摘　要

英语教师的课堂教学语言是英语学习者最重要的语言输入媒介之一。国内英语教师课堂教学语言的现状如何，能否为英语学习者提供良好的语言输入是本研究关注的焦点。本研究以高校英语教师为研究对象，以课堂教学语言为切入点，通过对上海某高校五位英语教师的随机听课获得语料，并从类别、词汇、句子和语篇四个方面对他们的教学语言进行了分析。

本研究的发现如下：

1. 在媒介语言的使用上，解释性媒介语言多用于词汇和练习，对课文内容的解释性媒介语言较少。组织课堂教学语言和教师反馈等协调性媒介语言比较单一，常常流于陈规，缺乏新颖的表达。

2. 在词汇层面上，教师的词汇普遍比较简单，高级词汇较少。词汇使用缺乏多样性，新词汇重复频率低。短语动词等地道的英语表达在质和量上都不太尽如人意。

3. 从句子角度看，短句使用频繁。重复、话语标记语、教师自我修复和从句的使用也导致了长句的大量存在，甚至还出现了超长句。教师使用的简单句较多，但复杂句也不少。教师偏爱使用定语从句和状语从句。

4. 从语篇角度看，教师使用话语标记语的种类较为单一。教师往往过多使用某种话语标记语，而且带有明显的个人倾向性。教师也出现了误用话语标记语的现象。

概括而言，本研究中大学英语教师的课堂教学语言还不尽理想，在词汇、句子和语篇等方面还待改善。因此，本研究建议将英语教师课堂教学语言能力的培养纳入教师培训，从而提升英语教师的专业素养。

主题词：课堂教学语言；语言输入；媒介语言；话语标记语

ABSTRACT

The English teachers' classroom instructional language is one of the most important sources of English learners' language input. This study probes into five English teachers' instructional language through the perspectives of the categories of the instructional language, the vocabulary, the sentence and the discourse. The objects included are five non-native English teachers in one of the universities in Shanghai. The research method is mainly data collection and descriptive analysis. The major findings in this study are summarized as follows.

1. The teachers' explanatory medium language figures in more linguistic terms than topical ones, and the coordinative medium language is generally composed of monotonous expressions.

2. The teachers tend to use more basic vocabulary in their instructional language, and the vocabulary use lacks variation. New vocabulary is not frequently recycled. The idiomatic expressions such as phrasal verbs are not sufficiently used.

3. Short sentences prevail in the teachers' instructional language, but prolonged sentences with many repetitions, discourse markers, self-repairs, and dependent clauses are also abundant. Simple sentences are used extensively, but complex sentences with the object clauses and the adverbial clauses also used to a large extent.

4. The teachers overuse and misuse certain discourse markers, and the use of them lacks variation, too. Unusual use of discourse markers also emerges in their instructional language.

To sum up, the study shows in general these teachers' instructional language is not very ideal. The research findings suggest that teachers' instructional language should be included in teacher education, and the above perspectives of analysis could be seriously considered so as to train teachers to provide a rich and effective target language input for learners' acquisition of English.

Key words: instructional language; input; medium language; discourse marker

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Chapter 1   Introduction

1.1 Background and motivation

In accordance with the globalization trend, how to promote English communicative competence has recently become a hot issue throughout the world. Much effort has been made to achieve such a goal either through English status promotion or English educational reform. For an instance, according to Xinhua News Agency (2001), in Mainland China, many elementary schools and high schools have planned experimental bilingual education programs. English classes will be conducted in English only, and some other classes will be gradually turned into an immersion model. Thus, with communicative language teaching well promoted in the English language-teaching circle of China, English is advocated not only as the content of instruction, but also desirably the medium of instruction.

Although the above measures contribute greatly to the promotion of English learning and teaching in China, a formidable barrier that hinders Chinese English learners is the overall English learning environment. Generally speaking, in China till now, English is a foreign language (EFL) because there is little natural use of the language in the surrounding society. A somewhat related matter having to do with setting is that in this paper second language (SL) refers to any language(s) other than one's native language. Therefore, in China, English is also a second language (ESL) in a broad sense. There are several sources of input for Chinese learners of English. From the language learners' perspective, the ideal situation for language learning is one in which there are many fluent speakers of the target language (TL) with whom to interact with. Natural interactions with natives will provide sufficient input and in turn require huge learner output. Yet the opportunity for establishing a close relationship with English-speaking foreigners is still a dream for most of the learners. Consequently, the foreigner in class seems more attainable for English learners with

formal education. However, given the circumstances in China nowadays, the ratio of English-speaking foreigners to the large amount of English learners is inconceivably low. Besides, although the learners' interlanguage can also serve as an input, given the quality of the learners' interlanguage, which situates even more toward the end of native language, we might not regard it as an appropriate input, but at best a source for language practice. Thus, for the majority of Chinese English learners, the non-native English teachers become the most appropriate substitutes for native speakers. The non-native English teachers' classroom instructional language is probably the major source of the comprehensible target language input learners of English in China are likely to receive. The instructional language not only serves as a medium to organize the class and implement teaching plans, but also functions as a model for learners' English acquisition. Then arises the question: what is the Chinese English teachers' instructional language like? Can research findings of teachers' instructional language illuminate teacher education administrators? This particular area has become my focus of the study.

1.2 Purpose of the study

The ultimate objective of research on teachers' instructional language is to identify and describe those characteristics of teacher language in class that lead to efficient learning of English. As careful evaluation of results can lead to well-informed decision making at teacher training, this paper hopes the research findings can empirically support the teacher education programs and serve as reference for teacher educators and teacher training administrators to design teacher education programs.

1.3 Significance of the study

As Chinese learners of English language are seldom able to engage naturally and extensively in the TL environment because they don't live in English-speaking countries but in China where English is still a foreign language, the importance of

studying English teachers' instructional language is self-evident. As Wong-Fillmore (1982) states for non-English speaking students, the language used by teachers serves a double function: it conveys the subject matter to be learned at school, and it provides an important source of the input such students need in order to learn the school language, the potential value of instructional access to SL is even more increasing. In addition, the research findings can hopefully provide practical guidance for the designing of teacher education programs in China.

The structure of this paper is as follows. It begins with a theoretical framework by which teachers' instructional language is taken into consideration. Then, a literary survey of the studies of language teacher education and teachers' instructional language is dealt with. Following that is a brief account of the method of the investigation. Then comes a detailed discussion and analysis of teachers' instructional language through the perspectives of the categories of the instructional language, the vocabulary, the sentence and the discourse. Finally, the implications, suggestions and limitations of the investigation are presented and more researches concerning this issue are invited.

Chapter 2 Theoretical framework

How can language teacher education be made objective and effective? It is perhaps the primary problem that many teacher education programs have confronted with. To answer this question, a specification of a desired product — a competent language teacher should first be arrived at before proceeding to make detailed investigation into the specific teaching performance and to make recommendations for change in the teacher education programs. This chapter will present the theoretical framework for the analysis of teachers' instructional language.

2.1 Components of language teacher competence

There is a vast literature discussing the qualifications of a competent language teacher. Although the sheer number of variables involved in teaching probably means that it is impossible to characterize the good language teacher, most of us will have an opinion as to what constitutes a good language teacher. Mcdonough and Shaw (2003) have listed some qualities for selecting an English teacher:

knowledge of the language system;

good pronunciation;

experience of living in an English-speaking country;

qualifications (perhaps further training taken, or in-service development);

classroom performance;

evidence of being a good colleague;

length of time as a teacher;

ability to write teaching materials;

careful planning of lessons;

same L1 as students, or a sound knowledge of it;

experience of a variety of teaching situations;

personal qualities (outgoing, interested in learners and so on);

publications;

knowledge of learning theories;

wide vocabulary;

ability to manage a team of teachers.

We can note that the qualities listed above include various factors: specific to English language teaching or more generally concerned. Thomas (1987) in a program of training Egyptian teachers of English characterizes language teacher competence (LTC) into two broad categories: pedagogic competence and language competence. Pedagogic competence applies to teachers of any subject, which typically involves the components of management, preparation, teaching and assessment. On the other hand, language competence, since the whole point of teaching a language is to develop the learner's mastery of the language or his or her language competence, and the teacher's role is to cultivate the learner's language competence, is required for language teachers to a greater degree than that expected of their learners. The term used here does not only capture the idea of "linguistic competence" as Chomsky (1957) proposes, but "communicative competence" of Hymes (1972) as well. Language competence can be further divided into two, system/grammar and context/discourse. The former is concerned with the well-formedness of a sentence in a language system and the latter is concerned with the contextual appropriateness of the language use. Within the former, we have the formal component, which may be subdivided into phonological, syntactic and lexical well-formedness and the conceptual component, which we may ask the conceptually well-formedness of a sentence. Within the latter division, we have the functional, stylistic and informational components. Functional appropriacy refers to the appropriate use of functions such as inviting and requesting as proposed by Wilkins (1976: 23). Stylistic appropriacy relates to the appropriacy of the utterance in terms of situational factors, which results in messages expressed in different ways. Informational appropriacy concerns the information structure of the utterances. Matters like "given" and "new" information, and "theme" and "rheme"

proposed by the Prague School and Halliday (1994) are of the major concerns.

For all these characterizations of the language teacher competence, one thing is perhaps clear that all these components of the language teacher competence are expressed mainly by the teachers' instructional language in the classroom. The effective instruction calls for the tactful deployment of all the components listed above. Instructional language constitutes the fundamental language teacher competence yet at the same time embracing all. Adapted from Thomas (1987), Figure1 arrives at the specifications of the language teacher competence.

Language Teacher Competence

Language Competence

Pedagogic Competence

system/grammar   context/discourse

formal   conceptual   functional   stylistic   informational

phonological   syntactic   lexical

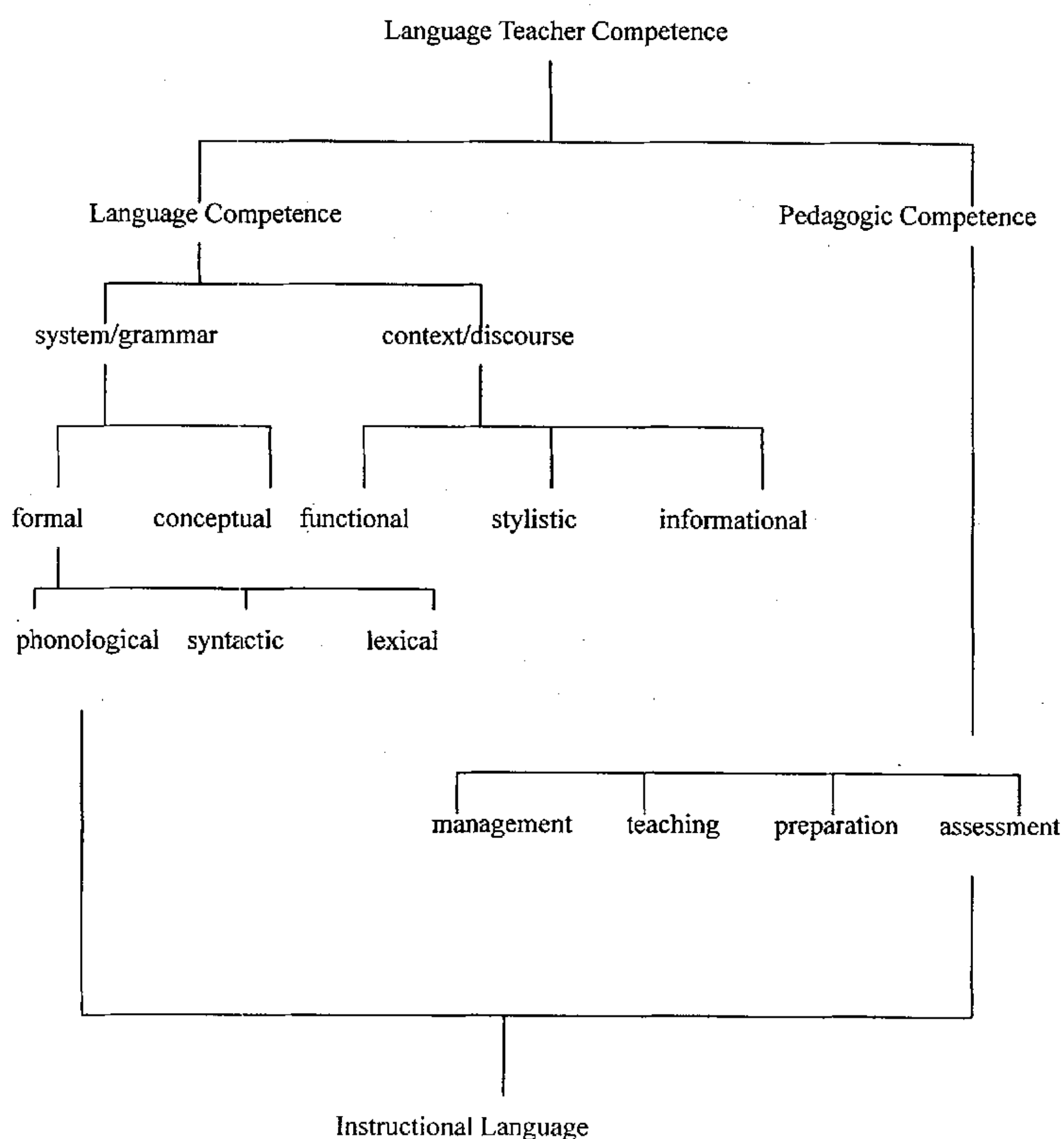management   teaching   preparation   assessment

Instructional Language

Figure 1: Language Teacher Competence

This framework has divided LTC into two aspects: the linguistic and the pedagogic. However, it does not mean that their integration should be ignored in the actual teaching event. In the real language teaching practices, both aspects of LTC are brought into action concurrently and are expressed by teachers' instructional language ultimately. Therefore, these two aspects in turn are built up of distinguishable but intersecting components, intersecting in the sense that any teaching act makes choices from all components simultaneously. However, as this research is a descriptive linguistic analysis of teachers' instructional language, it will inevitably focus more on the language side. By this theoretical framework, the investigation of the instructional language, especially the language competence becomes the focus of our attention.

Chapter 3 Literature review

Two aspects of relevant researches, teacher education and instructional language will be reviewed here.

3. 1 Language teacher education

Of the many who have looked at or taken part in the designing of teacher education programs for teachers of EFL/ESL, none has yet produced a definite answer to the apparently simple question: what should be included in the teacher education programs for EFL/ESL teachers?

Richards (1987: 3) noticed that in second language teaching, teacher education programs typically included a knowledge base, drawn from linguistics and language learning theory, and a practical component, based on language teaching methodology and opportunity for practice teaching. Cullen (1994: 162-163) also made similar claims. He summarized that teacher-training courses in EFL throughout the world usually consisted of a methodology/pedagogical skills component, a linguistic component and a literature component. There may or may not be a language improvement component aiming at improving the general language proficiency of the trainees. However, this component may be specifically linked to the kind of language teachers will need to use in the classroom, for example, organizational speech, explanatory speech, comments, and so on. In addition, it is probably true to say that in most parts of the world where exposure to English is limited and where English is the compulsory foreign language on the school curriculum, the main concern for most teachers is the need to improve their own command of English so that they can use English more confidently in the class. Nevertheless, in most parts of the world the main emphasis in English language teacher education, especially on in-service courses, is on methodology, where the teacher's proficiency in the language itself is largely taken for granted (ibid.). Furthermore, to many teacher education programs in

China, it seems that there is not very sufficient practical evidence to back up how teachers should be really educated. Thus, this aspect of language teacher education needs further exploration so that subjective conjecture replaces no more the objective observation and evaluation of what specific components should be included in the training of Chinese English teachers.

3.2 Instructional language

3.2.1 Definition

There are several terms that are employed by different researchers on different occasions to refer to teachers' instructional language in class: teacher speech in class, teacher talk, teachers' language use in the classroom, etc. The most popular one is teacher talk. Osborne (1999) defines teacher talk as speech, used by teachers, which is characteristically modified in four areas: phonology, lexis (consisting of morphology and vocabulary), syntax, and discourse. Spolsky (2000: 33) defines teacher talk as a special variety (or register) of language especially marked by a special set of vocabulary (technical terminology) associated with a profession or occupation. These two definitions perceive teacher talk as a register of simplified codes. More broad definition of teacher talk is given by Cook (2000: 119) who defines teacher talk as the amount of speech supplied by the teacher rather than the students. Likewise, Chinese scholar Zheng (2002) refers to teacher talk as the use of the language, the target language of the learner, adopted by the teacher. In this paper, teachers' instructional language is defined in the broad sense as the language used in the classroom by the teacher.

3.2.2 Categories

For different purposes, different scholars have different categorizations on teachers' instructional language. According to the functions of teachers' instructional language in the class, Stubbs (1976, cited from Menon, 1993) made the following categorization:

attracting or showing attention;

controlling the amount of speech;

checking or confirming understanding;

summarizing;

defining;

editing;

correcting;

specifying topic.

By the same token, Bowers (1980, cited from Menon, 1993) provided a list of categories as follows:

questioning/eliciting;

responding to students' contribution;

presenting/explaining;

organizing/giving instructions;

evaluating/correcting;

'socializing'/establishing and maintaining classroom rapport.

Stubbs' categories seem to represent many of the main functions of teachers' instructional language, especially during the introduction, presentation and development stages of English language lessons. Bowers' categories are directly derived from foreign language classroom data and are relevant for activity-based lessons. Different from functional categorization, Zhang and Li (1996) put forward a classification of four categories: classroom English, instruction English, teacher-student interaction, and teacher feedback English. In their categorization, the notion of instructional language is different from classroom English that usually refers to the organizational language that teachers use in organizing the whole class. Accordingly, classroom English is only one component of the instructional language.

Cai (2003) also proposes a categorization. Teachers' classroom instructional

language can be divided primarily into two types: the content language (CL) and the medium language (ML). CL refers to the language of the teaching tasks as prescribed in textbooks. Teachers read them aloud in sentence or paragraph order. ML refers to the language that teachers use to paraphrase words or sentences of texts, to illustrate grammar, and to provide further information relating to texts, and so on, so it is explanatory medium language (EML). Nevertheless, ML also stretches to speeches used by teachers for greetings, revision, question delivery, comments, task switching, discipline regulation, homework, etc. Correspondingly, this type of ML for class management is named coordinative medium language (CML).

Comparing the last categorization with the former three, we can find easily the last one provides a more comprehensive categorization, and a more clear distinction between the content language and the medium language, the explanatory medium language and the coordinative medium language. Hence, this paper will adopt the last categorization in analyzing teachers' instructional language.

3.2.3 Research perspectives

Among the vast literature studying teachers' speech in class, the following perspectives are mostly examined.

3.2.3.1 Instructional language as linguistic input

Input has been shown empirically to be crucial for second language learning (Gass & Varonis, 1994; Gass, 1997). A number of researchers (Krashen, 1982; Long, 1983; Wong-Fillmore, 1983) have confirmed some form of the *input hypothesis*, which essentially states that acquisition of a second language depends not only on exposure to the language but also on access to L2 input that is modified in various ways to make it comprehensible. Krashen's input hypothesis claims to explain the relationship between what the learner is exposed to of a language (the input) and language acquisition. It declares that people acquire language best by understanding input that is slightly beyond their current level of competence:

An acquirer can 'move' from stage i (where i is the acquirer's level of competence) to a stage i+1 (where i+1 is the stage immediately following i along some natural order) by understanding language containing i+1. If there is sufficient quantity of comprehensible input, i+1 will usually be provided automatically. Comprehensible input refers to utterances that the learner understands based on the context in which they are used as well as the language in which they are phrased.

(Krashen, 1983: 186)

Besides, Wong-Fillmore (1983: 170) asserted, "ESL is done well when it takes the form of lessons in which the language is both an object of instruction and a medium of communication... the language used in instruction has to be shaped and selected with the learners' abilities in mind". Furthermore, some researchers (Chaudron, 1988; Ellis, 1984; Wong-Fillmore, 1985) stressed that it was crucial for SL and FL teachers to expose learners to as many language functions as possible in the TL. Chaudron (1988: 121) stated that in the typical foreign language classroom, the common belief is that the fullest competence in the TL is achieved by means of the teacher providing a rich TL environment, in which not only instruction and drill are executed in the TL, but also disciplinary and management operations. In this manner, it is crucial to investigate into the teachers' instructional language so as to analyze if teachers have provided the optimal input.

Other studies such as those by Long (1996), Cook (2001) discussed the desirable amount of native language and target language used in the class which is conducive to learners' language acquisition. As language teaching approaches and methods vary in the degree of the importance they assign to the role of NL, the use of NL in different approaches and methods differs greatly. Communicative language teaching (CLT), coming as a reaction to audiolingualism, and based on generative linguistics and the cognitive theory of learning, aims at developing learners' communicative competence. Whenever possible, the TL should be used not only during communicative activities, but also for explaining the activities to the students or for assigning homework. The students learn from the classroom management exchanges, too, and realize that the TL is a vehicle for communication, not just an object to be studied (Larsen-Freeman,

2000). With all the interest, enthusiasm, and acceptance that CLT has so far enjoyed, it is, however, difficult to identify "precisely established teaching procedures to be associated with it... in the conventional sense, even if there are certain methodological guidelines" (Ali, 1978: 6). With such a situation, there is nothing, in principle, to prevent the teacher or the students from making use of the NL as an aid whenever the need arises. Yet as Cook (2000: 131) stated: "Using too much first language for classroom management and instructions deprives the students of genuine examples of target language use. And it also sets a tone for the class that influences much that happens in the L2 activities". Therefore, learners' NL should be judiciously used in the class. A related issue for concern is code switching. Alternating rapidly between two languages in either oral or written expression is known as code switching. Researchers have indicated that code switching can serve as an effective teaching strategy that benefits TL learning. Tikunoff (1983) noted that teachers of limited-English-proficiency students successfully mediated the instruction by alternating between the two languages whenever necessary to ensure clarity of instruction. Garcia (1992) indicated that effective teachers used the TL and the NL in highly communicative ways. He further stated that language switching in contexts was common; however, direct translation from one language to another was rare. Butzkamm (1998) noted that code switching was a quick and effective learning aid since it provided the most immediate and direct access to the FL expression. Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002: 423) found that teachers simplified their speech by code switching to accommodate the learners' proficiency level. They suggested that a few strategic uses of NL such as translation and contrast might introduce input modifications that affect FL learning positively. Hence, it seems necessary to explore code switching in language classroom.

3.2.3.2 Teacher talk as a modified speech

Theoretical attention to input has led to a substantial amount of researches on teacher talk. Studies such as those done by Gaies (1977), Henzl (1979), Long (1983), Long and Sato (1983), Chaudron (1983) showed a range of speech adaptations made by teachers to L2 learners. This language has been treated as a register, which

parallels the foreigner talk.

Chaudron (1988) made an extensive comparison of the results of a large amount of studies on teacher speech modified to L2 learners and offered some typical modifications:

Phonological:

exaggerated articulation

extended pauses

slower rate of speech

less reduction of vowels and consonant clusters

louder delivery

more standard "literary" pronunciation

Lexis:

more basic vocabulary

fewer colloquial expressions

fewer indefinite pronouns

fewer contractions

stylistically neutral

Syntactic:

fewer subordinate clauses

fewer words per clause

shorter length of utterance

higher proportion of simple present tense

higher proportion of well-formed sentences

delivery rate one-half to one-third slower

Discourse:

more first person reference

fewer functions per time unit

more teacher-initiated moves

more conversational frames

more self-repetitions

more verbalization per function

It is of interest to find that teachers' modifications of classroom speech cover virtually all levels of linguistic analysis. It suggests that the speech that teachers use in the class is shorter, simpler, and more carefully pronounced than daily speech. It appears that the adjustments in teacher speech to nonnative-speaking learners serve the temporary purpose of maintaining communication, such as clarifying information and eliciting learners' responses. However, we should note as well that these modifications are tailored to learners' needs for the purpose of aiding classroom communication, which do not necessarily provide learners with optimal language input. Teachers may contrive to communicate at the expense of providing language input which is a little beyond learners' current level whereas necessary for learners' language acquisition. How to balance the modified speech and the authentic language that is supposed to be important source of input creates a dilemma for every language teacher.

3.2.3.3 Communicativeness of teachers' instructional language

Another perspective of studying teacher talk focuses on the degree of communicativeness in classroom interactions. Researches such as those by Nunan (1987), Thornbury (1996) and Cullen (1998) attempted to focus on the characteristics that make such talk communicative. Some of these are as follows (Thornbury, 1996).

The use of referential questions, to which the answers are not prescribed, and the teacher does not know the answers either. Therefore, there is a genuine communicative purpose in asking referential questions. This is in contrast to typical display questions, to which the teacher already has the answers, and is asked simply for the purpose of displaying learners' understanding or knowledge.

Content feedback by the teacher. The teachers' responses to student contributions

focus on the content of what the learners say rather than on the form.

Wait time. Wait time is the time that teachers allow students to answer questions before asking another student, rephrasing the question or answering their questions by themselves. The findings (cited from Nunan, 1991) suggest that when teachers mercifully wait for three or four seconds, not only do more students respond, but also there is an increase in the average length of the response.

3.2.3.4 Quality of teachers' instructional language

A good many Chinese scholars such as Lin Ruchang (1996), Zhao Xiaohong (1998), Guo Baoju (2000), Zhou Xing & Zhou Yun (2002), Chen Weihong (2003) and Cai Longquan (2003) attempted to find out the quality of teachers' instructional language through class observations. Zhao Xiaohong made an analysis of college English teachers' instructional language through four aspects: the quality and quantity of teachers' instructional language; teachers' questioning; teachers' feedback and teachers' explanations. Her findings indicate that teachers do most of the talking, which are caused by the frequent repetitions and digressions from objectives; most of the teachers' questions are display questions; the period of wait time for the majority of teachers is very short; teachers' comments are usually composed of the negative and the positive comments; and finally, there are a lot of explanations concerning vocabulary and grammar instead of the content of the lesson. Influenced by Zhao Xiaohong, Chen Weihong and Guo Baoju conducted researches on English teachers at vocational schools and middle schools respectively, and arrived at similar findings in spite of the different levels of language competence. Besides, currently there appear corpus-based studies of English teachers' instructional language, such as those done by He Anping (2003) and He Baoqing (2003). Based on MSEE, a corpus of 177, 000 words of English class interactions including three types of teachers: prize-winning, average and new teachers, He Baoqing made an analysis of teachers' turn-taking, repetition and paraphrasing, and the use of native language in class. Although the findings are similar with Zhao Xiaohong, the significance of her study is the advanced technology employed in data collecting and processing.

3.3 Further issues

Though the above studies offer insights into the improvement of Chinese English teachers' instructional language, most of the research findings are from researches done abroad, and therefore reflect the instructional language outside China. It seems that little has been said about the instructional language of Chinese English teachers. Among the little literature, most of the studies remain general descriptions about the characteristics of this variety of language. There lacks the specific study of Chinese English teachers' instructional language. Thereupon, this rich source of learners' language input is yet still waiting to be tapped. Therefore, this paper will engage in the exploration of this variety of language so as to provide illuminating information for the education of English teachers in China.

Chapter 4 Method

This study is to explore the instructional language use in the university English classrooms and it attempts to offer guidance for optimal language input for university English teachers. This chapter describes the whole design in detail, which includes the research objects, data collection and analysis.

4.1 Research Objects

The objects of this research are five university teachers in Shanghai, China. They are divided into two groups according to their teaching experience: T1 and T2 are advanced teachers with more than twenty years of teaching experience. T3, T4 and T5 are young teachers with less than five years of teaching experience. With a random sampling, the researcher recorded one lesson of each participant. Thus, the research obtained the data of five classes, each lasting about 40 minutes. Due to random sampling, the class content, the size of the class, and the subjects of the teaching are largely different. Table 1 is a list of the information mentioned above.

Table 1 The information of the classes

	Teacher	Class content	Class size	Subject
Advanced Teachers	T1	Advanced Spoken English	62	First year, graduate of English Education
	T2	Advanced listening and spoken English	56	Third year, English major
Young Teachers	T3	Listening (the intermediate level)	58	Second year, English as second major
	T4	College English	52	First year, Advertisement major
	T5	Writing	54	First year, English as second major

4.2 Data collection and analysis

Beginning at the early March 2004, the researcher began to collect data. With a high quality digital recorder, the sound effect of the recording was excellent. To our joy, the recordings could be stored in the computer so that data transcription became much easier. Meanwhile, the recordings were transcribed in full by research assistants and the researcher, and listened to and checked by the researcher and other teachers. The segmentation of the speech utterance is done by means of intonation contour and pauses. The major method in data analysis is descriptive linguistic analysis. Because of the small-sized sampling, most analysis is done manually by the researcher, except for the measurement of the length of sentence. The instrument employed in the analysis of the length of sentence is named Analysis developed by Prof. Jin Hui in Shanghai Normal University. It is a program to analyze passages. The following information can be achieved after running the program: the number of words; the number of sentences; the mean length of a sentence and the graded sentence length.

Chapter 5 Analysis and discussion

This chapter will present the analysis and discussion of the five teachers' instructional language. The discussion will center on the following four perspectives: the categories of the instructional language, the vocabulary, the sentence and the discourse.

5.1 Categories of the instructional language

In this paper, teachers' instructional language refers to teachers' speech in class. The focus of our investigation is the medium language. The subsequent sections will discuss the teachers' ML use focusing on the organizational speech, the explanatory speech and the speech of comments.

5.1.1 Organizational speech

As pointed out previously, CML stretches to a wide range of use, yet perhaps the most common CML serves to organize the classroom discourse. The organization of the class can be typically divided into three phases: the opening, the transition and the ending of the class. Consider the following sequences of the opening speech:

Example (1a): May I have your attention, please? (T1)

Example (1b): OK, let's start. (T2)

Example (1c): OK, so now, shall we begin? (T3)

Example (1d): So, er, so what I forgot to do last week, erm, so in case I forget it, today, so, first, I'd do it right now. (T4)

Example (1e): OK, sorry, be quiet now. (T5)

T1's opening speech for attracting learners' attention is appropriate and typical in

beginning a lesson. T2, T3 and T5 invariably used the discourse marker *OK* to start the lesson while drawing the learners' attention. T4 began the class with the discourse marker *so*, but the use of *so* here seems abrupt and inappropriate. And T4 seems to stutter even at the very beginning of the class. Unfortunately, however, none of the teachers commence their classes with greetings, a conventional way to begin a lesson. Ranging from "hi", "Nice day, isn't it!" to "good morning", greetings serve to initiate social interactions and maintain classroom rapport. Sincere greetings with smiling faces on the part of teachers might instantly brighten the class and give learners good impressions. Hence, little things such as greetings should be nicely done so as to create a pleasant atmosphere for learning.

As can be noticed, the class-opening speeches by the teachers are rather mechanical. Likewise, teachers conduct the transition and the ending of the class in a similar manner. In examples (2a-2c), T1, T2 and T4 invariably used discourse markers to help mark the boundary of the transition, which is common in the teachers' organization of the class. However, there lies the insufficiency that the discourse markers such as *and, OK* and *so* are sometimes too common to distinctly mark the transition. Topic change markers such as *back to my original point, speaking of X, with regards to*, etc. are rare in the teachers' instructional language.

In example (2d), T2's speech is a typical way to wrap up a class. T4's speech in example (2e), however, is not so typical but still not so rare as some teachers tend to speak some Chinese in the class. Few teachers can bring about vicarious learning and arrive at the end of the class with students still engrossed in his/her talking.

Example (2a): Ok, er, I believe that you have all spent some time on Unit One, the discussion of television. (T1)

Example (2b): So we move to the most difficult one. (T2)

Example (2c): So, then, er, please open your book at page 70 page 70: A Tale of A Culture Translator, 一个文化翻译的一个故事. (T4)

Example (2d): Yeah, all right, see you next week. (T2)

Example (2e): 那么我们今天的话上课就上到这，因为我知道大家都无心恋战。差不多也正好是一节课的时间。(T4)

In brief, the teachers' organizational speech for the opening, the transition and the ending of class appears rather monotonous. Idiomatic organizational utterances such as "let's kick off the lecture" to begin a lesson and "so, let's wrap up the day now" to end a lecture are very rare. It is, therefore, imperative for teachers to escape from the same old classroom routine and have an ingenious way of conducting class.

Apart from the organization of the class, CML for organizing classroom activities also catches our attention. Consider the following examples:

Example (3a): So, divide into group four. Those near, near those like before or, er, at the rower. (T4)

Example (3b): So, sorry, be quiet now. (T5)

In order to carry out the discussion, T4 tried to arrange the whole class into several groups. Apparently, T4's knowledge of English could not supply her with the right direction. Accordingly, her direction is unclear. On the other hand, the problem T5 encountered is concerned with maintaining the classroom discipline. Obviously, T5 was inexperienced when requiring the whole class to quiet down. Why did she have to say "sorry"? Instead of saying "sorry", T5 might say "excuse me" to attract the learners' attention. These two examples suggest that due to the limited knowledge of English and the lack of teaching experience, young teachers are in desperate need of education in terms of how to organize the classroom activities in proper English.

5.1.2 Explanatory speech

It is observed that EML features in linguistic rather than in topical terms. Teachers are inclined to elaborate the details of vocabulary or exercises at the expense of content expansion. A case in point is in Example (4) from T4. Apparently, T4 has made great efforts in introducing the term "joint venture". To illustrate the new term,

first, T4 associated it with the world of experience and stated the popularity of establishing a joint venture. Then, the teacher asked a question concerning the advantages of establishing joint ventures. To elicit the response, T4 presented an example by supposing an American corporation hoping to enter the Chinese market to gain profits. Further, the teacher even translated the above information into Chinese to facilitate comprehension. Frankly, it seems too costly to meticulously explain this not very difficult word. Yet this strategy is a popular one for many Chinese teachers of English in the teaching of vocabulary. After this bombardment of information, teachers move on to the next new word quickly, repeating the same process while leaving learners struggling in digesting the new vocabulary.

Example (4): OK, erm, joint ventures, 合资企业, 对吧, joint ventures. We say nowadays joint ventures is very popular way to expand your business to expand your business. So please what are the advantages of having a joint venture? What are the ad advantages of having a joint venture? So suppose an American corporation, OK, it wanted to open the China market, because it's China is very big huge market, right? So he wants to know if he just wants to make some profits, as it is a huge market. And maybe one way, you know, one probable way is to, you know, to find a partner in China in mainland because it's an, erm, a joint venture can turn underutilized resources into profits, and especially, you know, help those foreigners to enter the market very quickly more quickly, and at less and cost, so at less cost than trying it alone, right? 那么合资企业的话，它是我们现在一个术语就是什么，就是把蛋糕做大，是吗？它是以, er, 把蛋糕做大的这样一个非常便捷的一种方法，它可以把一些潜在的一些资源充分的调用，然后也是占领一个市场那么一种比较好的方法。而且如果发展中国家，发达国家在发展中国家的话，那么它的劳动力那是比较廉价的，

所以它成本也可以降低. Joint venture 那么我们说如果是外商独

资 的 话 那 就 是 exclusively foreign-invested enterprise,

foreign-invested enterprise. (T4)

Another issue for concern is the spontaneity of the EML. It can be asserted that there is more prepared speech than spontaneous one in some teachers' classes. The night before the classes, some teachers may have good preparations for the lessons with the whole pages of the text marked with various colors and notes. Then they memorize the notes till every detail is kept in memory. The next day, some teachers speak them out in the classes, but other teachers just read them directly from the notebooks or from the reference books. This phenomenon is not uncommon in China as many English teachers are burdened with a heavy workload. Thus heavily depended on reference books themselves, teachers are screaming with anger for learners can obtain reference books quite easily. Moreover, even this small proportion of spontaneous speech needs polishing. Spontaneous but not clear, many utterances are heavily broken as the Example (4) suggests. Therefore, how to shine teachers' spontaneous EML should also be taken into consideration when designing teacher education programs.

5.1.3 Speech of comments

Comments are usually given at the third move in "initiation-response-follow-up" exchange structure identified by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) in their well-known analysis of classroom discourse. The most frequent and simplest distinction of follow-up comments or feedback is between the positive and the negative. According to Behaviorist theories (Skinner, 1976), positive feedback is much more effective than negative feedback because positive feedback can reinforce the correct performance, thus through praise, learners are greatly motivated. In addition, to point out the learner's mistake in public is face threatening. Therefore, direct criticism is usually not favored either by teachers or learners. Nevertheless, in the teachers' instructional language, there is a case that negative feedback is given directly. Let's consider the

following extract from T2:

Example (5): T2: How do we know that the customer hasn't been here before?

Learner X: Because he he said his wife, er, had bought this dog, er....

T2: So he said his wife bought the dog, not...

Learner X: Has has bought the dog in this shop.

T2: Uhhuh, so that's why you think this because the man had not been to this shop before.

Learner X: ...

Teacher 2: You are not correct. Your answer is not is not correct for this question.

The teacher pointed out directly that the student was not correct. Even worse was the repetition of the teacher's negative comment. As a result, this particular learner seemed to be very embarrassed by the explicit comment and discouraged to make further contributions. Alternative ways on the part of the teacher could be repetition of the response with a low rising, questioning intonation, or ask the leaner if s/he is sure about the answer so as to implicitly cue the learner that s/he needs to reconsider the question.

Apart from the positive-negative dichotomy of the follow-up comment, another distinction, according to Cullen (2002) concerns the pedagogical roles of the "follow-up" move: an evaluative and a discoursal role. The evaluative function of the follow-up remarks is to provide feedback to learners about their performance. The focus is on the form of the learner's response: whether, for example, the lexical item and the grammatical structure is acceptable or not. The feedback may be an explicit acceptance or rejection of the response (e.g. "Right", "No", "Good") or some other indications. On the other hand, the emphasis of discoursal role is on content. The purpose is to elicit learners' contributions so as to sustain and develop a dialog between the teacher and the class. There is no explicit correction of the form of the

learner's response, although the teacher may give implicit feedback by reformulating the utterance in a linguistically more acceptable form. In our teachers' follow-up moves, it is observed that the evaluative follow-up comments outnumber the discoursal follow-ups. Much of the evaluative feedback provided by teachers often seems to be rather mechanical, yet even this mechanical feedback lacks variation. The teachers' evaluative remarks are governed invariably by monotonous words like "good", "all right", "OK", "right", etc., which actually cuts off their contributions rather than inviting more learners' discussions. Consequently, teachers are suggested to provide a balance between the competing needs for formal feedback and content-based follow-up. If teachers only give evaluative feedback, it impedes the development of a communicative classroom discourse. On the other hand, if teachers only give dicoursal follow-up, they will not necessarily help the learners to notice and repair their errors and fill gaps in their interlanguage (ibid.: 122).

Another issue for consideration is the timing of the comments. Breaking into learners' contributions in an attempt to help learners, teachers actually prevent learners from finishing the speech. Consider the following example:

Example (6): T1: Many TV addicts meaning people who are addicted to TV tend to be lazy, all right, tend to be lazy.

Learner Y: They just, they just follow them.

T1: Well, that's good. Say, ah, I remember a program *English to Girls*, tell the audience how to do this and how to do that how to do that. You can follow the instruction, that' s good for life, OK. So if you if you tell me that viewers are deprived of creativity, what convince what do you mean by that? It's a very vague statement.

Learner Y: Because em... Many many years ago, people write novels or wrote novels, but...

T1: You mean before the appearance of television sets in our homes, many people include people like you wrote novels, oh? Let me tell you maybe, one out of a hundred, maybe one out of a thousand,

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one out of a million can be novelists, OK, not too many people. Instead of saying that people er used to write novels before the appearance of television sets in our homes, please say people tend to be engaged in more meaningful activities, or active activities, dynamic activities, rather than sitting in front of the TV screens passively, right, OK? So old people, people older than I am, tend to doze off before the screen, OK. My mom would usually say to my dad, "You'd better go to bed to sleep." My dad says, "No, I'm watching TV." All right, that's the case.

In this case, the teacher in fact intercepted learner Y although the learner was willing and able to voice his opinion. Even worse is that teachers often appear to dominate learners' answers. Just like the teacher in the above example, instead of asking learners to give responses, teachers instead deprive them of the opportunities to speak. Therefore, it is advisable for teachers to be more patient and be aware of the advantages of wait time in teaching.

It can be argued that the large varieties of class activities prepare a wide range of contextual communication and opportunities for language contact. Further, under registers of age, gender, social status, profession, etc., the variation of ML grows even more abundant. Moreover, with the various content added into, the variation of the target language in class can amount to a conceivably large number. Nonetheless, our investigation finds that teachers' ML is unfortunately very limited. There are not very wide variations in both EML and CML use. As a result, it is hard for teachers to use that rather mechanic instructional language to fan learners' enthusiasm for acquiring new knowledge. Therefore, teachers should be pushed to reconsider their ML use in the process of teaching

5.2 Vocabulary level

Vocabulary is the fundamental component of any language. It is of great

importance in communication because conceptually speaking, it is the tool we use to think and to learn about the world; expressively speaking, it is the medium we use to express ideas and feelings. A robust vocabulary improves all areas of communication — listening, speaking, reading and writing. In the language learning literature, many studies indicate the importance of vocabulary in leading to academic success. Vocabulary size correlates highly with global assessment of writing quality and with general proficiency scores. (Bachman and Palmer, 1996) One estimate of the size of the educated native speaker's vocabulary is in the region of 20,000 word families (Nation and Waring, 1998). The notion of the word family consists of a base word, the inflected forms and transparent derivations of the base word. For example, the word *work* is one word in all its grammatical forms (i.e., works, worked, working, etc.) The concept of word family is therefore nearly all embracing. Then, how much vocabulary does a second language learner need? The study of vocabulary size and text coverage in the Brown corpus (Francis and Kucera, 1982, from Nation and Waring, 1998) reveals that knowing about 2,000 word families gives near to 80% coverage of written text. The significance of this information is that although there are well over 54,000 word families in English, and although educated adult native speakers know around 20,000 of these word families, a much smaller number of words between 3,000 to 5,000 word families is needed to provide a basis for comprehension (ibid.). Usually, learners acquire vocabulary through teachers' explicit teaching. In the limited class time, however, many findings (Henzl, 1973, 1979; Chaudron, 1982) suggest that teachers tend to use a more basic set of vocabulary items in the class. Then, can the vocabulary used in teachers' instructional language provide enough input for learners' vocabulary acquisition especially in EFL context? How large should our teachers' vocabulary size be? Unfortunately, there is no nation-wide standard that prescribes the exact amount of vocabulary an English teacher should have before taking up the teaching post. A useful reference TEM 8 (Test for English Majors) in China requires that a desirable number of 12,000 words should be acquired by English majors till the time they take Band 8 examination. As a popular Chinese saying goes that if teachers want to impart a pail of knowledge to their students, they have to have at least two

pails of knowledge themselves. Consequently, we assume that a university English teacher's size of vocabulary should at least be added half more of that amount, that is in total 18, 000 words. Though the amount is far less compared to an educated native speaker's vocabulary size, the question is whether our teachers really have that amount of vocabulary size and how that affects their classroom instruction. The subsequent sections will explore such an issue.

5.2.1   Amount of TL and NL use

As input has already been shown to be crucial for second language learning, a full (or maximum) amount of TL input in the class has been called for in order to provide necessary and adequate exposure for second language acquisition. Table 2 shows the amount of TL and NL use by the five teachers:

Table 2 The Amount of TL and NL use

Teacher	Total number	Number of TL	Number of NL	TL in use (%)
T1	3159	3136	23	99%
T2	2958	2600	358	88%
T3	2704	2623	81	97%
T4	3191	2506	685	79%
T5	6074	2265	3809	37%

Note: The unit of counting is word.

Table 2 demonstrates the percentage of the TL and NL uttered in a 40-minute class by the five teachers. As a teacher with more than twenty years of teaching experience, T1 used mostly TL to give instructions. If the amount of TL is concerned, T1 definitely provided good TL environment for learners' language acquisition. So did T3. T2 did not show a very high percentage of TL use, though T2 is a teacher with more than twenty years of teaching experience. The classroom observation indicated that students of T2 were extremely passive and unwilling to cooperate, T2 had to shift

to NL sometimes to invite, encourage even push students to speak. As shown in Example (7), in sentence one, T2 laid the question. And then, at the next sentence, she switched to the NL to repeat the question. At the third sentence, she switched to the NL again so as to push her students to speak. Here, T2's code switching motivated students to take part in the discussion. Through code switching, T2 successfully softened her authority as a teacher in the class, thus shortened the psychological distance between the students and herself. As a result, the unwillingness and coldness of the students were melted by the teacher's enthusiasm and the task was successfully completed. This also seems to confirm Turnbull's suggestion (2001) that if teachers use the L1 (NL) judiciously to catalyze the intake process in some way, TL input might become intake more readily. Thus justifies NL use in a TL class.

Example (7): (1) What actually did she did she say? (2) 刚刚她说了一句什么话? (3) Dogs 什么 should be trained? (T2)

However, the situation with T4 and T5 is totally a different picture. Novice teachers T4 and T5's percentages of TL use are not high, especially T5. A novel teacher and the youngest among them, T5's use of NL greatly outnumbers that of TL. T5's NL use ranges from classroom management, comments, giving instructions, checking comprehension to explaining difficult lexical items. The following examples illustrate T5's NL use in various contexts. As shown in Example (8a), T5 used NL in checking attendance. In Example (8b), T5 shifted to NL to make elaborations about the use of "dear" in salutation. Example (8c) indicates T5 used NL to explain the meaning of a new word. Example (8d) shows T5 resorted all to NL for the explanation of the different ways of expression for time in the note.

Example (8a): Molly, 这个来了吧。(T5)

Example (8b): 也就是用汉语说，你写 note 不熟悉的人的时候要用 dear，就是说要稍微正式一点，这个地方不是这样子的。(T5)

Example (8c): Concubine 是嫔妃的意思，这个地方可能就是说是霸王别姬吧. (T5)

Example (8d): (1)英式的话，应该是，就是说这样子了。(2) 就是说，英式的话这个应该是二月一，呃，一月二日。(3) 英式，就是说，把这个，我觉得应该是把月份放在前面，英式的，月份放在前面，然后，把，把时，把 day 放在前面的是美式的。(4)这个，我，具体的我还没有用过，但是我们一般用的都是这样子的，就是说把月份放在前面，用的是这种。(5) 所以不管怎么说，不管哪个是英式，哪个是美式，就是说总归不能用这种方法。(6)不能用上面这种方法，必须用下面的东西写清楚，January 1，或者是 February 2，就是这一点。(T5)

T5's overuse of NL could be caused by her relative incompetence in the target language given her own language proficiency. On the other hand, the administration should share the blame. T5 was assigned to teach writing course, which is a tough pill for the beginning teachers. Thus, impossible to give instructions, provide further information and organize the class in the target language, T5 had to resort to mother tongue to fulfill the teaching tasks.

Nevertheless, if we observe T5's lesson transcript more carefully, we have to admit that much of her NL use is tedious and unnecessary. Occupying large amount of instructional language with NL, which also needs polishing, T5 actually deprived learners of exposure to TL input, hence impeded learners' TL acquisition. We suggest that inexperienced young teachers should improve their own language proficiency and have a maximum amount of TL use in the class.

To sum up, teachers with more teaching experience tend to speak more TL in the class. Factors such as the class content, the scale of difficulty and students' response also show great influence on teachers' choices of instructional language.

5.2.2 Variety of vocabulary

This section examines the variety of the teachers' vocabulary use in the

classroom instruction. The most common measure used in the investigation of vocabulary complexity is the ratio of number of words produced to number of different words (Token-type ratio—the higher the value, the less variety, with 1 as the lowest possible value showing the greatest variety.) Therefore, presumably other things being equal, the larger the type, the more diverse the teacher's vocabulary is. Table 3 presents the teachers' token-type ratios:

Table 3 The teachers' token-type ratios

Teacher	Token	Type	Token-type ratio
T1	3136	620	5.06
T2	2600	337	7.72
T3	2623	412	6.37
T4	2506	468	5.35
T5	2265	368	6.15

The results indicate that T1's vocabulary is the most diverse while T2's vocabulary is the least diverse. These results somehow do not live up to our expectations that the advanced teacher's type should be the highest, the intermediate teacher's in the middle and the novel teacher's the lowest. As indicated by table 3, T2 is largely lagged behind with the highest ratio. A close investigation into T2's instructional language reveals that T2 is inclined to use some frequently used words without resorting to other variations. For instance, the word "think" employed by T2 amounts to 24 times in the class. The following are some typical examples quoted from T2:

Example (9a): And I think it must be Unit Eleven. (T2)

Example (9b): Here, ehm, I think the answer goes to ah, two, picture two, picture four, five, six, nine, and eleven. (T2)

Example (9c): I think it is tins of paint, you know? (T2)

Example (9d): Here, I think the customer refers to the husband, right? (T2)

As we know that "I think" is the expression to give one's opinions and as a hedge, it modulates the propositions they utter. It can make things fuzzy or less fuzzy (Lakoff, 1972). Therefore, in this case, the teacher can well vary her speech by using the similar expressions like I believe, I guess, I'd rather say, I'm inclined to say, I prefer to say, etc. These expressions function in the same way as "I think" does, but provides inevitably more diverse language input. The repetitive use of "I think" is meaningless in terms of students' language acquisition; even the overuse of "I think" decreases the chances of other synonymous expressions to be used. Consequently, it turns into some standing boring idiosyncratic use of teachers' classroom speech.

However, in the instructional language as well as any written or oral English, grammatical inflections such as regular verb tense variants and singular/plural variants appear frequently, which reduce to a certain extent the chances of being diverse. In addition, given the limited number of items of close class words such as preposition and determiners, there inevitably will be a lot of repetitive uses of certain words. Thus it is a myth to reach the lowest ratio 1. Nonetheless, what concerns us here is given the same content, how our teachers can diversify their vocabulary in the classroom instruction. We suggest synonymous replacement as a possible means to diversify teachers' vocabulary. Synonymous replacement is usually adopted to explain some unknown words. It is key to spontaneous encounters with unfamiliar vocabulary. However, it is also a measure largely taken for granted by our teachers to enrich their vocabulary choices. Thus, it should be well advocated for the sake of providing more varied language input for language learners.

5.2.3 Difficulty levels of vocabulary

According to *Lexicon For English Majors — A Supplement To The English Curriculum* (2001), the vocabulary is divided into two levels: the basic level and the advanced level. The basic level is composed of 8000 words and the advanced level 5000 words. With reference to this standard that is somehow the most authoritative

one in China, the teachers' vocabulary difficulty levels are listed as below:

Table 4 The level of vocabulary

	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5
Basic	601	324	394	444	358
Advanced	4	3	4	4	0
Beyond	15	10	14	20	10
Total	620	337	412	468	368

Table 5 The detailed list of the vocabulary of the advanced level and the vocabulary beyond the *Lexicon*

	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5
Advanced level	extremities	easel	flunk	escalate	
	contemplate	ladle	hilarious	multitude	
	outweigh	palette	pervade	pragmatic	
	supplementary		stratum	proposition	
Beyond the *Lexicon*	aha	aha	Britain	aha	addressee
	catastrophic	burgle	Cyprus	behavioral	addresser
	CCTV	em	em	China	Beijing
	er	ehm	er	Confucianism	Chicago
	interlocution	er	ehm	conversational	em
	nonsensical	Oxford	Florida	er	er
	vice versa	stepladder	India	ehm	flora
	Shanghai	uh-huh	paternalistic	em	RSVP
	switch-off	wow	Pygmalion	Japan	uh-huh
	telecast	yeah	Seminole	London	Whitman
	time-waster		stratification	mainly	
	thought-provoking		uh-huh	Paris	

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uh-huh	uninhabited	probable
voluntarily	yeah	roommate
yeah		tasteless
		Thai
		Thailand
		underutilize
		uh-huh
		yeah

As shown in Table 4, all the teachers investigated appear to adjust their instructions with very basic vocabulary choices. In total 620 types of words, T1 used 4 advanced level items and 601 basic level items. In total 337 types of words, T2 used 3 advanced level items and 324 basic level items. T3 used 4 advanced level items and 394 basic level items among altogether 412 types of words. T4 also used 4 advanced level items but 444 basic level items among the total 468 types of words. In T5's total 368 types of words, however, there was no advanced level item but only basic level items that amounted to 358. We assume that hopefully these adjustments are made in order to make the messages clear or to keep the flow of conversation going. However, if we think twice we could well be sure that as learners are university students who have at least received six years of English education, the too basic vocabulary of their teachers seems not at all necessary or appropriate because according to the *High School English Curriculum Criteria* (2003), high school graduates are supposed to grasp about 3000 words and 400-500 idiomatic expressions. Further, a second glance of the advanced level vocabulary reveals the fact that except for T1, most of T2, T3 and T4's advanced vocabulary items are the new or key words from their instructional contents. Finally, a close study of the vocabulary beyond the *Lexicon* shows that most of them are proper nouns and communication signals that are impossible to be covered in the *Lexicon* due to the large amount and wild choices. All things considered, the teachers' vocabulary is indeed very basic and over simplified.

We suggest that teachers build up their vocabulary. Try to adjust their vocabulary to the learners' needs, but not at the expense of providing comprehensible input. On the basis of the basic vocabulary, teachers should try to deliberately insert a bit more difficult new words so as to extend the range of vocabulary difficulties with the consideration of those more capable learners. Try to provide a number of encounters of the new word so that implicitly accelerate vocabulary acquisition. The next subsection will be dedicated to this issue.

5.2.4 Frequency of new vocabulary use

One of the most important aspects of the teacher's vocabulary competence is whether the teacher can in his/her medium language use frequently the new vocabulary that has just been taught. As teachers intentionally use the new word in different activities and circumstances, a more accurate understanding of its meaning and use will develop on the part of students. Further, the theories of human memory suggest that reencountering the new word has another significant reward. According to Baddeley (cited from Sökmen, 1997: 242),

...the act of successfully recalling an item increases the chance that that item will be remembered. This is not simply because it acts as another learning trial, since recalling the item leads to better retention than presenting it again; it appears that the retrieval route to that item is in some way strengthened by being successfully used.

Therefore, it is essential that teachers consciously cue reactivation of the vocabulary in the learning process. Various studies create a range of 5-16 encounters with a word in order for a learner to truly acquire it (Nation, 1990: 43-45). Then, how about this aspect of vocabulary competence of our teachers? The following part will try to answer the question.

What we try to do here is to count the number of new vocabulary used in the teachers' medium language and compare them with the vocabulary lists offered by the textbooks. We will examine T3 and T4's vocabulary use because there are explicit

vocabulary lists in their textbooks. Table 6 and Table 8 list the new vocabulary offered in T3 and T4's textbooks. Table 7 and Table 9 are detailed lists of the vocabulary used by T3 and T4. In altogether 21 new words, only 5 words are used in T3's medium language. In 46 new words and 16 phrases and expressions, T4 also used 5 words in her medium language. The figures suggest that the number of the new vocabulary used by T4 is rather few compared to the total number of new words in the lists. That is to say, there is almost no chance for learners to ever encounter the other new words in the classroom. As a result, learners have to do much self-learning after class so as to acquire new vocabulary if Nation's 5-16 encounters for acquiring a new word is reliable. This somehow creates the thriving industry of reference books on vocabulary study and the popup of various tutoring courses.

Table 6 The new vocabulary offered in T3's Listening class

Section 1		Section 2
stratification	hilarious	flunk
stratum	slang	survive
point to point	pervade	bookkeeping
clan	groom	inferior
paternalistic	stagger	accomplish
immigrant	cottage	foundation
snobbish	uninhibited	nursery

Note: from Lesson 22, *Listen to This*: 2, 1993.

Table 7 The vocabulary used by T3

Vocabulary	Environment	Frequency
1.stratification	(a) And also, er, here some Americans are talking about the classifications of stratification in Britain, OK, in Britain.	3
	(b) Yes, he is an American. So he is of a an American that has he know has he noticed about the classification or stratification in Britain, right.	
	(c) So they are confused about his classification, right, his stratification.	
2.groom	(a) Bride and groom in a wedding. You know what the groom stands for, right?	2
3.accomplish	(a) And also at the same time he is an accomplished sculptor who makes sculptures.	1
4.cottage	(a) Why? Because he live in a cottage, right? And this cottage actually belongs to the lower class.	2
5.snobbish	(a) OK, actually, so the the middle class is snobbish. That's right.	3
	(b) So they are the most snobbish one, and they should be flattery to the to those upper class and they were look down upon to the look down upon those lower classes, right? So they are the most snobbish ones, OK?	

Table 8 The new vocabulary offered in T4's Comprehensive Reading class

New	words	Phrases and expressions
joint	thrive	run into
joint venture	properly	a multitude of/multitudes of
conflict	tatami	due to
multitude	mat	by name
escalate	apparent	get into the habit of
emotional	surpass	come to an end
party	loyally	pick up
exclaim	loyal	be faced with
installation	departure	at times
management	context	keep sb. on the payroll
equipment	horror	somehow or other
qualified	propose	go along with
qualify	approve	the other way around
contract	accountant	thanks to
distrust	personnel	smooth over
represent	justify	leave in sb.' hands
naturally	justification	
nonassertive	payroll	
behavior	sensible	
partner	crazy	
expertise	accompany	
bachelor	ensure	
profitable	viewpoint	

Note: from Unit Three: The Tale of a Cultural Translator, *Twenty-first Century College English*, 2001.

Table 9 The vocabulary used by T4

Vocabulary	Environment	Frequency
1.conflict	(a) The second question is, what conflicts between Tai and American behaviors and values created this problem?	4
	(b) Number two, what conflicts between Thai and American behaviors and value created this problem?	
	(c) So that's the conflict.	
	(d) Why this conflict arise?	
2.behavior	(a) Number two, what conflicts between Thai and American behaviors and value created this problem?	2
	(b) So what do you think an Thai and American cultures and behavior, their value system cause this problem?	
3.joint venture	(a) We say nowadays joint ventures is very popular way to expand your business to expand your business.	4
	(b) So please what are the advantages of having a joint venture?	
	(c) What are the ad advantages of having a joint venture?	
	(d) And this company has just started a joint venture with Japanese firm, right.	
4.run into	(a) "Run into", so actually we have run into this phrase several times in this textbook, right.	5
	(b) Run into, usually we say run into trouble, right, yeah.	
	(c) You will run into trouble if you don't take care.	
5.installation	(a) So, yeah, his job is the installation engineer.	2
	(b) Yeah, so his understanding of the equipment and it's installation and use making him the best qualified employee for the job.	

A closer examination of T3 and T4's instructional language reveals that the occurrences of most new words are associated with the explicit teaching of those new words themselves. Teachers explicate, illustrate, or even translate them into Chinese so as to help learners to grasp them. The explicit teaching of vocabulary seems an indispensable part of the lesson, sometimes even takes up half the lesson time. Learners are exhausted by the bombardment of new words and expressions that can amount to more than 50 items. The learning of new vocabulary is an overwhelming burden, but teachers seem to withdraw and sit back, shifting all the responsibilities to learners.

Despite that, there are still some noticeable merits in T3 and T4's vocabulary use. First, T3 used the new word "stratification" in the introductory remark before the explanation of the vocabulary. Thus, it was the learners' first encounter with the new word. If they were all observant, obviously, T3 aroused the learners' curiosity about the new word. Soon followed the explicit study of the word. Second, as the word "stratification" is an unfamiliar word for the learners, T3 accompanied it with a more familiar word "classification" every time it appeared. This co-occurrence of synonymous words cue learners the meaning of the new word. Third, in environment 2 (a) in Table 7, T3 provided another context wherein different meaning sense of the word "groom" emerged. By doing that, T3 reactivated the word from those whose mental lexicon contained such word. Finally, T4's immediate use of "run into" after the learners' first encounter of this phrase would definitely attract learners' attention and accelerate the learning process.

In contrast with intentional vocabulary teaching, the use of new vocabulary in the medium language appears spontaneous and implicit. Hence, we shall plan this unplanned vocabulary teaching. Though it is a desirable way and definitely conducive to learners' vocabulary acquisition, it is a tough job for English teachers to be competent enough in this aspect because it calls for greater endeavor in lesson preparation. One unit at the university level usually contains more than 30 new words and expressions. The preparation and designing of the explicit teaching of those words might be very time-consuming, not to mention the conscious use and the

circulation of the great number of new words with some intervals.

To sum up, more target language use should be called for in conducting English class, which is yet in need of more variations. This instructional language should be tailored to meet learners' needs. In addition, teachers also need to increase learners' encounters of new vocabulary.

5.2.5 Idiomaticity

Finally, we will investigate the idiomaticity of teachers' instructional language. As we understand, only considering grammaticality is not enough in a qualified teacher's instructional language. Idiomaticity refers to the use of language typical of the natural way in which native speakers use that language. The next section will be devoted to the discussion of phrasal verbs, the use of which is viewed as idiomatic, and a very common phenomenon in the English-speaking countries. According to *Longman Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs* (1983), phrasal verbs are idiomatic combinations of a verb and an adverb or a verb and a preposition (or verb with both of these particles). Usually most of the verbs are common verbs with one or two syllables, and are easily articulated. Once they are collocated with particles, they become a very useful resource. Indeed, phrasal verbs represent a practically limitless group of verbs that can be combined with short adverbs or prepositions to produce new meanings. Here are some examples: give up (=surrender); take off (=leave quickly; fly away); put up with (=tolerate). Phrasal verbs are ubiquitous in all forms of written and spoken modern English, making the ability to understand and produce them a requisite for an adequate command of the English language. Learners of English normally acquire phrasal verbs through teachers' explicit teaching, whereas little attention has been paid to the effect of teachers' phrasal verb use on the learners' acquisition of phrasal verbs. Therefore, we shall go on to examine this component of input in teachers' instructional language. To make a comparison, we randomly refer to the use of phrasal verbs in two popular TV series: *Growing Pains* (Episode 1) and *Friends* (Episode 1). Natural and humorous, the language in the two TV series reflects the authentic English that native speakers use.

Tables 10-16 list the phrasal verbs in five teachers instructions and the two TV series. The sentence on the right is the environment the phrasal verb occurs:

Table 10 The phrasal verbs used by T1

Phrasal verb	Environment
1. make up for	(a) In order to make up for the missing period, I'd like to stay with you a little longer every Friday, OK?
2. print out	(a) I cannot identify you with your names, so I will ask Jenny my secretary to print out your names.
3. tire out	(a) I don't want to tire you out.
4. doze off	(a) So old people, people older than I am, tend to doze off before the screen, OK.
5. come across	(a) Have you ever come across this small item? (b) If, if not let me tell you, I don't know the reason, but anyway I I I came across such kind of item in the newspapers and magazines more than once.
6. turn off	(a) Turn off the TV set.
7. deal with	(a) Benefit us with your personal experience in dealing with your daughter or with a problem of watching TV.

Table 11 The phrasal verbs used by T2

Phrasal verbs	Environment
1. turn out	(a) Because his wife bought a dog which was supposed to be a guard dog, but it turn out turn out to be, not, to be not a guard dog, but you know so that's why he came to complain.
2. go through	(a) And I'm I'm afraid that you didn't go through the question careful enough before you listen.

3. find out	(a) Now I have provide you with the answers to these question, I'd like you to find out the clues as to why we choose A instead of B or C or D, right?
4. show around	(a) And he was showing him around and show him around the flat to see what has been done right to the flat.

Table 12 The phrasal verb used by T3

Phrasal verb	Environment
1. look down upon	(a) So they are the most snobbish one, and they should be flattery to the to those upper class and they were look down upon to the look down upon those lower classes, right?

Table 13 The phrasal verbs used by T4

Phrasal verbs	Environment
1. deal with	(a) So today we just will deal with Unit Three, right, Unit Three.
2. dig out	(a) So, we should dig out those, eh, rooted from those culture differences.
3. give up	(a) But if after you have complained to your roommates about your problem, but she wouldn't give it up, then maybe you can complain to the school authority, right, and try to, ehm, change a room.
4. find out	(a) But later on, he just find out that those potato chips are so so delicious so good.
5. read out	(a) Paragraph one, paragraph one, Mary, read out, paragraph one.
6. turn into	(a) And maybe one way, you know, one probable way is to, you know, to find a partner in China in mainland because it's an, em, a joint venture can turn underutilized resources into profits and especially, you know, help those foreigners to enter the market very

	quickly more quickly, and at less and cost so at less cost than trying it alone, right?
7. run into	(a) "Run into", so actually we have run into this phrase several times in this textbook, right.
	(b) Run into, usually we say run into trouble, right, yeah.
	(c) You will run into trouble if you don't take care.

Table 14 The phrasal verb used by T5

Phrasal verb	Environment
1. come across	(a) 当然这种属于一种特殊状况，所以我的意思就是说 you may come across such kind of phenomenon that or time place first, so that is quite unfamiliar.

Table 15 The phrasal verbs used in *Friends* (Episode 1)

Phrasal verbs	Environment
1. go through	Phoebe: Just, because, I don't want her to go through what I went through with Carl- oh!
2. turn out	Chandler: Finally, I figure I'd better answer it, and it turns out it's my mother, which is very-very weird, because- she never calls me!
3. turn on	Rachel: I realized that I was more turned on by this gravy boat than by Barry!
4. freak out	Rachel: And then I got really freaked out, and that's when it hit me: how much Barry looks like Mr. Potato Head.
5. drift apart	Rachel: So anyway I just didn't know where to go, and I know that you and I have kinda drifted apart, but you're the only person

	I knew who lived here in the city.
6. hit on	Monica: Joey, stop hitting on her! It's her wedding day!
7. ask out	Ross: He finally asked you out?
8. go on	Ross: No, go on!
9. shut up	Monica: Shut up, Joey!
10. head for	Rachel: Well, I was kinda supposed to be headed for Aruba on my honeymoon, so nothing!
11. come over	Ross: Anyway, if you don't feel like being alone tonight, Joey and Chandler are coming over to help me put together my new furniture.
12. put together	Ross: Anyway, if you don't feel like being alone tonight, Joey and Chandler are coming over to help me put together my new furniture.
13. hang out	Rachel: Well actually thanks, but I think I'm just gonna hang out here tonight.
14. catch on	Paul: I guess I should have caught on when she started going to the dentist four and five times a week.
15. cut off	Rachel: Hi, machine cut me off again... anyway... look, look, I know that some girl is going to be incredibly lucky to become Mrs. Barry Finkel, but it isn't me, it's not me.
16. stay out of	Chandler: Stay out of my freezer!
17. walk out on	Paul: Ever since she walked out on me, I, uh...
18. spell out	Monica: What, you wanna spell it out with noodles?
19. get up	Monica: I am just going to get up, go to work and not think about him all day.
20. look for	Ross: I assume we're looking for an answer more sophisticated than 'to get you into bed'.
21. come on	Rachel: Oh God, come on you guys, is this really necessary?
22. live off	Monica: Come on, you can't live off your parents your whole life.

23. end up	Phoebe: And I ended up living with this albino guy who was, like, cleaning windshields outside port authority, and then he killed himself, and then I found aromatherapy.
24. go ahead	Rachel: Go ahead.

Table 16 The phrasal verbs used in *Growing Pains* (Episode 1)

Phrasal verbs	Environment
1. go ahead	Maggie: Go ahead, make my day.
2. come on	Mike: Come on, dad. You can't beat me. You are a liberal humanist.
3. screw up	Ben: That's Phyllis George; she screwed up again.
4. blow up	Ben: And I worry about not being here for Mike, keeping him from accidentally blowing something up.
5. go on	Ben: This goes on.
6. run over	Mike: See the first class, he run over a dog, then grow beautiful after that.
7. go down	Mike: Yeah, so anyway, I was thinking that maybe we can go down tonight and Jerry will drive.
8. get away with	Jason: Well, it just means I don't like you are coming in here and trying to get away with something.
9. take off	Jason: Now you took fifteen years off to raise this family; and you deserve to go back to work now.
10. look for	Jason: No, you must be looking for someone else, because…
11. care for	Police: Hiya! Hope you care for some hot coca.
12. look up	Jason: You've looked up our son.
13. pick up	Police: Oh, yes. We picked up him in a house of sweat parking lot.
14. go for	Jason: And then you weight your chances getting away with it

and if it's better than ten percent, you go for it.

15. go around   Jason: Well, I remember, when I was sixteen somebody go

around everybody one night.

5.2.5.1 Amount of phrasal verbs

The amount and the rate of phrasal verbs in the five teachers and in the two TV

series are listed as follows:

Table 17 The rate of phrasal verb use

Source	Total number of words	Number of phrasal verbs	Word count of phrasal verbs	Rate
T1	3385	7	15	481
T2	3012	4	8	751
T3	2820	1	3	2817
T4	3447	7	14	490
T5	5947	1	2	5945
Friends	3617	24	50	149
Growing Pains	2468	15	31	162

Note: Rate = (Total number of words-word count of phrasal verbs)/ Number of

phrasal verbs

As can be seen from Table 17, the rates of phrasal verbs in *Friends* (Episode 1)

and *Growing Pains* (Episode 1) are rather close: in every 149 words and 162 words

appears one phrasal verb respectively. In contrast, the rates of phrasal verb use by the

five teachers differ sharply. T1 and T4 have higher rates of phrasal verb use, that is, in

every 481 and 490 words occurs one phrasal verb respectively. Whereas T3 and T5's

rates of phrasal verb use are quite low, and extremely low is T5 with only one phrasal

verb in nearly 6000-word classroom discourse since she used much native language in

the class. Besides, there is no distinguishable relatedness of the use of phrasal verbs

with the class types. No matter it is in an advanced speaking class or a writing class, the frequency of phrasal verb use in our teachers is generally low.

5.2.5.2. Quality of phrasal verb use

5.2.5.2.1 Degree of difficulty

One of the implications of Krashen's "i+1" hypothesis is that teachers should adjust their instructional language to the needs of different levels of learners. Do the phrasal verbs used by the teachers meet the needs of university students? In order to find the answer, the researcher has employed *Phrases in High School English* (Zhang, 2003) which is written on the basis of the *High School English Curriculum Criteria* (2003) as a reference for comparison. This book covers all the phrases required by the new curriculum criteria. Here are the results of the comparison:

Table18 The comparison of teachers' phrasal verbs with *the book*

Within the book	Beyond the book
come across (2)	make up for
deal with (2)	doze off
find out　(2)	print out
give away	tire out
give up	dig out
go through	
look down upon	
move on	
read out	
run into	
show around	
turn into	
turn off	
turn out	

Note: '2' means two teachers have used that same phrasal verb.

Table 18 suggests that in all the nineteen types of phrasal verbs, fourteen are within the scope of high school level vocabulary, but only five above that level, which constitute the university level input. Within the former, most of the phrasal verbs such as "deal with" and "find out" are quite commonly used. Learners should have already acquired them before they enter the university. Therefore, these phrasal verbs should be viewed at least as "i+0" or even "i-1" since they do not contain any new input that is slightly above learners' current level and the overuse of this kind of input, at most useful for revision, would deprive learners of opportunities to encounter other new input. The other five phrasal verbs, although above the level of high school vocabulary, do not show a very idiomatic use of English either. The problem lies in the semantic difficulty of these phrasal verbs. It seems that the meanings of most of the phrasal verbs can be derived directly from the verbs or the particles. In this case, the verb retains its basic concrete meaning while the short adverb or preposition maintains a literal meaning, such as "print out" and "dig out". Such combinations are the easiest for language learners to understand and learn. Yet there are very few phrasal verbs the meanings of which are fully idiomatic, that is, no part of the meaning of the combination is predictable from the meanings of the verb and the short adverb or the preposition, such as "come across" (meet or find somebody/something by chance). Such combinations are the most difficult for language learners to understand and learn. Unfortunately, the phrasal verbs used by the teachers are semantically easy. However we attempt, we often fail to reach the level of native speakers' innate idiomatic language use with regard to the large amount of phrasal verbs in English and their semantic difficulties. It is really demanding for second language teachers since they themselves are second language learners. Therefore, we should confirm the positive use of phrasal verbs in our teachers' instructional language.

5.2.5.2.2. Extent of phrasal verb use

Compared with *Friends* (Episode 1) and *Growing Pains* (Episode 1), our teachers can also use the same phrasal verbs correctly. For example, the phrasal verb "turn out" used by T2 and the one used by Chandler in *Friends* (Episode 1) both mean "to happen in a particular way, or to have a particular result, especially one that you did not expect". However, if we examine those different phrasal verbs, we find that the extent of the phrasal verb use by non-native teachers is limited. It seems that on many occasions in the class where phrasal verbs can be used, teachers do not use them or tend to use a single verb instead. For instance, "come on" and "go ahead" are common expressions for encouraging people to do something. Unfortunately, neither has been found in our teachers' instructional language. Similarly, our teachers are practically inclined to "start a lesson" instead of "kick off the lecture"; "time is up now, bye" instead of "so, let's wrap up the day now". In contrast, there is a rich and diverse use of phrasal verbs in *Friends* (Episode 1) and *Growing Pains* (Episode 1). Little as Ben is, he can use "screw up" which is a slang phrase to express the meaning of handling a situation very badly. Perhaps, the innate ability that native speakers have in the use of phrasal verbs is far beyond the reach of non-native English teachers.

To sum up, this section explored the quantity and quality of phrasal verb use of the teachers under investigation. The research findings suggest that our teachers need to use more phrasal verbs in the class, with wider range and more idiomatic use. Meanwhile, the research findings also indicate our teachers' vocabulary use is not very idiomatic with regard to phrasal verb use.

5.3 Sentence level

A sentence is a combination of words that is complete at expressing the thought. Vocabulary and sentences constitute the foundation of a language. Hence, it is necessary to investigate into the sentence use of the teachers. The research will mainly focus on the study of the length of sentence. The length of sentence is of interest to us because previous researches such as Chaudron (1988) reveal that teachers tend to

simplify their classroom speech to enhance comprehension. Is this the same case with our teachers? Furthermore, the length of sentence is closely associated with the simple or complex sentences used. The norm to categorize sentences here is that only and only if the sentence contains a complex, then it is categorized into the group of complex sentence.

5.3.1 Mean length of sentence

As shown in table 19, the mean length of sentence of the teachers studied is 9.35, which is small in number in comparison with the average sentence length of all styles — 17.6 word/sentence (Leech & Short, 1981). The figure indicates that overall the teachers' classroom speech is short.

Table 19 The mean length of sentence

	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5
Total words	3136	2600	2623	2506	2265
Total sentences	315	285	273	236	304
Average sentence length	9.96	9.12	9.61	10.62	7.45
Mean length			9.35		

Note: the mean length of sentence = total words / total sentences

5.3.2 Percentage of short and long sentences

To have a more concrete understanding of the general situations concerning the length of sentence use, the researcher would like to calculate the numbers of short and long sentences. The first thing to do is to establish the scale by which to measure a long sentence. Supposing the average number of words in a sentence plus half of that number becomes the minimal number of words in a long sentence, we arrive at a scale of 14 words as the minimal number of words for a long sentence. Accordingly, as

suggested by Table 20, the average percentage of short sentences is 77% and the average percentage of long sentences is 23%.

Table 20 The percentage of short and long sentences

Teacher	Long sentence (%)		Short sentence (%)	
T1	75	24%	240	76%
T2	62	22%	223	78%
T3	67	25%	206	75%
T4	66	28%	170	72%
T5	49	16%	255	84%
Average	63.8	23%	218.8	77%

5.3.2.1 Short sentences

The figure of 77% suggests that short sentences prevail in teachers' instructional language. Why do short sentences occur so extensively? The major reasons might be the abundance of simple sentences and the modification of teachers' instructional language to meet learners' needs. Teachers' instructional language as a register of simplified speech contains many simple sentences and phrases. Table 21 is a list of the numbers of different types of sentences. As shown in Table 21, the numbers of simple sentences are large. Simple sentence, the most basic type of the sentence structure, contains only one clause. Although simple sentence does not necessarily equal to short sentence, and despite the fact that the subject and the predicate of simple sentence may have modifiers, the extensive use of simple sentence does suggest the shortened sentence use as compared with the sentence containing many dependent clauses. Moreover, there is a tendency for teachers to simplify the speech in class. Examples (10a-c) cite some simplified speeches typical in teachers' instructional language. Yet, teachers' finely tuned speech seems to exist at the expense of flouting grammatical rules. There are a good number of mistakes resulting from this simplification. In Example (11a), the sentence is incomplete for the verb of the

sentence is left out. In Example (11b), the teacher did not use the auxiliary "did" to help make a WH-question. This phenomenon is very common since in their mother tongue Chinese, the fulfillment of WH-questions do not depend on auxiliary verbs.

Example (10a): Why change to "was"? (T1)

Example (10b): Any problem with this one? (T2)

Example (10c): The second one pervade. (T3)

Example (11a): What her way? (T4)

Example (11b): Why this conflict arise? (T4)

Table 21 The number of different types of sentences

Types of Sentences or clauses		T1	T2	T3	T4	T5
	Simple sentence	229	209	221	183	272
Complex sentence	Object clause	31	43	13	23	9
	Attributive clause	17	2	11	3	3
	Adverbial clause	20	14	18	9	15
	Subject clause	1	3	1	0	0
	Predicative clause	3	7	0	9	2
	Compound sentence	14	7	9	9	3

5.3.2.2 Long sentences

Long sentences also appear in a good number in the teachers' instructional language. The average percentage of long sentences is 23%. Interestingly, there even appear super-long sentences. As suggested by Table 22, there are twenty long sentences ranging from 31-40 words and four sentences ranging from 41-50. There are even two super-long sentences ranging from 51-70, which is indeed incredible. There are two types of long sentences: sentences with many repetitions, discourse markers and self-repairs, and sentences with many clauses.

Table 22 The range of sentence

Word range	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5
1—10	198	195	177	135	227
11—20	84	62	74	75	61
21—30	28	20	19	20	12
31—40	3	7	3	4	3
41—50	2	1	0	1	0
51—60	0	0	0	0	1
61—70	0	0	0	1	0

5.3.2.2.1 Long sentences with many repetitions, discourse markers and self-repairs

Teachers make many repetitions in the class. These repetitions range from words, phrases even to sentences. Consider the following examples:

Example (12a): But if if if it doesn't work, then change a room. (T4)

Example (12b): So what's the problem? What's the problem? Mary. (T4)

Example (12c): Because his wife bought a dog which was supposed to be a guard dog, but it turn out turn out to be, not, to be not a guard dog, but you know so that's why he came to complain. (T2)

Example (12d): But you know actually this Frenchman he just want to you know, erm, to make a kind of to embarrass to want to embarrass embarrass the chef. (T4)

Example (12e): Now turn to page two hundred and twenty-two, two hundred and twenty-two, 222 页. (T5)

Example (12f): It is not that my wife was was sure that it was a guard dog but we were assured. (T2)

There could be five major factors that result in the repetitions: first, teachers repeat to attract learners' attention and make emphatic points of the lesson. For instance, in Example (12a), T4 made two repetitions of "if" with the third one stressed, which emphasized if the method did not work, the only choice was to change a room. Second, teachers repeat to check certain information. In example (12b), the teacher's repetition might be a check to make sure if the whole class were clear about the question. Or the teacher might be stuck in the thought or unable to find a suitable expression at that moment, just like the case in example (12c). By the same token, in example (12d), T4 was not sure about what to say after "want to", so she made repetitions. Furthermore, the possibility that teachers repeat to deliberately delay should not be excluded. In example (12e), the teacher repeated the direction of turning to page 222, and even translated the page number into learners' mother tongue. Apparently, the direction was very simple which should not pose any problem for university students. Therefore, teachers might repeat to kill the precious class time. Finally, teachers might unconsciously make repetitions. Like example (12f), the repetition of "was" by T2 is hard to account for.

Besides repetitions, the overuse of discourse markers also causes the extension of the sentences. Discourse markers such as *OK, and, right* and *so* abound in the teachers' instructional language. In Example (13a), *and* used in the utterance functions to hold the floor, which suggests the speaker has more to say. In this way, the utterance is extended, and can be extended endlessly. In Example (13b), the sheer existence of three discourse markers makes the sentence a bit longer. As the findings in Chapter 5 will show that in one single class, the number of certain discourse marker use can amount to more than 90, not to mention a variety of discourse markers used in the class, which all contribute to the prolonged sentences.

Example (13a): Now, I'd like you to listen to the passage and have its topic at the
same time and then try to finish exercise A and B, OK? (T3)
Example (13b): OK, now, erm, D2, would you please check the answer for this?
(T3)

Moreover, teachers make frequent self-repairs in the class, which also prolonged the sentences. Example (14a) shows that the teacher is not sure about how to express the idea. So she made a repair and a repetition. Notice that the teacher used a marker *ah* before the repair, which indicated the hesitation and won the time for thinking for a repair. In Example (14b), the teacher made two self-repairs. It seems that the question is not complex at all, but anyhow the teacher repaired, which certainly prolonged the utterance.

> Example (14a): So all over the world he is popular for that, ah, it is popular for
>   them, ah, it is popular for them. (T3)
>
> Example (14b): And so, what's the mission, what's the mission of George, what's
>   the mission of George to, you know, to go to Japan? (T4)

What is more, it is not uncommon that repetitions, discourse markers and self-repairs occur together in the same sentence. Consider the longest sentence from T4 that contains 62 words. In this example, the teacher repeated "at less cost", used *and* which marks the addition of information, and self-repaired after the hesitation marker *erm*. As a result, the sentence became a super-long sentence of all.

> Example (15): And maybe one way, you know, one probable way is to, you know,
>   to find a partner in China in mainland because it's an, erm, a joint
>   venture can turn underutilized resources into profits and
>   especially, you know, help those foreigners to enter the market
>   very quickly more quickly, and at less, erm, cost so at less cost
>   than trying it alone, right? (T4)

5.3.2.2.2 Long sentences with many dependent clauses

Another major factor that influences the length of a sentence is the use of many complex sentences. A complex sentence contains one independent clause and at least

one dependent clause. It can be asserted that Chinese teachers in general prefer to use clauses, such as the extensive use of the object clause and the adverbial clause. As suggested by Table 21, the object clause is most favored and the adverbial clause comes next. The reason for this preference might be the positive transfer from the mother tongue Chinese to English, because these two types of clauses also exist in Chinese, and they are used very frequently with similar patterns. However, the attributive clause, the subject clause and the predicative clause are used at a low frequency. The reason might be the negative transfer from Chinese to English, since in Chinese the attribute often occurs before the headword whereas in English the attributive clause usually post-modifies the headword. And the similar use of the subject clause and the predicative clause in Chinese is not very frequent too. In addition, it is a common phenomenon that a dependent clause entails several other dependent clauses. In Example (16), the object clause introduced by "tell" entails two adverbial clauses: one introduced by "when" and the other an inverted clause introduced by "as". In that way, the utterance was prolonged.

> Example (16): Let me tell you when I was in Europe, see, er, during the winter vacation, er, well, at least in the evening time, tired as we were, we still enjoy TV programs.

To sum up, generally speaking, due to frequent use of simple sentences and simplified speech, short sentences abound in teachers' instructional language. Nevertheless, different from Chaudron' s findings, long sentences or even super-long sentences also exist in a great number. These long sentences are mainly divided into two types: sentences with many repetitions, discourse markers and self-repairs and sentences with many clauses. Thus, besides the trend of simplification of teachers' instructional language, elaboration also seems popular in English teachers' instructional language in China.

5.4 Discourse level

According to *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics* (2000), "discourse" is a general term for examples of language use, i.e., language that has been produced as the result of an act of communication. The distinction should be drawn between grammar and discourse. Grammar refers to the rules a language uses to form grammatical units such as clause, phrase and sentence, whereas discourse refers to larger grammatical units such as paragraphs, conversations and interviews. Successful communication calls for good discourse competence since discourse concerns the flowing of meaning. Canale and Swain (1980) proposes that discourse competence refers to an aspect of communicative competence which describes the ability to produce unified written or spoken discourse that shows coherence and cohesion and which conforms to the norms of different genres. The question raised here is how competent our teachers are in the art of meaning flowing. As we understand that people use the resources of language to organize the flow. Teachers, likewise, employ many resources to make a meaningful discourse in the class. An interesting phenomenon in teachers' instructional language is an extensive occurrence of a considerable number of discourse markers (DMs). Teachers' DM use should arouse our attention in that the proper use of DM contributes to the coherence of the classroom discourse and learners' comprehension of the lecture. Fraser (1999: 931) refers to DM as a class of lexical expressions drawn primarily from the syntactic classes of conjunctions, adverbs and prepositional phrases. With certain exceptions, they signal a relationship between the interpretation of the segment they introduce, S2, and the prior segment, S1. They have a core meaning, which is procedural, rather than conceptual, and their more specific interpretation is "negotiated" by the context, both linguistic and conceptual. For example, common DMs include *OK, now, right, you know, er, ah, well*, etc. A good command of DMs not only helps us achieve a coherent discourse, but also process the communication more smoothly. Many researches on DM use are done primarily in the speech contexts of interviews and conversations, such as Schiffrin (1987) and Fuller (2003). The present literature suggests the

researches on classroom DM use are, somehow, rare. Therefore, the research question in this part is: how do our teachers use DMs in the class? In Chinese classroom context, will unusual DM use arise? Will teachers overuse or misuse some of the DMs? The following sections will try to make some explorations on the above issues.

5.4.1 Categories of DMs

Liu Bin (2004) provided a tentative classification from both semantic and pragmatic perspectives. Below is his classification:

Table 23 Liu's classification of DMs (Semantic)

Semantic					
Addition	**Temporal or logical sequence**	**Causation**	**Contrast**	**Summary**	**Emphasis**
Words	**Words**	**Words**	**Words**	**Words**	**Words**
and	first	so	but	therefore	indeed
and then	second	thus	still	thus	surely
also	before	hence	however	finally	certainly
moreover	after	because	nevertheless	accordingly	undoubtedly
likewise	later	accordingly	yet	...	truly
furthermore	finally	therefore	notwithstanding		...
...	meanwhile	consequently	conversely		
	...	...	whereas		
			...		
	Phrases	**Phrases**	**Phrases**	**Phrases**	**Phrases**
	at last	as a result	after all	in conclusion	in fact
			on the	as a result	as a matter
			contrary	to sum up	of fact
			even though	in brief	without a
			in contrast	in other	doubt

			on the other hand	words	...
			in spite of	all in all	
			...	...	

Table 24 Liu's classification of DMs (Pragmatic)

Pragmatic				
Hesitation noises	**Fluency fillers**	**Attracting attention, changing the topic**	**Emphasizing a point**	**Ending a conversation**
er	I mean	right	believe me	well
erm	you know	all right	the fact is...	anyhow
uh	you mean	okey	the thing is...	anyway
mm	I know	now	the point is...	...
yes	you see	well	as I say	
yeah	I see	so	as I said	
right	...	well then	as you say	
oh right		oh	as far as I	
...		oh dear	know	
		look	as far as I'm	
		listen	concerned	
		by the way	as far as I can	
		incidentally	see	
		anyway	...	
		anyhow		
		...		

Liu's classification draws our attention in that it is valuable to base the criterion

of classification on both the semantic and pragmatic levels. Thus, DMs such as *well*, *you know*, *oh yeah*, etc., which are omnipresent in the daily communication and serve more pragmatic functions than semantic ones will not be excluded in the classification. Moreover, his classification is more inclusive because it has much room for more DMs to enter into. Finally, his classification takes both written and spoken DMs into consideration. Although the researcher has different opinion on some minor points, such as the inclusions of *the fact is...*, *the thing is...* and *the point is...* as DMs, generally speaking, the researcher is approving of this classification. Therefore, this classification will be adopted to analyze our teachers' instructional language.

The following two tables list the categories of DMs used by all the five teachers. As indicated by the tables, instructional language of these teachers covers DMs indicating addition, temporal or logical sequence, causation and contrast on the semantic level and DMs indicating hesitation noises, attracting attention and changing the topic on the pragmatic level, that is, these DMs are much employed by the teachers to organize their classroom discourse. DMs indicating summary and emphasis on the semantic level and DMs that emphasize a point, end a conversation and DMs of fluency fillers on the pragmatic level are, however, rarely used. In the table of the pragmatic DMs, what is prominent is the rich use of the DMs that function to attract attention and change topics.

Table 25 The DMs used by five teachers (Semantic)

Semantic						
Category \ Teacher	Addition	Temporal or logical sequence	Causation	Contrast	Summary	Emphasis
T1	and; then	firstly	so; because; therefore	but; however; still	therefore	actually
T2	and; also;	first of all;	so;	but		

	and then	before; after	because			
T3	and; also; and then	first; after; before	so; because	but; though; although		actually
T4	and; and then	first; after; before	so; because	but		actually
T5	and; also; then; that is to say	first; second; before	so	but; still		

Table 26 The DMs used by five teachers (Pragmatic)

Pragmatic					
Category \ Teacher	Hesitation noises	Fluency fillers	Attracting attention, changing the topic	Emphasizing a point	Ending a conversation
T1	ah; er; oh; uhhuh; yeah; ah-ha		right; OK; so; all right; now; well; say; see; by the way; oh; anyway		well; anyway
T2	ah; aha; er; erm; oh; uhhuh;	you know	right; OK; so; all right; now; oh		

	yes; mm; yeah; right				
T3	ah; uhhuh; er; right; erm; yeah		right; OK; so; well; now		
T4	ah; er; erm; yeah; mm	you know	right; OK; so; well; now		
T5	ah; er; erm; how to say; oh	you know	right; OK; so; oh; now		

5.4.2 Diversity of DMs

All the five teachers seem to use DMs with little variation. They use almost the same types of DMs in most of the categories. For example, to indicate addition, the largely used DMs are *and, then* and *also,* forgetting other choices like *furthermore, moreover,* etc.; to indicate causation, the most common choices are *so* and *because,* without the employment of other expressions like *consequently, as a result,* etc.; to indicate contrast, the most frequent choice is *but,* with other choices like *conversely, in contrast* left behind. Though these extremely common expressions can serve the purposes, it is not desirable at all with regard to learners' language acquisition. The detrimental effect is that learners with all the time crammed by teachers' repetitive use of these DMs tend to know only these words and use these words as the only resources. Thus, it is very possible for learners to use *and* all the time although the occasion allows other expressions to occur. In addition, all the DMs used by the teachers are virtually single DMs; no phrases are used. Nevertheless, as the definition indicates, DMs are a class of lexical expressions including some phrases. To sum up, the teachers' classroom language does not show a diverse use of DMs.

5.4.3 Overuse of DMs

DMs abound in the teachers' instructional language. With little variation, certain types of DMs occur extensively. The following table indicates the rate of the most frequently used five DMs.

Table 27 The rate of the most frequently used DMs

Teacher	OK	right	so	and
T1	27	3	9	11
T2	9	17	22	27
T3	26	17	26	35
T4	5	13	29	27
T5	2	0.3	3	6

Note: Rate represents the number of tokens per 1000 words.

As can be seen from Table 27, there are sizable differences among the teachers' DM use. It is interesting to notice that most teachers rely heavily on certain DMs except for T5. To be exact, T1 used *OK* at an extremely high rate, 27 times per 1,000 words. T2 used *so* and *and* at a rate of 22 times per 1,000 words and 27 times per 1,000 words respectively. Likewise, T4 also used *so* and *and* at a high rate of 29 times per 1,000 words and 27 times per 1,000 words. T3's instructional language is filled with DMs, using *OK* at a rate of 26 tokens per 1,000 words, *right* at a rate of 17 tokens per 1,000 words, *so* at a rate of 26 tokens per 1,000 words, and *and* at a highest rate of 35 tokens per 1,000 words. This data illuminates that the teachers' strong dependence on certain DMs is idiosyncratic. And, this overuse of DMs might impede learners' comprehension rather than making contributions for comprehension. Section 5.4.5.2 will make some elaborations on this point.

As an exception, T5 is quite unique among them since there are few DMs in her speech. The reason for this phenomenon is possibly that in most of the time T5 speaks her mother tongue Chinese instead of English. With little use of the target language, the chances of using DMs are slim.

5.4.4   Unusual use of DMs

Totally immersed in the Chinese language environment without some chances to dip into the authentic English, it is not surprising that unusual use of DMs emerges in the teachers' classroom discourse. One pattern detected is *how to say*, which might be of very strong Chinese characteristics, because in Chinese some people mark their speeches with "zen me shuo ne" (怎么说呢), the Chinese version of *how to say* for hesitation. The examples are as follows.

Example (17a): Here I would like, er, I'd like to write, how to say, a date on the blackboard, and you guess what's the date. (T5)

Example (17b): Just now I have told you quite, er, how to say, we pay much more attention to the date of the invitation. (T5)

Although it is hard to conclude that T5 in the examples above is just hesitating or faltering as she tries to think of the next phrase, it sounds somewhat non-native to the ear of a native speaker (Natusch, 2005). Natusch holds that very few native speakers employ the phrase *how to say* in speeches of the kind in (17a) and (17b).

All in all, it is possible that unusual or even non-idiomatic DMs emerge in our teachers' instructional language that manifest the way the teachers tend to organize their classroom discourse.

5.4.5   Misuse of DMs

Generally speaking, teachers misuse DMs in the following two fashions.

5.4.5.1 Using DMs that usually do not used together

The first type of mistake commonly committed by teachers is putting two DMs together which usually do not stay together. Consider the following two examples:

Example (19a): All they *although* they despised the upper class, *but* they had to do all these, right, had to do all these. (T3)

Example (19b): *Even though* us we do not we didn't actually know the languages,

Italian, or French, or Germany, *but* I could still enjoy the pictures, right, OK. (T1)

Here, T3 and T1 used *although*, *even though* and *but* together to express concession. However in English, they are normally not used together. *Although* or *even though* alone is enough in expressing concession in the sentence. This grammatical point is usually overtly taught in middle schools, but our teachers err, too. This particular mistake is probably caused by the negative interference of mother tongue, because in Chinese, "sui ran...dan shi..." (虽然......但是......) which indicate the relationship of concession should be used together.

5.4.5.2 Overuse of DMs

The overuse of DMs often results in mistakes. In Example (20), T4 obviously overused *but* and *so*. In the first case, T4 was to introduce the hero of the story, but the use of *but* appeared very inappropriate for the situation did not require a transition. In the second case, the situation did not require a DM indicating causation or one to attract attention or change a topic; therefore, the redundant use of *so* might cause confusion.

Example (20): (1) Maybe potato chip can be called the first dish, the first dish. (2) *But* er, in an American city there is a very famous, you know, cook. (3) And *so* she was he was hired by the most luxurious restaurant in that city, and erm was very famous. (T4)

As a result, learners are very likely to be confused by the misuse of DMs, which might hinder the comprehension of the lecture. Even worse is that if learners imitate teachers' misuse of DMs in the real communication, it might results in communication breakdown.

This section has examined the teachers' DM use in the classroom discourse. The results indicate that generally speaking, the range of our teachers' DM use is not very

wide; there is little variation in teachers' DM use; teachers tend to overuse certain types of DMs; unusual use of DMs also arises in our teachers' classroom discourse and finally, as the saying goes, " To err is human," our teachers also misuse DMs.

Chapter 6 Implications, suggestions and limitations

6.1 Implications

Although this study analyzed the university teachers' classroom instructional language, the research findings may have implications for ESL/EFL teachers in general. Based on the above analysis and discussion, four implications are offered for ESL/EFL teachers, student teachers, and the educational authorities. First of all, the teachers' ML including EML and CML needs to be improved. EML should figure in more topical than linguistic terms, and CML be more ingenious than monotonous expressions. Second, more target language should be used to conduct English class, which is yet in need of more variations. And this instructional language should be tailored to meet learners' needs. Besides taking into consideration the grammaticality of teachers' instructional language, teachers need to be aware of using more idiomatic expressions such as phrasal verbs. Third, teachers are encouraged to use more clear sentences instead of prolonged sentences with many repetitions, discourse markers, self-repairs, and many dependent clauses that are imbedded in the sentences, which tend to break the natural flow of discourse instead of aiding comprehension for learners. Last, but not least, the use of discourse markers also needs improvement. Teachers should avoid overusing and misusing certain discourse markers, and the use of discourse markers should be more diverse. In addition, the negative interference of the mother tongue Chinese in the acquisition of English is present virtually in all levels of teachers' instructional language. Therefore, the issue of eliminating mother tongue interference in teachers' instructional language is urgent as well.

In conclusion, the research findings suggest that the teachers' instructional language is not very ideal, and therefore should be included in teacher education. The above perspectives of analysis and other perspectives concerning teachers' instructional language could be seriously considered and specifically studied in

teacher development. Teachers' instructional language as the manifestation of teacher competence should be highlighted so as to train teachers to provide a rich and effective TL input for learners' acquisition of English.

6.2 Limitations

There are two major limitations in the study. First, the generality of the findings is limited because of the limited size of the sample. Next, the problems resulted from data transcription exist unavoidably no matter how careful the researcher and the research assistant were. Hence, it should be pointed out that our observations are fairly preliminary and should be regarded as such. Therefore, the researcher of the paper warmly welcomes more studies on teachers' instructional language so as to provide substantial evidence for educating qualified English teachers in China.

6.3 Suggestions for further research

Teachers' instructional language is a vast topic. This investigation only tapped the tip of the iceberg. It deserves our further attention and exploration owing to its' significance in enhancing learners' language competence. Here are two suggestions for further study. First, due to the limited time, the data obtained and transcribed in this research is composed of only five university teachers' classroom instructional language. A wider range of participants including middle school or primary school English teachers, or English-speaking teachers teaching in China as a comparison might better reflect the quantity and quality of Chinese English teachers' instructional language. Moreover, a thorough study of such issue should also take into consideration variables such as region, age, etc. Second, each perspective of the analysis in this research has large space to be further explored. For example, in the discourse level, the researcher only touched upon the use of discourse markers in teachers' instructional language, which is, obviously, a minor phenomenon in the classroom discourse. Topics concerning the achievement of the coherence of the classroom discourse like turn-taking are still waiting to be investigated. In addition,

many other perspectives in terms of linguistic analysis such as metaphorical use of the language and the use of hedging in teachers' instructional language also call for exploration.

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