical perspective, the above-mentioned results support Vygotsky's Socio-cultural Theory, with particular reference to mediation, scaffolding and co-construction of knowledge (refer to section 3.3.2). This is because open questions tend to lend themselves to students' cognitive development, assisting students to talk and share ideas. Also, these findings further support the idea of 'socially shared activities,' because the lecturer and the students exchange information by using language. This idea has been explored by various scholars (e.g., Huong, 2003; Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Thorne, 2004; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Vygotsky, 1978, Wertsch, 1985). Applying some aspects of the theory to the interactions leads to quality classroom talk.

Another point that relates to the kinds of open questions used is linked to its overarching nature. The discourse analysed indicates that the students' responses and the lecturers feedback (where applicable) were embedded within a single initiation move. This is because, out of the entire nine lesson extracts (refer to Figures 6.1 to 6.9) the lecturers always initiated the interaction, which was followed by multiple responses from the students, and where applicable, feedback from the lecturers. Additionally, these findings support both the lecturers' and the students' perception of the I-move. For the lecturers, they stated that they probed the students to participate and that sometimes the question could result in prolonged discussion (refer to section 7.2.1). These views were from lecturer Star and Pretty. With

regard to the same view, the students' perceived open questions as building their confidence and pride (refer to section 7.3.1; below extract from Jackson). The possible explanation for the lecturers' open questions is that the questions are structured in a way that provokes thoughtful answers from the students.

In contrast to open questions dominating classroom talk, the literature shows that classrooms are dominated by closed questions. This is supported by the literature (refer to section 5.3.4), which reveals that there are discrepancies between the two main types of questions. According to the background literature, (e.g., Behnam, 2009; Hardman, Abd-Kadir, Smith & 2008; Saikko, 2007; Seedhouse, 1996; Smith, Hardman & Higgins, 2006), teachers mostly use closed questions and open questions are not frequently used during classroom interaction. The contrast regarding the use of open questions in classrooms could suggest that the CSS lecturers are aware that they have to develop the students' communicative competence. The minimum number of the closed questions in CSS classes make clear why there were only three out of nine lecturers assessed as 'not so good' in terms of the development of quality classroom interaction (refer to section 6.3).

Another point worth mentioning relates to student initiations. These were also observed, comprising 2% of the whole data size (refer to Figure 5.1). At intervals in the lesson, the students would stop the lecturer to ask a question. In addition, the students occasionally offered some information, in case this was not mentioned by the lecturer (refer to section 5.2.2). These results are consistent with other scholars' (e.g., Cazden, 1988; Xie, 2009) findings, that lecturers are moving away from the 'strict IRF' pattern that does not give the students an opportunity to talk and ask questions. Secondly, this indicates that the CSS lecturers attempt to 'set a fertile ground for dialogic discourse to develop' (Netz, 2014). Although these were very, very infrequent it can be pointed out that these glimpses are a step in the right direction as far as developing quality classroom interaction is concerned.

In conclusion, the initiations reflected Vygotsky's co-construction of knowledge, because the results suggest that both the lecturers and the students engaged in 'a joint undertaking of ideas'. This pedagogical aspect has been defined in the background literature (e.g., Galton, et al., 1999; Gorsky, et al., 2006; Mercer, 2010; Ng'ambi & Hardman, 2004) as a mutual activity between students and teachers.



### 8.3.2 What Kinds of Responses do the Students Provide?

From the findings, the most important claim is that the students' responses were of a higher frequency within the whole data size as indicated by 36% (refer to Figure 5.1). This is because in some of the lessons, the students were asked to present their work to the whole class following group discussions (refer to sections 6.3.1. transcript 1, teaching exchange 1, and 6.3.9. transcript 9, teaching exchange 1). This kind of interactional pattern indicates that the students' answers were extended. Their responses involved explanations and justifications. These results relate well with the observation made by Lefstein and Snell, (2014, p. 129) when they stated that, "the idea of changing the physical organisation of the classrooms in order to facilitate classroom talk has been observed as a good way of informing the students that they are engaging on something different that relate to classroom talk and learning in general." Thus, organisations such as group work can help students to engage in more elaborate talk. This finding is further supported by Vygotsky's theoretical position that mediation, co-construction of knowledge, and scaffolding are key features of classroom interaction. This is because the discourse unfolded in such a way that there was thinking, exchanging of ideas between the lecturer and students, where necessary, helping the students to think and talk and ultimately come up with dialogic interaction (Galton, et al., 1999; Gorsky, et al., 2006; Hardman, 2008a; Lantolf & Thorne, 2004; Mercer, 2010).

The students provided two types of responses in the form of individual and choral responses (refer to Figure 5.4). There were more individual responses than choral responses as indicated by the 90% and 6% rates respectively. During most of the CSS classes, the students were expected to answer individually. Kaur (2009) has found that individual responses in the classroom are a characteristic of good teaching practice, because they allow both the educationist and the students to hear what is being said. Adding on to the said good teaching practice, Alexander (2008b) states that all organisational contexts provide opportunities for dialogue, if the potential for carefully thinking about and for the planning of talk is involved. According to Daniels (2001), "in sociocultural theory the emphasis is on semiotic mediation with a particular emphasis on speech" (p.1). Thus, in the classroom, students think before they talk. In the case presented by the three authors above, and the findings of this study, if the students give individual responses, this exemplifies the involvement of thinking before they talk which eventually leads to good teaching practice.

Nevertheless, there were also some choral responses, which were short, as they included ‘yes/no’ responses or cued elicitations. The 6% choral responses could be because some of the lecturers just wanted the students to complete the missing word, or that the question was closed merely requiring a yes/no response. It could also be that the lecturers considered the students’ educational level (pre-primary, primary, secondary or tertiary). However, in some classrooms, students’ choral responses to teachers’ questions were more dominant (e.g., Chafi, et al., 2014; Dalton-Puffer, 2006; Hardman, et al., 2008; Smith, et al., 2005). A relationship exists between the quantitative analysis, and the lecturers’ and students’ perceptions of the students’ responses. To conclude the claim that there were more individual student responses than choral ones suggests that the lecturers felt that questions are a key to interaction.

Another point worth mentioning is that there were some lecturers’ responses, as indicated by 4%. These said responses occurred when the students posed questions. Nonetheless, the students’ questions were not frequent, for two reasons. One of the reasons contributing to the aforementioned amount of lecturer responses were that the lecturers seldom responded to the students’ questions. The second reason contributing to the rarity of lecturer responses might be that it was generally uncommon for the students to initiate a question. The above findings are supported by other researchers (e.g., Boyd & Rubin, 2006; Hardman & Williamson, 1998; Thornbury, 1996) that little classroom discussion is initiated by the students, and only in certain circumstances, so as to allow interchange of ideas. Furthermore, this relates to what some of the students explained during their interviews (refer to section 7.3.1), such as when George stated that they sometimes ask the lecturer questions.

### **8.3.3 What Kinds of Feedback (if any) do the Lecturers Provide?**

Three key features of feedback were found regarding the kind of classroom interaction between the students and the lecturers. The three types were accepting and commenting on the information provided by the students. The third type was none provision of feedback (refer to Figure 5.5). These three are discussed in the paragraphs that follow below.

As indicated by the data, the lecturers also accepted student responses in the form of repeating what student(s) mentioned during their responses. This was in the form of the lecturers accepting the students’ responses, and this teaching strategy comprised 35% of the whole interaction. The above claim is consistent with what some studies of classroom

discourse have observed (e.g., Hellermann, 2003). This scholar has attempted to explain that in accepting, teachers make repetitive feedback moves following student responses. This way of accepting could suggest that sometimes the lecturers acknowledge that they have heard the answer. Another suggestion could be that there was some more information that could make the answer strong and complete. These two suggestions imply that ‘acceptances’ can keep the lines of inquiry closed or open. As a result, accepting the students’ responses can help develop students’ communicative competence or not.

The comments were given, by building more on what had been said by the students, whilst acceptance was demonstrated by repeating the students’ responses. This was in the form of the lecturers’ comments, which made up 32% of the whole interaction (refer to section 5.5.2.2). It can be argued that in cases where the students had missed some point in their answer, the lecturers provided comments to drive home the point that was under discussion. This indicates that the lecturers used informative diagnostic feedback to ensure quality interaction. The same feature was highlighted by both the lecturers and the students (refer to section 7.2.3. and 7.4.1.1) when they indicated that some explanations from the lecturers were elaborate, following students’ responses. Some of the reasons why the lecturers’ comments were amongst the more frequent aspects of the feedback move could be that the students’ responses were brief and sometimes incomplete. As a result, the lecturers made some comments as a way of beefing up the information. The above finding is consistent with what has been noted in various studies (e.g., Howe, 2013; Jones, 2011; Siddiquee & Ikeda, 2013; Waring, 2011). Scholars have noted this kind of feedback during interaction and state that teachers build on the students’ responses by elaborating on the points raised. Some analysts (e.g., Bruner 1985 as cited in Galton, 1995) extends on the foregoing steps by providing the ultimate goal to be achieved by the students, as they report that,

Up to that point, the tutor, in effect, performs the critical function of ‘scaffolding’ the learning tasks to make it possible for the child, in Vygotsky’s words, to internalise external knowledge and convert it to a tool for conscious control (p. 111).

The above quotation links what transpired in CSS classes in terms of comments, with the lecturers assisting the students by providing additional information following the students’ responses.

Based on the above information, it seems that the lecturers' comments were sometimes under-utilised, as generally the students did not expand on the feedback. These findings corroborate existing findings in the literature that there are missed opportunities of opening a dialogue in classrooms (e.g., Groenke, 2010; Mohr & Mohr, 2007; Wells & Arauz, 2006). In conclusion, the kind of feedback in CSS classes comes in the form of the lecturers building on the students' contributions.

However, there were some indicators of quality interaction where the students also had input on the comments. This is because in some cases, the students used an uptake to provide more information to the lecturer. Examples of these are found in lecturer Masterpiece's lesson (refer to Appendix 11.14, teaching exchange 10) in section 5.5.2.2. If the students are given a chance to add on to someone's contribution, (either the lecturer or the students), that can facilitate the development of students' communicative competence.

Another key feature in the findings is that the lecturers did not provide any feedback after the students had responded, as indicated by 18% of the whole teaching time. This was categorised as 'None' (refer to 5.5.1). This suggests that sometimes classroom interaction lends its self to the absence of feedback. In instances where feedback was not given, the teaching exchange would only be an initiation and a response. There are two possible reasons that might lead to the lecturers not providing feedback. One is that sometimes the lecturers want the students to master the information discussed in class. In such cases, this type of teaching will co-occur with closed questions. This finding is supported by Shi (2013) who states that, "however, feedback was not given by the teacher immediately, with an intention to gain a more comprehensive view of students' understanding." (p. 1978). This finding and those of the background literature indicates that the pattern of interaction is aimed at developing the students' communicative competence from varying degree.

Secondly, there are instances where the lecturers do not provide feedback in order to help the students to think and come up with substantiated points. This is because when the students think, the interaction becomes extended. An example of this way of teaching is accompanied by open questions (refer to section 5.3.7; p. 43). The results corroborate the findings of some scholars in this field (e.g., Hall & Walsh, 2002; Siddiquee & Ikeda, 2013) when they stated that, instead of evaluating student responses the teacher follows up on their responses by asking them to illicit deeper thinking, justify or clarify their opinions, or to make connections with their own experiences. As a result, the teacher-directed pattern of interaction enhanced

opportunities for learning. In order to help the students to deepen their reasoning in the classroom, the findings of this research and those of the background literature agree that feedback is not always provided.

#### **8.3.4 To What Degree are the Student-Lecturer Interactions Extended?**

Another important finding was that the quality of classroom interaction varied within three degrees hence reflecting how the classroom interaction was extended. This study found that the lecturers' teaching style mainly indicated the said three variations. The classroom interaction was categorised as 'better', 'good' and not so good (refer to section 6.3). The results of this study explain that some of the lecturers interacted well with the students hence the quality of interaction was better. Examples where the 'good' teaching styles were employed were from lecturer Pretty and lecturer Star's Faculty of Science (transcripts one and nine respectively). This is because they asked the students to discuss a certain topic in their groups before the students shared the information with the rest of the class. Blatchford, et al., (2003) state that in addition to the, "pupils working together as a group or a team," there should be, "a balance of ownership and control of the work shifts toward the pupils themselves" (p. 155). This suggests that when the students work in their groups, they are independent in engaging in prolonged and detailed discussions. What transpired within the 'better' lessons supports what Lefstein and Snell (2014) refer to as 'a good indicator of dialogic content' as the students think and discuss the points before whole class teaching. As a result, the findings have important implications for promoting a 'quality classroom climate' (Alexander, 2008b), as the students tend to talk more than the lecturers.

Additionally, the classroom interaction was 'better' because of the use of uptakes and probes (refer to 5.3.7). These led to deep conceptual understanding of the student- lecturer interactions. This finding, however, seems to conflict with what other scholars suggest regarding the IRF pattern as an analytical tool. From their findings they think that the tool limits students' participation (Ozemir, 2009) because of its rigidity. It can be argued that, if the students are given a chance to contribute, the rigidity can be broken, as students can deal with complex and sophisticated interactional network (Garton, 2012).

The second aspect relating to the lecturers' teaching style and the degree of classroom interaction is the one referred to as 'good'. An attempt to produce quality classroom talk was evident in the CSS lessons. There are several possible explanations for this teaching style, as

reflected in the following lessons: Star's Faculty of Business lesson, Glorious' lessons, both the Faculty of Education (transcript six) and the Health Science (transcript seven), Princess (transcript four). One of the explanations is that these types of lessons were measured by the length of the teaching exchanges and the longer the teaching exchange, the more the students were assisted in developing their oral communicative competence. Another explanation is that, the teaching exchanges were measured by the length of the strands, and the longer stretches of student-lecturer interaction indicated quality classroom talk. Finally, the categorisation was based on the number of the teaching exchanges that emanated from the overarching initiation move (I-move). If numerous teaching exchanges were embedded within the I-move, it showed the students' oral input in the lesson, which ultimately leads to the amount of classroom interaction. Previous studies (e.g., Allwright, 1984) have noted the importance of classroom interaction (the 'good' lesson category) and classroom pedagogy.

The last aspect relating to the lecturers teaching style and indicating the extension of the classroom interaction is referred to as 'not so good'. This shows that the classroom interaction was measured by the absence of lengthy and dialogic teaching exchanges, the absence of numerous strands and the minimal teaching exchanges emanating from the overarching I-move. Examples of these were found in the following two lessons: lecturer Queen's lesson (transcript two), lecturer Masterpiece's lesson (transcript five), and lecturer Victor's lesson (transcript three). In contrast to earlier research findings (e.g., Alexander, 2008b; Bentley, 2010; Suviniitty, 2010), no evidence of 'expected' dialogic teaching was detected in the findings.

Generally, all the said three measures ('better', 'good' and 'not so good') took particular interest in the co-construction of knowledge, mediation, scaffolding and the dialogic situation involved hence supporting Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory (e.g., Huong, 2003; Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Thorne, 2004; 2006; Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1985). The amount at which these important aspects of SCT were used varied amongst the CSS classes. Thus in some classes there was minimal thinking, assistance and exchange of talk.

### **8.3.5 The Overall Nature of Interaction Between the Students and the Lecturers in the CSS classes**

The results of this study indicate that classroom interaction is dominated by the lecturers. This is because the overall lecturers' talk is 62% versus 38% talk by the students. This domination hindered the students' development of communicative competence. The issue of

teacher dominance during classroom talk has also been found in other research (e.g., Arthur & Martin, 2006; Basturkmen, 2003; Hardman, et al, 2008; Hargreaves., et al, 2003; Smith., et al, 2006; Tabulawa, 1998), with teaching and learning being primarily based on information transmission because they are aware of the content.

On the whole, the possible explanation for lecturer domination of the classroom talk is captured in Figure 8.1 below.

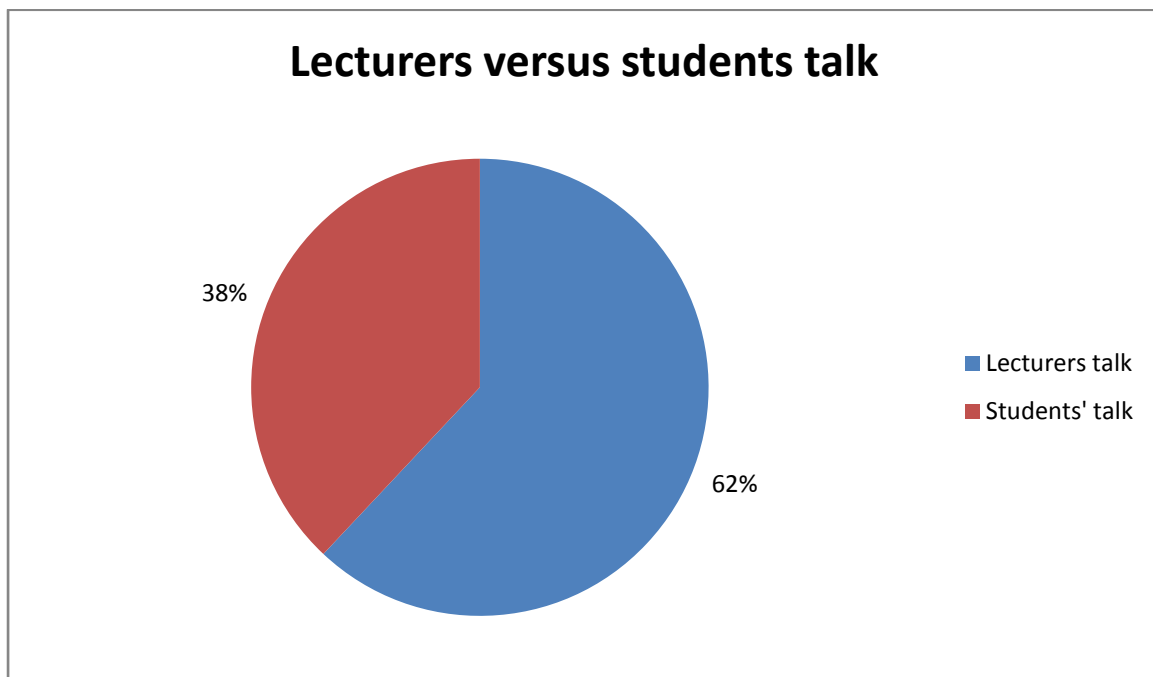


Figure 8.1-Lecturer versus Student Talk

The quality of interaction is skewed towards the students because the lecturers either provide them with information during the initiation move or they make a considerable amount of comments and acceptances (refer to Figure 5. 2 and 5.5) during the feedback move. Furthermore, there is more lecturer talk in CSS classes because of the teaching style employed. The discourse analysed of three of the lecturers was not so good (refer to section 6.3). Finally, both the lecturers and the students felt that the students were passive during classroom interaction (refer to section 7.2.2, as illustrated by lecturers Victor, Star and Queen; section 7.2.3.1, as illustrated by lecturers Queen and Victor; section 7.3.2, and as illustrated by student Jacob; section 7.4). Whilst the results reveal an attempt to show Vygotsky's co-construction of knowledge, where both the lecturers and the students engage in the classroom talk (Galton, et al., 1999; Gorsky, et al., 2006; Mercer, 2010; Ng'ambi &

Hardman, 2004), the results were not very encouraging. This is because as indicated in Figure 8.1, there is still more lecturer talk in CSS classes.

Additionally, lecturers used more open questions than the closed ones. As a result, the students' responses were of a higher frequency within the whole data size, as indicated by 36%. In contrast to the information provided above, the open questions provoked thoughtful answers and encouraged a dialogue. Furthermore, the students provided more individual responses, than choral responses. The lecturers provided feedback that mainly comprised of summing up the lesson and accepting the information provided by the students. This suggests that there was a balance between encouraging participation and extending understanding.

#### **8.4 Research Question Two: From the lecturers' perspective, how successful are the interactions in developing their students' oral communicative competence?**

##### **8.4.1 How Successful are the Questions Provided by the Lecturers?**

The lecturers thought that they introduced the lesson in various ways such as recapping the previous lesson by either asking the students some questions or the lecturers briefly going over the lesson in order to link it with the current one. The lecturers also thought that they initiated classroom talk by asking the students questions. The main reason for the lecturers initiating the classroom talk was that this drives the learning process because the students reason before attempting the questions. This finding supports previous research into this brain area, which links initiations with teacher talk. Some scholars have argued that providing students with information, teacher explanations, asking questions, checking understanding or directing the class to carry out a task during lessons, still dominates some classes (e.g., Cornbleth & Korth, 1980; Mroz, et al., 2000; Nystrand & Gamoran; 1990; Rasku-Puttonen, et al., 2012; Yu; 2009). Similarly, Sinclair and Coulthard (1992) state that the I-move as an informative, "is an act whose function is to pass on ideas, facts, opinions, information and to which an appropriate response is an acknowledgement that one is listening" (p. 9). As lecturers initiate classroom talk, they have the purpose in mind of equipping the students with oral skills.

However, the lecturers in this study pointed out that in some cases the students ask questions because they are aware that spoken interaction is a two way process. This finding corroborates the ideas of Erlich and Borich (1979), Cornbleth and Korth (1980); Cullen (2002) and Gibbons (2003), who have shown that there is need for students to initiate



questions during classroom talk. This finding is also consistent with Thornbury's (1996) position that student contributions identify, "... a healthy distribution of the 'ownership' of classroom discourse, which in turn would tend to promote more 'investment' on the part of the learner..." (p. 282). The students' initiations during classroom talk are important as they develop dialogic teaching.

#### **8.4.2 How Successful are the Responses Provided by the Students?**

The lecturers reported that the students responded to the questions posed. There are several possible explanations for this result. One of these is that the lecturers' overall perception of the students' responses was positive, as the lecturers viewed the students' responses as generating a dialogue in the classroom (refer to section 7.2.2). Previous studies that have noted the importance of generating a dialogue in the classroom, have suggested that the students' responses will be "rigorous and academically productive" (Lefstein & Snell, 2014, p.23). The use of questions helps in good interactions because students have to show their ability to talk. Additionally, it can be claimed that such student responses result in 'supportive dialogic teaching' (Alexander, 2008b; Lefstein & Snell, 2014). This is because classroom talk can be student dominated, because there will be exchanging points of views by the students and the lecturers, before settling for the ultimate conclusion.

Another possible explanation for the students' responses is that they can respond individually or in choral form (refer to section 7.2.2). Most lecturers indicated that they prefer individual responses rather than choral ones, so as to engage in smooth and optimal classroom talk. Previous studies have reported that, as a teaching strategy, students use both individual and choral responses (e.g., Abd-Kadir & Hardman; 2007; Cortazzi, 1998; Cullen, 2002; Ingram & Elliott, 2014; Jin & Pontefract & Hardman, 2005; Molinari, et al., 2013; Rajab, 2013; Wells, 1993). However, other scholars' views regarding the frequency of individual and choral responses, differs. The results of this study are broadly consistent with some earlier scholars' findings (e.g., Cullen, 2002; Rajab, 2013; Wells, 1993) that individual student respond to a teacher's question. On the other hand, the results of this study differ from Abd-Kadir and Hardman's (2007) findings, since there were more choral responses than individual ones in the classes that they observed. These contradictions are evidence that the students' responses differ because of a number of factors. These could be the teaching strategies that are

employed by the teachers, course type (content or skills-based), number of students in a class, or the academic level of the students (pre-primary, primary, secondary or tertiary).

Finally, still based on the students' responses, some of the lecturers believed that they were negative, because their perception was that if the students do not interact with others, more especially during group work, the lessons are characterised by silence (refer to section 7.2.2). Although the lecturers viewed the students' responses in a negative way, it is interesting to point out that there was a positive element attached to this. This is because the findings are consistent with other research, which has found that group work during lessons is effective (e.g., Bonwell & Eison, 1991; Chen, 2014; Chickering, et al., 1987; Kelly & Stafford, 1993; Long & Porter, 1985; Pica & Doughty, 1985). From a theoretical position, the findings support studies (e.g., Huong, 2003; Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Thorne, 2004, 2006; Vygotsky, 1978, Wertsch, 1985) that emphasises the importance of socially shared activities. In a group, the students talk amongst themselves before sharing the information with the whole class.

Another possible interpretation for the negative students' responses was that most of the lecturers felt that the students code-switch from English to Setswana. The issue of code-switching has been debated by scholars such as Arnfast & Jørgensen (2003), Arthur (1996), Mokgwathi (2011), Setati, et al., (2002), Webb & Webb (2008) and has found that code-switching is done for various reasons, such as briefly to keep the interaction flowing (the speaker would then go back to the use of the language of instruction), for the sake of emphasising the point, and to hold the floor. Even though code-switching was viewed by the CSS lecturers as negative, to some extent, just like group work, it is positive because it connects well with mediation and scaffolding. This is because it suggests that the students use it to think of what they want to share with the whole class. Code-switching can thus facilitate classroom talk and student learning, because the students are free to express themselves in the language that they think they are comfortable with.

#### **8.4.3 How Successful is the Feedback (if any) Provided by the Lecturers?**

The findings of this thesis reveal that the lecturers mainly provided feedback because of two explanations. One is that they use feedback to sum up issues raised within the lesson. The aforementioned points are in line with Draper, Cargill and Cutts' (2002) argument that teachers view summing up the responses as real feedback. Secondly, lecturers explain the

students' responses. This study produced results which corroborate the findings of a great deal of previous work in this field (e.g., Cullen, 2002; Chin, 2006; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; 1992) that reports that lecturers' feedback consists of some remarks after the students' responses. The summing up of the lesson and explaining the students' responses might reflect that the lecturers do that in order to close a teaching exchange and to start on a new one. Nonetheless, the above claim does not fit altogether in supporting this argument because some scholars have found out that feedback is not always reflected in classrooms (e.g., Hardman, 2008c, Shi, 2013). This suggests that there could be feedback provided by the lecturers' summing up or explaining on points. Alternatively, there could not be any feedback because the CSS lecturers wanted to achieve quality classroom talk by minimising their talk hence, facilitating students' communicative competence.

Another point worth mentioning is that, the lecturers thought that the students should also provide feedback. This is because they evaluate the responses from other students provided during classroom interaction. Both the lecturers' and the students' views of each other's interaction might focus on interpretations, analyses and explanations of the words and the language used by both the said parties, as noted by Bhatia, et al., (2008) and Cameron (2001). In contrast to earlier findings, however, no evidence of students providing feedback was detected (e.g., Hardman, 2008c, p. 137). This rather contradictory result about the provision of feedback might be due to the world-wide paradigm shift that relates to student-centred rather than teacher-centred pedagogy. This is because there were glimpses of the lecturers' attempt to bring quality classroom interaction. So, in some instances they purposefully reserved their comments and explanations so that the students can pick up the 'missing information.' Hence, allowing the students in the process, to ask questions as indicators of quality classroom talk.

#### **8.4.4 How Successful is the Overall Classroom Interaction?**

I think the overall quality classroom interaction identifies all the questions that were provided by the lecturers, all the kinds of responses provided by the students and the lecturers' feedback. Two ways were identified in this thesis, as reflecting the overall quality of classroom interaction. One way was that the overall quality of classroom interaction was effective. This is because both the lecturers and the students talked about classroom interaction as a two-way process in an endeavour to exchange information in class. Additionally, the role of classroom interaction in teaching and learning oral skills was, that it

sharpened the students' skills in order to be able to interact in the world of work, on social occasions and in other lectures within the university.

The second way was that the students were passive, suggesting limited classroom interaction hence, ineffective classroom interaction. Some of these were the students' seating positions in class, previous schooling and large class sizes. Generally, this thesis identified a number of factors that explain the overall effectiveness of classroom interaction in the CSS classes. One of these is that the lecturers interviewed thought that the students were reluctant to talk for the following three reasons. One was that the lecturers thought that the students were still first years and that the data was collected during the first semester when they are still trying to find their way within university academic life.

Secondly, the lecturers advanced the view that the students' previous schooling was a major factor. Most of them thought that at government schools, where most of the students studied, they relied more on the teacher and so they still expected the same at university. There are two explanations regarding the issue of previous schooling. One is that the process involved the students going to a place that is new to them. The results of the current study are consistent with those of Tsui and Law (2007), when they found out that students go to 'unfamiliar territory.'

Another possible justification, which is positive, is that the students might view the transition as advancement in learning and life in general. The students might use that as a positive motivation to go to university and present themselves as the 'cream of society'. This might result in them interacting with their lecturers during whole class teaching rather than just being silent. This finding supports previous research into this brain area, which links transition from secondary school to university as contributing to the students' cognitive development and making the students rise to a higher level (Tsui & Law, 2007). With the two claims contradicting each other, is a clear indication that previous schooling might or might not affect the general classroom talk. Additionally, Hall and Walsh (2002) demonstrate that the pattern of interaction varies from one geographical context to the other.

Finally, the lecturers viewed large class sizes at the University of Botswana as an explanation for the students' reluctance to talk. They thought that teaching 50 to 60 students for a skills course was not practical. Nevertheless, scholars on classroom interaction (e.g., Abd-Kadir & Hardman, 2007; Ackers & Hardman, 2001; Chin, 2007; Cullen, 1998; Kumar, 1992; Liu, 2008; Tapper, 1996) argue that class size does not deter students from talking, rather it

depends on how the students are engaged in terms of being given ample time to talk. So, this findings suggest that although the lecturers ‘attempt’ to provide quality classroom interaction, there are still some knowledge gaps on how to successfully engage the students to talk.

Also, in explaining why student talk was less than the overall lecturer talk, some of the lecturers indicated the students’ seating position was an issue. They said students who sit at the back are passive. It is difficult to explain this result, however it might be related to the lecturers not asking questions that provoke thoughtful answers and answers provoking further questions (Navaz, 2012). However, if the view offered by Navaz (2012) is taken, then there is no correlation between students’ seating positions and being passive. So, the lecturers need to ask open-ended questions which will enable all the students, including those at the back, to think of the appropriate responses and fully take part in the classroom interaction.

The other significant factor in the overall classroom interaction is that some of the lecturers felt that the students liked to code-switch from English to Setswana because students feel that they do not have a flair for the English language. The use of code-switching by the students whilst working in their groups, could be a ‘wake-up call’ for the lecturers to realise that, “children, we now know, need to talk and experience a rich diet of spoken language, in order to think and learn” (Alexander, 2008b, p.9) is used to develop the quality of classroom talk. This should be done, as mentioned earlier, with the purpose of keeping the interaction flowing in the classroom. Even though code-switching was viewed negatively by some of the lecturers and students, the most important thing is that on the whole, if the students talked, then classroom interaction was a success.

Finally, the lecturers thought that the students want to talk only in their groups. It can be argued that perhaps in groups there is no one who dominates, so the students end up contributing more to the spoken interaction. Blatchford, et al., (2003) state that in addition to the, “pupils working together as a group or a team’, there should be, “a balance of ownership and control of the work shifts toward the pupils themselves” (p. 155). Working in groups explains effectiveness of classroom talk rather than inability to talk. As a result, the students working in groups could be viewed as a teaching style that led to dialogic teaching.

## **8.5 Research Question Three: From the students' perspectives, how successful are the interactions in terms of developing their oral communicative competence?**

### **8.5.1 How Successful are the Questions Provided by the Lecturers?**

Knowing the quality of questions provided by the lecturers is paramount because these on the whole can contribute to quality or ineffective classroom talk. The students' views were that the lecturers are the ones who take the lead in the classroom talk. This is facilitated by the lecturers recapping on the previous lesson, or informing the students of new information that relates to the topic under discussion. The possible explanation for the lecturers initiating classroom talk is that they are the ones who assess the students' learning. Similar to the lecturers, the claims presented fits together, in that as the lecturers control the learning, they also have the power to evaluate the quality of classroom interaction. The findings of the current study are consistent with those of other studies on teaching and learning (e.g., Abd-Kadir, & Hardman, 2007; Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Ruiz-Primo & Furtak, 2007) which have found that teachers provide students with information during classroom interaction in order to provide diagnostic, formative and summative assessment of learning and to aid in the understanding of the interaction amongst both the lecturers and the students (Suviniitty, 2010; Tan, 2007). It can be argued that the CSS lecturers provided some questions as a way of facilitating the students' development of communicative competence.

Furthermore, the students thought that lecturer initiations consisted of questions. This might be because of some functions that questions play. Firstly, lecturers want to help the students to share information with the rest of the class. Secondly, the posing of questions is a teaching style that solicits information from the students. As noted by the students, the lecturers used questions throughout the lesson. Finally, the students viewed the lecturer questions as indicators that they (the students) were on the right track as the lesson progressed. As observed by some scholars (e.g., Chin, 2006; Hardman, Smith & Wall, 2003; Wells, 1993), questions play various roles such as, probes and uptakes. This is because the said types of questions begin a teaching exchange. Lecturers were found, in this thesis, to use two types of questions: closed and open. The latter type of questions, are considered to be 'authentic questions' by Abd-Kadir and Hardman (2007), as they involve probes and uptakes that lead to effective and quality classroom interaction. On the same note, Navaz (2012) describe these preceding questions as provoking thoughtful answers and answers provoking further

questions. As illustrated in Figure 5.3, the CSS lecturers used varied ways of questioning for various reasons and above all to have dialogic classrooms.

However, some students felt that students also asked questions in class. This could suggest that there were instances in which the students stopped the lecturer to ask questions for clarification. This result corroborates similar findings in other studies (e.g., Chin, 2006; Cullen, 1998; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Thornbury, 1996; Wu, 1993). From these findings, other researchers have also observed that students ask the teacher questions for various reasons, such as to seek clarification. This suggests the students' capability to also ask questions and also contribute to the development of their classroom talk.

It is worth mentioning that the information presented by both the lecturers and the students regarding initiating classroom talk, answers the research question because as indicated above, the quality of classroom interaction is addressed by both the lecturers and the students indicating what the practice is, in the CSS classes. The issue of quality classroom talk is commonly referred to in the literature (e.g., Alexander, 2008b; Bentley, 2010; Hargreaves, et al., 2003; Maloof, 2000; Pianta, et al., 2008), where it is also reported that dialogic teaching is the best and a true foundation for learning.

### **8.5.2 How Successful are the Responses Provided by the Students?**

This subsection reviews how the students review their own responses. This is of great importance so that they can shed some light on their responses hence helping in drawing conclusions regarding the quality of classroom interaction in CSS classes.

All the students thought that they responded to the lecturers' questions. These results are consistent with those of other studies (e.g., Coulthard, 1975; Francis & Hunston, 1992; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Torrance & Pryor 1995), in that in most cases the students respond to what the lecturer has initiated. It can be argued that the students' responses are a key aspect of classroom interaction.

Similar to the lecturers, the students observed that their responses were either individual or in choral form. In terms of individual student responses, all the students interviewed agreed that they individually respond to the lecturer's questions. The findings suggest that in most cases the lecturers nominated the students individually to respond to the lecturers' questions.

Additionally, this suggests quality classroom interaction because most of the students have an opportunity to talk. However, the fact that there are also some choral responses suggests that the students' responses are not always successful. This is because the choral responses do not always provide elaborate responses. As a result, it can be argued that these hinder students' development of communicative competence.

### **8.5.3 How Successful is the Feedback (if any) Provided by the Lecturers?**

The feedback provided by the lecturers in CSS classes was a success because it was not always provided, hence, giving the students a chance to talk by asking questions regarding other students responses. So, it is worth mentioning that the students provided some views regarding feedback in the classroom. Like the lecturers, the students indicated that both the lecturers and the students provide feedback in the classroom (refer to sections 7.2.3.1, 7.2.3.2 and 8.4.3). There are two possible explanations for this answer. One is that the students, from a layperson's perspective, believed that the lecturers and the students have equal input into the lesson. To the students, they also have an opportunity to provide feedback. ii) the lecturers always encouraged them to talk throughout the lesson. The findings regarding the lecturers' feedback are challenged by other researchers (e.g., Chin, 2006; Cullen, 2002; Waring, 2008) who noted, that the teacher explains the students' utterances or provides them with, 'corrective' feedback. According to the literature, it is only the teacher who provides feedback and not the students.

### **8.5.4 How Successful is the Overall Classroom Interaction?**

The overall classroom interaction was lecturer dominated because as indicated by the quantitative results (refer to Figure 8.1), the lecturers contributed 62% versus 38% from the students. In relationship to the above finding, the students and the lecturers expressed a similar point of view because they both stated that there is some reluctance by the students to talk. This suggests that the students are not yet forth coming when it comes to them taking the lead in the classroom interaction. As a result, this state of affairs hinders successful classroom interaction. What transpired in CSS classes regarding classroom talk is consistent with what other scholars (e.g., Biber, et al., 2002; Littlewood, et al., 1996; Marks, 2000), have noted that previous schooling can contribute negatively to students' spoken interaction. It can thus be argued that other factors such as previous schooling, contribute to the success of classroom interaction. This is because in Botswana schools, teachers are the ones who



provide the students with information. Hence, there is a carryover of this teaching style by the students, to university and to a skill-based course such as CSS.

Another point contributing to lecturer domination of the classroom interaction was that both the lecturers and the students thought that the students lacked a strong command of the English language. These results are supported by scholars such as Lucas, et al., (1990) who pointed out that the lack of English language can contribute to interaction among students. It can be argued that, lack of adequate grounding on the English language, which is the medium of instruction in Botswana schools, can hinder the students' development of communicative competence. This is because, some students can reserve their oral contributions for fear of appropriate English language use.

The above lack of strong command of the English language explains why the lecturers thought that the students liked to code-switch from English to Setswana. It can be argued that in code-switching, the students can think better and orally express themselves better resulting in more student talk. The issue of code-switching has been described by other scholars (e.g., Arthur, 1996; Mokgwathi, 2011; Setati, et al., 2002; Webb, 2008) as a common phenomenon in African schools. Although code-switching was viewed negatively, the positive aspect of it is that it facilitates students' development of communicative competence.

## **8.6 Chapter Summary**

This chapter discussed student-lecturer interaction in the CSS classes at the University of Botswana. The discussion of the findings revolved around the IRF analytical structure. The key feature throughout the findings was that the lecturers dominate the classroom talk. It is worth pointing out that the lecturers dominated the classroom talk by using, amongst other strategies, open questions. These open questions, in most cases, played an overarching role because they influenced most of the students' subsequent responses.

The second significant finding was that the interaction varied according to three discourse patterns. These were 'better', 'good' and 'not so good'. For the 'better' pattern, the students discussed a topic in their groups, before they shared the information with the rest of the class. This indicated a quality classroom climate because of how the dialogue developed. For the 'good' pattern, classroom talk within a lesson transaction depicted a combination of dialogic

teaching and the strict use of the IRF structure. Finally, the ‘not so good’ pattern of classroom interaction mostly resembled ‘traditional teaching’ within the lesson transaction as this was marked by the use of the ‘strict IRF’ sequence.

The final key finding in the results discussed was that the students were passive, and this affected the success of the classroom talk. There are similarities between the students being passive and the issue of minimal student numbers during classroom talk, as described by Anderson, et al., (2003), Chickering and Ehrmann (1996), Gorsky, et al., (2006), Hardman (2008b). A number of factors were raised as contributing, and some of these were that the students are still first-years coming from a different school environment. A weak command of the English language was also pointed out as contributing to this issue. In relation to the issue of language, was code-switching between English and Setswana.

## **CHAPTER 9: CONCLUSION**

### **9.1 Introduction**

This purpose of this thesis was to examine the quality of student-lecturer interaction in CSS classes at the University of Botswana. This chapter starts by summarising the key answers to the three research questions of the study. Thereafter, the subsequent sub-sections address the contribution of this thesis to the literature on classroom interaction and teaching practice. The limitations of the study are also presented. Finally, recommendations for future research and concluding remarks are presented.

### **9.2 Summary of the Results**

This study has explored the nature of classroom interaction in CSS classes and the success of the same (classroom interaction) from both the lecturers' and the students' perspectives. This thesis has spelled out the nature of classroom interaction in CSS classes, in terms of quality and effectiveness in developing students' communicative competence.

The main findings are that the CSS classes are dominated by the lecturers, as discussed in section 5.2.1 and 8.3.5. A combination of the lecturers' initiations, responses, and their feedback during lessons, contribute to the high percentage of lecturer talk (62%). The reason for lecturer dominance is that the lecturers take most of their time informing the students about the topics under discussion during the initiation move. For most of the lesson, the lecturers pose open questions rather than closed ones to initiate classroom interaction. This suggests that they want to develop the students' oral communicative competence. Further, the lecturers sum up the lesson by way of building more on what has been said, as a form of feedback. These findings are consistent with those in the background literature, as it was found that the teachers still use their knowledge of the content to transmit information to the students (e.g., Cornbleth & Korth, 1980; Mroz, et al., 2000; Nystrand & Gamoran; 1990; Rasku-Puttonen, et al., 2012; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992; Yu; 2009).

Another key parameter from the study, that answers the first research question was that three main patterns of classroom discourse were identified. One of these, was 'better', and was found in two lessons taught by lecturer Pretty and lecturer Star's Faculty of Science lessons. The second rating was 'good' and examples of this were found in the lessons of the following

lecturers: lecturer Star's Faculty of Business lesson, lecturer Glorious' lessons, both the Faculty of Education and the Health Science ones, and lecturer Princess's lesson. Finally, there was the 'not so good' category, which was found in the lessons of the following lecturers: lecturer Queen, lecturer Masterpiece and lecturer Victor. These three different patterns of classroom interaction suggest the students' oral input in the lesson, which ultimately led to the amount of classroom interaction. The 'better' and the 'good' patterns of interaction facilitate students' development of communicative competence by the varying degrees of open questions used by the lecturers. This is because probing questions were used and allowed the students to think critically of the responses. Thus the two aforementioned patterns created room for more elaborate students' responses which facilitated dialogic interaction. On the other hand, the 'not so good' pattern of interaction hindered the students' development of communicative competence by the use of closed questions provided by the lecturers. This is because the said questions did not provide room for critical thinking before the students' responses. This is because there was monologic interaction which provided very few opportunities to explore classroom talk.

On the other hand, in answering the second and the third research questions, both the lecturers and the students viewed the success of classroom interaction from two points of view. One point of view was 'positive,' whilst the other was 'negative'. From the positive point of view, they stated that they were aware that classroom interaction was a two-way process; because they have to exchange information in class. In further substantiating the importance of exchanging ideas, they viewed the strategy as advantageous because it prepares the students to interact in the world of work, on social occasions, and in other lectures at the university.

Nonetheless, reflecting on the negative perspective, both the lecturers and the students thought that the students were passive during classroom interaction. A number of contributing factors were highlighted and mainly these were: students seating positions in the classroom, previous schooling, large class sizes, and the lack of a strong command of the English language. Still commenting on the negative attitude of the students towards classroom talk, some other elements such as code-switching between English and Setswana, fear of being laughed at, and being shy were attached to it. Even though the lecturers stated the above points as contributing to the students being passive during classroom interaction, as suggested by the literature, it can be argued that it is the quality of interaction that contributes to the success of classroom talk and not factors such as the students seating positions in the

classroom, previous schooling, large class sizes, and the lack of a strong command of the English language. Thus these factors coupled with factors of best practice and classroom talk can facilitate students' development of communicative competence.

### **9.3 Contribution of the Study**

#### **9.3.1 Contribution of the Study to the Literature on Classroom Interaction**

This study has made a contribution to the literature regarding student-lecturer interaction in higher learning by addressing some main points. One of these is that it provides knowledge and understanding of the nature and patterns of interactions in university classrooms in the context of Botswana. This addresses current gaps in the literature, in that very little research can be found that deals with student-lecturer talk in higher education in general. Most classroom interaction studies have been in primary schools. Also, very little research has been done in the Botswana context.

Another major contribution is that it offers insights into the influence of such factors as class size, students' previous schooling experiences, and code-switching on the patterns and quality of classroom interaction. For these to be not seen as hindrances to the students' development of classroom talk, they have to be accompanied by the knowledge of best practice such as the use of open questions and group work.

#### **9.3.2 Contribution of the Study to Practice**

This study provides information for Professional Development Trainers (PDT) to develop materials such as course outlines that are suitable for teachers in terms of classroom talk. They train future teachers who are going to be placed in the different institutions in Botswana and internationally. Still on the issue of education and spoken interaction, the international community also has some goals that relate to education and classroom talk. The United Nations, in two of its Millennium Development Goals indicated that sustainable future education must be created and that there should be development of a global partnership (United Nations, 2008). This means that if the PDTs develop materials that are suitable for teachers, lecturers and students, then the international community will also benefit.

This thesis also provides information to the University of Botswana Teaching and Learning Unit (TLU) on how to maximize quality classroom interaction between the students and the

lecturers. Every semester the unit holds workshops for new academic staff members on issues relating to their professional development, which include classroom interaction. Additionally, the academic staff members are the end user as far as classroom interaction is concerned. Thus, the kinds of professional development training that could be offered to raise lecturers' awareness of the critical role of talk in facilitating student language learning and practice are based on the employment of strategies such as group work. This is because when the students work in groups, they come up with a number of responses. In addition, these could be used to facilitate language learning and practice by the lecturers giving the students a chance to orally present their work to the whole class. Finally, the use of open questions could be maximised as these will help the students to critically think and provide more elaborate responses during classroom talk.

The findings of this thesis also add knowledge to the course under investigation, CSS, as it is part of the course mandate to develop the students' oral communicative competence. For both the TLU and the CSSU, this study highlights to the lecturers that it is possible to interact in the classroom with minimal closed questions and maximum open questions. In conclusion, this thesis has illustrated that it is possible for students and lecturers to interact with minimal closed questions in order to achieve quality classroom talk. In addition, there is a need to train the lecturers so that they would be aware of and use effective feedback strategies. The lecturers will be trained such that the feedback they provide, would open a dialogic interaction instead of closing the interaction. An awareness of such types of feedback would be in the form of encouraging uptakes and probing questions as opposed to accepts and comments only.

In addressing national implications that relate to education and classroom interaction, the government has a policy that addresses the educational goal of, "effective preparation of students for life, citizenship and world of work" (Republic of Botswana, 1994, p. 3). This is because the students will interact with ease throughout their lives when communicating with various stakeholders or on social occasions. Additionally, if the students can dominate the classroom talk, the government of Botswana will achieve one of its national pillars, to promote the prosperity of all Batswana. The pillar to be achieved is, "building an educated, informed nation" (Republic of Botswana, 1997, p. 29). The students, who are the future generation of Botswana, will not only 'talk' but will do so embracing the quality and success that they acquired, whilst they were still students.

#### **9.4 Limitations of the Study**

The limitations of this particular study have been divided into two main areas. One of the areas, which is the mostly discussed, regards limitations in data collection, and the other limitations in data analysis.

A serious limitation is that the researcher thought that the classes/lessons would begin immediately on 1 August 2011 as per the University of Botswana Almanac. Unfortunately, this was not the case with CSS classes. During the first four weeks the classes had not stabilised because of administrative issues within the Department. Nevertheless, this time was used to find working space/office and to identify the classes that would be used for this study. On completion of the above, the verbal and written consents were sought before the teaching exercise began.

The discs to record one-hour classes were not found either in York (United Kingdom) or Gaborone (Botswana). This problem was overcome by programming the half-an-hour discs so that they could record a whole fifty-minute lesson. This was done with the help of one of the technicians and the research assistant at the University of Botswana.

I think my presence in the classes was a limitation of the study. More especially, given the fact that I collected data when the students had just arrived at UB from previous schooling or employment (semester one). The new environment and my presence in the classroom might have caused the students to not interact freely. Nevertheless, I tried to overcome this limitation by coming early and sitting at the back of the classroom where possible, so that I could be like one of the students. Additionally, this was overcome by making some visits to the classes before the data collection. The visits were to seek the students' verbal and written consent.

In addition, the use of video and voice recorders could lead to the research constraint of the students not freely participating. This limitation has also been noted by other scholars such as Waring (2009) who cited Mori and Zuengler (2008) as saying, "the more elaborate the recording equipment becomes, the more likely it is for the participants to be influenced by its very existence." I tried to overcome this by encouraging the assistant to come early to class and to set up the equipment at the back of the class, where possible. Even though the students might forget that they are being recorded, it is a limitation that the knowledge of

them being recorded would remain. The lecturers also tried to overcome this limitation by complementing the students, such as by telling them, “I told the researcher that you are a good class and very cooperative.” These good attributes helped the students to be more relaxed and helped overcome or minimise the limitation. Also, when I was asking for verbal consent, I explained as much as possible how their participation in the study was important and that the information collected would be solely for research purposes.

Also, the stimulated recalls were not carried out because of time constraints. The CSS classes started one month later than expected. As a result, making appointments with the lecturers to solicit information about the actual lesson was not possible. This was because this meant playing the video for the whole duration of the lesson and asking questions.

Finally regarding the data analysis area, whilst the study was carried out across all the faculties of UB, the findings cannot be generalised to the whole University. In addition, the findings cannot be generalised to other institutions of higher learning within the country, such as Botswana International University of Science and Technology (BIUST), the Institute of Health Sciences (IHS), Botswana College of Agriculture (BCA), and the Colleges of Education. Although all the aforementioned institutions also offer CSS, the students differ in terms of their academic performance at senior schools.

## **9.5 Recommendations**

### **9.5.1 Suggestions for Teaching Practice**

As already highlighted in section 9.3.2, it is recommended that the CSS lecturers and all the lecturers within UB, be offered some professional training on how to maximize classroom talk amongst the students. This corresponds with what other researchers in East Africa have observed as measures that can change pedagogical practices. Abd-Kadir and Hardman (2013) have demonstrated that,

Helping teacher educators and teachers transform classroom talk from the familiar rote, recitation and exposition to include a wider repertoire of dialogue and discussion in whole class, group-based and one-to-one interactions to improve the quality of instruction will require training in alternative classroom interaction and discourse strategies (p. 88).



The aforementioned professional training could be done at the beginning of every semester so that when the lecturers start teaching, they apply what they gained from the training. The training will be in the form of a workshop where the lecturers will share their experiences of the classroom talk. During the discussion, the experiences will be divided into two; the positive and the negative. The positive are those that develop the students' oral communicative competence while the negative would be those that do not. After exhausting the experiences then concentration will be on the negative ones. Thus this will endeavour to assist the lecturers to start the semester with their teaching practice skills sharpened and hence better classroom interaction.

### **9.5.2 Suggestions for Future Research**

The findings of this study suggest that there be further research in other tertiary institutions of Botswana such as Botswana International University of Science and Technology (BIUST), the Institute of Health Sciences (IHS), Botswana College of Agriculture (BCA), and the Colleges of Education. This is because the aforementioned also offer Communication and Study Skills classes. Further, similar to the University of Botswana, their main entrants are from senior secondary schools, with a few from the in-service sector. Conducting research in other higher learning institutions will expand the knowledge regarding student-lecturer interaction in CSS classes in Botswana. The findings could also be used to inform the national, regional and the international community about classroom interaction in CSS classes.

Other research could be on student-lecturer interaction in CSS classes at the University of Botswana, with particular reference to post-year-one courses. An investigation of post-year-one courses will help to find out if there are any differences in the nature of interaction between the first year students and other undergraduates. As indicated in Chapter 2 of this study, the University of Botswana also offers the same course to undergraduates in their second, third, fourth and fifth years. Some of the courses are “Advanced Communication Skills” and “Introduction to legal language” (refer to Appendix 12).

Finally, there would be research on classroom interaction in different subject disciplines with a sufficiently large data size. This will involve listing the different subject disciplines within UB and sampling those that have student numbers such as one hundred students in a class. This will be done through the Academic Services office that is responsible for keeping all the

students numbers allocated a class. The reason for such a study will help in contributing to the literature regarding the success of classroom interaction and class numbers.

## **9.6 Concluding Remarks**

This thesis has explored the nature of classroom interaction and the views of both the students and the lecturers regarding the effectiveness of classroom talk in the CSS classes at the University of Botswana. The findings will act as an eye-opener regarding how interaction takes place. Furthermore, since this is a pioneering study on classroom interaction at UB, it will act as a referral point for future studies within the Institution and other institutions of higher learning in Botswana.

## **APPENDICES**

### **Appendix 1: Letter requesting for permission**

The University of York  
Department of Education  
York. United Kingdom

14 July 2011

The Director  
Office of Research and Development  
University of Botswana  
Gaborone

Dear Sir

### **PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA**

I am studying as a PhD research student in the Department of Education at the above named institution. I wish to request for permission to collect data for my PhD study within the Communication and Study Skills Unit. My research topic is “Student-lecturer interaction in Communication and Study Skills classes at the University of Botswana”, which is sponsored by the University of Botswana. The study seeks to collect information with specific reference to Discourse.

The time requested for data collection is the whole semester of academic year 2011, that is, August to December. During this time, I wish to observe the first year Communication and

Study Skills lessons three times. The three times are as follows; first week of the semester, mid-semester and three weeks before the end of the semester. I also wish to ask for permission to audio and video record the lecture sessions. Further to observation of lectures, there will be two sets of about 15 minute interviews (initial and follow up).

The exercise will also involve interviewing some students from the observed classes. The students will be selected basing on the responses given, which I think need to be followed up regarding spoken interaction in the classroom. The transcribed data will be made anonymous. I would very much appreciate participation in this research.

Yours faithfully



Golebamang Galegane

N.B: Below are the consent forms for both the lecturers and the students, for your perusal.



UNIVERSITY OF BOTSWANA

Office of the Deputy Vice Chancellor (Academic Affairs)

Office of Research and Development

Corner of Notwane and Mobuto Road, Gaborone, Botswana  
 Pvt Bag 00708 Gaborone, Botswana  
 Tel: [267] 355 2900 Fax: [267] 395 7573  
 E-mail: research@mopipi.ub.bw

Ref: UBR/RES/IRB/1269

27 July 2011

Ms Golebamang Galegane  
 The University of York  
 Department of Education  
 YORK, UNITED KINGDOM

**RE : "PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH WITHIN UB AND EXEMPTION OF RESEARCH PROJECT FROM RESEARCH PERMIT REQUIREMENTS"**

**PROJECT TITLE: "A study of Student-Lecturer Interaction in Communication and Study Skills classes at the University of Botswana".**

I am glad to advise that permission to conduct the above study has been granted. The study has been exempted from the government research permit requirement since the study will be conducted within the confines of UB and is aimed at strengthening teaching and learning within UB. In conducting the study, you are however reminded to ensure that you adhere to the approved protocol as well as internationally accepted ethical standards.

- **APPROVAL NUMBER** :UB/IRB/1269  
The above details should be used on all correspondence concerning this approval and exemption.
- **INVESTIGATORS** :Golebamang Galegane
- **APPROVAL DATE** :27<sup>th</sup> July 2011
- **EXPIRATION DATE** : This approval expires on 26 July 2012.  
After this date, this project may only continue upon renewal. For purposes of renewal, a progress report has to be submitted to ORD. The report should be submitted one month before the expiration date.
- **REPORTING OF SERIOUS PROBLEMS**: All serious problems having to do with safety or wellbeing of participants as well as any serious problems impacting on study quality and progress (whether expected or unexpected) must be reported to ORD within 10 working days.
- **MODIFICATIONS** :Prior approval is required before implementing any significant changes to the Protocol.
- **TERMINATION OF PROJECT** : On termination of this study, a report has to be submitted to ORD.
- **QUESTIONS** : Please contact ORD ext 2911 or e-mail on ndebele.paul@mopipi.ub.bw.
- **Other:**  
You will be expected to obtain informed consent from the lecturers and students. Please ensure that no identifiers will be included in your report. Upon completion, copies of the dissertation shall be availed to CAD, ORD and the UB Library. You may accordingly proceed with your study.

Kind regards.

Dr. Paul Ndebele  
**For Director, Office of Research and Development**

cc Director – CAD  
 Dep Director - CAD

[www.ub.bw](http://www.ub.bw)

### **Appendix 3: Verbal consent for the students-class observations**

Before carrying out the data collection, I sought verbal consent from the students. This was done by accompanying the lecturer to the class and explaining the nature of the research. Their consent will be recorded using the digital audio recorder. This will ensure that they were not forced to take part in the study.

### **Appendix 4: Consent form for both lecturers and students- OBSERVATION**

**THE UNIVERSITY OF YORK**

**DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION**

**UNITED KINGDOM**

#### **CONSENT FORM FOR THE RESEARCH PROJECT**

**Title of the project:** “Student-lecturer interaction in Communication and Study Skills classes at the University of Botswana”.

**Researcher:** Golebamang Galegane

I, \_\_\_\_\_ (please write your name clearly) agree to be **observed** relating to the above study.

I understand that I may stop participation in the **observation** at any time from the study. I understand that my name and that of the group will be changed to protect my identity and that I will not be identified in any thesis, report or presentation which may come from the study.

I understand that the class will be **observed, audio-taped and audio-recorded.**

I agree/do not agree (delete as appropriate) being contacted after the study, regarding future **observation.**

I have been given a copy of this consent form.

I understand what this study involves and agree to participate.

NAME: \_\_\_\_\_

DATE: \_\_\_\_\_

TELEPHONE: \_\_\_\_\_

E-MAIL: \_\_\_\_\_

**Appendix 5: Consent form for both lecturers and students-INTERVIEWS**

**THE UNIVERSITY OF YORK**

**DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION**

**UNITED KINGDOM**

**CONSENT FORM FOR THE RESEARCH PROJECT**

**Title of the project:** “Student-lecturer interaction in Communication and Study Skills classes at the University of Botswana”.

**Researcher:** Golebamang Galegane

I, \_\_\_\_\_ (please write your name clearly) agree to be **interviewed** relating to the above study.

I understand that I may refuse to answer any questions, stop participation in the **interview** at any time from the study. I understand that my name and that of the group will be changed to protect my identity and that I will not be identified in any thesis, report or presentation which may come from the study.

I understand that the **interview** will be **audio-recorded**.

I agree/do not agree (delete as appropriate) being contacted after the study, regarding future **interview**.

I have been given a copy of this consent form.

I understand what this study involves and agree to participate.

NAME: \_\_\_\_\_

DATE: \_\_\_\_\_



TELEPHONE: \_\_\_\_\_

E-MAIL: \_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix 6: University of York –Ethics Form

**THE UNIVERSITY of York**  
**Department of Educational Studies**  
**Ethical Issues Audit Form**

This questionnaire should be completed for each research study that you carry out as part of your degree. You should discuss it fully with your supervisor, who should also sign the completed form

|   |   |
|---|---|
| Surname / family name:                          | GALEGANE  |
| First name / given name                         | GOLERAMANG  |
| Programme:                                      | PhD   |
| Supervisor (of this research study):            | Dr Margaret Hearnden  |
| Topic (or area) of the proposed research study: | A STUDY OF STUDENT-LECTUREE INTERACTION IN COMMUNICATION AND STUDY SKILLS CLASSES IN BOTSWANA |
| Where the research will be conducted:           | BOTSWANA : UNIVERSITY OF BOTSWANA   |
| Methods that will be used to collect data:      | 1) AUDIO RECORDING<br>2) VIDEO RECORDING<br>3) INTERVIEWS -initial and follow up              |

### Data sources

- 1 Does your research involve collecting data from people, e.g. by observing them, or from interviews or questionnaires. YES/NO

Note: The answer to this will normally be 'yes'. It would only be 'no', if the research was entirely based on documentary sources, or secondary data (already collected by someone else). If the answer is 'no', then please go straight to question 12.

### Impact of research on the research subjects

For studies involving interviews, focus group discussions or questionnaires:

- 2 Is the amount of time you are asking research subjects to give reasonable? Is any disruption to their normal routines at an acceptable level? YES/NO

- 3 Are any of the questions to be asked, or areas to be probed, likely to cause anxiety or distress to research subjects? YES/NO

- 4 If the research subjects are under 16 years of age, have you taken steps to ensure that another adult is present during all interviews and focus group discussions, and that questions to be asked are appropriate? YES/NO

THE SUBJECTS ARE ADULTS (university students and lecturers)

For studies involving an intervention (i.e. a change to normal practices made for the purposes of the research):

- 5 Is the extent of the change within the range of changes that teachers would normally be able to make within their own discretion?  YES  NO
- 6 Will the change be fully discussed with those directly involved (teachers, senior school managers, pupils, parents – as appropriate)?  YES  NO

**Informed consent**

- 7 Will steps be taken to inform research subjects in advance about what their participation in the research will involve?  YES  NO
- 8 Will steps be taken to inform research subjects of the purpose of the research?  YES  NO

Note: For some research studies, the data might be seriously distorted by informing research subjects in advance of the purpose of the study. If this is the case (and your answer to question 8 is therefore 'no'), please explain briefly why.

- 9 Will steps be taken to inform research subjects of what will happen to the data they provide (how this will be stored, for how long, who will have access to it, how individuals' identities will be protected during this process)?  YES  NO
- 10 In the case of studies involving interviews or focus groups, will steps be taken to allow research subjects to see and comment on your written record of the event?  
YES/NO THE INTERVIEWS WILL BE RECORDED USING VOICE RECORDERS
- 11 Who will be asked to sign a statement indicating their willingness to participate in this research? Please tick all categories that apply:

| Category                    | Tick if 'yes'                                       |
|-----------------------------|---|
| Adult research subjects     | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>                 |
| Research subjects under 16  | <input type="checkbox"/>                            |
| Teachers                    | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>                 |
| Parents                     | <input type="checkbox"/>                            |
| Headteacher (or equivalent) | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> DEPUTY DIRECTOR |
| Other (please explain)      | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> DIRECTOR        |

**Reporting your research**

- 12 In any reports that you write about your research, will you ensure that the identity of any individual research subject, or the institution which they attend or work for, cannot be deduced by a reader?  YES  NO

If the answer to this is 'no', please explain why:

Signed: G. GALEGANE (signature)

Date: 14 MARCH 2011

Please now give this form to your supervisor to complete the section below.

**NOTE:**

If your plans change as you carry out the research study, you should discuss any changes you make with your supervisor. If the changes are significant, your supervisor may advise you to complete a new 'Ethical issues audit' form.

---

**To be completed by the supervisor of the research study:**

Please  one of the following options.

|                                     |  |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | I believe that this study, as planned, meets normal ethical guidelines   |
| <input type="checkbox"/>            | I am unsure if this study, as planned, meets normal ethical guidelines   |
| <input type="checkbox"/>            | I believe that this study, as planned, does not meet normal ethical guidelines and requires some modification. |

Signed: *MU Hernandez*

Date: *14/3/2011*

## Appendix 7: Systematic Observation Categories

Group name: \_\_\_\_\_ (pseudonym will be used)      Lesson Topic: \_\_\_\_\_

Lecturer's name: \_\_\_\_\_ (pseudonym will be used)

Lecturer's \_\_\_\_\_ gender: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

No. of students: \_\_\_\_\_

No of males: \_\_\_\_\_

Observer: \_\_\_\_\_

No. of females \_\_\_\_\_

Time: \_\_\_\_\_ Minutes

| Behaviour               | Definition   |
|-------------------------|--|
| <b>INITIATION</b>       |  |
| Lecturer Inform (L. In) | Lecturer provides information or explanation                                   |
| Lecturer Question (L.Q) | Lecturer asks a question to elicit an answer                                   |
| Cued Elicitation (C.E)  | Lecturer asks a question for repetition purposes                               |
| Lecturer Check (L.Ch)   | Lecturer checks on 'understanding' e.g. 'do you understand', 'are we together' |
| Lecturer Direct (L.D)   | Lecturer direct the class e.g. 'turn to page 3'                                |
| Student Question (S.Q)  | Student asks a question  |

### RESPONSE

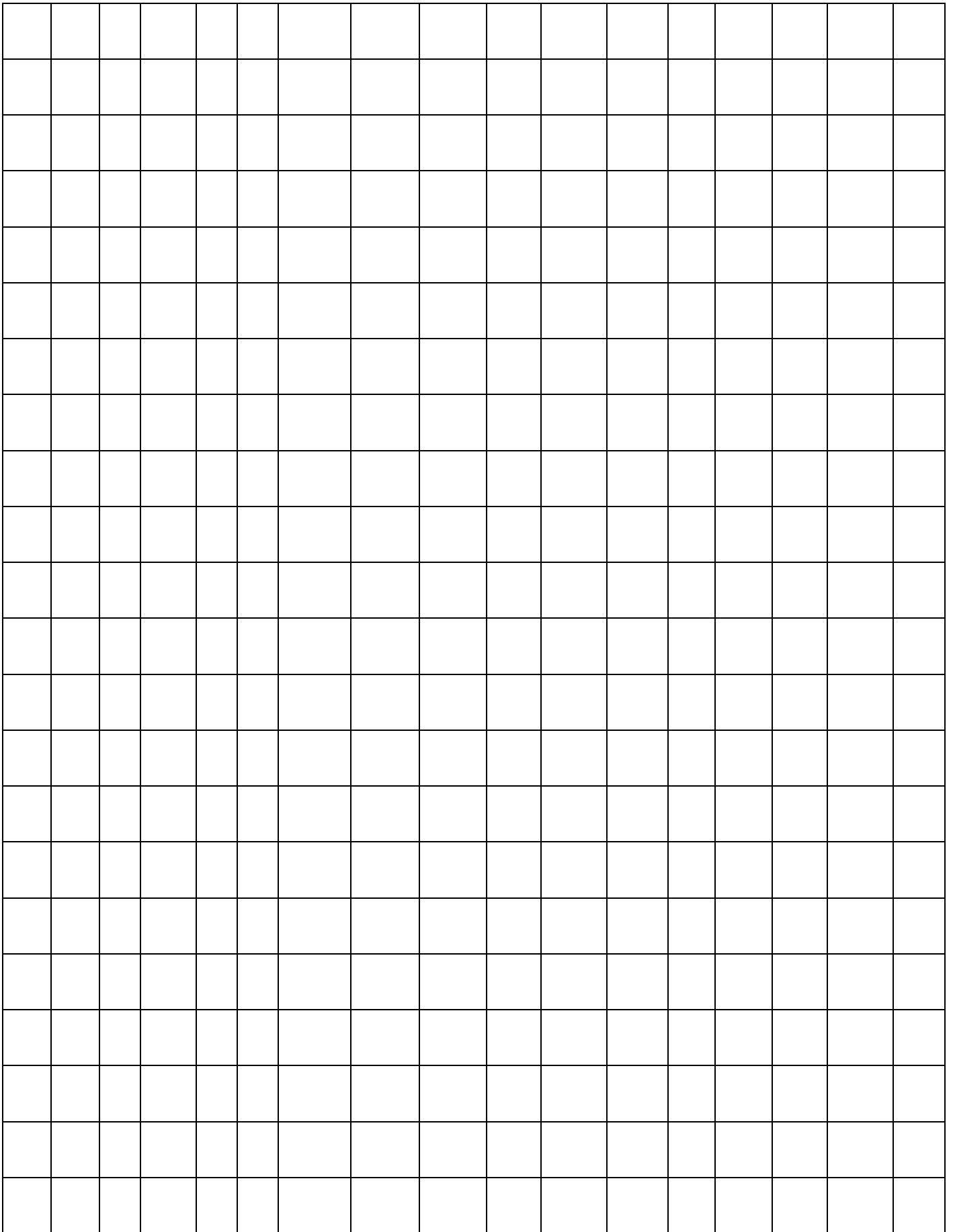
|                |  |
|----------------|--|
| Male student   | Student answering the question is male   |
| Female student | Student answering the question is female |

|                                |  |
|--------------------------------|--|
| Choral                         | Whole class/group of students answer question together |
| Student demonstration (S. Dem) | Student demonstrates answer to the class               |

### FOLLOW UP/FEEDBACK

|                           |  |
|---------------------------|--|
| None                      | Lecturer does not provide any feedback   |
| Accepts answer            | Lecturer simply acknowledges the response is correct (e.g. nods, repeats answer, says 'yes' 'ok' etc)      |
| Praises answer            | Lecturer gives positive feedback by praising answer (e.g. give him/her a clap, well done, good answer etc) |
| Criticises answer         | Lecturer is critical of student's answer (e.g. that's a poor answer)                                       |
| Gives Answer              | Lecturer provides the answer to the question   |
| Asks Other                | Lecturer redirects the question, asking a different pupil or pupils to answer it                           |
| Probes answer             | Lecturer stays with the same student and asks further questions  |
| Comments on answer (Com.) | Lecturer comments and elaborates on answer   |







## Appendix 8: Interview Guide for lecturers (Initial)

1. How do you initiate classroom talk?
2. Are there differences in the amount of learner talk between male and female students?
3. Who takes the lead during lectures? The lecturer, the students or both.

The lecturer can take the lead if

- he/she is under pressure to complete the lesson.
  - the students ignore him/her
  - students do not like the topic
  - students are tired
4. Why do you think the response for number 5 above is as it is?
  5. How do you manage turn-taking in class?
  6. When do you ask the students questions? At the beginning, in the middle or at the end?
  7. Please support your answer
  8. Do you explain some aspects of the lesson?
    - Which aspects do you normally explain?
    - What makes you to feel there is the need to stop and explain points as the lesson progresses?
  9. Are there situations where you repeat the information?
    - What makes you to repeat the information?
    - Is repeating the information valuable to the students?
    - If so, how is it valuable?
    - Is repeating the information valuable to you as the lecturer
    - If so, how is it valuable?
  10. Do you think the students like to interact with one another through pair work/group work or whole class during CSS lessons?
  11. Why is it so?
  12. What do you think 'interaction' is?

## **Appendix 9: Interview Guide for lecturers (Post)**

**The questions for this instrument will emanate from what I will have observed during the lesson. They will revolve around the study's research questions.**

- 1) As I was observing the lesson, the students were actively involved. What do you think could be a contributing factor to such behavior? /or the vigour that the students demonstrated? OR  
As I was observing the lesson, the students were not actively involved. What do you think could be a contributing factor to such behavior? /or taking time to respond to the question, task assigned?
- 2) You repeated what was discussed in the previous lesson. What made you to repeat this particular aspect of the lesson?
- 3) Who normally takes the lead in class discussions; are they the students or the lecturer? What could be the reasons for this discrepancy?
- 4) Generally, how was the students' oral participation? Is this what you expected or not as you went to class? Please explain your answer.
- 5) Have you noticed that there are some students who are reluctant to speak in class?
  - How do you make them to take part in the lesson?
  - What do you think could be their reasons of not speaking?
  - Have you identified if aspects like, the socioeconomic background, contribute to how the students speak in class?
- 6) During the lesson, you repeated what the student(s) has said. What made you to repeat this particular aspect of the lesson?

**Analysis: The transcribing, and coding system was used to come up with relevant themes.**

## **Appendix 10: Interview Guide for students**

- 1) Are the students eager to talk during CSS lessons?
- 2) Support your answer above.
- 3) How do the students respond to questions? This aims to find out if students respond to questions as a whole class or they raise up their hands and respond individually.
- 4) Explain your answer for number 3 above
- 5) What kind of feedback does the lecturer give to your questions?
- 6) How can you describe student – lecturer talk during CSS lessons. Please tell me what normally happens from the beginning to the end of the lesson.
- 7) What is the behavior of the participants? -Do the students and the lecturer show positive attitudes towards the lesson? The indicators are;-
  - attentiveness,
  - whether the students carried out the task as assigned by the lecturer

**Analysis: The transcribing, and coding system was used to come up with relevant themes.**

**The data collected will help in triangulating the findings. This will make my findings to be richer as compared to using only one mode of data collection.**

## Appendix 11: All the twenty-seven observed lessons

**N.B (a)** The same lecturer letter names used in Chapter 5 have been used in Chapter 6 for the sake of consistency.

**(b)** Where code-switching has been used the information has been translated to English. The English translation is shown by the use of brackets and also bolded while the Setswana code is in bolded and written within speech marks.

### 11.1 Lesson transcription one

**Faculty: Science**

**Lecturer A: Pretty**

**Topic: Improving note-taking**

| Exchanges  | Participant | Classroom talk  | Moves | Acts                |
|------------|-------------|---|-------|---------------------|
| Boundary   | L           | Anyway, on Tuesday we went for the Web CT orientation. Let me see who attended the orientation. Let me see what you did.  | Fr    | m                   |
|            |             | Can I see your work; how far you are? There was an exercise you had to do. Can I see that assignment and see how far you have done as the starting point?<br>Now, we move on to Improving your note taking techniques. So, can I see that assignment and see how far you have gone with that.   |       |                     |
| Teaching 1 | L           | So, let me see what you have done as the starting point. Okay. Some people did attend the exercise. “Lona” (You) don’t have the hand out. I can see different ways of taking notes.<br>So, we are on improving your note taking techniques and we will come back to that activity later on.<br>I have some hand-outs that I want you to quickly read through in five minutes. And then we are going to discuss what you see and understand about note taking; Alright. So, read through those hand-outs quickly; in five minutes. I am particularly interested in the layout of those notes, so don’t concentrate on the content. | I     | s<br><br>i<br><br>d |
|            |             | Ss  |       |                     |
| 2          | L           | What can you pick from those sets of notes? What can you pick from those set of notes? What do you think about those notes in terms of understanding; in terms of remembering, the layout and so forth? What can you say about those notes that you have been looking at?   | I     | el                  |
| 3          | L           | You don’t see anything that you can talk about?<br>Let’s talk about the layout.<br>What do you want to say?   | R/I   | el<br>cl<br>n/el    |
|            | S           | The handwriting is better than mine.  |       |                     |
|            | L           | The hand writing is better than yours.<br>Of course it’s typed. Most of it is typed. The handwriting is better than yours. So, it will be easy to use them for revision because of the hand writing. He says the hand writing is better than his. Even if you were to use those notes for revision it will be easy to use.  | F     | acc<br>com          |
| 4          | L           | Anything else? What makes them different? What makes them outstanding? Are they easy to remember?   | I     | el                  |

|           |          |  |            |                    |
|-----------|----------|--|------------|--------------------|
|           |          | <b>“Ee rra” (Yes sir)</b>  |            | <b>n</b>           |
|           | <b>S</b> | The layout of the patterned notes is attractive.   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | He is talking about the patterned notes.<br>He says the layout is attractive.  | <b>F</b>   | <b>com<br/>acc</b> |
| <b>5</b>  | <b>L</b> | Anything else? What is attractive; what does it mean? What else do you see?<br><b>“Ee rra” (Yes sir)</b>   | <b>I</b>   | <b>el<br/>n</b>    |
|           | <b>S</b> | The layout makes it easy; much easier to understand the notes.   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | The layout makes it easy to understand them.   | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc</b>         |
| <b>6</b>  | <b>L</b> | <b>“Ee rra” (Yes sir)</b>  | <b>I</b>   | <b>n</b>           |
|           | <b>S</b> | I think the layout makes it much more easier to remember as they are all in one page.  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | When you are making your own notes you are actually condensing all those and making them into one page. So it makes it easy to remember them.  | <b>F</b>   | <b>com</b>         |
| <b>7</b>  | <b>L</b> | What else?   | <b>I</b>   | <b>el</b>          |
|           | <b>S</b> | I personally think they are a mess.  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | She thinks they are a mess.  | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc</b>         |
| <b>8</b>  | <b>L</b> | Normally notes are individual work. Let’s introduce another idea of structured notes.<br>How many points can you identify? Why take notes? How many points can you identify? Just glance through that; how many points are there?  | <b>I</b>   | <b>i<br/>el</b>    |
|           | <b>S</b> | Five   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | There are five points and it is easy for you to pick those five points. <b>Isn’t it?</b> Notes are individual work.<br>So, this is what we call structured notes. This is an example of an outline. And the structured they are, the better.   | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |
| <b>9</b>  | <b>L</b> | What makes it easy to pick up those five points? We have what? The sub points about each of those particular points. This is what we call an outline. So, what things can you pick up from those notes? So, what can you pick up from the outline? What makes it easy for you to pick those five points, for instance? What makes it easy for you to pick those five points, for instance?<br><b>“Ee rra” (Yes sir)</b>  | <b>I</b>   | <b>el<br/>n</b>    |
|           | <b>S</b> | There is some numbering.   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | There is some numbering; numbering.<br>And they are numbered A.B.C.D and E and what does it stand for? The main point; <b>isn’t it?</b> So we can see that the main points have been numbered; A. B. C. D and E. And underneath there are some sub points. You have to number your notes and that is one feature of structured notes. You have to be consistent in how you number your points. The numbering will show the different levels of information. So, it is some sort of a hierarchy; it shows how the information is organized. What are the main points? So numbering is one of the things you pick up from those notes. | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |
| <b>10</b> | <b>L</b> | What else can you pick up from those notes?  | <b>I</b>   | <b>el</b>          |
| <b>11</b> | <b>L</b> | Let us have more people contributing.<br>What else can you pick up from those notes?   | <b>R/I</b> | <b>cu<br/>el</b>   |
|           | <b>S</b> | The main points are highlighted.   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | The main points are highlighted.<br>So that they stand out as the main points. So even if I have two seconds to read through that; I can pick up the main point, <b>Isn’t</b>  | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |

|    |    |   |   |   |
|----|----|---|---|---|
|    |    | <b>it?</b> So you simplify the notes as you use them for revision; they become effective; they work for you. So, they are highlighted, they are bolded.   |   |   |
| 12 | L  | What else is there? What else can you pick up from those notes? There is also underlining; <b>Isn't it?</b> There is also underlining. Bold, underlining. We also have what is called Indentation; Indenting. What do you understand by indenting when you are writing?<br><b>"Ee rra" (Yes sir)</b>  | I | el<br><br>n                                   |
|    | S  | You write from the margin.  | R | rep   |
|    | L  | You write from the margin and that will also show the level of information; the main points and the less important points. If you look at the example of this text; can you see that example? You see the main points are numbered 1, 2, and 3. So let us take one example of A. What are those sub points there? So you skim first. A, B, C You indent first. <b>"Akere?" (Isn't it?)</b> What is the other sub point there? You can have other points that fall under this sub point. So you see there is some hierarchy; there is the main point, the sub point and another level and so forth. So the outline will distinguish the points in your notes. You should also have a heading for your notes. | F | acc<br>com                                    |
| 13 | L  | What about the date? Do you put the date when you write notes?  | I | el  |
|    | Ss | No/Yes.   | R | rep   |
|    | L  | Some say "No" some say "Yes".<br>The date can be useful so that you remember when you wrote down your notes.  | F | acc<br>com                                    |
| 14 | L  | Later on we are going to talk about taking notes from your reading. As you read, noting your sources as part of the note making. You can actually put a structure to your notes as well. Why is it important to note the source as you are taking down notes?   | I | s<br><br>el                                   |
|    | S  | As part of reference; it is easier.   | R | rep   |
|    | L  | So, you can say, 'these are useful, where did I take these notes from?' But if you have your reference you can say; 'Oh, I remember that book'. <b>Isn't it?</b> So, it's advisable to note the source. You can actually put a structure to your notes or an outline. So these are some of the techniques that you can use to improve your note taking skills either than what we talked about;   | F | com   |
| 15 | L  | So going back to that activity that I gave you on Tuesday to do; what you were supposed to have done, and I can see a few people have actually done that. So I would like us to go back to that exercise.<br>How many of you have the hand-out? Did you print it those who accessed it?<br>Can you share with others because I didn't bring a lot because I expected people to have printed.<br><b>"Le na le yone? Gona le babangwe gape baba e batang?" (do you have the handout? Do any of you need the hand-out?)</b><br>So, what I want you to do, is to read those notes and put some structure on them.   | I | s<br><br>el/ch<br><br>d<br><br>el/ch<br><br>d |
|    | Ss | GROUP DISCUSSION  |   |   |
| 16 | L  | I don't think we are going to finish because of time.<br>But let us just stop here and talk about it.   | I | e<br>d  |

|          |   |   |    |            |
|----------|---|---|----|------------|
|          |   | What do you think? Was it easy? Is it difficult to structure the notes?   |    | el         |
|          | S | It was challenging.   | R  | rep        |
|          | L | It was challenging;<br>may be because you have already started working on somebody's notes.<br>That was to help you get the idea of structured notes. If you write them in continuous notes when you do want to revise you do not have time to do that. I can see some people are highlighting important ideas and so on. These are some of the ideas that you can use; even when you are reading. That is what you normally do in your textbooks. So, what I am going to do is that, I will put the original text online so that you can look at it and see whether you can take notes from the original text and get some structure. And I will also put another note-making exercise online. | F  | acc<br>com |
| Boundary | L | If you look at the course outline, there is a test that has to be done at some point. So, you can use whatever time you have to prepare for the test that will be graded. If you need any consultation in my office do so because I am thinking that next week Thursday it will be an ideal time for us to do some exercise which I will grade in class. This is in preparation for next Thursday when we do the task on note taking. I was thinking that next week Thursday is an ideal time to do an exercise which I will grade. Remember, Friday we have a tutorial. Alright. Okay.   | Fo | ms         |

**END OF LECTURER PRETTY'S LESSON ONE**

**11.2 Lesson transcription two**

**Faculty: Science**

**Lecturer A: Pretty**

**Topic: Reading for academic purposes**

| Teaching | Participant | Classroom talk   | Moves | Acts       |
|----------|-------------|--|-------|------------|
| 1        | L           | Is the Wikipedia a reliable source?  | I     | el         |
|          | Ss          | Yes  | R     | rep        |
| 2        | L           | We are talking of Reading for Academic Purposes, Right? Academic papers.<br>Is it something that is reliable? What do you think?   | I     | i<br>el    |
|          | Ss          | Most of the time.  | R     | rep        |
|          |             | <i>Mumbling by the students</i>  |       |            |
| 3        | L           | Okay. Let's have one person at a time  | R/I   | cu         |
|          | S           | It is very reliable.   | R     | rep        |
|          | L           | It is very reliable.   | F     | acc        |
| 4        | L           | What makes you think it's a reliable source? What sort of information do you get from the Wikipedia? This group thinks it's reliable. What do you think? Is it something that you can rely on for your research?<br>"Ee" (Yes) | I     | el<br>n    |
|          | S           | It is reliable based on the correct data.  | R     | rep        |
|          | L           | Okay, he has mentioned things like the date.   | F     | acc        |
| 5        | S           | Data, data.  | R     | rep        |
|          | L           | Oh! the data.<br>I thought you meant the date. Anyway, we will talk about it as well.  | F     | acc<br>com |
| 6        | L           | You say it depends on what you are looking for?  | I     | el         |

|          |          |  |          |                                 |
|----------|----------|--|----------|---------------------------------|
|          | <b>S</b> | Yes.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                      |
| <b>7</b> | <b>L</b> | Why?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                       |
|          | <b>S</b> | Most of the time you get accurate data.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                      |
|          | <b>L</b> | <p>You most of the time you get accurate data.</p> <p>Is it a source that you can, you know, cite/reference in academic writing? Do you usually know who the source is in terms of who is the author? Is it a source that you can cite in terms of who is author? In terms of who is the author in the Wikipedia? If you compare it to online journals that we talked about. Who is the source? Who is the writer? <b>Isn't it?</b> So you can easily verify who the writer is; you know; you can verify things like the date. When was it published? You can verify things like the date. What journal is it? So, it makes it more reliable because there are other aspects that you look at. What I'm trying to say is when you are reading you are going to evaluate sources particularly for their Reliability. You cannot just pick any source and use it; you need to evaluate it. You need to look at, 'who is the author'? The most important thing is evaluating the sources particularly for their Reliability. You need to look at who is the author? Is it somebody who has authority in the area? Or is it somebody reputable? The problem with the Wikipedia is that it's an open source; any one can put information on it. Do you understand what I mean?</p> <p>So, It's difficult to trace who the author is and so forth. I would not encourage you to use the Wikipedia for that; particularly when writing academic papers.</p> | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com<br/><br/>con</b> |
| <b>8</b> | <b>L</b> | <p>Another thing that you need to look at when you are evaluating the source for reliability and so forth is the Date. You are not only looking at who is the author; you are also looking at the date. Can someone say something about the date? What issues come to your mind about the date? What issues come to your mind?</p> <p><b>"Ee rra" (Yes sir)</b></p>  | <b>I</b> | <b>i<br/><br/>el<br/><br/>n</b> |
|          | <b>S</b> | I think the date is important because we tend to use the sources that are more up to date; so you tend to use the nearest or recent date. For example, the sources from the 1980's or 1970's; will not be up to date.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                      |
|          | <b>L</b> | <p>Sources that are more up to date.</p> <p>For instance, if you are looking at textbooks, some are probably not updated. For instance if you are using the textbook; sometimes you find the textbook with several editions. You find the first edition, second edition, third edition, fourth edition <b>"Akere?" (Isn't it?)</b>. You normally go for which one? The latest edition. If there is the third and fourth edition, you normally will go for the fourth edition. Why? Because it's been revised. It is up to date and so forth. So you normally want to look for current information. It's a reliable source. Unless may be if you are looking at the History of a particular area.</p>   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>              |
| <b>9</b> | <b>S</b> | May be we are assuming. I think we have different views of the word, "reliable". What do we really mean by 'a reliable source'?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                       |
|          | <b>L</b> | <p>Yes. Can somebody try to answer him? He is asking, "what we really mean by a reliable source?" What is your understanding?</p> <p>Do you want to give it a try? Okay!</p> <p><b>"Ee rra" (Yes sir)</b> and then you after him.</p>  | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/><br/>n</b>            |
|          | <b>S</b> | I think Reliable means that the data that you get is up to date, it's accurate, it's traceable and not just definitions or information. It's finding information that is updated.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                      |



|           |          |  |          |                              |
|-----------|----------|--|----------|------------------------------|
|           | <b>L</b> | In academic writing also we need to reference your sources. You cannot just write. So, when you look at the Wikipedia, for instance, it would be difficult. I don't know how you will cite the information from the Wikipedia. Who is the author in the first place? Do you know who the author is? When was it published? When you get into referencing your sources you will see some of the aspects that you put into your reference. I don't know whether that will be possible with the Wikipedia.  | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>                   |
| <b>10</b> | <b>L</b> | What do you have to say?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                    |
|           | <b>S</b> | I was mainly looking at the books, textbooks really, that there are some reliable sources written by authors who are known and have published so many books and textbooks; and has been approved by some writers or users.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                   |
|           | <b>L</b> | Authors who are reputable. Who is authority in this area. And you can even look at journals. When you go to an advanced stage now, journals are the things you look at. Who is authority in this area; who is well known; who has published, those are the things you might like to look at.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>           |
| <b>11</b> | <b>S</b> | About Reliability-Let's say I have been writing six tests and most of the time I passed using the Wikipedia; doesn't that mean you can rely on the Wikipedia in all areas?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                    |
|           | <b>L</b> | <b>"Ee rra" (Yes sir).</b><br>He says he has been using the Wikipedia in all areas, you know, in all areas and getting good marks. So it's a reliable source in that sense. Like my children use the Wikipedia when they have assignments. But I don't. It's not a reliable source. It's not an academic source. And I think we should take into consideration her point also where somebody is well known in that area and has published so much. May be for definitions <b>"tsa mahoko hela" (of words only)</b> it can be reliable.   | <b>I</b> | <b>n<br/>s</b>               |
|           | <b>S</b> | If you do research on Michael Jackson or Nelson Mandela you can use the Wikipedia.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                   |
| <b>12</b> | <b>L</b> | But what I'm saying is; Can you use it now? Is it something that you can cite with confidence? Can you use it in academic work?<br>I think it is an issue that you can debate on. This is something that we can debate on-What do we mean by Reliability.<br>Okay, let's have the last comment and we go on.   | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/><br/>i<br/>n</b>   |
|           | <b>S</b> | I think the information in the Wikipedia is so much but if we can find the author, the date and the publisher, it is reliable; Because it is something that we can trace.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                   |
|           | <b>L</b> | Okay.<br>I will put the question online for discussion; what do we mean by a reliable source?  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>           |
| <b>13</b> | <b>L</b> | Anyway, let's go on.<br>But what I am saying is; you need to evaluate your sources. You need to evaluate for things like; who is the author? reliability. You need to look at things like; is there any biasness in what I am reading? Look also at biasness in what you are reading. Is the writer biased towards a particular point of view? So you need to know such things. People who look at gender issues, for instance, most of the time they tend to be biased, you know. Because they always look for women who are abused; and are always advocating for women's rights and so forth.<br><b>Isn't it?</b><br>So, usually there is a lot of biasness. You need to be critical of the | <b>I</b> | <b>d<br/>i/s<br/><br/>ch</b> |

|    |    |  |   |                            |
|----|----|--|---|----------------------------|
|    |    | sources that you read. You do not just accept everything as it is at face value. You need to be critical. Most of them will be biased.<br><b>Does it make sense?</b><br>Can you detect such things? I don't know if you want to comment on that.   |   | ch<br>el                   |
|    | S  | With abuse there is no source that is not biased. Most of them will be biased. <b>"Ya" (Yes)</b> . It's only women and children not men.   | R | rep                        |
|    | L  | When you evaluate your sources, look at how the reporter or the writer has reported or written on a particular point of view. Are they biased or are they objective in their reporting. And normally you find such things when you look at newspapers, for instance. In a lot of cases there is a lot of subjectivity in how they report; they will be biased. You have to be analytical. So these are the things you have to look at. Is this a source that I can use in terms of reliability, in terms of how they have reported their views or whatever, information. You need to be critical.  | F | com                        |
| 14 | L  | <b>"Ee" (Yes)</b>  | I | n                          |
|    | S  | Does this mean we cannot read sources that are biased?   | I | el                         |
|    | L  | You can. You can still use them but it depends on how you use them. You can also be critical on how you use them to say, "this is what they think" or "this is what they have discussed". You become critical as well.   | R | rep                        |
| 15 | L  | Anyway let's go on.<br>There is so much on the internet and if the internet is going to be your main source, like you said, of information for your project and academic writing; then you need to evaluate it very well for reliability and so forth. Okay, let's look at things like a textbook for instance, and you go into the library.<br>What text features help you to pick a book and say, "this is the book that I want to read?" What things do you look for? How do you determine the usefulness of a textbook?<br>Now, we are coming to another point of being selective in what we read. Because there is so much but we do not have much time and you don't want to waste time. So you need to know that this is a book that is useful.<br>So, I want you with your neighbour to discuss just for 2-3 minutes. To look at what physical features do you look for in a textbook to determine the usefulness of a book? What things do you look for before you sit down to read a text book? The physical features of a text book. Note those things that you look for as you read. We are looking at the physical features that help you determine the usefulness of a book. | I | s<br>i<br><br>s/i<br><br>d |
|    | Ss | PAIR DISCUSSION  |   |                            |
| 16 | L  | Okay! Where do we start? We can start anywhere. What did you discuss?<br><b>"Ee rra" (Yes sir)</b>   | I | el<br>n                    |
|    | S  | You search for the date of publication.  | R | rep                        |
|    | L  | Okay. The date of publication.   | F | acc                        |
| 17 | S  | You look at the author and the publisher.  | R | rep                        |
|    | L  | Okay. The author and the publisher.  | F | acc                        |
| 18 | L  | Why the publisher?   | I | el                         |
|    | S  | If you take Macmillan and Oxford and compare them with others; they are reputable publishers.  | R | rep                        |
|    | L  | Okay. I never thought of it in that way. Whether some publishers are   | F | com                        |

|    |    |   |   |            |
|----|----|---|---|------------|
|    |    | more reputable or not.  |   |            |
| 19 | L  | Disregard <b>“tsabo” (those of)</b> Collegium or whatever?  | I | el         |
|    | Ss | Yes   | R | rep        |
|    | L  | Okay. I never thought of it that way.   | F | com        |
| 20 | L  | What other things do you look for? Let’s have more people.  | I | el<br>n    |
|    | S  | I look at the table of contents.  | R | rep        |
|    | L  | The table of contents.  | F | acc        |
| 21 | S  | If it contains what I want; then I take it into account. At the table of contents I also look at how many pages the book has on the certain topic that I want.  | R | rep        |
|    | L  | So you look at how much has been covered in an article. How detailed are they in that particular area? So the table of contents will guide you in all that.   | F | com        |
| 22 | L  | <b>“Ee rra” (Yes sir)</b>   | I | n          |
|    | S  | I think we should also look at the title of the book.   | R | rep        |
|    | L  | The title of the book. Okay.<br>And normally in most cases that’s where we start <b>“Akere?” (Isn’t it?)</b> The title, the author of the book, the date; et cetera, et cetera. So those are some of the things you look at.  | F | acc<br>com |
| 23 | L  | <b>“Ee rra” (Yes sir)</b>   | I | n          |
|    | S  | The layout and the presentation.  | R | rep        |
|    | L  | The layout and the presentation.  | F | acc        |
| 24 | L  | In what sense? Does it matter?  | I | el         |
|    | Ss | Yes   | R | rep        |
|    | L  | Okay.   | F | acc        |
| 25 | L  | Let’s have one person at a time.<br>Why? Why does the layout and presentation matter that much?   | I | cue<br>el  |
|    | S  | A book with pictures, I can see what is happening. There is a lot of calculation in the brain. A picture is a symbol. It’s like translating.  | R | rep        |
|    | L  | So, may be you can say, “a book with graphics” because it’s not only pictures and images <b>“Akere?” (Isn’t it?)</b> . It can even be tables and charts. That is easy to understand, that have summarised the information and so forth. This morning I was talking to one other class and this lady raised her hand and the first thing she said was “pictures”; she said for her a book without pictures she will dismiss it immediately because pictures are appealing to the eye. Pictures provide some visuals. It’s a strong visual representation of the information. | F | com        |
| 26 | L  | <b>“Ee” (Yes)</b>   | I | n          |
|    | S  | You look at the size of the font as well.   | R | rep        |
|    | L  | The size of the font as well. I think it matters as well.<br>It will be part of the presentation – things like the font etc, etc.   | F | acc<br>com |
| 27 | L  | <b>“Ee mma” (Yes ma’am).</b> You want to say something.   | I | n          |
|    | S  | If a book is reliable; You look at the back cover where they summarise the contents of the book.  | R | rep        |
| 28 | L  | What is it called?  | I | el         |
|    | S  | The Blurb.  | R | rep        |
|    | L  | The Blurb.<br>Because usually it outlines or summarises the source. Those are some of the things that give you the idea about the book.   | F | acc<br>com |
| 29 | L  | <b>“Ee” (Yes)</b>   | I | n          |
|    | S  | The index.  | R | rep        |

|    |    |   |     |                      |
|----|----|---|-----|----------------------|
|    | L  | The index. Yes.<br>If you have two books; one with the index and the other without. You go for the one with the index.  | F   | acc<br>com           |
| 30 | L  | How does it help you?   | I   | el                   |
|    | S  | It refers you to the pages where a specific topic is found.   | R   | rep                  |
|    | L  | If you are interested to that particular, you know, topic, you go straight to those pages, then you go to that topic. Okay. It's all about selective reading. You don't want to read everything that would waste your time.   | F   | com                  |
| 31 | L  | <b>"Ee rra" (Yes sir)</b>   | I   | n                    |
|    | S  | I want a book with comments so, I will go online.   | R   | rep                  |
|    | L  | If you can get at the book review of that particular book you can do that. But sometimes you do not have to consider the comments. But usually what we are talking about are the physical features that you look at in a text book.   | F   | com                  |
| 32 | L  | <b>"Ee mma" (Yes ma'am)</b>   | I   | n                    |
|    | S  | Also often people consider the size of the book.  | R   | rep                  |
| 33 | L  | The size of the book?   | I   | el                   |
|    | Ss | Yes   | R   | rep                  |
|    | L  | She was talking about the size of the book.<br>I thought big books will be scary to read.<br>I don't know whether we have any textbooks here?<br>You can also look at the different chapters; The layout <b>"ya" (of)</b> the different chapters also. Whether they have summaries, the font, some books will even have key words in bold or in italics, important information boxed and so forth, you know which helps you to go directly that you want.   | F   | acc<br>com           |
| 34 | L  | And I thought somebody would talk about the Glossary since you are Science students. You will be interested in a book with the glossary <b>"Akere" (Isn't it?)</b> . And explain all those important words.<br>I'm I wrong or right?  | I   | s<br><br>el          |
|    | S  | Right.  | R   | rep                  |
|    | L  | Right.  | F   | acc                  |
| 35 | L  | Do you have any book here that we can refer to or you do not carry your textbooks around?<br><i>Student hands a science book to the lecturer.</i><br>Dynamics and Physical Geology. It's so heavy and it is so colourful. That is why you don't carry them; most of them are very heavy. Okay. What can you say about it? What other matter comes at the end of a textbook? Some books will have what we call a Bibliography at the end or some books will have after every chapter a section on Further Reading.<br>What does it mean as a reader and as a researcher? | I   | d<br><br>s<br><br>el |
|    | L  | Some books will have what we call the bibliography at the end and the section on further reading that would come at the end of the chapter; I don't know whether you have come across that.<br>How do they help you? Have you ever come across that? Why is it important?   | R/I | s<br><br>el          |
|    | S  | To confirm whether the book is good or not.   | R   | rep                  |
|    | L  | Not necessarily to confirm but if you want to do further reading on a particular issue, it gives you guidance. That will be the starting point for doing research; may be. You might refer to that for more information and so forth. Like I said that the text book is actually the starting point for further reading that we have talked about. That's a   | F   | com                  |

|          |   |  |    |                  |
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|          |   | useful way to start research in a particular issue and so forth also it will help you as a reader. It's easy for you to look for it at the Library and nowadays even in websites where you can get more information on a particular area.  |    |                  |
| 37       | L | So, as you are doing all this reading and looking at the table of contents, the back page, the lay out, the title; and everything; it introduces you to other strategies that we use for reading which is Skimming and Scanning as reading strategies.<br>What do you understand by these two; Skimming and Scanning?<br>"Ee rra" (Yes sir)  | I  | s<br><br>el<br>n |
|          | S | Skimming is whereby you are picking the main points.<br>Scanning is a useful way for starting to read.   | R  | rep              |
|          | L | Mh! No! Yes! That's a good try.  | F  | acc              |
| 38       | L | Can someone give it a try?<br>As you are doing all this going through the chapters, going through the table of contents, you are trying to get the gist of the book, what it is covering. You know what it is covering and that is what we call skimming. You skim to get a gist. That's a strategy that you can use and save time as a reader.<br>And Scanning. What do you think scanning is as a reading strategy? If you are Skimming to get a general idea. What about Scanning?<br>"Ee rra" (Yes sir)  | I  | s<br><br>el<br>n |
|          | S | I think Scanning is whereby you read to obtain the main idea.  | R  | rep              |
|          | L | Specific information. You scan through until you get to the specific information.<br>It's like when you have a telephone directory and you are looking for Pretty. How do you look for Pretty in a telephone directory? Do you go word for word looking at the all the words in the entry? You scan. Isn't it? Until you get to Pretty; and now because you found Pretty you look for the specific detail. You concentrate on that area. So that's another strategy you use. It's just like when you were looking for your own results last year or at the beginning of this year. You disregarded other results and concentrated on your own name and start focusing on that particular information. That's another strategy you can use. You scan to get specific information.<br>You concentrate on that particular information to the question for whatever purpose you want; to either take notes or to understand it. And you can use that strategy for reading comprehension. You scan, you look at the question. So those are some of the strategies that you can employ as you read for study purposes and so forth.<br>There is another strategy but we will talk about it next time. I want you to go and read more about it and see if it can help you. It is actually a study technique called the SQ3R study technique. So, I would like you to go and read about the SQ3R as a study technique or strategy; you are going to explain to me on Thursday what the strategy is about; how it can help you as a learner. I would like you to go and read about this SQ3R as a study technique. So I would like you to go and read about this study technique and you are going to explain to me what the strategy is about. | F  | com              |
| Boundary | L | Mm! Some of the issues we discussed are in this hand-out (lecturer distributing the hand-out). You might have questions or comments. Are there any questions or comments?<br>So, go and read about this strategy we will talk about it on Thursday and then we will do a class exercise and then next week Tuesday we  | Fo | ms               |



|          |           |  |            |   |
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|          |           | <p>your own writing. So when you go to the writing stage you know exactly what you are going to write about.</p> <p>And then from there you start doing your planning. You see, sometimes you can get stuck along the way if you just write without planning. So, in the planning, this is where organize your ideas. Planning and Organisation of ideas; of what you are going to write about. This is where now you put on a structure. This where now you put up ideas that are related together and say, 'okay, let me come up with my outline of the essay'. The outline can be what is going into paragraph 1; which is the Introduction, what is going to paragraph 2, what is going into paragraph 3 and paragraph 4 and conclusion. So you use all these ideas; putting a structure and writing an outline. And once you start writing ideas then you can go back to doing your research. You keep going back, going forth; thinking and so forth; You keep going back and forth but the bottom line is; when you get into the writing, you should have a plan. So, briefly this is will be the first stage of the writing process; and you are writing from the plan that you have done; an outline.</p> <p>We all know that the text is structured and has three parts; which is the Introduction, which is the Body and the Conclusion.</p> <p>I want us to talk about these different sections. What is an Introduction? What is the purpose of the Introduction? What goes into the Introduction? How can you write an Introduction? What strategies can you use to write an Introduction?</p> <p>So, I want us with your neighbour to discuss for three to four minutes; discuss what you think an Introduction is before you start falling asleep as some are already doing. And as you are doing all this, I want you to have your projects at the back of your mind.</p> |            |   |
|          | <b>Ss</b> | <b>PAIR DISCUSSION</b>   |            |   |
| <b>4</b> | <b>L</b>  | <p>Okay, Let us talk about the Introduction: What is an Introduction? What is an Introduction? What purpose does it serve? What should go into the Introduction? What ways can you introduce your work?</p> <p>Can someone start for us? Someone; I don't want to point at anyone.</p> <p><b>“Le ntse le bua eng?” (What have you been discussing?)</b></p> <p><b>“Ee rra re go reeditse” (Yes sir, we are listening)</b></p>  | <b>I</b>   | <b>s</b><br><br><b>p</b><br><b>el</b><br><b>n</b> |
|          | <b>S</b>  | An introduction is an opening statement that explains the topic to the reader.   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>  |
|          | <b>L</b>  | <p>Okay, he says it is an opening statement, it explains the topic.</p> <p>If he says it's an opening statement, is it just one statement? It is made up of different sentences. <b>Isn't it?</b></p>  | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc</b><br><b>com</b>                          |
| <b>5</b> | <b>L</b>  | <p>Anything else about the Introduction? He says it explains the topic.</p> <p><b>“Ee mma” (Yes ma'am)</b></p>   | <b>I</b>   | <b>el</b><br><b>n</b>                             |
|          | <b>S</b>  | It also explains the aims and objectives.  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>  |
|          | <b>L</b>  | She says it explains the aims and objectives.  | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc</b>  |
| <b>6</b> | <b>L</b>  | <p>Anything else? <b>“Le ne le bua kaga eng?” (What did you discuss?)</b> What else does it do? Can we share those ideas please?</p>   | <b>I</b>   | <b>s</b>  |
|          | <b>L</b>  | <p>Okay how can you write an introduction? What are the strategies that you can use to introduce the topic?</p> <p><b>“Ee rra” (Yes sir)</b></p>   | <b>R/I</b> | <b>el</b><br><b>n</b>                             |







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|          |    | writing; you know, even if it is 2 or 3 pages long. Sometimes you will write longer papers; for instance if you are writing your research paper at the end of your fourth year; the essay is going to be a longer and might have several sections or chapters. So you may find that the whole chapter one is the Introduction where you explain your aims and objectives of the project. And then, you find that chapter 2 is the body of the entire paper. And then you find that Chapter 2 is made up of ten or so pages. You might want to organize your information in subheadings; <b>isn't it?</b> And those different subheadings will have different points that address the same main idea. |          |                |
| 9        | L  | Any other questions?<br><b>“Ee rra” (Yes sir)</b>  | I        | el<br>n        |
|          | S  | Let us say you are discussing or writing about, for example, the symptoms of AIDS; would you still write in paragraphs, usually it's just explained in one sentence like nausea. What do I need to explain there?  | I        | el             |
|          | L  | <b>“Akere” (Isn't it?)</b> in the first paragraph you will have stated that the symptoms of this disease manifest in various symptoms. So you are actually developing your paragraphs; you give supporting sentences that support that idea; you need to expand on the topic sentence and variables.   | R        | rep            |
| 10       | L  | Any other questions?<br><b>“Ee mma” (Yes ma'am)</b>  | I        | el<br>n        |
|          | Sf | I thought maybe he was asking things like symptoms; what do you need to explain there? Can you list them?  | R        | rep            |
| 11       | L  | May be bullet them?  | I        | el             |
|          | S  | Yes  | R        | rep            |
|          | L  | Because when you present your work; you are also thinking of your readers. It is all about how you organize them. How you organize them. The whole idea is about helping your readers go through your work and understand it.<br>So, if we are to summarise that a paragraph should have one controlling idea; that controlling idea should be developed. In the next lesson we are going to look more at the paragraph. We are going to look at the features of a paragraph such as coherence. I am going to show how to develop it. We are going to be looking at the features of a paragraph.   | F        | com<br><br>con |
| Boundary | L  | <b>Okay, let us stop here for today.</b> These are exercises where you identify topic sentences; where you identify thesis statement and so forth. So, some people come and help me we are running out of time.  | Fr<br>Fo | m<br>ms        |

**END OF LECTURER PRETTY'S LESSON THREE**

**11.4 Lesson transcription one**

**Faculty: Science**

**Lecturer G (ii): Star**

**Topic: Project Writing**

| Exchanges     | Participant | Classroom talk   | Moves | Acts |
|---------------|-------------|--|-------|------|
| Teaching<br>1 | L           | From the course outline, do you see how much the project is worth? From the course outline, how much is it worth? How much is it worth? Can you check? Class can you check how | I     | s/el |





|          |          |   |          |                                    |
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|          |          | <p>stereotype? Unnecessary generalisation. We have got ladies who are also hard and guys who are soft. It depends on ones character. In groups of five each, In groups of what? And please remember five students here I don't mean spice girls or back street boys; you know spice girls and which other spice was there? What did they call her? You don't know her nickname; "Ya" (Yes) In the UK in the 1990's and then they got married and later they went separate ways. So please real life scenario you don't get an organisation or a group where it is all female or males. Unless it is there by design. Like this weekend I attended a conference on "Women of substance" so obviously it was targeting women. But there were males; the engineers during the discussion were told, "Close your ears; this is for the women; close your ears." How many ladies are in this class? Few of course; few of course-1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7. Any other lady that I have skipped? What I know is that you are around forty. And what it presupposes is that eight groups and each group should have four males and one female. We don't want spice girls. Spice girls; No. You are in a profession that is dominated by men and you must learn now to become assertive; so start now; life skill; that is another life skill. So form those groups.</p> <p>And each member should be assigned a specific task to be done for the research and when you look at the next page, I have indicated that each group should have a portfolio; e.g. Timeline. So you have to take these steps.</p> <p>No. 1: Group formation:</p> <p>And I want you to do that now. And please sit in your groups. And I want to do it now. Sit in your groups now. Let me have another group here, another group here, another there. Each group should have five members.</p> <p>(Students form groups)</p> <p>You are free to join where ever. Make it snappy; You are free to sit wherever. Make it snappy; please don't be confused; move, move. Let us have another group here. Another group there; at that corner there.</p> <p>Oh there is Miss Galegane there. No linear sitting.</p> <p>From today you are going to sit in a group most of the time. You can't sit in a linear manner; please face each other.</p> <p>The dynamics of a group; No. 1: you should cooperate. You should be unified; even the way you sit should show that you are unified. Now I know at secondary school you used to form groups and work in groups.</p> <p>Now, what are the three most important things about working as a group? Class what are the most important things about working as a group?</p> |          |                                    |
|          | <b>S</b> | a) Effective communication.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                         |
|          | <b>L</b> | Effective communication.<br>Very good.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>e</b>                   |
| <b>8</b> | <b>L</b> | <p>What else?</p> <p>Please talk to me. Your chance has not started yet. I am trying to lay a foundation here so that nobody claims they did not know what was expected.</p> <p>Don't sit in a linear form. Please folks; Please listen to me. When you have to speak please raise up your hand. I am on the</p>  | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>d<br/><br/>d<br/>cue</b> |

|           |          |  |          |                  |
|-----------|----------|--|----------|------------------|
|           |          | <p>floor.</p> <p>Have you ever been in a group in your village and you are given a task? <b>-Cooperation:</b></p> <p>What else is very critical? <b>-Responsibility:</b> What are you presupposing? Each member should have a responsibility. Each member should be assigned a duty so that there is what? So that there is what? <b>-Accountability:</b> Have you ever had a situation where mummy leaves and say “I should find the work done.” Mummy comes back, and no work was done. When she asks the people say, “I didn’t know that I had to clean the living room”. Then there is no accountability. If the dishes are not clean, somebody knows that it was my task I didn’t do it. For example, if you did not water the garden. Mummy will ask ‘Why?’ So I don’t want a situation where you say, “All of us were doing it, all of us were doing it.”No! Each person should be assigned a task. When you are given a task of doing “<b>seswaa</b>” (<b>pounded meat</b>) at that wedding; Do you know “<b>seswaa</b>”? (<b>pounded meat</b>) -it is always there in weddings. Normally what happens?</p> <p>More people are coming. 1, 2, 3 can you form your own group? Form your own group; it is a group of special people. Sit somewhere there.</p> <p>If you are given a responsibility to cook “<b>seswaa</b>” for the wedding (<b>pounded meat</b>) What else? There should always be a what? There should always be a what? Class there should always be a what? There should always be a what? There should always be a what? Class there should always be a what?</p> |          | i                |
|           | <b>S</b> | A leader.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>       |
|           | <b>L</b> | A leader.<br>Even here at university there is a leader. Even in our government there is a leader. So you should elect a chairperson who will be an overseer of the task of the project.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc com</b>   |
| <b>9</b>  | <b>L</b> | What other person should be there in the group?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>        |
|           | <b>S</b> | Secretary.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>       |
|           | <b>L</b> | Excellent.<br>Group secretary.<br>I always encourage people to have assistant chairperson and assistant secretary. Chairperson; or Deputy chairperson. In other words this is the overseer. Please do not talk of chairlady and chairman. We are talking of gender issues here. And then a secretary; vice secretary; I don’t want ‘you are a woman, be the secretary’. Don’t do that.   | <b>F</b> | <b>e acc com</b> |
| <b>10</b> | <b>L</b> | I don’t know what role we can give to the fifth member of the group.<br>What portfolio can we give them? What can we call them? Pretty much what are you going to be doing? What is primary in this project?   | <b>I</b> | <b>s el</b>      |
|           | <b>S</b> | Researching.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>       |
|           | <b>L</b> | Yes, let us call them research leader. So, all of you, you are ministers with portfolios. There is nothing like a minister without a portfolio. You have the responsibilities.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>       |
| <b>11</b> | <b>L</b> | And then it will be followed by a timeline. Do you know what a timeline is? Let me tell you something; A timeline is a very useful tool in project management because it keeps you on your toes. If you say by this time you should have done this and then  | <b>I</b> | <b>s</b>         |

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|  | <p>you adhere to the times, It renders your team very productive. You have a column where you write the date. I normally do mine in terms of weeks. You are going to brainstorm. All of you are going to brainstorm. First stage, second stage; every step. You need to appoint office bearers. And then the third point you need to brainstorm; you need to indicate who is doing all these things. Every step you do not omit any step; from the beginning to the end. You do not omit any step. You do not come up with general things like 'read'. Read what? You have to be specific. This one research on this and the other person researches on something else.</p> <p>A time line can be two and a half pages or even three pages if it is detailed enough. After coming up with the time line; The secretary you also have a task; whoever is going to be a secretary in each group. Your task is to compile a document; this document is called a portfolio. A portfolio will have the documents that you researched on. If you cannot photocopy the whole book at least the cover page of the book. As you are doing research you must give the secretary your sources in terms of may be, it can be a whole page of the material that you read; at least the page that you wrote. It can be references of what you read; maybe you read a brochure or a pamphlet.</p> <p>John you are extremely late. You are extremely late and this is unacceptable John. There is a special group there; It comprises of late comers. Join them please John.</p> <p><b>Minutes: Secretary.</b> Whenever you have a meeting, you write what transpired at that meeting. Who attended? Where did you attend? First item; chairperson's open remarks what did the chairperson say? How were the meetings chaired and then whatever, whatever. If you do not know how to write minutes come to me, I will show you how to write minutes. Even the time line should go into the portfolio; What else in that portfolio? May be samples of how you were communicating with each other et cetera, et cetera. The portfolio class, don't wait until you submit; you compile it gradually. I will keep on talking about the portfolio. Now the portfolio class, don't wait until the day you submit. Start from today. Start by putting this on the portfolio, the time line. Another thing; inside the portfolio I also want an evaluation of the whole project; not the evaluation of research; what were strengths, problems that you encountered, weaknesses, what were your achievements; what is your conclusion? Was it a good group or not? Did you manage to achieve your goals or not? What were your problems? If you were to do a similar work in future, what will you recommend? Each person should work; You can do strengths, You do achievements. Each person should do something. Because as I award the marks I am going to look at the minutes. So all this things the secretary works on them. That is why you even have to assign someone the references. Whatever you read put in the references. Don't leave your references until the last minute; whatever you read you put in the references; whatever you read you put in the references. You will be frustrated and you will get very poor mark. As soon as you leave</p> | <p>i</p> <p>cu</p> <p>i</p> |  |
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|--|--|--|---------------------|
|  | <p>this room today, get to work. Don't wait until last minute. When you leave this room today get to work on regular basis. And class, in the past, I have had issues of students who did not contribute to that group.</p> <p>Write up: You do the Introduction part. I will do the section on this; I will do the section on this. You are doing the Reference page; you have to compile it gradually.</p> <p>Are you smart enough to keep everything in the brain? I thought I taught you note taking. Even when you are going to the boss's office go with a pen and paper. Students who note things down are the most effective students because they do the right thing. Those who just look at you the next thing you tell them, "may I see the timeline", the timeline leaves much to be desired. I want to see who is doing the reference page. If you are doing research I don't want to see 'do research' do research on what?</p> <p>Who is doing research on what because I am going to award marks depending on the work done. In the past some students did not attend the group meetings. And those students not assertive they keep quiet and at the end they get marks they did not work for. In the past I had some students scoring 80% and they have not done anything. Chairperson, if you have a truant student, chairperson, it is your responsibility, to let me know like yesterday; immediately. So I can see what to do. Nobody is going to get marks that they did not work for and I don't want to have a class of bitter students.</p> <p>Each group member should have an aspect of the data and present it to the class. Each group presenting for ten minutes, and then you submit after two days of the presentation.</p> <p>If there is going to be a presentation it should be word processed and not more than five pages and the five pages is for the write up. Other things not included in the five pages. And of course; conduct research, text books, there are some journals that are not electronic, newspapers, website, magazines, TV, interviews, anything. Remember research should be balanced. You shouldn't only rely on written materials. Talk to relevant stake holders. In this context I don't want you to do questionnaires; you will do that next semester. And there is a whole array of topics to be researched; ten.</p> <p>Which ones do you think are relevant to your degree? I presume you are all doing Computer Studies. Do we have any students here doing General Science; It doesn't matter; whatever is here is related, you will learn something.</p> <p>Which one do you think are relevant to your degree?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Smart phones and how they change the world</li> <li>• The face-book and academic networking</li> <li>• The effectiveness of website creation</li> <li>• What is the role of internet in science education</li> </ul> <p>So that means two groups are going to be researching on a similar subject and normally it is first come, first serve. So what I expect you to do; Choose your topic, and then come to me. Let me hear what thoughts you have because I have to approve; And like I</p> |  | <p>ch</p> <p>el</p> |
|--|--|--|---------------------|



|  |          |   |          |  |
|--|----------|---|----------|--|
|  |          | <p>said, first come, first serve. So, when you come, come with the list of group members and the portfolio. Make sure that you come as soon as possible.</p> <p>Well the other way will be to toss. Let me take that option of tossing.</p> <p>Can you send a representative; please send representatives to come and pick. Please come and toss. Whatever you pick, that is what you are doing. Send a representative. Whatever you have picked that is what you are doing. We are doing this at the same time and also to maintain a certain level of fairness.</p> <p>“<b>Monna wee</b>” (You guy), you don’t come to class so late. Have you just walked in? I am mad at you. Have you just walked in? Please come and pick one. Before you leave class what is expected of you. So, before we leave class, presentation is scheduled for 31 October and submission 4 November. So you have around three weeks to work on this project.</p> <p>So before you leave can you elect the chairperson, vice/deputy chairperson, secretary, vice secretary and the research leader.</p> <p>Yes. Let me see if the group is balanced. Do we have people who are four? Anybody four? Can you join them? Join them please. Sometimes we cannot avoid it; one or two groups will have more students. Please do your election so that by the time you leave. Now, before you do your election, is there anything that you did not understand that you want to find out?<br/>Yes please</p> |          | <p><b>cu</b></p> <p><b>d</b></p> <p><b>ch</b></p> <p><b>el</b></p> <p><b>n</b></p> |
|  | <b>S</b> | If I find something online, do I need a print out of the reference?   | <b>I</b> | <b>rep</b>   |
|  | <b>L</b> | I would rather have a page where you state all the references.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>   |

**END OF LESSON LECTURER STAR’S LESSON ONE (SCIENCE)**

**11.5 Lesson transcription two**

**Faculty: Science**

**Lecturer G (ii): Star**

**Topic: Communication Barriers**

| Exchanges | Participant | Classroom talk   | Moves                  | Acts                  |
|-----------|-------------|--|------------------------|-----------------------|
| Boundary  | <b>L</b>    | <p>Okay class, we have come to the end of the discussion. Now I want you to go back to your original seats and let’s have (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6) six presenters. Let us have six presenters; stand there in front. The presenter should take the podium. Let’s make it snappy. Each presenter you have only two minutes. You have got only two minutes. Let’s move fast. I hope you are not going to be arguing; ‘who is presenting? because I said earlier, ‘identify the chairperson’. Everybody face the front. If you are nominated it means that your group has confidence on you. So please cooperate. The person who was a chairperson cannot be the presenter.</p> | <b>Fr</b><br><b>Fo</b> | <b>m</b><br><b>ms</b> |
| Teaching  | <b>L</b>    | Would you like to start?   | <b>I</b>               | <b>el</b>             |

|   |   |  |   |            |
|---|---|--|---|------------|
| 1 |   |  |   |            |
|   | S | <b>Presenter 1:</b> Firstly, I have language. As you know we use different languages. So this can be a barrier on the way we communicate.  | R | rep        |
| 2 | L | Can you give an example please?  | I | el         |
|   | S | <b>Presenter 1 cont':</b> For example some people prefer to use slang while others do not understand slang.  | R | rep        |
| 3 | S | <b>Presenter 1 cont':</b> Secondly, is attitude. The attitude we have for each other. This may be a barrier when we communicate.   | R | rep        |
|   | L | Remember you have two minutes. Let me get my time. As you were discussing who ever came with it, can you elaborate on it; because we want to hear the example.   | F | d          |
| 4 | S | <b>Presenter 1 cont':</b> So, the other one is culture. As we know in this country we have different cultures so, it can be a barrier on how we communicate. For example, Bakgatla and Bangwato (some Botswana tribes) there; those who do not know their culture, it will be a barrier. | R | rep        |
| 5 | L | Can you list the last two barriers?  | I | el         |
|   | S | <b>Presenter 1 cont':</b> The last two being; the system design and technical language.  | R | rep        |
|   | L | “Ya” (Yes)<br>Team members please help the presenter because some of the points need you to elaborate. I take it that the person who came up with technical language can elaborate.  | F | acc<br>d   |
| 6 | L | Who came up with it?<br>Yes please.  | I | el<br>n    |
|   | S | For example, like we are in Computer Science there are some terms we use in our course and other students in Humanities there are some terms that they use in their course. If I do not understand the others language, it will be a barrier.  | R | rep        |
|   | L | Very good.<br>Okay let us give them the round of applause.   | F | e<br>d     |
| 7 | S | <b>Presenter 2:</b> The first barrier we came up with is environmental barrier which basically means that someone is making noise. And someone is trying to communicate a certain message and obviously the message won't be heard correctly; some people won't understand the message.  | R | rep        |
|   | L | Like some people making noise.<br>(Lecturer's mobile phone rings) And this phone is an environmental barrier; I forgot to switch it off.   | F | acc<br>com |
| 8 | S | <b>Presenter 2 cont':</b> And we also talked about perception. And another factor is focussing on ourselves rather than the other person. Some of the factors that cause this are defensiveness. We feel someone is attacking us; we can feel we are the centre of the activity.         | R | rep        |
| 9 | L | Let us talk about that one; defensiveness. How does defensiveness become a barrier?<br>Yes please  | I | el<br>n    |
|   | S | For example you think the way I talk is fine but the other people think it is not. You may defend yourself and say, 'I'm fine'.  | R | rep        |
|   | L | Very good.<br>The other person might feel offended. The other purpose; Like this naughty room mate who uses your toiletry and takes your food without your permission and when you talk to them they   | F | e<br>com   |

|    |    |   |   |            |
|----|----|---|---|------------|
|    |    | say, “ <b>o tshwanetse wa tlhaloganya</b> ” (you have to understand) because we are students here, we don’t have money; what do I need to do?” This person is defensive; they don’t want to own up. Right. If you are defensive, do something about it.   |   |            |
| 10 | S  | <b>Presenter 2 cont’</b> : Another barrier is the channel. For example if one is using a faulty fax machine; the message might be not be clear.<br>And we also have lack of planning as a barrier to communication. So planning is very effective.  | R | rep        |
| 11 | L  | Can someone give an example of planning as a barrier to communication? Like right now you are giving presentations; did you plan for these presentations- what you are going to say and how you are going to say it?  | I | el         |
|    | Ss | Yes   | R | rep        |
|    | L  | If it was not planned; it will be horrible and haphazard.<br>Let’s give a round of applause to the second presenter.  | F | com<br>con |
| 12 | S  | <b>Presenter 3</b> : Our first barrier was language. There are those people who are literate and those who are illiterate; those who know English and those who do not; that is a big barrier.<br>Our second one was culture. As we come from different backgrounds and religions, for example, Muslims. Example of background, the way you dress and the way you grow up at home.  | R | rep        |
|    | L  | Very good.<br>Can I give you an example; Last night, I had visitors who came over to my house and they are going to be married soon. Clearly, I could see the difference between these two people’s backgrounds because the guy talked with food in the mouth. And the lady kept on saying (lecturer uses non-verbal communication). When I went for dessert the woman showed him that it was not good to speak with food on the mouth. So, clearly background plays an important role. | F | e<br>com   |
| 13 | S  | <b>Presenter 3 cont’</b> : Psychological barriers such as lack of confidence.   | R | rep        |
|    | L  | Very good.  | F | e          |
| 14 | S  | <b>Presenter 3 cont’</b> : And then we have noise.  | R | rep        |
|    | L  | Okay, okay.   | F | acc        |
| 15 | S  | <b>Presenter 3 cont’</b> : And the last one is physical barrier; may be not hearing or seeing properly.   | R | rep        |
|    | L  | Can I call those physiological barriers as opposed to physical barriers. I like the way you explain.<br>Thank you very much.  | F | com<br>e   |
| 16 | L  | Can I negotiate? Can I request for six minutes of your time. Do you have a class? Over to you.<br>Thank you   | I | el<br>e    |
|    | S  | <b>Presenter 4</b> : The first one is physical barriers to communication. The second one is the perceptual barrier. People of different backgrounds see things differently.   | R | rep        |
| 17 | L  | Can I take you back to the physical barrier;<br>Do you mean a situation like; strictly don’t enter this place or strictly don’t see the HOD before you see you immediate supervisor?  | I | s<br>el    |
|    | S  | Yes   | R | rep        |
|    | L  | Okay, Okay.   | F | acc        |

|    |   |   |   |                        |
|----|---|---|---|------------------------|
| 18 | S | <b>Presenter 4 cont'</b> : Language   | R | rep                    |
|    | L | Language.<br>Can you take it easy.<br>Language we use can be inappropriate.   | F | acc<br>d<br>com        |
| 19 | L | Like for instance? Can you give an example; because on a day to day oral communication experiences we may identify barriers.<br>For example?<br>Yes please  | I | s<br><br>el<br>n       |
|    | S | Somebody can talk in slang; slang is some kind of barrier.  | R | rep                    |
|    | L | Like 'my man, my man'; You are talking may be to your uncle and you say 'my man, my man; this is sick'; this is sick". And the uncle wonders.<br>In the interest of time let us give her a round of applause.   | F | com<br><br>d           |
| 20 | S | <b>Presenter 5:</b> Environmental barriers.   | R | rep                    |
|    | L | Michael, In the interest of time don't repeat the points already outlined.  | F | d                      |
| 21 | S | Emotions; Emotions can be a barrier of communication because you won't understand.  | R | rep                    |
|    | L | Like you are in class and just before class you quarrel with your room mate or just before class you are given a 'red card' and then you then you try to listen to the lecturer you are moody, you are in pain; you are feeling dizzy and all that, because your emotions will be working against you in such a communication environment.  | F | com                    |
| 22 | S | <b>Presenter 5 cont'</b> : Lack of subject knowledge and stress. When the person is under stress it is difficult for him/ her to get the message.   | R | rep                    |
|    | L | In fact stress and all that you said fall under psychological barrier because it is what is happening within you. It could also be excitement. Imagine you have just bought your first car and you have to sit in this meeting and they call you at Naledi Motors that your car; your C200 is ready for collection. That anxiety, that excitement. That is why we changed the class from four o'clock to eight o'clock because you have fatigue by four o'clock and give me stress emotionally.<br>Very good. | F | com<br><br>e           |
| 23 | S | <b>Presenter 5 cont'</b> : Interruptions-being interrupted by someone like ma'am is doing; you can forget what you were saying.   | R | rep                    |
|    | L | What's your name? What's your name? Michael I was not interrupting; I was adding because we are a team. Don't believe them when they say I was interrupting. We are a team; lecturer-student interacting, it's not that I was interrupting.   | F | com                    |
| 24 | S | <b>Presenter 5 cont'</b> : Information. Like when you apply for tertiary institutions. If you don't know where to go, that can be a barrier.  | R | rep                    |
|    | L | Absolutely! I am happy you mentioned that as an example because many a times people do not realise that such barriers can really hinder communication; the channels among people.<br>Thank you very much.<br>Give him a round of applause.  | F | e<br>com<br><br>e<br>d |
| 25 | L | Like the saying goes, " <b>moja morago ke kgosi</b> " those of you who do not understand Setswana it means; "the last one gets the fattest worm". You want me to translate literally; good  | I | s                      |

|          |   |  |    |            |
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|          |   | translators don't translate literally or convey the exact meaning. Over to you.  |    | n          |
|          | S | <b>Presenter 6:</b><br>Most of these barriers have already been presented.   | R  | rep        |
| 26       | L | How many of them have been presented?  | I  | el         |
|          | S | <b>Presenter 6 cont':</b> I think all of them.   | R  | rep        |
|          | S | There are two points which have not been said.   | R  | rep        |
| 27       | L | You are with her?  | I  | el         |
|          | S | There is a point of ethnocentrism. A tendency to believe that some people are superior.  | R  | rep        |
|          | L | Ethnocentrism is a tendency to believe that some people are superior; like, we Batswana, we French, we Nigerians; judging, looking down upon other cultures; it is a barrier to communication.   | F  | acc<br>com |
| 28       | S | And the other point is stereotyping.   | R  | rep        |
|          | L | Like white guys are always the best boyfriends-that is unnecessary generalisation. Like if you say you want to marry a girl from Kanye ( <i>one of the villages in Botswana</i> ); and your parents say "no, those girls are dangerous" - false generalisation. Just because your grandfather was frustrated by a girl from Kanye, but it does not mean that all girls from Kanye are bad; He is bitter because 'once upon a time, so many years, he was frustrated by a girl from Kanye, it does not mean that all girls from Kanye are like that'. Now you generalise. | F  | com        |
| 29       |   | Presenter 6 cont': The environment can also be very hot. When it is hot you have fatigue.  | R  | rep        |
|          | L | Very good.<br>Like come summer-that is why I changed the class because October it can be very unbearable and you try to teach students; it's unbearable.   | F  | e<br>com   |
| 30       | L | The last one   | I  | el         |
|          | S | <b>Presenter 6 cont':</b> You may have a different language.   | R  | rep        |
|          | L | Very good.<br>Can we give them the last round of applause.   | F  | e<br>d     |
| Boundary | L | Em! Let me conclude the lesson by saying; I am really happy, you have done your research. You brought very interesting ideas on barriers to effective communication. And let me conclude by saying that good communicators overcome the barriers on the point of sender or receiver. May be the sender is angry or confronts you in an angry mood. So never ever be angry; because 100 degrees Celsius + 100 degrees Celsius = a bomb (Intercontinental Ballistic Missile). So always ask yourself whether you are creating a barrier. I am so proud of you. Bye.        | Fo | ms         |

**END OF LECTURER STAR'S LESSON TWO (SCIENCE)**



|          |          |   |            |                                     |
|----------|----------|---|------------|-------------------------------------|
|          | <b>S</b> | <i>The student reads his paragraph to the rest of the class; which the lecturer thought it was the best.</i>  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>                          |
|          | <b>L</b> | <p>Yes. Thank you very much.</p> <p>At university, when you take people's ideas and write them down without acknowledging them, you are creating a very big crime; not acknowledging a source is an academic crime; and this crime can make you fail. I have seen students; somebody doing research plagiarising. You plagiarise. Plagiarism. This is plagiarism. This is a crime; like what you have done; you have taken peoples' ideas, you have written them down and did not acknowledge them. It is a crime, you can get zero out of one hundred in an assignment at university when you do that. Even some professors they were demoted because they took someone's ideas and did not acknowledge the source and they were demoted. When you write at university you have to acknowledge sources. Within the paragraph itself it is called in-text citation; it is called in-text citation; You cite within the paragraph itself because at university you have to show that you have researched. And how do we show that we have researched? You show that you have researched by citing what you read. Can we define in-text citation? Can we talk of in-text citation? Can we talk of in-text citation? In text citation is citing sources directly within the essay. It is the immediate acknowledgement of material derived from various sources. In-text citation can either be done through direct quotation or paraphrasing. Like I said I am not going to rub some of this as I need some of it. Look at this;</p> <p>Smith argues that, -Direct quotation- Smith argues that, -Direct quotation- "Young boys like playing outside". Now when you use in-text referencing, there are different styles of doing it. There is APA style, there is the Harvard referencing. I don't know with Science your department what type of referencing you use. From here I want you to go back to your lecturers and find out which referencing style of writing they use because at Business they use Harvard and they use APA. I don't know at Computer Science what referencing style they use because it differs.</p> | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc<br/>com<br/><br/>d<br/>i</b> |
| <b>3</b> | <b>L</b> | <p>With APA reference style when you cite a source according to what you have seen, how do you do it? How is it done according to the APA style? What is it that you observed because I asked you to go and check how this is done in academic journals?</p> <p>Tom what have you observed?</p> <p>What is it that you have observed?</p>   | <b>I</b>   | <b>el<br/><br/>n<br/>el</b>         |
|          | <b>S</b> | NO RESPONSE FROM THE STUDENT  |            |                                     |
|          | <b>L</b> | <p>I don't think you gave this assignment the seriousness it deserves. What is it that you observed? When you cite, sources, How do you cite? Class, can we talk? I told you that I am a communications lecturer, I do not talk to myself; I talk to students. How do we cite a source? What is the most important information when citing sources? That is what I trying to get to.</p> <p>Yes please</p>  | <b>R/I</b> | <b>e<br/>el<br/><br/>n</b>          |
|          | <b>S</b> | The surname of the author.  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>                          |
|          | <b>L</b> | The surname of the author.<br>Very good.  | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc<br/>e</b>                    |
| <b>4</b> | <b>L</b> | Followed by...! Followed by...!   | <b>I</b>   | Cued el                             |
|          | <b>S</b> | The year of publication.  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>                          |

|          |          |  |          |   |
|----------|----------|--|----------|---|
|          | <b>L</b> | The year of publication.<br>You start with the surname of the author followed by the year of publication. Like for instance, ‘According to Taylor (1990)’.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>  |
| <b>5</b> | <b>L</b> | Now, talking about the difference between a direct quotation and paraphrasing; what is the difference between a direct quotation and paraphrasing? What is the difference between a direct quotation and paraphrasing? What is the difference between the two class?-direct quotation and paraphrasing.<br>Yes please  | <b>I</b> | <b>s<br/>el<br/><br/>n</b>                                    |
|          | <b>S</b> | Direct quotation is taking the exact words as they were and paraphrasing is not direct.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |
| <b>6</b> | <b>L</b> | What do you do instead?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>   |
|          | <b>S</b> | You get the main idea of what is said by the author.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |
|          | <b>L</b> | Well, in a Direct quotation you use your own words in order to express what the author said. And at the end of it you indicate what the author was saying. Like for instance ‘one researcher found out that ‘this, this, this.’ You actually depict the meaning of what they were saying in your own words and then at the end of it you indicate the name of the author, surname of the author, year of publication. And of course for direct quotation you include the page number as well as the quotation marks. Still at direct quotation that you want to give, when the words are more than forty in that quotation, you don’t include quotation marks you indent it and at the end of it you indicate the source, for example, According to Milne and then you have to give the quotation at the end of it you give the year of publication and the page number.<br>Like I said, “please go back to your department and find out which type of referencing do you use in Computer Science; and the same piece of work that I gave you last time when I said, ‘go and write a paragraph ; main paragraph based on what you researched. Go and do that in the right way of referencing.  | <b>F</b> | <b>com<br/><br/><br/><br/><br/><br/><br/><br/><br/><br/>d</b> |
| <b>7</b> |          | We have alluded to the fact that when you cite sources you either use direct quotation or you use paraphrasing.<br>The language; but before I talk about the language, let me talk about the principles of using quotations and paraphrasing; the principles of using quotations and paraphrasing. What are the principles?<br>Number 1: You need to introduce your point in your own words and use the quotation or paraphrase for support only. You need to introduce your point in your own words and use the quotation or paraphrase for support only. Like if you say, “so and so argues that...”. Let us look at different ways of doing it. I am sure you have been reading journals because remember I said in this assignment you are going to get grades according to whether you have been reading academic sources; Journals, Books, Newspapers. It is going to be a variety of sources; magazines, website materials et cetera, et cetera. What sought of words can you use to introduce your point? What sought of words? “According to....” “According to....” One example; You can use expressions like, “In the survey by so and so...,” or “so and so researched....,” “so and so found out that ....” or “so and so emphasizes that...,” or “so and so claims that...” “so and so puts a proposal that....,” “so and so states that....” “as discussed by so and so.....this and this ....,” “a recent report by so and so...” “as discussed by so and so,” “so and so proposes that.....,” | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b>  |



|          |         |   |          |                                  |
|----------|---------|---|----------|----------------------------------|
|          |         | <p>Please go and look at other academic works and see more examples. These were just examples.</p> <p>Now, let us talk about citing work by multiple authors; citing work by multiple authors. When you cite work by multiple authors; what do you do? Let us say a book is written by four people; Victory, Johnson, Star and Pele. When you mention it for the first time, Victory, Johnson, Star and Pele (2008) argue that.....”; argue that.....”. And then now when you mention the names of these authors thereafter, don’t repeat the four of them; don’t mention all the four names. You use the word <i>et al</i>; <i>et al</i> means and others. It is a Latin word that means and others. Is a Latin word it means and others; and others. Now what you do is that you mention the first name; So what you do, you mention the chief author and you say “and others”, you do not keep on mentioning the four names throughout the text.</p> <p>Now, the other point is that, use a quotation or a paraphrase only when your point could not be supported without it. Also avoid too many quotations; avoid too many quotations. What do you do to avoid too many quotations? What do you do to avoid too many quotations? Have you heard about ellipses: Have you heard about ellipses....; (dot, dot, dot; dot, dot, dot, dot). Let me say there is an article from a journal, a book, a newspaper or a website that you need to cite and it is too long, you can actually trim it by leaving out some points that you do not need. If you left more than two; you use four dots (...). Have you ever seen the use of ellipsis in journals and books? It means this quotation was too long and I did not need the whole of it; I only needed this part in order to support my point.</p> <p>The other principle; I have already talked about; the principle of identification, where you have to give the quotation a source. The way you reference sources is difference depending from where you got the source and the year of publication. Now as you are doing the write up for your projects I expect you to write in academic style. An example, According to Smith and whatever, the list can go on and on and on and on. Where you have to mention when you got the information. You are researching and I want to see evidence of research. A paragraph should have a lot of in-text referencing. I don’t want to see scanty work. The way you reference different sources is different depending from where you got the source. If you got the source from a newspaper, there is a way you do it, in a book there is a way in which you do it. From a lecture, there is a way that you do it. So as you write your assignments, please make sure that you do the right thing. If you go into different websites like in the Google Scholar you will actually see depending on the style that you use at Computer Studies. I cannot mention it now because it depends on the style that you use in Computer Science. Similarly, you have to show the details of what you read by coming up at the end of your write up, with a Reference page.</p> <p>Now, let me know from the different groups; how far are you with the development of your Reference pages and what referencing styles are you using? Chairpersons, Secretaries; where are you? Who is responsible for the reference page for the project?</p> |          | <p>el</p> <p>el/n</p> <p>rep</p> |
| <b>S</b> | Stanley |   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                       |

|   |   |   |   |  |
|---|---|---|---|--|
|   | L | <p>Stanley is truant; imagine. Your group member is truant. Has Stanley started? Has Stanley shown the Reference page? Never believe the person who says he or she has started. You should say, 'Show us we want to see'.</p> <p>Please tell Stanley that whatever reference style that he uses is the one that your IT department uses and show your academic lecturer so that you are in line with your department because each faculty has adopted a certain type of referencing. Other group members, who is responsible for the reference page?</p>  | F | com<br><br>d                                 |
| 8 | L | <p>Now, let me tell you something; if you have read from an interview, even information from the internet; you don't reference it in the same way, for example; let me give an example, let me give an example, when you access a journal article you have to put for example, the author, date, the 'http' address, and of course before that you know; the author, the year of publication, the http when it was accessed; when it was accessed. If it was written by Robinson and then the initial and the publisher and where it was published and where it was published and the publisher, and of course if you are referencing a source with two authors. So you have to make sure that your reference page is done correctly. Please use information on references appropriately. You may get information from an interview or you may get information from a brochure. So, using these different these types of references will be indicated in the Reference page.</p> <p>And find out as a group, research your referencing system in your department.</p> <p>Now, the last thing that I am going to talk about; although I know I talked about it because it is in the hand-out that I gave you and you said I did not talk about it. I know I talked about it. It's on page 5-on how to develop a main paragraph.</p> <p>Remember we said in the main paragraph you expand on the thesis statement. The thesis statement can also be a topic sentence. And how do we expand the thesis statement? You expand it by giving relevant detail, statistical evidence and other piece of evidence. And of course at the end of it you have you come up with a scope that closes that paragraph; that closes that paragraph.</p> <p>If I take you to the essay itself page 30, If I take you to the essay itself page 30, Listen to this, I am going to read the third paragraph; 'There are down sides however. The Cook Islands do not have the capacity to own and maintain businesses such as large airline companies or tourists hotels. They are owned by other countries such as New Zealand or multinational conglomerates. <b>blah, blah, blah....</b>'. And then in the last one; according to Milne (<b>this and this and this</b>). That is paraphrasing. And then Direct quotation, As Milne claims; "The crucial factor in determining the level of negative social impacts is the degree to which local participation in the ownership and control of the industry is determined" Milne (1987, page 120).</p> <p>Based on what we learnt today, what is happening there? Do we see any in-text referencing? Can you explain what you see and how it was done? Remember we said there are two ways in which you cite sources; so what do you do here?</p> <p>Yes please</p> | I | i<br><br>d<br>i<br><br>d<br>i<br><br>el<br>n |
|   | S | Yes, there is a Direct quotation  | R | rep  |

|          |   |  |    |          |
|----------|---|--|----|----------|
|          | L | Direct quotation.  | F  | acc      |
| 9        | L | And how was it done?   | I  | el       |
|          | S | Quotation marks.   | R  | rep      |
|          | L | Quotation marks.   | F  | acc      |
| 10       | L | What else do you see?<br>Yes please  | I  | el<br>n  |
|          | S | Surname of the author.   | R  | rep      |
|          | L | Surname of the author. The year of publication<br>Very good  | F  | acc<br>e |
| 11       | L | What else do you see?  | I  | el       |
|          | S | The publisher uses quotation marks to explain the author's point.  | R  | rep      |
|          | L | To explain the author's point.   | F  | acc      |
| 12       | L | So, how is paraphrasing done there?  | I  | el       |
|          | S | According to Milne (1987).   | R  | rep      |
|          | L | I have seen students writing 'according to Susie Star in a book called Study Skills published (1997). Don't use first names. You use initials. According to Susie Star in a book Communication Skills  | F  | com      |
| 13       | S | If you say, according to Milne; If you want to see the details of Milne do we put the year of publication?   | I  | el       |
|          | L | Well you have to put the year. You can't just say according to Milne and not indicate the year the source was published because Milne might have various sources. In the academia, whatever you put in there for supporting details that you put in there show that you have researched; even the professors do that; the people who are supposed to be knowledgeable they support. So the fundamental principle in academic is supporting, supporting, supporting and citing the sources. The fundamental issue is supporting a well-developed paragraph. | R  | rep      |
| Boundary | L | Please, let me conclude by saying that, "Go and work on your assignments, address the principles of academic writing, and it is going to be part of your CA and it has to be submitted next week Tuesday". A well developed paragraph in the area that you are researching on.   | Fo | ms       |

**END OF LECTURER STAR'S LESSON THREE (SCIENCE)**

**11.7 Lesson transcription one**

**Faculty: Business**

**Lecturer G (i): Star**

**Topic: Qualities of a good communicator**

| Exchanges | Participant | Classroom talk  | Moves | Acts |
|-----------|-------------|---|-------|------|
| Boundary  | L           | What we are about to do; I said use your recall, think of people whom you consider good communicators and list down the qualities that you think render these people effective communicators and we would discuss around that. QUALITIES OF A GOOD COMMUNICATOR. The assignment or the task at hand was to think of two people that you know that you consider good | Fo    | ms   |

|                   |          |   |          |                            |
|-------------------|----------|---|----------|----------------------------|
|                   |          | communicators.  |          |                            |
| <b>Teaching 1</b> | <b>L</b> | And, let's hear what do you have? Please share two and please explain what you mean.<br>Yes please  | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>n</b>            |
|                   | <b>S</b> | Friendly, they always smile and it is easy to approach them.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                 |
| <b>2</b>          | <b>L</b> | What is the word that you came up with before the explanation?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                  |
|                   | <b>S</b> | Friendly.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                 |
|                   | <b>L</b> | Friendly.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>                 |
| <b>3</b>          | <b>L</b> | How do you tell that somebody is friendly? She has alluded to the fact that you feel free when you deal with them; they are welcoming.<br>Now the question is, 'How do you tell that somebody is welcoming?'<br>Yes please.   | <b>I</b> | <b>s<br/><br/>el<br/>n</b> |
|                   | <b>S</b> | I think you can tell by their facial expression.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                 |
|                   | <b>L</b> | Excellent.<br>So here we are looking at positive non-verbal cues. Remember we said nonverbal communication is body language. And here we are looking at facial expression, And we are looking at gestures. We are looking at body language. We are looking at gestures, appearance and dress. Let me give you this scenario; You are walking to River Walk, and then you meet along the corridor here at UB, this very tall guy with a long dress; it's a guy. Wearing a black leather jacket and wearing short; green shorts and he is wearing a yellow 'stomach out' and these long boots; and he is walking like this (Lecturer acts) even if you wanted to ask for directions; would you? So we are talking about appearance. In terms of facial expression, are you a pleasant person? Did I tell you of one of my previous students? I had never seen him smile. When I talked to him he said, "No, I am a man of few words". Class, we are not saying always smile even if there is no need for you to smile; but generally have a pleasant disposition; we are talking of a pleasant disposition. Even gestures; don't go for a business dinner and throughout the dinner you are cracking your knuckles; it is unpleasant. Facial expression also; if you are going to a business dinner with a potential client and you speak with food in your mouth; that is not pleasant. She also talked of the fact that a good communicator is making people around you comfortable; comfortable. | <b>F</b> | <b>e<br/>com</b>           |
| <b>4</b>          | <b>L</b> | How do you make people around you comfortable, class? How do you make people around you comfortable?<br>Yes, please.  | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>n</b>            |
|                   | <b>S</b> | I will give an example of when you are able to adjust from seriousness to a cheerful mood; you are able to adjust.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                 |
|                   | <b>L</b> | Ability to adjust from seriousness to a cheerful mood; they talk about flexibility, they talk about friendliness.   | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>                 |
| <b>5</b>          | <b>L</b> | And what else? What else?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                  |
|                   | <b>S</b> | Good interpersonal skills.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                 |
|                   | <b>L</b> | Good interpersonal skills.<br>Thank you.<br>If you are able to talk to people; for example; Whenever you see people; tell them about your general life; or comments like, so Spring is here we have been suffering; Thank God Spring is here. Or you talk about soccer or the rugby season that is just about to  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>e<br/>com</b>   |

|          |          |  |          |                             |
|----------|----------|--|----------|-----------------------------|
|          |          | <p>start. When is the rugby season? Do we have rugby lovers here? Rugby lovers here? I live with rugby lovers and one of them plays rugby. They always say, “make sure that DSTV is on” because we do not want to miss any of the matches.</p> <p>Conversations: Smiling at people; Greeting people.</p> <p>Introductions; Imagine a situation where you keep the cousin at one corner. You have not even introduced your cousin and she will feel out of place. If you do that she will feel out of place. Introductions like, “<b>Masego</b>, please meet my cousin, <b>Bertha</b>. Bertha, meet my classmate. ‘<b>Ya</b>’ (Yes) Introductions.</p> <p>And if people around you are comfortable; people come to your room may be they are lost and they need direction, are you going to be kind enough and show them what they are supposed to go or are you going to be mean to them because if you are going to be mean to them, you are not a good communicator. Let me give you an example of what happened on Thursday during the inauguration ceremony at the stadium. The first six rows were kept for the professors and the academic staff who were robed; however, some colleagues came and just sat there. Then, somebody came and what he did was shocking because he just came and looked at people with a serious face. I can see people were getting so uneasy and off this person left and you can see this person was angry. However, somebody who is more of a better communicator just announced that, “excuse me ladies and gentlemen; the first six rows are reserved for members of staff who are robed”. It is very critical to make people around you feel comfortable; it doesn’t matter in what context; be it social, business, et cetera, et cetera. Even in class, do you make your classmates comfortable or not? When you come to class without a pen, will you be kind to borrow him a pen or people are scared of you. If people are scared of you then, work on yourself so that at the end you are approachable.</p> <p>Very good.</p> |          |                             |
| <b>6</b> | <b>L</b> | Let’s hear from this side. What are those qualities?<br>Whom have you written about-that person that you consider a good communicator?   | <b>I</b> | <b>n<br/>el</b>             |
|          | <b>S</b> | Oprah  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                  |
|          | <b>L</b> | Oprah. Yes.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>                  |
| <b>7</b> | <b>L</b> | Tell us, why do you consider her a good communicator?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                   |
|          | <b>S</b> | She considers people’s feelings before she talks.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                  |
|          | <b>L</b> | Very good.<br>That is called empathy. Empathetic. In other words, always put yourself in other people’s shoes. For example; always ask yourself before you utter words, ‘How would I feel if this word is going to be said to me’; it is very critical; it doesn’t matter at what level. So empathy is very important. Even in the hostel; to your class mates whom you are going to be working with. In the past I have had experiences of some students throwing serious abusive language to others and I had to intervene.<br>So this time around the things that you learn, please apply the principles. Make sure you are good communicators.   | <b>F</b> | <b>e<br/>com<br/><br/>d</b> |
| <b>8</b> | <b>L</b> | You said a second point which I think it was valuable.   | <b>I</b> | <b>s</b>                    |

|    |   |   |   |                  |
|----|---|---|---|------------------|
|    |   | What did you say?   |   | el               |
|    | S | Non-judgemental.  | R | rep              |
|    | L | Non-judgemental. Non-judgemental.   | F | acc              |
| 9  | L | Please elaborate on that.   | I | el               |
|    | S | She listens and gives advice without judging.   | R | rep              |
|    | L | Mh.<br>You have also introduced good listening skills; good listening skills.   | F | acc<br>com       |
| 10 | L | Someone wrote about an auntie? Please tell us; Why do you consider your auntie a good communicator? Why do you consider your auntie a good communicator?  | I | el               |
|    | S | She is always polite; understanding in every situation. She thinks before saying something.   | R | rep              |
|    | L | In other words even in a situation that you think it is scary, you think you might be judged, she does not judge you. And she listens attentively. You are able to express yourself. And you are saying she is courteous.   | F | com              |
| 11 | L | Why do you think she is courteous?  | I | el               |
|    | S | She never wants to offend anybody. She never thinks I am young. She tries to be at my level and try to advise me.   | R | rep              |
|    | L | Good.<br>It means she does not order you around.  | F | e<br>com         |
| 12 | L | If she feels like having a cup of tea; what does she say to you?  | I | el               |
|    | S | She says it in a polite way. She will not talk in a bad way.  | R | rep              |
|    | L | In a bad way.<br>Thank you for sharing that with us.<br>I know elders who will say, "Go and make me a cup of tea", and that is rude. Even if you are an elder, You do not have to be rude. The elder should say, "Susie, would you please make me a cup of tea, I would really appreciate that. Susie that will be kind of you". And even if you go, make that cup of tea; you will be very happy.<br><b>Isn't it?</b>  | F | acc/<br>e<br>com |
| 13 | L | Let's hear more.  | I | el               |
|    | S | What about people who do not talk but they like observing?  | I | el               |
|    | L | Let us throw it to the class. Susan has come up with something interesting and I would like us to talk about it. What about people who do not talk but they like observing? Are you talking of a person, who from January to December; whether in a family meeting, or a wedding or 21 <sup>st</sup> birthday party or auntie's anniversary or you have a sleep over and you are baking and this person is just observing; quiet.<br>Is it a true representation? | I | s<br><br>el      |
|    | S | No  | R | rep              |
|    | L | Ya I think that one is an exaggeration.   | F | com              |
| 14 | L | Would you like to paint a picture; I would appreciate that.   | I | el               |
|    | S | I believe "Actions speak louder than words"; so I am thinking of a situation where they act rather than talk.   | R | rep              |
| 15 | L | Like for example?   | I | el               |
|    | S | Like being polite.  | R | rep              |
| 16 | L | Can you be polite Susan without talking?  | I | el               |
|    | S | Yes. For example, You can open the door smiling.  | R | rep              |

|           |          |  |          |                    |
|-----------|----------|--|----------|--------------------|
|           | <b>L</b> | Open the door smiling; and you are just quiet. And you show them a seat and you are still smiling. And you go to the kitchen; and bring them some juice and you are still smiling. Let me say, “a balance”; a balance is very essential because if you do not talk at all, people feel very uncomfortable around you because they do not know what you are brewing in your mind. Even in the vernacular there is the expression pertaining to somebody who is too quiet. I am not saying all of us should be talkative. Even in my family there are extroverts and introverts; there are introverts-but the introverts should make an effort to say one or two words; when people come just say one or two words. Imagine a scenario where you are having a meeting in that group and somebody from September to January, they have never contributed in that small group; people might feel very uncomfortable in that small group. So a balance, even if it is one word and that is it. So they have made an effort. So, I think a balance is critical.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |
| <b>17</b> | <b>L</b> | Yes please.  | <b>I</b> | <b>n</b>           |
|           | <b>S</b> | What about people who analyse other people’s culture?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>          |
|           | <b>L</b> | Yes.<br>If you are just this person who arrived and you are just quite or you are analysing. You are invited for dinner, you are just quiet, chances are that you will not get that invitation again. Make an effort to talk to people. Have you ever met people and it’s like you have always known them; “ <b>ya</b> ” ( <b>yes</b> ) and this is the ability to make people around you comfortable. And it is a very critical skill in effective communication. I know of people who attend conferences and there is this guy who comes in and out; in and out; doesn’t talk to anyone; you are alone and feeling lost; and you are missing so much in that process. Interact with people; good listening skills. May be I should also put it down, “The ability to interact with people from diverse cultures, nationalities and of course educational backgrounds.” If you are a good communicator, when you are in Gabs you should be able to interact in the city. You go Moshupa, the village, you should be able to interact. You go to the cattle post be able to interact with the people there. Get yourself to the level of whom you are interacting with. Also when you get to communicate with the President, also be able to interact. Do you know Tumi Ramsden in ‘YA RONA?’ You know I have seen her face-book pictures invited to Michelle’s lunch; you should see her in Serowe ( <i>Botswana village</i> ) with elderly people and she even kneels to give them food and stuff. The ability to interact at all levels. Like right now Miss Galegane lives in York; different culture; people; different people she doesn’t know and she is going to live there for four years; so she should be able to interact with people there; to share your culture and learn their own culture etc, etc. | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
| <b>18</b> | <b>L</b> | Yes please.<br>Who is that person who is a good communicator? You have written about who?  | <b>I</b> | <b>n<br/>el</b>    |
|           | <b>S</b> | My uncle.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
| <b>19</b> | <b>L</b> | Tell us more about your uncle please.  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>          |
|           | <b>S</b> | He is confident.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
| <b>20</b> | <b>L</b> | Sam, why do you say your uncle is confident?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>          |
|           | <b>S</b> | He gives speeches confidently and he is sure of what he is talking about.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |

|    |   |  |   |                 |
|----|---|--|---|-----------------|
|    | L | And he is sure of what he is talking about. Confidence leads to assertiveness.   | F | com             |
| 21 | L | If you are queuing and somebody jumps the line; what do you do?<br>Somebody just jumps the line; what do you do?   | I | el              |
|    | S | I just say, "Excuse me, the line is there and not here.  | R | rep             |
| 22 | L | Okay. Any other version?<br>Yes please.  | I | el<br>n         |
|    | S | In English, it's more polite but in Setswana, that is how to say it.   | R | rep             |
| 23 | L | In English what do you say?  | I | el              |
|    | S | I never speak English when someone does that. I say, " <b>Hee rra wee! Golo ha re molaeneng wena o slashera; boela kwa morago</b> "  | R | rep             |
|    | L | For those who do not understand Setswana, he says ' <b>If you reckon you are cool like that, too bad; back</b> '. Is that a good communicator? It is not courteous. You should say, "Excuse me I think I came before you". Can I tell you something- there are several occasions I have told the person that, 'I came before you please, wait for your turn' but I have not seen any resistance. Sometimes I say, "Excuse me my sister; please wait for your turn".  | F | com             |
| 24 | L | Yes please.  | I | n               |
|    | S | Ma'am sometimes, If you say "I came before you; they don't listen to you".   | R | rep             |
|    | L | You know what I do? I report the matter to the security; simple.   | F | com             |
| 25 | S | If somebody jumps the line. If you say, " <b>hee wena! O tseuletse go lo fa</b> " ( <b>Hee you! You have jumped the line</b> ). You are not being courteous.   | R | rep             |
|    | L | Thank you very much.<br>Courtesy, assertiveness, it helps.<br>Some people think by being sarcastic, nasty; rude; harsh, they will get the desired results. No. You don't get the desired results. I have tried both. Yes, I have tried both.   | F | e<br>acc<br>com |
| 26 | L | Yes please.  | I | n               |
|    | S | What about Posture; whether you are standing or sitting.   | R | rep             |
|    | L | Positive non-verbal cues. That is why I said people judge you by the way you walk, your gestures, your facial expression, even the way you are seated. When we were growing up, parents were very strict to us; parents were very particular about how we sit. But now things have changed because I sometimes see ladies sitting without crossing their legs. And sometimes if I get a chance a whisper to them to cross their legs. " <b>Ya</b> " ( <b>Yes</b> ) these are the sort of things that define you as a person. | F | com             |
| 27 | L | Yes please   | I | n               |
|    | S | As a good communicator one should put into action whatever he or she teaches.  | R | rep             |
|    | L | Very good.   | F | e               |
| 28 | L | Meaning?   | I | el              |
|    | S | May be you tell people what you expect from them; so that they see it from you.  | R | rep             |
|    | L | Very good.<br>Pretty much the way you relate; interpersonal skills.  | F | e<br>com        |
| 29 | S | Let me give an example of somebody who is friendly and people do not take her seriously. If she puts her foot down and be aggressive. Let us say at some point just being assertive one is a good communicator and if the person changes and puts her foot down  | I | el              |



|           |          |   |          |                               |
|-----------|----------|---|----------|-------------------------------|
|           |          | being aggressive. The fact that she is out of line now she is not a good communicator?  |          |                               |
|           | <b>L</b> | If you talk to the students that I have taught in the past, they will tell you that if there is need for me to be firm; I do. But if I have to be pleasant and put myself at that level of the students to that they be free; I can. If somebody is unkind in my class; I don't take it lying down. I tell them straight away that that is being unkind in my class. An assertive person doesn't render you to be tossed around. Like as a manager if you need to be firm; be firm, for example, Ladies and gentlemen I am not pleased about what I see right now. Can we go back to the basics and adapt to our strategic plan. Can we ladies and gentlemen...." That is why when I talked about.... It becomes a problem if you are always cheerful. Sometimes you have to be serious and sometimes you have to be cheerful, light-hearted. Sometimes you have to be serious; depending on the scenario. Please don't be misconstrue being assertive and being this person who is swayed back and forth. A supervisor for example, he should be able to, in a jolly mood invite me for tea but if you have overstepped the boundaries, you should be called to task; "Mrs Star, sit down, I have been waiting for the exam; where is the exam? The deadline has long passed. So, a balance. | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                    |
| <b>30</b> | <b>S</b> | I have a question; About the non-verbal cues, there are some countries where looking at someone's eyes is a sign of being trustworthy and being a good communicator; but in Africa there are places where if you look somebody in the eyes they think you are being rude or you are making them uncomfortable.  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                     |
|           | <b>L</b> | Good point.<br>In some countries, looking at someone's eyes, you are trustworthy but there are some places in Africa, where people think by doing so you are rude.<br>In communication we say, "Think globally and act locally". What that means is that, when you are in the US don't behave like you are in an African culture; in other words you should be able to fit to new situations. The ability to adapt to new situations and environments; that makes you a good communicator. So that of course when you go to that village to meet your grandmother and she is expecting you not to say "rrrrrrr"; do that; do that. Adapting is very critical.   | <b>R</b> | <b>e<br/>acc<br/><br/>com</b> |
| <b>31</b> | <b>L</b> | The last point before we conclude the class.<br>Yes please  | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>n</b>               |
|           | <b>S</b> | I wrote about my auntie. I think she is a good communicator because she does not bottle up issues. If you upset her, she calls you. She approaches the person about what happened and avoids bitterness.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                    |
|           | <b>L</b> | She doesn't bottle up.<br>And that is assertiveness. Class, let me tell you something, If you are not assertive you will suffer. If your room mate uses your toiletry, eats your fruits or uses your laptop, uses your slippers; uses your pink fluffy slippers without telling her; you will suffer. But if you say to her, "Hi, how are you, I would like to talk to you. Mary, I have noticed that you use a couple of my things in my room without my permission; personally, I respect other people and to me using other people's items without their permission is rather unkind. So please can you if you want to use something that is not yours   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>            |



|  |          |   |          |            |
|--|----------|---|----------|------------|
|  |          | <p>something. You should do things simultaneously. When others are doing the typing others conduct research. I should see who is conducting research on what because I said each one of you should have a research docket; where you are going to put all your material. You are going to get grades depending on what you do. I have seen some students getting a zero because basically they did not contribute anything to the group. So you assign members to go and research. I think that is enough activity for week one. And like I said these things should be done simultaneously. These things are done simultaneously; while one is still typing, others are doing research. I want to see who is doing what and I am also suggesting that let us have the fourth column; fourth column-date of completion; that indicates when each activity will be completed; in that way you are able to plan according to the activity as well. And then week two; week two- what are you going to be doing? So it is assumed that throughout Friday, Saturday, Sunday people will be researching. You can assign and say, 'Go and research on this topic'. So you just bring the research and compile? You have to come together. Each member should give feedback; Feedback is given by each member on the area of their research. After giving the feedback, you evaluate the data. After evaluating the data what do you do? What do you do? Class, evaluating data is when you look at what you have done, see whether you have collected enough data and you get the main theories. Ya, basically evaluating; after evaluating what happens? What happens? Aa, Somebody says you 'draft the report'. Do you just begin by drafting the report? You analyse the data; you could even have a report about the data collection; who collected what and what is the main theories, whatever piece of work. I told you that before you write any piece of work you have to come up with a strategy. I am going to end there because if I do not, I will be spoon feeding you. But each week should have so many activities. Even when you present you should not just write, 'presentation'. Prior to that who has done what? Some responsibilities are key and we should see them in the time line, for example, the compilation of minutes, we should see them every week; done by the secretary because every time you meet, minutes. The other thing I talked about the development of the portfolio and it should start week one as well. I know why you do things like this (<i>lecturer shows what has been done by one of the groups</i>); when I talk you just look at me and you think you can put everything upstairs and it does not work like that when the lecturer speaks you should have a habit of always jotting things down. That is why I was surprised when people came up with things like this (<i>lecturer shows what has been done by one of the groups</i>).</p> <p>Yes</p> |          |            |
|  | <b>S</b> | Last time you said we should come up with the time line that shows what we have done.   | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b>   |
|  | <b>L</b> | James I think you did not understand what you were expected to do. You have to plan for the whole four weeks. Show what you are going to do. You should have a column on comments. So that you keep on updating. Show me what you have done, not achieved, member truant, member not cooperative; does not do work. Those are the things to be filled week in, week out. That is  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b> |

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|   |   | <p>why I said the secretary should bring the portfolio to class so that I can see what is happening. I want to see what is happening and put an eye on how much people are doing their tasks; so that if they are not carrying out their tasks, I bring them to order. Like the portfolio you should have already started; at list the portfolio should have already started; it should have the tasks. You should at least right now be having the title page and whoever is working on the portfolio; should begin week one and each week, they should update the portfolio; update the portfolio; update the portfolio. Even the write up for the project, who is doing what. Similarly remember we are going to evaluate the project: the introduction, strengths, weaknesses, setbacks, achievements. I don't want to see all, all, all Or none, none, none. It looks like the secretary is the only person. And I don't want a situation where work is done by one person. Each member should research on at least 15 sources and submit them; typed, to the secretary. Of course, if you are have decided on the timeline; and say to one person, "Go and type it"; It is fair. The reference page; you don't wait until the last moment to compile the reference page. So these things are done simultaneously. You have to multitask.</p>  |   |                                       |
| 2 | L | <p>Any questions and then I continue with my task for the day? Any questions? Questions? Comments?<br/> And please feel free to come to my office anytime if you need help; feel free to come to my office anytime if you need help.<br/> Okay can you go back to your seats.<br/> This project class requires a lot of reading. We introduced the reading strategies and then I felt, let me just give you the whole seminar on reading strategies so that you can appreciate the role you are going to play as individual members of the group during this task and know what is expected of you. That is pretty much based on reading. Em! Why the emphasis on reading? Why the emphasis on reading? Why the emphasis on reading? We have been talking a lot about reading.<br/> Slide 1: Language Development<br/> When you look at Language development is achieved by four means; Listening, speaking, reading and writing. And the four skills also are the most important component in as far as effective communication is concerned. It is very critical.<br/> Slide 2: Connection<br/> So when you talk about the connection between those critical areas; Isn't it you read and then you think, read and involve language. And it can even be the other way round; So, you should have a certain level of language for you to understand what you are reading; that is the connection. It can even be the other way round. And ultimately that is the connection.<br/> Slide 3: Reading is thinking<br/> So, when you talk about Reading; Reading is actually thinking and ultimately you have the connection. When you read you think. Remember I said there is so much for you to read; Newspapers, online journals, magazines, pamphlets, internet materials. So you have to be a strategic thinker.<br/> Slide 4: Strategic thinking<br/> So, you have to be a strategic thinker. You have to be a strategic thinker.<br/> Slide 5: Strategic thinking quotation by Steve Harvey and Anne</p> | I | el<br><br>d<br><br>s<br><br><br><br>i |

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|  | <p>“True comprehension goes beyond literal understanding and involves the reader’s interaction with text. If students are to become thoughtful, insightful readers, they must extend their thinking beyond a supernatural understanding of text”.</p> <p>So whatever you read; you have to read it at different levels. Of course, level one being taking the literal meaning and move on to a critical level where you are going to read in between the lines. Whatever is hidden you are able to, you know, unpack. Not only that Critical Reading that is when you are going to evaluate, to analyse, to synthesis, et cetera, et cetera.</p> <p>Slide 6: Barriers to effective reading</p> <p>Now, there are Barriers to effective reading.</p> <p>If you want the power-point presentation, just email me; but if you find there is something to jot down, do it. It doesn’t mean you should be looking at me the whole time; certainly you should be jotting something.</p> <p>-word by word reading: you can’t read word by word. If you read word by word chances are that you are going to waste a lot of time. e.g. Slowness of recognition of words; et cetera, et cetera.</p> <p>-vocalisation. How many of you read aloud? Please don’t do that. Research has shown that if you vocalise, it’s a barrier to effective reading and then eye movements; move your eyes sentence by sentence; it is very, very critical.</p> <p>-regression; go back, go forth; go back, go forth; go back, go forth. When you are supposed to be concentrating on this thing you are now going backwards and you lose your train of thought.</p> <p>-faulty habits of attention and concentration: like last night I gave my son a lecture because he was reading and watching a rugby game. And I asked him, “how do you read and watch a rugby game?” and he said, ‘I am able to do that mum”. I said, “No, you can’t. Have you ever seen me watching CNN and making exams at the same time? I teach Study Skills at the university so there is no way you can do that. Can you switch off that TV and concentrate on your books. If you want to take thirty minutes in between, do that...”. Those of you who do that, It’s a non-starter. If you do that you are going to go back home; trust me.</p> <p>-Radio; well, personally, I like playing classical music; very low volume to keep me going. But I don’t see you studying under loud Kwaito or house music that goes “Baam! Baam! Baam” and reading; I don’t see how that can one work; that is a non-starter. That is a non-starter.</p> <p>-Lack of practise in reading: Especially large amounts because you have to be strategic and you have to be a habitual reader. Especially at university here, you cannot only get good grades because you come to class. There should be a balance. Come to the lectures for guidance and also go read in your room. There is a correlation between the students who fail and those who don’t attend class and those who don’t read because it is during class time that we guide you to show you exactly which areas to read.</p> <p>-Fear of losing comprehension: some people are scared of reading some topics. They think it is too complex or too complicated, for example, Globalisation. Oh my God; I am so scared.</p> <p>-Habitual slow readers. Some people are habitual slow readers. Somebody borrowed my book, it is about 200 pages; it’s now end of the year (December) but I have given them a deadline and said,</p> |  | <p>d</p> <p>i</p> |
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|          |          |   |          |                 |
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|          |          | <p>“Can I please have my book by 31 October that’s on my birthday; because I want to reflect on it on my birthday.” You can’t read a 200 pages book for the whole year; really ‘aaaah’ (No)</p> <p>-Poor evaluation: of which aspects are important and which are unimportant. When you read class you should be able to pick the key points; you have to be selective. You should be able to pick out the useful from the chaff. The effort to remember everything rather than selectively. That is why I taught you note taking. You must take down key points; that is very critical. You must take down key points.</p> <p>Slide 7: Why teach reading strategies</p> <p>Why teach reading strategies? “Once thought of as the natural result of decoding plus oral language, comprehension is now viewed as a much more complex process involving knowledge; experience, thinking and teaching”. When you read, you acquire knowledge experience, even thinking and also you can say it. You can actually share the skill that you learnt. So reading is very, very critical. And it is very, very critical that college student; In the US they say college but here we use university. So the reason why we teach you these skills is because these are life skills that will take you far.</p> <p>Slide 8: What strategies should be taught? And of course strategies to construct meaning from the text. So you need to strategise. That is why we talked of strategic thinking. Like for instance, connecting to the text. Motivate yourself.</p> <p>Slide 9: Top ten reading strategies</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>i. Connecting to the text. How do you connect to the text? How do you connect to the text? Motivate yourself. Not only that; use your past experience to connect to the text and have the interest of what you are reading in order to understand it.</li> <li>ii. Ask questions. Ask yourself questions. As you are reading ask yourself questions.</li> <li>iii. Expand vocabulary. Try and breakdown whatever the vocabulary is used in order to understand.</li> <li>iv. Predict and prove.</li> </ol> <p>Can somebody unpack that one for us? Predict and prove. As you predict what are you doing? What are you doing? Predict and prove.</p> <p>Yes <b>Samuel</b></p> |          |                 |
|          | <b>S</b> | You read about something and you put it into practise.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>      |
|          | <b>L</b> | Samuel says you read may be about a philosophy or theory and you say ‘ooooh, does it means it works like this?’ and then you put it into practise so that you prove whether it works.<br>Let’s say I am reading a book on parenting, and the book says, “I shouldn’t scream to the teenager. I should sit them down and reason with the teenager. If I correct, I correct with love. And then I prove whether when I do that there is a change in the teenager. Do you get the point? Aa ha!  | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>      |
| <b>3</b> |          | v. Sense it.<br>Sense it meaning?   | <b>I</b> | <b>i<br/>el</b> |
|          | <b>S</b> | Sense it means that you should feel it; feel the move in you as you are doing the project.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>      |
|          | <b>L</b> | Feel the move in you as you are doing the project.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>      |



|                 |          |   |           |                |
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|                 | <b>S</b> | You research much on it.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>     |
| <b>8</b>        | <b>L</b> | Somebody was saying something.  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>      |
|                 | <b>S</b> | You share it.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>     |
|                 | <b>L</b> | You share it.   | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>     |
| <b>9</b>        | <b>L</b> | And after sharing it? What do you do?   | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>      |
|                 | <b>S</b> | You research much on it.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>     |
| <b>10</b>       | <b>L</b> | After researching much on it?   | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>      |
|                 | <b>S</b> | You apply it.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>     |
|                 | <b>L</b> | You apply it.   | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>     |
| <b>11</b>       | <b>L</b> | How do you apply it? How do you apply it? How do you apply it?<br>You know about shares and stocks and bonds.   | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>      |
|                 | <b>S</b> | You buy shares.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>     |
|                 | <b>L</b> | You buy shares.<br>You are a student at the University of Botswana and you get an allowance of <b>P1 700 (£170)</b> every month. Let me tell you the secret students. Have you listened to that twenty one year old who is already a millionaire? Did you listen to that twenty one year old gentleman who is already a millionaire? I listened to him. He says you don't have to start with buying lot of shares; you start by <b>P100 (£10)</b> . Next month, another <b>P100 (£10)</b> . So, don't wait until you graduate. Start now and by the time you graduate, you will buy yourself a car; cash. Believe me; Trust me. So once you read about it, you explain it and you do it; it means you have built a basis. | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc com</b> |
| <b>Boundary</b> | <b>L</b> | Let us stop here; we shall continue and in the next class we are going to look at specific reading strategies, that is, Skimming, Scanning, fast reading, SQ3R and others.<br>Please send me those time-lines by the end of business tomorrow.  | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b>      |

**END OF LECTURER STAR'S LESSON TWO (BUSINESS)**

**11.9 Lesson transcription three**

**Faculty: Business**

**Lecturer G (i): Star**

**Topic: Academic writing**

| <b>Exchanges</b>  | <b>Participant</b> | <b>Classroom talk</b>   | <b>Moves</b> | <b>Acts</b> |
|-------------------|--------------------|---|--------------|-------------|
| <b>Boundary</b>   | <b>L</b>           | In preparation for your projects; I asked you to write me a paragraph. To write me a paragraph and that paragraph is supposed to be based on what you were researching about.   | <b>Fo</b>    | <b>s/ms</b> |
| <b>Teaching 1</b> | <b>L</b>           | I mentioned it that today we are going to talk about academic writing so that I see the level of your skill.<br>So, can you look at each other's work before I look at it and give each other peer assessment.<br>Based on the principles of academic writing, can you assess and give us feedback on what your peers have come up with.<br>What we are doing is that you are checking your partners work and you are checking if it is in line with the principles of academic writing and also the principles of an introductory paragraph. | <b>I</b>     | <b>i d</b>  |
|                   | <b>S</b>           | From my partners paragraph; I can see that there is the topic sentence.   | <b>R</b>     | <b>rep</b>  |
| <b>2</b>          | <b>L</b>           | Would you like to read the topic sentence?  | <b>I</b>     | <b>el</b>   |



|           |          |   |          |                       |
|-----------|----------|---|----------|-----------------------|
|           | <b>S</b> | Yes. ( <b>Student reads the topic sentence to the class</b> )   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>            |
| <b>3</b>  | <b>L</b> | What is the heading of the essay? James, What were you writing about?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>             |
|           | <b>S</b> | I was writing about Performance Appraisal System.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>            |
|           | <b>L</b> | Performance Appraisal System.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>            |
| <b>4</b>  | <b>L</b> | You are saying that the paragraph has a thesis statement. It is a general statement and what else follows? James, you are the author; can you tell us the system that you used to come up with that introductory paragraph?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>             |
|           | <b>S</b> | When I came up with the introductory paragraph for my topic sentence, I started on a phrase that I saw from one of the authors that kind of give the reader the idea regarding Performance Appraisal System. After giving an idea of the current status I wanted to show that there are multiple aspects to get it from; that is when I asked the question about the Performance Appraisal System. Then I showed multiple ideas of the system and then I showed the current status. | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>            |
| <b>5</b>  | <b>L</b> | Can you read that paragraph please?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el/n</b>           |
|           | <b>S</b> | <b>The student reads his paragraph.</b>   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>            |
| <b>6</b>  | <b>L</b> | You see a topic sentence and what else?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>             |
|           | <b>S</b> | It is well referenced.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>            |
| <b>7</b>  | <b>L</b> | Let us first of all talk about Principles of developing a paragraph before we talk about referencing.   | <b>I</b> | <b>s</b>              |
|           | <b>S</b> | A concluding sentence.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>            |
| <b>8</b>  | <b>L</b> | Betty, what is the assessment of your peer? The work that your peer did?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>             |
|           | <b>S</b> | Okay, My peer talked about Procurement which is similar to Purchasing. She referenced well both in-text and after writing the paragraph but I thought that the paragraph could be shorter and more specific in relation to the topic which is Procurement. The structure is also well done.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>            |
| <b>9</b>  | <b>L</b> | What about the principles; the composition of an introductory paragraph which we talked about?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>             |
|           | <b>S</b> | The construction of sentences is also well done.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>            |
|           | <b>L</b> | Thanks for that feedback.   | <b>F</b> | <b>e</b>              |
| <b>10</b> | <b>L</b> | Can you give us an evaluation of her work?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>             |
|           | <b>S</b> | I think her work is well done because she has the topic sentence. She also has the concluding sentence. She also has some references.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>            |
|           | <b>L</b> | Thanks for that.  | <b>F</b> | <b>e</b>              |
| <b>11</b> | <b>L</b> | What is the composition of an effective paragraph according to what we discussed on Tuesday- because that is what you should be using as a yardstick to judge the paragraph that you have before you? While you are thinking let me give them the chance. Yes   | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>n</b>       |
|           | <b>S</b> | She wrote well but; she does not have a topic sentence she also has the concluding sentence.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>            |
| <b>12</b> | <b>L</b> | Before you sit down make sure that the work is done; and please exchange.<br>Class I gave you a recipe on how an introductory paragraph is constructed.<br>Can we go back to that recipe? Because that is what you must use. You must use it as a yard stick; to evaluate if the paragraph  | <b>I</b> | <b>d<br/>s<br/>el</b> |



|           |           |  |          |                       |
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|           | <b>Ss</b> | Yes  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>            |
| <b>18</b> | <b>L</b>  | Can you share with us what your topic sentence says?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>             |
|           | <b>S</b>  | The paragraph is about Accounting.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>            |
|           | <b>L</b>  | So, it means that the paragraph is about treasury. Now that is not the topic sentence because that paragraph is not talking about insufficient funds; right.   | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>            |
| <b>19</b> | <b>L</b>  | Mh, let's hear that topic sentence.  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>             |
|           | <b>S</b>  | Generally, the role of communication in acquiring the skills.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>            |
| <b>20</b> | <b>L</b>  | And how did it continue?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>             |
|           | <b>S</b>  | However, According to Roberts et al (1972) its roles minimize expenses.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>            |
| <b>21</b> | <b>L</b>  | How did you come with 'however'?<br>Please give the book back to the owner. Can you give the book back to the owner?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b><br><b>d</b> |
|           | <b>S</b>  | Generally, the role of purchasing in an organization is acquiring goods and services. However, according to Roberts et al (1972) its roles minimizes expenses.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>            |
|           | <b>L</b>  | Why that sentence? Mh! This is exactly what I am talking about. The fact that when you write an Introductory paragraph; Don't just write; Ask yourself, 'what is this?'  | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>            |
| <b>22</b> | <b>L</b>  | And anybody who has written his introductory paragraph according to this model? Anybody? Topic sentences?<br>James. Yes please   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b><br><b>n</b> |
|           | <b>S</b>  | We were talking about Procurement. Purchasing falls under procurement and is responsible for buying the materials and equipment. That is a topic sentence. It involves placing orders...(lecturer interrupts the student).   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>            |
|           | <b>L</b>  | It is not a topic sentence. It is an illustration; you are giving details; supporting evidence. Let me read you something. A topic sentence should give an overall idea of what the paragraph is about-that is what a topic sentence is all about.<br>"In theory tourism brings substantial economic benefits to a country." It's a general statement. Like those of you who are doing research on "smart phones have proved to be very effective in the world of business"; It is a general statement.  | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>            |
| <b>23</b> | <b>L</b>  | What is your group doing about?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>             |
|           | <b>S</b>  | Performance Appraisal systems.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>            |
|           | <b>L</b>  | Performance Appraisal systems. A general statement like, 'many organisations use the Performance Appraisal systems to evaluate performance'. I will give you another example: "The creation of jobs is often claimed to be a positive side effect of tourism". So that whole paragraph is going to show how creation of jobs is a positive sign of tourism. So, I think I need to give you a lecture so that you understand more on what a topic sentence is all about. Now, let me read on what I have here.<br><b>(Lecturer reads a sample paragraph from the hand-out).</b><br>This is the background. <b>(reading of the paragraph continues)</b><br>This is the schools of thought. It could be some people argue that while others argue that. You bring the schools of thought. This theory argues; A, B, C, D. And then the thesis statement of intent. Listen to this;<br>You say, 'In this essay I am going to take this stance'. This is a universal way of introducing an essay. | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>            |



|           |          |   |          |                                     |
|-----------|----------|---|----------|-------------------------------------|
|           |          | <p>Now, when we talk about referencing; the question is-why reference? why reference? why reference?</p> <p>And I think you have to put that one down.</p> <p>Referencing is necessary in order to avoid plagiarism. I once read in an academic magazine where a professor; the badges were taken from the professor-why? because this professor was using people's ideas without acknowledging them. So they said 'you are no longer a professor, take down the badges and we are even demoting you from your PhD because we realise even your PhD was not written within the confines of Academic Writing'. Imagine from Professor to Mr; imagine. Or if it is a lady to Mrs, like Mrs Star; because I am not yet there but I will get there. I am not yet there. It takes a lot to get there. And we know when you use ideas and you claim they are yours. And I will give you two ways in which you reference. First of all let us talk about, 'In-text referencing': 'In-text referencing'; it is citing your sources within the text or within the paragraphs. And according to the American Psychological Association-APA referencing when you cite a source within the paragraph, you can either do it by direct quotation or by paraphrasing; by direct quotation or by paraphrasing;</p> <p>Direct quotation or paraphrasing. When you use Direct quotation; So what you do is that direct quotation; is when you write the author's surname, year of publication, page number and of course the quotation is in quotation marks. Let me give you an example; "One researcher has found out that computerized accounting packages has improved efficiency in a lot of accountancy departments in (...sic., 1976, page 124)".</p> <p>Do you understand what I am talking about?</p> <p>Surname, year of publication, page or if you like, you can use another method where you say, Eaton and Beach (2004) say, "blah, blah, blah, blah" at the end of the quotation, page 169. "So and so states that, blah, blah, blah, blah."</p> |          | <p>s</p> <p>d</p> <p>i</p> <p>i</p> |
|           | <b>S</b> | Why can't we write the title of the journal in the text?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                           |
|           | <b>L</b> | We will get there in a bit. Just hold it there. Just hold it there.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                          |
| <b>30</b> | <b>L</b> | <p>This information is just to keep you going for the time being. But remember the following principles; the fact that as the writer you have to introduce the point; you don't just introduce the quotation. You have to introduce the point in your own words. Like "According to..." So and so found out that..." So and so argues that....."; "The research by so and so found out that.." And the second principle is that you should use a quotation or paraphrase only when your point cannot be supported without it. In other words, you are using it to support. The third point is brevity. The fact that you must trim your quotation. And how do you trim your quotation? Have you ever seen this; "...". Ellipsis. Three dots mean I have left out a sentence. Four dots mean I have left more than two sentences because sometimes you only need a small portion; you do not need everything. They indicate that you have left out some bit that you did not need in your quotation.</p> <p>Now, let me get to what she was asking,</p> <p>At the Reference page; that is the one that you should develop; so that at the end you have a complete reference.</p> <p>I have seen some students write, According to Star in the book</p>   | <b>I</b> | <b>s/cu</b><br><b>i</b>             |

|          |   |   |    |    |
|----------|---|---|----|----|
|          |   | <p>Intercultural communication and then they will underline the title of the book. Boleswa Publishers, Gaborone. You don't do that; that is for the Reference page. After you have used in-text citations within the text, then at the reference page that is where you are going to give details. That is where you show that this Star; these are her initials, this is the year of publication, this is the title of the book, this is where the book was published and then the publisher. The Reference page; that is the one I said you should develop so that at the end of your project, you have your References. And you do not write a Reference page anyhow; you have to follow a certain format. If you use APA, even your in-text referencing should be in APA format. A whole lot of books, magazines, websites and interview results should be referenced well. And let me tell you something, and I want you to go and find out; you do not reference a book the same way you reference a journal article. You don't reference a magazine the same way you reference a website material. Especially at group work, check whether you have common understanding; whether how you write your References is acceptable. If you go into the internet, there is a whole lot of information on Referencing. For now let us stick to the APA for different sources because it is different. Even when you find something on TV and you want to cite it in your paper, there is a particular way of referencing it.</p> <p><b>“Ee mma” (Yes ma’am),</b> I will come back to you.</p> <p>Now what I want you to do class; I want you to go and develop a main paragraph; based on what you have been researching about and please bring it to the next class and it will be part of your C.A. Bring it to the next class using the principles that I talked about last time; that a paragraph should be well developed with at least 6 sentences, thesis statement, statistical evidence etc, etc. And I also talked about coherence and cohesion. You heard that as people were reading their paragraphs there were words like; ‘however, in addition, therefore, as a result, meanwhile, moreover, firstly, secondly, thirdly’. And please read more.</p> |    |    |
| Boundary | L | I will stop at this. <b>“Ya” (Yes).</b> I think is time.  | Fo | ms |

ack  
d

**END OF LECTURER STAR’S LESSON THREE (BUSINESS)**

**11.10 Lesson transcription one**

**Faculty: Business**

**Lecturer C: Victor**

**Topic: Communication: Information Literacy Skills**

**Key to the lesson below:**

**L(a) Refers to lecturer Victor**

**L(b) Refers to Miss Precious. She was invited by lecturer Victor to come and address the students on the topic, “Information Literacy Skills”.**

| Exchanges  | Participant | Classroom talk  | Moves | Acts                         |
|------------|-------------|---|-------|------------------------------|
| Boundary   | L(a)        | Today we want to move on with our discussion. Remember, that lately we have been looking at what communication is.  | Fo    | s/ms                         |
| Teaching 1 | L(a)        | What did we say is communication by the way?<br>I want somebody from this group to give us the answer.<br>What did we say is communication?<br>Yes  | I     | el<br>n<br>el<br>n           |
|            | S           | It is transmission of information from sender to receiver.  | R     | rep                          |
|            | L(a)        | Good.<br>Transmission of information from sender to receiver. Okay. That is not a very complete definition but it is a working definition of what communication is; what it means. I want you to underline or to reflect on transmission of information. So, we transmit information; we transmit messages.   | F     | e<br>acc<br>com              |
| 2          | L(a)        | We have also talked about why we communicate.<br>I want this table to give us the answer.<br>Why do we communicate?   | I     | i<br>n<br>el                 |
|            | S           | We communicate to convey a message.   | R     | rep                          |
|            | L(a)        | To convey a message. To convey a message or information.  | F     | acc                          |
| 3          | L           | What else?<br>That table. That table to redeem itself. <b>“E seng jalo mabele a gammago a ta jewa ke tshupa” (lest your mum’s harvest will be devoured by pests).</b> Yes. Don’t hide or pray to your ancestors that they should cover you with soil. No. Just give us the answer.<br>What else? Why else do we communicate? Were people absent? Remember I give out what for tables that participate? I appreciate; so, I am watching; any table for that matter.<br>Yes.<br>Are you fishing me; you are doing this and then you duck.   | I     | el<br>n<br><br>el<br>n<br>cu |
|            | S           | To get things done.   | R     | rep                          |
|            | L           | Yes.<br>To get things done. To get things done.   | F     | e<br>acc                     |
| 4          | S           | To express feelings and emotions.   | R     | rep                          |
|            | L           | To express feelings and emotions.<br>Yes.<br>So those are purposes. After that we spent some time talking about communication barriers; and the barriers that are potentially present. We also spent some time talking about effective communication and so on and so on.<br>The theory of communication and of course I gave you some exercises in your groups. The stages it progresses and the barriers that are potentially present. You did that for me; you submitted and which I am still looking at. Again I gave you a case study, which I am still marking. Right? I have not started looking at it so I cannot comment on it. I cannot comment about your performance. | F     | acc<br>e<br>com              |
| 5          | L           | Now today, I would like to introduce another component of effective communication. Critical component of effective communication which you need at the back of your mind all the time that you communicate. Now that component is Information Literacy.<br>It is-'<br>Everybody?  | I     | i<br><br><br>Cue el<br>n     |
|            | Ss          | Information Literacy.   | R     | rep                          |
| 6          | L           | Everybody,  | I     | n                            |

|          |             |   |          |                                       |
|----------|-------------|---|----------|---------------------------------------|
|          |             | It is-'   |          | Cue el                                |
|          | <b>Ss</b>   | Information Literacy.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                            |
|          | <b>L</b>    | Information Literacy.<br>And Information Literacy is a very important component of communication. Whether as a student at the University of Botswana or as a Financial Manager at KPMG, you have to refine the information and literacy skills. Now, we shall discuss this; and this is where Miss Precious comes in. Miss Precious is an Information and Literacy Skills expert.<br>I want you to give a round of applause for Miss Precious. She is an Information and Literacy Skills expert. She is also an information manager. She knows how to manage information. She knows where information is stored. She knows where information is stored. She knows what sources you can go to when you are looking for information. So she will guide you in a variety or some of those skills. So she will tell you how we can communicate or transmit that information.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com<br/><br/>d<br/>com</b> |
| <b>7</b> | <b>L(a)</b> | Now before I call upon Miss Precious, to talk to you about Information and Literacy Skills, I would like to take you through the definition of Information and Literacy Skills. I would like to give you a definition of Information Literacy. I pulled this from the net. I pulled this from the net. Other people call it information competency; information competency. And it is defined as the ability to access; to evaluate, to organise, to use information from a variety of sources. So, Information Literacy is therefore about accessing; it is about evaluating that which you have found. It is about organising, packaging that information, it is about using that information. It is about conveying that particular information; to serve a particular purpose. Now, notice that ILS involves a variety of things; accessing, filtering, the organising part which I will do or we shall both do. So being information literate involves knowing how to define your subjects. Knowing how to investigate; knowing how to select appropriate terminology that express the concept or subject under investigation; knowing how to formulate research strategies: this we shall do when we do the project; research strategies, this we shall do when we work on the research project or we shall implement when we come to do that. Knowing which resources of information are available. How to analyse the data collected for value, relevancy and quality and ability. And, it entails presenting information in an acceptable manner. Later on we are going to talk about Academic Writing where you are given a task, a project. This is where you will be going out there; where she will tell you, look for information, sieve out that information, dust out what you don't need. And of course she is going to take you through all those processes. From the various sources that she will tell you about. I want us at this stage to pause because this is a skill that will determine whether you survive or you drown as a university student. Do you understand what I am getting at? Yes. Very, very important. As an employee of your organisation; there is a time when you get the job, they are going to look at whether you are literate in looking for information and presenting that information. So this skill is crucial, boys and girls. Good. I would like at this stage to call upon my colleague. Miss precious is not only going to be with us today but is going to be with us for some | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b>                              |



|           |             |  |          |                       |
|-----------|-------------|--|----------|-----------------------|
|           |             | time.  |          |                       |
| <b>8</b>  | <b>L(b)</b> | What is information? Have you used information before? How many times have you used information?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>             |
|           | <b>Ss</b>   | MUMBLING   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>            |
|           | <b>L(b)</b> | I can't hear you.  | <b>F</b> | <b>cu</b>             |
|           | <b>L(a)</b> | We don't chorus; we indicate by raising hands.   | <b>F</b> | <b>d</b>              |
| <b>9</b>  | <b>L(b)</b> | How many times do we use information?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>             |
|           | <b>S</b>    | All the time   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>            |
|           | <b>L(b)</b> | All the time. Yes.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>            |
| <b>10</b> | <b>L(b)</b> | Information is data or value for decision making. It either reduces uncertainty or increases uncertainty in the mind of the decision maker. That's what information is. (Information is data or value for decision making. It either reduces uncertainty or increases uncertainty in the mind of the decision maker. That's what information is). There is need for information in our everyday lives at all times in our lives. Information Literacy teaches one how to learn. So, for you to be able to learn efficiently, during your four years of stay here you need to be into information literate; that is, you need to know how to find information at all times; how to use it; how to formulate questions; how to identify sources of information, how to interpret, evaluate and even to organise information. It is not everything that is written down that is good information. | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b>              |
|           | <b>L(a)</b> | Miss Precious says, it is not everything that is written down that is good information.  |          | <b>i</b>              |
|           | <b>L(a)</b> | What does that mean? Or when you read a book?<br>That means you need to evaluate the information. Today if you read a newspaper, if you buy a newspaper, you don't read everything all at once; <b>Akere? (Isn't it?)</b> there are some things that you say, 'no this I don't need'. That is an implementation of a skill; you are selecting and evaluating.  |          | <b>el</b><br><b>i</b> |
|           | <b>L(b)</b> | It is not everything that is scholarly information. I know that nowadays you like using 'Google' to do your assignments or to answer a lot of questions. There is information in 'Google' that is not authentic; that cannot be cited for a scholarly work. In order to be able to identify scholarly information, you must have to have IL skills so that you are able to evaluate all the kind of information that you find or come across.  | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b>              |
|           | <b>L(a)</b> | Would you like at this stage very quickly to mention the Wikipedia? I gave them a task the other day and I found a lot of stuff from the Wikipedia.  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>             |
|           | <b>L(b)</b> | The Wikipedia is not authentic enough. Once in a while, you can come up with something good from the Wikipedia; but you cannot depend on it.<br>Information Literacy is a skill; it is a life-long learning skill. It equips learners to be able to identify information, like I have said before. And today's learners have to be prepared for the information age by acquiring IL skills. They have to be able to think critically; use computers and all other ICT's. ICT's meaning information communications technology that includes computers, scanners, printers, microfiche readers and so on. Those are used in order to access information. Like I said, information literacy skill is important and other forms can be achieved. So an information literate person can be identified by the following:   | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b>              |



|                 |             |  |           |                 |
|-----------------|-------------|--|-----------|-----------------|
|                 |             | you and other researchers who are looking for information. At the same time, information has become obsolete at a fast and high rate.  |           |                 |
| <b>12</b>       | <b>L(a)</b> | What does that mean?<br>Somebody? Yes.   | <b>I</b>  | <b>el<br/>n</b> |
|                 | <b>S</b>    | As time goes the information is no longer reliable.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>      |
|                 | <b>L(a)</b> | Is she correct?  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>       |
|                 | <b>L(b)</b> | Yes. It changes; a lot of information comes up all the time which renders the previous information worthless.  | <b>F</b>  | <b>com</b>      |
| <b>13</b>       | <b>L(b)</b> | So, those who know how to access and use information are Information Literate will be more in the competitive market. Information Literacy is a highly marketable skill. So if you are information literate, you will be able to do a lot more other things than people you will be competing with. So information literacy is not only needed in school when you are still a learner. You are still going to need it even after school; at your workplace, when you socialise and many other places.  | <b>I</b>  | <b>i</b>        |
|                 | <b>L(a)</b> | It can get you that girlfriend that you really want; or that boyfriend that you really like; Just a display of literacy in information; It will distinguish you between him.<br>“Akere” (Isn’t) you guys like people who are resourceful?  |           | <b>i</b>        |
|                 | <b>L(a)</b> | Am I right or wrong?   | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>       |
|                 | <b>Ss</b>   | Right  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>      |
|                 | <b>L(a)</b> | You want somebody who is resourceful. Somebody who will tell you, “why don’t you check that website?” Somebody who will take your phone and start doing things with it. “Akere”? (Isn’t it?) Somebody who will take your computer and start doing things with it; which you didn’t know. That is being information literate.   | <b>F</b>  | <b>com</b>      |
| <b>14</b>       | <b>L(b)</b> | So, information searching skills must be learnt and applied time and again; so you shouldn’t just put it aside at a later stage; even here at school. So, whatever you are going to learn at this university you shouldn’t just put it aside, you have to apply it time and again; you need the information time and again in order for you to be successful. You apply it in real life experience. Where there are often different sources, these might include a search for information, and those must be weighed for further information. So, IL skills are used in our everyday life. When you are a learner in this university, now and again you have to use the library, when you are given assignments and writing research papers. And if you do not have those information literacy skills, it’s not easy to use the library. It is almost impossible. If you do not have those skills you will be going to the librarian’s office and at times you do not find her/him in the office like I am here right now. | <b>I</b>  | <b>i</b>        |
| <b>Boundary</b> | <b>L(a)</b> | So what we wanted to do today, we wanted you to get a feel of where Information Literacy Skills are located in so far as general communication is concerned. Miss Precious has explained to you why you need the Information Literacy. She has explained some of the skills that you have to acquire in so far as information literacy is concerned and I would like to reiterate that the skill that you are going to learn from Miss Precious; is not a knowledge thing but it is practical skill; so the bulk of the things will be done in the library because you need it in front of you; and feel it. So, it will be done in the library. Okay?   | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b>       |
| <b>Boundary</b> | <b>L(b)</b> | You need to know the characteristics of information and how it is organised and learn how to use information access tools.   | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b>       |

|          |      |  |    |    |
|----------|------|--|----|----|
| Boundary | L(a) | This is where we will stop today. This is where we will stop today and we will build on to what we have learnt today; and she is going to be seeing you in groups. | Fr | ms |
|----------|------|--|----|----|

**END OF LECTURER VICTOR'S FIRST LESSON**

**11.11 Lesson transcription two**

**Faculty: Business**

**Lecturer C: Victor**

**Topic: Academic Writing**

| Exchanges     | Participant | Classroom talk  | Moves | Acts                     |
|---------------|-------------|---|-------|--------------------------|
| Teaching<br>1 | L           | What did we say about Academic writing Style? What did we say about academic writing style versus non-academic style?<br>Somebody? Somebody?  | I     | el<br>n                  |
|               | Ss          | NO RESPONSE   |       |                          |
|               | L           | You want to be spoon-fed<br>We did talk about academic writing style.<br>What did we say compared to the non-academic style? What did we say?<br>Yes  | R/I   | cu<br>s<br>el<br>el<br>n |
|               | S           | It uses formal language   | R     | rep                      |
|               | L           | We said Academic Style of writing uses formal language.<br>Uses formal language   | F     | acc                      |
| 2             | L           | What did we say about formal language? What did we say about language that is formal compared to the one that is non-formal? What did we say about formal language?<br>Yes my dear.   | I     | el<br>n                  |
|               | S           | It entails word choice.   | R     | rep                      |
|               | L           | It entails word choice;<br>Rather than say, "eh, the argument that my niggers and I are making". "Akere?"(Isn't it?). That's what you guys say. Yes. You talk of dudes. The other day the other young lady said, "hey dude". I looked around looking for a dude and I realised she was using slang. So we avoid using slang. So we avoid slang. Word choice entails avoiding slang expressions. | F     | acc<br>com               |
| 3             | L           | What else did we say about formal language?<br>Yes  | I     | el<br>n                  |
|               | S           | We avoid shortened forms.   | R     | rep                      |
|               | L           | Yes, Shortened forms. Shortened forms   | F     | acc                      |
| 4             | L           | What else?<br>Yes my dear.  | I     | el<br>n                  |
|               | S           | Use of abbreviations.   | R     | rep                      |
|               | L           | We also avoid the use of abbreviations; abbreviations.<br>The type of thing that you do when writing sms messages; when you write your e-mail messages.   | F     | acc<br>com               |
| 5             | L           | Anything else about formal?<br>Yes  | I     | el<br>n                  |
|               | S           | The use of nominalised impressions.   | R     | rep                      |
|               | L           | We as much as possible use nominalised expressions; where a verb form has been converted or transformed into a noun. Okay! "The expectation that all first years should write   | F     | acc<br>com               |

|          |          |   |            |                    |
|----------|----------|---|------------|--------------------|
|          |          | <p>in an academic style is usually not observed by all lecturers. Haa! The expectation that all first years should write in an academic style.” Nominalised phrase. So, that whole phrase has been nominalised. That whole phrase has been nominalised compared to if you had said, “That all first year students should write in an academic style. That all first year students are expected to write in an academic style, it’s something observed by everybody.” So, notice that the first one where we have used the nominalised phrase is more effective-It’s a better usage.</p> <p>Yes; good.</p>   |            | <b>e</b>           |
| <b>6</b> | <b>L</b> | What else did we say about academic writing style?  | <b>I</b>   | <b>el</b>          |
|          | <b>L</b> | What else?  | <b>R/I</b> | <b>el</b>          |
|          | <b>S</b> | We use impersonal language  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>         |
|          | <b>L</b> | <p>We don’t personalise; Yes.</p> <p>-We don’t personalise propositions to ourselves. Okay. We don’t “I” things. We don’t “I” the ideas throughout. Although we know that you are the originator of the ideas it is considered inappropriate. The academic community feels you are sort of imposing. Okay! They feel you are arrogant. It’s called academic arrogance; in some instances. So by using; by minimising the use of personal pronouns you are minimising arrogance. You are respecting; so to speak; showing awareness that your audience is worthy to be respected. So, we avoid impersonal expressions.</p> <p>-We also avoid our opinions. “In my opinion, I think.” It’s your opinion. But many a times we find academic expressions use; We hedge, We hedge our views. We hedge our views. “It can be noted that, “dada, dada, dada, dada” not “you can see.” If you say, “you can see”, It’s like you are pointing a figure at your reader and even compelling them to accept what you are saying as a true or correct position.</p> <p>-Emotions; “I totally disagree “hee”. I totally disagree with the view that business communication is central to all disciplines at university. Notice that “I totally disagree” you are revealing your emotions; your involvement. So, academic writing, you should sort of take a step backwards; so that your emotions do not come out as paramount in what you are saying. It is not about how you feel. Your reader is not so much concerned with how you feel but it is the point that you are making. So, use language that is void of emotions, that is void of opinions.</p> | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |
| <b>7</b> | <b>L</b> | <p>-And then awareness of other people’s research. I think that is where we stopped; awareness of other people’s research. An academic style requires you to show scholarship; to show scholarship. You cannot at university write an essay, write a research which does not demonstrate any background review in terms of finding out what others have written about the same idea; or without a demonstration of what others have called the same concept or phenomena that you are writing about. I was talking to some of you as they came to consult regarding the research that you are working on; and others are working on the concept banking, and others are working on merchandise, Right! Others are working on</p>  | <b>I</b>   | <b>i</b>           |

|          |           |   |            |                    |
|----------|-----------|---|------------|--------------------|
|          |           | <p>advertisements.</p> <p>Now you cannot just use your own understanding of those concepts; It is not appropriate. It is not academically accepted. We need to see how much you have you read about Banking. What definitions of banking have you come up with? How is it described? What do other people say generally? Of course there is a lot of information on banking. That is why you also have to consult with Miss Precious, our Librarian during the Information Literacy Skill component; where she will be able to guide you in terms of what resources, what materials to look at. Awareness of other people's writing; Awareness of research. Now, that is crucial in academic writing. It is crucial and it has to be reflected as much as possible and that is what we want to focus on in this lesson. It is however important when you report other people's ideas to avoid what is called Plagiarism.</p> <p>What is called class?</p>   |            |                    |
|          | <b>Ss</b> | Plagiarism  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>         |
| <b>8</b> | <b>I</b>  | Again class   | <b>R/I</b> | <b>el</b>          |
|          | <b>Ss</b> | Plagiarism  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>         |
|          | <b>L</b>  | <p>Plagiarism. Yes!</p> <p>I want you to mouth that word, I want you to mouth that word, and not only to mouth it but to record it in the eyes of your minds and I believe many of you have eyes in their minds. The word plagiarism and its implications on the academic writing style.</p> <p>Many people have failed or received very low marks in their academic courses because they disregarded plagiarism. Others call it, "Cut and Paste". "Cut and paste". They think it is enough just to cut and paste other people's ideas. It is an academic crime. You will remember the University policy about academic honesty. I talked about academic honesty at the beginning of the semester. You look at your course outline you will find at the bottom of the course outline.</p> <p>Who has the course outline? At the bottom of the course outline there is a portion where we talked of academic honesty or academic dishonesty. This is where you disregard, this is where you disregard; and use as your own ideas, the ideas of other people and fail to acknowledge them. An academic style of writing should demonstrate and appreciate the ideas of other people through citations. So, we need to cite. We need to cite. Is this how you spell cite? Yes not with an 's'. You need to cite. Citation.</p> | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |
| <b>8</b> | <b>L</b>  | <p>Now, of course there are various ways; there are various ways, that you can represent ideas that are not your own. And the way you do it is what we expect; is what we expect in a good essay. Right! You can quote, quotations; yes, you are expected to quote; A good academic piece of writing should have quotations.</p> <p>Should have what class?</p>   | <b>I</b>   | <b>i</b>           |
|          | <b>Ss</b> | Quotations.   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>         |
|          | <b>L</b>  | <p>Should have quotations.</p> <p>This is not to say that in every paragraph you cut something</p>  | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |







|                 |          |   |           |                                    |
|-----------------|----------|---|-----------|------------------------------------|
|                 |          | How would you respond to that?<br>Young lady<br>You are no longer sick, are you? Do you know why you are not feeling well? Is it a bit of head ache? Your hair is too long. And according to African culture if your hair gets that long, you are bound to either have a headache or lose weight. And I think you kind of have both. Anyway; go ahead young lady. What was the question?<br>Is it not an opinion? “It is surprising”  |           | <b>el<br/>n<br/>cu<br/><br/>el</b> |
|                 | <b>S</b> | It is. But when you are writing you cannot just take what the writer said. You have to take what the writer said and you have to make it a little bit of reporting.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                         |
|                 | <b>L</b> | Is it an opinion? Does it point to him? It’s surprising to whom?<br>To anybody. It is a general idea. You are not saying, “I am surprised”. If you say, “I am surprised” then that is where you will be seen to be plagiarising because the idea is not yours rather it is Vitality’s.  | <b>F</b>  | <b>e<br/><br/>com</b>              |
| <b>18</b>       | <b>L</b> | Yes Vitality.   | <b>I</b>  | <b>n</b>                           |
|                 | <b>S</b> | I feel it is more of your opinion because you say it is surprising whereas to the next person ‘it is not surprising’. So, you say, ‘it is surprising’ because you feel it is.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                         |
|                 | <b>L</b> | Of course when you make a statement such as that you need to support it, to show why? Why is it surprising? Your topic sentence; It means you need to develop; Right! You need to support; You need to expand that position; It’s a proposition; It’s a main idea now you need to give more information; more details; more flesh to it.<br>We will talk about this next week when we talk about development. But good point you are making. Notice that I am not saying you cannot take a position. I am not saying you cannot a position in an academic paper. We need to know what your position is. But the way you take your position should not convey, you know, outright personal feelings. And if you do, by all means try to substantiate. I always put a big Question Mark OR I say, “Sub-stan-tiate” when I mark! It means you have not substantiated. It means you have not given reasons. Academic writing is about making a point and substantiating the point, motivating the point and substantiating the point. Sometimes I say, “Please motivate your point”. So, the bottom line is that plagiarism is a crime. And in order to avoid committing that crime, we have to quote. You can either quote directly or indirectly. | <b>F</b>  | <b>com</b>                         |
| <b>Boundary</b> | <b>L</b> | I am going to take you through the ways of quoting, next time. Are there any questions? Right. Good day.  | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b>                          |

**END OF LECTURER VICTOR’S SECOND LESSON**

## 11.12 Lesson transcription three

Faculty: Business

Lecturer C: Victor

Topic: Note Taking

| Exchanges  | Participant | Classroom talk   | Moves      | Acts  |
|------------|-------------|--|------------|---|
| Boundary   | L           | Now for today, we are looking at Note taking.  | <b>Fo</b>  | <b>ms</b>   |
| Teaching 1 | L           | And I would like to find out from you what your impressions are regarding your note taking skills. Are you able to take good notes?<br>It could be from your lectures or it could be from the books; written resources that you use.<br>What are your impressions?<br>Anybody? Anybody?                          | <b>I</b>   | <b>el</b><br><br><b>cl</b><br><br><b>el</b><br><b>n</b> |
|            | L           | What are your impressions? How do you see your note taking ability so far? Are you coming here to university already having acquired good note taking skills? Do you reckon yourself good at taking notes from written materials or from oral resources like lectures, workshops, seminars and so forth?<br>Yes. | <b>R/I</b> | <b>el</b><br><br><br><br><b>n</b>                       |
|            | S           | I think I have some skills.  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>  |
|            | L           | So you have some kind of skills. Right.  | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc</b>  |
| 2          | L           | What about you lady?   | <b>I</b>   | <b>n</b>  |
|            | S           | It depends on the lecturer because sometimes the lecturer is fast.   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>  |
|            | L           | For her it depends.  | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc</b>  |
| 3          | L           | Yes  | <b>I</b>   | <b>n</b>  |
|            | S           | I prefer taking notes from written materials compared to oral materials such as lectures.  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>  |
| 4          | L           | Yes.<br>Young man at the back; blue jersey, nike, collar shirt.<br>Do you want me to continue describing you?  | <b>I</b>   | <b>n</b><br><b>d</b><br><b>cu</b>                       |
|            | S           | I have some skills more especially when dealing with written materials because when I read I summarise.  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>  |
|            | L           | When you read you summarise. Okay.   | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc</b>  |
| 5          | L           | Yes my good friend; you know you are the only one good.<br>Quick, quick.   | <b>I</b>   | <b>n</b><br><b>cu</b>                                   |
|            | S           | I am not sure.   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>  |
| 6          | L           | What can you say about your ability to take notes?   | <b>I</b>   | <b>el</b>   |
|            | S           | Not that good.   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>  |
|            | L           | Not that good.   | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc</b>  |
| 7          | L           | Why do you say so?   | <b>I</b>   | <b>el</b>   |
|            | S           | My writing speed.  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>  |
|            | L           | You are talking about taking notes from the lecture.   | <b>F</b>   | <b>com</b>  |
| 8          | L           | What about when you are reading?   | <b>I</b>   | <b>el</b>   |
|            | S           | It is difficult.   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>  |
|            | L           | It is difficult to select important information. We will come to that later.   | <b>F</b>   | <b>com</b>  |
| 9          | L           | Now, let us talk about the style. The style for taking notes.<br>Is there a style that you find useful or easy or that which you prefer?<br>Yes  | <b>I</b>   | <b>s</b><br><b>el</b><br><br><b>n</b>                   |



|    |    |  |   |                             |
|----|----|--|---|-----------------------------|
|    |    | seriously. Now let us come back to methods; which I have said are many but can be classified into four main categories; which I said we are not going to look at all; except for two. Two-not because they are the central ones; but possibly because they are the most commonly used; right! But possibly because they are the most commonly used. Right. The first one is the Linear type of notes; Linear type of notes.<br>I would write that if I were you.<br>They are called Linear because the information is presented logically; the information is presented logically with beginning clearly outlined and the subsequent connections also clearly made.<br>Now the example of the Linear notes is the Outline.<br><b>I'm I talking to someone here?</b><br>Is? ' |   | d<br>i<br><br>el<br>Cued el |
|    | Ss | Outline  | R | rep                         |
| 11 | L  | Is? '  | I | Cued el                     |
|    | Ss | Outline  | R | rep                         |
|    | L  | Outline notes; Outline notes.  | F | acc                         |
| 12 | L  | Now with an Outline, you are looking at grouping things or ideas.<br>Stand up young man; stand there.  | I | i<br><br>d                  |
|    | S  | <b>Male student stands in front of the class</b>   |   |                             |
|    | L  | Now that is a boy. Do you see a girl? Do you see a man young lady? Now, we can group together the clothing that he is wearing in ways that shows some kind of relationship.<br>Do you agree with me?<br>What will go together? Look at his attire. Don't worry about the underwear. You can group this clothing from head to toe somehow; <b>"Akere?" (Isn't it?)</b> . You can classify the clothes.<br>Now, how can you classify the clothes? For example; can the shirt go with the shoes?  | I | s<br><br>ch<br>s<br><br>el  |
|    | Ss | No   | R | rep                         |
| 13 | L  | What will the shirt go with? What will the shirt go with?  | I | el                          |
|    | S  | Muscle top.  | R | rep                         |
|    | L  | We are classifying the clothes and not the parts of his body. The shirt goes with the T-shirt. Isn't it? The shirt goes with the T-shirt. The jean goes with the underwear. <b>"Akere?" (Isn't it?)</b> And notice that the classification is based on where things are worn. That is what helps us to do the classification.<br>Okay. Sit down young man.<br>The same can be done with classification of the students in this class. We can classify the girls based on the characteristics that we observe. It could be the colour. It could be the height. It could be the body. Outlining is on grouping things into how they are related.<br>I want to give you this example. ( <i>Lecturer distributes handouts</i> ). Just take one and let me have the rest.         | F | com<br><br>d<br>i<br><br>d  |
| 14 | L  | Now, what I distributed is an outline of a passage; it is an outline of a passage; it is an outline of a passage dealing with 'why forgetting occurs'. Dealing with forgetting.<br>Now I want you to take a minute to look at this outline in your group and decide on anything that you can see that describes an outline in some way. You do not necessarily need to focus on  | I | i<br><br>d                  |

|           |           |   |          |                                   |
|-----------|-----------|---|----------|-----------------------------------|
|           |           | the content.<br>Do you understand what I am getting at? Right.<br>So I want you to take a minute; take a minute and only focus on the top example and tell us anything that you have observed about an outline. The time starts now. Remember you are looking at the content.   |          | <b>ch<br/>d</b>                   |
|           | <b>Ss</b> | <b>GROUP DISCUSSION</b>   |          |                                   |
|           | <b>L</b>  | Are the groups ready to report? Children, are you ready to report?<br>Let me take this group<br>Give us a point.<br>Don't waste our time please.  | <b>I</b> | <b>s<br/><br/>n<br/>el<br/>cu</b> |
|           | <b>S</b>  | The Roman figures one and two are the main points and A, B are the supporting details.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                        |
|           | <b>L</b>  | So, they are talking about logical presentation.  | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>                        |
| <b>15</b> | <b>L</b>  | Now, let us unpack what they have told us; that the information presented in an outline follows a logical presentation. What does that say to you?<br>Yes young lady  | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/><br/>n</b>              |
|           | <b>S</b>  | The way the information is presented should be linked in a way that makes sense.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                        |
|           | <b>L</b>  | Beautiful stuff.<br>It should be linked in a way that makes sense.<br>Do you understand that?<br>It should be linked in a way that makes sense.   | <b>F</b> | <b>e<br/>acc<br/>ch<br/>acc</b>   |
| <b>16</b> | <b>L</b>  | Now, what does it mean to you as you are reading and are extracting information and presenting it in an outline? What does that mean to you?<br>Anybody?<br>Does it mean that you write as you read? Hee?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/><br/>n<br/>el</b>       |
|           | <b>S</b>  | When you are presenting an outline you wouldn't present it the way you write notes in complete sentences.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                        |
| <b>17</b> | <b>L</b>  | Rather?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                         |
|           | <b>S</b>  | You take the main points and ensure that the main points are more emphasised and then get supporting evidence.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                        |
|           | <b>L</b>  | Not quite! Not quite!<br>When you read what are the implications? Many times we read a sentence and write down. Logical presentation means that we have to digest; we have to process. We have to ask ourselves which one is the main point. Sometimes the main point is not obviously in the first line. It means you have to ask yourself; What is the key point here? So it means we have to process. So, when you make an outline; we do not just read a sentence and write; otherwise we may end up with a list; otherwise we may end up with a list where we say 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 20. I will show you why in a moment. Very good. | <b>F</b> | <b>e<br/>com</b>                  |
| <b>18</b> | <b>L</b>  | Tell us anything else about an outline.<br>Let's not waste time.<br>Yes, redeem your group.   | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>cue<br/>n</b>           |
|           | <b>S</b>  | My observation is that the Roman figures are representing the questions and the alphabets will represents the headings and the numbers we use we explain the headings.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                        |
| <b>19</b> | <b>L</b>  | Did you hear him? Do you agree?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                         |
|           | <b>Ss</b> | Yes   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                        |



|                 |          |   |           |                       |
|-----------------|----------|---|-----------|-----------------------|
| <b>24</b>       | <b>L</b> | <p>Tony Buzan was the originator; well he claimed to write about this and I believe in people who first committed things to paper. So he came up with a system of Mind Map. Now, this is a system of grouping things according to relationships between concepts; between concepts, for example; take the example of the notes on Forgetting and ask why? and under why forgetting occurs? And then; how? And then under how? you get those reasons. Notice that some of those reasons can further have details and then you can go on. So these notes can therefore be represented in this way not as Linear representation. Linear representation which possibly complete sentences. Linear notes we have complete sentences here but with mind map we use key words or phrases. Now, some people prefer to write the notes like this. So, you will have the key concepts and under the concepts you would have the subordinates concepts and under the subordinates concepts you can have the supporting detail; this might have two or one and that one detail can be further subdivided. That one detail can be further subdivided; depending on the amount of detail.</p> <p>Does that make sense to you? Who has used this system of representing information? Have you used it? Do you use it?</p> <p>Now this is useful particularly when you are brainstorming; when you work, this is something that you can use in your group when you are brainstorming. It enables you to come up with many ideas particularly when you are summarising what you are reading and particularly when you are reading for exams. I have used this and I have found it quite useful but of course that does not mean that the other types are not.</p> <p>Tell me what have you learnt from this lesson? Tell me what have you learnt today? What are you taking away from this lesson? What are you taking away from this lesson?</p> <p>Yes young man</p> | <b>I</b>  | <b>i</b>              |
|                 | <b>S</b> | Other techniques of writing notes   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>            |
|                 | <b>L</b> | Techniques of writing notes.  | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>            |
| <b>25</b>       | <b>L</b> | <p>Yes young lady.</p> <p>What are you taking away? What are you going to tell your mother?</p>   | <b>I</b>  | <b>n</b><br><b>el</b> |
|                 | <b>S</b> | Using better ways of writing notes.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>            |
|                 | <b>L</b> | Using better ways of writing notes. Aha. Okay.  | <b>F</b>  | <b>com</b>            |
| <b>26</b>       | <b>L</b> | What about you young lady?  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>             |
|                 | <b>S</b> | I learnt that Mind Mapping and Linear notes can help me study better.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>            |
| <b>Boundary</b> | <b>L</b> | Guys go and work on that task and notice that if you want to use the mind map you can do that; if you want to use the patterned notes, you can do that.   | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b>             |

**END OF LECTURER VICTOR'S THIRD LESSON**

### 11.13 Lesson transcription one

Faculty: Social Science

Lecturer E: Masterpiece

Topic: Critical Reading

| Exchanges     | Participant |  | Moves | Acts                       |
|---------------|-------------|--|-------|----------------------------|
| Boundary      |             | I can see that some people are still on vacation.  | ---   | ms                         |
| Teaching<br>1 | L           | In order to recap, what did we say about critical reading?<br>What is critical reading? What characterises critical reading?<br>What characterises critical reading?<br>We are just waiting for you to come and answer this question.<br>What is critical reading?   | I     | el<br><br>cue<br><br>el    |
|               | S           | When you are reading critically, you should be able to gain ideas. You should not only read for understanding but show your opinion.   | R     | rep                        |
|               | L           | You should read for understanding she says, you should show your opinion. Position yourself as a reader; being able to detect what we talked about; bias, opinions and untruths. So, this is part of critical reading. Read with an open eye and open mind.  | F     | acc<br>com                 |
| 2             | L           | So, I thought that today in order to conclude this lesson because I know that most of us read newspapers. Today you will have an opportunity to read a bit.<br>What you have to do you simply go through the newspaper; Okay and you look for instances of bias, untruths, somebody's opinions. There is a lot of that in the newspapers. And then at the end of the lesson you are going to make some presentations. Please don't mark; that is all I have. | I     | i<br><br>d                 |
|               | Ss          | STUDENTS WORK IN GROUPS  |       |                            |
| 3             | L           | As you read, it is also part of critical reading; being a good reader you can also edit.<br>Just pick any.<br>You are looking for bias. You are looking for instances of untruths or somebody's opinion which you might agree with or which you might not agree with. Right? Always make it a habit to read newspapers.<br>You are left with four minutes.   | I     | i<br><br>d<br>i<br><br>cue |
|               | S           | <b>Group One: The student reads one of the articles they chose to the class.</b><br>We tried to interpret this article and we realised that this article was written in May 2011 and around that time there the public sector strike. As a result, the author was in a way analysing the grievances of the civil servants because they were demanding 15% salary increase. The example is that the workers were requesting Ausi Maggie for salary increment. | R     | rep                        |
|               | L           | Thank you for that.<br>They brought a very important point that when you read you look for the hidden meaning; don't look for the  | F     | e<br>com                   |



|          |           |  |          |              |
|----------|-----------|--|----------|--------------|
|          |           | <p>surface meaning; go deeper.</p> <p>The author brought the concerns of civil servants in a hidden manner. The writer who is a lecturer here; “<b>Ya</b>” (<b>Yes</b>) in the English department; Mr Seboni. I like his articles because they are presented in a very humorous, relaxed manner. Can you cite one or two examples of language? It is there. I think you mentioned some like; “Life is hard” Ausi Maggie kept on saying “<b>ga kena madi</b>” (<b>I do not have money</b>).</p> <p>Other groups will present in the next lesson so that all the groups have a chance to share with us. Okay?</p>                          |          | <b>d</b>     |
| <b>4</b> | <b>S</b>  | <b>Group Two: The student reads to the whole class one of the articles they chose.</b>   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>   |
|          | <b>L</b>  | Can you take us through.<br>I like that story. I don’t like the Voice newspaper as there is a lot of untruth but when I saw that article I bought the newspaper because she was a former classmate.  | <b>I</b> | <b>d cue</b> |
|          | <b>S</b>  | What we picked from this story is that mostly people are corrupt. The only reason why Keletso is that the mum has power to corrupt and let things be the way they want.<br>And there is a lot of untruth from Keletso because (a) I tend to wonder why she did not sign the affidavit. (b) I don’t think there is a reason why someone of high power can lose a job like that just because of her son. I personally believe that there must be reasons why she lost her job (c) her son cannot just be taken from her “ <b>go sena mathata hela</b> ” ( <b>when there are no problems</b> ). The story shows that justice is not served. | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>   |
| <b>5</b> | <b>L</b>  | What if the points raised in the article are not true?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>    |
|          | <b>S</b>  | If it is not true? “ <b>Ema pele</b> ” ( <b>Wait a minute</b> ) “ <b>Ke gore nkareng?</b> ” ( <b>What can I say?</b> ) A lot of investigations still need to be done so as to clarify some issues.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>   |
| <b>6</b> | <b>L</b>  | What else can you pick from the story?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>    |
|          | <b>S</b>  | My look from one point; maybe say Keletso is trying to be manipulative and she does not want to take responsibility of her life based on the fact she is an elder and has to provide for the family. And on the other hand, may be the other members of the family is taking advantage of Keletso because they do not want to equally share what the father left for all of them; so it’s a bit unfair to her.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>   |
|          | <b>L</b>  | Thank you for that.<br>Also on the issue of language, she uses abusive language that does not portray a unity in the family. There is a lot of untruth and biasness in the story. Also, on reading the story, I saw her life going down. The argument is based on the fact that she had a very big wedding and went for a honeymoon in Swaziland. Two days into their honeymoon they were taking photos on top of the cliff the husband fell and died. So, ever since that she has never been herself.   | <b>F</b> | <b>e com</b> |
|          | <b>Ss</b> | aaah   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>   |
|          | <b>L</b>  | Ya. He fell and died.  | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>   |

**END OF LECTURER MASTERPIECE’S LESSON ONE**



|  |  |  |  |
|--|--|--|--|
|  | <p>retire early from work? After sometime you get bored. The mind; everything starts with the mind.</p> <p>Your mother went back?</p> <p>At first she was excited. You wake up and go to Riverwalk, South Africa, you are all over.</p> <p>But you get bored; especially that I think because our culture; we are not a reading culture unlike people in the west because when they retire that is the time they start learning. They can start a new hobby; they start learning something else. That is when they do another Masters Degree; or another PhD; why? To occupy the mind. Because you know Reading occupies the mind. You don't know that? Reading exercises your mind; It keeps your mind busy. If you read the mind becomes busy. But if there is nothing to exercise your mind by just thinking about the weekend; No! by reading; by learning new things; by going into other cultures; learning about those cultures; not just stuff from their discipline; they will read a Science textbook or an Economics textbook or Statistics because it keeps the mind sharp; it keeps the mind sharp and focused. Those people are intelligent because they are not just confined to their subjects. I do not want anything to do with human rights; to do with the law; to do with the Environment; you know people like that. I don't want people stop sleeping a lot; just sleep for six hours you shouldn't also over stay.</p> <p>Our purpose today is on academic reading. And this is a very, very important topic. Extremely important; academic reading.</p> <p>How to read at tertiary; How to read at tertiary. You need to learn the strategies of good reading, You need to learn the strategies of good reading, Academic reading because most of the time you need to research. You need to go to the library; You need to read online. You need to read books, journals, You need to read books. It is not only about printed materials. It is not only about books; You can also read online. But at this University what I have discovered is that students don't really know how to read online. Because they have not been trained to read online. That is why when you give the students an assignment; they just download everything from the Wikipedia verbatim; word for word. There is nothing wrong but you need to do what is called paraphrase. Who can tell us what to paraphrase is? Even books you paraphrase. Do you know what to paraphrase is? Even books you paraphrase. Who can tell us what to paraphrase is? Now we are talking about academic reading. Reading for students who are at tertiary; Don't just rely on books. I have another book; the best book in the world (<i>the lecturer shows the students the Bible</i>).</p> <p>You have to read journals.</p> <p>Who can tell us about a journal?</p> <p>What is a journal?</p> |  | <p>i</p> <p>i</p> <p>s<br/>el<br/>el</p> |
|--|--|--|--|

|          |          |  |            |                |
|----------|----------|--|------------|----------------|
|          | <b>L</b> | What is a journal? Who can tell us about a journal?  | <b>R/I</b> | <b>el</b>      |
|          | <b>S</b> | It is like a diary except it is focussing on a certain topic or may be something. It is when one is writing a book about himself; a journal, journal, journal.   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>     |
|          | <b>L</b> | You are thinking of an e-journal. Have you seen an academic journal? Every discipline has its own journal. My background is Reading and Academic Literacy. We have our own scholarly journals where we publish articles once a year or twice a year; three times a year. In a journal; you have papers by different authors. Okay! May be they are ten of them. So the best ones will be selected and compiled into the form of a book. But it is on the latest research in your area; on the latest innovations, methods of teaching; if it for Education, journals in political science. One weakness in this university is that students rely on notes from class. So look out for journals in your area. Journals for Social Work; Journals in Economics, Journal in Political Science. Because one weakness is that the students rely a lot on books; prescribed books but you have to vary the sources. I presented a paper at the 7 <sup>th</sup> Pan African conference; We carried out a research on this and indeed student rely a lot on books and online; just getting the staff online; that they do not even get it right anyway. So an A* student is a student who can show the lecturer that they can vary the sources. Immediately you can tell. Like this book for example, We published this book in (2008) and we are in 2011. So this is how may years old? Three. For a book it is still new. But what I am saying is there are journals published last week in your area in 2011. Journals cover the latest research; recent developments in your area unlike this book. Is there anything in reading this book? No. But an A* student goes an extra mile and shows the lecturer that they are aware that there is something more recent than this; it is a journal or article of 2011; that shows good scholarship; that shows you have researched; you know what you are talking about; you are not just fumbling. Some students will even cite books that were used by their mothers and there is nothing wrong in that but show that there are recent publications. | <b>F</b>   | <b>com</b>     |
| <b>4</b> | <b>L</b> | Now, In the Library there are what is called electronic books; Okay? You can ask the Librarians for the electronic books. Each discipline has electronic books in the library; I have checked; It is only that students are not using them. It is not only students and lecturers. The library staff will take you through this; especially the information stuff but they will do that once we are sorted out.  | <b>I</b>   | <b>m<br/>i</b> |
|          | <b>S</b> | Ma'am I am trying to visualise an electronic book " <b>gore ke golo mo go ntseng jang</b> " (what does it look like?)  | <b>I</b>   | <b>el</b>      |
|          | <b>L</b> | Mine are DVD's; they are packed. The ones that my professor gave me as a gift when I completed my studies.   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>     |

|           |          |  |          |                            |
|-----------|----------|--|----------|----------------------------|
|           |          | Some are CD's.   |          |                            |
|           | <b>S</b> | Are they audio?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                  |
|           | <b>L</b> | Some are audio. I have some that are audio. But the audio are mostly elementary; so it depends.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                 |
| <b>5</b>  | <b>L</b> | Let's go to my chapter on reading. When you read somebody's idea; and you want to include it in your assignment word for word; Okay. " <i>Lecturer reads from the book</i> "<br>That is called what?   | <b>I</b> | <b>s</b><br><br><b>el</b>  |
|           | <b>S</b> | Plagiarism   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                 |
| <b>6</b>  | <b>L</b> | Have we talked about plagiarising in Social Sciences? Copying some body's work. It is called plagiarising. You can actually go to jail for that. Do you know that? Plagiarising. So you need to do this paraphrase. Say this in your own words not word for word. If you want to include it word for word, what do you do?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                  |
|           | <b>S</b> | You quote.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                 |
|           | <b>L</b> | Good; you quote.<br>In the body of your assignment, you put it in quotation marks, Okay. So you take all this words, for example, and put them in quotation marks. When we talk about referencing we will talk more about quotation marks.   | <b>F</b> | <b>e/acc</b><br><b>com</b> |
| <b>7</b>  | <b>S</b> | When I paraphrase do I use my own words?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                  |
|           | <b>L</b> | Yes! Yes! According to Masterpiece (2011) she says that, Academic reading is important at tertiary.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                 |
| <b>8</b>  | <b>S</b> | Even if the sentences are totally different?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                  |
|           | <b>L</b> | Yes. Thank you for that.<br>Thank you for bringing this up because these are issues that they have taken academics to court all over the world; people steal others ideas. A professor can steal a student's idea or a student steals a professors words. I remember when I was doing my Masters degree; this was exactly eleven years ago because this is 2011 student stole the professor's brilliant ideas; that were not there. Nobody has written about these ideas. The student was a PhD student then; I was doing my Masters. He used to come and give us talks on our area in Applied Linguistics. Then the student will come. And then the day came for his defence. He passed. And then one of the external moderators for her PhD said "what?", "what is this?"; Then he wrote a report; "these are my ideas" everything; everything; where she got the professors ideas I don't know. I saw that young man pack his bags for her home country. He was just expelled like that; he had to go to his country. | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                 |
| <b>9</b>  | <b>S</b> | Let's say you are doing research, right. And then you come across notes that say exactly what you want and you quote that; is it okay?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                  |
|           | <b>L</b> | Yes  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                 |
| <b>10</b> | <b>L</b> | If you are doing a research; in your proposal; you are trying to address the gap that is there. And if it is exactly the same, what gap are you addressing?  | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b>                   |
|           | <b>S</b> | What is a gap?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                  |
|           | <b>L</b> | Something that has not been done. When you are doing   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                 |

|           |          |   |          |                    |
|-----------|----------|---|----------|--------------------|
|           |          | research you can say I was motivated by this. But if it is done here; what are you saying? In research you should come up with a new thing.   |          |                    |
|           | <b>S</b> | The context has to be different. May be that research was done for elderly people in Britain. The context has to be different. If something has been done, then context has to be different. This will help find out what worked in one place can still work in the other. By so doing you are addressing a gap.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | Very good. Yes.<br>Or the hypothesis is that in Botswana it will not work.  | <b>F</b> | <b>e<br/>com</b>   |
| <b>11</b> | <b>S</b> | An example can be the issue of Old age home; some people are trying to do it here and saying this is the time to have elderly homes in Botswana. And some people think it will not work out here because my “ <b>nkuku</b> ” ( <b>grandmother</b> ) will just want to be home and look after her chickens.  | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b>           |
|           | <b>L</b> | Because of the culture. I read about it and then I said “will it work here”? But again it can work. We need to try these things here because we are more nuclear now. Because of the kind of work that we do. Here I am I have two jobs; in the evening I am somewhere else lecturing. There is a tutor who helps my children with the home work but who will take care of “ <b>nkuku</b> ” ( <b>grandmother</b> )? You see we are getting westernised. Society dictates that we change. So we have to try these things. Personally I don’t mind if I am old and my children take me to an old age home. That will be the time to pamper myself or read what I cannot read before.                                  | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>         |
| <b>12</b> | <b>S</b> | Not only that; you come from a different generation; you will be a grandmother who knows face-book and also twitter.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | And twitter.<br>My mother is not that old; she is sixty four. That is not old, right? We talked about it the other day and she said, “what”? Children are throwing their parents away. She calls it throwing away. My grandmother wouldn’t even think about it. She will just go crazy and say, “when I raised them up I was selling “ <b>magwinya</b> ” ( <b>fat cakes</b> ) to send them to school; now they are throwing me away.” They can die of heart break. But as for me that will be the time for my reading; pampering myself and time for going for walks. But as he says the backgrounds, the times. “ <b>Lona</b> ” ( <b>you</b> ) you are going to go to old age homes. It is just around the corner. | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |
|           | <b>S</b> | I will stay home with the house maid.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | Where will you get house maids then? <i>Ijaa</i> .  | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>         |
| <b>13</b> | <b>L</b> | Let us look at the strategies of reading before we go. Even before the strategies, Let us look at the types of reading since we have been talking about reading. Extensive reading; this is reading widely; I gave an example of people who just read anything. They read billboards about Nandos. There is something about that one <b>ya (of)</b> Bimbos.   | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b>           |

|                 |          |   |           |               |
|-----------------|----------|---|-----------|---------------|
|                 |          | <b>“E monate le motshegare” (It is nice during the day)</b><br>The day I saw it I said, “aah”. Even if you are a Zimbabwean or Zambian; you read that and you just take the surface meaning and not the hidden meaning, that will send a wrong message. So, you have to read extensively; and not only for the surface meaning but even for the hidden meaning. You will take the surface meaning.  |           |               |
|                 | <b>S</b> | Where is this billboard?  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>     |
|                 | <b>L</b> | Do you see people don’t read widely? As you go to Phakalane near Gaborone Sun. You know what a billboard is; Right. There is the picture of s man who looks like a clown and then the words, <b>“E monate le motshegare” (It is nice during the day)</b>  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>    |
|                 | <b>S</b> | It is behind the billboard that says, “Come to UB and be You”.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>    |
| <b>14</b>       | <b>L</b> | What is the meaning of “Come to UB and be You”?   | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>     |
|                 | <b>S</b> | It means “Be yourself; do not change”   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>    |
| <b>15</b>       | <b>L</b> | Do the students change when they come to UB?  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>     |
|                 | <b>S</b> | Yes. They change for worse because of freedom.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>    |
|                 | <b>L</b> | ooh! So start reading billboards because that is what we mean by Extensive. Extensive reading is reading widely, right! Try to read outside the classroom. Okay! Read newspapers. It depends because we are different. There is nothing wrong; the whole purpose of extensive reading versus academic reading; is to help you relax because you cannot always be reading academic books.<br>We wrote a paper with Victoria that is published in a journal. We found out that especially the girls they preferred to read for leisure that for academic purposes. There is nothing wrong in reading for leisure because you enjoy the latter side of life. | <b>F</b>  | <b>com</b>    |
| <b>Boundary</b> | <b>L</b> | So, in the next lesson we will look at Intensive reading; academic reading and look at the reading strategies. So when you see this billboard, know that it is referring to Bimbos.   | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms/con</b> |

**END OF LECTURER MASTERPIECE’S LESSON TWO**

**11.15 Lesson transcription three**

**Faculty: Social Science**

**Lecturer E: Masterpiece**

**Topic: Academic Writing**

| Exchanges | Participant |   | Moves    | Acts     |
|-----------|-------------|---|----------|----------|
|           | <b>Ss</b>   | <b>GROUP DISCUSSION ON THE TOPIC</b>  |          |          |
| <b>1</b>  | <b>L</b>    | So, after you have collected the supporting information or what we call the literature review to back up what we call brainstorming. Right. Now, the next step is to show the plan; you can do it in two ways: you can do the plan in two ways: (1) a graphic design like this one; you do what is called the Spider’s web. You know the spider is an insect that the body frame takes more space than the legs; I don’t know how many legs there are. Each leg will represent the main point and then the points to support the main points; | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b> |

|          |           |   |            |                    |
|----------|-----------|---|------------|--------------------|
|          |           | and it will go on like that. And then it will depend on the number of main points you have. (2) now this one is the outline; you do more or less what we did in the structured notes; just brief notes. You should have a plan so that whoever is going to mark your work can see how you are going to approach your essay or the project that you will be doing. We can see how you are going to approach your essay by the main points, supporting details; Main points, supporting details. As you can see I have numbered the points. Right! So that you the reader can just write brief points; not sentences because you will later expand them. In conclusion, one or two sentences just to capture the main points. And then, the References to show where you got the information from the library. References can be books, can be journals, can be online materials. So, the last stage will be Step Five; The References. That will be the last step. Now the information that you have got from the library, you can present it as a summary or even if you photocopy so that one can see the kind of work you did. Any questions or comments? |            |                    |
|          | <b>L</b>  | Did you visit the library?  | <b>R/I</b> | <b>el</b>          |
|          | <b>Ss</b> | Yes   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>         |
| <b>2</b> | <b>L</b>  | What did you do?<br>What did you learn?   | <b>I</b>   | <b>s<br/>el</b>    |
|          | <b>Ss</b> | Cataloguing   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>         |
|          | <b>L</b>  | Cataloguing.<br>Also, get information online; not only for this course but for all the courses.<br>But I take it that; I know that you are smart; you will evaluate your sources; you are not going to download everything online; verbatim even the mistakes.  | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |
| <b>3</b> | <b>L</b>  | Do you have any questions or comments?  | <b>I</b>   | <b>el</b>          |
|          | <b>S</b>  | There are some research topics “tse e leng gore” (that) when you research from books “ba go bolelela ka bo di” (they tell you about) government what, what.   | <b>I</b>   | <b>el</b>          |
|          | <b>L</b>  | Then you have to read journals. There are journals are published once a year, some twice a year, three times a year, some even every week. You have to keep abreast with the information. So journals are the best. You are right, a book might be written five years ago and it will be overtaken by events. Journals are the best.  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>         |
| <b>4</b> | <b>L</b>  | Now, how far are you with your individual reading assignment?   | <b>I</b>   | <b>el</b>          |
|          | <b>Ss</b> | <i>Not audible</i>  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>         |
|          | <b>L</b>  | That assignment is due next week Thursday. And this one also. We are going to present on this one. I want to finish marking before the exam. It is important that you go to the exam room knowing your C.A. Now, Tuesday; don't come to class; you can go to the library; wrap up your work because Thursday will be presentations. This presentation also involves how each one is going to present because each one has to say something.<br>For argument's sake; Let's say the group work is out of thirty; right? Her group might get twenty out of thirty.   | <b>F</b>   | <b>con</b>         |





|          |           |  |          |  |
|----------|-----------|--|----------|--|
|          | <b>L</b>  | According to places.<br>At first, you know that Gladys lives in Selibe-Phikwe. You want to contact her but you do not have her telephone number. So you start with Selibe-Phikwe to start with. And then you know her name is Gladys because you want to locate her in the telephone directory. So what you do here is; You know that the places are in alphabetical order; So with this piece of information that you have you know that she lives in Phikwe to start with; so you start with Phikwe to start with. And that is scanning; and we still do scan when you are given an assignment to go and work on. So what you do is that you go to the table of contents and after looking at the title you are not yet certain of the information. So what you do is looking at the table of contents in a book.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>                     |
| <b>5</b> | <b>L</b>  | How is the table of content written? How is the table of content written?<br>Can anybody tell us how the table of contents is written?<br>It is not in alphabetical order like the telephone directory. Table of contents.<br>Yes  | <b>I</b> | <b>s<br/><br/>el<br/>cl<br/><br/>n</b> |
|          | <b>S</b>  | It is a list of chapters, topics and the page numbers.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                             |
|          | <b>L</b>  | Exactly.<br>The page numbers are also reflected. So you have the topic that you want, then you go to the table of contents and scan through the table of contents. You look for the title that is much closer to what you are looking for with the help of the page that is indicated there. And then from there go to the chapter.  | <b>F</b> | <b>e<br/>com</b>                       |
| <b>6</b> | <b>L</b>  | Now, the topic is there;<br>Does it mean that you will always get what you want?   | <b>I</b> | <b>s<br/>el</b>                        |
|          | <b>Ss</b> | No   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                             |
|          | <b>L</b>  | That is what we want to establish. You started off by scanning because you want to have the idea as to whether the idea is there. You started off by scanning and then you skim. So, how do you skim? What do you do? Do you read through everything? So you start by Skimming. So how do you skim? Okay. To skim you look at the first few sentences, the middle and the last sentences. After doing so, it depends on whether it is a paragraph or the whole chapter so you take a reasonable amount of information to see what you are looking for is indeed available in the chapter. And then it depends on whether it is a paragraph or a chapter quickly moving your eyes through. And that is how you Skim and Scan. And I think here now we realise that people do skimming and scanning at the same time. We do skimming and scanning at the same time. Right. | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>                             |
| <b>7</b> | <b>L</b>  | I would like us to now move on to the SQ3R which also incorporates scanning and skimming. It also uses skimming and scanning. The SQ3R; This 3 indicates that there are three R's. So, it suggests that; in fact let me start off by giving you the scholar who came up with the SQ3R (Robinson, 1961) This is quiet an old technique. So, the S- suggests that start of by surveying and as you do that you still use skimming and scanning because you want to find out if you will find the information that you want. Then after surveying, let me just say equals to survey and after surveying the text, the Q suggests that you Question. And the question here implies that you want to answer the   | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b>                               |

|    |   |  |   |                          |
|----|---|--|---|--------------------------|
|    |   | <p>questions. So, you write a set of questions that you hope to answer as you read. So, it depends on the type of information you are looking for; you will decide on the information that you are looking for and you say, 'I will get the information that I am looking for within this source'. Then after surveying, and writing the topic the first R- suggests that you read and as you read you find answers to the questions you have already asked yourself. And after reading you Recite or somebody may say you Recall. You try to recall the information that you covered when you were reading and the questions that you asked. Okay. And then the last one you then Review. And when you Review here it suggests that you go through the text and get them straight and that will aid your memory. So these are the techniques that I wanted us to work on so as to finish off with our development of the Reading Skills.</p> <p>But otherwise we needed to have started on a new topic which is about Writing; So we move on to develop our Writing skills. So I want you to talk to someone next to you and discuss, 'why do people write?' Why do you write? Look at the person next to you and ask 'why do people write?' While I am still writing look at the person next to you and discuss, 'why people write'. It makes some people laugh to look at 'why people write?'</p> |   | <p>i<br/>el/d<br/>cu</p> |
|    |   | PAIR DISCUSSION  |   |                          |
| 8  | L | Right,<br>Let us hear what you discussed.  | I | ms                       |
|    | S | We write to keep a record of what you have learnt.   | R | rep                      |
|    | L | Can we say for reference purposes; because we later refer to it.<br>We write for reference purposes.   | F | com                      |
| 9  | L | "Ya" (Yes)   | I | n                        |
|    | S | To aid memory.   | R | rep                      |
|    | L | To aid memory.<br>For instance if we read and make notes. Or if we listen and take notes; because you know the difference between note taking and note making. We take notes while listening and we make notes while we read. And we do all that to aid memory.<br>Thanks for that.  | F | acc<br>com<br>e          |
| 10 | L | And then?<br>"Ya" (Yes)  | I | el<br>n                  |
|    | S | To communicate.  | R | rep                      |
| 11 | L | To communicate what? To communicate what?  | I | el                       |
|    | S | Feelings.  | R | rep                      |
|    | L | Feelings, ideas, opinions and so on and so forth. Right.   | F | acc                      |
| 12 | L | Why else do we write?<br>Come on, come on. We are looking at the purposes for writing.<br>"Ya" (Yes)   | I | el<br>p<br>n             |
|    | S | To improve vocabulary.   | R | rep                      |
|    | L | To improve vocabulary.   | F | acc                      |
| 13 | L | Any other reason why we write?<br>I thought you would also say we write to inform others. Let say you have carried out a research about a certain natural phenomenon. We write to inform people about a certain natural phenomenon and then you share that information with others. And we even write to entertain others or to even inspire others.   | I | el<br>i                  |

|           |           |  |          |                            |
|-----------|-----------|--|----------|----------------------------|
|           |           | Like religious and motivational sources; they boost our self-esteem; they help us realise that I am not the only one going through this problem and so on and so forth. There are many other reasons that people sit down to write, but these are some of the reasons why we write. But writing itself is a process.<br>So, I would like us to start by asking, 'where do we start writing?'<br>When do you start writing not literally putting the pen or typing words?   |          | <b>el</b>                  |
|           | <b>S</b>  | In the mind.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                 |
|           | <b>L</b>  | In the mind.<br>And the stage is the first stage is regarded as the Pre-writing stage; and that is the thinking stage. This is where writing starts. And that is the thinking stage. The process of writing is in stages and the first stage is the pre-writing stage. And this stage is made up of sections like the first one is called the 'free writing'. This implies that you write down everything that comes into your mind without ordering it in any sequence, just writing it down as it comes to your mind; you put it down on paper because some of this will serve as phrases and even topics that you are going to make use of as you write. So you write everything and then you later on start 'brainstorming'. And when you brainstorm, you start by thinking of what could be used in your text; to be used in your writing. So you do this because you want to expand your ideas or your thoughts. | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>         |
| <b>14</b> | <b>L</b>  | And then the second stage that you move to is the Writing stage. This is the second stage in the process of writing; the writing stage. And even here there are some sections here usually whereby the first will usually be regarded as the first or rough draft. First draft or rough draft.<br>Why is it called that?<br>Ya   | <b>I</b> | <b>i<br/><br/>el<br/>n</b> |
|           | <b>S</b>  | I think you write what you think is important.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                 |
| <b>15</b> | <b>L</b>  | Do you want to share with us what you are saying?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                  |
|           | <b>S</b>  | It is not the final piece; so it acts as a guide to writing the final piece.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                 |
|           | <b>L</b>  | Thank you both of you.<br>That is what happens here.<br>That it serves as the Structuring; You are now trying to shape it; you now try to organise it. That is where you get started and we will then go on to what we call the second draft and so on and so forth; Right.  | <b>F</b> | <b>e<br/>acc<br/>com</b>   |
| <b>16</b> | <b>L</b>  | So, do you think that professors also go through these stages?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                  |
|           | <b>Ss</b> | Yes  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                 |
| <b>17</b> | <b>L</b>  | Can we support why we say they do? Why do you think that professors go through these stages?<br>Gladys   | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/><br/>n</b>       |
|           | <b>S</b>  | I am thinking of one professor; he used to teach here at the University of Botswana; I do not know if he is still here. He was a Psychology lecturer and according to the number of books that he wrote, it shows that he did not just wake up and write such that by the end of the day is done. He had to sit down and think of what Psychology is; come up with chapters and topics and think of those ambiguous words and compile a Psychology book.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                 |

|           |           |   |          |   |
|-----------|-----------|---|----------|---|
| <b>18</b> | <b>L</b>  | So, here; when you are still working on this, you have to give yourself at least 30 minutes undisturbed. In a conducive place where there are no distractions. Be in a conducive place. What place is that?   | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b><br><br><b>el</b>                 |
|           | <b>Ss</b> | The library.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                                |
|           | <b>L</b>  | The library.<br>But of course different people find different places conducive when they write. But what is important is that give yourself thirty minutes of undisturbed attention. Okay. Right.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b><br><b>com</b>                  |
| <b>19</b> | <b>L</b>  | So from here then we move on to the third stage where you say, 'what is it that I have been doing?' So, you move on to the stage of Revising. You Revise it.<br>And when you Revise; what is it that you are doing when you revise? What is it that you are doing when you revise?<br>Gladys  | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b><br><br><b>el</b><br><br><b>n</b> |
|           | <b>S</b>  | I think you are editing your work.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                                |
|           | <b>L</b>  | Editing is another stage.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>                                |
| <b>20</b> | <b>L</b>  | What else are you doing when you revise?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                                 |
|           | <b>S</b>  | You will be trying to correct.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                                |
| <b>21</b> | <b>L</b>  | When you type your work you tend to do a lot of copying, pasting; cutting, pasting<br>Why do find yourself cutting, pasting; why do you do that? or taking it out completely? Why do you find yourself moving something?  | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b><br><br><b>el</b>                 |
|           | <b>S</b>  | It usually it saves time.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                                |
|           | <b>L</b>  | It usually saves time, fine.<br>But, I think you are comparing it with writing by hand rather than cancelling or tippexing.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b><br><b>com</b>                  |
| <b>22</b> | <b>L</b>  | Others what are you saying about that?<br>Ya  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b><br><br><b>n</b>                 |
|           | <b>S</b>  | I think you want to create relevance.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                                |
|           | <b>L</b>  | Create relevance of what you are writing.<br>Because when you write you want your reader to feel that your text is strong; it is convincing. So when you write you ask yourself; Are the words convincing? Are phrases convincing? Are the sentences strong enough? So that is why you end up cutting or removing information that you do not want and so on and so forth. So we do this by the ARRR approach or concept. The ARRR Approach. It helps us; if we incorporate the ARRR approach throughout our revision. Where A- stands for adding; you add information when you revise and then you Re-arrange the information there. When you copy and you paste, that means that you move something from where it was to another place and that is Re-arranging; so we are Re-arranging and you also Remove and that is the second R and then the last R-suggests Replacing. You do all this. | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b><br><b>com</b>                  |
| <b>23</b> | <b>L</b>  | And then you move on to the fourth stage of Editing that Gladys mentioned. When you Edit you want to make it correct; you have been revising; doing everything; moving, cutting, pasting and so on and so forth. Therefore, you look closely at words, look closely at phrases, look closely at sentences because you want the right thing. Now there are several things that I want to point out to you concerning Editing. As you look closely to all this things that I have mentioned, it will strengthen your piece of work, you   | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b>                                  |

|                 |           |   |           |                                 |
|-----------------|-----------|---|-----------|---------------------------------|
|                 |           | should look closely at the words. What about the words? Be careful that words are not repeated several times in the same paragraph or sentence; for example, 'departure, departure' why can't I use something else like, 'leaving'. So here you can adopt, or get or borrow a Thesaurus. A Thesaurus<br>What is a Thesaurus? What is a Thesaurus?   |           | el                              |
|                 | <b>S</b>  | It is a specialised dictionary with synonyms.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                      |
|                 | <b>L</b>  | It is a specialised dictionary that provides you with synonyms.   | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>                      |
| <b>24</b>       | <b>L</b>  | What are synonyms?<br>You will be surprised that some people here do not know what synonyms are. They will have learnt these from Primary, Secondary but not knowing what they are.<br>Timothy  | <b>I</b>  | el<br>cu<br><br>n               |
|                 | <b>S</b>  | Words in the same language which mean the same thing.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                      |
|                 | <b>L</b>  | Words which mean the same thing.  | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>                      |
| <b>25</b>       | <b>L</b>  | So, synonyms are good because when you edit your work they will help you to strengthen your work. You can use a different word to avoid monotonous work. So, for editing purposes and for varying words, this what the Thesaurus will do for you. And then the next point, check if the sentences are not hard or hard to understand.<br>If they are hard to understand, what do you do here? When you read and realise that these sentences are perhaps ambiguous or if you realise that difficult terminology has been used. What is the solution here?<br>What do you do here? If you use words that are ambiguous, will you be understood? Because you want your reader to understand your work clearly.<br>You elaborate and make it simple.<br>If you use words that are ambiguous, will you be understood? | <b>I</b>  | i<br><br><br><br><br><br><br>el |
|                 | <b>Ss</b> | No  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                      |
| <b>26</b>       | <b>L</b>  | So what do you do?  | <b>I</b>  | el                              |
|                 | <b>S</b>  | You try and elaborate the points.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                      |
|                 | <b>L</b>  | You try and elaborate the points.   | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>                      |
| <b>27</b>       | <b>L</b>  | The next point, you can then go to grammatical correctness. Check grammatical correctness. And then check the spelling; and an ordinary dictionary can help you with the spelling of words. And then lastly, the punctuation marks.<br>Why is it important to pay attention to those commas and full stops? Why should it be emphasised that when you edit your work you pay attention to how it is punctuated?   | <b>I</b>  | s<br>i<br><br><br>el            |
|                 | <b>S</b>  | Punctuation clarifies meaning.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                      |
|                 | <b>L</b>  | If you do not punctuate well, you are likely to portray or to put across wrong meaning. So punctuation helps to clarify meaning of what you are saying and it changes meaning of what you are saying or you are writing. Right.   | <b>F</b>  | <b>com</b>                      |
| <b>28</b>       | <b>L</b>  | Let's quickly then move on to the last stage, which is Publish it. Here, you share with others the end product of your piece of work. Share the end product. Or in our case as academics this is where you submit; you submit your work. Right.   | <b>I</b>  | i                               |
| <b>Boundary</b> | <b>L</b>  | So, for today, since I can see it is time up, I want us to stop here and we will still continue with Writing when we next meet.   | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b>                       |

**END OF LECTURER GLORIOUS'S LESSON ONE (Education)**

**11.17 Lesson transcription two**  
**Faculty: Education**  
**Lecturer F (i): Glorious**  
**Topic: Listening and note-taking**

| Exchanges     | Participant | Classroom talk  | Moves | Acts                            |
|---------------|-------------|---|-------|---------------------------------|
| Boundary      | L           | I would like us to start off by recapping on what we learnt last time. We will recap and then as we do that we will add on some more information in order that we complete the listening part of our lesson.  | Fo    | ms                              |
| Teaching<br>1 |             | First of all we look at listening. And we said, in the last lesson that, we listen because listening is a very important skill in communication. It connects directly to that point that we mentioned when we were still introducing Communication; that Communication is a tool of survival for us. But there are specific reasons why we communicate as human beings. One of those being that we communicate in order to acquire facts and ideas. So we listen in order to do this; that's why listen. Ideas are communicated to us. And as they are communicated to us we listen in. In order to communicate, 'We want to make sense of it; we want to also analyse these facts and ideas. But we don't just acquire them we acquire them. And generally, we want to analyse these facts and ideas we don't just acquire them. We want to see what is of importance to our purpose. But, we also listen in order to be entertained; for entertainment. | I     | i                               |
|               | L           | <b>What sort</b> of entertainment do we listen to?<br><b>For instance how do</b> we listen for entertainment?<br><b>What sort of things</b> do we listen to for entertainment?  | R/I   | s<br>el<br>el                   |
|               | S           | We listen to poems.   | R     | rep                             |
|               | L           | We listen to poems.<br>And these poems; it's important that we listen to them because they have a message for us. Okay. That we need to make use of from that message. They have a message for us.  | F     | acc<br>com                      |
| 2             | L           | What else do we listen to; for entertainment-I mean?  | I     | el                              |
|               | S           | Music.  | R     | rep                             |
|               | L           | We listen to music;<br>and the composer of that song also has a purpose that they are putting across to you by means of that song. Therefore, we have to listen to that song and enjoy not only the lyrics but also enjoy the message that is being put across to us.   | F     | acc<br>com                      |
| 3             | L           | What else do we listen to for entertainment?<br>What about drama?<br>It also has a message that has been put before us. Okay.<br>And on Sunday we go to church;<br>Why do we go to church on Sunday? What drives us to go to church? What drives us?  | I     | s<br>el<br>i<br><br>el<br><br>n |
|               | S           | To get inspiration  | R     | rep                             |
|               | L           | To get inspiration; To get inspiration.   | F     | acc                             |
| 4             | L           | Is it only at church where we listen for inspiration?   | I     | el                              |
|               | Ss          | No  | R     | rep                             |
| 5             | L           | Where else do we listen for inspiration?  | I     | el                              |





|    |   |   |   |                 |
|----|---|---|---|-----------------|
| 8  | L | <b>Ya (Yes)</b>   | I | n               |
|    | S | I think it falls under inspiration because sometimes you are sent to a social worker because you are depressed and you want someone to inspire you; someone just to revive your mood because sometimes you see life meaningless. You need someone to inspire you that even after this incident that happened to you, there are still plenty of good things ahead of you.  | R | rep             |
|    | L | There is life after depression.<br>Thank you all those who contributed to this point.   | F | acc<br>e        |
| 9  | L | I guess now we can move on to look at: This was by way answering, “Why then do we listen?” So it is important to know that we listen for the reasons listed here ( <i>lecturer referring to the whiteboard</i> ).<br>So, we move on to “How then do we listen? How do we portray ourselves as listeners? Have you ever been exposed to a situation whereby at the end of everything you were asked regarding your opinion, and then you are like ‘what were you saying?’ And somebody will say, ‘You were not listening’. Okay.<br>We may seem to be listening while we are at some other place not where the communication is taking place. And that makes us; that makes us passive listeners; passive listeners. And I want you to say out why do people sometimes become passive listeners? What leads to that? What leads to people being passive listeners? | I | s<br>el         |
|    | S | Sometimes it can be because of stress, boredom, or either hunger.   | R | rep             |
|    | L | You said Boredom, hunger, stress.   | F | acc             |
| 10 | L | <b>“Ya” (Yes)</b> There is another hand.  | I | n               |
|    | S | Attitude.   | R | rep             |
|    | L | Attitude.<br>Good.<br>Sometimes we become passive listeners because of our negative attitude.   | F | acc<br>e<br>com |
| 11 | L | Attitude to what?   | I | el              |
|    | S | Sometimes is attitude towards the speaker.  | R | rep             |
|    | L | Sometimes it can be attitude towards the person communicating to you or the subject that is being addressed. So you might be a passive listener because you do not like the person communicating to you or you don’t like the subject that is being addressed.  | F | acc/<br>com     |
| 12 | L | But passive listening is opposed to when we behave differently by showing that we are indeed listening in with all to make us active listeners. So, active listening as opposed to passive listening also takes some gestures, and some behaviours. And I want us to look at those behaviours that portray us as active listeners; I want us to look at those behaviours that portray us as active listeners.<br>What are they? What are they? How will I tell that this one is listening actively?   | I | i<br><br>el     |
|    | S | By participating.   | R | rep             |
|    | L | By participating.   | F | acc             |
| 13 | L | How?  | I | el              |





|           |          |  |          |                  |
|-----------|----------|--|----------|------------------|
|           | <b>S</b> | Listening for main ideas; Learn to discriminate between facts and principles.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>       |
|           | <b>L</b> | Learn to discriminate between facts and principles<br>Thank you.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>e</b> |
| <b>23</b> | <b>L</b> | Next one   | <b>I</b> | <b>n</b>         |
|           | <b>S</b> | HOW DO YOU BECOME INTERESTED IN LISTENING? Looking at the speaker, listening carefully and note-taking or adding to what has been said; right attitude towards the speaker or subject. Curious or anxiety.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>       |
|           | <b>L</b> | Okay. That's it.<br>Thank you very much.   | <b>F</b> | <b>m<br/>e</b>   |
| <b>24</b> | <b>L</b> | (The next topic) Do you want to be the next? Is that why your hand is up?<br>Okay go ahead Cecelia   | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>n</b>  |
|           | <b>S</b> | HOW ARE RELATIONSHIPS IMPROVED THROUGH LISTENING: They can be improved by knowing each other and being able to share ideas.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>       |
|           | <b>L</b> | Is that all? Thank you<br>The others at the back there.  | <b>F</b> | <b>e<br/>n</b>   |
| <b>25</b> | <b>S</b> | HOW DOES LISTENING HELP US UNDERSTAND EACH OTHER: Interpret what the other person is saying and make sense of it. That's understanding what is being said.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>       |
|           | <b>L</b> | Thank you very much. Let us applaud them.  | <b>F</b> | <b>con</b>       |
| <b>26</b> | <b>S</b> | The question was; HOW DO WE ENCOURAGE OTHERS TO LISTEN: as the speaker use simple language, clarify points as the listener may ask questions.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>       |
|           | <b>L</b> | So the listener helps the speaker to improve their communication skill by giving feedback in the form of questioning and asking for clarity. Thank you very much. Let's applaud them.  | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>       |
| <b>27</b> | <b>L</b> | Lucy's group.  | <b>I</b> | <b>n</b>         |
|           | <b>S</b> | HOW DO YOU FALL BACK FROM LISTENING: By being distracted by the phone, Holding chats at the back; reading magazines; like the speaker is there and talking about something you distract her from what she is saying and changing the whole subject; and taking notes for another lesson if the speaker is there talking that the lecturer there talking, "wena" (you) you are jotting notes for another lesson and then listening to music inside class. | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>       |
|           | <b>L</b> | Thank you.   | <b>F</b> | <b>e</b>         |
| <b>28</b> | <b>S</b> | HOW TO AVOID DISTRACTIONS: Maintain eye contact with the speaker and switch off the cell-phones whilst listening, Avoid sitting next to people you know you will have minor conversations with. And avoid too many silly jokes that can make you think outside class. That's all.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>       |
|           | <b>L</b> | Thank you.   | <b>F</b> | <b>e</b>         |
| <b>29</b> | <b>S</b> | HOW DO YOU LISTEN CAREFULLY?: By taking notes, Making eye contact with the speaker; not interrupting the speaker in the middle of a sentence or statement; avoiding distractions such as cell-phones and whispering; developing interest in what is being discussed.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>       |
| <b>30</b> | <b>S</b> | HOW DO YOU HELP THE SPEAKER AS THE LISTENER?: Adding or subtracting points to what the   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>       |

|           |          |  |          |                    |
|-----------|----------|--|----------|--------------------|
|           |          | speaker has already said. Criticising the speaker-challenging him or her to improve more on the communication skills that you learn; so that he elaborate more on his point and make notes; so that he answers questions that are raised by the audience.  |          |                    |
|           | <b>L</b> | Do we have any more left? Let's applaud them. I think now as feedback from me; I can say, 'Pat yourself on the shoulder because you have responded very, very well.' But to add on a bit more information to what you have just said; you have pointed out that you can interact with the speaker by saying something whilst they are still in the process of communicating to you. So to hold back here means you should wait for them to complete what they are saying and then make use of the opportunity at the end when given a chance to ask questions in order to complete what they are saying or make comments. And we have also said that; Some of you mentioned that you can become a good listener by taking down notes during a presentation; and I would like to re-emphasise that one that, in our situation here, as students at tertiary institution, we need to listen carefully, everything that you have been listening to from other presentations should be done in addition to LISTENING and NOTE TAKING and I would like to point out that you can take notes only when you are listening to information sources. Our next focus is NOTE TAKING I would like to kind of point out that that you can take notes only when you are listening to sources of information. | <b>F</b> | <b>con<br/>com</b> |
| <b>31</b> | <b>L</b> | It can be from; what?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>          |
|           | <b>S</b> | Radio.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | Radio; a lecture, even audio-video; you are looking at a picture through a computer or television and that is teleconferencing whereby people exchange information and you can take notes from that. But then, this is the topic that I will ask you to go and read around we are going to focus on the techniques for note taking when next we meet and please let's meet tomorrow.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |
| <b>32</b> | <b>L</b> | If there are any questions now or if there are any comments.<br><b>Daniel</b>  | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>n</b>    |
|           | <b>S</b> | To add on what my colleagues said when talking about how to show that one is being attentive to what is being said. You can make a focus on the lecturer as she or he is communicating. But sometimes they might be passive listening because one might be looking at you; I can look at you but not really active. That can be active or passive. One can look to someone but not actively listening.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | So you want to say that can be passive or active. So you are not always sure that the person who is looking at you is actually actively listening to what you are actually communicating to.   | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>         |
| <b>33</b> | <b>S</b> | I am thinking that, If somebody is not listening; you can tell. She will be starring at you and if someone is listening; they will be nodding to what you are saying.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |

|          |   |  |    |     |
|----------|---|--|----|-----|
|          | L | You have now opened a can of worms. People are interested in responding to what you have said.   | F  | com |
| 34       | L | Okay, respond.   | I  | n   |
|          | S | Most of us are saying right now that we are different. And just as we are different I might be nodding my head but that does not mean I am listening. When I see that my mum says something that I don't even like, I can say, " <b>Mm, ke a go utwa mama. O bua nnete.</b> " (Yes, I hear you mum. <b>You are telling the truth</b> ) When I am not listening; while I am not even getting what she is saying and I am up to something else. Then she might think that I am listening when I am actually not listening. | R  | rep |
|          | L | There we are. Right that is food for thought for us.   | F  | com |
| Boundary | L | I think now some people are now worrying that they are going to find their next lecturer already started. So for today, let me thank you for participating actively until we meet tomorrow.  | Fo | ms  |

**END OF LECTURER GLORIOUS'S LESSON TWO (Education)**

**11.18 Lesson transcription three**

**Faculty: EDUCATION**

**Lecturer F (i): Glorious**

**Topic: Writing**

| Exchanges  | Participant | Classroom talk  | Moves | Acts    |
|------------|-------------|---|-------|---------|
| Boundary   | L           | I asked you last time to go and research on some topics regarding 'Writing'.<br>The funny thing is that I am talking and the people are also talking.   | Fo    | ms      |
| Teaching 1 | L           | So, we will have the opportunity for people to share with us what they researched on.<br>So, I do not think we should have this in any particular order; any people, any group should start; I don't have to call people by name.<br>Let us not waste time please.  | I     | i<br>el |
|            | S           | <b>Presenter 1:</b> Our group will be presenting on 'Expository writing'. Expository writing. Expository writing is all about non-fiction writing. Its purpose is to explain, clarify, or interpret. When writing a non-fiction piece, it should be based on evidence or information from reliable resources. This includes; observations in case you are doing Science related topics, reading textbooks, charts, maps, photographs and newspaper articles. There are also primary sources that can be used in expository writing. The primary sources being; interviews, journals, diaries et cetera. Non-fiction writing can give an explanation or tell how something was determined; can offer evidence or support a statement. Expository writing can provide something complicated such as a technical manual for building a car. For most students however, Expository writing takes the following; reaching the answer to a Maths problem.<br>We are surrounded by examples of expository writing on daily basis examples are billboards; those who are doing Science related course they know how these things work. So Expository writing; what to expect from secondary school experience, we have basic level writing and advanced level writing.<br>In basic level writing, the students organise their own pre-writing | R     | rep     |

|   |   |   |   |            |
|---|---|---|---|------------|
|   |   | <p>activities. Each paragraph contains one significant idea or focus; a fairly recognised topic sentence and relevance or details.</p> <p>In addition to basic level students writing at this level should be developing analysis, interpretation of ideas, concepts or material. A more sophisticated use of punctuation like; colon or semi-colon or quotation marks should be correctly used. Sentence structure should vary within a written work. Sentences should begin with pre-proportional and are not always simply subjects.</p> <p><u>Advanced level writing:</u> Responses at this level includes all elements of modern language guidelines regarding citations and all punctuations. Vocabulary and punctuation is sophisticated. Discussion is fully integrated into the body of the work.</p> <p>There are things to keep in mind when doing expository writing: one of them is that expository writing is usually formal writing; no slang; and should be given a title and definition of uncommon terms used. You do not have to assume that the reader will understand or know those definitions or the terms that are being used. You should also cite or label when using expository writing. One last thing is that you must make sure that you proofread what you have written.</p> |   |            |
| 2 | L | Are there any comments or questions? Comments?<br>Yes   | I | el<br>n    |
|   | S | I think he should maintain eye contact with the audience.   | R | rep        |
|   | L | Tell it to him not to me.<br>He is saying, maintain eye contact with your audience but otherwise it was an informative presentation.  | F | cue<br>acc |
| 3 | L | Next presenter  | I | n          |
|   | S | <b>Presenter 2:</b> We have been doing, ‘Argumentative writing’ skills. The function of the argumentative essay is to show the theory or hypothesis about your argument is correct or is more truthful. If you have one simple opinion one can argue successfully. Argumentative writing is an act of forming reasons, making decisions   | R | rep        |
|   | S | <i>Inaudible</i>  | I |            |
|   | L | May be it is the speed of our fans  | R | rep        |
| 4 | S | <b>Presenter 2:</b> Argumentative writing is an act of forming reasons, making decisions and drawing conclusions; and applying them in a case of the discussion. The operation is prepositions not to facts and principles. What we are simply saying is that these are principles admitted to be true. Without doing this you do not have an argument but just an assertion of opinion dealing with the essay. The argumentative Essay begins with the statement of assertion; that is just an assertion; an essay which is only an unsubstantiated opinion during the essay. Argumentative essays are written in the following manner: begin with the statement of your assertion significance and relevance in relation to a phenomenon. They demonstrate how assertion positive or simpler than others including the levels that you use to accumulate the data to be explained. Finally, revise, edit, be critical and ensure that you have not committed any errors and mixed the analysis.<br>Additionally, you want to find out how many readers will object your argument. Will they say you have used precise concepts in collecting data. Your argument should be as strong as your objectives.  | R | rep        |

|          |          |   |          |  |
|----------|----------|---|----------|--|
|          |          | <p>These are some of the popular argumentative essay topics;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Animal testing</li> <li>-Capital punishment</li> <li>-Security privacy</li> </ul> <p>How to begin an argumentative essay:<br/>Usually when you begin writing you should start in this format: an example, for a majority of people, in a world that we live in, a number of key issues arise from the statement.</p>   |          |  |
|          | <b>L</b> | <p>Are there any comments or questions. No comments or questions.<br/>I think you should work on the voice. Next time be a bit louder. I had a problem hearing you.<br/>Let us applaud him<br/>Next.<br/>Remember when you get there to say your group name.</p>  | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/><br/>i<br/>d<br/>n<br/>d</b> |
| <b>5</b> | <b>S</b> | <p><b>Presenter 3:</b> I will be presenting on ‘Analytical writing’ as a communication skill. And analytical writing is a way of getting technical information without using technical jargon. It is a way of finding main idea without getting people bugged into a swamp of details. It’s commonly required in academic contexts such as students’ tests. Analytical writing uses comparative language to express relationship between pieces of language, for example, conjunctives and adverbs. Analytical writing like Descriptive writing forms part of Argumentative writing.<br/>It creates the relationship uses of information by identifying the main ideas, and it groups the main points together. It has a structure of concepts in relation to each other. Analytical writing uses evidence from multiple different sources to support assertions which are made. Like I said it makes part of the argumentative writing but it is not the primary source of argumentative writing. The mental skills developed in Analytical Writing are to help students to be critical thinkers and good learners. Communication skills in our society develop through Analytical writing. Everybody knows that being a critical thinker you have to come up with new concepts and those help in the Methodology of the subject which lead to changes that benefit our society.</p> | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                             |
| <b>6</b> | <b>S</b> | <p><b>Presenter 4:</b> ‘Narrative writing’ is defined as story writing. A piece of writing characterised by main character in a setting and it addresses a problem or engages something interesting, entertaining or an experience. What happens to the main character is called a Plot. The plot follows the beginning, the middle and the end sequence. Therefore a fully developed Narrative writing should have a central theme introduced in the beginning followed by the development and an ending.<br/>There a three types of narrative writing namely: Personal narrative writing., Imaginative Narrative Writing and Narrative essay.<br/>-Personal narrative writing. It is when the person writes about oneself or about his experiences either his experiences of life. In this style of narrative writing, the writer already has a plot. However, he has to narrate it in such a way that will capture the interest of the reader. A personal narrative has to pay attention to the flow of the story; what he is telling the audience; the dialogue. It should also include the description when necessary. On reading, the reader should experience the same feeling that the writer experienced in reality. It is also imaginative writing.</p>   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                             |



|    |    |  |   |     |
|----|----|--|---|-----|
|    |    | <p>-Imaginative Narrative writing. In this type of writing creativity is a mark. Creativity is a mark. Here the narrative writer can go beyond the reality. He can create unusual situations and even that could never happen in real life situations. Here the writer can create a plot and make it clear and convincing to the reader.</p> <p>-Narrative essay. It should have a central theme and points to support the theme and form the point of view. And it none than that of the author. A Narrative Essay has vivid verbs and modifiers and is very precise in the description of characters. The narrative writing may or may not include dialogues but it may use conflict or sequences.</p> <p>What are the specific skills involved in Narrative writing?<br/>The meaning of the story and also involves the salient characters of this kind of writing fully elaborated. The meaning of the story: It is done through an action, description, dialogue, thoughts and autobiography.</p> <p>The dialogue needs to be stressed. Story tension is what keeps the reader reading. Story tension is what keeps the reader reading. Young authors should understand the need for suspense and the specific techniques into building this into their plots. Lastly but not least, satisfying the extended endings, after the main event is important. The main character should reflect on memories, feelings, hopes and wishes thrown about by the main plan.</p> |   |     |
| 7  | S  | <b>Presenter 4:</b> Any questions?   | I | el  |
|    | L  | There is a hand.   | I | cu  |
|    | S  | Where and how does narrative writing skill help us communicate as students?  | I | el  |
| 8  | S  | <b>Presenter 4 response:</b> I talked about personal narrative writing as one type of narrative writing skill. When reading, the reader should experience the same feeling that is experienced in reality. Give an example to the reader; for example, put yourself in the shoes of the writer and experiences in real life.   | R | rep |
| 9  | L  | What is writing about yourself called, I am asking any member of the audience. When you narrate about yourself; for example the author decides to write about her life experiences.<br>I am not addressing the question to the presenter. That is home work for you if no one is going to answer   | I | el  |
|    | S  | Autobiography.   | R | rep |
| 10 | L  | <b>Samantha.</b>   | I | n   |
|    | S  | I wanted to say Autobiography  | R | rep |
|    | L  | Can we applaud him. Can we have the last presentation.   | F | con |
| 11 | S  | <b>Presenter 5:</b> We are presenting on ‘Persuasive writing’ which is a basically a very creative writing, with argument that convinces the reader about an issue. Persuasive writing involves convincing the reader to perform an action or convinces the reader’s point of view. Persuasive writing is one of the most utilised forms of writing. It is used when creating an argument. What happens is that a persuasive writer comes up with a statement that they have heard; what happens is that, this should or must convince the reader to believe what he or she is saying.<br>Are we together?   | I | i   |
|    | Ss | Mm   | R | rep |
| 12 |    | <b>Presenter 5 cont’:</b> So, another definition is that ‘Persuasive writing; it is an essay that offers and supports one’s own opinion. It  | R | rep |

|  |  |   |  |  |
|--|--|---|--|--|
|  |  | <p>offers and supports one's own opinion.<br/> Here are some of the do's and don'ts when dealing with Persuasive writing.</p> <p><b><u>Don'ts:</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Don't begin with your name or hello or I am going to write about 'Alec the liar' or something like that.</li> <li>• The second point, do not use 'I'. Instead of 'I' try to bring something else that will be convincing to your reader. The Persuasive type of writing is more of a debate; an opposing and affirming of sides.</li> </ul> <p>Now I move on to the Do's of Persuasive Writing.</p> <p><b><u>Do's:</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Divide you essay into paragraphs.</li> <li>• You must have a thesis statement in your introduction and come up with three main points to support your argument; and that will be the body of your work.</li> <li>• The other thing is to have the conclusion that contains the main premise.</li> <li>• And the other thing is to come up with a catchy title. Is this title catchy? 'Alec the liar'. No typical Alec but the president. When you come up with this piece of work you are supposed to persuade your readers into believing that this particular Alec character is a liar. You analyse and state some of the things that our politicians promise and never do.</li> <li>• The literature in this type of writing is also important.</li> <li>• One of the most important things is to support your opinion because that is the main reason why you are writing this type of writing. As a result you should use the P.S.Q technique. P.S.Q stands for</li> </ul> <p>P- Point that you state to your reader<br/> S- Support your point<br/> Q- Quotation: there after find quotations or references from other sources.</p> <p>What people will do is to brainstorm, for example, if you are attending a workshop. <b>“Akere?” (Isn't it?)</b> The stages of writing this essay are; Pre-writing, brainstorming then there is a rough draft that you can write with a pencil and thereafter you can revise the text or edit.</p> <p>And there after follows the final draft. Okay.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• First of all have a terrific title.</li> <li>• Paragraphs with innovative ideas.</li> <li>• There should be a tremendous transition of words between paragraphs.</li> <li>• With regard to the conclusion; It should give your reader almost shock or close to shock.</li> <li>• Have a thought provoking thesis statement.</li> </ul> <p>I have been talking about the thesis statement. <b>“Akere?” (Isn't it?).</b> Does anyone know what a thesis statement is? It is one sentence at the end of your introduction that states your opinion. It is normally short and needs to be very strong; rigid and solid to show your</p> |  |  |
|--|--|---|--|--|

|                 |          |  |           |           |
|-----------------|----------|--|-----------|-----------|
|                 |          | reader where you stand. You should ask yourself again what kind of thesis statement is thought provoking. So use synonyms such as student and scholar; cleavage and division.                |           |           |
| <b>Boundary</b> | <b>L</b> | Excuse me, I think we have run out of time, so you will continue next time because it is already time up. Please write your comments and questions so that you draw them in the next lesson. | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b> |

**END OF LECTURER GLORIOUS'S LESSON THREE (Education)**

**11.19 Lesson transcription one**

**Faculty: Health science**

**Lecturer F (ii): Glorious**

**Topic: Listening and Note taking**

| Exchanges         | Participant | Classroom talk  | Moves    | Acts       |
|-------------------|-------------|---|----------|------------|
| <b>Teaching 1</b> | <b>L</b>    | What is it that we discussed last time we were together? What is it that we discussed?<br>Please!   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>  |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | We said that people read for certain reasons like for entertainment and, they read for entertainment; like reading novels and magazines.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b> |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | Okay. She says people read for their own different reasons. She gave the reason for entertainment as one of those.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b> |
| <b>2</b>          | <b>L</b>    | Can we say anything else what we covered last time?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>  |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | We discussed the different types of reading.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b> |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | Different types of reading.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b> |
| <b>3</b>          | <b>L</b>    | Meaning?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>  |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | Extensive Reading and Intensive Reading.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b> |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | Extensive Reading and Intensive Reading.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b> |
| <b>4</b>          | <b>L</b>    | Can anybody quickly differentiate that for us or bring it as a reminder so that next time we move on. What are the two that she mentioned?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>  |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | Extensive reading is reading that is not restrictive, for example, looking for entertainment and Intensive reading is restrictive; somebody tells you what to read and how long it should be done may for a couple of weeks.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b> |
| <b>5</b>          | <b>L</b>    | Is there anything else you want to mention? Okay.<br>That is part of we did as we were discussing reading. And we parted after one of you indicated that one of the things that can help one to become an effective reader is to make note while we read and we agreed that when come together this time around we will look at Listening and Note-Taking.<br>Didn't we cover the Reading Techniques? | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>  |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | We covered them.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b> |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | So you take notes here and then you go and shelve them. You do not go over them.  | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b> |
| <b>6</b>          | <b>L</b>    | What techniques did we discuss here?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>  |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | Skimming and Scanning.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b> |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | Skimming and Scanning.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b> |
| <b>7</b>          | <b>L</b>    | What else?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>  |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | SQ3R  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b> |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | SQ3R  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b> |
| <b>8</b>          | <b>L</b>    | Now we move on to Listening and Note-taking. Now we Listening and Note-taking.  | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b>   |

|           |          |  |          |                        |
|-----------|----------|--|----------|------------------------|
|           |          | Can anybody define listening to us? What happens in listening as one of the four language skills that we use for communication?  |          | <b>el</b>              |
|           | <b>S</b> | Listening is whereby there is a speaker who is communicating to the people and people try to grasp what that person is saying.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
|           | <b>L</b> | And what emanates from what she is saying is it is very, very important in the process of communication because if you do not listen what is being transmitted to you, then, you are less likely to miss on the information. For feedback to be appropriate or appropriately given, you have to be an attentive listener.  | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>             |
| <b>9</b>  | <b>L</b> | Can we just look for the purposes for listening. Other than just say listening is important in the communication process, what are the specific reasons why we listen? What do we benefit from Listening?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>              |
|           | <b>S</b> | To acquire message.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
|           | <b>L</b> | Okay. To acquire message.<br>Can we say we listen in order to acquire facts, ideas, feelings and analyse them. We analyse whatever we are listening to.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>     |
| <b>10</b> | <b>L</b> | Those who have just come have you registered?<br>What are the other reasons why we listen?<br>John   | <b>I</b> | <b>ch<br/>el<br/>n</b> |
|           | <b>S</b> | We listen to get enlightenment on issues that we do not understand.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
|           | <b>L</b> | We listen for enlightenment on issues that we do not understand.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>             |
| <b>11</b> | <b>L</b> | That's what you said; Right?   | <b>I</b> | <b>ch/el</b>           |
|           | <b>S</b> | Yes  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
| <b>12</b> | <b>L</b> | What is the other reason why we listen? Let us think of not only here at the university. Let's think of even outside; Why do we listen? Let us think even outside the university.<br>"Ya" (Yes)  | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>n</b>        |
|           | <b>S</b> | For entertainment.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
|           | <b>L</b> | Very good. Precisely that.<br>That is very important but even here we still listen for entertainment.  | <b>F</b> | <b>e<br/>com</b>       |
| <b>13</b> | <b>L</b> | When do we listen in order to be entertained? What kind of situations provides us with the opportunity to listen and get entertained at the same time?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>              |
|           | <b>S</b> | Music festivals.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
|           | <b>L</b> | Music festivals.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>             |
| <b>14</b> | <b>L</b> | John   | <b>I</b> | <b>n</b>               |
|           | <b>S</b> | I think the umbrella will be social gatherings.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
|           | <b>L</b> | Social gatherings.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>             |
| <b>15</b> | <b>L</b> | Any other reason to add on to your list of purposes for listening? Why do we go to church for example? What do you have in mind when you go to church? What are the reasons why we go to church? Don't we go to church because we want the priest to inspire us? We listen for inspiration. Is it only at church where we listen for inspiration; Where else do we listen for inspiration? Who else do we listen to in order to be inspired? | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>              |
|           | <b>S</b> | Motivational speakers.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
|           | <b>L</b> | Motivational speakers.<br>So under this we can have 'a church' and motivational speakers.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>     |
| <b>16</b> | <b>L</b> | Eric   | <b>I</b> | <b>n</b>               |
|           | <b>S</b> | We also listen to keep interaction flowing.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
|           | <b>L</b> | We also listen to keep interaction flowing. We also listen for   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>             |





|           | <b>Ss</b> | <b>GROUP DISCUSSION</b>   |           |                            |
|-----------|-----------|---|-----------|----------------------------|
|           | <b>L</b>  | One minute to go. You are already on the third one, Right. I said you should not spend too much time on one question. You are to cite examples here where you need to be active listeners.  | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b>                  |
| <b>34</b> | <b>L</b>  | What examples have you come up with for the first one?<br>Ya  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el<br/>n</b>            |
|           | <b>S</b>  | At the laboratory sessions.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                 |
|           | <b>L</b>  | At the laboratory sessions. During laboratory sessions.<br>Can you jot them down if you did not have it in your group.<br>Laboratory sessions   | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc<br/>con<br/>acc</b> |
| <b>35</b> | <b>L</b>  | And then where else?  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>                  |
|           | <b>S</b>  | During tutorials.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                 |
| <b>36</b> | <b>L</b>  | And where else?   | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>                  |
|           | <b>S</b>  | and lectures  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                 |
|           | <b>L</b>  | During lectures.  | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>                 |
| <b>37</b> | <b>L</b>  | Can we move on to the second one now outside the university; you found yourself being a passive listener. What examples do you have for that one?   | <b>I</b>  | <b>i<br/>el</b>            |
|           | <b>S</b>  | At the bar.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                 |
| <b>38</b> | <b>L</b>  | Do you go to bars? Why do you become a passive listener at the bar? What makes you to be passive in that kind of an environment?  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>                  |
|           | <b>S</b>  | May be you are drunk.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                 |
|           | <b>L</b>  | May be you are drunk.   | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>                 |
| <b>39</b> | <b>L</b>  | What else rather than you being drunk?  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>                  |
|           | <b>S</b>  | Too much noise.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                 |
|           | <b>L</b>  | Too much noise.   | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>                 |
| <b>40</b> | <b>L</b>  | What could be a contributing factor?  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>                  |
|           | <b>S</b>  | Every one talking at the same time.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                 |
|           | <b>L</b>  | Every one talking at the same time.<br>Right. And the other one has been said; May be social problems because some people decide to hide behind a can of beer when they have social problems. Even if you went there you will be bulking and guzzling beer without listening to people talking to you or with you. Right. | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc<br/>com</b>         |
| <b>41</b> | <b>L</b>  | Do you have any other?<br>John  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el<br/>n</b>            |
|           | <b>S</b>  | Watching games on television. Sometimes you don't watch to the commentators   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                 |
|           | <b>L</b>  | Watching games on television. Sometimes you don't watch to the commentators. Okay   | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>                 |
| <b>42</b> | <b>L</b>  | You too want to add?  | <b>I</b>  | <b>n</b>                   |
|           | <b>S</b>  | Inauguration of the Vice Chancellor.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                 |
|           | <b>L</b>  | Inauguration of the Vice Chancellor.  | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>                 |
| <b>43</b> | <b>L</b>  | Did you attend?   | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>                  |
|           | <b>Ss</b> | Yes   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                 |
|           | <b>L</b>  | You attended and you were a passive listener there.   | <b>F</b>  | <b>com</b>                 |
| <b>44</b> | <b>L</b>  | Why?  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>                  |
|           | <b>S</b>  | Lack of interest.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                 |
|           | <b>L</b>  | How can you say that!   | <b>F</b>  | <b>com</b>                 |
| <b>45</b> | <b>S</b>  | In family re-unions.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>                 |
|           | <b>L</b>  | And in family.  | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>                 |
| <b>46</b> | <b>L</b>  | And why?<br>I think it's common in families. When we are with family we tend  | <b>I</b>  | <b>s<br/>i</b>             |

|                 |          |  |           |                    |
|-----------------|----------|--|-----------|--------------------|
|                 |          | to be passive to our parents; to our siblings sometimes even to our younger siblings.<br>Why do we do that?  |           | <b>el</b>          |
|                 | <b>S</b> | They tend to embarrass us.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>         |
|                 | <b>L</b> | They tend to embarrass us.   | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>         |
| <b>47</b>       | <b>L</b> | Who? Who are they? The parents or our older siblings?  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>          |
|                 | <b>S</b> | The parents and the siblings.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>         |
|                 | <b>L</b> | The parents and the siblings tend to embarrass us.<br>Then we dismiss whatever they are saying.  | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |
| <b>48</b>       | <b>S</b> | That one of family re-unions; some people are introverts, they don't like to speaking out about themselves or how they feel. They just keep to themselves how they feel.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>         |
|                 | <b>L</b> | They keep what they feel to themselves   | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>         |
| <b>49</b>       | <b>S</b> | I don't think being an introvert is a criterion for measuring listening. Unlike, a family re-union. Sometimes they are discussing long and tedious things. So being quite will be better.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>         |
|                 | <b>L</b> | So that's your opinion. Okay. Alright.<br>Anything else to add on to that? And then as we are saying this we are directly dealing with third one which wants to get from you why we are being a passive listener. So we were just looking at why at home; I do not know if giving instructions at home is also part of becoming a passive listener because once my mother wants to say something to me or my father wants to say something to me it's about "Hei! You should be doing this and this; You should be doing this and this." It can be contributing factor; giving instructions or criticisms. Like he was saying that they want to embarrass us. They do that out of their own feelings for you. It is not like they want to embarrass you. They want to shape you to behave in an acceptable manner. We associate parents with people who give guidance in life. | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |
| <b>50</b>       | <b>L</b> | Anything else to add on to that?   | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>          |
|                 | <b>S</b> | Sometimes at home our suggestions are taken lightly.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>         |
|                 | <b>L</b> | Sometimes your suggestions are taken lightly.<br>Okay! I think what we have done so far, have given us the opportunity to look at why sometimes we find ourselves to be passive and not active listeners. And with that, I would like us to then go and relate listening to when we are in a lecture forum and we are supposed to take important information; that is Note taking. From here now we are going to move on to the strategies that we employ; that we use to take notes during lectures. So, I would like you to go and read around note taking during lecture forums. And then we will move on and address the issue of listening and taking down notes, because right now what we have looked at is only listening and how we behave as listeners. Whether we are active or passive given situations when we are listening.                                     | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |
| <b>Boundary</b> | <b>L</b> | But our focus next time will be lecture or presentations and then we take notes. Enjoy the rest of the day.  | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b>          |

**END OF LECTURER GLORIOUS'S LESSON ONE (Health Science)**



**11.20 Lesson transcription two**  
**Faculty: Health science**  
**Lecturer F (ii): Glorious**  
**Topic: Academic writing: The writing process**

| Exchanges     | Participant | Classroom talk  | Moves | Acts        |
|---------------|-------------|---|-------|-------------|
| Teaching<br>1 | L           | So, how are you ferrying with your projects? Are you just going well? Are you doing okay?   | I     | el          |
|               | Ss          | Yes   | R     | rep         |
|               | L           | No problems   | F     | com         |
| 2             | L           | I want us to move on now and answer one question for me by telling me; ‘Why do people write?’ ‘Why do we write?’ Just give me reasons why writers write.  | I     | el          |
|               | S           | We write for later reference.   | R     | rep         |
|               | L           | We can write for later reference. Okay. Good.   | F     | acc<br>e    |
|               | L           | And then what were you going to say?  | I     | el/n        |
| 3             | S           | To inform people.   | R     | rep         |
|               | L           | We can write to inform people.  | F     | acc         |
| 4             | L           | Yes   | I     | n           |
|               | S           | To express ourselves.   | R     | rep         |
|               | L           | We can write to express ourselves;<br>And by ourselves I want to believe you mean expressing ourselves by feelings, thoughts and ideas about a natural phenomenon. Okay. So, that is precisely why we write.  | F     | acc/<br>com |
| 5             | L           | We have been looking for the purposes of writing generally. Now, academically, what are the purposes of writing as scholars, as students in this university? Why do we write? What are the specific things that we write?   | I     | el          |
|               | S           | We write notes.   | R     | rep         |
|               | L           | We write notes.<br>We listen and then we take notes and we later on we sit down to read from sources and beef them up by making notes. And that is the difference between note making and note taking. We also write to carry out research and then write a report on what we found out and then we present.  | F     | acc<br>com  |
| 6             | L           | But is that all?  | I     | el          |
|               | S           | We write lab reports.   | R     | rep         |
|               | L           | We write reports following the experiments. We write reports following the experiments. So we write for those different reasons and our success in our academics depends on writing because we have to produce written work. Okay.  | F     | com         |
| 7             | L           | But what I want us to address today in this lesson is the process about writing those experiments. So, we write for those different reasons and our success as academics depends on writing. So what we want to address today is Academic Writing and someone mentioned that we write to express our feelings. When we express our feelings, there are different types of writing that we engage in to express our feelings.<br>Can we think of such people who write for that expression or feelings; for what is happening in the world around? | I     | i<br><br>el |
|               | S           | Danielle Steel.   | R     | rep         |
|               | L           | Danielle Steel and many others like Danielle Steel.<br>Good contribution.   | F     | acc<br>e    |

|           |          |  |          |                          |
|-----------|----------|--|----------|--------------------------|
| <b>8</b>  | <b>L</b> | But what is the work that they deal with; what is that regarded as?<br>What is their work called?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                |
|           | <b>S</b> | Fiction  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>               |
|           | <b>L</b> | They write Fiction; Okay.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>               |
| <b>9</b>  | <b>S</b> | Poets  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>               |
|           | <b>L</b> | Poets write poetry because they want to share with people their feelings especially; love, or war or anything in their natural setting. So, they create what they want to share with people. So they will create something that they want to share with people.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>       |
| <b>10</b> | <b>L</b> | Anything else?<br>Yes Jimmy  | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>n</b>          |
|           | <b>S</b> | The critics.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>               |
|           | <b>L</b> | The critics.<br>They are people who are bothered by certain things and write about that.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>       |
| <b>11</b> | <b>L</b> | Anything else?<br>Jimmy  | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>n</b>          |
|           | <b>S</b> | Journalists.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>               |
|           | <b>L</b> | Journalists.<br>They go around and they enlighten people about what is going on because they can go where we cannot go and they inform us.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>       |
| <b>12</b> | <b>L</b> | “Ya” (Yes)   | <b>I</b> | <b>n</b>                 |
|           | <b>S</b> | Scientists   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>               |
|           | <b>L</b> | Even the scientists,<br>They carry out research in their specialisation areas; there are anthropologists, there are psychologists and many people studying the environment. They carry out research in their different specialization area; after hypothesising about what could be going on and thereafter they write to inform us. Right.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>       |
| <b>13</b> | <b>L</b> | Now, I want us to look at the writer; writer. Where do they start?<br>This will then bring us to the process of writing. Where do they start?<br>Benny   | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>n</b>          |
|           | <b>S</b> | In their mind.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>               |
|           | <b>L</b> | Good. Very good.<br>Writing starts in the mind. Writing starts here; in the mind.<br>And this the first stage of the writing process. So the writing process is in stages; and the first one which is called the pre-writing stage. Under the pre-writing there is Free writing stage; you think first on what to write about. What is it that I want to write about? And under this stage; under the free writing, it is advisable that you engage in what is called free writing. You engage in free writing. Of course others will refer to it as brainstorming. At this stage, whatever comes to mind you jot it down; you write it down in no particular order; just anything; whatever comes to mind you jot it down; without paying attention to how you order it, what it is, because you are still only thinking about what you are going to write about or what you are setting to write about. So this is where we start writing. | <b>F</b> | <b>e<br/>acc<br/>com</b> |
| <b>14</b> | <b>L</b> | Why is it important that we do this free writing and brainstorming? What is the importance here? What is its importance?<br>Benny  | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>n</b>          |
|           | <b>S</b> | To write your ideas.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>               |

|              |           |  |          |                                    |
|--------------|-----------|--|----------|------------------------------------|
|              | <b>L</b>  | Good.<br>Because you write down ideas.<br>Ideas will be thoughts, opinions because here you are still doing a rough sketch; you want to have a background of whatever you will then come up with. So, these ideas might even later play the role of becoming subtopics; they can even become subtopics or they can be later formulated into phrases and sentences that will inform others. So, after, you do this you are going to plan; you are still under free writing. But you are going plan and structure these ideas. And then you can now move on to the second stage and call it the Writing stage. Then the second stage and call it the Writing stage. During the writing stage you start off by drafting; you do what is regarded as drafting. And usually the first draft is regarded as the rough draft. | <b>F</b> | <b>e<br/>acc<br/>com</b>           |
| <b>15</b>    | <b>L</b>  | Why rough draft? Why is this regarded as the rough draft?<br>Benny   | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>n</b>                    |
|              | <b>S</b>  | Because it is the one that is going to be subject to the most editing.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                         |
|              | <b>L</b>  | Because it is the one subject to most editing.<br>And because of what he has pointed out you need to be at the place without the distractions. Look for a place to sit, where there are no distractions.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>                 |
| <b>16</b>    | <b>L</b>  | What place is ideal for that? What place is ideal for that?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                          |
|              | <b>S</b>  | The library.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                         |
|              | <b>L</b>  | The library.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>                         |
| <b>17</b>    | <b>L</b>  | Where else?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                          |
|              | <b>Ss</b> | In the room.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                         |
|              | <b>L</b>  | Your room!?<br>478 ( <i>one of the halls of residence at UB</i> ).   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc/<br/>com</b>                |
| <b>18</b>    | <b>L</b>  | Is it a conducive environment and possible to concentrate?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                          |
|              | <b>Ss</b> | “Mm” (Yes)   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                         |
|              | <b>L</b>  | Okay. Anyway, I want to believe that as individuals we have our own preferred conducive environment because I have heard from some learners that they want to work where there is music playing in the background. I think personally that I will not concentrate in such an environment. And it is advisable that you focus for at least thirty minutes. Just give yourself 30 minutes of no disturbance when you are now doing this first draft; you may be structuring; you may be planning; you may be making sense of everything that you thought of and brainstorming.   | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>                         |
| <b>19</b>    | <b>L</b>  | And one thing is when you order your ideas you should try and make them follow a logical sequence. You should bring ideas that connect reasonably and meaningfully to one another.<br>How many people do that when they write? How many of us do this exactly? The first draft and you check that the ideas are well thought of and arranged well.<br>I know that some people present work that is haphazard. So, let me see who really do this?   | <b>I</b> | <b>i<br/><br/>ch<br/><br/>d/el</b> |
|              | <b>Ss</b> | <i>Students show by raising hands</i>  |          |                                    |
|              | <b>L</b>  | Only a few people. Okay. Now because of that, we should from now on wards, bear in mind that it is very important that we should have this rough graft and follow the logical sequence of ideas.   | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b>                           |
| <b>20(a)</b> | <b>S</b>  | Except in the test. I am saying except in the test. I am saying  | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b>                           |

|               |           |  |          |                          |
|---------------|-----------|--|----------|--------------------------|
|               |           | except in the test.  |          |                          |
| <b>20 (b)</b> | <b>L</b>  | Why not? Why not in the test?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                |
|               | <b>Ss</b> | Aaaaaaaa   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>               |
| <b>21</b>     | <b>L</b>  | <p>It is then important that you revise whatever you came up with. Okay. And revision is aided by the ARRR Approach; the ARRR concept. We now want to look at what it is. When you Revise and you are using word obviously; you tend to use a lot of cutting, paste; copy and paste. You all do that; you type “Akere?” (Isn’t it). This is where now you cut and paste; copy, paste or just cut completely and not paste depending on what you get out of revising your text; the material that you are writing; before Revising your text. So the first ‘A’ in this approach means Adding. You can now Add. And it takes us back to the starting point here. When we add, we refer to the points we brainstormed at the beginning. Okay. So, you can make additions; you refer to it. And the second R is Rearranging. You Rearrange. And when we rearrange that is when we do copy and paste; you remove a word; you remove a phrase, you remove a sentence and place it elsewhere. And when you do all this you should focus on strengths. And then you Remove what you do not want forever or to another place; and this is what you do during the process of writing. You remove what you think don’t make your sentences strong enough; that is what we do in the process of writing. And then finally, you Replace with something that is stronger.</p> <p>And then we move on to the fourth stage in the process of writing that is Editing and editing is not the same as revising. We are editing because we want to your work correct; you want to make it presentable. Even after taking a bath, and you have a lesson or special occasion you want to look presentable. So, when we Edit, So, when you are Editing, you look closely at sentences; we look closely at the words the phrases, check as to whether the words are not too much repeated within the same paragraph or within the same paragraph or the same sentence because if you can repeat the word it becomes monotonous. Imagine you said the word and markers will often underline this word and question you about it and say, ‘the use of this word is too much’. And you also do this because you want to check the strength of your argument, phrases in those words by what is regarded as the Thesaurus. And I do not know who amongst us here use the Thesaurus. What is the meaning of a Thesaurus. It gives you alternative words.</p> <p>What is a thesaurus?</p> | <b>I</b> | <b>i</b>                 |
|               | <b>S</b>  | There is a word with other words meaning the same thing. It gives synonyms of the word.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>               |
|               | <b>L</b>  | <p>Good;</p> <p>I like what you said, ‘Synonyms’. These are words that are similar or have almost similar meanings. So it is a specialised kind of dictionary.</p> <p>I want to believe there are many different dictionaries that are not only language based; Like you are Scientists, there are Scientific dictionaries; there are religious dictionaries; there are Law dictionaries that deal with lawful issues; So this is one of the different types of dictionaries that we come up with. And there are a few points that I want you to note rather than just a word that appears all the time. You need to check which words you could</p>   | <b>F</b> | <b>e<br/>acc<br/>com</b> |

|           |          |  |          |                                      |
|-----------|----------|--|----------|--------------------------------------|
|           |          | take out; words which tend not to give your text a stronger meaning or not so convincing. And then another thing, then check that the sentences are grammatically correct. This part of editing; Is the grammar correct? Have I used 'is' at the right place.<br>One other thing, check the spelling; Are the words correctly spelt. That is one other thing that you do in editing. And then another thing is punctuation. Punctuation is not only problematic to scholars; to students like you. It is a problem even to people at my own level. Where you place a comma can totally give a different meaning like if you had left it. So the whole sentence or phrase can become ambiguous simply because of how you punctuated it. That is why punctuation is important. |          |                                      |
| <b>22</b> | <b>L</b> | You want to say something?   | <b>I</b> | <b>n</b>                             |
|           | <b>S</b> | In punctuation, I don't know when was it; I was once taught that you can't place a comma before 'and'. But in most of the books that I read I find a comma before 'and'; so I wonder.  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                            |
| <b>23</b> | <b>L</b> | Can anybody point out anything; what is right or if may be you have observed the same thing.<br><b>mh</b>  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b><br><b>n</b>                |
|           | <b>S</b> | Yes. Is grammatically correct because whenever you see the word 'and' it means two things.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                           |
|           | <b>S</b> | What I know is that a comma connects sentences or phrases and the word 'and' also connects. So it is like you are double bounding. And if it was in Chemistry we would say that is Double bonding.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                           |
|           | <b>L</b> | A very interesting point. I think they brought up something interesting.<br>And usually what I do when something like this crops up, I encourage people to go and read sources around this. I know that you are not language people but from Cambridge you were taught grammar. So, just go and read around this so that you give yourself a richer background understanding of punctuation because punctuation can change meaning completely and it is important that you understand it. Okay. Right.   | <b>F</b> | <b>e</b><br><b>com</b>               |
| <b>24</b> | <b>L</b> | Now we go on to the fifth and last stage of the writing process.<br>I want to hear from you what you think.<br>How does it end?  | <b>I</b> | <b>s</b><br><b>el</b>                |
|           | <b>S</b> | Publishing.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                           |
|           | <b>L</b> | Good.<br>Publishing. That is precisely that.<br>This is the last stage of the writing process. Publish what you have been working on. And in our case here you can say submit; you submit; you submit your piece of work that you were given; that you were asked to do or you can simply say share information with others. You share it; you submit a piece of work that you were given or you publish it. You can say you share the end product. That is actually the end product; You share the end product and the end product can be in different forms.   | <b>F</b> | <b>e</b><br><b>acc</b><br><b>com</b> |
| <b>25</b> | <b>L</b> | Can we look at the different forms of the end product? The end product can be in different forms like?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>                            |
|           | <b>S</b> | A novel.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                           |
|           | <b>L</b> | A novel. The end product can be in the form of a novel.<br>So there we are with the writing process.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b><br><b>com</b>             |

|    |   |   |   |                 |
|----|---|---|---|-----------------|
| 26 | L | Now, I want us to finish off by looking at the different divisions of whatever you write. Whatever you write.   | I | s               |
|    | S | Are there no stages where you give others to go over your work?   | I | el              |
|    | L | You can. You can do it here. You can ask your friend, a colleague to help check everything for you. To edit for you. The other word is to proof reading the work for you. So, somebody can proof read for you the text that you came up with. Thank you for making us aware of that point.  | R | rep<br>e        |
| 27 | L | So, whatever piece of writing you engage in, it has the three main divisions; that you really have to pay attention to. So what are they? Somebody has said it but is not bold We also have the sunglasses. So imagine if we all brought the sunglasses and put them on. Take off those sunglasses. We want to see you; we want to maintain eye contact with you. So, take off those sunglasses   | I | i<br>el<br>d    |
|    | S | Introduction.   | R | rep             |
|    | L | The Introduction.   | F | acc             |
| 28 | L | What role does it play in a piece of writing? What role does it play in a piece of writing? The Introduction sets out to do what? The Introduction sets out to do what? What purpose does it serve?   | I | el              |
|    | S | It is the view of what to expect.   | R | rep             |
|    | L | He says it is a view of what to expect. Good  | F | acc<br>e        |
| 29 | L | And then you were going to say? What does it create?  | I | el              |
|    | S | It provides background information.   | R | rep             |
|    | L | Background information.   | F | acc             |
| 30 | L | What else does it do?   | I | el              |
|    | S | It enlightens.  | R | rep             |
|    | L | It enlightens. It sought of creates the mood.   | F | acc<br>com      |
| 31 | L | And following the introduction is what?   | I | el              |
|    | S | The body.   | R | rep             |
|    | L | And the body is usually divided into paragraphs. And this is what I want us to look at. Paragraphs.   | F | com             |
| 32 | L | Why Paragraphs? How are they important?   | I | el              |
|    | S | Paragraphs help such that ideas are arranged in logical order.  | R | rep             |
|    | L | Thank you very much for that. It helps you to organise your ideas so that they are not mixed up. So you address an idea in one paragraph and you move to another. And when you do that all the time make sure that you connect so that there is that cohesion within the paragraph and or paragraphs. And this should connect; relate to your Introduction all the time. The way you Introduce should be connected throughout the body to the conclusion and the conclusion should connect somehow to the introduction. And all the time you make your ideas connect from beginning to the end. Okay. | F | e<br>acc<br>com |
| 33 | L | And then lastly?  | I | el              |
|    | S | Conclusion.   | R | rep             |
|    | L | The conclusion. You need to conclude in a strong way. Your conclusion should have a connection that is necessary. When we come back, we want to look at these paragraphs that I mentioned. We want to   | F | acc<br>com      |

|          |   |   |    |          |
|----------|---|---|----|----------|
|          |   | look at thesis statements and how thesis statement serves as a topic or a subtopic to the paragraph that you will be dealing with.  |    |          |
| 34       | L | Are there any other contributions or questions or whatever that you want us to look at regarding what we have just said?  | I  | el       |
|          | S | I want to ask a question: Is there a difference between a prologue and a conclusion?  | I  | el       |
|          | L | Can I throw it to all of us to all look at? Is there a difference between a prologue and a conclusion? So, what do we say? Let's talk; let's discuss.<br>Victoria   | I  | el<br>n  |
|          | S | I think the two are the same.   | R  | rep      |
|          | L | She thinks the two are the same.  | F  | acc      |
| 35       | S | What is a prologue?   | I  | el       |
|          | L | What is a prologue?<br>Tell them.   | I  | el<br>n  |
|          | S | A prologue is kind of a summary. It is mostly found in novels. It summarises exactly what happened to the characters or to the life of the character; most of the time after.   | R  | rep      |
|          | L | We are discussing and I want people to speak out louder for others to hear.   | F  | com      |
| 36       | L | You were saying something and others missed out on that. You were saying something and others missed out on that.   | I  | n        |
|          | S | The blurb.  | R  | rep      |
|          | L | The blurb of the book.  | F  | acc      |
| 37       | L | And then?<br>There is a hand  | I  | el<br>n  |
|          | S | I think she answered herself. She said usually Prologues are not in all pieces of writing; they are for fictitious writing. So, there are different conclusions for different kinds of texts.   | R  | rep      |
|          | L | Precisely.<br>I was going to wrap up by saying that different pieces of writing have got concepts used to refer to them. For example, Summaries and. Somebody might call a summary; something else. Somebody might call a summary something else like an abstract. Somebody might call it a synopsis. So, It all depends on the type of the material or the type of the book or the type of text or the book that one is writing. | F  | e<br>com |
| Boundary | L | Thank you for being active in the discussions.  | Fo | ms       |

**END OF LECTURER GLORIOUS'S LESSON TWO (Health Science)**

**11.21 Lesson transcription three**

**Faculty: Health science**

**Lecturer F (ii): Glorious**

**Topic: Presentation Skills**

| Exchanges     | Participant | Classroom talk  | Moves | Acts                 |
|---------------|-------------|---|-------|----------------------|
| Teaching<br>1 | L           | I would like us to share our findings with the class what we came up with during research.<br>Usually what happens during presentations is that we avoid interruptions. We wait until the group finishes and then we ask questions or present comments.<br>So, I will ask Group Paramount to come and give us their presentation. Group Paramount please. | I     | el<br><br>d<br><br>n |
|               | S           | <b>Presenter 1:</b> We will talk about African Potato as a medicinal plant  | R     | rep                  |

|          |          |   |          |                               |
|----------|----------|---|----------|-------------------------------|
|          |          | <p>in Botswana. African Potato in Setswana, our mother tongue it is called “<b>kgoko ya poo</b>”. And Scientifically it is called hypoxis hemerocallidia.</p> <p><b><i>I will write it.</i></b><br/> <i>You can feel free to take down some notes.</i></p> <p>I will now describe the product and its properties: African Potato is a medicinal plant. As you know in Science we classify plants into domains and families; this one belongs to the Family hypoxidacea. African Potato can be recognised by its bright yellow star shape like flowers and stripes like leaves. The plant has brown potato shape roots which is the main source of the medicinal ingredients. I guess you all know the potato plant; and it has the potato shape and the actual product that is used for medicinal purpose is the root. During collection, the root is dug from underground and then dried. After collection the African Potato can be stored as a root or as a powder away from moisture and it can be stored in a solution form. This is how it looks like before and after preparation (<i>student refers the class to the teaching/learning aid prepared</i>).</p>   |          | <b>z<br/>d<br/>rep</b>        |
|          | <b>L</b> | Excuse me; people do not see the picture. Put it slightly up.   | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>                    |
| <b>2</b> | <b>S</b> | <b>Presenter 2:</b> I wish to apologise first for not wearing formal dress. Today I brought my shirt to come and iron it at my friend’s room. Unfortunately my shirt got burnt this morning as I was ironing it to prepare for this session. And that is the reason why I am not wearing formal clothes.  | <b>R</b> | <b>z</b>                      |
|          | <b>L</b> | Sorry about that.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>                    |
| <b>3</b> | <b>S</b> | <b>Presenter 2 cont’:</b> So, I will talk about the ingredients which we find in the African Potato.<br><i>These terms are even difficult for me.</i><br>So we have the important constituents called hypoxosides and Cyclothemos. And two then convert to some medicinal properties. The other constituent of the African potato is an example of the steroids and their glucosides. These also help with some biological factors that take place in our bodies. Thank you.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep<br/><br/>z<br/>rep</b> |
| <b>4</b> | <b>S</b> | <b>Presenter 3:</b> I will share with you the ailments or conditions cured by the African Potato. This plant has been used by traditional doctors for centuries to cure urinary infections, heart weakness and nervous disorders. Other cures are (a) The benign prostate hyperplasia. This is the enlargement of the prostate glands. It is usually common in older men and obviously it cannot be women because they do not have the prostate. So it is the enlargement of the prostate glands. (b) It is also used to cure ailments like Common cold (c) Arthritis: which causes the inflammation of the joints (d) Cancer (e) HIV/AIDS: This is because it has the steroids. The steroids boost the immune system of HIV patients. Basing on the conditions that I have raised, we can conclude that the potential customers for these products are anybody who has these ailments. So, anybody who suffers from any of these diseases that I have mentioned are the potential customers. However, as we all know that traditionally, children are not allowed to take the medicines on their own, so the children will be the potential users of the African Potato but the potential customers are their parents. With that I will hand over to the next presenter who will cover the dosage. Thank you | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                    |
| <b>5</b> | <b>S</b> | <b>Presenter 4:</b> I am presenting on the dosage and it differs depending  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                    |



|    |   |  |   |     |
|----|---|--|---|-----|
|    |   | <p>on the type of illness; For Lung cancer: 1200-3200 milligrams is divided into two-three doses through mouth.</p> <p>For benign prostate hyperplasia: 60- 130 milligrams of beta-sitosterol divided into 2-3 days. African Potato as a tumorcidal agent in a dose of 2 400 milligrams daily. Although safety and effectiveness has not been proven, traditionally, a cup it is taken morning and evening before or after meals. Scientifically there is no recommended dosage but traditionally, it can be taken by people of all ages.</p>  |   |     |
| 6  | S | <p><b>Presenter 5:</b> African potato lowers large sugar levels. So those who suffer from sugar and liver problems has been associated with erectile dysfunction and loss of libido. Also scientifically, it is advised that breast-feeding and pregnant moms should not take this plant as medication. African Potato should not been taken by people with allergies such as skin rash. Some of these include abdominal pains, and cramps. Lastly, African Potato, can cause liver problems.</p>  | R | rep |
| 7  | S | <p><b>Presenter 6:</b> The African potato is popular both as African traditional remedies and for the preparation of herbal teas. The people who have used these products state that they have worked for them. The African potato is used as the primary treatment of HIV/AIDS. In some countries, such as, South Africa, primary health care community is currently using <i>hypoxis</i> as an immune-stimulant for patients with HIV/AIDS. Also, this product has been used by traditional healers for centuries to cure different diseases. Here are examples of some pictures showing how the African Potato is used for medicines and medicinal products (<i>Student referring to the prepared chart</i>). Due to its effectiveness, It is also called the miracle healer.</p> | R | rep |
| 8  | L | <p>So there they are, let's applaud them for their very informative presentation. They have asked if you have questions or comments. Thank you very much and I heard one of them saying that at the end they will circulate the poster I suppose at the end of everything you can circulate your poster.</p>   | F | com |
| 9  | S | <p><b>GROUP 2:</b><br/> <b>Presenter 1:</b> We will be presenting traditional uses of 'Mokgwapha' which is (Aloe Vera) and how it contributes to modern medicine. Aloe Vera is a plant common in hot semi-arid temperatures. It looks like a hot plant and a cactus. Aloe Vera is jacket looking and is the medicinal plant that has stood the test of time. It is very much used in the medical field. It has been used all over the world in those hot-semi arid temperatures, like I said. If some of you read the Bible, Jesus was crucified in the mixtures aloes and they call them aloes of good will; they talking of Aloe Vera. Now, Aloe Vera heals skin wounds, burns, scalp, burns, rashes, sores and also for allergic reactions and dry skin.</p>                      | R | rep |
| 10 | S | <p><b>Presenter 2:</b> I will present on the sources of Aloe Vera. First all the Aloe Vera supplements are Citric acid, Aloe juice and vitamin C. These are used to improve digestion. The other supplement is Aloe Vera oil. When used for massaging it penetrates within the skin. There is also Aloe Vera juice; it acts as a detoxifying agent and it helps in purification of the body. And because of its properties, It also alleviates intestinal problems. There is also the Aloe gel: It commonly used by cosmetic and toiletry industries. The gel is</p>   | R | rep |

|    |   |   |   |     |
|----|---|---|---|-----|
|    |   | applied on the skin and It helps the skin to be moisturised. Aloe Vera can also be applied on the scalp to prevent hair loss and dandruff.  |   |     |
| 11 | S | <b>Presenter 3:</b> I will go into steps on how Aloe Vera is prepared into a gel. First of all, get a fresh mature leaf; normally found on the outer most area of the plant and then take off the spikes and then cut it into thin slices. Then put the flesh into a container in an upright position. However, care should be taken not to tear the green rind as this may contaminate the gel. Then place it in the same position for at least 10-15 minutes. The next step is to wash your hands well before touching the gel. Then take out the gel by using a spoon. After that, transfer it into an airtight container and store it in the refrigerator. Drink in the morning or at bedtime, if desired. Lastly, after drinking, refill the jar with water. But each time the jars are refilled, infusion gets weaker and milder so add fresh Aloe Vera slices. | R | rep |
| 12 | S | <b>Presenter 4:</b> I will talk about the ailments treated using Aloe Vera. They treat stomach problems by normalising the acids and the digestive system. And if you have problems like indigestion, congestion, intestinal worms and stomach ulcers; aloe juices will help. Aloe Vera helps to soothe the skin, as they have moisturisers. So, if you have dry skin problems; I recommend you use the Aloe Vera. Aloe Vera has some medicinal properties that reduce inflammation. Scars, burns, rashes, sores are treated using Aloe Vera.   | R | rep |
| 13 | S | <b>Presenter 5:</b> I am going to tackle the complementary uses of Aloe Vera to the Western medicine. Aloe Vera has been proved scientifically to be useful and has been used along centuries. Aloe Vera has anti-tumour; anti-viral, anti-inflammatory, anti-bacteria and immune enhancer complementary. Aloe Vera can be used to treat cancer and It can also be used to treat infections. Also, Aloe Vera can be used as laxatives. Ladies and gentlemen, these laxatives should not be given to kids because the prescribed amount is not yet known. Also Aloe Vera has been tested scientifically to help in the healing of cancer. And with this, the Cancer Association has included Aloe Vera as one of the medicines for treating cancer. As I have already mentioned that it has anti-tumour, this means those tumours can be treated using Aloe Vera.      | R | rep |
| 14 | S | <b>Presenter 6:</b> It should not be administered to pregnant or lactating women. It should not administered to children too; as my colleague has already mentioned. It should not be administered to people who are allergic to garlic and onions. The side effects of Aloe Vera are severe diarrhoea, dehydration and intestinal problems. It is also reported to cause hepatitis though it is still not verified.  | R | rep |
| 15 | S | <b>Presenter 7:</b> I am going to talk about storage recommendations of Aloe Vera. Store the product in a closed glass or plastic jar with water to give it oxygen. Also protect it from sunlight so as to extend it to five years. There are certain recommendations that include putting the Aloe Vera products in clean sterilised containers so as to reduce the microbial reproduction. And they should be kept away from direct sunlight to help the Aloe Vera products active and effective and should be kept away from the insects.  | R | rep |
| 16 | S | <b>Presenter 8:</b> In conclusion; The potential customers of Aloe Vera would be anyone of you. If you have a cut, if you have a bruise, if   | R | rep |



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|----------|----------|--|----------|----------------------------|
|          |          | <p>‘What is reading?’<br/>         Are you going to talk to me? ‘What is reading?’ or is it something that you have been taking for granted all along?<br/>         ‘What is reading?’<br/> <b>“Ee mma” (Yes ma’am)</b></p>  |          | el<br>cu/<br>el<br>el<br>n |
|          | <b>S</b> | Getting information from a written text.   | <b>R</b> | rep                        |
|          | <b>L</b> | Getting information from a written text.   | <b>F</b> | acc                        |
| <b>2</b> | <b>L</b> | <p>What about the others;<br/>         What is reading?<br/>         Please take off your hats.<br/>         Thank you very much.<br/>         What is reading?</p>  | <b>I</b> | cu/n<br>el<br>d<br>e<br>el |
|          | <b>S</b> | It is a form of communication.   | <b>R</b> | rep                        |
|          | <b>L</b> | <p>It is a form of communication.<br/>         It is the form of communication between the reader and the author. You may not hear the voice as you are reading, but you are getting the voice from the printed matter. That is communication between the reader and the author.</p> <p>What about others? So, may be to summarise what the two students have just said; Reading is recognising the signs and symbols used. Reading is recognising the signs and symbols used in a written text. For example, you cannot be able to read if you do not understand the characters that been used or the language that has been used. That is very, very important. For example, if may be you have a written text in Chinese; and if you do not know how to interpret the Chinese symbols or characters you will not be able to read. And again Reading is making sense and meaning; making sense out of the words, phrases and sentences used; and making sense from the words, phrases in a written text. So, it is important that, when you read you make sense from what you are reading; otherwise, why read. And like he said; as you are reading you interact with the text; your mind is busy at work as you are reading. Why? because you are busy communicating with the author as you are reading. You keep on making comments about what you are reading, this means that you keep on asking the author; why? why this? how? and so on because you are talking with the author. You keep on relating the issues that you are reading about to the knowledge that you have and take it further and apply some of the theories that you read about to real life situation; is this practical, is this realistic in our situation or in Botswana situation. So, this means that as you read, you comprehend and understand what you are reading. For you to be able to apply the theories, for you to be able to relate the theories or whatever written text; for you to be able to, you have to comprehend what you are reading about and take it beyond the print. The most important thing is to remember even after reading; you have to remember even after finishing reading you still have to remember what you read. And you cannot remember if you did not comprehend and if you did not understand. You cannot remember if you did not comprehend and if you did not understand. So, this means that you need a lot of concentration. You need to read with concentration. You need to read with a lot of concentration. So you cannot read with some loud music on. You cannot read with your headphones on; like some of you do where</p> | <b>F</b> | acc<br>com                 |



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|    |   | your colleagues with your lecturer and even with yourself. You need to further communicate with points that you have read from the text. So, how do you share the information when you have nothing or are you going to go back to the journals and say let me re-read. So, may be, the same reasons; (let us look at it in this way) the same reasons that we use for note taking are the same reasons used for making notes.  |   |   |
| 12 | L | Can you write down this sub heading: WHY MAKE NOTES FROM A WRITTEN TEXT? WHY MAKE NOTES and let us quickly outline the reasons for making notes. Let us quickly outline the reasons for making notes.<br>Why read? Why make notes as you are reading?<br>So that each one of you should understand why it is important for them to make notes when reading.<br>Why make notes?<br>Now, I believe each one of you is going to answer this one as you have the points in your note books. Why make notes? Why make notes from a written text?<br>Yes <b>“mma” (ma’am)</b>   | I | i<br><br>el<br><br>i<br><br>el<br><br>n |
|    | S | For reference.  | R | rep                                     |
|    | L | For reference; For reference; you are still going to use those notes at a later date.   | F | acc<br>com                              |
| 13 | L | What else?<br>Yes sir.  | I | el<br>n                                 |
|    | S | To save time.   | R | rep                                     |
|    | L | To save time.   | F | acc                                     |
| 14 | L | How do you save time?   | I | el                                      |
|    | S | By not going back to the library.   | R | rep                                     |
|    | L | By not going back to the library.<br>They are easy to reach now because they are in your note pad.  | F | acc<br>com                              |
| 15 | L | What else?  | I | el                                      |
|    | S | To avoid plagiarism.  | R | rep                                     |
|    | L | To avoid plagiarism.<br>He is saying to avoid plagiarism. How do you avoid plagiarism?<br>That is a very important point that he is raising.  | F | acc<br>com                              |
| 16 | L | What is plagiarism?   | I | el                                      |
|    | S | Copying the authors words.  | R | rep                                     |
|    | L | <b>“Ee” (Yes).</b> Copying the author’s words; word for word.<br>You need to use your own words; you need to use your own language; you need to use your own words. Try to make meaning; try to make sense of what the author is saying and then write it the way you understand it without misrepresenting the author; without misrepresenting the author.   | F | acc<br>com                              |
| 17 | L | What else? Why make notes from a written text? Why read?<br>To share and exchange information; that is what we said. To share and exchange information. Reading will add to the knowledge that you have; reading will add to the knowledge that you have; you come across new information. You beef up the information you have from previous level. You have something to make reference to when you share information with other colleagues; you will be able to share information with other colleagues. And you will be able to exchange the information with other colleagues. But the thing here is you do not just exchange information, share ideas with someone who does not even read, who doesn’t even know what you are | I | el<br>i                                 |

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|    |   | <p>talking about. So, all of you should read so that you share the information. She also shares what she has read about.</p> <p><b>We don't want people who are pests. Do you know what pests do? They wait for you to plough or plant whatever you are ploughing or planting. All that they do is to feed on what you have planted; feed on your crops.</b></p> <p>So, as students you need to read and you share the information with other students; you don't just go for example, in a group discussion, you don't have to go there empty handed; you also have to contribute. You do not have to go there empty handed in a group discussion and then you say, 'You know what I haven't had time to read.'</p> <p>So, how many reasons do we have on how it is important to make notes while reading? How many points do we have? Can you outline them quickly?</p>                                |   | <p>cu</p> <p>i</p> <p>el</p>                    |
|    | S | To save time, to avoid plagiarism, to share and exchange information, add to your knowledge, for reference.  | R | rep   |
|    | L | You are still going to use the information for assignments, tests and even for the examinations; you are still going to use the information for assignments, tests and even for examinations and even beyond the university.   | F | com   |
| 18 | L | <p>And now, let us look at the techniques of reading; Techniques of reading; How do you read?</p> <p>What techniques can you use for reading? What techniques can you use for reading?</p>   | I | <p>s</p> <p>el</p>                              |
|    | S | Skimming and Scanning.   | R | rep   |
|    | L | Skimming and Scanning.   | F | acc   |
| 19 | L | What do you mean by Skimming and Scanning?   | I | el  |
|    | S | Skimming is going through the whole text to check what it is about and Scanning is when you look for something specific from the text.   | R | rep   |
|    | L | Skimming is going through the whole text and scanning is when you look for something specific from the text.   | F | acc   |
| 20 | L | <p>What happens as you go through the whole text?</p> <p><b>"Ee mma" (Yes ma'am)</b></p>   | I | <p>el</p> <p>n</p>                              |
|    | S | You start by understanding the main points.  | R | rep   |
| 21 | L | So are you saying in Skimming you have to start with Scanning first?   | I | el  |
|    | S | Yes  | R | rep   |
| 22 | L | <p>Let me get it clearly from you; what is Skimming?</p> <p>You have been using this technique right from secondary school.</p> <p><b>Isn't it?</b></p> <p>Skimming.</p> <p>What is Skimming?</p> <p>That is what I am asking. What do you understand by Skimming?</p> <p>Okay skimming is a reading technique, (I will help you on that one)</p> <p>Skimming is a reading technique; a reading technique, that you can use to get a general idea about a text; to get a general idea about a text. So as you skim, you have to identify the main points or you identify the main idea. You have to look for headings, you have to look for sub headings, bold type words. You have to mark the Introductions, the Conclusions and so forth. But as you skim you want to read for understanding; you have to understand what you are reading about. But the most important thing here is that you do</p> | I | <p>el</p> <p>cu</p> <p>i</p> <p>el</p> <p>i</p> |

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|    |   | not have to read the whole textbook word for word. No! You just have to read what is relevant to what you are looking for or you only have to read what is relevant to your research; what you are researching about. But the most important thing here is that you need to understand, you have to comprehend. So this means you have to have a pen and a paper so that as you read; may be a highlighter. You highlight the important points; you highlight the examples. You try to follow the introductions; you try to follow the conclusions. Read the introductions; read the conclusions. That is the technique that we normally use for reading journals, newspapers and textbooks. That is the technique that is commonly used. And then somebody was saying that the other technique that we can use is Scanning. Or maybe you have questions on Skimming. Any additional information on Skimming? Any additional information that you have on Skimming? Any additional information that you have on Skimming?<br><b>“Bagaetsho Lona” (Comrades You)</b> You have just boarded the economy.<br>Can you answer my questions, make comments and contribute.<br>Yes sir |   | el<br><br>cu<br><br>el<br>n |
| 23 | S | Comparing Skimming and scanning, how much time do you allocate to skimming and scanning?  | I | el                          |
|    | L | That is a question; how much time do we allocate to skimming and scanning?<br>Yes sir   | I | el<br><br>n                 |
|    | S | To answer his question, I think that Skimming is brief; when doing it you look at the headings and subheadings, and Scanning you get a bit more into what you are reading.  | R | rep                         |
|    | L | Serious!?   | F | e                           |
| 24 | L | May be, let us look at scanning and then make a comparison. Let us look at scanning and then we will make a comparison. What is Scanning? Scanning? Scanning?<br>I do not want to be talking to the same people all the time. Scanning<br><b>“Ee rra” (Yes sir)</b>   | I | s<br>el<br><br>cu<br>n      |
|    | S | I think it is when you are reading everything from word to word.  | R | rep                         |
|    | L | You are reading everything from word to word.<br>Are you serious?   | F | acc/<br>com                 |
| 25 | L | Scanning.<br>What is scanning?  | I | s<br>el                     |
|    | S | Scanning is browsing through.   | R | rep                         |
|    | L | Browsing through; Yes. Browsing through;<br>Or when you are looking for specific information.   | F | acc<br>com                  |
| 26 | L | Specific information like what?   | I | el                          |
|    | S | Key words.  | R | rep                         |
|    | L | Key words.  | F | acc                         |
| 27 | L | Like?   | I | el                          |
|    | S | Date.   | R | rep                         |
|    | L | Date.   | F | acc                         |
| 28 | S | Telephone number.   | R | rep                         |
|    | L | Telephone number.<br>You are only searching for key words.  | F | acc<br>com                  |
| 29 | L | And from what we just said about Scanning, do you think Scanning is intensive?  | I | el                          |



|           |           |  |          |   |
|-----------|-----------|--|----------|---|
|           | <b>S</b>  | No   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |
| <b>30</b> | <b>L</b>  | For example, if I have an advertiser here, and I want to look for accommodation, do I have to go through page by page looking for the accommodation that I am looking for?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>   |
|           | <b>Ss</b> | No   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |
| <b>31</b> | <b>L</b>  | What do I do? What do I do?<br>Yes sir   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b><br><b>n</b>   |
|           | <b>S</b>  | You go to the table of contents.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |
|           | <b>L</b>  | I just have to go to the table of contents and go straight to that page I am looking for. I don't need much concentration. Or even if I am looking for a telephone number in a telephone directory. I have to locate the specific area and then the telephone number; that's it. So scanning is lighter. For example, when you go to the library, you have to look for specific faculty of Education books, Humanities books, Business books, Architecture and so on. And you identify the relevant shelves where those books are shelved and you look for the topics; you scan for the topics for the title for books. You have to identify the table of contents and then quickly scan through the topics and look for whatever specific books you are looking for. But you cannot go to the library and go to the first floor and read all the books there. Go to the second floor and read all the information there. Go to third floor and pull all the books down. You have to know what you are looking for. That is it. So, scanning is lighter than skimming because in skimming you have to read for comprehension, get the main idea. You have to read the Introduction, you read the Body and the Conclusion. You read for specific information; for a Location, Telephone numbers, Accommodation, Jobs and so on. | <b>F</b> | <b>acc/</b><br><b>com</b>                                       |
| <b>32</b> | <b>L</b>  | Who can tell me the difference between skimming and scanning?<br>"Ee rra" (Yes sir)  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b><br><b>n</b>   |
|           | <b>S</b>  | In spelling and pronunciation.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |
|           | <b>L</b>  | In spelling and pronunciation.<br>That is classic.<br>In spelling and pronunciation.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b><br><b>e</b><br><b>acc</b>                            |
| <b>33</b> | <b>L</b>  | Tell me, what is the difference between the skimming technique and the scanning technique?<br>Yes "mma" (ma'am)  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b><br><b>n</b>   |
|           | <b>S</b>  | Scanning is lighter.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |
|           | <b>L</b>  | Ya (Yes) Scanning is lighter.<br>Even if we are going to use the scanning technique you start with scanning and then you identify what you want to read; and then you identify the examples and so on.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b><br><b>com</b>  |
| <b>34</b> | <b>L</b>  | What about other techniques?<br>We still have the other techniques. We still have other techniques.<br>"Mma" (Ma'am)   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b><br><b>i</b><br><b>n</b>                               |
|           | <b>S</b>  | Reading word for word.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |
|           | <b>L</b>  | Reading word for word.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>  |
| <b>35</b> | <b>L</b>  | What do we call that?<br>Intensive Reading. Intensive Reading. Intensive Reading.<br>What does Intensive Reading involve?<br>People you are whispering. I can't even hear what you are saying.<br>What does Intensive Reading involve?<br>Yes "rra" (sir)  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b><br><br><br><br><br><b>cu</b><br><b>el</b><br><b>n</b> |
|           | <b>S</b>  | I think you memorise everything that you read.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |

|           |           |  |          |                        |
|-----------|-----------|--|----------|------------------------|
|           | <b>L</b>  | I am very much uncomfortable with the word memorise.<br>At university level we do not memorise concepts; you have to understand and comprehend concepts. You have to understand and comprehend. So that is why I am uncomfortable with memorising. It involves reading with understanding and comprehending.   | <b>F</b> | <b>e/<br/>com</b>      |
| <b>36</b> | <b>S</b>  | Interacting with the texts.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
|           | <b>L</b>  | Interacting with the texts.<br>Applying old information to new information. Making comments; asking yourself questions about what you are reading, making comparisons; identifying the similarities and differences, summarising the text, re-reading the text for better comprehension, following the details of the text. So, Intensive reading is more than Scanning; it involves a lot. For example, If you read about a theory; I believe you have theories that guide Architecture; <b>Isn't it?</b> You may not be aware of them now but at a later stage you are going to be; I believe you are going to go through those theories. If you have a theory, for example, in Architecture, you have to read. You have to read pick the main ideas in that theory; and try to understand what the theory is all about; how did it originate and how is it applicable? May be the person who came up with the theory is from Germany, in US or in UK; You try and apply the information to Botswana situation. Is this theory relevant, if it is relevant, how is it relevant? Think of how the theory applicable to Botswana Situation. Secondly, Is this theory applicable to Botswana situation; what is it that we can amend; What is applicable and what is not applicable. It means you have to really work hard. You need to find out if the theory is applicable to Botswana situation and come up with your own ideas on how we can improve the theory so that we can use it to Botswana situation. And come up with your own ideas so that we can use it to Botswana situation. So that is what Intensive reading is all about. There is a lot that is going on in Intensive reading. And this is the technique that you have to follow as university students. You read, ask yourself questions, make comments and try to find out if what you are reading is realistic, is applicable to Botswana situation; If not why not? And try to bring your own ideas. That is why you are here; you are not here to just get the information from textbooks; you have to challenge the textbooks. You have to challenge information and see what is relevant; try to see the differences and similarities. You cannot just read for the sake of reading. Okay. So we have talked about and we have not even talked about the purpose of reading; 'why read?' We have not even talked about the purpose of reading; "Why read?" But we shall come to that may be next time. All that you need right now are the techniques. So far you should have started using the techniques. Okay. | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>     |
| <b>37</b> | <b>L</b>  | We have only dealt with three of them.<br>So let us stop here and make the announcements for Wednesday.<br>But before the announcement, do you have any questions on what we have done? Questions? What does silence mean?   | <b>I</b> | <b>i<br/>cu<br/>el</b> |
|           | <b>Ss</b> | No questions   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
|           | <b>L</b>  | No questions.<br>You think you have understood what we have been discussing? Okay. In the absence of questions, let me make the announcements for the next lesson.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>     |

|          |   |   |    |    |
|----------|---|---|----|----|
| Boundary | L | So, Wednesday, I am going to attend a conference. | Fo | ms |
|----------|---|---|----|----|

**END OF LECTURER QUEEN'S LESSON ONE**

**11.23 Lesson transcription two**

**Faculty: Engineering and Technology**

**Lecturer B: Queen**

**Topic: Paragraphs**

| Exchange   | Participant | Classroom talk   | Moves | Acts                        |
|------------|-------------|--|-------|-----------------------------|
| Boundary   | L           | Like I said last week when we go over this topic of the writing skill, check how far you are with your assignments. Okay! <b>“Ee” (Yes).</b>   | Fo    | ms                          |
| Teaching 1 | L           | So,<br>it will be advisable if you always bring your assignments along so that as we discuss the writing skills check where you are, so that from here you start reviewing your assignments. Okay!<br>And when do you think you can submit?<br>Can you make it Thursday morning?   | I     | ms<br><br>el<br>el          |
|            | Ss          | Yes  | R     | rep                         |
|            | L           | Thursday morning at <b>‘em’</b> 11 o’clock. Okay! So can I have the assignments Thursday morning at 11 o’clock as I think you will have covered the material that I would like about the writing skills. So, Thursday 11 o’clock you submit and then we will be left with one task that I will let you know when you are going to write it.  | F     | com                         |
| 2          | L           | Em! May be to go over what we did last week, we were looking on the process of writing; of the writing process. And then we said before you write anything or put anything on paper. May be we should go over the steps together. What is the first step I said you should do? What is the first step I said you should do before you write an assignment or whatever piece of writing that you are doing? | I     | s<br><br>el                 |
|            | S           | Get your thoughts together.  | R     | rep                         |
|            | L           | Get your thoughts together.  | F     | acc                         |
| 3          | L           | How? How do you do this? How do you do this?<br><b>“hei, hei, hei”. There must be order here.</b><br><b>And take off your hats.</b><br>What did we say? I am talking about the first stage. What should happen at the first stage the pre-writing stage?<br>Come on; you have notes right there in front of you<br><b>“Ee rra” (Yes sir)</b>   | I     | el<br>cu<br>d<br><br>p<br>n |
|            | S           | Look at the plan.  | R     | rep                         |
|            | L           | Look at the plan of how you are going to do the task.  | F     | acc                         |
| 4          | L           | What else? Because this process is very important, you must understand it. What else can you do at the pre-writing stage?  | I     | el                          |
|            | S           | Look for relevant information.   | R     | rep                         |
|            | L           | Look for relevant information.<br>You cannot write an assignment when you do not have relevant information   | F     | acc<br>com                  |

|    |   |   |     |                                   |
|----|---|---|-----|-----------------------------------|
| 5  | L | How can you look for relevant information?  | I   | el                                |
|    | S | You have to research first.   | R   | rep                               |
|    | L | You have to research first.   | F   | acc                               |
| 6  | L | What else?<br>You can research; You can do what?<br>What else can you do at the preliminary stage?<br><br>You can interview people about your topic.<br>You can discuss the topic with your colleagues.<br>This course is very important, you must understand it. What else should happen at the pre writing stage? Look for relevant information. You cannot write an assignment that you do not understand.<br>How can you look for relevant information? What else needs to be done? You can research, you can do what? What else can you do at the preliminary stage? You can interview your people about your topic. You can discuss the topic with your colleagues so that you understand your topic. You cannot write something that you don't understand. That is what we said at the pre-writing stage.<br><br>What is the second stage there? What is the second stage?<br><br>"Ee rra" (Yes sir) | I   | s<br><br>i<br><br>el<br>n         |
|    | S | Writing the right draft.  | R   | rep                               |
|    | L | Writing the right draft.  | F   | acc                               |
| 7  | L | What happens at writing the right draft? You cannot write something that you don't understand.<br>How do you write the first draft? How do you write the right draft?<br><b>Were you here or not? So what is the story now?</b>   | I   | el<br><br>ch                      |
|    | S | You put your thoughts on paper.   | R   | rep                               |
|    | L | You put your thoughts on paper.   | F   | acc                               |
| 8  | L | How do you put your thoughts on paper?<br>In what manner? In what manner?<br>"Ee rra" (Yes sir).<br><b>Were you here? My sister, help us-we are drowning.</b><br>What happens at the second stage? She said you put your thoughts on paper, how do you do that? Do you have your notes?<br><b>That's a serious one. (no responses from the students)</b>  | I   | s<br>el<br>n<br>cu<br>el<br><br>z |
|    | L | "Ee rra" (Yes sir).   | R/I | n                                 |
|    | S | You try to organise your ideas.   | R   | rep                               |
|    | L | You try to organise your ideas. You try to organise your thoughts.<br>You try to write your ideas in paragraphs. You try to sort out your ideas. That is what should happen at the right draft.   | F   | acc<br><br>com                    |
| 9  | L | Then what will be the next stage?   | I   | el                                |
|    | S | To improve your work.   | R   | rep                               |
| 10 | L | How? Edit or Revise? You revise first "ee" What happens when you revise?<br>How? You look at the key points, You look at the format; You look at the ideas. How many ideas do you have there?   | I   | el                                |

|    |   |   |   |   |
|----|---|---|---|---|
|    |   | You look at the introductory paragraph, you look at the developmental paragraph. You look at your conclusion. Are your ideas developed? What are you introducing? What are you introducing?<br>How is your introduction? So these are the issues to consider<br>And then you Edit.<br>What do you edit for?<br><b>“Ee mma” (Yes ma’am)</b>  |   | n                                       |
|    | S | Check spelling.   | R | rep                                     |
|    | L | You have to check your spelling   | F | acc                                     |
| 11 | L | What else?  | I | el                                      |
|    | S | Grammar.  | R | rep                                     |
|    | L | Grammar.  | F | acc                                     |
| 12 | S | Content.  | R | rep                                     |
|    | L | Content.  | F | acc                                     |
| 13 | S | Format.   | R | rep                                     |
|    | L | Format.   | F | acc                                     |
| 14 | S | Clarity.  | R | rep                                     |
|    | L | Clarity.<br><br>And again, there is a stage where you have to go to the Library to add more information or elaborate on your ideas. Which stage is that? When you revise your work you might find it is important to add more information-or elaborate on some of the information you have. Which stage is that? Which stage do you need to go back to the library? That is why you have to go over your assignments well on time. You cannot just write your essays overnight and then you submit. Okay! You go through a process and it is important that you understand the process. It’s important that you understand this process and why this process are there. Otherwise why your notes in front of you when you don’t know what the importance is.          | F | acc<br><br>com                          |
| 15 | L | So, today let us look at the issue of paragraphs so that as we discuss this you look at your paragraphs and check whether you have written them accordingly or appropriately.<br><b>You are late. Why are you coming late? You had an emergency</b><br>So, because you write in paragraphs, let us try to understand why these elements of paragraphs are important elements are important. Okay. And look at the elements of a paragraph and we will start with what a paragraph is.<br>May be I should get it from you what a paragraph is because you have all this information from secondary school level.<br>What do you think a paragraph is? What is a paragraph?<br>What do you think a paragraph is?<br>What is a paragraph?<br><b>“Ee mma” (Yes ma’am)</b> | I | s<br><br>cu<br><br>i<br><br>el<br><br>n |
|    | S | The incorporation of sentences. It’s a relation of the sentences.   | R | rep                                     |
|    | L | The sentences should be related-that’s what you are saying.   | F | acc                                     |
| 16 | L | What else? What else do you think a paragraph is? So can  | I | el                                      |

|           |          |   |          |            |
|-----------|----------|---|----------|------------|
|           |          | you name the types of sentences that you can find in a paragraph because she is talking about sentences that are related. So, can you name the sentences that are related? What are the type of sentences can you find in a paragraph? You don't know. What type of sentences can you find in a paragraph?<br><b>"Ee rra" (Yes sir)</b>   |          | <b>n</b>   |
|           | <b>S</b> | Congregated.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b> |
|           | <b>L</b> | Congregated.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b> |
| <b>17</b> | <b>S</b> | Compound.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b> |
| <b>18</b> | <b>L</b> | What is a compound sentence?<br><b>Laughter by whole class</b><br><b>That is classic</b><br>So you mean you can start a paragraph with a compound sentence? What are you saying?<br>Imagine you have been writing right from Standard One; Primary School, JC, BGCSE those who did BGCSE, IGCSE or whatever and now you are at tertiary level. I am asking you. What type of sentences can you find in a paragraph because she was talking of related sentences in paragraphs? So what type of sentences can you find? You can find a topic sentence. You can find a developmental sentence. You can find a concluding sentence; there are types of sentences. And when I read your paragraphs; I should find them in your paragraphs. May be we should go back to the definition of a paragraph;<br>A paragraph is a collection of related sentences dealing with a single idea or a single topic. A paragraph is a collection of related sentences dealing with a single idea or a single topic. So the basic rule in a paragraph is that 'you keep one idea in one paragraph'. One idea in one paragraph. We don't want a mixed bag of ideas in one paragraph. So, you introduce the idea with a topic sentence. You introduce the idea with a topic sentence. So, what is the topic sentence?<br>To put it simply, a topic sentence is the first sentence in a paragraph. You know when I read the first sentence in your paragraph, it should give me an idea of what that paragraph is about. It should give me an idea of what that paragraph is about. Who has their project here so that I can may be refer to it. So the topic sentence in a paragraph introduces the idea.<br><i>(lecturer reads the students' assignment)</i> What is this? There are no paragraphs here I can just see the bullets and the numbering. Is this an essay? Whose assignment is this? Hee Are you serious? (Lecturer laughing) Let's see.<br>Where are the subheadings here? What are you writing about? Why do you think Architecture is this this..Development is wrong. So, what is Architecture? That's what I should be seeing as an introductory paragraph.<br>What is Architecture? | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>  |
| <b>19</b> | <b>L</b> | Whose assignment is this?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>  |
|           | <b>S</b> | It is ours.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b> |
|           | <b>L</b> | So, what is Architecture? <b>"Bagaetsho" (colleagues)</b> , Are you serious with this assignment; I cannot find what I want.  | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b> |

|    |   |  |   |              |
|----|---|--|---|--------------|
| 20 | L | So what is your topic?   | I | el           |
|    | S | The question is written.   | R | rep          |
|    | L | You are saying an assignment concerning the use of building materials for construction over a wide river. The river is defined as a natural body of rain water flowing.  | F | com          |
| 21 | L | Like I was saying, 'Is the assignment about a river because the topic sentence straight away tells me about the river. So that is why I am asking, 'Is the assignment about a river? Yes "mma" (ma'am)   | I | el<br>n      |
|    | S | We were trying to explain what the material we are going to use.   | R | rep          |
| 22 | L | What is the key issue here in your assignment? In your topic?  | I | el           |
|    | S | The use of building materials.   | R | rep          |
|    | L | The issue of building materials; that is the key issue here. You don't need to explain what a river is because the main issue is about building materials.<br><b>You see there are lot of problems now.</b><br>Do you think land is managed effectively in Botswana? <b>You know what, the problem is that you just plunge into the assignment without introducing anything.</b> Mh. You think land is managed effectively in Botswana and then; You feel land in Botswana is available and affordable to all citizens? Where do we start? How much land do we have? There is no introductory paragraph here. You just plunge into the assignment Then you continue to say, "On the other hand". What are you comparing this with? There are a lot of new hotels; new malls, <b>blah, blah, blah. There is a problem here.</b>   | F | acc<br>com   |
| 23 | L | So, Let me just give you a paragraph from a very old text that we have been using. "Mmm" (No) I will start with the elements of a paragraph. Okay.<br>We talked about the topic sentence that it should introduce the idea. Next is the supporting details.<br>We are talking about the paragraph here; those who have just arrived.<br>The supporting sentences come after the topic sentence. They make the body of the paragraph. They expand on the topic sentence. So the supporting sentences can have facts, details, examples because they elaborate on the topic sentence. They expand on the topic sentences. It comes after the topic sentence making the body of the paragraph. It's a sentence that develops and supports the main idea. These are sentences that develop or expand the main idea or on the topic sentence. And then, we have the closing sentence. The closing sentence restates the main idea of the paragraph. You can restate the main idea in different ways, it doesn't matter as long as it captures what you have introduced in the topic sentence, it's okay. It restates the main idea of the paragraph may be even using different words. So, A paragraph is a collection of related sentences; That's what we said and it has different sentences. We have the topic sentence that introduces the idea; We have the developmental sentences or supporting sentences which | I | s<br>cu<br>i |

|    |    |  |              |                                  |
|----|----|--|--------------|----------------------------------|
|    |    | <p>develop or support the main idea or the topic sentence. Then we have a closing sentence. The closing sentence re-states what was introduced in the paragraph and like she was saying the sentences should be related. What you introduce is what is going to be what you develop. You should expand on what we introduced and the concluding sentence should conclude what you developed. You don't just conclude anyhow. You don't just introduce anyhow and then say something else in the end. So we are talking about one idea. So, go to your assignments and check whether you can identify these types of sentences. I am going to read out a paragraph for you which you are going to identify the sentences. Okay!</p> <p><u>The Paragraph</u></p> <p>There are three reasons why Canada is one of the best countries in the world.</p> <p><b>You write it down.</b></p> <p>There are three reasons why Canada is one of the best countries in the world.</p> <p><b>Please don't draw your sentences write, so that we move quickly.</b></p> <p>First, Canada has an excellent health care system. First, Canada has an excellent health care system.(.) All Canadians have access to medical services at a reasonable price. All Canadians have access to medical services at a reasonable price. Second, Canada has a high standard of education.(.) Students are taught by well trained teachers and are encouraged studying at university and are encouraged studying at university.(.) Finally, Canada's cities are clean and efficiently managed.(.) Finally, Canada's cities are clean and efficiently managed.(.) Canadian cities have many parks and lots of space for people to live.(.) Canadian cities have many parks and lots of space for people to live.(.)</p> <p><b>The last sentence;</b></p> <p>As a result, Canada is a desirable place to live. Canada is a desirable place to live.</p> |              | <p>d<br/>i<br/>p<br/>i<br/>d</p> |
| 24 | L  | <p>Now, Let us look at this small paragraph and try to identify all the types of sentences in that paragraph. Let's identify the topic sentence. Let's identify the supporting details and the concluding sentence.</p> <p><b>Come on! Don't look at me, look at your paragraphs and read them.</b></p> <p>Where is the topic sentence there?</p>  | I            | s<br><br>cue<br><br>el           |
|    | Ss | mumbling_____  | R            | rep                              |
| 25 | L  | <p>Why?<br/>Hands up!<br/>One person at a time.<br/>Why?</p>   | I<br><br>R/I | el<br>cue<br>cue<br>el           |
|    | S  | It introduces the main idea that we discussed.   | R            | rep                              |
|    | L  | It introduces the main idea.   | F            | acc                              |
| 26 | L  | And which are the supporting details there or the supporting sentences?  | I            | el                               |
|    | S  | The points are listed.   | R            | rep                              |



|    |   |   |   |         |
|----|---|---|---|---------|
|    | L | I would like you to identify them.  | I | el      |
|    | S | Excellent health care system.   | R | rep     |
| 27 | L | Why do you think it's a supporting detail?  | I | el      |
|    | S | <i>inaudible</i>  | R | rep     |
|    | L | Mh. <b>What are you saying?</b> I don't understand what you are saying. It elaborates on the first sentence, the first idea. So if Canada is one of the best countries and then the author elaborates on 'Why?' Mh. By giving us how many reasons? The good health care services, what else? Good education, What else?<br>Clean and efficiently managed cities.  | F | com     |
| 28 | L | So I'm asking; Why do think these are supporting details?   | I | el      |
|    | S | They expand on the topic sentence.  | R | rep     |
|    | L | They expand on the topic sentence.  | F | acc     |
| 29 | L | Now, which one do you think it's a concluding sentence?   | I | el      |
|    | S | As a result.  | R | rep     |
|    | L | As a result.  | F | acc     |
| 30 | L | Which one do you think it's a concluding sentence? How is it related to the first sentence? How is it related to the first sentence?<br><b>"Ee rra" (Yes sir)</b>   | I | el<br>n |
|    | S | Eh. What it does is that it summarises what the first sentence and the supporting sentences emphasised.   | R | rep     |
|    | L | The author here is saying that; The author gives three reasons why Canada is one of the best countries to live there. How is related to the first sentence? The author here is saying that there are good health care services, the education is good, the city is good and efficiently managed and therefore it is one of the places you can like living there.<br>So, these are the type of sentences I would like to see in your assignments. When you introduce your ideas; elaborate on your ideas and conclude on the idea, then move on to the next paragraph, you do the same thing, and so on and so forth. So, like I said, try to also organise your work according to topics, headings so that your essays are readable, are user friendly, they are manageable; otherwise how do you allocate tasks to different members of the group? Because one should be doing definitions, one should be doing the advantages; So that at the end you compile your work.<br>To make your work organised and manageable and to see who has done what because <b>I know that there are people who will just board the Economy. The train will just be going, going and then you drop out. Other people will have done the work for them. We don't want such kind of a situation.</b><br>So, that is that about the content of the paragraph. But here we are talking about 'Writing paragraphs in your whole essay', okay. So, we are saying that's just one part of your essay and that one part we should be able to see it throughout your whole essay. Okay. So that is just one part of the essay. So, now, within your essay, when you write your paragraphs, your paragraphs must be clear, do you | F | com     |

|           |          |   |            |   |
|-----------|----------|---|------------|---|
|           |          | understand what I am saying? Your paragraphs must be clear. They must be simple, and express your meaning. You should express your paragraphs in such a way that what you want to say comes out clearly. Okay! So, like we said you should just focus on one idea. You should not just end with different ideas. You should not end with different examples. It should just end with one idea. If you are talking about land management; talk about Land management. Let's hear your opinions. Don't end up by saying now people are not using land management appropriately; some just squatter around hei, blah, blah the government is ....Let's hear your ideas about land management That's when you can move to the next paragraph, Okay  |            |   |
| <b>31</b> | <b>L</b> | And now, we are talking about the issue of coherence; coherence; C-O-H-E-R-E-N-C-E ( <i>Lecturer spelling the concept</i> ). So, what is coherence here?<br>Coherence is a way of writing paragraphs in a way that your paragraphs are understandable to the reader. It is a way of writing paragraphs in such a way that your paragraphs are understandable to the reader. So you must choose appropriate vocabulary to i) Link your sentences. Introduce your sentences, link your sentences or bridge to the next sentence; or bridge to the next sentence. As you write your paragraphs, em, it is important that you; The key words can appear or can be repeated. The key words can appear or can be repeated. Transitional words can be used to link ideas from different sentences. Transitional words.<br>What are transitional words? Can you give me examples of transitional words? Give me examples of transitional words? | <b>I</b>   | <b>i</b><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><b>el</b> |
|           | <b>S</b> | Therefore.  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>  |
|           | <b>L</b> | Therefore.  | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc</b>  |
| <b>32</b> | <b>S</b> | Although.   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>  |
|           | <b>L</b> | Although.   | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc</b>  |
| <b>33</b> | <b>S</b> | However.  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>  |
|           | <b>L</b> | However.  | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc</b>  |
| <b>34</b> | <b>S</b> | Despite.  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>  |
|           | <b>L</b> | I beg your pardon.  | <b>R/I</b> | <b>el</b>   |
|           | <b>S</b> | Despite.  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>  |
|           | <b>L</b> | Despite.<br>But...In order –something like that...in essence, in brief, and so on. There are these different words that you can use to unite your ideas or paragraphs.<br>And the same should be seen throughout your essay. Your paragraphs should use linking words in your sentences.<br>You should also use coherence markers –we call them coherence markers; to link your paragraphs. So, whatever is there in the format of the paragraph should also be visible throughout your essay because you are going to apply the same technique as you write the whole essay because we would like to see the Introductory paragraph like we would like to see an Introductory sentence.<br>You would like to see Developmental paragraphs as we would like to see Developmental sentences. So, these Concluding paragraphs as we would like to see Concluding  | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc</b><br><b>com</b>                                  |



|                 |          |   |           |            |
|-----------------|----------|---|-----------|------------|
|                 |          | <p>is when you can move together to do the introductory paragraph. There must be unity in your essays. But unity starts from the paragraph and it flows out to the whole essay. So, the first paragraph should give the second paragraph, the second paragraph should give the third paragraph should give the fourth and the fifth. The first sentence should give the second, third, fourth and the last sentence and should also reflect what was introduced.</p> <p>Any questions on what we have done? Or you wanted to share something? Any questions on what we have done? <b>Silence.</b> Mh?</p> <p>So, again, one other important thing; let me see the references that you used in your essays. For example, you are not writing compositions here. These are not your ideas. So let me see the references appearing in your essays; ‘so and so says this’. ‘So and so argues that.....’; ‘This idea is discussed by so and so’. One other thing, let me see your references. This is a research library paper. So the skills that you learn from the library should be reflected here. Please you are not writing a composition. So, you cannot write the references here when they do not appear in your essay. That is the difference between a composition and a research paper. So, I am going to check whether all the references that appear in here are listed down. And there is no references like ‘http: www’ <b>“eee” (no)</b> those are not references. I would like to see the authors and titles, when those were published, and so forth; where.</p> |           |            |
|                 | <b>S</b> | When writing a paragraph should we quote?   | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>  |
|                 | <b>L</b> | <b>“Oh ya”. (Oh Yes)</b>  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b> |
| <b>38</b>       | <b>S</b> | Can we do it at the end?  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>  |
|                 | <b>L</b> | <p>No. Who says what about Land allocation? And why? And let me hear what you are saying about your issue of land allocation. The reference should be here. And not just one. At least two or three.</p> <p><b>You don’t just write. You were only born yesterday. You found people writing and you have to acknowledge their sources. These are not your ideas.</b></p> <p><b>“Oo” (Lecturer is amazed)</b></p> <p>Go and write scholarly essays here. Go and work hard; okay. Are there any questions. Because now we are coming to the end of the lesson.</p>  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b> |
| <b>Boundary</b> | <b>L</b> | In the absence of questions and comments you may go.  | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b>  |

**END OF LECTURER QUEEN’S LESSON TWO**

**11.24 Lesson transcription three**

**Faculty: Engineering and Technology**

**Lecturer B: Queen**

**Topic: Writing: Paraphrasing**

|          |             |                |       |      |
|----------|-------------|----------------|-------|------|
| Exchange | Participant | Classroom talk | Moves | Acts |
|----------|-------------|----------------|-------|------|

|            |   |   |    |                  |
|------------|---|---|----|------------------|
| Boundary   | L | Let me see what you have done.<br>(Lecturer checks the students work from the previous lesson)<br>I know some of you will hide until the last minute.<br>I would not really say the deadline but I want them tomorrow. By 12 this papers should have reached me anyway.<br>Is it cold such that you cannot remove your hat? Please remove your beanie.  | Fo | ms               |
| Teaching 1 | L | How is your group doing?  | I  | el               |
|            | S | I think they are doing okay except that we have a lot of work at ICT.   | R  | rep              |
|            | L | Next semester will be different; you will be running helter-skelter with your course; Architecture. You will be sleeping in the laboratory and leaving there at 4 am. Next semester. You will not be able to attend Mrs Queen's nine o'clock lesson and Mrs Queen will be killing you.  | F  | com              |
| 2          | S | At least you know what we will be going through.  | R  | rep              |
|            | L | No, No, I don't know.<br>Because there will be a lot of work to do here. We will be going out to do some research work, doing some oral presentations. We will be advancing.  | F  | e<br>com         |
| 3          | L | Last time we looked at paragraphs or paragraphing and the format of a paragraph. We also talked about writing the whole essay; how your paragraphs should be like. First of all we said a paragraph is a collection of sentences that are related. They convey the same idea. So when you write a paragraph it is important that you discuss only one idea in one paragraph. A paragraph consists of about three types of sentences. We said the Introductory sentence states what the essay will be about and then we said there is the developmental sentence and the concluding sentence.<br>What is the function of the developmental sentences?<br>Yes sir | I  | i<br><br>el<br>n |
|            | S | To expand the idea  | R  | rep              |
|            | L | To expand the idea. To expand or elaborate with examples the Introductory sentences.  | F  | acc              |
| 4          | L | What about the concluding sentences? What about the concluding sentences? What about the concluding sentences? What is the function of the concluding sentence?   | I  | el               |
|            | S | It summarises the topic.  | R  | rep              |
|            | L | It summarises the topic. It summarises the idea in a paragraph. So, It concludes; what was introduced in other words.   | F  | acc              |
| 5          | L | And then we talked about how to write the sentences. How do we write the sentences in a paragraph? How do we write the sentences in a paragraph? How do we write them? Do we just write them haphazardly like that? How do we link the sentences? How do we relate the sentences to come up with one whole paragraph?   | I  | el               |
|            | S | We use coherence markers.   | R  | rep              |
|            | L | We use coherence markers.<br>We use coherence markers; that is what we said. We use coherence markers so that we can unite the paragraphs or that there can be cohesion in a paragraph. And now we extend the idea of a paragraph to the whole essay. And we said even in an essay and we said that there must be an Introductory paragraph,  | F  | acc<br>com       |



|    |    |  |   |                               |
|----|----|--|---|-------------------------------|
|    |    | <p>expect you to paraphrase; don't steal the author's words. Okay the key words appear in your paraphrasing but you as much as possible try to use your own words without necessarily losing the meaning of the text and then you acknowledge the source. So, as you write your essays, do not steal the author's words. Where did you get this or 'so and so states that' to show that this is not your original idea.</p> <p>Is that clear?</p> <p>What is paraphrasing?</p> <p>Is it something very simple? Do you think it is simple, the way it sounds?</p>   |   | ch<br>el<br>el                |
|    | Ss | No   | R | rep                           |
|    | L  | <p>It is not.</p> <p>It means that you have to read the text first, internalise it and come up with your own meaning. So, you do not go to the library and start photocopying sentences and paragraphs and then you start cutting pasting, cutting pasting, cutting pasting. Some of you steal the words and put it here; steal another on from a textbook and by the end of the day you ask the student about the essay, they are stuck because they do not own the essay. You can't even find the student's voice in the essay because they did not bother to paraphrase, to internalise what they are writing about. So, this is a job and a half. So, if you have stolen the author's words in your essays, go back and paraphrase those essays. That is what you have done; some of you. Isn't it? I know you won't say 'Yes' <b>“Nakedi ga e nke ere ke nna ke nkgang” (The musk ox never pronounce it's odour);</b> We have that expression in Setswana. It smells but it never says I smell. I know you will not agree with me that you stole the author's words but I know you have. Once I read your essays, I will see because the way students write and the way the authors write; it is different. I will notice and I will ask you to come write a sentence or a paragraph and then I will tell that these are not your own words. I will see; Don't steal the authors 'words because I will notice. I am simply asking you to go and paraphrase your work. Simple.</p> | F | acc<br>com                    |
| 8  | L  | <p>So with that definition now, let us look at the six effective steps to paraphrasing: How do we paraphrase: How do we paraphrase: Let us look at the text.</p> <p><u>Step 1:</u> Read the original text until you understand its full meaning. Read the original text until you understand its full meaning. Read the text and re-read it; may be. Read the original text until you understand its full meaning.</p> <p>Why do you think it is important to understand the full meaning?<br/>Why do you think it is important to understand the full meaning?<br/>What are the reasons of having a full understanding of what you are reading about?<br/>Yes <b>“mma” (sir)</b></p>  | I | s<br><br>i<br><br>el<br><br>n |
|    | S  | So that you do not lose what the author is saying.   | R | rep                           |
|    | L  | Yes; So that you do not lose what the author is saying.  | F | acc                           |
| 9  | L  | Did you have something different?  | I | el/n                          |
|    | S  | No.  | R | rep                           |
|    | L  | Okay.<br>That is very important.   | F | m<br>com                      |
| 10 | L  | <u>Step 2:</u> Set the original text aside and write your paraphrase on a  | I | i                             |

|           |          |  |          |                        |
|-----------|----------|--|----------|------------------------|
|           |          | note card. Set the original text aside and then write your paraphrase on a note card. After reading now try to paraphrase the text. After reading now paraphrase the text. Set the original text aside and then write your paraphrase on a note card or whatever that you are using to write on.<br>Why do you have to set the text aside?   |          | el                     |
|           | <b>S</b> | To avoid the temptation of copying.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
|           | <b>L</b> | To avoid the temptation of now copying.<br>And again you are testing yourself if you have understood the facts. <b>Isn't it?</b>   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>     |
| <b>11</b> | <b>L</b> | <u>Step 3:</u> Jot down a few words below your paraphrase; in other words write the key words to remind you of the paraphrase.<br><u>Step 4:</u> Check your version with the original. Check your version with the original. Check your version with the original.<br>Why do you think it is important to check your version with the original? Why? Why do you think it is important to check your version with the original one?   | <b>I</b> | i<br><br>el            |
|           | <b>L</b> | To see if you have not lost the essential meaning. To check accurately whether you have expressed your ideas accurately. Whether you have not lost the meaning. Or whether you have not lost the essential information in the new form. So, you have to go back and check if your version represents your original text well. Okay.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
| <b>12</b> | <b>L</b> | <u>Step 5:</u> Use quotations marks to identify any unique terms you have borrowed; Use quotations marks to identify any unique terms you have borrowed or phrases you have borrowed exactly from the source. Use quotations marks to identify any unique terms you have borrowed or phrases you have borrowed exactly from the source.<br>Why? Why use quotation marks?<br>Use quotation marks to identify any unique terms or phrases you have borrowed.<br>Why? Why put them in quotation marks?  | <b>I</b> | i<br><br>el<br>i<br>el |
|           | <b>S</b> | Because they are the author's words.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
|           | <b>L</b> | Because those are not your original words; those are the author's words.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>             |
| <b>13</b> | <b>L</b> | And then the last step, record the source; record the source and the author, the year of publication and even the page number where you got the information from.<br>Why do you think it is important to record the source? Why do you think it is important to record the source? Why? Why? That is what you have done in your assignments " <b>Akere?</b> " ( <b>Isn't it?</b> ) I am asking; Why?<br><b>"Ee" (Yes)</b>  | <b>I</b> | s<br><br>el<br><br>n   |
|           | <b>S</b> | To give credit to the author.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
|           | <b>L</b> | To give credit to the author. The author has to be acknowledged. These are not own ideas.<br>And then edit the text for clarity; edit the text for clarity. The issue of editing comes again. Whatever writing is done should be edited for clarity. Those are the steps that you have to go through as you paraphrase. They are very important and you have to read and re-read the text so that you get the meaning of the text.<br>And then you make the rough draft of the paraphrase and then you have to check your version again and if there are problems go | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>     |



|    |   |   |   |                      |
|----|---|---|---|----------------------|
|    |   | through the text; edit. If you are using the authors words put them in quotation marks. The main important issue here is that, 'use your own words'. 'Use your own words'. Again, we are not saying here you should summarise; you see the point. Do not be stressed by reducing the original words. You are simply re writing on your own version without necessarily summarising because summarising is something different. This is a skill we require here at university. This is a skill that will take you far. Otherwise you will lend yourself in a hot soup if you steal other peoples' works. That is not allowed. That is called plagiarism. Okay. |   |                      |
| 14 | L | May be let us look at the first and second paragraph; we are going to try and paraphrase it. Let us quickly read the text together; read the paragraph orally.<br>Who can read the paragraph for us? The first few lines and then the second paragraph?<br>Someone. Okay, read  | I | d<br><br>el<br><br>n |
|    | S | <i>Student reads the paragraph to the whole class</i>   | R | rep                  |
| 15 | L | Let us just stop there.<br>Let us try and state the phrases in our own words.<br>What is the author saying here? What is the author saying? Forget about the text. Or maybe you want to go over it for the second time. What is the author saying?  | I | d<br><br>el          |
|    | S | I think he is saying when you are starting a study group look for people who are willing to participate.  | R | rep                  |
|    | L | People who are focused; people who are serious; people who are willing to participate; that is what the author is saying. That does not appear here but basically that is what the author is saying.  | F | com<br>acc           |
| 16 | L | What else? What else? What else is the author saying?   | I | el                   |
|    | S | It is a way of beginning the essay.   | R | rep                  |
| 17 | L | Put it in other words.  | I | el                   |
|    | S | It is the way of improving your grades.   | R | rep                  |
|    | L | It is the way of improving your grades; yes.<br>Come on, You are just beating around the bush.<br>How?<br>The author is trying to state the functions of a group here. How? You are just beating around the bush. Group members should exchange; exchanging knowledge and skills.   | F | acc<br>e<br>com      |
| 18 | S | Everyone has to play a role.  | R | rep                  |
|    | L | Everyone has to play a role; an equal role in fact.<br>Group members should exchange. You learn from me and I learn from you. Exchanging knowledge, exchanging skills, exchanging information. That is what the author is saying here. If you exchange it means nobody is going to dominate. We have to share yours; you have to share mine. And no one is going to be there as a pest, just sitting there and drinking other people's blood. Do you see what I mean?<br>Is this what has been going on in your group discussions. You cannot just go to a group discussion empty handed.   | F | acc<br>com           |
| 19 | L | Now, can you give me the papers back and then write what the author is saying in your own words? May I have this and then state what the author is saying. And please check the types of sentences that you are using. You said you understood it. Make two to three sentences; what is the author saying in this text? Can you state it in your own words; what was the author saying in this  | I | s                    |

|    |    |   |     |                         |
|----|----|---|-----|-------------------------|
|    |    | text? Can you state it in your own words? And please check the type of sentences that you are using; that is very important. Some have not even started; “Bagaetsho,” (Colleagues) time is not on our side.   |     | ch                      |
|    | Ss | <b>STUDENTS INDIVIDUALLY WORK ON THE WRITTEN TASK ASSIGNED.</b>   |     |                         |
| 20 | L  | Are you done?<br>Please I didn't say you should write an essay. Please don't draw your letters so that you finish quickly.<br>Let's share; let's share. Let's quickly share what you have. I know you will never finish.<br>“Ee mma” (Yes ma'am)<br>Let's listen to her and compare what she is saying with the original text.  | I   | ch<br>d<br>el<br>n<br>d |
|    | S  | <i>Student reads her paraphrased work.</i>  | R   | rep                     |
| 21 | L  | Did she capture what the author said? Are you there? Did she capture what the author said?  | I   | el                      |
|    | S  | Yes   | R   | rep                     |
| 22 | L  | Can we hear your version?   | I   | n                       |
|    | S  | <i>Student reads her paraphrased work.</i>  | R   | rep                     |
| 23 | L  | Next. What are you saying?<br><br>Yes sir   | I   | n/el<br>n               |
|    | S  | Two heads are better than one. With that said the antagonistic mechanism sharing information is an important initiative for growth.   | R   | rep                     |
| 24 | L  | So, what are you saying? Is he representing the author's ideas here?  | I   | el                      |
|    | S  | He put it in his own words.   | R   | rep                     |
|    | L  | He put it in his own words but did he represent the author's ideas?   | I   | el                      |
|    | Ss | Yes   | R   | rep                     |
| 25 | L  | Next. The last person and a male this time. We have had two females this side.<br>Yes sir can you read yours.   | I   | el/d<br>n               |
|    | S  | <i>Student reads his version</i>  | R   | rep                     |
|    | L  | Can you amplify.  | R/I | el                      |
|    | S  | <i>Student reads his version</i>  | R   | rep                     |
| 26 | L  | What are you saying about his version? What are you saying about his version? What are you saying about his version?<br>You are not sure.   | I   | el                      |
|    | S  | He had extra information.   | R   | rep                     |
|    | L  | He had extra textual information.   | F   | com                     |
| 27 | L  | Like?   | I   | el                      |
|    | S  | Irrelevant information  | R   | rep                     |
|    | L  | You do not have to write in your own information. Writing the authors ideas, the ideas should be well represented and expressed. Do not bring your own. And it is important vocabulary so that your ideas come out clearly. So, this is what you have to do in your paraphrase; the ideas are not yours. Try as much as possible to represent what the authors are saying. So go and review your essays and check where you went wrong and work on your essays. | F   | com                     |
| 28 | L  | Are there any questions? Are there any questions on paraphrasing?   | I   | el                      |

|                 |          |   |           |                |
|-----------------|----------|---|-----------|----------------|
|                 |          | We are still going to use that text for something else that we are going to do next week.<br>Yes ma'am. |           | <b>d<br/>n</b> |
|                 | <b>S</b> | Do we write, "According to so and so?"  | <b>I</b>  | <b>el</b>      |
|                 | <b>L</b> | Yes there is a way of writing that.   | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>     |
| <b>Boundary</b> | <b>L</b> | So go and review your essays  | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b>      |

**END OF LECTURER QUEEN'S LESSON THREE**

**11.25 Lesson transcription one**

**Faculty: Humanities**

**Lecturer D: Princess**

**Topic: Listening**

| <b>Exchanges</b>      | <b>Participant</b> | <b>Classroom talk</b>  | <b>Moves</b>     | <b>Acts</b>                            |
|-----------------------|--------------------|--|------------------|--|
| <b>Boundary</b>       | <b>L</b>           | Okay. Now, when we parted last time you were doing that task; the communication task. And the Thursday we were supposed to meet there was the inauguration. So, we are moving on to Listening. Listening.  | <b>Fr<br/>Fo</b> | <b>m<br/>ms</b>                        |
| <b>Teaching<br/>1</b> |                    | Do you think the listening skill is important? Listening. Do you think it is important to talk about listening?<br>Raise up your hand and say what you think.<br>If you say 'yes' it is important tell us why, what makes it an important skill.<br>You wanted to say something there. | <b>I</b>         | <b>el<br/><br/>p<br/>el<br/><br/>n</b> |
|                       | <b>S</b>           | I am still gathering my thoughts.  | <b>R</b>         | <b>rep</b>                             |
|                       | <b>L</b>           | You are still gathering your thoughts.<br>Please gather them fast so that you share with us.   | <b>F</b>         | <b>acc<br/>con</b>                     |
| <b>2</b>              | <b>L</b>           | Listening; do you think it is important to talk about listening? Listening, do you think it is an important skill? 'Yes', Why? 'No' why? It is not only 'Yes'. It can also be a 'No' if you think so.<br>Yes   | <b>I</b>         | <b>s<br/>el<br/><br/>n</b>             |
|                       | <b>S</b>           | Listening is important because it allows you to understand the information.  | <b>R</b>         | <b>rep</b>                             |
|                       | <b>L</b>           | It allows you to understand the information, that is what he says.   | <b>F</b>         | <b>acc</b>                             |
| <b>3</b>              | <b>L</b>           | What about others?   | <b>I</b>         | <b>el</b>                              |
|                       | <b>S</b>           | It helps to get the underlying message.  | <b>R</b>         | <b>rep</b>                             |
|                       | <b>L</b>           | Good,<br>but give them a chance so that they say what they think.<br>He says, It helps to get the underlying message.  | <b>F</b>         | <b>e<br/><br/>acc</b>                  |
| <b>4</b>              | <b>L</b>           | What about others?<br>Yes  | <b>I</b>         | <b>el<br/>n</b>                        |
|                       | <b>S</b>           | Listening is important because you can know some body's thoughts.  | <b>R</b>         | <b>rep</b>                             |
| <b>5</b>              | <b>L</b>           | Do you think you have got good Listening Skills?   | <b>I</b>         | <b>el</b>                              |
|                       | <b>Ss</b>          | No/Yes   | <b>R</b>         | <b>rep</b>                             |
|                       | <b>L</b>           | There is a 'No' and a 'Yes'.   | <b>F</b>         | <b>acc</b>                             |
| <b>6</b>              | <b>L</b>           | I want to start with those who say, 'Yes' and then those who say, 'No'.<br>And say Why?  | <b>I</b>         | <b>s<br/><br/>el</b>                   |
|                       | <b>S</b>           | I personally think I have good listening skills because when somebody is speaking, I listen quietly, I pay attention to what he or she is saying.  | <b>R</b>         | <b>rep</b>                             |
|                       | <b>L</b>           | Did you get what she said?   | <b>R/I</b>       | <b>ch/el</b>                           |

|           |           |   |            |                |
|-----------|-----------|---|------------|----------------|
|           | <b>Ss</b> | No  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>     |
|           | <b>L</b>  | Please speak up   | <b>R/I</b> | <b>el</b>      |
|           | <b>S</b>  | I personally think I have good listening skills because when somebody is speaking I pay attention to what he or she is saying.  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>     |
|           | <b>L</b>  | She says she thinks she has good listening skills because when somebody is speaking she pays attention, quietly to what he or she is saying. So she says she has good listening skills.   | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc</b>     |
| <b>7</b>  | <b>L</b>  | Somebody said 'no' at the back.   | <b>I</b>   | <b>n/el</b>    |
|           | <b>S</b>  | I don't give people a chance to speak.  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>     |
|           | <b>L</b>  | You don't give people a chance to speak.  | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc</b>     |
| <b>8</b>  | <b>L</b>  | What do you usually do?   | <b>I</b>   | <b>el</b>      |
|           | <b>S</b>  | I speak louder so that the other person does not have a chance.   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>     |
|           | <b>L</b>  | You speak loud.   | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc</b>     |
| <b>9</b>  | <b>L</b>  | What about if the person is speaking? What do you do?   | <b>I</b>   | <b>el</b>      |
|           | <b>S</b>  | I cut them short.   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>     |
|           | <b>L</b>  | You interrupt other people.<br>Okay, we will look at the different listening styles which are there and the approaches so that you can see if you do really have effective listening skills.  | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc com</b> |
| <b>10</b> | <b>L</b>  | But, let us start with listening and talk about hearing. We have hearing and listening.<br>What is the difference? What is the difference between those two?<br>Listening, Hearing.   | <b>I</b>   | <b>s/i el</b>  |
|           | <b>S</b>  | Listening is more attentive than hearing.   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>     |
|           | <b>L</b>  | He says it is more attentive; more attentive, yes, than hearing.  | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc</b>     |
| <b>11</b> | <b>L</b>  | How else? What is the difference between hearing and Listening?<br>Listening and Hearing; are they the same?  | <b>I</b>   | <b>el</b>      |
|           | <b>Ss</b> | No  | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>     |
| <b>12</b> | <b>L</b>  | Let us say the differences then. What is the difference between hearing and Listening Or What is hearing and what is Listening?<br>What is hearing?<br>Yes  | <b>I</b>   | <b>el n</b>    |
|           | <b>S</b>  | Listening is deeply involved.   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>     |
|           | <b>L</b>  | Listening is more attentive.  | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc</b>     |
| <b>13</b> | <b>L</b>  | Yes again.  | <b>I</b>   | <b>n</b>       |
|           | <b>S</b>  | I think hearing is a passive process.   | <b>R</b>   | <b>rep</b>     |
|           | <b>L</b>  | He thinks hearing is passive.<br>He talked about receiving sounds. So, hearing is biological. We are all, except for some who unfortunately are born without that ability to receive sounds, but we are all born with that ability to receive sounds. You receive sound whether you like it, or not you just receive it because it is a biological thing to receive sounds. So, cars passing by the road or people shouting outside, if it is at home you receive music from the neighbours; you receive those sounds. Unintentional. Unintentional. Okay unintentional.  | <b>F</b>   | <b>acc com</b> |
| <b>14</b> | <b>L</b>  | But, listening is intentional. You decide to listen. When you get the sounds from the road or you get people shouting outside it's unintentional. But the moment now you start giving attention to it that is now Listening; you are not hearing any more. Because you now want to analyse the sounds that you are now receiving; what do they mean and so on. So, listening is defined this way, "A selective process; a selective process of receiving, attending to...."<br>I think as a rule, you know that phone is not supposed to ring in class otherwise I will just have to send you out because I can't | <b>I</b>   | <b>i d</b>     |

|           |          |   |          |            |
|-----------|----------|---|----------|------------|
|           |          | <p>allow that. I don't bring my phone to class. I do not want to be disturbed by your calls. And it is only natural that you should switch it off before you come to class.</p> <p>So, Listening is a selective process of receiving, attending to what you have received and understanding. There is evaluating and analysing and then you attend to it. And attending to; attend to it will also bring the evaluating, the analysing so that you read between the lines what is being said. And in evaluating and analysing you try to understand the message and you respond; the feedback. Remember the communication process that we started off with. It is just the other way round that here we have the speaker who encodes the message. So, we have the speaker who encodes the message. We have the message there and we have the listener on the other end. And for the listener to be able to send feedback they understood the message or try to understand the message because the response here could be non-verbal or it could be verbal; could be verbal: asking questions, seeking for clarification, non-verbal, making additions or critiquing the message. The non-verbals here we are talking of may be nodding your head.</p> <p>How do you respond non-verbally? How do you respond non-verbally? Besides nodding, what else can you do? What do you normally do? What else do you do?</p>   |          | i          |
|           | <b>S</b> | You do finger signals.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b> |
|           | <b>L</b> | Finger signals.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b> |
| <b>15</b> | <b>L</b> | When you say this ( <i>Lecturer shows the non-verbal signal</i> ) what are you saying?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>  |
|           | <b>S</b> | It is okay.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b> |
|           | <b>L</b> | It is okay.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b> |
| <b>16</b> | <b>L</b> | How else?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>  |
|           | <b>S</b> | You can wink.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b> |
|           | <b>L</b> | <p>All that you are responding non-verbally. Body language that you can use; the responding. Just like we said in communication, response, feedback is very, very important. Feedback should be sent to the speaker and you can only send feedback if you were listening attentively. So feedback is very, very important. And when send feedback we say, you are an active listener. Remember we said hearing is passive for you to receive sounds; there is no effort. But with listening, there is an effort, you have a reason why you are Listening and then you listen attentively. And as you are Listening attentively the active part comes in that as you are listening and analysing what you are listening to, you are evaluating and you ask questions. If you are listening to this class for instance, you can link it to what you know about listening, what have you read about listening, what have you observed about listening. As you are listening you should be thinking and comparing it with what you know; with what you heard somewhere else as a person. You are not just listening passively and writing. You are analysing, 'Do I know about this subject? 'Is this true to my experiences? 'Where is the difference? And if there is a difference, you ask. You are not only receiving. You say, 'with me there is a difference; Why? You don't just absorb; you are not just a sponge, You do not just absorb. If you think you disagree you say so. In a lecture you don't just receive information and write. In a lecturer, you are you able to focus and pick only the most relevant point. Also, in a lecturer, if</p> | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b> |

|    |   |   |     |   |
|----|---|---|-----|---|
|    |   | the style used there are a lot of digressions, are you able to focus and just pick some relevant points that are said in that. Even what is being said in different courses, something from another lecturer; If you think the points are similar, you ask yourself, 'how are they similar? You ask yourself, 'how are the points related? As an active listener you do that.   |     |   |
| 17 | L | Now when you are listening in lecturers at UB; what is going on? Since you came from high school; I know even if you were given notes, now here your experience of the few weeks that you have been here.<br>Your experience of the few weeks that you have been here; what goes on in your mind?<br>What do you do to show that you are actively listening? Your experiences?<br>Remember last time we said we are all unique, so there is no experience that is more superior than the other.<br>How do you go about listening? How do you go about listening?<br>Yes | I   | s<br><br>el<br><br>el<br><br>i<br><br>el<br>n |
|    | S | I jot down some of the things that I feel are important.  | R   | rep   |
|    | L | Speak louder.   | R/I | el  |
|    | S | Things that are important.  | R   | rep   |
|    | L | Things that are important, that is what she says.   | F   | acc   |
| 18 | L | In your mind; what is going on in your mind as you are listening? Because this is where you are doing the analysis, the evaluating, the analysis, the linking. Are you just listening to me and not evaluating?   | I   | el  |
|    | S | I even picture speaker, listener message; I try to picture it. That is how I listen.  | R   | rep   |
|    | L | You try to picture it, you try to picture the speaker. That is how she listens.   | F   | acc   |
| 19 | L | What about others?<br>I pick at random. At the back; I like the back benchers.<br>Yes. This side and then we go that side. How do you listen? Let's say it's in a lecture?  | I   | el<br><br>n<br>el                             |
|    | S | I want to be attentive.   | R   | rep   |
|    | L | You want to be attentive. But just saying attentive; I don't know. You personally, not the other person. Just being quiet doesn't mean you are attentive.   | F   | acc<br><br>com                                |
| 20 | L | And while you are listening, what do you do? While you are attentive, what do you do? What do you do?   | I   | el  |
|    | S | I write down some notes.  | R   | rep   |
|    | L | Write down some notes, that is what he says.  | F   | acc   |
| 21 | L | What about others?  | I   | el  |
|    | S | I keep eye contact.   | R   | rep   |
| 22 | L | Why?  | I   | el  |
|    | S | To avoid distractions.  | R   | rep   |
|    | L | You keep eye contact to avoid the distractions.   | F   | acc   |
| 23 | L | No other reason?  | I   | el  |
|    | S | "Mmm"(No) "Ga gona" reason "epe". (There is no other reason).   | R   | rep   |
| 24 | L | Others?   | I   | el  |
|    | S | I can say, 'One has to adapt their mind-set to what is being said so that things become more comprehensible'.   | R   | rep   |
| 25 | L | Let us take the example of this lesson here about Listening. Didn't   | I   | el  |

|           |           |  |          |   |
|-----------|-----------|--|----------|---|
|           |           | you in your mind try to picture yourself regarding hearing and listening; your experiences? What usually happen when you are listening especially in a lecture; asking questions, critiquing saying may be, 'I do not understand that. Maybe, saying, 'what is this encoding?' Doesn't that go on in your mind? Do you understand everything that is said in this class?   |          |   |
|           | <b>Ss</b> | No   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |
|           | <b>L</b>  | It means you are not listening. May be I missed out something, you should raise up your hand and say, 'let me make an addition to what you have just said' or 'but I have read this from somewhere and this is what was said'. When doing that, you are actively engaged; you are not thinking of something else; you are in this lesson. And where you do not understand you ask questions. That shows you are actively listening. You are actively engaged; Of course, keeping eye contact with the speaker is very, very important. Not just to block out; the non-verbals are also important. Of course, keeping eye contact with the speaker is very, very important, especially towards the end of the semester; towards the exams; keeping eye contact with them and observing their non-verbals it is very important. So knowing your lecturers non-verbals is very, very important because sometimes those emphasise a point. You know when the non verbals are telling you something. So, you should not just spend most of time looking down and writing all the time. What are the non-verbals saying is very, very important in oral communication? Okay. | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>  |
| <b>26</b> | <b>L</b>  | Now, what steps;<br>one step was mentioned;<br>what steps could help you to be an active listener or effective listener? What do you think could help one to be an effective or active listener?<br>One was mentioned earlier.<br>Do you remember the one that was mentioned?<br>Class, It means you were not listening. I am also checking your Listening. You were not listening because that point has just been raised. So you see your listening.   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b><br><b>cl</b><br><b>el</b><br><br><b>cl</b><br><b>el</b><br><b>i</b> |
|           | <b>S</b>  | You voluntarily adapt your mind set to the speaker.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |
|           | <b>L</b>  | You adapt your mind set; your mind set.<br>Remember there are barriers in the communication process and one of the barriers could be the mind-set. If your mind-set is not prepared for the lecture it means you are not going to sit there and listen. Because the mind-set is not prepared; the mind-set is not even there for one reason or the other. You might be distressed or you are stressed or you are very low. You prepare your mind by sitting in the room if you do not have another class going over what you did last time; reminding yourself what you did last time; you prepare yourself in your room if you do not have a class; Reminding yourself where you did not understand. So that immediately the new topic is introduced before that you can ask yourself some questions preparing your mind set for that course. Your mind is ready to listen to what is going to be said in that class. It means you are going to set aside whatever is troubling you and listen to the class.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b><br><b>com</b>  |
| <b>27</b> | <b>L</b>  | What else can you do to prepare yourself to listen? What else can you do to prepare yourself to prepare yourself to listen besides the   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>   |

|  |          |   |          |                              |
|--|----------|---|----------|------------------------------|
|  |          | mind-set?<br>Yes “rra”(Sir)   |          | <b>n</b>                     |
|  | <b>S</b> | Note taking while listening.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>                   |
|  | <b>L</b> | <p>While listening you can do note taking as some people have mentioned but you do not take notes on everything.</p> <p>If you are going to write everything that is being said; when are you going to listen? Remember listening is understanding and if you are going to spend the whole time writing down notes, when are you going to understand the notes that you wrote. It means when you sit down to read you don't really understand the notes that you wrote. But if you understand in class when you go later to your room or to the library to read more information, you know what you are reading about; you understand what you are reading about instead of reading something that you do not understand. Now, the barriers that we talked about during the communication process, also applies in the listening. The phone that I have just been annoyed with, we can't just allow a phone like this; because it is a barrier. People are going to shift their listening to the ringing tone of that phone. It will be already a barrier. Because they are now focussing their attention on you they miss what is being said. Coming late is a barrier. Because once you come late people are going to look at you; your dress; your style, how you walk and you are distracting them because now they are focussing on you. And while they are focussing on you they miss on what is discussed in class. The environment; like it has been very hot, that can make one not to listen very well. And remember we said you have to minimise the noise. If you cannot completely do away with the barriers, you try by all means minimise them; you try to switch off your phone or put it on silent. But if you put it on silent, if you are an effective listener you know it is going to distract you because you are going to see that there is a call coming. So you do away with that by switching off the phone. You do away with that emotional barrier by focussing on what is being said. Once you see yourself drifting to whatever happened during the fresher's ball and all that. You have to bring yourself to the situation; to the current situation.</p> | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b><br><br><b>com</b> |





|    |    |   |   |                              |
|----|----|---|---|------------------------------|
|    |    | more.   |   |                              |
|    | L  | So you are more on the emotions. So you are more on the emotions. <b>“Akere?” (Isn’t it?)</b> It is more on the emotions because the laughing, the friendly is what made you want to listen. Okay.  | F | com                          |
| 31 | L  | You had your hand up.   | I | n                            |
|    | S  | The driving of the lecture; seeking more clarity each and every time so that you later on see where you fall.   | R | rep                          |
|    | L  | In a lecturer you seek for more clarity. You will see later on where you fall.  | F | acc                          |
| 32 | L  | What else in a lecture for you to easily understand that lecture. How do you want it? Or what is happening in that? What else in a lecturer?  | I | el                           |
|    | S  | <b>“Tichara yo o thantseng” (The teacher that is), yo o (who is) active. “a se” (who is not) slow “gape a se” (also not) fast.</b>  | R | rep                          |
|    | L  | You want average speed. I don’t know the active part; what active means.  | F | com                          |
| 33 | L  | Yes; at the back.   | I | n/el                         |
|    | S  | I listen best to the lecturer who speaks <b>“o a bua”</b> at the same time acting. <b>“Ha e le gore o tshwara buka a e tshware fa e le gore o baya buka a e beye” (If there is need to touch a book and if there is need that he puts down the book, he should do that).</b> In that way I will not forget because in the exam I will remember <b>“gore one a dira jang” (what he/she did).</b>   | R | rep                          |
|    | L  | The speaker uses a lot of non-verbals.  | F | com                          |
| 34 | L  | Yes   | I | n                            |
|    | S  | Recap of the previous lecture.  | R | rep                          |
|    | L  | Recap of the previous lecture.  | F | acc                          |
| 35 | L  | How do you want the information presented? How do you want the information presented? There is presenter here; there is speaker here; how do you want the information presented?  | I | el                           |
|    | S  | Summarised.   | R | rep                          |
|    | L  | Summarised, Brief. You want the information brief, summarised. Okay.  | F | acc                          |
| 36 | L  | Now, that has given me the idea of some of your listening styles. You have People Oriented style of listening and Time Oriented Style of listening, Content oriented style and Action oriented style. So, I want you to go and read and find information on those. I will give you the source, “The International Journal of Listening” 2010 volume. There is an article by Bodie. It is called “Re-visiting the listening styles properly”; “Re-visiting the listening styles properly”;<br>That is the first part; I am not going to write everything.<br>““Re-visiting the listening styles properly; A confirmatory factor”. It is by Bodie and Wethington. That is an article. You should read that article so that you understand these listening styles and identify your own listening styles among these one, two, three, four Listening styles. Which is the most dominant?<br>The other thing is to collect the self-assessment where you are going to assess yourself after reading these you might say, ‘are you more People Oriented, Action oriented, Content oriented, or Time Oriented’. You can start doing it today. | I | s<br><br>d<br><br>i<br><br>d |
| 37 | Ss | Office number?  | I | el                           |
|    | L  | <b>“A-a-a!”</b> You do not know my office number? It is there in the course outline. 888  | R | rep                          |



|    |   |  |     |                  |
|----|---|--|-----|------------------|
| 4  | L | What else do you do; before you finally sit down and decide to read or decide to take the book to your room so that you can read further? What do you do?<br>Yes   | I   | el<br>n          |
|    | S | “Nna” (I), I usually look at the Index for the topic that I want to read about.  | R   | rep              |
|    | L | She usually looks at the index; she says. The Index; to check if the topic she wants to read about is in the text or not.  | F   | acc              |
| 5  | L | What about others? She looks at the table of contents; she looks at the index.<br>What about others?<br>The index; look at the index.  | I   | s<br>el          |
|    | S | I think, just as they have already said; you analyse the Table of contents and the Index to search if it has got the information you need.   | R   | rep              |
|    | L | The table of contents and the index.   | F   | acc              |
| 6  | L | Anything else that you do?<br>Before you finally say this is the book; it has the content that I want to read.<br>Yes  | I   | el<br>n          |
|    | S | I usually go through- <b>Not audible response</b>  | R   | rep              |
| 7  | L | Can you speak out louder so that they can hear you?  | R/I | el               |
|    | S | I would go through the topic to see if it has as much information as I need because sometimes the topic will be there in the book but not having what I need.  | R   | rep              |
|    | L | She says she goes through the topic referring to the chapter. Let’s say you have identified it in the table of contents; you go to that unit; you go to that chapter.  | F   | acc<br>com       |
| 8  | L | And what do you do?  | I   | el               |
|    | S | I just go through it.  | R   | rep              |
| 9  | L | You do most of what we call Pre-reading. Now, we are talking of the process. So the first phase is what is called Pre-reading stage. Before you start reading you need to do certain activities that will aid your understanding; aid your choosing the book that it has the content that you need or not. I did not hear any of you talking of the Title of the book. The title of the book. Let’s say something on communication. You have this book Communication; that’s the title for this book; It is Communication.<br>What do you do? Do you ever look at the title or you just ignore it and you go straight to the Table of contents. Do you look at it? | I   | i<br>el          |
|    | S | Look at it.  | R   | rep              |
|    | L | You look at it.  | F   | acc              |
| 10 | L | And then do what? It’s Communication.<br>What do you do?<br>Do you ever look at the title?<br>What do you do?<br>Yes   | I   | el<br>n          |
|    | S | I assess if the title is relevant to the topic you are researching on.   | R   | rep              |
|    | L | Assess if the title is relevant to the topic you are researching on.   | F   | acc              |
| 11 | L | Assess how? Assess how? Assess how?<br><br>Look at the title to see if it is relevant; Yes it’s relevant.<br>You want something to do with communication and the book that you have picked is ‘communication’.   | I   | el/<br>cu<br>acc |





|           |          |  |          |                    |
|-----------|----------|--|----------|--------------------|
|           |          | 'business letters', for example you get to that chapter what is it that you do: before you plunge in to read normally.<br>You go to that page and then do what?  |          | el                 |
|           | <b>S</b> | Usually I look at the key words to see if they are defined or not.   | <b>R</b> | rep                |
|           | <b>L</b> | Usually she looks at the key words to see if they are defined or not.<br>So immediately you get to that chapter. You have identified in the table of contents that may be this chapter is relevant; and that is the one I want.  | <b>F</b> | acc<br><br>com     |
| <b>20</b> | <b>L</b> | What else do you do?   | <b>I</b> | el                 |
|           | <b>S</b> | You look at the subheadings.   | <b>R</b> | rep                |
|           | <b>L</b> | You look at the subheadings.   | <b>F</b> | acc                |
| <b>21</b> | <b>L</b> | What about the subheadings?  | <b>I</b> | el                 |
|           | <b>S</b> | You peruse through a few pages to see if it is in line with want you want to read.   | <b>R</b> | rep                |
|           | <b>L</b> | You peruse through the whole chapter to see if indeed what is in that chapter is what he wants to read. So you get to that chapter. You cannot immediately start reading; you look at the chapter and If there is a heading; look at the subheadings which are there; turn them into questions because this is what you expect to find. These are the questions you expect to be answered in the text when you are reading it and to get the general idea of the chapter; quickly skim through. Not reading per se. You are quickly going through to have a general idea of this chapter if it has the information that you want. Those questions; the headings that you change into questions help you focus in that you have this question at the back of your mind as you are reading. You are trying to find out if the answers to your questions are answered and If they are not being answered. You will see that these have not been answered; these details have not been given. So, It helps you to focus your mind because you know what you are looking for. | <b>F</b> | acc<br><br>com     |
| <b>22</b> |          | Okay, Pre-Reading; I have a text here; which I want you to do the pre-reading. It does not have the sub-headings but only the title. I will give you a minute to work with the title. So I will give you a minute to skim through. Skimming through. You know what you are expected to do in skimming through.<br><i>Just pick one.</i><br>Skim, Scan, what is the difference? Skim through and Scan; what is the difference? What's the difference? Skimming and Scanning, What is the difference? Skimming and scanning? They are the same? Are they the same? No! Are they the same? Skimming, scanning.<br>Which one do you do when you want to have a general idea of the text?   | <b>I</b> | s/d<br><br>d<br>el |
|           | <b>S</b> | Skimming.  | <b>R</b> | rep                |
|           | <b>L</b> | Skimming.<br>Moving your eyes quickly through the text. You might pick one or two sentences. You are not really reading everything per se.   | <b>F</b> | acc<br>com         |
| <b>23</b> | <b>L</b> | Scanning. When you look for a number in telephone directory.<br>What do you do? You know the person is in Gaborone; You know the person starts with P- and it is not just P- it is P-r-i-Are you going to go to that page one by one and go through and check?   | <b>I</b> | i<br>el            |
|           | <b>S</b> | No, you scan.  | <b>R</b> | rep                |

|    |   |  |   |             |
|----|---|--|---|-------------|
|    | L | You scan.<br>You quickly go to that page. Then run your eyes by looking for the specific information. You scan for specific information and you Skim to have a general idea of the text.   | F | acc<br>com  |
| 24 | L | Now, the pre-reading that you are going to do, read the title. There is the title there; predict. Do not read the whole text. I want you to just concentrate on the title. Just the title; predict. That's the questions you have, some of the contents that you expect to have in that text. You have only one <b>hour</b> ; one minute.  | I | s/d         |
|    | S | Ma'am what should we do?   | I | el          |
|    | L | You have picked this. Now you are looking at the title; you are doing the Pre-Reading; note any questions, any information that you know regarding the topic just jot it down. Do not read the text; just concentrate on the topic. Just skim through the text. Practise Skimming through the text. If you finished writing; practise text. You want to have a general idea; you are not really reading; you want to have a general idea of the whole text; You are not really reading, reading.<br><i>Students read through the text.</i><br>Once you find yourself taking more than one second in a paragraph it means you are Reading; you are not Scanning. It means you are Reading; you are not really scanning. | R | rep         |
| 25 | L | Okay. Let's look at what we have. The title; the topic for this text is, "Problems of writing in a foreign language." Problems of writing in a foreign language. That is the topic.<br>What are your predictions about this text? What are your predictions; The content of the text? What are your predictions? What kind of questions did you come up with?  | I | i<br><br>el |
|    | S | Who is writing in the foreign language?  | R | rep         |
|    | L | Who is writing in a foreign language?  | F | acc         |
| 26 | L | Yes  | I | n           |
|    | S | To whom are they writing to?   | R | rep         |
|    | L | To whom are they writing to?   | F | acc         |
| 27 | S | Is it necessary to do so?  | R | rep         |
|    | L | Is it necessary to do so?  | F | acc         |
| 28 | S | Why will they write in a language they have a problem with?  | R | rep         |
|    | L | Why will they write in a language they do not understand?  | F | acc         |
| 29 | S | What are the effects of writing in a foreign language?   | R | rep         |
|    | L | What are the effects of writing in a foreign language?   | F | acc         |
| 30 | L | Yes  | I | n           |
|    | S | What are the major causes of these problems?   | R | rep         |
|    | L | What are the major causes of these problems?   | F | acc         |
| 31 | L | Yes  | I | n           |
|    | S | How can they be solved?  | R | rep         |
|    | L | How can they be solved?  | F | acc         |
| 32 | L | Any information that you know about this topic? How can they be solved or overcome? Any information that you know about this topic? Any information that you noted down.<br><b>"Ee rra" (Yes sir)</b>  | I | el<br><br>n |
|    | S | Different foreign languages as a whole; because there are different; because there are different writings. Some write in hieroglyphics; Some use Chinese. I am thinking about that.  | R | rep         |
|    | L | You are thinking about that. Alphabets that are used throughout the world.   | F | acc         |



|           |          |  |          |                    |
|-----------|----------|--|----------|--------------------|
| <b>33</b> | <b>L</b> | Anything that you know regarding writing in a foreign language that you noted down?<br>Yes   | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>n</b>    |
|           | <b>S</b> | Translation problems.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | Translation problems.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>         |
| <b>34</b> | <b>S</b> | Local Language interference.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | Local Language interference.<br>Mother tongue language interference.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |
| <b>35</b> | <b>L</b> | Yes  | <b>I</b> | <b>n</b>           |
|           | <b>S</b> | Problems of thinking in one language and writing in the other.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | Problems of thinking in one language and writing in the other language.<br>You will be thinking and then translating it into a foreign language. So all this is coming up. You have not yet started Reading. These are questions. These are things that you know. What you are expected to find in here; your predictions of what you expect to find in the text; looking at the title, 'Problems of writing in a foreign language'.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |
| <b>36</b> | <b>L</b> | What do you think the whole text is going to be about?<br>Yes  | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>n</b>    |
|           | <b>S</b> | Wrong use of tense.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | Wrong use of tense.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>         |
| <b>37</b> | <b>L</b> | Yes  | <b>I</b> | <b>n</b>           |
|           | <b>S</b> | Distortion of information because of mother tongue interference.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | Distortion of information because of mother tongue interference.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>         |
| <b>38</b> | <b>L</b> | What else?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>          |
|           | <b>S</b> | Use of long sentences that are complex.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | Use of long sentences that are complex.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>         |
|           | <b>S</b> | Not paying attention to minor details.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | Not paying attention to minor details.<br>This is all the information that you are getting with regarding foreign language writing. You have not yet started Reading. So once you have scanned through so that you have a general idea of what the text is all about. Now you have all these questions and you are keeping them at the back of your mind; they are being revealed; they are being responded to, you feel happy and your understanding is enhanced in that you have activated your knowledge. More especially the example, "I will marry when I want" play. You can always ask why are they being forced? Why are they not willing to marry them? Maybe it's a rude child; maybe it is the parents; the mother or the father and so on.<br>So as you are reading, your predictions are confirmed, if they are confirmed. May be someone is being forced by their parents to marry? And as they are confirmed, you make more predictions. When they are not confirmed, you start thinking, 'why?' why is it not being confirmed?; where did I go wrong? You start thinking and evaluating the information to say, 'Why now this title?' Now, this title, those of you who have read the play No one is getting married. It has nothing to do with marriage. So, you also identify some gaps. You can even say, may be this title is not relevant. It helps you to identify gaps as a scholar; as an academic you are supposed in your reading to identify some gaps and the information that is not consistent. To identify answers which have not been given. And if you were not prepared from the | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |



|  |  |   |  |  |
|--|--|---|--|--|
|  |  | tomorrow, so “ <b>lona</b> ” (you), your turn will be next week. So, the hour for tomorrow you work on this task. Don’t come here. That is task one; the one that you are doing is task one and there is going to be task two. Remember you are submitting next week. You are submitting your; date; you are submitting either on Tuesday or Thursday. If you miss Tuesday you submit on Thursday during class time. Okay. Thank You. |  |  |
|--|--|---|--|--|

**END OF LECTURER PRINCESS’S LESSON TWO**

**11.27 Lesson transcription three**

**Faculty: Humanities**

**Lecturer D: Princess**

**Topic: Paragraph Development**

| Exchanges         | Participant | Classroom talk   | Moves    | Acts                   |
|-------------------|-------------|--|----------|------------------------|
| <b>Teaching 1</b> | <b>L</b>    | What is a paragraph? You mean at university you cannot tell that poor standard seven little boy or little girl what a paragraph is.<br>Yes   | <b>I</b> | <b>s/el<br/>n</b>      |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | It is a group of sentences put together with one idea.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | A group of sentences; she said. What else did you say? A group of sentences. I heard something like they have one common idea, she says.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>             |
| <b>2</b>          | <b>L</b>    | What else did you say that I missed?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>              |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | They are put together; there is no space between, ‘A group of sentences’ and ‘with one common idea.’   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | So her definition to these young boys and girls doing standard seven is that, ‘A paragraph is a group of sentences put together and they have one common idea.’  | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>             |
| <b>3</b>          | <b>L</b>    | Yes  | <b>I</b> | <b>n</b>               |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | I would say, ‘A group of words that form lines or sentences in a chronological way.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | She says she would say, “A paragraph ‘is a group of sentences put together and they have one common idea, and she says ‘is a group of words that form lines or sentences in a chronological way”.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>             |
| <b>4</b>          | <b>L</b>    | What do you think of these definitions of what a paragraph is; which one will you align more with and why?<br>You have been writing paragraphs for so many years; You have been writing paragraphs for so many years; you need to know what a paragraph is.<br>Yes | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>cu<br/>n</b> |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | They are different sections in a document consisting of related concepts.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | They are different sections in a document consisting of related concepts.<br>So, you are thinking of the whole text. But we are looking at different paragraphs not just one.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>     |
| <b>5</b>          | <b>L</b>    | Yes  | <b>I</b> | <b>n</b>               |
|                   | <b>S</b>    | I think a paragraph is the development of an idea and I think it relates more with the first one.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>             |
|                   | <b>L</b>    | It relates more with the first one.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>             |
| <b>6</b>          | <b>L</b>    | Will you align with that? Do you think that is what a paragraph is?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>              |

|           |          |  |          |                    |
|-----------|----------|--|----------|--------------------|
|           |          | Besides her. . Why?  |          |                    |
|           | <b>S</b> | I think they are both right; the one in the left and the one in the right.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | They are both right. The other one is a group of words that form a sentences are in a chronological way; the sentences are in a chronological way.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>         |
| <b>7</b>  | <b>L</b> | What about the words? Explain it more so that we get it more, if there is anyone in doubt. Explain your definition.  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>          |
|           | <b>S</b> | It is self-explanatory.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | No! It is not.   | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>         |
| <b>8</b>  | <b>L</b> | What do you mean by a group of words? So that the Standard seven understand; I don't think the Standard sevens would understand if you say 'it is a group of words in a chronological order' they will understand.   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>          |
|           | <b>S</b> | Phrases and clauses.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | Phrases and clauses.<br>So these group of words; These are sentences. Not just any group of words. So if you borrow from this way, 'So there has to be a certain order of sentences. The sentences being in a chronological order or chronological way. So, that is a paragraph. Group of sentences have been put together; and if we borrow from this way, 'the sentences should be put together in a chronological order and they are all about one common idea'. And then that is a paragraph; one controlling idea in that paragraph. So, this group of sentence every sentence in that paragraph is contributing towards this common idea. So, each of those sentences can contribute either through for example, explaining; maybe it is a sentence where it is explaining a common idea, giving more explanation, giving examples of this common idea, or analysing, but the sentences here are all on one idea. Immediately, you have a sentence that does not address that idea then it should not be in that paragraph. So there should be a single focus; a common idea. So every sentence develops this common idea. This is giving more information about that common idea that is in that paragraph. | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |
| <b>9</b>  | <b>L</b> | How long should a paragraph be? 5-7? 6-8?<br>Can you share will us what you are saying?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>el/n</b> |
|           | <b>S</b> | She is saying 6 to 8 lines will be a lot. But I am saying it depends because there are different types of sentences. It depends.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | They are arguing about 8 lines.  | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>         |
| <b>10</b> | <b>L</b> | What about other people; How long should a paragraph be? How long are your paragraphs? How long are the paragraphs that you write?   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>          |
|           | <b>S</b> | Mostly they should not be more than 10 lines.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | Mostly they should not be more than 10 lines,<br>But also bear in mind that a paragraph should not be too choppy. But as we have said the paragraph should develop that common idea fully. Sometimes may be the idea should go to the second paragraph; this happens where may be in explaining it needs more than one paragraph. But usually if you find that you have explained fully, you have given all the supporting details of the main paragraph usually it should not be more than twelve lines; it should not be more than twelve lines; but it also depends on the level at which you are when you write. Sometimes it becomes too choppy. Usually you find that the paragraph is not well developed.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |

|           |          |  |          |                    |
|-----------|----------|--|----------|--------------------|
|           |          | Some more information, some more examples have not been given and the paragraph will be very short. Some students just write one sentence and it's a paragraph because the ideas have not been explained; you have not explained; you have not given more information, you have not supported the common idea. You will see two lines and one sentence and they will call that a paragraph while we are talking of a group of sentences that are supporting a common idea.   |          |                    |
| <b>11</b> | <b>L</b> | Anything you want to add on to what a paragraph is; from your experience of writing paragraphs? Anything you want to add that we have not touched on when talking about paragraphs?<br>Yes   | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>n</b>    |
|           | <b>S</b> | In one paragraph there should be one idea.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | In one paragraph there should be only one idea; In one paragraph there should be only one common idea; that is very true. Just a single focus.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>e</b>   |
| <b>12</b> | <b>L</b> | Let's have an example. Let's have an example. Who wants to give us an example? Let's have an example? Examples? Okay someone give us a topic or a topic sentence that you could develop into a paragraph.<br>Yes sir   | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>n</b>    |
|           | <b>S</b> | The damages brought by or discovered after the second world war or the damages discovered after the bombing raid in American 9/11.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>         |
|           | <b>L</b> | The 9/11 bombing in America.<br>So do you mean all the sentences will be focussing; all the sentences will be explaining about the damages in that paragraph. But as I said you might find out that all the information cannot go into one paragraph. In that case, you also have to divide them and have different topic sentences. We are talking about damages; It should not somewhere talk about the causes. It should all about the causes. We are focussing on one single focus. It should all be damages. Do not talk about the causes or the person who was responsible for this. We are focussing on one single focus; The damages. You are going to explain, you are going to give examples but it is all centred on that one thing. If for example you are talking about crime at the University of Botswana; you are going to be focusing just on; maybe you are talking about Crime; maybe you are going to have a paragraph talking of causes of the crime. It means in that paragraph it's all about the causes. And if you want to talk of the effects; how the students are affected, it should not be in that paragraph; a paragraph where you are supposed to be discussing effects. So, that is the single focus that we are talking about. | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b> |
| <b>13</b> | <b>L</b> | Anything else? Anything else from your experience of writing paragraphs? What feedback do you want to share with us? Feedback that you have got from your lecturer; something that you can remember. You have not got things like 'explain', 'not well developed', 'why?' besides the margin. It means you have left out a lot of information; you have not given examples; you have not explained. It is just a two sentence paragraph. For example "Crime at UB" You have to explain, you can give examples, you can even have a small analysis of these effects.<br>I suppose from now you are going to write good paragraphs.  | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>con</b>  |
| <b>14</b> | <b>L</b> | Now, what are the characteristics of a paragraph; characteristics of a   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b>          |

|           |          |  |          |   |
|-----------|----------|--|----------|---|
|           |          | paragraph. What do we call the characteristics of a paragraph; It is a group of sentences; It is fine. It is focussing on one idea; it is fine. What are the other characteristics of a paragraph; a well-developed paragraph?<br>Yes  |          | <b>n</b>  |
|           | <b>S</b> | The language.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |
|           | <b>L</b> | The language is good and that is grammar. We will come to that.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc/e</b>                                      |
| <b>15</b> | <b>L</b> | Anything else? What can we say are the characteristics of a paragraph?<br><b>Yes “rra” (sir)</b>   | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>n</b>                                   |
|           | <b>S</b> | Word phrases.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |
|           | <b>L</b> | Word phrases.  | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>  |
| <b>16</b> | <b>L</b> | Anything else?<br>Hei! The back; you have not said a word. You are very quiet. At the back you have not said anything and we are half way through the lesson. Think of the paragraphs that you have written.   | <b>I</b> | <b>el<br/>cu</b>                                  |
|           | <b>S</b> | Well when writing a paragraph, start sentences differently. Start your paragraph with different words, for example, you start your paragraph with ‘eh’, and then the next paragraph with ‘eh’ , and then the next paragraph with ‘eh’.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |
|           | <b>L</b> | So, she is talking about monotony. That the paragraphs should not be monotonous. It should not be monotonous by starting the same way.   | <b>F</b> | <b>com</b>  |
| <b>17</b> | <b>L</b> | You have written paragraphs at the back; the paragraphs that you have written at UB at least. What do you have in mind when you are writing them? The ones that you can tick and say this is a good paragraph.<br>Back line; usually the back benchers talk a lot. What kind of back benchers are you?<br>What about when you talk of unity in a paragraph; What is it that we are referring to? Unity in what? Unity in what? In that paragraph. Unity in what?<br><b>Akere? (Isn’t it?)</b> we have talked about a group of sentences and these sentences are based on different ideas. There is an idea that you are developing. So, unity in what?<br>What should be linked together?  | <b>I</b> | <b>el/n<br/><br/>cu<br/><br/>i/ch<br/><br/>el</b> |
|           | <b>S</b> | The sentences.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |
|           | <b>L</b> | The sentences.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b>  |
| <b>18</b> | <b>S</b> | Unity in the structure.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |
|           | <b>L</b> | Unity in the ideas. Unity in the ideas.<br>What other words can you use that is used especially in writing; If we do not say unity what can we say?<br>Cohesion and coherence; which one is cohesion and coherence?<br>When we talk of unity of ideas; remember we talked of a single focus, the ideas are united; they are hanging together because you are moving from sentence to sentence to sentence and it’s like they are hanging together. There is no idea that is separate in that paragraph. Whether it is explaining, it is explaining that idea. If it is examples, it is examples on that idea and the ideas are linked together. So, it is easy for reader to follow this paragraph. Once you find that the ideas are changing to something different that is why now you have to move on to a different paragraph. So, it is a characteristics of a paragraph; there should be unity in that | <b>F</b> | <b>acc<br/>com</b>                                |

|    |    |  |   |                     |
|----|----|--|---|---------------------|
|    |    | paragraph. All the sentences are hanging together and they are flowing. The hanging together should be logical. There is a smooth flow. The ideas are hanging together and now a smooth flow from sentence to sentence, so that is Coherence. The ideas are hanging together and there is a smooth flow. It's like when you are flowing in a river. It is not like you are jumping from this idea to that idea; the ideas are linked together. It's like when you are reading the reader won't say; When you read you should not say, <b>“Ga tweng ha jaanong?” (What is the point here now?)</b> And then you go back, once it is like that it means the ideas are not linked together. That is why you find besides a paragraph there is a big question mark <b>What are you saying now?</b> Now, you were expected to explain and give examples and you have jumped to something else. You have now jumped to the person who was driving this American 9/11 plane when you were still talking of the effects. So, when we talk of the arrangement of the ideas, these are arranged in a logical manner and they are easy to understand. So we are also avoiding monotony. The verb tenses and punctuations make a well developed paragraph. You have adequately explained; you have given examples when need be. All the necessary information have been provided; you are not leaving the necessary information thinking that the reader will think about it; and you will know what you wanted to say. So when you are talking of the characteristics that there should be unity in that paragraph, there should be coherence in that paragraph; there should be unity in that paragraph, smooth flow of ideas, same ideas. So do not write paragraphs of more than twelve lines. |   |                     |
| 19 | L  | Now, let us look at the structure; a paragraph has a structure. A paragraph has a structure.<br>Let me hear it from you; what is a structure of a paragraph? We are looking at the structure of a paragraph. How is it structured? How is it structured?<br>Yes <b>“mma” (ma'am)</b>   | I | i<br>el<br>n        |
|    | S  | There is a topic sentence.   | R | rep                 |
|    | L  | There is a topic sentence in a paragraph, Yes  | F | acc                 |
| 20 | L  | What is a topic sentence in a paragraph? What else do we find in a paragraph? We want someone to explain what a topic sentence is in a paragraph? Can someone explain what is a topic sentence in a paragraph.<br>I only have 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 people responding out of a class of fifty something.<br>Can I have different people please? You all write paragraphs. When you write those paragraphs, how do you structure them? She has talked of the topic sentence. I am saying someone define a topic sentence. Unless you say in your paragraphs you don't write topic sentences so you don't know what topic sentences are.<br>Yes   | I | el<br>cu<br>el<br>n |
|    | S  | I think it is the main idea of what the text is about.   | R | rep                 |
|    | L  | She says it is the main idea of what the text is about.  | F | acc                 |
| 21 | L  | Do you agree with her?   | I | el                  |
|    | Ss | Yes  | R | rep                 |
|    | L  | <b>“Le ba baneng ba sa tsholetsa matsogo” (Even those who did not raise up their hands).</b>   | F | cu                  |
| 22 | L  | The topic sentence carries the main idea of that paragraph. Usually,   | I | el                  |

|           |          |  |          |   |
|-----------|----------|--|----------|---|
|           |          | It depends on your writing skill. It depends on your style you can find the topic sentence at the very first sentence or in the middle or you can find it at the end of that paragraph. But remember it carries main idea of that paragraph; it carries the focus of that paragraph; so that is a topic sentence. The main idea of that paragraph. We are looking at the structure; the next part.<br>Okay, here. She has talked of the topic sentence. What is the next?<br>Yes   |          | <b>n</b>  |
|           | <b>S</b> | Supporting sentences.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |
|           | <b>L</b> | Supporting sentences; supporting details. We have supporting sentences or details.<br>Remember we have said these carry the main idea. So the next part is supporting sentences, explaining this main idea; analysing this main idea; narrating this main idea. So we have these supporting sentences.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b><br><b>com</b>  |
| <b>23</b> | <b>L</b> | The next part?<br>“ <b>Ee mma</b> ” (Yes ma’am)  | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b><br><b>n</b>   |
|           | <b>S</b> | The concluding sentence.   | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |
|           | <b>L</b> | These laptops “ <b>tse le di tisang moclassing</b> ” (that you bring to class) they don’t make you to think because you are busy with ‘Google’.<br>You stated the main idea of your paragraph; the main focus of your paragraph and it carries the main ideas. So, you supported this main idea by explaining; by giving more information by using examples and so on. And then you conclude this paragraph here; you are concluding this paragraph here. May be in concluding this paragraph you use a sentence that links it to another paragraph so that there is that smooth flow from paragraph to paragraph. But what we are talking about is that you are concluding this paragraph. So we might say, there is an introduction, development and conclusion of the paragraph. And as you do that, you will be bearing in mind the unity, you will be bearing in mind the coherence of the paragraph. So, after reading the topic sentence, after reading that topic sentence, the reader should anticipate what kind of information should be there in that paragraph. So, there shouldn’t be something very different. There are some examples here: So when we talk of crime at UB, what do we expect to find?<br>(I am thinking at the top of my head)<br>So, when we talk of crime at UB: what do you expect to find in such a topic sentences? For any of the paragraphs. Okay let us come up with sentences. So you will have a key topic sentence; like for example,<br>I am just thinking at the top of my head.<br>May be something like, ‘Crime at UB has grown tremendously since the beginning of the year’.<br>You have just been given this. | <b>F</b> | <b>cu</b><br><b>com</b><br><b>p</b><br><b>com</b><br><b>p</b><br><b>com</b> |
| <b>24</b> | <b>L</b> | What do you expect to find? What information will you expect to find?<br>Yes   | <b>I</b> | <b>el</b><br><b>n</b>   |
|           | <b>S</b> | Examples.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |
|           | <b>L</b> | Examples of the crimes, that show that the crimes have grown tremendously.   | <b>F</b> | <b>acc</b><br><b>com</b>  |
| <b>25</b> | <b>L</b> | Yes  | <b>I</b> | <b>n</b>  |
|           | <b>S</b> | Description of the crime.  | <b>R</b> | <b>rep</b>  |



|           |          |   |           |                 |
|-----------|----------|---|-----------|-----------------|
|           | <b>L</b> | Description of the crime.   | <b>F</b>  | <b>acc</b>      |
| <b>26</b> | <b>L</b> | What else will you expect to find?<br>Yes   | <b>I</b>  | <b>el<br/>n</b> |
|           | <b>S</b> | The common crimes.  | <b>R</b>  | <b>rep</b>      |
|           | <b>L</b> | They are talking of the Examples. The common crimes; the number of crimes. You expect to find may be some statistics. What was stolen? What is mostly targeted? Who especially; Is it boys or girls? So there is a lot of information to find in that paragraph.  | <b>F</b>  | <b>com</b>      |
| <b>27</b> | <b>L</b> | It is now time. What I said to one of my class on Monday; not knowing what happened at the gate. I do not know if they are here today in class or not. There was a crime; during broad day light and grabbed her laptop. Do not go around parading with those laptops. People need those laptops. And they are people you cannot fight with; and I understand they are threatening and use dangerous things. So, protect yourselves; If you cannot walk without a laptop; please don't. If there is somewhere you can leave the laptop in school or with a friend, for those of you who stay off-campus. If there is somewhere you can lock them, do that.<br>There is a test on Thursday on Reading. Your papers are ready for collection; you should not send your friends. You can collect them starting from now. Thank you | <b>Fo</b> | <b>ms</b>       |

**END OF LECTURER PRINCESS'S LESSON THREE**

**Appendix 12: CSSU Handbook**

**University Of Botswana**

**Centre for Academic Development**

**Communication and Study Skills Unit**

**Handbook 2014**

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## FOREWORD

The Communication and Study Skills Unit (CSSU) was established in 2000 to consolidate the teaching of study skills and academic and professional communication skills. These courses had previously been dispersed across the University. They are part of the General Education Programme of the University of Botswana, which is designed to provide students with key competencies for academic and professional life, as well as enhancing students' education by promoting critical thinking and skills for life-long learning. CSSU is part of the Centre for Academic Development, in recognition of the central role of communication and study skills in achieving academic excellence. It is staffed by academic staff with expertise in teaching English for Academic and Professional Purposes, with research interests in these areas.

CSSU offers two 100 level courses, which are compulsory for all first-year undergraduates of the University of Botswana. In 2009, the Ad Hoc Committee on General Education recommended that the Information Literacy modules offered by the Library should be transferred to the courses offered by CSSU. Senate agreed to this. CSSU's courses were revised in 2010 and 2011 to incorporate the Library's Information Literacy modules. At the same time, the opportunity was taken to make other revisions that CSSU felt were necessary. These changes include:

- Changing the course codes from GEC to COM
- Giving the course code for each Faculty a distinctive number
- Changing the course titles to include "Academic Literacy" instead of "Study Skills"
- Increasing the number of credits from 2 to 3

The purposes of these changes were to help both students and staff readily identify which General Education courses are offered by CSSU and which of CSSU's courses are to be taken by students of each Faculty. The increase in credits brings CSSU's courses in line with most of the other courses in the University.

CSSU also offers optional 200 level GEC courses, which build on the first year courses to assist students in more advanced communication skills. These courses are listed after the compulsory courses for first-year students.

## **Things students should know about CSSU's COM courses**

- All first-year students must take the 2 COM courses prescribed for their Faculty, unless they have been granted exemption (see below) (General Academic Regulation 20.4.2).
- A student who fails a COM course must retake it. Failure to do so will mean the student will not be able to graduate.
- The first semester COM courses are not pre-requisites for the second semester COM courses. Therefore, if a student fails the first semester course, they should register for and take the appropriate second semester course in their first year. Failure to do so will mean that they will have to retake the two COM courses before they can graduate.
- The COM courses for each Faculty can be identified by the middle digit of the 3 digits of the course codes. The COM courses for each of the Faculties are:

Faculty of Health Sciences and School of Medicine – COM101 and COM102

Faculty of Education – COM 161 and 162

Faculty of Humanities – COM111 and COM112

Faculty of Business – COM121 and COM122

Faculty of Engineering and Technology – COM131 and COM132

Faculty of Science – COM141 and COM142

Faculty of Social Sciences – COM151 and COM152

## **Learning and Teaching Policy**

In February 2008 Senate approved the Learning and Teaching Policy, the purpose of which is to offer guidance to staff of the University of Botswana on the implementation of the learning and teaching processes that lie at the centre of the University's Vision and Mission. Central to the Learning and Teaching Policy are the Graduate Attributes, which should be achieved by all students. The Graduate Attributes are:

- Information and communication technology knowledge and skills
- Self-directed, life-long learning skills
- Critical and creative thinking skills
- Problem-solving skills
- Communication skills
- Entrepreneurship and employability skills
- Organisational and teamwork skills
- Research skills and information literacy

- Social responsibility and leadership skills
- Interpersonal skills
- Cross-cultural fluency
- Accountability and ethical standards

The Learning and Teaching Policy can be found at:  
<http://tirisano/Academic%20Affairs%20Policies/Forms/AllItems.aspx>

### **Teaching and learning activities**

Teaching and learning activities are presented in a variety of ways in CSSU's classes. Every strategy used is intended to develop the Graduate Attributes outlined above. The major teaching and learning strategies include:

- lectures focused on the development of communication and academic literacy skills
- individual learning activities
- pair/group discussions
- class discussions
- problem-solving activities
- problem-based learning
- enquiry-based learning
- projects
- role play activities
- simulations
- case studies
- seminars
- tutorials
- peer-assisted learning
- e-learning activities

### **Studying Communication and Academic Literacy**

The lists of Graduate Attributes and teaching and learning strategies should tell you that the courses on Communication and Academic Literacy offered by CSSU are very different from the English classes you had at school. The major differences are:

- 1 Learning: You will largely be responsible for your own learning. You will do this by working and discussing with other students, usually in small groups of about 5 students. The aim of this is to enable you to acquire life-long learning skills – one of the Graduate Attributes – and to learn to communicate and work effectively with other people, as well as learning how to organise and manage your activities responsibly.

- 2 Teaching: You will experience a variety of teaching methods to help you practice and achieve the Graduate Attributes listed above.
- 3 Content: The emphasis in teaching is on enabling you to communicate effectively using a variety of media – visual, mathematical, linguistic, electronic – in both written and spoken forms for academic and professional purposes. You will still need to produce assignments that are written in correct English, but accuracy alone is not sufficient. You must show that you can communicate effectively for whichever purpose you are writing for. This means that you need to pay equal attention to the purpose, the context and the audience for whom you are writing.

You will find that studying at university is not the same as studying at secondary school. At university, you have to take much more responsibility for your own learning, with less direct instruction from lecturers. This is a big challenge at first, but the Communication and Academic Literacy courses offered by CSSU will help you overcome these challenges by enabling you to develop skills such as problem-solving and critical thinking skills.

### **Academic Dishonesty**

Academic dishonesty is not tolerated at the University of Botswana. The consequences of academic dishonesty are:

1. Harms the good reputation of our university
2. Affects your personal integrity
3. Is a barrier to the acquisition of the knowledge, skills and attitudes you would have acquired at the end of your study
4. Decreases your value in the eyes of employers
5. Has a heavy penalty, including expulsion from the University

CSSU supports the University's policy on academic dishonesty. Students found engaging in academic dishonesty will be punished in a manner appropriate to the nature of the offence.

You will find the University of Botswana's policy on Academic Honesty for Students on the University's [website](http://tirisano/Academic%20Affairs%20Policies/Forms/AllItems.aspx) at:  
<http://tirisano/Academic%20Affairs%20Policies/Forms/AllItems.aspx>.

### **Exemptions**

All first-year students must take the two COM courses that are specified for their Faculty. Exemptions may be granted to students who have transferred from another tertiary institution. The requirements to be granted exemption are:

- The student should have successfully completed a course or courses that cover a minimum period of two semesters and offer content equivalent to that offered by CSSU at the University of Botswana;
- The institution at which the student studied should be recognised or one with which UB has a formal articulation agreement;



- The student should have completed the course or courses within the previous 10 semesters (5 years) (General Academic Regulation 00.41).

Applications for exemption should be made to the Deputy Director of CSSU (Block 229, room 101). Applications for exemption must be accompanied by evidence which should be provided in the form of:

- Copy of transcript from the previous institution showing successful completion of equivalent courses
- Copy of the syllabi or outlines of the courses taken at the previous institution.

**Students transferring from other institutions please note:** Students who transfer from other institutions directly into the second or third year of their programmes must apply for exemption from the relevant COM courses. They are not automatically exempted from these courses. Faculty Administrators and other Faculty officers cannot exempt students. Exemptions must be sought from the Deputy Director of CSSU. **Students who have transferred from other institutions and who fail to obtain exemption from the appropriate COM courses will not be able to graduate.**

## **VISION AND MISSION STATEMENTS**

### **Vision of the University of Botswana**

The University of Botswana will be the leading academic centre of excellence in Africa and the world.

### **Mission of the University of Botswana**

To advance the intellectual and human resource capability of the nation and the international community.

### **Vision of the Communication and Study Skills Unit**

In line with the University of Botswana's Vision to be a centre of excellence, the Communication and Study Skills Unit will become a key/leading enabler in the promotion of learners' academic, social and occupational communication needs.

### **Mission of the Communication and Study Skills Unit**

In accord with the commitment of the University and the Centre for Academic Development to academic excellence, the mission of the Communication and Study Skills Unit is to develop and offer Communication and Academic Literacy courses that will assist to produce a self-directed learner who will ultimately function effectively in society.

## **FIRST-YEAR COMPULSORY COURSES**

These courses are compulsory for all students, unless they have been exempted.

### **Faculty of Health Sciences and School of Medicine**

**Course code:** COM101

**Course title:** Communication and Academic Literacy for Medicine and Health Sciences

**Credits:** 3 (2 contact hours and 1 hour tutorial)

**Level:** 1

**Semester:** 1

**Type:** Compulsory (GEC)

**Pre-requisite:** None

**Co-requisite:** None

### **COURSE OUTLINE**

The course is designed to apply communication and academic literacy skills that will enable the learners to become self-directed and life-long learners. It provides practice in basic communication skills in academic and literacy skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking and ICT in health sciences.

### **RATIONALE**

The course focuses on the development of self-directed individuals who will be able to cope with the demands of academic life in the Faculty of Health Sciences and the world of work. Teaching and learning activities will focus on the development of communication and academic literacy skills for the health sciences students.

### **AIM**

The course aims to develop competence in communication and academic literacy skills that focus on their use in health sciences and social contexts.

### **COURSE OBJECTIVES**

At the end of the course learners should be able to;

- Apply the basic language skills of speaking, reading, writing, and listening in all academic communication contexts relevant to health science disciplines;
- Reason cogently in different interactive communication situations;
- Become independent and self-directed learners;

- Produce general and specific texts that are fluent, accurate and reflect appropriate style;
- Use information technology to enhance communication skills;
- Apply information literacy skills in their search for information;
- Select appropriate medium and channel to communicate messages;
- Apply principles of oral communication in academic and social contexts;
- Use interpersonal and cross-cultural skills in various academic and social contexts
- Apply communication and literacy skills to address topical and emerging issues such as HIV/AIDS, alcohol, etc.

## **TEACHING METHODS**

Mini-lectures

Group work

Pair work

Oral presentations

Project work

Role play

Problem-based learning

E- learning technologies

Discussions

## **MODES OF ASSESSMENT**

### **CA 70% made up as follows:**

Report - 20%

Portfolio – 30%

Each student will present a portfolio containing samples of all his/her written work throughout the semester.

Oral presentation - 20%

### **Examination 30%**

## **READING LIST**

Cottrell, S (2003). The study skills handbook. 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. New York: Palgrave

Kalu, J. (2002). Project writing for higher education. Gaborone: Karima Publishers

Longman dictionary of contemporary English (1995). London: Longman

### **Recommended websites**

<http://www.newscientist.com>

<http://www.scientificamerican.com>

<http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/science/nature/default.stm>

<http://www.guardian.co.uk/science>

**Course code: COM102**

**Course title: Health Communication**

**Type: Compulsory (GEC)**

**Credits: 3 (2 contact hours and 1 tutorial)**

**Level 1**

**Semester 2**

**Pre-requisite: None**

**Co-requisite: None**

### **COURSE OUTLINE**

This course builds on COM101 by developing the learners' confidence in communicating academic and technical information efficiently and effectively through the investigation of an environmental problem or a community health issue. It concentrates on developing analytical and synthetic skills. The learners work in small groups to:

- identify a problem
- research it by communicating with the people affected by and concerned with the issue
- read the relevant literature in the library and online
- present their findings and recommendations in both written reports and oral presentations.

### **AIMS**

The aims of the course are to develop the learners' confidence in communicating effectively and to apply problem-solving techniques in health contexts.



|                       |  |
|-----------------------|--|
| <b>Course title:</b>  | <b>Problem-based Learning for Pre-Med Students</b>                               |
| <b>Type:</b>          | <b>Compulsory</b>  |
| <b>Credits:</b>       |  |
| <b>Level</b>          | <b>1</b>   |
| <b>Semester</b>       | <b>3</b>   |
| <b>Pre-requisite:</b> | <b>Good pass in COM101 and COM102 or COM141 and COM42 (for Science students)</b> |
| <b>Co-requisite:</b>  | <b>None</b>  |

The Communication and Study Skills Unit liaises with the School of Medicine and the two main hospitals in Botswana, Princess Marina Hospital in Gaborone and Nyangabwe Referral Hospital in Francistown, on the Clinical Exposure Programmes for the pre-med students. The programmes take place in June and July each year. Each lasts four weeks. The students spend the four weeks in one of the two hospitals where they are attached to each department for a few days in turn, observing the medical staff so that they can learn how hospitals operate. They also visit local clinics. On three afternoons each week, the students attend classes held by staff of the Communication and Study Skills Unit which prepare them for the problem-based learning methodologies that they will encounter when studying medicine, either in Botswana or in other countries.

COM103 is a compulsory course for pre-med students who have successfully completed Year 1 and who have been selected by the School of Medicine to proceed in the pre-med programme. In the course, the students work in small groups researching real medical problems in the hospitals. They report their findings at two oral presentations, during which the rest of the students try and determine the medical problems. Doctors from the two hospitals attend the presentations to ensure the medical information that the students give is accurate and to offer comments and advice. A video link is established between the University of Botswana Main Campus in Gaborone and its campus in Francistown so that the students and doctors in both centres can take part in the presentations together.

## **Faculties of Humanities**

|                     |   |
|---------------------|---|
| <b>Course Code:</b> | <b>COM111</b>   |
| <b>Title:</b>       | <b>Communication and Academic Literacy for Humanities and Education</b> |
| <b>Credits:</b>     | <b>3</b>  |
| <b>Level:</b>       | <b>one</b>  |
| <b>Semester:</b>    | <b>one</b>  |

**Type:** General Education Course

**Pre-requisite:** none

### **Aim**

The course aims to develop competency in academic and information literacy communication skills that focus on their use for specific purposes in Humanities and Education. Communication and Information skills are necessary for operating effectively in educational, social and professional contexts. It is therefore important to emphasise the development of skills. Activities in this course are designed to provide students with key competencies for academic and professional life and the enhancement of life-long learning skills.

### **Rationale**

COM111 seeks to respond to the CSSU Teaching and Learning Philosophy which is based on the principle of self-directed and active learning. This course, therefore, develop communication and academic literacy skills for life-long learning and self-directed learners equipped with cognitive skills. It is designed to equip students with skills to apply the basic language skills, speaking, writing, reading and listening in all communication contexts relevant to the humanities and education.

### **Course synopsis**

This course is designed to assist students develop balanced proficiency in the four major communicative skills—listening, reading, speaking, and writing for academic and general purposes.

### **Objectives**

At the end of the course students should be able to:

1. Apply the basic language skills of speaking, writing, reading and listening in academic communication contexts.
2. Demonstrate application of information literacy in their use for information.
3. Develop critical thinking skills in all communication situation
4. Demonstrate independence and self-directness in their learning.
5. Produce written texts that are coherent and stylistically appropriate.
6. Demonstrate ability to use ICT to enhance their learning.
7. Select appropriate media and channels to communicate both written and oral messages.
8. Orally communicate information effectively in appropriate contexts;
9. Demonstrate good interpersonal and cross-cultural skills in various contexts.

### **Modes of assessment**

Continuous assessment 60%

The continuous assessment for the course has four components:

|                               |     |
|-------------------------------|-----|
| 1) Class and group activities | 15% |
| 2) Assignments                | 15% |
| 3) Research and presentation  | 20% |
| 4) Test                       | 10% |
| Final examination             | 40% |

**Required reading:**

Moore, S., Neville, C., Murphy, M., & Connolly, C. (2010). *The ultimate study skills handbook*. Maidenhead: McGraw-Hill Education

Glendinning, E. H., & Holmstrom, B. (2004). *Study reading: A course in reading skills for academic purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

McWhorter, K.T. (1998). *College reading study skills*. New York: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.

Cottrell, S. (2003). *The study skills handbook*. 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. London: Macmillan

Mhundwa, P. H., Magogwe, J. M. & Kalane, M.S. (2008). *Developing communication and study skills* Gaborone: Collegium (Pty) Ltd

**Further reading:**

Reid, J.M. (1988). *The process of composition*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Roberts, J. M. (1992). *Effective study skills in English: Maximising your academic potential*.

Wallace, M.J. (1992). *Study skills in English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

**Course Code: COM112**

**Course Title: Academic and Professional Communication (Humanities and Education)**

**Credits: 3**

**Semester: 2**

**Type: General Education Course**

**Pre-requisites: None**

**Co-requisites: None**

**Aim**



The general aim of this course is to equip students with academic and professional communication skills and techniques required in understanding effective academic, organizational, interpersonal, oral and professional communication skills.

### **Rationale**

This course responds to the CSSU learning and teaching Philosophy which promotes learners academic and professional communication skills and commits itself to produce graduates who are competent communicators as scholars, professionals, and interactive citizens.

### **Course synopsis**

This course is designed to provide development of writing proficiency through intensive instruction in academic writing skills and teaches students the rhetorical principles and writing practices necessary for producing effective business letters, memos, reports, and collaborative projects in professional contexts.

### **Course objectives:**

At the end of the semester students should be able to:

1. Produce clear and correctly written academic texts
2. Apply information literacy skills in their search for information
3. Write effective letters, memos, reports and documents of meetings.
4. Deliver effective oral academic presentations

### **Teaching methods**

A variety of approaches will be used during the course. These may include, but are not limited to;

- Lectures
- Oral debates
- Discussions
- Group projects
- Collaborative group activities
- Group /individual oral presentations
- E-learning

### **Modes of assessment**

The assessment for the course has five components;

- |   |     |
|---|-----|
| 5) Class and group activities                       | 10% |
| 6) Assignments                                      | 10% |
| 7) Research and presentation (group and individual) | 30% |
| 8) Test   | 10% |
| 9) Examination                                      | 40% |

### **Required reading**

Glendinning, E.H., & Holmstrom, B. (2005). *Study writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

### **Further reading**

Cottrell, S. (2003). *The study skills handbook*. 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. New York: Palgrave

Fielding, M. (2003). *Effective communication in organisations*. Cape Town: Juta

Mhundwa, P. H., Magogwe, J.M., & Kalane, M. (2008) *Developing communication and study skills*, Gaborone: Collegium Publishers

Reid, J.M. (1988). *The process of communication*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents

van Schalkwyk, H. (2001). *Language communication-English*. Johannesburg: Heinemann

Smalzer, W.R. (2005). *Write to be read*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

### **Faculty of Business**

|                       |   |
|-----------------------|---|
| <b>Course Code:</b>   | <b>COM121</b>   |
| <b>Course Title:</b>  | <b>Communication and Academic Literacy for Business</b> |
| <b>Credits:</b>       | <b>3</b>  |
| <b>Level:</b>         | <b>1</b>  |
| <b>Semester:</b>      | <b>1</b>  |
| <b>Type:</b>          | <b>Compulsory (GEC)</b>                                 |
| <b>Pre-requisite:</b> | <b>None</b>   |
| <b>Co-requisite:</b>  | <b>None</b>   |

### **Rationale**

COM121 seeks to respond to the CSSU Teaching and Learning Philosophy which is based on the principle of self-directed and active learning. This course, therefore, develops communication and academic literacy skills for life-long learning and self directed learners equipped with cognitive skills. It is designed to equip students with skills to apply the basic language skills, speaking, writing, reading and listening in all communication contexts relevant to their specific disciplines

### **Course synopsis**

This course is designed to assist students develop balanced proficiency in the four major communicative skills — listening, reading, speaking, and writing for academic, professional and general purposes.

### **Objectives:**

At the end of the course students should be able to:

10. Apply the basic language skills of speaking, writing, reading and listening in academic communication contexts.
11. Demonstrate application of information literacy in their search for information.
12. Reason cogently in different interactive communication situations;
13. Demonstrate independence and self-directedness in their learning.
14. Produce written texts that are coherent and stylistically appropriate.
15. Use various technological facilities to enhance their learning.
16. Select appropriate media and channels to communicate both written and oral messages.
17. Orally communicate information effectively in appropriate contexts;
18. Demonstrate good interpersonal and cross-cultural skills in various contexts.

### **Teaching methods**

- Lectures
- Discussions
- Simulations
- Case studies
- Group work
- E-learning
- Workshops

### **Required text**

Stanton, N. (2009). *Mastering communication*. London: Macmillan

### **Further reading**

Cottrell, S. (2003). *The study skills handbook*. 2nd edition. London: Macmillan

Evans, D.W. (1990). *People, communication and organisations*. London: Pitman

Mhundwa, P. H., Magogwe, J. M., Kalane, M. (2008). *Developing communication and study skills*. Gaborone: Collegium Publishers

Mutua, R.W. Omulando, S.J. & Otiende, J. E. (1992). *Study and communication skills*. London: Macmillan

Roberts, J. M. (1992). *Effective study skills in English: Maximizing your academic potential*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall

Smith, M. & Smith, G. (1990). *The study skills handbook*. Oxford: Oxford University Press

*Collins concise English dictionary* (1992). 3<sup>rd</sup> edition. Glasgow: HarperCollins

*Longman dictionary of contemporary English* (1995). London: Longman

### **Websites:**

<http://www.monash.edu.au/lls/llonline/reading/effective-reading/index.xml>

<http://hedc.otago.ac.nz/hedc/sld/Study-Guides-and-Resources/Effective-Reading-Strategies>

<http://www.monash.edu.au/lls/llonline/writing/business-economics/index.xml>

<http://home.snu.edu/HCULBERT/listen.htm>

### **ASSESSMENT**

1. Oral and written reports on assigned topics
2. Mini projects
3. Individual and group presentations
4. Class tests
5. Final examinations
6. Case studies

Continuous assessment 70%

Final examination 30%

**Course code:** COM122

**Course title:** Academic and Professional Communication for Business

**Credits:** 3

**Level:** 1

**Semester:** 2

**Type:** Compulsory (GEC)

**Pre-requisite:** None

**Co-requisite:** None

### **Rationale**

Communication skills are necessary for operating effectively in a variety of social organisations. The immediate need for these skills arises as students interact within the different administrative structures of the university as clients; or when they go out to collect research data; or seek holiday employment. The activities in this course are designed to provide students with key life-long interpersonal communication competencies, whether as clients, (would-be) employees, or employers.

### **Course synopsis**

The course is designed to develop the communication skills that the students are expected to use in the profession world or business context. This course provides an introduction to understanding and developing awareness of communication within organisations and to develop effective interpersonal communication skills for professional purposes.

### **Objectives:**

At the end of the course students will be able to:

1. Demonstrate an understanding of how human communication operates in the business context.
2. Identify and use correct methods and channels of communication in business contexts.
3. Write effective letters, memos and reports using appropriate stages and steps for effective business writing.
4. Apply information literacy skills in their search for information
5. Demonstrate awareness of interpersonal and cross-cultural skills in various business contexts
6. Demonstrate awareness of style and tone in all modes of communication.
7. Deliver effective oral presentations.
8. Participate effectively in meetings.
9. Use information technology to enhance communication and research

### **Teaching methods:**

- Lectures
- Discussions
- Simulations
- Case studies
- Group work
- E-Learning
- Workshops

### **Modes of assessment**

7. Oral and written reports on assigned topics
8. Mini projects

9. Individual and group presentations
10. Class tests
11. Final examination

**Continuous assessment: 70%**

**Final Examination: 30%**

### **Required textbook**

Fielding, M. (2003). *Effective communication in organisations*. Cape Town: Juta

### **Further reading**

Bovee, C.L. and Thill, J.V. (2005). *Communication today*. 8<sup>th</sup> edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall

Grant, A. (1997). *Presentation perfect*. London: The Industrial Society

Kupsh, J and Graves, P.R. (1994). *How to create high impact business presentations*. Lincolnwood, IL: NTC Business Books

Mhundwa, P. H., Magogwe, J. M., Kalane, M. (2008). *Developing communication and study skills*. Gaborone: Collegium Publishers

Robbins, P. R. and Hunsaker P.L. (1996). *Training in interpersonal skills: Tips for managing people at work*. 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall

Various web links as per topic

## **Faculty of Engineering and Technology**

**Course code: COM131**

**Course title: Communication and Academic Literacy for Engineering and Technology**

**Credits: 3**

**Level: 1**

**Semester: 1**

**Type: Compulsory (GEC)**

**Pre-requisite: None**

**Co-requisite: None**

## **Rationale**

One of the major problems faced by students who transfer from high school to college or university, particularly students who use English as a second or foreign language, is that they often find themselves without sufficient academic literacy and information skills to enable them to navigate their learning environment more effectively and efficiently. This course provides a bridge by introducing engineering and technology students to the concepts of communication, academic literacy and information skills. It focuses on communication processes, academic literacy skills such as aural and oral skills, reading skills, summarizing and paraphrasing skills and writing skills for engineering and technology. Within these global skills, the course integrates concepts of information organisation, access tools and reference sources.

## **Course synopsis**

The course introduces students to the concept of communication, academic literacy and information skills. It covers different modes of communication, processes and barriers to communication. The literacy and information skills covered in the course are intended to develop self-directed and autonomous learners in areas such as aural and oral skills (e.g. listening, note-taking/making, oral presentations) reading skills (e.g. reading techniques, analytical reading, paraphrasing, summarising) technical writing (e.g. technical texts & reports, style, impersonality, conciseness, in-text citation, use of graphics) and information skills such as organisation of information, information access tools (e.g. indexes, abstracts, bibliographies, library catalogues and web search tools and reference sources (e.g., general and subject specific).

## **Objectives**

By the end of the semester, students should be able to:

1. select an appropriate medium to communicate their ideas
2. develop critical thinking skills in different communication situations
3. apply the academic language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing in communication contexts relevant to the engineering and technology disciplines
4. apply principles of oral communication in both academic and social contexts
5. write academic texts that are fluent, accurate and appropriate to the technical genre
6. use information literacy skills for research
7. use various information access tools for learning
8. use information technology to enhance communication and research

## **Teaching methods**

A variety of instructional methods are used, including the following:

1. Lectures
2. Team teaching
3. Oral and written presentations
4. Group work: pair and small group
5. Reading, paraphrasing & summarising strategies
6. Independent reading & project work
7. Practical and tutorial work on library research
8. Online, internet & e-journal research

### **Assessment**

The course will be assessed using different performance measures, which include, but are not limited to:

1. Oral presentations
2. Written descriptions on assigned topics
3. Mini projects
4. Individual and group presentations
5. Summarising & paraphrasing
6. Class tests
7. Practical library work
8. Final examination

**Continuous Assessment = 70%; Final Examination= 30%**

### **Required textbook**

Silyn-Roberts, H. (2002). *Writing for science: A practical handbook for science, engineering and technology students*. Auckland: Longman

### **Further reading**

Alley, M. (1996). *The craft of scientific writing*. 3<sup>rd</sup> edition. New York: Springer

Bovee, C.L. & Thill, J. V. (2008). *Communication today*. 10<sup>th</sup> edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall

Cottrell, S. (2003). *The study skills handbook*. 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. London: Macmillan

Kirkman, J. (1992). *Good style: Writing for science and technology*. London: Chapman & Hall



Mhundwa, P. H., Magogwe, J. M., Kalane, M. (2008). *Developing communication and study skills*. Gaborone: Collegium Publishers

Wallace, M. J. (1992) *Study skills in English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

|                       |   |
|-----------------------|---|
| <b>Course code:</b>   | <b>COM132</b>   |
| <b>Course title:</b>  | <b>Academic and Professional Communication<br/>(Engineering and Technology)</b> |
| <b>Credits:</b>       | <b>3</b>  |
| <b>Level:</b>         | <b>1</b>  |
| <b>Semester:</b>      | <b>2</b>  |
| <b>Type:</b>          | <b>Compulsory (GEC)</b>   |
| <b>Pre-requisite:</b> | <b>None</b>   |
| <b>Co-requisite:</b>  | <b>None</b>   |

**Rationale:** The course is designed to develop the students' academic and professional communication skills within the context of the specific needs of engineering and technology students. The skills emphasised are those that are intended to enhance life-long academic and professional skills. It focuses on technical writing, such as technical descriptions and reports, investigative projects, research techniques, and written professional communication such as business letters, memoranda, records of meetings, notices and posters. In developing these skills, the use of appropriate language is stressed, such as style, clarity, accuracy, brevity and courtesy.

**Course synopsis:** The course provides an opportunity for students to develop their academic and professional communication proficiencies. The course briefly covers different forms of scientific communication, such as lab/ workshop reports, regular, occasional and commissioned reports and technical research projects. The research projects are primarily intended to introduce the students to research methods specific to their disciplines, e.g. the identification of a research problem, literature review, data collection methods, findings, discussion, conclusions, recommendations and references. The aspect of professional communication deals with business letter writing, memorandums, documents of meetings, notices, posters, computer-mediated communication (internet, sms, email, netiquette) CV and interview skills.

- Objectives:** By the end of the semester students should be able to:
1. produce specific texts that are fluent, accurate and reflect an appropriate style
  2. conduct basic research relevant to their disciplines and report the findings
  3. apply principles of grammatical organisation that characterise the styles of different engineering / technology texts
  4. write appropriate professional letters and documents
  5. apply critical thinking skills in both academic writing and professional communication
  6. use different information technologies to enhance their communication skills
  7. apply information literacy skills in their search for information

**Teaching methods:** A variety of teaching methods are used, such as:

1. lectures
2. group work: pair and small group forums
3. team teaching
4. project work
5. critical & reflective reading
6. practical and tutorial work on library research
7. online, internet & e-journal research

**Assessment:** The course will be assessed using different performance measures which include, but are not limited to:

1. case studies
2. mini-research projects
3. individual oral and group presentations
4. class exercises and tests
5. practical library work
6. portfolio development
7. final examination

Continuous Assessment: 70%; Final Examination: 30%

### **Required textbook**

Fielding, M. (2003) Effective communication in organisations. Cape Town: Juta

### **Further reading**

Alley, M. (1996) *The craft of scientific writing*. 3<sup>rd</sup> edition. New York: Springer

Bovee, C.L. & Thill, J.V. (2008). *Communication today*. 10<sup>th</sup> edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall

Cottrell, S. (2003). *The study skills handbook*. 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. London: Macmillan

Kalu, J. (2002) *Project-writing for higher education*. Gaborone: Karima Publishers

Kirkman, J. (1992). *Good style: Writing for science and technology*. London: Chapman and Hall

Silyn-Roberts, H. (2002). *Writing for science: A practical handbook for science, engineering and technology students*. Auckland: Longman

## Faculty of Science

|                       |  |
|-----------------------|--|
| <b>Course code:</b>   | <b>COM141</b>  |
| <b>Course title:</b>  | <b>Communication and Academic Literacy for Science</b> |
| <b>Credits:</b>       | <b>3</b>   |
| <b>Level:</b>         | <b>1</b>   |
| <b>Semester:</b>      | <b>1</b>   |
| <b>Type:</b>          | <b>Compulsory (GEC)</b>                                |
| <b>Pre-requisite:</b> | <b>None</b>  |
| <b>Co-requisite:</b>  | <b>None</b>  |

**Rationale:** One of the major problems faced by students who make their first move from high school to college or university, particularly students who use English as a second or foreign language, is that they often find themselves without sufficient academic literacy and information skills to enable them to navigate their learning more successfully. This course provides a bridge by introducing science students to the concept of communication as well as academic literacy and information skills. It focuses on communication processes, academic literacy skills such as aural and oral skills, reading skills, summarising skills and writing skills for science and technology. Within these global skills, the course integrates concepts of information organisation, access tools and reference sources.

**Course synopsis:** The course introduces students to the concept of communication, academic literacy and information skills. It cursorily covers different modes of communication, processes and barriers to communication. The literacy and information skills covered in the course are intended to develop self-directed and autonomous learners in areas such as aural and oral skills (e.g., listening, note-taking/making, oral presentations) reading skills (e.g., reading techniques, analytical reading, paraphrasing, summarising) scientific writing (e.g. technical texts & reports, style, impersonality, brevity, in-text citation, use of graphics) and information skills such as organization of information, information access tools (e.g., indexes, abstracts, bibliographies, library catalogues and

web search tools and reference sources (e.g., general and subject specific).

**Objectives:**

By the end of the semester, students should be able to:

- select an appropriate medium to communicate their ideas
- develop critical thinking skills in different communication situations
- apply the academic language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing in communication contexts relevant to the science discipline
- apply principles of oral communication in both academic and social contexts
- write academic texts that are fluent, accurate and appropriate to the scientific genres
- use information literacy skills for research
- use various information access tools for learning
- use information technology to enhance communication and research

**Teaching methods:**  
following:

A variety of instructional methods are used, including the

- Lectures
- Team teaching
- Oral and written presentations
- Group work: pair and small group
- Reading & summarising strategies
- Independent reading & project work
- Practical and tutorial work on library research
- Online, internet & e-journal research

**Assessment:** The course will be assessed using different performance measures, which include, but are not limited to:

- Oral and written reports on assigned topics
- Mini projects
- Individual and group presentations
- Summarising
- Class tests
- Practical library work
- Final examination

**Continuous Assessment =70%; Final Examination=30%**

### **Required textbook**

Silyn-Roberts, H. (2002). *Writing for science: A practical handbook for science, engineering and technology students*. Auckland: Longman

### **Further reading:**

Alley, M. (1996). *The craft of scientific writing*. 3<sup>rd</sup> edition. New York: Springer

Bovee, C.L. & Thill, J. V. (2008). *Communication today*. 10<sup>th</sup> edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall

Cottrell, S. (2003). *The study skills handbook*. 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. London: Macmillan

Kirkman, J. (1992). *Good style: Writing for science and technology*. London: Chapman & Hall

Mhundwa, P. H., Magogwe, J. M., Kalane, M. (2008). *Developing communication and study skills*. Gaborone: Collegium Publishers

|                       |  |
|-----------------------|--|
| <b>Course code:</b>   | <b>COM142</b>  |
| <b>Course title:</b>  | <b>Academic and Professional Communication (Science)</b> |
| <b>Credits:</b>       | <b>3</b>   |
| <b>Level:</b>         | <b>1</b>   |
| <b>Semester:</b>      | <b>2</b>   |
| <b>Type:</b>          | <b>Compulsory (GEC)</b>                                  |
| <b>Pre-requisite:</b> | <b>None</b>  |
| <b>Co-requisite:</b>  | <b>None</b>  |

**Rationale:** The course is designed to develop the students' academic and professional communication skills within the context of the specific needs of science students. The skills emphasised are those that are intended to enhance life-long academic and professional skills. It focuses on scientific academic writing, such as report writing, scientific projects, research techniques, and written professional communication such as business letters, memoranda, records of meetings, notices and posters. In developing these skills, the use of appropriate language is stressed, such as style, clarity, accuracy, brevity and courtesy.

**Course synopsis:** The course provides an opportunity for students to develop their academic and professional communication proficiencies. The course briefly covers different forms of scientific communication, such as lab reports, regular, occasional and commissioned reports and scientific research projects. The research projects are primarily intended to introduce the students to scientific research methods, e.g., the identification of a research problem, literature review, data collection methods, findings, discussion, conclusions and references. The aspect of professional communication deals with business letter writing, memorandums, documents of meetings, notices, posters, computer-mediated communication (internet, sms, email, netiquette) CV and interview skills.

**Objectives:** By the end of the semester students should be able to:

- produce specific texts that are fluent, accurate and reflect an appropriate style
- conduct basic scientific research and report the findings
- apply principles of grammatical organisation that characterise the styles of different scientific texts



- write appropriate professional letters and documents
- apply critical thinking skills in both academic writing and professional communication
- use different information technologies to enhance their communication skills
- apply information literacy skills in their search for information

**Teaching methods:**

A variety of teaching methods are used, such as:

- lectures
- group work: pair and small group forums
- team teaching
- project work
- critical & reflective reading
- practical and tutorial work on library research
- online, internet and e-journal research

**Assessment:**

The course will be assessed using different performance measures, which include, but are not limited to:

- case studies
- projects
- individual oral and group presentations
- class exercises and tests
- practical library work
- portfolio development
- final examination

**Continuous Assessment: 70%; Final Examination: 30%**

**Required textbook**

Silyn-Roberts, H. (2002). *Writing for science: A practical handbook for science, engineering and technology students*. Auckland: Longman

**Further reading:**

Alley, M. (1996). *The craft of scientific writing*. 3<sup>rd</sup> edition. New York: Springer

Bovee, C.L. & Thill, J.V. (2008). *Communication today*. 10<sup>th</sup> edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall

Cottrell, S. (1999). *The study skills handbook*. 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. London: Macmillan

Kirkman, J. (1992). *Good style: Writing for science and technology*. London: Chapman & Hall

Mhundwa, P. H., Magogwe, J. M., Kalane, M. (2008). *Developing communication and study skills*. Gaborone: Collegium Publishers

## **Faculty of Social Sciences**

|                       |  |
|-----------------------|--|
| <b>Course code:</b>   | <b>COM151</b>  |
| <b>Course Title:</b>  | <b>Communication and Academic Literacy for Social Sciences</b> |
| <b>Credits:</b>       | <b>3</b>   |
| <b>Level:</b>         | <b>1</b>   |
| <b>Semester:</b>      | <b>1</b>   |
| <b>Type:</b>          | <b>Compulsory (General Education Course)</b>                   |
| <b>Pre-requisite:</b> | <b>None</b>  |
| <b>Co-requisite:</b>  | <b>None</b>  |

### **Course aims**

The aims of this course cover the broad areas of communication skills, information gathering, and information storage and information communication. The course focuses on the development of communication skills, information-gathering and information-analysis skills. The tasks undertaken during the course aim to promote the process of learning, using appropriate information and communication skills, to facilitate the learning of subject content in students' subject specialisations.

### **Course objectives**

The objectives of this course are such that by the end of the semester students should have developed the following study and communication skills with reference to the study of social sciences.

- The ability to produce written and spoken texts that are critically and logically developed.
- Develop critical thinking skills in the oral and written presentation of academic work.
- Help students develop precise interpretive and investigative skills.
- Help students develop spoken communication skills in the areas of tutorial participation and in giving oral presentations in social science subjects.
- Introduce students to the use of the library as a learning resource and help them to effectively utilise books and other materials relevant to their courses or needs.
- To systematically introduce students to the use of modern learning-based technologies such as
  1. computers
  2. the internet

3. Journals, magazines and periodical literature and other relevant information resources and information access tools such as indexes and abstracts.

### **Course synopsis**

As indicated in the content outlined below, this course focuses on the development of communication skills, information-gathering and information-analysis skills. This is reflected in the effort to integrate the development of communication and information skills in this course.

### **Teaching approaches**

The application of suggested methodologies will vary depending on the teaching learning objectives to be met. Teaching shall be developed under the following general strategies:

- Mini-lectures
- Pair work
- Individual and small group oral presentations
- Project work
- Simulations and role play
- Computer-based learning
- Discussions

### **Modes of assessment**

A. Continuous assessment 70% made up of the following:

- Group project made up of i. written report 20%  
ii. Oral presentation 30%
- Information literacy skills tasks 20%

B. Final examination 30%

### **Recommended reading**

Mhundwa, P.H., Magogwe, J.M. and Kalane, M.S. (2008). *Developing communication and study skills*. Gaborone: Collegium (Pvt) Ltd

Ojo, S.O. et al. (2005). *Computing and information skills fundamentals I*. Lecture notes series. Department of Computer Science, University of Botswana

|                       |  |
|-----------------------|--|
| <b>Course code:</b>   | <b>COM152</b>  |
| <b>Course title:</b>  | <b>Academic and Professional Communication (Social Sciences)</b> |
| <b>Credits:</b>       | <b>3</b>   |
| <b>Level:</b>         | <b>1</b>   |
| <b>Semester:</b>      | <b>2</b>   |
| <b>Type:</b>          | <b>Compulsory (General Education Course)</b>                     |
| <b>Pre-requisite:</b> | <b>None</b>  |
| <b>Co-requisite:</b>  | <b>None</b>  |

### **Course synopsis**

This course introduces students to academic and professional writing. The combination of these disciplines is intended to help students develop skills related to academic writing and professional writing. It provides students the opportunity to express ideas that constitute the core content of their specialist courses. In addition to that, it also helps students read, understand and write professional documents.

### **Rationale**

This course aims to develop and to improve students' written communication skills. The presentation of topics shall be largely task-based and involve information searching strategies such as group research work portfolio management and group as well as individual production of written, academic and professional skills.

### **Course aims**

The general objectives for this course are developed from the course aims stated above. They can be briefly stated as aiming to:

- Help students develop written and spoken texts that are concise, critical, logical and appropriately structured
- Enable students to produce general and subject-specific texts that pay attention to fluency, accuracy and stylistic appropriacy
- Recognise and apply principles of grammatical and essay content that characterises the style(s) of different discourse types
- Recognise and use discourse indicators for various types of texts
- Develop appropriate information literacy skills.

### **Teaching strategies**

The application of suggested methodologies will vary depending on the teaching learning objectives. Teaching shall be developed under the following general strategies:

- Mini-lectures
- Mini-research
- Pair work
- Individual and small group oral presentations
- Project work
- Problem-based learning
- Simulations and role play
- Computer-based learning
- Discussions

### **Modes of assessment**

Continuous assessment 70% made up of the following:

- |  |     |
|--|-----|
| • Group research & presentation  | 30% |
| • Portfolio (Consists of samples of all of the student's work, such as class exercises and notes from group discussions and other activities the lecturer might want to include) | 20% |
| • Information literacy skills project  | 20% |
| Final examination  | 30% |

### **Recommended reading**

Cottrell, S. (2003). *The study skills handbook*. 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. London: Macmillan

Ojo, S.O. et al. (2005). *Computing and information skills fundamentals II*. Lecture notes series. Department of Computer Science, University of Botswana.

## **Post-Year One Courses**

### **Advanced communication skills**

The four courses listed on the following pages contribute to the University's menu of General Education courses. They are all optional courses and are open to any student in their second or subsequent years of study. Students entering the University in the second or third year of their programme and who have been exempted from taking the appropriate first-year courses offered by CSSU may also take these courses.

### **GEC 210: Introduction to legal language**

#### **Objectives**

At the end of the course students should be able to:

1. Identify characteristics of legal language and how to use them in legal texts of their own formation
2. Read and comprehend legal texts
3. Analyse legal texts to determine how they convey meaning
4. Appreciate what makes legal language complex and discuss ways in which it can be simplified.

#### **Topics**

- Definition of legalese vs other varieties such as journalese
- Syntax
- Lexis
- Analysis of legal texts

#### **Modes of learning and teaching**

- Project
- Group work
- Problem-based learning
- Lectures

#### **Modes of assessment**

- Continuous assessment: Two pieces of written work, one oral presentation assignment

- Final examination: A two-hour written examination
- The ratio of CA to the Examination is 50% : 50%

### **Recommended textbooks & reading list**

Bhatia, V.K. (1993) *Analysing genre: Language use in professional settings*. London: Longman

Maley, Y. (1994) *The language of law*. London: Longman

## **GEC 211: Advanced Writing Skills**

### **Objectives**

At the end of the course students should be able to:

1. Recognise and apply linguistic features that characterise various types of written discourse
2. Organise essay content logically in sequentially related paragraphs
3. Use correct and appropriate language for various discourse genres
4. Carefully edit drafts of written discourse.

### **Topics**

- Nature and functions of writing skills in society, business and education
- Pre-writing strategies
- Organisational structure of a written text such as statement of subject, main issue issues, thesis statement, support statements of thesis and cohesion.
- Types of essays
- Editing essay drafts and the production of final drafts.

### **Modes of learning and teaching**

- Project
- Group work
- Problem-based learning
- Lectures

### **Modes of assessment**

| <b>Assessment</b> | <b>Weighting %</b> |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| • Presentations   | 10%                |



- Class exercise 10%
- Reflective essay 20%
- Portfolio 30%
- Researched Essay-individual 30%
- Total CA **100%**

### **Recommended textbooks and reading list**

Dison, L. Stacey, J. Dilley, L. Witz, L. Benade, (1993) *How to write essays*. SACHED/Milller Longman

Rosen, L.J. and Maskew Behrens. (ed) (2000) *The Allyn & Bacon handbook* (4<sup>th</sup> edition). Boston: Allyn & Bacon

## **GEC 212: Advanced Oral Presentation Skills**

### **Objectives**

At the end of the course students should be able to:

1. Appreciate the value of oral communication in society and work situations
2. Develop skills for presenting information to different audiences
3. Develop skills for gathering information relevant to selected topics
4. Develop skills for planning and presenting information orally.

### **Topics**

- Planning the presentation
- Preparing visual aids
- Deciding on presentation strategies (e.g. use of slides, OHP's power point, video, multimedia, posters, radio, tape) and how to use them effectively
- Delivering the presentation

### **Modes of learning and teaching**

- Project
- Group work
- Problem-based learning
- Lectures

### **Modes of assessment**

- Written assignment = 30%
- One minor oral presentation = 20%

- One major oral presentation = 50%

### **Recommended textbooks & reading list**

Pennington, M. (1992) A review of recent research in second language phonology with implications for practice. Hong Kong: City Polytechnic of Hong Kong

Fielding, M. (1993), Effective communication in organisations. Cape Town: Juta

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## **GEC 213: Advanced Communication Skills**

### **Objectives**

At the end of the course students should be able to:

1. Communicate clearly and appropriately in business situations
2. Appreciate the importance of effective communication in business
3. Understand barriers to communication, and how they can be removed
4. Develop a socio-cultural awareness of business transactions within the context of the 'global village'
5. Develop speaking, reading and writing skills related to business communication

### **Topics**

- Human communication
- Communication in organisations
- Intercultural communication
- Speaking skills
- Writing skills
- Reading skills
- Meetings
- Internal documents
- Data gathering

### **Modes of learning and teaching**

- Project
- Group work
- Problem-based learning
- Lectures

### **Modes of assessment**

- Continuous assessment: Two written assignments
- Final examination: A two-hour written examination
- The ratio of CA to the examination is 50% : 50%

### **Recommended textbooks & reading list**

Lahif, J.M. and Penrose, J.M. (1997) *Business communication*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall

Evans, D.W. (1992). *People, communication and organisations*. Cape Town: Juta

Fielding, M. (1993). *Effective communication in organisations*. Cape Town: Juta

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## **ABBREVIATIONS**

|       |  |
|-------|--|
| BGCSE | Botswana General Certificate of Secondary Education  |
| CA    | Conversation Analysis                                |
| CAD   | Centre for Academic Development                      |
| CC    | Communicative Competence                             |
| CSS   | Communication and Study Skills                       |
| CSSU  | Communication and Study Skills Unit                  |
| DA    | Discourse Analysis                                   |
| JC    | Junior Certificate                                   |
| IDRF  | Initiation-Discussion-Response-Feedback              |
| IRF   | Initiation, Response, Feedback                       |
| ORD   | Office of Research and Development                   |
| SCT   | Sociocultural Theory                                 |
| SLA   | Second Language Acquisition                          |
| UB    | University of Botswana                               |
| UBLS  | University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland        |
| UBS   | University of Botswana and Swaziland                 |
| UBBS  | University of Bechuanaland, Basutoland and Swaziland |

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