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Giving instructions in ELT lessons

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Z á s a d y p r o v y p r a c o v á n í :

Studentka se ve své diplomové práci bude zabývat problematikou zadávání instrukcí ve výuce anglického jazyka. V teoretické části proto nejprve zpracuje širší východiska pro zvolené téma v rovině obecné teorie pedagogické komunikace, dále se však již zaměří na možné způsoby zadávání instrukcí přímo v hodinách anglického jazyka, provede jejich podrobnou kategorizaci a důkladnou analýzu, aby si tak vytvořila základ pro vlastní výzkumné šetření. Jádrem tohoto výzkumu, jehož výsledky budou prezentovány v praktické části práce, bude vyhodnocení různých typů zadávaných instrukcí z hlediska jejich porozumění žáky. Stěžejní technikou sběru dat zde proto bude strukturované pozorování.

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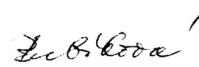
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Abstract:

The main aim of this thesis is to stress the awareness of the importance of providing clear and comprehensible instructions and of their influence on learners' understanding.

The theoretical part, which serves as a basis for the practical part, introduces the concept of communication with the focus on the pedagogical communication that proceeds in English language teaching lessons. It also indicates how the communication and the employment of paralinguistic and extra-linguistic tools influences learners' comprehension of instructions. Furthermore, the theoretical part reminds the principles that should be obeyed when issuing instructions.

The practical part presents a small-scale research and its data that have been evaluated with regards to the theoretical recommendations. Furthermore, it offers learners' perception of clear and comprehensible instructions.

Key words:

English language teaching (ELT), pedagogical communication, verbal communication, non-verbal communication, instructions, learner's comprehension

Abstrakt:

Hlavním cílem této práce je připomenutí důležitosti jasných a srozumitelných instrukcí, i to, jak ovlivňují žákovo porozumění.

Autorka v teoretické části, která slouží jako podklad pro část praktickou, představuje koncept komunikace se zaměřením na pedagogickou komunikaci v hodinách výuky anglického jazyka a naznačuje, jak komunikace a používání verbálních i neverbálních prostředků ovlivňuje porozumění instrukcí žáky. Mimo jiné, autorka se v teoretické části připomíná principy vhodné při zadávání úkolů.

V praktické části pak představuje výzkum a jeho data, která jsou dále vyhodnocena s ohledem na teoretická doporučení. Nadto, autorka předkládá představu žáků na jak vypadá jasná a pochopitelná instrukce.

Klíčová slova:

výuka anglického jazyka, pedagogická komunikace, verbální komunikace, neverbální komunikace, instrukce, zadání, příkaz, porozumění žáky

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1 PREFACE

The teacher's job is first and foremost to ensure that pupils learn.
(Capel, Leask, Turner, 2001: 9)

What is an instruction? Many people would imagine a command to do something. If a teacher were asked, he or she would probably think of his or her lesson and how he or she is explaining a task that needs to be done. And if I were asked, I would not think only of commands or explanations. I believe instructions can be issued in different forms because it is not the form but the transmitted meaning that is important. When an order such as „Open the window!“ is issued, the addresser knows exactly what to do. However if the same person is threateningly asked, „Could you open the window?“ the message is the same, to open the window. Or when a spoiled child is complaining „It is too hot in here and I can't open the window“ the mother understands she is ordered to open the window.

Once I have realized it is not the form but the meaning which carries the direction I was keen to investigate instructions, which are provided in the school environment, especially in English language teaching (ELT) lessons, from two perspectives. I was interested in instructions as such but also in their composition, i.e. how many and what kind of instruction-like utterances are issued within an activity and their impact of learners' comprehension.

Therefore, I decided to explore the theory regarding teaching in an ELT classes with the focus on providing instructions and to find out whether the theory is employed, and to what extent, and how learners comprehend all issued instructions in the lessons.

2 COMMUNICATION

„One cannot not communicate“

Watzlawik at al. (in Mareš, Krivohlavý, 1995: 23)

2.1 INTRODUCTION

There are many different viewpoints at communication. Some authors focus on the process of communication, others on the means through which information is communicated. This chapter, besides offering general thoughts on what can be perceived as communication, will proffer several definitions on communication from both perspectives in order to get closer understanding of communication.

There are many ideas and ways how to describe communication but it differs immensely author from author. The reason is that the meaning of the word communication is „both clear and obscure. [...] It is clear enough in conventional usage, but obscure when we seek to determine the limits of its application.“ (Internet 4: Nilsen in Sereno, Mortensen, 1970: 15)

Nilsen (Internet 4: in Sereno, Mortensen, 1970: 15) notes that everyone can imagine something different under the word communication. For most, it is clear that communication occurs when a message is successfully transmitted and information is mutually understood. But some believe, people communicate even if the message is misunderstood. Others consider any act that influences, even unintentionally, somebody else's perception to be communication. And some pinpoint that even the lack of an act also transmits some kind of a message and therefore they regard it as communication.

Since communication is ubiquitous and hard to define, many definitions exist depending how authors interpret and specify communication, how wide or narrow they determine the borders of communication. They perceive it variously based on the aspect of communication that is of their interest or the problem they approach. Therefore next subchapter will bring closer some different authors' perspectives and their definitions.

2.2 DEFINING COMMUNICATION

Definition provided by authors of Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learner (2002: 277), Miller (1973: 3) or Wrench, Richmond and Gorhan (Internet 8: 2009: 223)

are very general. They basically state that communication begins when one person stimulates the mind of another. Their definitions do not reveal whether the correct comprehension of the message is necessary. Neither they mention whether the message is sent on purpose or unintentionally, or whether it could be the lack of performance that transmits the idea and stimulates the others. Since they do not specifically exclude or include any of foregoing, the author of this paper came to conclusion that any action, or lack of action, conducted by a person and influencing another can communicate a message and therefore, in accordance with broad definitions, it can be called communication. According to these definitions, even messages that are sent unintentionally via lacking any action are part of communication because broad definitions do not contemplate the purpose of the message.

Unlike the broad definitions from previous paragraph, following definitions are further completed. Malamah-Thomas, Pearce, Capel, Strangwick, Whitehead, or Dale also define communication as a process of mutual sharing of information. But they further stress some aspect of communication. Dale underlines „the mood of mutuality“ (Internet 7: in Wisely, 1994: 86), Pearce (1989: 11) emphasizes the need of understanding on the side of audience, Malamah-Thomas (1988: 12) highlights that communication can occur only when there is an intention to transfer a message, while Capel, Strangwick, Whitehead (2001: 89) pinpoint that communication is a two-way process.

Also foregoing definitions concentrated on communication to be an act or a way to transmit information. Nonetheless, other authors focus on emphasizing the systems or codes through which communication can proceed.

For example, Wiener et al., Berelson and Steiner agree that communication is a process of transmission of information but they add the means via the message is transferred. Wiener et al. (Internet 5: in Siegman, Feldstein, 1978: 3) claim it is „by means of a shared code“ while Berelson, Steiner (Internet 7: in Wisely, 1994: 86) are more concrete and assert it is „by the use of symbols - words, figures, graphs, etc.“ the idea is communicated and communication occurs.

When talking about a shared system or a code, it is important to mention that communication in ELT lessons can be hampered since not all participants are equally familiarised with it. The shared system used in the lesson, at least partially, is the target

language (English) and while ELT teachers usually master the target language well, the learners may not, depending on the level of their English.

The author of this thesis favours Wiener et al.'s definition that „communication implies that one person (an encoder) is actively making his experience known to some other person (a decoder) by means of a shared code. (Internet 5: in Siegman, Feldstein, 1978: 3) which excludes non-intentional lack of the act influencing the communication but it includes intentional acts and messages while not speaking about correct comprehension of the message on the side of the receiver.

2.3 SUMMARY

To conclude, to agree on one definition of communication proves to be difficult since communication is a very complex process and authors differ in the interpretation what communication is. Some authors focus on the act of communication and define it as an interaction between two or more individuals. Others, apart from above mentioned, stress the fact communication could proceed only via some kind of shared symbols or a code. And some authors emphasise the importance of mutual understanding of the transmitted information, while others do not. The author of this paper perceives the importance of shared symbols as well worth to be mentioned and therefore tend inclined to the definition of Wiener et al.

So far the general view at communication has been covered. Nevertheless, there are many different types of communication and it is not purpose of this thesis to cover them all so only some will be further analyzed. Communication can be, for example, divided according to the area in which context the communication proceeds such as social or pedagogical communication or according to how the information is transmitted, e.g. through verbal or non-verbal communication.

3 SOCIAL AND PEDAGOGICAL COMMUNICATION

Communication between humans is an extremely complex and ever-changing phenomenon.“ (Harmer, 1992: 46)

3.1 INTRODUCTION

As stated in previous chapter this paper deals with communication with the intent to purposely send messages by means of a shared code and so influence another person. Yet, there are still many perspectives how to further classify it. Some authors split it according to means through which information is conveyed such as verbal and non-verbal communication or such as radio or computer communication. Others divide it according to way through which organ the information is received, such as auditory or visual communication. And some according to the content that is being communicated, such as technical or social, or situations in which it is used, e.g. social or pedagogical communication. And there are plenty more ways how to distinguish it. Yet, since the topic of the paper is giving instructions in ELT lessons, only communication connected to pedagogical processes, i.e. social and pedagogical communication will be described in more details in following subchapters.

3.2 SOCIAL COMMUNICATION

As mentioned above the communication can be sorted in many ways. One view how to divide communication is according to the content that is being communicated, the environment in which the communication is employed, and participants that are involved in.

Some definitions describe social communication as a field of study „that mainly explores the ways information can be perceived, transmitted and understood, and the impact those ways will have on a society“ (Internet 1) while others specify the social communication as such and perceive it through its aspects. E.g. Průcha (2009: 89) claims that every process of social communication is undertaken in certain context, should fulfil some function and involves two or more participants that use specific tools to achieve certain effect.

Bednaříková (2006: 13) and Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 15) concur social communication, in the strict sense, means to exchange information from one person to another, in the broader sense, to exchange information including ideas, feeling, attitudes etc. and so to act socially. Besides, Bednaříková (2006: 13) stresses the fact the way of transmission of information is not significant while understanding, communicating and establishing link is.

Furthermore, Bednaříková (2006: 13), Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 15) or Průcha, Mareš, Walterová (2003: 104) define social communication as a process that comprises three basic elements of a social contact¹, i.e. collective activities, reciprocal interaction and interpersonal relationships.

Moreover, social communication is, according to Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 14) or Prokešová (in Kalhous, Obst, 2002: 251), also influenced by social perception. By the term social perception they mean viewing any partner or partners by any participant of the communication including oneself. In pedagogical situations it is the teacher's, learners or e.g. director's perception of others as much as the perception of oneself within the social group. They further remind the perception is very individual and is influenced by many factors such as participants' prejudices, their ability of compassion or, e.g., their antipathy towards other participants of communication. Therefore in social communication the message is composed not only of words but also of speaker's hidden motives, ideas, indicating attitudes and/or expectations.

Since the terms social contact and social perception have been explained, the author will move to constituent elements of any communication. According to Průcha, Mareš, Walterová (2003: 104) every act of social communication includes a speaker, an intention of communication, a formulation of a message, a message itself, a listener, a listener's interpretation of the message and of speaker's intention and, finally, a listener's reaction. Hence these terms are to be briefly described.

As Průcha (2009: 89) or Malamah-Thomas remark „communication implies more than one person“ (1988: 12). One of the communicators, i.e. participants of the communication, is a sender, a speaker or a writer, who transmits a message while the other is a receiver, a listener or a reader, who receives the message.

¹ For more information on social contact, consult Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 12-14)

Apart from participants, Průcha (2009: 89), Harmer (1992: 46) or Malamah-Thomas claim „communication is undertaken for a purpose.“ (Malamah-Thomas, 1988: 14). In other words, the speaker has some intention why he or she wants to communicate. According to Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 16) or Bednaříková (2006: 13-14), the sender desires to communicate some information, to express one's own feelings, attitudes or wishes or to explain the meaning of the message.

When having an intention to communicate, the sender must formulate a message and transmit it to a receiver. The message itself can be expressed verbally, non-verbally or via action which is further exploited in chapter 4.

However, „having something to communicate is not the same thing as actually communicating it.“ (Malamah-Thomas, 1988: 10) According to Harmer (1992: 46) the important part of communication is to fulfil its communicative purpose that means the receiver should understand the meaning of the message. To achieve it, the sender should follow Grice's cooperative principle and its maxims, which are described in connection to giving instructions in chapter 5.3.

Even if senders follows all principles, listener's interpretation of a message and of a speaker's intention may differ from the message and the intention meant by the speaker. As Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 15-16) explain people may not interpret information in the same way though the code, the words used in the speech, is comprehensible to all participants. Harmer (1992: 47) pinpoints the reason may be speakers did not choose appropriate language with regards to listeners' language. Moreover, Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 15-16) note there are several other reasons for possible misunderstanding. At first, speakers send not only simple information but they also project their inner motivation into the message such as trying to influence listeners, showing their attitudes or conveying their opinions which may hinder the decoding. Besides, often the hearers expect to receive some kind of information and they compare the message with their expectations instead of accepting it as it is or they absorb only some information while leaving subconsciously others out because of their inner motivation, which, again, complicates the decoding.

Last not least to mention is the listener's response or listener's feedback that influences the communication significantly. Gavora (2005: 12) and Nelešovská (2005: 27) explain

that without the listener's response the speaker does not know whether the information was transmitted and comprehended or not.

Hitherto social communication in general and its elements has been covered. The next subchapter will focus on communication applied mainly in the school environment, specifically on communication between teachers and learners and its particularities.

3.3 PEDAGOGICAL COMMUNICATION

If social communication is to be subdivided on the basis of the content of its application, then pedagogical communication constitutes one specific type of communication. Similarly as in previous chapters several definitions from different authors are offered.

Gavora (2005: 25) focuses on the communication in pedagogical processes and defines it as a basic tool for realization of education. He stresses the fact education without communication cannot be realized because the content, and, vicariously, educational goals, methods and forms are realized through communication. Průcha (2009: 189) and Gavora (2005: 25) claim communication is carried out as a sequence of communicative activities, situations and acts between a teacher and learners and learners themselves.

According to Moslerová (2004: 12), Gavora (in Nelešovská, 2005: 26) or Průcha (2009: 189) pedagogical communication can be defined as an exchange of information between participants of educational goals with its own specific rules and pre-defined participants' competences. While Malamah-Thomas (1988, 14-15) emphasizes that the primary purpose of pedagogical communication carried in a classroom is the pedagogic one. She, similarly as Průcha (2009: 189) or Leont'jev (in Nelešovská, 2005: 26), is aware that pedagogical communication has not only a pedagogical function but other functions, such as classroom organization and administration or establishing rapport, creating and sustaining personal relationship and sharing information which are not related to the teaching aim but which creates a psychosocial climate in the classroom as much as it is influenced by it.

Průcha (2009: 189) further remarks that the pedagogical communication typically takes place in school classrooms between teachers and learners via verbal and non-verbal expressions and is moderated by a teacher. Nonetheless, same as Leont'jev (in

Nelešovská, 2005: 26) or Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 24) Průcha reminds pedagogical communication can take place not only during a lesson but also outside the lesson provided that it has got some pedagogical functions, e.g. in families, interest groups or e.g. trainings.

Though the pedagogical communication can be used outside the classroom, the author will concentrate on the communication that proceeds in the school environment with the focus on specifics of the communication undertaken in a language classroom.

3.4 PEDAGOGICAL COMMUNICATION IN A CLASSROOM

Malamah-Thomas claims that the pedagogic purpose of the classroom communication makes it different to the other social situations. What makes it different is the fact that „the classroom exists so that students can learn, and the main focus of most classroom communication is a pedagogic one.“ (Malamah-Thomas, 1988: 17) Since the term pedagogical communication in a classroom can be described from many points of view, only those relevant to the topic of the paper, such as participants, their relations, teachers' roles, different organizational forms, and the use of a language are studied in the following subchapters.

3.4.1 PARTICIPANTS AND THEIR RELATIONS

Moslerová (2004: 13) and Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 27) divide participants of a pedagogical communication into two groups - those, who are being educated, learners, and those who educate others, teachers. Yet, they state, there are other participants who can be placed in the second group such as parents, instructors or even learners who teach or lead other learners. Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 27) also mention a situation when the one who is being educated is also the one who is educating, which is the case of a self-education.

Nonetheless, the focus of this chapter is on the communication in the classroom and so definitions provided by Nelešovská (2005: 26-27), Gavora (2005: 26-27) or Malamah-Thomas (1988: 12-13) are more precise. They perceive a group of teachers and a group of learners. In the school environment there is a teacher on one side and learners on the other. The teacher is usually a single adult who teaches a group of learners. On the other side is a classroom full of, usually, young learners who are taught by the teacher.

The relation between these two sides is not only socially but also quantitatively asymmetrical².

However, Malamah-Thomas (1988: 12-13), Gavora (2005: 30) or Nelešovská (2005: 26-27) also add that not only the teacher and learners are involved in pedagogical communication in the classroom. If the teacher follows a textbook, uses a CD or a video, then the textbook writers or material authors participate in the communication, though communicating indirectly. Therefore teachers, learners and material authors are the participants in classroom interaction.

Yet, if only the communication between participants present in the classroom is to be pondered, several channels of the communication can be noted. According to Nelešovská (2005: 29) or Gavora (2005: 26-27) the communication can include the teacher who communicates with a learner, with a whole class or with a group of learners and vice versa. The communication could also advance between a learner and a class, a learner and a group of learners or a learner and another learner or it could be a group of learners that communicates with another group of learners or with the whole class. Yet, only communication that can arise between the teacher and the learner or learners is going to be further exploited in the practical part.

Other aspect that influences the way how the teacher communicates is the role he or she adopts during the lesson.

3.4.2 THE ROLE OF A TEACHER IN THE CLASSROOM COMMUNICATION

The roles of a teacher are to be explored since they also influence the teacher-learner communication. Unlike teacher's style³ the roles are alternated a lot in variation with e.g. the task or situations, and influence the number of verbal and non-verbal messages transmitted in a lesson immensely. Nonetheless, there is no unified classification of the teachers' roles since authors distinguish them in different points of view and/or label them variously. E.g. Wright and Littlewood (1991: 92-93) agree on two major roles of the teacher in a classroom, i.e. a manager who must „create conditions under which learning can take place“ (Wright, 1987: 51) and an instructor who shall „impart [...]

² To find out more, read Gavora (2005: 27)

³ „Teacher's style is the collection of the many attitudes and behaviours, he employs to create the best possible conditions under which learning can take place. (Wright, 1987: 52)

knowledge to their learners.“ (Wright, 1987: 52) Littlewood further adds the teacher must also be a consultant or an adviser, a monitor or e.g. a communicator and, most of all, the dominator of classroom interaction. On the other hand Harmer (1992: 236-242) classifies the roles of the teacher depending on the degree of learners' control and freedom and describes them as follows.

A controller is in a „complete charge of the class“ (Harmer, 1992: 236), monitoring everything from what language the learners use to when to they should speak, while an assessor or a tutor, on the other side of the scale, act as a source of knowledge, ready to help or even getting involved only if asked by a learner, offering advice and guidance. An organiser informs the learners about an activity, instructs them in such a way they know exactly what to do, gets the activity going, and organises feedback when it is over. Whereas, the role of a prompter is used when learners need encouragement to participate, suggestions how to advance in an activity or help with forgotten information. Last to mention is the role of a participant. The teacher in this role tends to dominate „and the students will both allow and expect“ it but it will probably improve the atmosphere in the class and allow learners to experience English at a higher level. When employing different roles, the teacher should always consider their disadvantages such as for the organiser a careful preparation of a task and issuing crystal-clear instructions is essential, while the prompter must be careful not to provide too much help, and for the controller or participant not to dominate too much.

Harmer (2001: 275-276) indicates one more role which has not been mentioned and which is crucial in classroom interaction, i.e. the role of a feedback provider. Teacher in this role hinders learners since errors and mistakes are pinpointed; yet the correction is a necessity especially in accuracy-focused activities. In case a feedback provider role is adopted the teacher should be cautious not to overcorrect at the expense of the activity.

Next to focus on is the way how to address learners.

3.4.3 ORGANIZATIONAL FORMS

A teacher can choose from several organization forms depending how he or she plans to address and communicate with learners. Though the communication between learners also occurs it is not further examined in this thesis.

According to Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 38) the choice of an organizational form should respect the nature of the task. Moslerová (2004: 13), Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 39) or Maňák, Švec (in Průcha, 2009: 197) agree on three most employed organizational forms used in schools which are: 1) collective teaching, 2) group teaching and 3) individualized teaching.

The first and the most used type of organizational form is a collective or frontal teaching, though, as Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 39) or Nelešovská (2005: 32-34) claim, it does not support social relations between learners, on the contrary, it tries to suppress them in order to achieve undisturbed teaching. Frontal teaching can be divided depending on communicative structures applied. At first, it is a two-way dialogue between a teacher and a learner such as in oral examinations or e.g. when addressing one learner after another while the rest of the class listens. The second, mostly-used structure in frontal teaching is a one-way communication initiated by a teacher and directed towards learners, e.g. assessing the lesson, giving instructions or addressing all when presenting new subject matter. Mareš, Křivohlavý furthermore view the third structure and that is a one-way communication started by a teacher but focused on one learner without the need of oral response from the learner such as when asking rhetorical questions or giving orders.

According to Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 44-46), Moslerová (2004: 15) or Nelešovská (2005: 34) the other organizational form is called a group work teaching. In the opinion of psychologists and educationalists using group work teaching has several advantages. Besides motivating learners, the learners are taught not only subject matter but also cooperation and communication and, as Harmer adds, it provides more students talking time (1992: 245). Group work teaching can be further specified into a pairwork and a small group work teaching. The two-way communication that emerges between learners⁴ is not described since it is not relevant for the topic of this paper.

The third type of organizational form used in the school environment is an individualized teaching. According to Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 47) it means communication with a learner or a group of learners whereas the rest of learners work on a previously given task and does not pay attention to the communication which proceeds. The individualized teaching can also proceed without communication with an

⁴To study more, read Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 44-46) or Nelešovská (2005: 34-36)

animate person in case the message is mediated via a book, TV or e.g. a computer programme.

Each organizational form suits different role of a teacher⁵. While frontal teaching better benefit teachers in the role of a controller, groupwork would most likely conform the teacher in the role of an organiser and individualized teaching requires the role of a tutor or an assessor. Yet, prompter or feedback provider can be applied in any of the organizational form.

Knowing the participants, their relation, different teacher's roles and organizational forms is important for any pedagogical communication. Nonetheless, there is one particularity which should be covered and which is typical of pedagogical communication in language classes only.

3.4.4 MOTHER TONGUE VS. TARGET LANGUAGE

As Malamah-Thomas (1988: 17-19) claims there are many different means how to transmit pedagogic messages. „The methodological device employed can be verbal in nature, but can equally well be of a pictorial or other non-verbal variety.“ (1988: 19) Yet, the most frequently employed device is the language, mainly spoken, that is used when teachers lecture, ask questions, correct mistakes and errors, give explanations or instructions, or do many other activities connected to pedagogic communication.

Since teachers spend a lot of time talking, one of the fundamental issues an ELT teacher must solve is which language to use, whether the mother tongue (Czech), the target language (English) or both. Using mother tongue expedites the comprehension of what has been said and therefore it hastens the pace of a lesson while communicating a message in the target language to elementary or lower-level learners takes more effort. Lynch (1996: 53) explains when talking and giving instructions to lower-level learners teachers use more words, often they repeat the message or its part and therefore it is more time consuming.

Although more demanding, some teachers resolve to employ the target language because they are aware of the „link between comprehension and progress in the foreign language.“ (Lynch, 1996: 39) If so, Scrivener (1994: 98), Lynch (1996: 53) or e.g. Ur

⁵ Different roles has been explained in chapter 3.4.2

(1996: 17) suggest using a modified target language that is further supported by non-verbal cues.

As mentioned above, teachers should consider using target language in the pedagogical communication since, according to Krashen's theory of comprehensible input; it encourages learners to acquire the target language. Nonetheless, the language must be appropriate to the learners' level, often adjusted, which may be more effort- and time-demanding. Hedge reminds Krashen's input hypothesis that „language is picked up, or acquired, when learners receive input from ‘messages’ which contain language a little above their existing understanding and from which they can infer meaning.“ (Hedge, 2001: 10)

So, if the teacher decides to use the target language, Lynch suggests teachers should alter their messages in order to be clear and understood via the modification of input, interaction, and information choice. As Lynch (1996: 41-43) further mentions, according to Long's or Chaudron's surveys of native-non-native conversations in the classroom setting, „teacher's modified speech does not stray beyond the grammar of the target language“ (Lynch, 1996: 41) though „lessons given by non-native teachers are likely to contain more instance of ungrammatical language.“ (Lynch, 1996: 43) Nevertheless, not all ungrammatical utterances are conveyed to help learners to comprehend the meaning of what is being said. Some are the result of teachers' mistakes or even underlying errors.

When Lynch (1996: 40-41) lists ways of typical input modification⁶ in the context of the classroom setting she refers to the adjustment of the form, i.e. vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. As for vocabulary teachers prefer more common vocabulary, nouns rather than pronouns or to avoid idioms. Regarding grammar, they favour shorter and less complex utterances, more regular surface structures, and often they use present tense. As far as pronunciation is concerned, teachers e.g. articulate clearer, use standard forms, reduce the pace of the speech and use more and longer pauses. Signals of input modification can be also found in the non-verbal communication. The survey showed that teachers increase the use of gestures and facial expressions.

⁶ To receive more information on input modification, see Lynch (1996: 40-41)

However, Johnson (2001: 96) reminds Long's research where he argues about the importance of input modification and stresses the modification of interactional structures. Lynch (1996: 43-47), likewise Johnson, believes „interaction modifications⁷ are *more* influential in assisting learners' comprehension than are modifications of the spoken input alone.“ (Lynch, 1996: 44). In other words if teachers clarify their request, they increase learners' changes to understand. Among means of interaction modification Lynch includes checking comprehension via asking clarification requests, allowing learners to ask additional questions, or repeating, reformulating or paraphrasing what has been said. Moreover, teachers can complete learners' utterances or use backtracking to get back to the point they believe learners have understood. Usually, simplification of input and of interaction is used together in order to facilitate the understanding.

There is a third way how to modify information when communicating to non-native speakers. It is called an information choice⁸ modification. Teachers adjust the type of information they give to intermediate or lower-level learners, e.g. giving more descriptive details, making logical links clear or filling in assumed gaps in socio-cultural knowledge (Lynch, 1996: 49).

Lynch (1996: 53-54) sums that via modification of input and information choice teachers can decrease learners' comprehension difficulties and via alternation of interaction they can cure any problem as it occurs provided the learners show they are in trouble. She further appends „researches suggest that interaction modifications are potentially more helpful than input modifications alone,“ (Lynch, 1996: 54) yet they need to be integrated carefully and should not become part of an automatic classroom routine.

3.5 SUMMARY

The third chapter has introduced the social communication and one of its subtypes, the pedagogical communication, with the focus on pedagogical communication in the classroom setting. The author depicted only factors connected to the teacher's communication with learners such as participants and their relations, teacher's roles,

⁷ To find out more on interaction modification, consult Lynch (1996: 43-47)

⁸ For more details on information choice modification, check Lynch (1996: 49-53)

organizational forms, and language used in the pedagogical communication. The author is aware of other factors that influence pedagogical communication; yet, these were not of particular interest.

4 VERBAL, NON-VERBAL AND COMMUNICATION THROUGH ACTION

„Having something to communicate is not the same thing as actually communicating it.“ (Malamah-Thomas, 1988: 10)

4.1 INTRODUCTION

As stated in chapter 2.2 a message can be transferred in various ways. It can be delivered verbally, non-verbally or via action. If verbally, it is expressed through language. Nonetheless, information can also be passed on non-verbally. In such case, instead of words, information is conveyed via other means such as by gestures, postures, and facial expressions or e.g. via the way a person dresses or acts.

Verbal and non-verbal and communication through action and their means are to be further analyzed with focus on pedagogical communication. Likewise with the definitions of communication or social and pedagogical communication, also here authors are not united. All perceive verbal and non-verbal communication. Nevertheless, some distinguishes communication through action as a separate type of communication while others do not. Furthermore, authors do not agree on detailed classification of verbal and non-verbal communication.

4.2 VERBAL VS. NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Gavora (2005: 53) views language as an indispensable part of communication that allows to exchange and retain information and to understand acts and situations. He, similarly as Capel, Strangwick and Whitehead (2001: 89), Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995), Bednaříková (2006) denominates two types of communication, i.e. verbal and non-verbal communication.

Nevertheless, Nelešovská (2005: 41-57), Prokešová, Procházka (in Kalhous, Obst, 2002: 252), or Moslerová (2004), though they agree with above stated, they perceive the third types of communication that they call communication through action because the message is transmitted via the way participants act, what they do and mostly from the attitudes the speaker adopts towards the hearer.

On the other hand, Malamah-Thomas (1988: 16-17) focuses on how communication proceeds rather than on naming different types of communication. She reminds participants of the classroom communication can draw not only on the language but also on non-verbal resources as in any other social situation. Sometimes, non-verbal cues such as the way people dress or move, the tone of the voice or facial expressions can better express the attitude towards the speaker or expose much more about how the speaker feels than the words themselves. Moreover, she pinpoints, the pedagogical communication is realized „through a mixture of language and gesture. The teacher gives orders and instructions, or makes gestures like pointing to a student and then to [...] a blackboard to be cleaned.“ (Malamah-Thomas, 1988: 16) Therefore, the non-verbal communication in the classroom communication is as important as is the language.

But firstly, the verbal communication is depicted.

4.3 VERBAL COMMUNICATION

All above-mentioned authors agree on the fact all ideas and thoughts in the verbal communication are expressed through the language. Bednaříková (2006: 37) and Moslerová (2004: 20) perceive the language, as the most universal mean of communication since the meaning of the message, expressed in words, is not lost in the process of transmission. Nevertheless, Bednaříková adds, it applies only if all participants comprehend particular situation.

Hitherto, the authors were in agreement. Yet, further their opinions what to include in verbal communication diverge.

Before different views are drawn closer it is necessary to explain that the verbal communication can be divided, e.g. into the direct or mediated, the spoken or written and the live or reproduced. The authors differ mainly in the matter of spoken verbal communication. The spoken communication is also the main concern of the author of this thesis.

In the opinion of Gavora (2005: 55), it is only the content of the message, the words and/or sentences, what are essential in the verbal communication. Gavora does not include vocal aspects of utterances to be part of the verbal communication. He claims that, in verbal communication, the message is conveyed only from the meaning of the

words, which are passed on. Moslerová (2004: 20) disagrees and pinpoints the fact words cannot be separated from non-verbal signals, which they accompany them and complete them.

Also others, such as Prokešová (in Kalhous, Obst, 2002: 255-556), Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 59) or Nelešovská (2005: 41-46), regard the formal side of the speech, i.e. the voice and its properties and the way in which it is used when transferring the information, to be part of the verbal communication. The author of this thesis inclines to those who perceive paralinguistic cues as part of the spoken verbal communication; therefore they are incorporated into section concerning verbal communication and discussed in subsequent section.

4.3.1 PARALINGUISTIC MEANS

The voice is a very powerful tool of communication. Capel, Strangwick and Whitehead (2001: 90) mention that voice has different qualities. And while some of them are inborn, some other can be altered as necessary. They also claim that using voice shows teacher's current attitude towards teaching and it is „readily picked up by pupils“ (2001: 99); therefore using one's voice efficiently can improve communication immensely.

Gavora (2005: 101-104), Bednaříková (2006: 47-52), Moslerová (2004: 20-21) and others consider acoustic qualities of voice, such as intensity (loudness), pitch and tone (colour) of the voice together with speed of the speech to belong among paralinguistic features. Therefore these together with pauses and stress will be briefly exploited in the ensuing chapter.

However, authors perceive many more attributes of voice and speech that they consider paralinguistic⁹. They suggest e.g. accent, rhythm, intonation or length of speech and many more to be strands of paralinguistic features, too. Nonetheless, since the authors are not united, the author decided not to cover these in this paper.

⁹ To receive more information how different authors perceive paralinguistic features consult Capel, Strangwick and Whitehead (2001: 90), Nelešovská (2005: 44-46), Bednaříková (2006: 47-52), Moslerová (2004: 21), Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 59-61), Prokešová (in Kalhous, Obst, 2002: 255-256) or Gavora (2005: 101-104)

4.3.1.1 Intensity of voice (loudness)

According to Gavora (2005: 101) the scale of the voice intensity is wide and people adjust their volume according to the content of the speech and acoustic quality of the place where they are. Though to alter the voice is easy, Capel, Strangwick and Whitehead (2001: 90) appends that the raised voice should not be preferred since a loud impulse creates a loud response.

4.3.1.2 Pitch of voice

As Capel, Strangwick, Whitehead claim „everybody varies the pitch of their voice naturally. A person may have a natural high or low voice but that ‚natural‘ pitch can be varied with no pain.“ (2001: 91) Deep voice has lower penetrative power but sound authoritative and confident and may create the atmosphere of magnitude. On the contrary, high voice sounds more exciting and lively but sometimes more aggressive and even unpleasant. By lowering naturally low-pitched voice one may raise attention easily while by raising a naturally high-pitched voice one may produce a squeak.

4.3.1.3 Tone of voice (voice colour)

Gavora (2005: 104) and Bednaříková (2006: 47) declare that the primary voice colour is inborn. Nevertheless it is possible to change it according to actual physical and psychological state of a person, e.g. it can be influence by instantaneous happiness, tiredness or excitement. It can also express e.g. warning, compliments or irony.

4.3.1.4 Speed of speech (pace)

Bednaříková (2006: 49-50), Gavora (2005: 103) and Capel, Strangwick, Whitehead (2001: 91) agree that, though the fast speech allows a speaker to transmit higher number of information to a hearer, when speaking fast, concentration and careful enunciation is needed otherwise the accuracy and comprehensibility of the information can be decreased. Authors are in accord that varying speed, using pauses and silence can create good effect and show confidence and therefore it can be a great tool in the classroom.

4.3.1.5 Pauses in speech

Capel, Strangwick, Whitehead (2001: 91), unlike Bednaříková (2006: 50) and others, do not treat pauses as a separate paralinguistic mean of communication but as a way how to slower the speed of the speech. Nevertheless, they admit pauses are needed in order

to provide time for a pupil to answer and in that case a reasonable pause¹⁰ lasts approximately three seconds.

4.3.1.6 Stress in speech (dynamics)

Last feature connected to the spoken verbal communication to mention is a stress. Gavora (2005: 104) and Nelešovská (2005: 45) both declare of the stress in the speech is needed since not all words in the sentence are equally important and the speech without stress is tiring, sounds monotonously, and is less comprehensible and emotional while the speech with dynamics contributes to attracting attention and supports intelligibility.

Since the spoken verbal communication and its paralinguistic features has been cover the focus will move to the non-verbal communication and its aspects, e.g. appearance, gesture, posture, facial expression etc., which will be, in brief, introduced in following chapter and its subchapters.

4.4 NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

The spoken verbal communication is not only inseparably bonded to non-verbal communication but also complemented by it. Furthermore, non-verbal communication can be used on its own. It can be classified as anything, which does not include words but communicates meaning.

Majority of people is aware of the way how to verbally communicate. They know the information they need to convey and they usually choose appropriate words and sentences to express it right. Nevertheless, they may use, intentionally or unwittingly, non-verbal cues to send the information, too.

Bednaříková (2006: 21), Prokešová (in Kalhous, Obst, 2002: 256) or e.g. Moslerová (2004: 24) agree that the non-verbal communication has an important role in human life. Using the non-verbal communication appropriately is a need in everyday life communication but especially in the communication with students. According to Gavora (2005: 100) and Capel, Strangwick, Whitehead (2001: 97) the non-verbal communication may emphasise the meaning of verbal messages or it can contradict what is being said. Non-verbal signals, which may or may not accompany the verbal

¹⁰ Gavora (2005: 102-103) offers more elaborative enumeration of pauses.

communication, can e.g. express one's confidence, gestures may be used to silence the class and smile to show support.

As mentioned in chapter 4.2, most authors divide the communication into the verbal, where the information is transmitted via the content of the message including its paralinguistic cues, and the non-verbal communication, where the information is conveyed through the way the message is transmitted. The key role plays extra-linguistic features such as facial expressions, gestures, postures or proximity, etc. The non-verbal communication mainly allows transferring attitudes or emotions, e.g. delight, satisfaction or displeasure.

Prokešová (in Kalhous, Obst, 2002: 256) or Nelešovská (2005:46) remark that the extra-linguistic and paralinguistic means of the communication transmit more sincere information than the verbal message itself. However, this only applies if discrepancy between the verbal and the non-verbal signals appears.

Albert Mehrabian claimed in his research paper that 55% of the information provided in a dialogue is transmitted visually, 38% vocally and only 7% via words. But as Judith E. Pearson (Internet 3) reminds, Mehrabian and his colleagues conducted two studies on communication patterns and Mehrabian made „the point that for inconsistent messages, or incongruent communications, body language and tonality are probably a more accurate indicator of emotions and meaning than the words themselves.“ (Internet 3) She also mentions that:

Mehrabian has stated (*Anchor Point*, 1994) that he never intended his results to be applied to normal conversation (and probably not to public speaking either). He only wanted to help his readers resolve incongruent messages regarding liking and disliking. Thus, his research has useful, albeit limited applications, which have been blown out of proportion. (Pearson, Internet 3)

Though the 55%, 38%, 7% Rule does not apply to every spoken verbal communication, the role of the non-verbal communication is eminent since much of the interpersonal communication proceeds non-verbally. Therefore the non-verbal means are elucidated in the following subchapter.

4.4.1 EXTRA-LINGUISTIC MEANS

As stated in chapter 4.3, authors, except Gavora, treat paralinguistic features as a part of the verbal communication. Albeit, there is a discrepancy between authors whether paralinguistic features should be associated with the verbal or the non-verbal communication, their view on placing extra-linguistic implements among the non-verbal communication is united.

According to Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 107-113) there are several ways how to communicate non-verbally, such as via eye contact, facial expressions, movements, postures, gestures, contact, proximity or appearance. All of these are observable by listeners and can attend utterances but not indispensably. Though, different authors omit some and add others, the author of this paper decided to follow above stated distinction.

4.4.1.1 Eye contact

Capel, Strangwick, Whitehead (2001: 101), Gavora (2005: 106-107) or Prokešová (in Kalhous, Obst, 2002: 257) perceive the eye contact as „a crucial aspect of conveying confidence to pupils.“ (Capel, Strangwick, Whitehead, 2001: 101) Gavora and Prokešová proclaim eye expressions can transmit different messages such as happiness or sadness, doubts or certainty etc. Furthermore, Gavora perceives the eye contact as the best non-verbal mean to manage the class and to monitor comprehension, so the teacher can adjust his or her speech.

4.4.1.2 Facial expressions

Bednaříková (2006: 25-27) or Moslerová (2004: 26) regard facial expressions as the most significant non-verbal tool of communication. Through eyes, eyebrows, forehead or e.g. mouth and chin, seven primary and about one thousand other emotions can be indicated. Smile is one of the most important facial expressions to use because it elicits confidence and creates pleasant atmosphere. On the other hand, grimace may express dissatisfaction and contempt.

4.4.1.3 Kinetics, i.e. movements

Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 110), Capel, Strangwick, Whitehead (2001: 99) or Nelešovská (2005: 51-52) claim that through movements not emotions but their intensity can be deduced. E.g. the strength used when the head is nodded or limbs thrown up can show speaker's enthusiasm and it could be used as a way how to interest hearers in the speech.

4.4.1.4 Body postures

Understanding body position and body posture is also important since, according to Nelešovská (2005: 53-54), it can reveal e.g. whether the person is relaxed or tense or whether the person is dominant or submissive. Besides, mutual position of communicants can suggest their relationship and/or their attitude towards the importance of the message and of the other one. Yet, Prokešová (in Kalhous, Obst, 2002: 258) warns teachers not to confuse affective postures of hostility made by teenagers since often they are a pose to hide child's uncertainty rather than reflecting inner attitudes.

4.4.1.5 Gestures

Movements of hands or even of a head calls Gavora (2005: 105) and Nelešovská (2005: 52) gesticulation. Gestures imply enthusiasm and increase learners' motivation. On the other hand, the lack or the excess of gestures may distract the attention off the verbal message. Gestures typically accompany the verbal communication and their adequate usage is an indivisible element of an effective communication. According to Capel, Strangwick, Whitehead gestures can emphasise a point, reinforce the importance of the presented information, or, e.g. indicate „relevant shape or direction.“ (2001: 99)

Gavora (2005: 105-106) distinguishes four types of gestures. Those are accentuate gestures which emphasize the meaning of an utterance, emblems which are used in agreement and have meaning on their own (putting a hand up when wish to speak with a teacher), iconographic gestures which are not conventional but their meaning can be guessed from the gesture itself (demonstrating writing or showing the shape) and relaxation gestures which are used, e.g. to reduce tension or to hide embarrassment.

4.4.1.6 Haptics, i.e. contact

As Nelešovská (2005: 54), Gavora (2005: 107) or Prokešová (in Kalhous, Obst, 2002: 259) remark a touch can express friendliness or hostility and should be used wisely. Teachers should be aware of so called tactile zones, e.g. head, back, shoulders or hands, which can be touched while others are designated as intimate and cannot be touched by the teacher at all. They remind that while younger learners are often touch hunger and seek contact, others may dislike it, which should be respected.

4.4.1.7 Proximity

Moslerová (2004: 28) or Gavora (2005: 107) describe proximity as a distance between communicators. Moreover, Moslerová distinguishes four proximal zones: an intimate, personal, social and public zone. Though the zones overlap and they can differ depending on each person, they suggest distances which are suitable in different occasions.

4.4.1.8 Appearance

According to Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995: 112-113) the appearance is one of the newest extra-linguistic means considered to non-verbally influence communication. The message is communicated via the way how people dress, what his or her exterior shows. Since the verbal and non-verbal communications have been covered, there is one more to be outlined. Therefore, communication through action is to be defined next.

4.5 COMMUNICATION THROUGH ACTION

Though not often treated separately, Moslerová (2004: 25), Nelešovská (2005, 57) or Prokešová, Procházka (in Kalhous, Obst, 2002: 263-265) perceive communication through action as another type of communication.

Authors describe it as a communication where information is transmitted through the way a person acts or what is being done and how, i.e. in acts. Acts, similarly as paralinguistic and extra-linguistic means, can reveal attitudes and so allow communication. The latter three remind that expressing attitudes can be especially important in the pedagogical communication and thus teachers should be aware of it.

4.6 SUMMARY

Chapter four has introduced three types of communication - verbal, non-verbal and communication through action. Each type of the communication has been described together with its specifics. Paralinguistic means have been assigned to the verbal communication because of their connection to the voice and its usage when verbally expressing a message while extra-linguistic features have been assorted to the non-verbal communication since information is not conveyed through language but body. Moreover, communication through action has been characterized though the term is not widely used.

5 INSTRUCTIONS

„Instructions, though they take up a very small proportion of lesson time, are crucial“
(Ur 1996: 264)

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Only few teachers can say they have never provided confusing and complicated instructions in their life. To conduct clear instructions in ELT lessons is extremely important and it makes an essential part of teachers' job. In case the teacher issues conflicting or confusing instructions and learners do not successfully fulfil the task, the teacher cannot be sure whether learners did not manage the task though having understood what to do or they had not understood the instructions, hence did not manage the task. Therefore main aim of chapter five is to provide a unifying framework, including the key principles that should be taken into consideration when given instructions.

5.2 DEFINING INSTRUCTIONS

Before the author offers a guideline on conducting quality instructions, the term instruction is defined. According to the Macmillan Dictionary „instruction means a statement or explanation of something that must be done, often given by someone in authority.“ (2002: 745) while Ur defines it as „the directions that are given to introduce a learning task which entails some measure of independent student activity.“ (1996: 16)

Though both definitions can be applied, the author of this thesis does not identify with either of them fully. Ur's definition is rather narrow and covers only instructions that are vital to receive in order to work independently on a task, such as a description of a task or how it should be fulfilled, alternatively what are its expected outcomes or e.g. how much time is provided. On the other hand, the broader definition of Macmillan includes any statement or explanation, provided by a teacher, which results in some activity to be considered an instruction. Though, the author partially agrees with the latter definition, she suggests enlarging the concept of the term.

She perceives that not only statements or explanations but also any verbal utterance irrespected of its form, i.e. any declarative, interrogative, imperative or exclamatory sentence, can carry the meaning of an instruction when put into context of a particular

situation. The broader concept offers author the opportunity to explore teacher's instructions not only from the point of their clarity with regards to learners' comprehension but also from the point of underlying purpose and expected outcomes such as to prompt learner's actions, to support and justify learners' steps or to provide feedback and correction. Detailed division of instructions will be provided in chapter 5.4. The author also believes that, aside from verbal instructions, non-verbal cues such as gestures, proximity or eye contact, etc. can communicate the meaning and therefore can serve as instructions, too. However, these will not be further examined due to the limited space of the thesis.

Yet, general principles on providing comprehensible instructions when introducing a new learning task in ELT lessons are depicted first.

5.3 PROVIDING INSTRUCTIONS

As mentioned earlier, to issue clear and understandable instructions is one of the crucial aspects of teacher's profession and, as Nunan and Lamb claim, it applies doubly for teachers in ELT classes who choose to give instructions in the target language. Authors agree that without clear instructions a success of tasks and activities is very uncertain (1996: 96). Therefore teachers should „make sure they [learners] know what to do before they start, otherwise they will make mistakes or do the activities badly.“ (Byrne, 1991: 71) According to Kyriacou (2008: 54), some teachers wrongly come to conclusion that it is important to start the activity as soon as possible and solve problems as they arise. But this may lead to situations where the teacher corrects one learner after another, or needs to stop all in order to provide further explanation of the task.

Thus following chapter and its subchapters offer a sequence of steps to be taken into consideration when giving verbal instructions.

5.3.1 VERBAL INSTRUCTIONS

Most instructions in pedagogical communication are provided verbally, either in spoken or written form. When speaking of verbal aspects of instruction, the content of instructions together with its paralinguistic features is involved. Since the basic characteristics of verbal communication has been provided in chapter 4.3, the author

proceeds to present a guideline to increase the comprehensibility of the content and purpose of instructions.

5.3.1.1 Preparation

One of the most important parts of any activity is its preparation. Scrivener (1994: 98), Harmer (1992: 239), Ur (1996: 17), Kyriacou (2008: 54) or e.g. Swift (Internet 6) declare that a careful preparation, such as thinking about the language or material, that will be used, is a necessity. According to Scrivener „unplanned, unstructured instructions are extremely confusing to students“ (1994: 17) and it is possible that learners understand only few key words and try to guess what the teacher wants them to do. Hence, it is essential to plan the instructions and tell them without „wrapping it up in babble.“ (Scrivener, 1994: 17) To improve teacher’s skills, Scrivener (1994: 98) advises to become aware of one’s own instruction-giving patterns either through modern technologies (e.g. video recording) or via feedback from one’s colleagues.

Moreover, Scrivener (1994: 98), Ur (1996: 17), Swift (Internet 6) or Kyriacou (2008: 54), further note, one part of the preparation should involve the analysis of instructions to exclude visible or obvious pieces of information, which are not needed at the time and so to respect Grice’s maxim of Relation according which only the relevant information should be given in order to establish effective pedagogical communication (Internet 2: Grice, 1975: 46).

Nevertheless, as Ur, Harmer (1992: 239) or Swift (Internet 6) remark, when introducing a new task or an activity, „explicit descriptions [...] make a crucial difference to the success or failure“ (Ur, 1996: 16) of a task. Swift and Harmer agree instructions should be fully explicit and nothing should be taken for granted because often it happens teachers are familiarized with the task or the activity and assume the learners are, too. Thus, they leave out some important information and, as a result, the learners may not understand the instructions. On the other hand, as Nunan and Lamb (1996: 98) point out, when giving instructions, the aim must be taken into consideration. If the aim of the task is to raise questions and interaction then the ambiguity of instructions may fulfil their purpose. However, mainly the instructions are given in order to draw learners’ attention to the task. Questionable instructions force learners not only to do the task itself, but firstly to decide what they are obligated to do.

One of the points to solve when preparing instructions for language teaching lessons is to decide on language. Therefore, following chapter briefly reminds pros and cons together with ways how to adjust instructions if in English.

5.3.1.1.1 Target vs. mother tongue in instructions

Since the topic of language usage in ELT lesson has been thoroughly covered in chapter 3.4.4 this section offers mainly its summary.

When preparing for an ELT lesson, teachers must decide which language to employ, whether the mother tongue, the target language or both. Using the mother tongue hastens the comprehension while using the target language offers learners more time to be exposed to it; hence it offers more opportunities to practice it. However, the foremost important issue is to provide clear and understandable instructions. Therefore, if the teacher decides to provide instructions in English, some adjustments of the language input together with offering interaction modification must be taken into account

Swift, Harmer (1992: 239) or Ur recommends using, in some cases, learner's mother tongue rather than „lengthy and difficult target-language explanation“. (Ur, 1996, 17) As for lower-level learners, Harmer suggests to use „the students' language if absolutely necessary. Swift is more specific and recommends to offer instructions in the mother tongue and „then repeat them immediately, as simply as possible, in English. Later on reverse the order“ and „as soon as possible [...] in English only“ (Swift, Internet 6) but reminding the teacher should pay more attention to check the comprehension by asking learners to translate the instructions.

Another important part of preparation is composed of contemplating the amount and the quality of information.

5.3.1.1.2 Choosing necessary information

One part of the preparation consists of selecting information that should be presented to learners. Scrivener mentions that instructions should include solely „the essential information in simple, clear language.“ (1994: 98) Scrivener's recommendation is closely related to Grice's Co-operative principle, which suggests that the cooperation with partners, and choosing the right words appropriate for the dialogue is needed. It also collocates with one of the maxims of Co-operative principle, i.e. maxim of Manner that advises to express oneself in a clear, understandable, accurate and explicit way (Internet 2: Grice, 1975: 46).

Moreover, Ur (1996, 17) proposes to respect Grice's maxim of Quantity, which stands for speaking sufficiently and only the necessary information. In other words, the message should be informative but economical at the same time (Internet 2: Grice, 1975: 45). In addition, Ur remarks that some information should be omitted since learners focus only for a short time.

Thus far, the preparation of instructions has been covered. Hence, advices for providing instructions in the classroom follow.

5.3.1.2 Gaining attention

Scrivener (1994: 98), similarly as Ur (1996: 17), Harmer (1992: 240), Swift (Internet 6) or Capel, Strangwick and Whitehead (2001: 89), believes to have a class's full attention is vital because learners may get lost in the task if they miss some important information. Therefore every instruction must be clearly separated from other teacher's talk. Before the teacher gives instructions, it is essential to create silence, make eye contact with most of the learners, find an authoritative tone and make sure everyone is listening. Teachers can establish a pattern of creating silence and use it every time they need to gain attention. If the attention is attained, the instructions can be given. Also, it is wise to instruct the class before it is divided and materials are handed out, as Ur or Harmer remarks.

When providing instructions, Capel, Strangwick and Whitehead (2001: 100) remind, the teacher must be aware not to spout them all at once because clear, purposeful instructions, which are expressed without hesitation, in a firm, measured way, show teacher's confidence while instructions formed into questions can indicate teacher's uncertainty. Also slower, lower and well-articulated message shows „more confidence than a fast, high-pitched method of speaking.“ (Capel, Strangwick, Whitehead, 2001: 100)

5.3.1.3 Sequencing instructions

Some authors stress the importance of sequencing instructions in a sensible order. According to Swift (Internet 6) and Scrivener (1994: 98), only short sentences for each key piece of information should be presented at a time and accompanied by extra-linguistic and paralinguistic means, e.g. by appropriate speed of the speech, silence, and gestures in order to pace the instructions and clarify their meaning. Slowing down if

necessary, pacing and inserting pauses, i.e. sequencing instructions, helps learners „to take in each piece of information“ (Swift, Internet 6) before going on to the next.

Furthermore, Swift claims that in some cases learners do not need „to have an overview of the whole activity before they start.“ (Internet 6) Instead, she suggests to present complicated instructions step by step and if an activity has two parts, she recommends describing the first part while the explanation of the second part should follow after the first part of the activity is over.

Either as a way to present new instruction or as a part of the comprehension check of provided instructions, demonstration of an activity or using examples is advisable and therefore next chapter is devote to it.

5.3.1.4 Demonstrations and using examples

Ur (1996: 17), Scrivener (1994: 98) or Swift (Internet 6) propose to demonstrate or to illustrate the activity to the whole class anytime possible since, as Scrivener claims, demonstrating the activity is more efficient than simple explanation because it increases comprehension. It could be done via e.g. „eliciting the answers to the first two examples“ (Swift, Internet 6) or by demonstrating the activity itself, e.g. a teacher and a volunteer or two learners can illustratively show the activity.

Though appropriate presentation of instructions is important, checking whether learners have understood is even more significant. Thus it will be covered next.

5.3.1.5 Summarizing instructions and checking comprehension

Even if the instructions are well prepared and well presented, the teacher should always verify learners' comprehension. Harmer (1992: 239), Lynch (1996: 47), Ur (1996: 17), Swift (Internet 6) or Scrivener (1994: 98) recommend to check whether learners understood what was communicated because „even the clearest instructions can be hard to grasp“ (Scrivener, 1994: 17) and it is well worth to check learners' understanding. That could be done via asking learners a clarification request, such as to explain or paraphrase what has been communicated or to show otherwise how they have understood the task. Authors warn against using question such as „Do you understand?“ since it has no information value because learners often do not want to publicly admit they did not understand. Swift (Internet 6) also recommends not to ask the strongest learner in the class because the comprehension should be directed to those who more likely have not understood.

Subsequently, the instructions can be repeated, paraphrased or summarized by the teacher. Not rarely teachers rephrase the sentences which have been uttered. Moreover, Ur (1996, 17) asserts to present instructions in a different form, e.g. spoken and written on the board as a way to provide learners more chances to understand what to do. Nevertheless, Kyriacou (2008: 54), who also suggests summarizing instructions, alerts not to repeat the instructions on demand, since some learners may abuse teacher's helpfulness and not pay attention when whole-class instructions are given.

Furthermore, Swift advises to quickly check all learners once they start their task. If one learner or one group of learners is lost, teacher should get back and help. Nevertheless, if several learners or groups of learners misunderstood the instructions, she suggest to „stop the activity and explain again, using the students who have understood to demonstrate to the others.“ (Internet 6)

Thus far the guideline what clear and understandable instructions should contain and in which steps they should be followed has been covered. Nevertheless, if the instructions should be efficient, non-verbal cues must accompany the verbal information and that would be the next topic to explore.

5.3.2 NON-VERBAL INSTRUCTIONS

As mentioned in the chapter 4.3 and 4.4 verbal communication is usually accompanied by non-verbal signals. Many authors, e.g. Capel, Strangwick, Whitehead or Scrivener observe the importance of the non-verbal communication in the classroom communication. Some stress the fact that using one's voice appropriately is especially important when giving key instructions while others emphasize to use non-verbal cues such as „silence and gestures to pace the instructions and clarify their meaning“ (Scrivener, 1994: 98).

Since paralinguistic features have been covered together with the content of instructions, some of the extra-linguistic features that can be used when instructing learners are further outlined in the following subchapters.

5.3.2.1 Eye contact

Eye contact is one of the most useful tools to employ when communicating with learners. Gavora (2005: 106-107) perceives eye contact as the best non-verbal tool to manage the class, e.g. when creating silence before presenting instructions, and,

similarly as Capel, Strangwick and Whitehead (2001: 101), views eye contact as a mean to monitor understanding because people with less confidence tend to avoid eye contact which may indicate they are not sure what to do.

5.3.2.2 Facial expressions and gestures

Facial expressions together with gestures can imply enthusiasm and increase learners' motivation. They can also display confidence, support or e.g. displeasure. If instructing, the gestures can emphasise the point or strengthen the significance of presented information, or they can indicate what the learners are expected to do, e.g. writing or reading.

5.3.2.3 Postures and proximity

Other tools, such as proximity can be used, e.g. for getting attention, and postures to show support and friendliness, e.g. when having difficulties with comprehension of instructions.

There are many more ways how to imply extra-linguistic tools when instructing learners, though not all are covered in this paper.

5.4 COMPOSITION OF INSTRUCTIONS

The last chapter of the theoretical part deals with instructions and their composition. As mentioned in chapter 5.2 the author has decided to enlarge the concept of instructions in order to explore teachers' instructions further. Such modification has enabled the author to view verbal utterances in particular situations as instructions similarly as learners are likely to perceive them. The aim of this chapter is to find out what can an instruction be composed of.

The author has resolved to view two main types of instructions: class management instructions and task-connected instructions, i.e. instructions connected to a class management and instructions connected to a learning activity. Yet, there is another type of an instruction, a nominating instruction, which can be used together with both, class management and task-connected instructions, thus the author treats it separately.

5.4.1 CLASS MANAGEMENT INSTRUCTIONS

Class management instructions can be used in any moment of the lesson regardless of the time or the stage of the lesson. Though they often interrupt an activity, they are not

essential for its progress. The author further classifies them to instructions which are connected to the organization of the class, and instructions dealing with disruptive behaviour.

5.4.1.1 Class organization instructions

Class organization instructions are connected to organisation of the class such as taking register, changing classroom settings, reseating learners (not for the purpose of a task), asking to clean the blackboard, to open the window or to tidy the classroom etc. Class organization instructions are mainly issued in the beginning of a lesson.

5.4.1.2 Disruptive behaviour regulating instructions

Disruptive behaviour regulating instructions are used to manage disruptive behaviour of any form; therefore they can be issued in any part of a lesson. According to Harmer (1991: 249) not only unruly and noisy or unresponsive and unco-operative behaviour can disturb the lesson but also learners' late arrivals or forgotten homework and materials etc. There are many reasons why learners act in an undisciplined manner¹¹, and while Ur (1996: 264-266) stresses to prevent it rather than to solve it, both authors agree if discipline problems arise, the teacher must act immediately.

Second group is composed of instructions that are issues in connection to some task. However, before the task-connected instructions are presented, two groups of activities need to be outlined. Activities can be classified as communicative and non-communicative and each type requires different approach to their teaching, i.e. teacher must espouse different roles which influences the way how learners are instructed. In communicative activities the emphasis is on communicating meaning, i.e. on the content rather than on form (Harmer, 1991: 50; Littlewood, 1991: 16) while in non-communicative (or pre-communicative) activities the stress is on the form and its accuracy (Harmer, 1992: 49; Littlewood, 1991: 8).

When delivering instructions for non-communicative activities, i.e. practice¹² and introduction activities¹³, the teacher is in charge during the whole task, thus it is not necessary to explain instructions beforehand. However, when providing instructions for

¹¹ To find out more about disruptive behaviour and the steps how to deal with it, confer Harmer (1991: 250-253)

¹² Explanation of practice activities is provided e.g. by Ur (1996: 19-20)

¹³ To learn more about introduction activities, consult Harmer (1992: 60) or Ur (1996: 11)

communicative activities, the teacher should embrace the role of an organiser and explain all in advance in order not to intervene during the activity with the exception of a gentle correction or prompting.

5.4.2 TASK-CONNECTED INSTRUCTIONS

5.4.2.1 Pre-task instructions

As explained above, when communicative activity is to be introduced, clear instructions must be given so that the teacher will not need to interfere the activity itself. Harmer (1992: 240) discerns three stages of setting up an activity: engagement, instruction and initiative. Engagement or lead-in stage is provided in order to introduce and familiarize learners with a topic and/or a general idea of the outcome („ ... you will show what you can do about....“). It can be stated briefly in few sentences or a discussion can be raised. After the lead-in, own instruction is issued. Again it consists of several sub-instructions such as grouping learners, handing out materials and issuing the main instruction where learners are explained or shown what exactly they should do. Since it is essential to understand it thoroughly, it may be wise to translate it to the mother tongue. At last, the teacher initiates the activity. Initiative is comprised of a final check of comprehension through questioning, („Do you understand? Any questions?“) And a spur („Then you go! Let’s start!“).

The author has decided to base on above-mentioned. The author perceives setting-up activities to be pre-task instructions: lead-in because it draws learners attention and directs them to alertness of a next action, own instruction since it actually provides the explanation of the task and how to do it and initiative for it orders learners to ask in case of any ambiguity and to start.

5.4.2.2 Whilst-task instructions

During communicative activities, ideally, no whilst-task instructions are need. Yet, there are two exceptions: gentle feedback instructions and prompting (or supporting) instructions.

5.4.2.2.1 Prompting (and supporting) instructions

Prompting (Harmer, 1992: 241) is usually employed when an unanticipated silence appears either because learners do not understand the instruction or they do not possess the knowledge that is expected. Via prompting the teacher suggests how to advance in

an activity or helps with forgotten information. It is also used when learners need encouragement to participate. Therefore, it could be called supporting.

5.4.2.2.2 Corrective instructions (and feedback)

Feedback is used especially during or after presentation of the activity outcomes though it may be used when checking learners' individual progress. According to Harmer (1992: 237-239) or Richards, Lockhart (1999: 188) feedback and correction provide learners with an assessment how well they performed or are performing. Unlike correction, feedback may be rendered with the intention to show learners their success or failure and/or provide ideas how to solve their problems. Thus, it can „increase motivation and build on supportive classroom climate.“ (Richards, Lockhart, 1999: 188)

Feedback or correction in communicative and non-communicative activities differs. In communicative activities the communicative purpose is first and foremost, therefore the feedback on content, rather than on the form should be provided. According to Richards, Lockhart, the feedback on content can be provided in different ways. Teacher may: 1) acknowledge a correct answer (e.g. „Good! That's right!“); 2) indicate an incorrect answer; 3) praise (e.g. „Excellent answer!“); 4) expand or modify a learner's answer; 5) repeat the answer; 6) summarize it or 7) criticize the learner (1999: 189). Harmer proposes to use gentle corrections meaning letting the learners to know the error but not compel „to correctly repeat oneself.“ (1992: 237) He further suggests recording errors on form but pointing them out when the communicative activity is over.

On the other hand, in non-communicative activities, the „accurate reproduction stage is often required“ (Harmer, 1992: 237), i.e. incorrectness is uncovered and the teacher insists on the correction. Also here Richards, Lockhart pinpoint different ways of rectifying incorrectness on the form. Teacher can 1) ask the learner to repeat after him or her; 2) point out the error and asking the student to self-correct; 3) command on an error and explain why it is wrong, without having the student repeat the correct form; 4) ask another learner to correct the error; 5) use a gesture to indicate that an error has been made (1999: 190). Harmer seizes it from different perspective, yet he mainly states the same as Richards and Lockhart. Teacher can show the incorrectness by 1) asking a learner to repeat; 2) echoing the error; 3) denying the answer; 4) questioning or 5) non-verbal expressions. Moreover he mentions teacher can correct the error by him or herself or ask learners to correct it (1992: 68-70).

Again, the author constructs on above-stated and perceives prompts and corrections as instructions for following reasons. Whenever teacher prompts learners, he or she actually asks them to perform, to start, continue or finish, the activity, to act. Similarly, with some corrective means, especially in accuracy based activities. Teacher through corrections commands learners to amend their answer. The only exception is the explanation of an error without having the learner to repeat the correct form. However, when providing feedback learner's response is often not required. Unless it is used to prompt learners or to indicate an incorrect answer (in order to correct it) the author does not perceive it as an instruction.

Class management and task-connected instructions have been covered, yet there is one type of an instruction that could accompany both types of instructions depending on circumstances, thus it is treated separately and exploited in the next chapter.

5.4.3 NOMINATING INSTRUCTIONS

Author has observed teachers often nominate learners. Their reasons are different. Learners may be nominated in any stage of the lesson or an activity. They could be addressed in order to draw their attention, to remind them or bid them to do a task or to stop misbehaving etc. Nominating learners is mainly used in a controlled activities or when presenting learners' outcomes of a communicative activities. Moreover, often it accompanies other instructions. Since it cannot be assorted to one particular type of instruction, the author treats them separately.

5.5 SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the points that should be obeyed in order to provide clear and understandable instructions. It has suggested what to take into consideration when preparing instructions, how to get learners' full attention, how to sequence instructions, use demonstrations or check learners' comprehension. Besides, it has covered the ways how to support and stress instructions via body language. Moreover, this chapter has described how instructions can be further divided.

6 INTRODUCTION TO THE PRACTICAL SECTION

The aim of this part of the paper is to present and describe the data collected and the findings which stemmed out from the research. All the phases, which were included in the research, are depicted chronologically.

The author shall evaluate the instruction giving in accordance to criteria stated in the theoretical part, i.e. according to the criteria described in chapters 3.4, 5.3 and 5.4.

The research was held in following steps:

1. Formulating the aim of the research
2. Selecting a school, teachers and classes to conduct the data
3. Selecting the research design and data collecting instruments
4. Data collection via lesson observations, interviewing teachers and distributing questionnaires in particular classes
5. Analysis of the collected data
6. Presentation of the data
7. Final interpretation and evaluation of the collected data

6.1 FORMULATING THE AIM OF THE RESEARCH

As it has been suggested in the theoretical part, giving instructions plays a crucial role in teaching-learning processes. Various rules that should be obeyed in order to provide clear instructions together with aspects of classroom communication have been theoretically described. The aim of the research is to find out if, and to what extent, the theoretical background is ensued in the real school environment, what communicative patterns and language are used when giving instructions and how learners understand issued instructions.

It is impossible, due to the limited space provided for the thesis, to consider all factors of communication when instructing learners so the author focused only on three main areas. The first includes aspects related to providing instructions such as the language (the mother tongue, the target language, or a combination of mother tongue and target language), organizational forms (frontal teaching, groupwork teaching, and individual

teaching), and some aspects of verbal (intensity - tone, volume - loudness) and non-verbal (facial expressions, gestures, proximity and haptics) communication used by a teacher when giving instructions. The second area is directed to find out whether the recommended guidelines are respected. And in the third area the learners' comprehension is inquired.

By means of the research, one shall be able to answer following questions:

Question 1: Do teachers provide comprehensible instructions either via following theoretical guidelines (chapter 5.3) or via producing task-connected instructions during an activity (chapters 3.4, 4.2, 5.4)?

Question 2: Do learners understand, and to what extent, issued instructions?

The extent of this research does not offer a space for identification of motives of the use/non-use of the recommended guidelines though it would be an interesting topic to investigate. The purpose of this paper is to describe the situation as it has been observed at one particular school.

6.2 ORGANIZATION OF THE RESEARCH AND RESEARCH METHODS

The research was conducted within three weeks in December and two weeks in April. It has been executed at a school situated in a town with a population of over seven thousand inhabitants. The institution offers a secondary, tertiary and vocational education.

In October and November two meetings with a headmaster deputy took place. At the first one the elementary idea of the research was introduced while at the second one the arrangements such as which teachers to observe or the way of collecting data was discussed. At the end of November the meeting with two teachers, whose lessons were going to be observed, was arranged in order to establish the schedule of observations. The classes were chosen with regard to the grade and the type of education they offered. The observations were undertaken in six different classes. The total number of observed lessons was thirty. The number of learners ranged between six and twenty-four in a class and it involved learners from the first to the fourth grade.

6.3 RESEARCH METHODS AND DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

After consulting Gavora (2000), Hopkins (2002), Freeman (1998), and Selinger, Shohamy (1990: 156-157) the author decided to use four different data collection tools in order to collect veridical data, which were structured observations (Hopkins: 2002: 85-89), unstructured interview (Gavora, 2000: 110-111) with predetermined questions and open answers and two structured questionnaires with, mainly, scale answers (Gavora, 2000: 88). The research has been quantitatively oriented which means the data are interpreted in number of occasions that occurred.

Although the research is interconnected, it is basically divided into two parts. The first part focuses on the teacher and how he or she provides instructions. The second part concentrates on learners and how they perceive and comprehend instructions.

6.3.1 OBSERVATION

Although video recording of lessons would provide more accurate data, the observed teachers were reluctant to use it because of problems with getting permission from learners' parents. Therefore the author decided to observe lessons and use structured observation sheets to collect data instead of post-use evaluation of video recordings.

Thus the observations were direct. Besides, they were all overt since the observer was present and both, the teacher and learners knew they were participating in a research. Each lesson was recorded in a structured observation sheet (appendix 1) including basic data such as the name of the teacher, the name of a particular class, the date and time of the day and the number of the learners present.

The main purpose of the observation sheet was to accurately record all teacher's instruction-like utterances including addressing learners, repetitions of expressions, mistake corrections or classroom management as much as the teacher's verbal and non-verbal communication and language used. The organizational forms employed by a teacher when giving instructions were also monitored together with other tools used for providing instructions. The observation sheet was prepared to cover many aspects of verbal and non-verbal communication when providing instructions, yet the practice proved the author was not able to embrace all of them. Therefore the observer decided to disregard some paralinguistic and extra-linguistic features and focused only on voice volume and intensity, facial expressions, gestures, proximity and haptics. Furthermore, the observer has marked each utterance with a tick, if she believed learners' verbal and

non-verbal response suggested they had understood, with a dot, if it seemed that only some had known what to do, and with a cross when most the learners did not responded accurately because they, most likely, had not understood. The author is aware this is very subjective and she is not able to prove it, yet, she decided so.

But not only observation sheets were used when observing lessons (appendix 1). The observer also noted down data that were connected to the instructions, such as whether teachers provided only necessary information, whether the attention was gained before the instructions were issued, whether the instructions were sequenced or released all at once, whether they were demonstrated or an example was provided, and finally whether they were summarized and comprehension was checked.

These data were transferred into a chart likewise the data from the observation sheets and they were further analyzed. Data were transmitted daily in order to discern all patterns observed in a lesson. Every single instruction-like utterance was assigned to a particular activity and sorted. The instruction-like utterances and the whole instructions were then examined from several aspects.

Firstly, whether and to what extent, the theoretical guidelines were followed. Secondly, from the point of their connection to assigned activities, so that class management instructions, pre-task and whilst-task instructions and their classifications have been uncovered. And thirdly, from the way what patterns were employed when issuing instructions, concretely, language, organizational forms, teacher's paralinguistic or extra-linguistic features employed and aids used to support or provide instructions.

Since „the presence of observer in the research situation may alter the behaviour of the subject observed“ (Selinger, Shohamy, 162) and the fact that only some figures are observable by senses, the author decided to increase the level of objectivity via questioning learners and interviewing teachers.

6.3.2 QUESTIONNAIRES

To minimize the level of subjectivity from the observations, the author decided to question learners via questionnaires. Thus the author distributed two different questionnaires (appendix 2 and 3) among learners. Questionnaire no. 1 (Q-1)'s purpose was to uncover patterns teachers use when issuing instructions as learners perceive

while questionnaire no. 2 (Q-2) focused on eliciting responses regarding learners' comprehension of provided instructions.

The author decided to use two self-made structured questionnaires with scale answers though some open-ended answers were also included in Q-1. Both questionnaires were constructed in the Czech language in order to make it comprehensible to learners. Both were firstly discussed with three other teachers so any ambiguous or obscure questions, that might not be understandable to learners, were discovered. Slight changes have been made and the questionnaires were handed out without any piloting stage. The Q-1 was composed of 25 questions, the Q-2 of 18.

The Q-1 was distributed, explained and collected by the author in December while the Q-2 was spread and gathered by previously-observed teachers in April after both teachers had been explained the purpose and anticipated learners' queries. The Q-1 was used as the secondary tool to support the reliability of findings from the observations as regards whether the guideline suggested in chapter 5.3 have been followed. On the other hand the Q-2 has been created to uncover how learners understand different instructions.

After the questionnaires have been collected, the author transmitted the answers into charts in order to be able to work with their outcomes later on.

6.3.3 INTERVIEW

The interview (appendix 4) with both observed teachers was the last data collection instrument used. Both teachers were interviewed in December after all observations had taken place. In both cases, it proceeded in their offices that decreased the level of formalness. The author used unstructured interview (Gavora, 2000: 110-111) with predetermined questions and open answers.

The aim of the interview was to picture how teachers perceive their instruction-giving patterns and their reasons for the employment of different techniques when issuing instructions.

To conclude, the small-scale research is conducted by means of observations, two questionnaires and an interview.

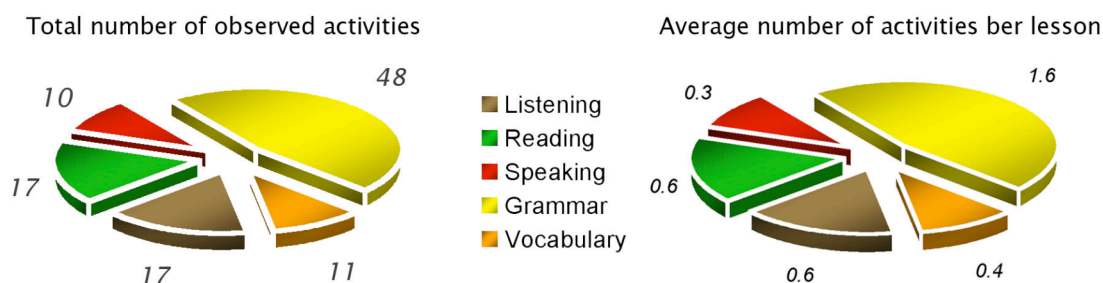
7 DATA PRESENTATION

Since the classroom observations were applied as the primary data collection instrument, the author starts with its analysis. For better clarity the author has decided to use charts to present the data.

7.1 DATA COLLECTED THROUGH OBSERVATIONS

Initially, all instruction-like-utterances from the observation sheets have been transmitted into the chart where each has been analyzed and sorted according to the previously set classification (chapter 5.4). Spoken utterances which have not fulfilled the requirement of being an instruction have not been taken into consideration, e.g. errors which the teacher corrected but nobody was asked to repeat, extra information and explanations which were not used to prompt learners, teacher's rhetorical questions or his or her chit-chat to fill in last minutes of a lesson etc. As mentioned in previous chapter, thirty lessons were observed, within which 103 activities arose, i.e. average three to four per lesson.

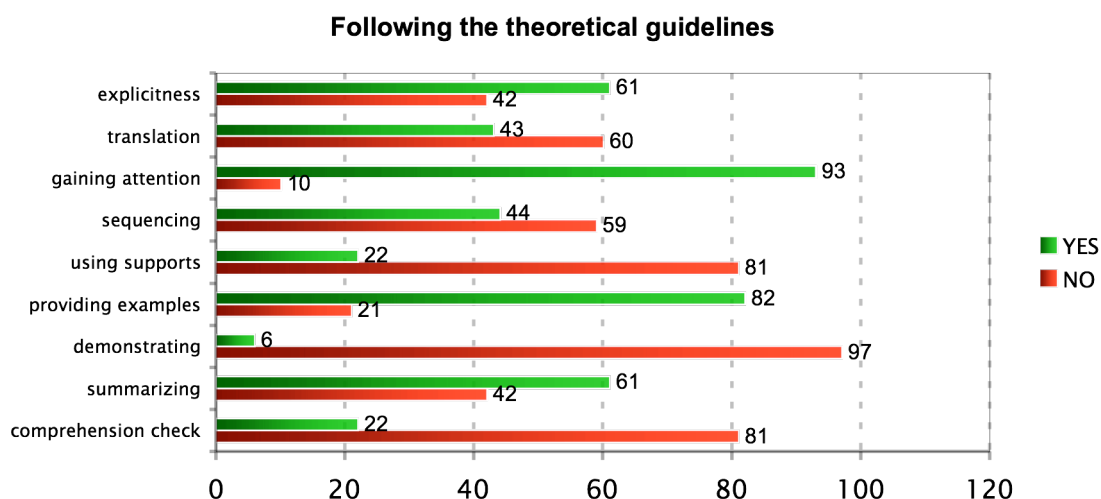
Chart 1



At first, the instructions have been analyzed with regard to theoretical guidelines suggested in chapter 5.3. Firstly, their overall explicitness was examined. In other words, the instruction was explored whether it includes all necessary information to do a task and it was discovered that in 61 (59%) it does. Then the author concentrated on number of activities where attention has been gained before the instructions were issued. It was in 93 (90%) of all occurrences. In further investigation the observer ascertained that 32 (31%) of instructions were presented gradually, i.e. sequenced and any kind of support was used only in 22 (21%) cases. The next area to explore concerned providing examples (in 21 activities - 20%) or demonstrations (6 - 6%). And the last involved summarizing and comprehension check. The observation revealed that

only 5 (5%) of instructions have been summarized and in 22 (21%) cases the teacher verbally checked learners' comprehension.

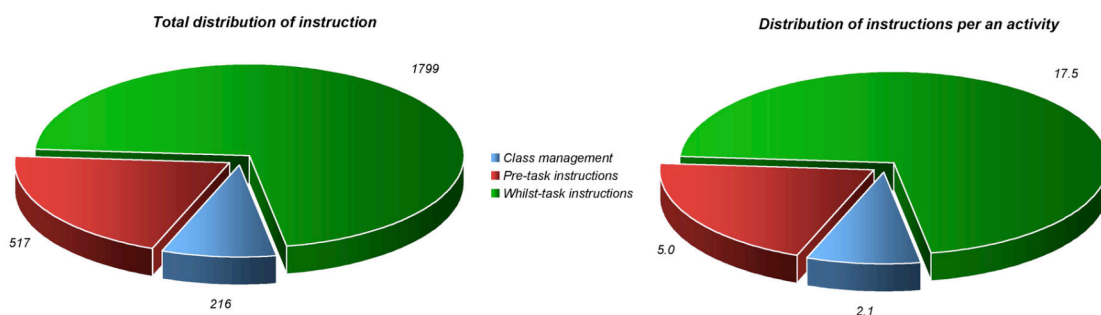
Chart 2



Secondly, the author focused to uncover the proportion of instruction-like utterances in an average activity. Though the number of issued instructions depends on many factors, e.g. the role of the teacher, level of learner's autonomy, learners' level of English or the type of the activity assigned and it would be rather interesting to further analyze it, the author can offer only general overview since it is not possible to cover all aspects in provided length of the thesis.

In total, 2 532 instruction-like utterances have been counted, an average nearly 25 instruction-like utterances per an activity, out of it 2 (9%) issued due to dealing with the class organization, 5 (22%) as pre-task instructions and 17 to 18 (78%) as whilst-task instructions.

Chart 3



During 30-lesson-long observation period 216 instructions connected to class management have been noted, out of that 58 (27%) have been published in connection to class organization such as taking register or preparing the classroom for the lesson, and 158 (73%) in connection to behaviour management, e.g. to quieten learners, deal with forgotten homework or unprepared learners.

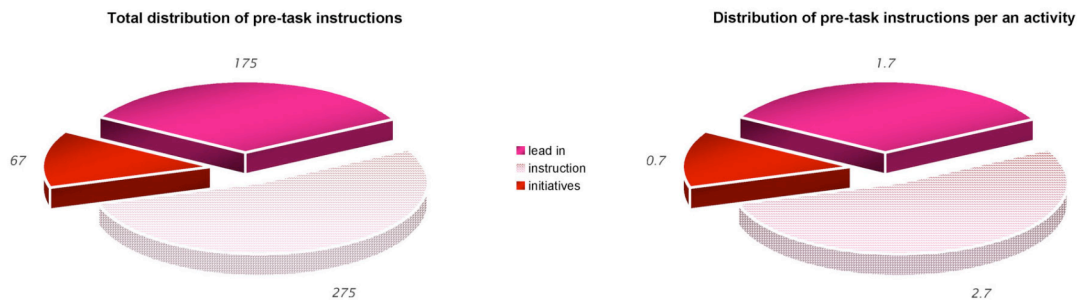
Chart 4

Total distribution of class management instructions



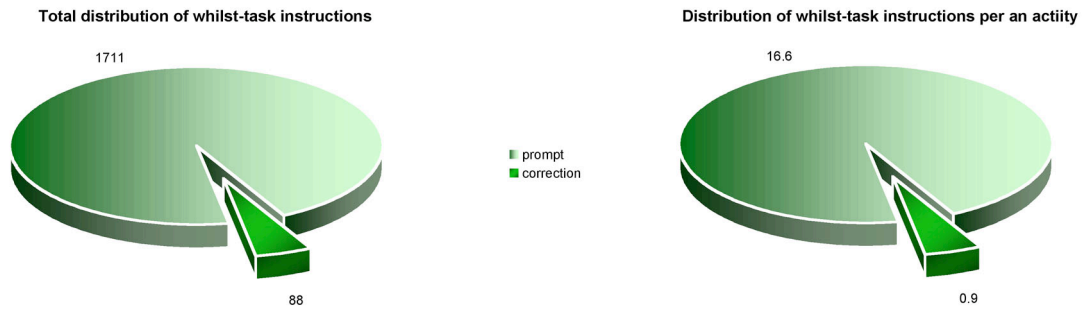
The next focus was on pre-task instructions and their distribution. In total, 517 pre-task instructions have been recorded out of which 175 (34%) served as lead-in instructions, 275 (53%) as instructions themselves and 67 (13%) were used to initiate activities as chart 5 shows. Chart 6 indicates the number of pre-task instructions and their proportion within an activity.

Chart 5



Whilst-task instructions are important for the actual development of the activity. After analysing the data, there were 1 799 whilst-task instructions observed, out of which 1 711 (95%) were classified as prompts and 88 (5%) as corrective instructions.

Chart 6



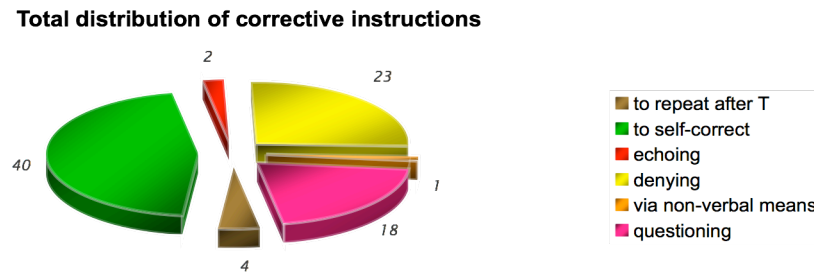
Furthermore, the prompt instructions, which are one sort of whilst-task instructions, were examined. The observation revealed that 1 711 prompt instructions were issues, out of which 1 560 (91%) were given in order to help learner to advance in the activity, 49 (3%) to help when a learner was in difficulty and 102 (6%) to encourage learners with their process.

Chart 7



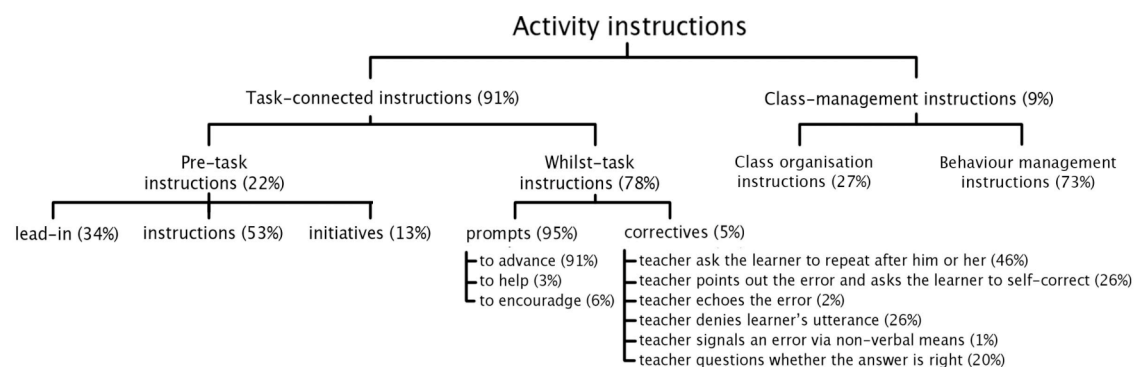
The last to examine is the second type of whilst-task instructions. The total number of corrective instructions reached number 88. In 40 cases (46%) a teacher asked learners to correct their error, 23 times (26%) the teacher denied learner's utterance, 18 times (20%) the learner's utterance was questioned, 4 times (5%) a learner was asked to repeat after the teacher, twice (2%) the answer was echoed and once (1%) the error was signalled via non-verbal means.

Chart 8



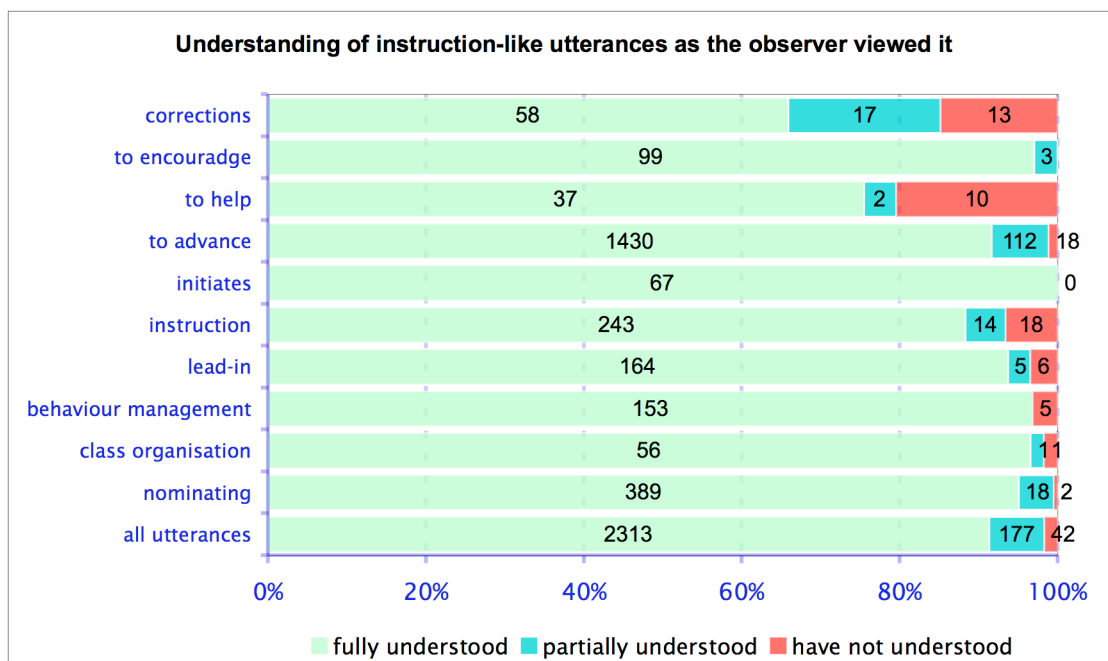
The overall composition of the instructions in an activity is suggested in bellow-stated chart 9.

Chart 9



Furthermore, the author is to present the outcomes that have been observed in lessons during observation though she is aware these data are very subjective and cannot be further supported.

From visual cues the author has got the impression that in more than 90% of all utterances the learners knew or guessed what they are expected to do. The exception are teacher's attempts to help where 20% of learners seemed not to understand what they had been expected to do with teacher's help. Also when they were being corrected, they weren't sure what to do. Yet, in that case it can be assumed they have not possessed the knowledge so that they did not know what to do. Since the author is aware, these findings cannot be further proved; they will not be reflected in the final analysis.



Furthermore, the author reminds that only instruction-like utterances have been taken into account, i.e. only instructions where learner's response was required. Besides, the author reminds that the sample was quite narrow (103 activities) therefore it should not serve for generalizations.

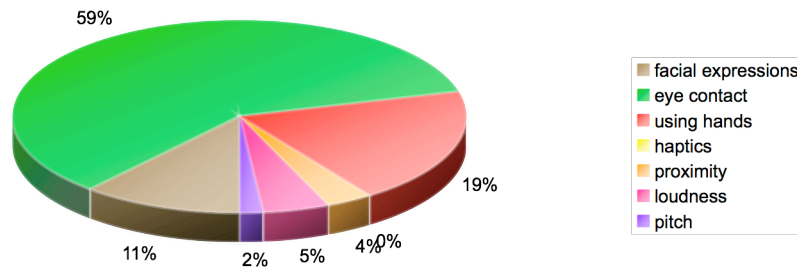
And finally, the data from the observation sheets were approached from the point of view in which patterns the instructions were issued. Firstly the usage of language was explored. The analysis showed that mother tongue in task-connected activities was used in 1 118 (48%) instructions, target language in 1 136 (49%) and a combination¹⁴ of both languages was observed in 62 (3%) cases. Yet, the differences between teachers were immense. While teacher no. 1 (T1) used target language in 27% of her utterances, teacher no. 2 (T2) employed it in 56% of all utterances. Moreover, it also exposed that 70 (6%) English instructions were further translated to the mother tongue and 36 (3%) Czech instructions to the target language. While in instructions connected to class management the mother tongue was employed in 180 (83%) utterances, the target language in 25 (12%) and 11 times (5%) the interjection was used.

Further to explore was the usage of paralinguistic and extra-linguistic means to support instructions. When observing, task-connected instructions were in 1 641 (59%)

¹⁴ The instruction was provided partly in mother tongue and partly in target language. Furthermore, 11 interjections (přt) were placed in this group since their usage is comprehensible in both languages.

occurrences accompanied by the eye contact, in 312 (11%) by facial expressions, in 535 (19%) by using hands and in 98 (4%) cases teachers drew nearer. The voice was 46 times (2%) altered in pitch and 127 times (5%) in strength. Only once (0%) the teacher approached and touched a learner.

Chart 10 Usage of paralinguistic and extra-linguistic features to support task-connected instructions¹⁵



The last area to explore based on the observation sheets was the engagement of supporting tools when issuing instructions. It was ascertained that teachers in 2 229 utterances (88%) did not use any support, in 163 (7%) cases used blackboard, 88 times (4%) prepared material and 26 times (1%) a book.

Chart 11

Using supports when providing instructions

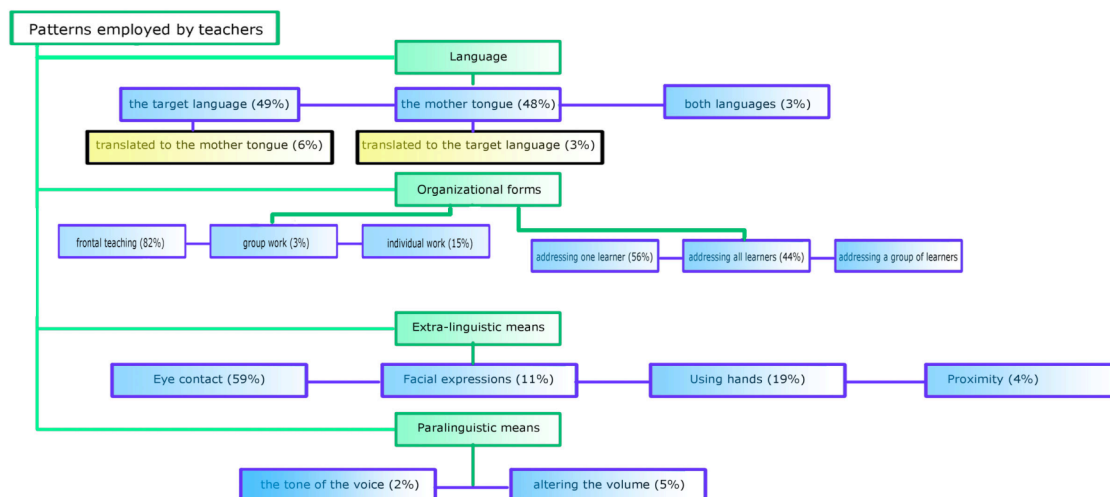


For better transparency, the author has created the chart how different patterns had been used in observed lessons. Similarly as in previous chapter, the author points out that it would worth to further explore the patterns as teachers in different roles employ them,

¹⁵ Employment of two or more paralinguistic and extra-linguistic tools at the same time to endorse instructions is not reflected in the chart.

considering also the classes where the lesson takes place or the activities for which they are issued.

Chart 12



The author was also attracted in the way learners perceive the instructions are delivered.

7.2 DATA COLLECTED THROUGH QUESTIONNAIRE NO. 1

In December, after observing all lessons, the Q-1 focused on providing instructions, as learners' perceive it, was distributed among learners who had been observed. The total number of questionnaires handed out and collected was 99. The questionnaire's purpose was to validate data ascertained in classroom observations. Besides, the data from the Q-1 offered to analyze questions and matters that have not been covered in the observation, either because they were not observable, the observer was not able to transcribe them or they were not observed during the 30-lesson period of observations.

The author used a structured questionnaire with scale answers, though six questions offered multiple answers. Learners were required to mark on the scale how much the statement is truthful. In order to analyze the data, the author transmitted all answers to the chart, further sorted them and examined them. Another chart with fewer groups has been produced and the data were converted to it according to following key - NEVER (learners believe the statement is truthful in less than 9% of utterances), HARDLY EVER (in 10-29%), SOMETIMES (in 30-69%), MOSTLY (in 70-89%), ALWAYS (in 99-100%) and I DON'T KNOW. The author decided to comment on the answers that

were marked by the majority of learners. The chart with all answers is enclosed in the appendix 2.

In the first six questions the author was interested in the language and its average usage. Following questions were pointed to gather learners' perception on how teachers provide instructions, what supportive tools they use, which verbal and non-verbal means they employ and how they follow the recommended guideline.

The Q-1 exposed that the majority of learners (between 35% - 54%) note that instructions are issued sometimes in the mother tongue, sometimes in the target language and sometimes in both languages at the same time, i.e. none of the teachers provides instructions consistently in one particular language nor they translate them regularly. 70 (71%) learners also tagged that if the instructions are provided in both languages, firstly they are uttered in the target language and if further translated 64 (65%) learners claim it is done so by the teacher. Similarly, mainly the teacher translates Czech instructions, though only 45 (45%) learners claim it.

Further, the author was interested whether teachers use any kind of support such as instructions written on the blackboard, in a book or in handouts. According to 38 (38%) learners they use it in most cases.

The next two questions were focused on finding teachers' patterns when gaining attention. 42 (42%) learners agree that mostly teachers gain attention before they start instructing them, mainly via raising their voice (78%), changing their tone of voice (56%), using eye contact (34%) and through their facial expressions (27%).

The questions 10 to 15 dealt with the formulation and presentation of instructions. 38 (38%) learners claim that teachers mostly provide simple, short and comprehensible instructions. 34 (34%) learners state that only sometimes the instructions are issued in short sentences and if they are 32 (32%) of them express, again, only sometimes the teachers sequence the instructions with pauses between sentences. 30 (30%) learners answered that teachers sometimes provide instructions without unnecessary „babble talk“ while other thirty claimed they do it in most of the time. Further they respond that teachers mainly stand (59 learners - 60%) when issuing instructions and to support them, teachers mostly alter the tone of voice (53 learners - 56%), establish eye contact (41 learners - 41%), alter the volume of their voice (36 learners - 36%), use gestures (30 learners - 30%) and move around in the class (27 learners - 27%).

Following four questions pursued whether teachers repeat or summarize instructions. 45 (42%) learners notice teachers mostly repeat instructions in same words. On the other hand, when asked whether teachers repeat the instructions in different words, 37 (37%) learners ticked „hardly ever“ answer. 43 (43%) learners believe that teachers mostly summarize instructions but 29 (29%) is convinced that teachers sometimes summarize if they believe learners have not understood issued instruction.

Penultimate area to cover deals with checking comprehension. When questioned whether teachers ask learners to repeat the instructions, 39 (39%) learners responded that „hardly ever“. Similarly as to the question if they are asked to summarize the instructions. 47 (48%) learners replayed „hardly ever“.

The last but not least section was related to giving examples. 45 (46%) learners declare that teachers mostly provide one or two examples. On the other hand 34 (34%) learners allege that hardly ever they are asked to provide examples themselves. When asked whether tasks are demonstrated, the most often answer was „hardly ever“ in both case, it is demonstrated neither by the teacher (29 learners - 29%) nor by one or two learners (33 - 33%).

Yet, the author would like to point out that learners' responses would need to be further analyzed since, for unknown reasons, they differ significantly. It is possible that the two teachers' styles are dissimilar, that teachers use different ways of presenting instructions in every class or learners did not pay too much attention when filling the questionnaire. But it is also possible that learners did not comprehend the questions as they had been intended.

The author was particularly interested how learners comprehend delivered instructions, so questionnaire no. 2 was created and employed.

7.3 DATA COLLECTED THROUGH QUESTIONNAIRE NO.2

As stated in previous chapter, the questionnaire no. 2 was distributed among learners in April. It was handed out, explained and collected by the previously observed teachers. The total number of learners present was 96. Q-2 was based on Q-1 except that all questions were reformulated, some were skipped and some added. Also this questionnaire can be divided in sections. Learners were required to choose from four possible answers - YES, SOMETIMES, NO and I DON'T KNOW. The meaning of the

word „sometimes“ was explained as the occurrence that neither prevails, nor misses completely.

Firstly, learners were asked if they understand instructions provided in the mother tongue (90 learners - 94% answered that they do) and in the target language (49 learners - 51% responded sometimes).

Expectedly, learners better understand instructions if they are spoken but also written e.g. on the blackboard, in a book (54 learners - 56%); if the teacher gains learners' attention before instructions are issued (73 learners - 76%); if the instructions are simple and short (81 learners - 84%); if they are uttered in short sentences with pauses between each utterance (69 learners - 72%); if the teacher does not add unnecessary information, if he or she does not fill the instructions with babble talk (59 learners - 60%); if the teacher repeats the instructions in same (37 learners - 39%) or different words (46 learners - 48%); and if the teacher demonstrates the task (54 learners - 56%).

Only sometimes learners understand better when the instructions are summarized by the teacher (41 learners - 43%) or by other learners (37 learners - 39%) or if the teacher provides one or two examples (43 learners - 45%). Surprisingly, they claim they do not understand if the instructions are repeated by other learners (53 learners - 55%); or if the example (49 learners - 50%) or demonstration (48 learners - 50%) is provided by one of their classmates.

Last two questions tried to depict whether learners prefer individual work without interruptions or whether they appreciate teachers' guidance, e.g. via whilst-task instructions. 83 (86%) learners responded they prefer the work without further interruptions and 9 (9%) learners prefer being guided during the task.

7.4 DATA COLLECTED THROUGH INTERVIEWS

The interview served as the fourth data collection instrument that complemented the questionnaires and observations. Its goal was to receive information from the teachers to capture their viewpoint on giving instructions. As stated in previous chapter, both teachers were interviewed in December after all the observations, in the comfortableness of their offices. The author used unstructured interview with predetermined questions and open answers. The teachers had not known the questions until the interview started. All answers were recorded on the sheet of paper, repeated for

teachers to confirm the interviewer have not misinterpreted the information and later analyzed.

Each interview contained 14 questions that were asked in the same order.

1. In what role do you perceive yourself most often in terms of learners' autonomy? E.g. the role of a controller, an assessor or an organiser?
2. Do you believe it is essential to provide clear and simple instructions?
3. Do you prepare your instructions for the lesson in advance with regards to learners' level of English?
4. What interaction patterns do you use (how do you address learners)?
5. Do you use any teaching aids when instructing learners, e.g. a blackboard, a book, etc?
6. Do you prefer to give instructions in English/Czech? If in English, are they further translated to the mother tongue?
7. Do you use paralinguistic and extra-linguistic features when issuing instructions?
8. Do you provide all necessary information (without babble talk)? Are they fully explicit?
9. Do you delivery instructions after you have gained all learners' attention?
10. Do you sequence the instructions or do you enounce them all at once?
11. Do you issue instructions at an appropriate speed?
12. Do you demonstrate or give examples when providing instructions? Do you ask learners to do so?
13. Do you check whether your learners have understood your instructions? If so, how?
14. Do you check your learners individually whether they have understood your instructions?

In this section, the author offers acquired responses that will be later compared to the data gained in the observations.

First question forced teachers to formulate their teaching roles. While T1 admitted that most often she assumes the role of a controller, mainly because of learners' level of English or their behaviour, T2 prefers to adopt the role of an organiser whenever possible though often he employs the role of a controller, especially in some classes. Then teachers were asked on their beliefs regarding instructing learners. Both assented that clear and comprehensible instructions are necessity.

The third question was interested in teachers' preparation of instructions. Both teachers congruently confessed they used to prepare instructions in advance but as their pedagogical experience have increased they confide in their qualification and rarely they prepare in advance anymore.

To following question both answered that they mostly address the whole class when issuing instructions and later, if needed, they further instruct individuals in such a way the other learners hear the instructions, too.

As for teaching aids, both teachers declare they prefer to instruct learners orally and written instructions are used only if they are already written in the book or in prepared materials. Rarely they write them on the blackboard or use other supporting tools.

Further the author was interested in the language teachers use when instructing learners. T1 stated that she prefers to instruct in the mother tongue, especially in lower grades. With learners' higher knowledge of English, she includes English instructions to her utterances more often. Then a called on learner often translates the more difficult instructions while the easy ones are not further translated. On the other hand, T2 presents instructions in the target language since, he believes, it offers learners more chances to experience English. Yet, he also instructs in the mother tongue, especially when explaining a new grammar or when the instruction is too difficult. If the instructions need to be translated he asks learners to do so.

The interviewer was also curious whether teachers are aware of their paralinguistic and extra-linguistic expressions when issuing instructions. Both of them agreed they are and named those that they normally employ. Both use the eye contact, proximity (and movement around the class) and firmly exclude haptics. Moreover, T1 purposely alters her voice when instructing, especially its pitch and volume.

Questions 8 to 14 were created mainly to find out whether teachers follow the recommended guidelines. Both perceive their instructions to be clear and simple. Yet,

T2 admits that if he sees the learners appear to be confused, he paraphrases, translates or asks somebody to translate the instructions for the rest. Both claim not to provide instructions until they have gained learners' attention. When asked whether they sequence instructions, T1 responded she usually provides instructions gradually while T2 ordinarily issues all instructions at once so the learners can work individually, yet, he added, sometimes and in some classes it is necessary to sequence them. As for speed, both admitted it is possible they provide them faster, but only if the learners are familiarize with the type of activity. Both teachers assert that they provide examples before the activity starts, either by themselves or by asking learners to do so. Last two questions concern comprehension check. As for comprehension check, both teacher claim they mainly rely on visual cues. T1 evaluates the non-verbal signals and, if needed, paraphrases or adds further explanation of instructions to the whole class. On the other hand, T2 usually gets the feedback on comprehension from individual progress check; therefore he proffers more instructions only to those who are in need.

Since all obtained data has been presented, their evaluation and interpretation follows.

8 DATA INTERPRETATION

The purpose of this chapter is to answer the questions stated in the beginning, i.e. 1) whether the theory concerning ‘providing instructions’ as presented in literature by teaching specialists is followed in practice including the composition of instruction-like utterances within an activity and patterns used when providing instructions; and 2) how learners perceive and comprehend issued instructions.

Therefore chapter 8 is further divided and each subchapter deal with one questions of the thesis.

8.1.1 ENSUING THEORETICAL GUIDELINES

The first question to answer was „do teachers follow theoretical guidelines how to instruct learners?“ To find out the data must be interpreted according to theory described in chapter 5.3.

8.1.1.1 Preparation

Most authors agree that careful preparation is necessity therefore the author was curious whether the teachers respect it. Since this is not observable, this question was asked in the interviews. Both teachers admitted they do not prepare in advance anymore since they believe their long-time pedagogical practice is sufficient.

8.1.1.2 Language

Since the language influences the comprehensibility of instructions, the author was interensted in it. The data from the observation sheet and learners’ Q-1 (questions 1-3) indicated that no language prevails over the other since teachers use the mother tongue (48%), the target language (49%) or both languages simultaneously (3%). Yet, the differences between teachers were immense. T1 claimed in the interview (question 6), she uses target language less then the mother tongue that was proved through the observations (27%). On the other hand teacher 2 stated he prefers to speak in target language and used target language in 56% of all utterances.

8.1.1.3 Gaining attention

Both teacher claim they demand learners’ attention before instructions are issued which was supported by the observation (in 90% of activities). Though, it was not sufficiently

supported by the outcomes from the Q-1 since only 34% of learners believe attention is attained always or nearly always (question 8).

8.1.1.4 Sequencing

According to Swift or Scrivener, instructions should be issued in short, simple utterances so the learners have time to absorb each piece of information. From the observations, it is clear, that instructions are mainly short and expressed in simple sentences (99%) without unnecessary information (99%). Neither of the information can be endorsed by the outcomes from the Q-1. (questions 13, 14, 15).

In interviews T1 revealed to frequently sequence the instructions while the T2 does it only if necessary. The observation showed that instructions for 59 activities were sequenced and presented gradually, out of which teacher one sequenced the instructions in 78% of activities and teacher 2 in 23% of activities. The reason for such difference can be found in the first answer of the interview where T1 admits she generally adopts the role of a controller while T2 often embraces the role of an organiser whenever possible, therefore he prefers to provide instructions before an activity starts in order not to interfere too much.

Yet, from the observation is clear that each activity contained instruction-like utterances, that were uttered in order to proceed with the activity and they were further exploited and described in chapter 7.1

8.1.1.5 Demonstrations and examples

Swift, Ur and others recommend to provide examples or demonstrations since it increases comprehension. The results from questionnaire no. 1 (questions 22-25) and observations confirm that teachers usually provide examples, not so demonstrations.

8.1.1.6 Summarizing and checking comprehension

Furthermore, authors recommend to check comprehension and repeat, paraphrase or summarize the instructions. The outcomes from the observations, similarly as from the questionnaire no. 1 (question 16-21) indicate that teachers repeat, paraphrase or summarize (mostly by themselves), yet they do not verbally check the comprehension.

Since teachers also use the target language to instruct, checking comprehension is especially important. According to the observation, 43 (42%) activities has been further translated but only in 22 activities the learners' comprehension was verbally checked. Lack of sufficient comprehension check is partially explained in the answers from

teachers' questionnaire (question 14) where teachers claim they rely on visual cues (teacher 1) or on individual learner's progress (teacher 2) and offer further explanation or translation only if needed.

8.1.1.7 Supports and employment of paralinguistic and extra-linguistic tools

Similarly as authors, both teachers (interview - question 7) claim to employ paralinguistic and extra-linguistic features (e.g. eye contact, proximity) while they deny using haptics. Moreover T1 mentioned altering her voice (pitch and volume) when providing instructions but especially to gain attention, which was proved in the analysis of the data from the Q-1 (questions 9, 11) and from the observations. The outcomes from the observations indicate the usage is not so high, yet it could be due to the fact, the observer may have not been able to transmit all non-verbal signals to the sheets during the lesson.

To conclude, teachers do not follow the first and last advice, i.e. to prepare their instructions in advance and to sufficiently check comprehension, but they mainly ensue the other steps such as gaining attention before instructing, sequencing instructions into short and simple utterances, providing examples and repeating or paraphrasing instructions and using paralinguistic and extra-linguistic tools to support the instructions.

8.1.2 LEARNERS' COMPREHENSION

The last, but one of the most important part of the thesis is focused on learners' comprehension of instructions. Since this is not observable, the author must have relied on the data from Q-2.

The author was interested in how learners understand instructions and what increases their comprehension. Expectedly, they congruently stated they understand mother tongue instructions better, which may instigate teachers to prefer them to the target language instructions.

Nevertheless, even mother tongue instructions may be difficult to understand. The majority of the respondents mentioned that, as Ur (1996: 17) claims, if instructions are both, spoken and written, it increases their chances to understand, yet teachers usually do not provide instructions in both forms (interview - question 5 and data from the observations) unless they are already written in printed materials.

The learners also believe to better comprehend what to do when instructions are provided after having gained their attention, which is done most cases (Q-1 - question 9 and interview - question 9).

Vast majority of learners is convinced that short and simple instructions served in short sentences and without „babble talk“ assist in better comprehensibility. The Q-1 (questions 13-15) and, primarily, data gained from the observations proved that instructions in such way are often provided.

There are two more areas to cover. The first one is connected to repetition, paraphrasing or summarization of instructions. Learners state that teacher's repetition or rephrasing of instructions helps them more than if it is done by one of the learners. They do not consider summary helps them as much as repetition or paraphrasing. The data from Q-1 (questions 16-21) indicate that usually it is the teacher who repeats and summarizes the information, so that it suits learners' needs.

And the last area concerns demonstrations and providing examples. The learners believe that examples and demonstrations help though not always. But if they are provided, again, they think examples and demonstrations prepared by the teacher helps them more then the ones produced by their classmates. Also here the data from Q-1 (questions 22-25) and teachers' interview (question 12) indicate that teacher already use it.

To conclude, learners better understand instructions that the teacher issues in the mother tongue, in both forms (spoken and written) and after their attention is achieved. They prefer when instructions are short and simple, in short sentences and without babble talk and they comprehend better if the teacher repeats or paraphrases what to do and demonstrates or shows an example how to do the activity. Moreover they prefer to obtain all information at once rather than to be guided. Most of above mentioned is already put in practice with the exception of having the instructions presented in two form and, in case of the T1, to be left alone to work.

9 SUMMARY OF THE PRACTICAL SECTION

The aim of the research was to answer two questions, which have been stated in the introduction to the practical section. The basis for the research was explained in the theoretical part.

The first research question concerned the employment of the theoretical guidelines or producing task-connected instructions during an activity in a real school environment. The research has exposed that many of the theoretical pieces of advice are followed with two exceptions. Teachers believe a careful preparation is not needed anymore because their long-time pedagogical experience is sufficient. The second advice, which is not followed, concerns comprehension check where teachers recon they discover learners' lack of understanding through visual cues.

The author also observed that, since the teachers often adopt the role of a controller, many task-connected instructions have been issued by which learners were constantly reminded what to do.

The second but more important research question was interested in learners' comprehension. The data showed that learners understand better when instructions are, both spoken and written, but chiefly clear, simple and without unnecessary information. If they are presented after learners' attention has been gained in short sentences with examples or demonstrations and finally repeated or paraphrased by the teacher. In short, if all theoretical recommendations are followed.

Nonetheless, as it has been stated several times, the author worked with a narrow sample and a limited number of data, therefore the research conclusion should not be universalize though it may serve as a base for another research.

10 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this thesis was to analyse and present the data gained in a real school environment regarding instructions and their influence on learners' comprehension of a task. The aim was to discover if the theory on providing instructions as well as the composition of instructions is ensued in practice. This thesis is divided into two interrelated parts: practical and theoretical part.

The first part of the paper contains theoretical chapters dealing with communication in general, different types of communication and instructions. This part offers arguments supporting the fact that correct presentation of instructions is necessary in order to increase learners' chances of right comprehension of a task. The focus is on the pedagogical communication in a classroom, means of verbal and non-verbal communication and instructions. . This part serves as a theoretical basis for the practical part.

The theoretical part is further subdivided into five main chapters starting with a preface where the author explains why she has chosen this topic. The next two chapters attempt to introduce communication in general and communication connected to school environment, i.e. the social and, primarily, the pedagogical communication with some of its aspects, such as its participants, the roles of a teacher, organisational forms, and the language applied. Furthermore, the subsequent chapter depicts the verbal and non-verbal communication with their tools in order to describe the basic ways how to transmit messages. The last chapter of the theoretical part attempts to introduce principles that should be obeyed when issuing instructions and describes the composition of an instruction.

The practical part introduces a small-scale research and defines two research questions. The aim of the practical section is to present obtained data and evaluate whether the theoretical recommendations are carried out in the real school environment and to what extent they influence learners' comprehension of instructions.

The research revealed that only some of the recommendations are followed and indicated which of them learners acknowledge as increasing their comprehensibility.

However, to use the research conclusions to generalize is not advisable since the author worked with a narrow sample and a limited number of data. Nonetheless, it may serve

as a base for another research since both the theoretical and the practical part offers an inside view into the topic.

Již ze samotného názvu diplomové práce je zřejmé, že se autorka zabývá problematikou zadávání instrukcí ve výuce anglického jazyka na nejazykové střední škole. Nejprve vysvětluje, jak nahlíží na termín instrukce a poukazuje, že instrukcí nemyslí pouze zadání úkolu, ale všechny příkazy, které vedou ke splnění zadané práce bez ohledu na formu zadání, tj. instrukcí může být příkaz, oznámení či otázka.

Diplomová práce se skládá ze dvou částí, a to části teoretické a části praktické, které spolu souvisí, jelikož praktická část vychází z teoretické. Samotná práce se skládá z deseti kapitol. Nejprve autorka předkládá současné poznatky z oboru pedagogické komunikace a vyučování v hodinách anglického jazyka se zaměřením na zadávání instrukcí. V praktické části následně popisuje, analyzuje a prezentuje data získaná v hodinách anglického jazyka.

První kapitola je věnována úvodu do problematiky. Ve druhé kapitole vysvětluje samotný význam komunikace a její rozdělení. Následně objasňuje sociální a pedagogickou komunikaci, díky níž může výuka ve škole probíhat, a vysvětluje její blíže specifika. Zejména se věnuje otázce účastníků pedagogické komunikace a jejich vztahu, rolí učitele v hodinách anglického jazyka, a způsobu adresování žáků. Především pak připomíná využití jazyka, kdy, narozdíl od výuky jiných předmětů, v hodinách cizího jazyka mají učitelé možnost výběru mateřského či cílového jazyka pro zadání instrukcí. Nicméně, jak autorka zmiňuje, použití cílového jazyka při zadávání úkolů má i své nevýhody a je na každém z učitelů ke zvážení, kdy a jaký jazyk použije i s ohledem na aktuální jazykové dovednosti vyučované skupiny žáků.

Z hlediska zadávání instrukcí je významná nejen slovní (verbální), ale i neverbální komunikace, zejména pak v případě, kdy je úkol vysvětlován v cílovém jazyce. Z tohoto důvodu se verbální a neverbální komunikaci věnuje autorka ve čtvrté kapitole. Připomíná nejen paralingvistické prostředky spojené s hlasovým projevem mluvčího, ale i extralingvistické prostředky spjaté s projevy těla, např. oční kontakt, výraz obličeje, gesta či vzdálenost od posluchače. Učitel používá tyto prostředky nejen k podpoře či zdůraznění vlastních instrukcí, ale i k sledování reakcí žáků a vyhodnocení jejich porozumění.

Po přiblížení všeobecných principů pedagogické verbální a neverbální komunikace autorka přistupuje k samotným instrukcím. Nejprve rozděluje instrukce podle předchozí kapitoly na verbální a neverbální. Následně předkládá zásady pro zadávání slovních instrukcí v hodinách anglického jazyka tak, jak jsou prezentovány současnými autory a objasňuje jednotlivé části, zejména pak důležitost přípravy, volbu jazyka či nutnost kontroly pochopení instrukcí samotnými žáky. Mimo jiné připomíná i neverbální podporu instrukcí, především oční kontakt, výraz obličeje či použití gest.

V této kapitole také autorka vysvětluje vlastní pojetí instrukcí jako jednotlivých příkazů, které dále rozděluje na instrukce udělené před samotným úkolem, instrukce, které jsou poskytovány v průběhu úkolu a instrukce, které souvisejí s kázní či organizací výuky. Všechny tyto instrukce jsou zpravidla používány v hodinách anglického jazyka, nicméně se různí častot jejich použití podle role, kterou učitel zaujme nebo typu aktivity, která je zadaná a míry aktuální pozornosti žáků vyučované skupiny. Jedná se především o instrukce poskytované v průběhu vlastní aktivity, např. instrukce zaměřené na opravu žáka jsou častěji využívány při nekomunikativních úkolech nebo učitelem v roli kontrolora než při komunikativních aktivitách, kdy učitel zaujme roli organizátora.

Vysvětlením a rozdělením instrukcí autorka uzavírá teoretickou část a v následujících kapitolách představuje a předkládá svůj výzkum, jehož cílem bylo odpovědět na dvě základní otázky, a to, zda jsou teoretická doporučení naplňována při výuce jazyka, tzn. že instrukce jsou dobře připraveny, před jejich zadáním je zjednána pozornost všech žáků, jsou předkládány v krátkých a rozumně po sobě jdoucích příkazech, před samotným úkolem je uveden příklad či je úkol demonstrován a je zkontrolováno jejich pochopení samotnými žáky. Kromě toho se výzkum zaměřuje i na správné využití verbálních a neverbálních prostředků při zadávání instrukcí. Druhá otázka je zabývá praktickým pochopením instrukcí žáky, a to ve skutečném prostředí školní třídy na nejazykové střední škole.

Výzkum probíhal na jedné střední odborné škole v Táboře a zúčastnili se ho dva učitelé v šesti různých třídách z různých oborů i typu vzdělání (učňovské, maturitní i vyšší odborné). Ke sběru dat byly použity tři různé metody, a to strukturované pozorování, rozhovor a dva strukturované dotazníky. Vhodnost záznamových archů i

dotazníků byla konzultována s dalšími třemi učiteli s bohatou pedagogickou praxí, kteří působí nebo působily na daném typu škol. Archy i dotazníky byly, po potřebné úpravě, použity k následnému získání dat. Pro dotvoření komplexnosti byl proveden rozhovor s oběma učiteli, kteří se zúčastnili výzkumu. Tento rozhovor byl zaměřen na získání jejich pohledu na vlastní zadávání instrukcí. Dotazníky určené žákům byly zaměřeny na dvě různé věci. Hlavním cílem dotazníku č. 1 bylo potvrzení dat získaných při pozorování, zatímco dotazník č. 2 se zaměřil na zjištění porozumění zadaných instrukcí jednotlivými žáky.

V další kapitole praktické části jsou prezentována data získaná ze všech použitých druhů sběru materiálu. Nejprve údaje získané díky pozorování, následně údaje z dotazníku č. 1 a dotazníku č. 2 a poté i údaje získané v rozhovoru s učiteli. Jednotlivé údaje jsou prezentovány bez dalšího komentáře a k jejich interpretaci dochází až v kapitole osm.

V kapitole osm jsou získané údaje vyhodnoceny vzhledem k teoretickým poznatkům. Nejdříve je hodnoceno, jak jsou plněny doporučení různých autorů pro zadávání instrukcí. Výzkum naznačuje následování většiny rad mimo pečlivé přípravy, kterou učitelé díky své dlouholeté praxi považují za nadbytečnou, a verbálního ověření pochopení instrukcí. Data získaná pozorováním a vyhodnocením dotazníku č. 1 naznačují, že kontrola pochopení instrukcí a použití podpůrných prostředků ve sledovaných hodinách výuky anglického jazyka, je nedostatečná. Autorka vychází především z vlastního pozorování, jelikož výstupy z dotazníku č. 1 je nutno brát s rezervou. Zkoumané skupiny byly sice poučeny o účelu vyplnění dotazníku a velmi se zajímaly o důvody sledování při navštěvování hodin autorkou. Nicméně výuka cizího jazyka nepatří na vybrané škole k nejoblíbenějším předmětům a žáci neměli téměř žádnou motivaci správně a reálně vyplňovat dotazník č. 1. K tomuto závěru autorku vede analýza dotazníků, kdy jednotlivé odpovědi u některých skupin vůbec neodpovídají předpokládanému bližení ke gaussově křivce pravděpodobnosti jednotlivých odpovědí což mohlo být způsobeno výše uvedenou nízkou motivací některých žáků nebo nepochopením smyslu otázky v dotazníku.

V rozhovoru učitelé potvrdili, že spoléhají na vizuální indicie, popř. na individuální kontrolu práce a výjimečně prezentují instrukce jak ústně, tak i písemně,

např. na tabuli. Ostatní body doporučené teoretiky, jako např. získání pozornosti před zadáním instrukcí, prezentování instrukcí v krátkých a jednoduchých větách či uvádění příkladu, jsou aplikovány.

Druhá otázka se soustředí na pochopení instrukcí žáky. Jelikož není možné data získat pozorováním (žáci se typicky při zadávání instrukcí chovají tak, že učiteli demonstrují, že rozumí, avšak ne vždy tomu tak je), byl vytvořen dotazník č. 2. Nabytá data jsou následně porovnávána s teoretickými doporučeními. Ve většině případů odpovědi žáků potvrzují oprávněnost teoretických doporučení. Nicméně, z bližšího prozkoumání vyplývá, že ne všechny body musí být splněny, respektive plně splněny. Např. jeden z bodů doporučuje uvedení příkladu učitelem či spolužákem. V tomto případě žáci souhlasí, že příklad předložený učitelem pomáhá k lepšímu pochopení instrukce více než příklad uvedený spolužákem. Jiným příkladem je shrnutí instrukcí. Zatímco žáci věří, že parafráze či opakování zadání zlepšuje jejich porozumění, nedomnívají se, že shrnutí plní stejnou funkci. Výstup také naznačuje, že žáci preferují, když instrukce jsou zadávány jak ústně, tak i písemně.

Je třeba zdůraznit, že je více faktorů, které ovlivňují pochopení instrukcí. Jelikož autorka pracovala jen s omezeným množstvím subjektů a výzkumné šetření bylo provedeno v jedné konkrétní oblasti, výsledky zkoumání by bez dalšího zkoumání a rozpracovávání neměly být zobecňovány.

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































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Legend for the observation sheet

Legend

INSTRUCTIONS:	 oral/written
	 mother tongue/target language
EXTRALINGUISTIC:	 facial expressions - smile (showing pleasure, agreement), frown (showing displeasure/disagreement)
	 eye contact - with a learner/no eye contact/with a whole class
	 using hands/walking/pointing
	 standing/half-sitting/sitting
	 gestures
	 haptics
	 proximity - closer/further
PARALINGUISTIC:	 loudness
	 tone of the voice
	 speed of the speech*
	 volume*
	 rhythm*
	 intonation*
	 movements in the speech*
	 correct pronunciation*
	 quality of speech*
	 segmenting, phrasing*
ORGANIZATIONAL FORMS:	 addressing individuals
	 addressing a pair or a group of learners
	 addressing all learners
THE EXPLICITNESS OF INSTRUCTIONS:	  explicit/not explicit*
MEANS OF SIMPLIFICATIONS:	 segmenting*
	 translations to Czech/English by a teacher/a learner/learners
	 demonstrating an example
TEACHING AIDS:	 a blackboard
	 handouts
	 a book
	 television, video
	 a CD-player
	 a computer

* - these features and patterns have not been used and observed

An example of a filled-in observation sheet

76

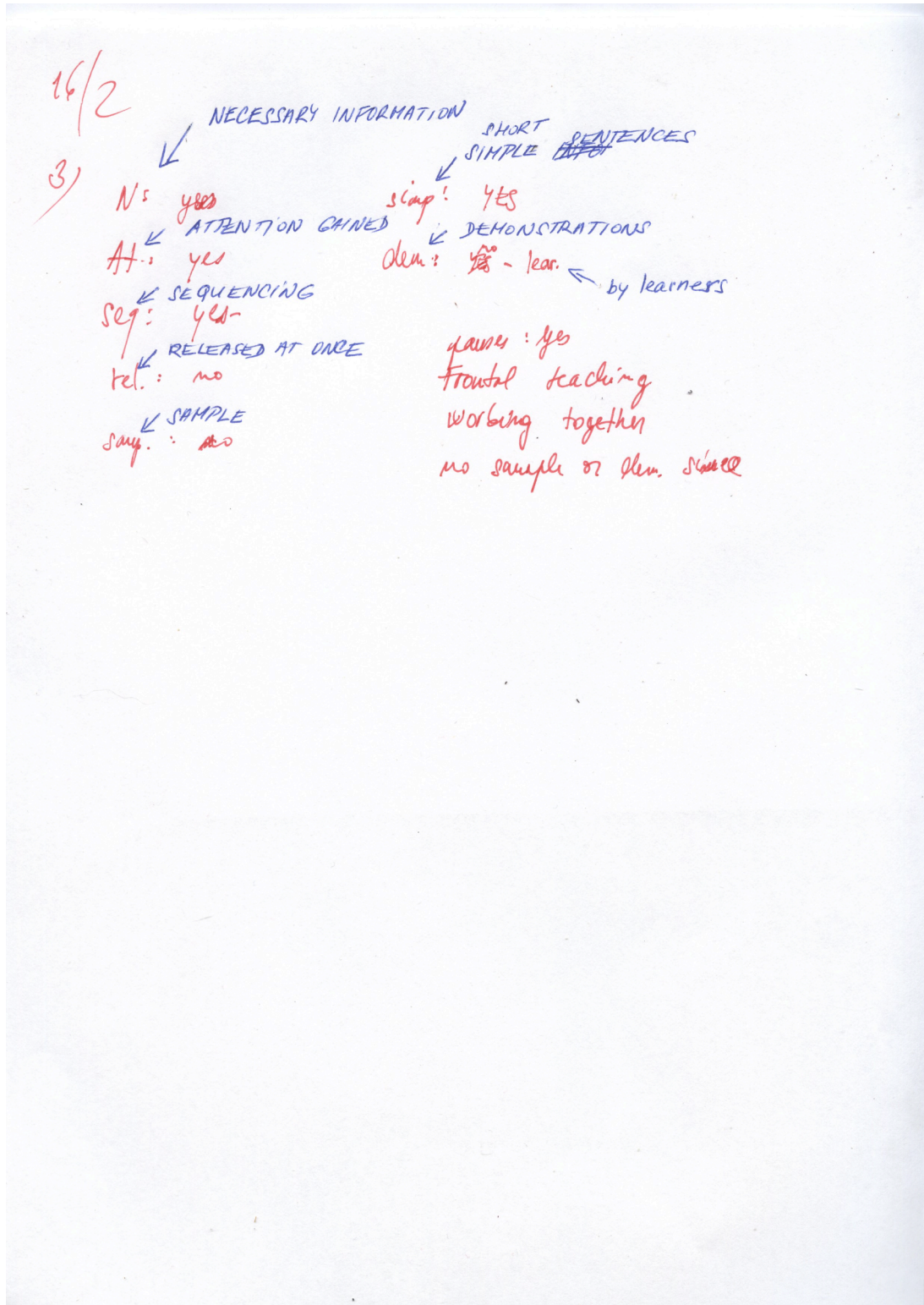
3 minutes
... (expl.?)
read the example card
... (?)
minutes to the end
A small underband &
1 minute
OK we'll finish
we'll correct the ex.
↳
so open your notebook
write the first sent.
↳
before we continue...
for you, make sure
"v" o ?
app d. to write
"ca ?
PART 11
Rise - dealer
↳ but not underband...?
See text in situ. make
(R.) - (not) repeat
↳ you repeat
↳ come
the mistake is ?
jmlma myeStadom

activity
class marks

instruction extralinguistic
paralinguistics
interaction explicit zjednodušení
aids

visually: V = LS understand X = LS do not understand • LS participate only

An example of a description of an activity which was attached to an observation sheet



Appendix 2 The questionnaire no. 1

Třída

Datum:

Zadávání instrukcí - dotazník pro studenty

Tento dotazník slouží pro účely diplomové práce a bude zpracováván anonymně. Označte, do jaké míry (z kolika procent) je tvrzení pravdivé. Pokud není dáno jinak, označte jen jednu odpověď.

- Instrukce jsou zadávány pouze v českém jazyce:

nikdy	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%	vždy
-------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------
- Instrukce jsou zadávány pouze v anglickém jazyce:

nikdy	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%	vždy
-------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------
- Instrukce jsou zadávány v obou jazycích najednou (nejprve česky, potom anglicky, nebo naopak). V případě, že instrukce nejsou nikdy zadávány dvojazyčně, přejděte na otázku č. 7.

nikdy	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%	vždy
-------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------
- Pokud jsou instrukce zadávány dvojazyčně, častěji jsou nejdříve zadány v:

a) anglickém jazyce	b) českém jazyce
---------------------	------------------
- Pokud jsou zadány v anglickém jazyce a jsou překládány, nejčastěji jsou přeloženy:

a) učitelem	b) žákem	c) žák
-------------	----------	--------
- Pokud jsou zadány v českém jazyce a jsou překládány, nejčastěji jsou přeloženy:

a) učitelem	b) žákem	c) žák
-------------	----------	--------
- Účitel zadání úkolu současně říká, i přiče nebo je napsáno na tabuli, papíře či v učebnici:

nikdy	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%	vždy
-------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------
- Před zadáním úkolu si učitel zjevně pozorost žáků.

nikdy	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%	vždy
-------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------
- V případě, že si učitel zjevně pozorost, obvykle k tomu používá (více odpovědí je možné):

a) oční kontakt se žákem/žáky	c) výraz tváře	i) přiblížení se k žákovi
b) tón hlasu	f) gesta a gestikulaci	j) dotek
c) zvýšení hlasu	g) pohyb po třídě	k) jiné
d) nebo	h) pozici ve třídě	
- Instrukce (zadání úkolu) jsou jednoduché, krátké a srozumitelné:

nikdy	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%	vždy
-------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------
- Účitel při zadávání instrukcí obvykle používá (více odpovědí je možné):

a) oční kontakt se žákem/žáky	e) výraz tváře	i) přiblížení se k žákovi
b) tón hlasu	f) gesta a gestikulaci	j) dotek
c) zvýšení hlasu	g) pohyb po třídě	k) jiné
d) nebo	h) pozici ve třídě	
- Účitel při zadání instrukcí obvykle:

1. sedí	2. stojí	3. chodí
---------	----------	----------

13. Učitel zadání úkolu rozděluje do krátkých vět. V případě, že učitel nikdy nerozděluje instrukce do krátkých vět, přejděte na otázku č. 15.

nikdy	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%	vždy
-------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------

14. Pokud učitel zadání úkolu rozděluje do krátkých vět, říká je postupně s pauzou mezi jednotlivými větami:

nikdy	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%	vždy
-------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------

15. Učitel říká jen informace nezbytné pro splnění zadání (bez zbytečných řečí okolo):

nikdy	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%	vždy
-------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------

16. Učitel zadání alespoň jedenkrát zopakuje přesně stejnými slovy:

nikdy	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%	vždy
-------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------

17. Učitel zadání alespoň jedenkrát zopakuje, ale jinými slovy:

nikdy	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%	vždy
-------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------

18. Učitel zadání shrne a tím ho celé zopakuje:

nikdy	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%	vždy
-------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------

19. Učitel zadání zopakuje nebo shrne, jen pokud ho žáci nepochopili a mají dodatečné dotazy:

nikdy	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%	vždy
-------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------

20. Učitel požádá žáka (nebo žáky), aby zadání zopakoval(i):

nikdy	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%	vždy
-------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------

21. Učitel požádá žáka (nebo žáky), aby zadání shrnul(i):

nikdy	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%	vždy
-------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------

22. Pro lepší pochopení zadání učitel uvede jeden nebo dva příklady:

nikdy	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%	vždy
-------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------

23. Pro lepší pochopení zadání učitel učitel požádá žáka uvést příklad nebo vypracovat jeden nebo dva příklady před celou třídou:

nikdy	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%	vždy
-------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------

24. Pro lepší pochopení zadání učitel učitel uvede (sám, příp. ve dvojici s žákem) celé třídy:

nikdy	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%	vždy
-------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------

25. Pro lepší pochopení zadání učitel učitel požádá žáka (žáky), aby přebvedl(i) úkol před celou třídou:

nikdy	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%	vždy
-------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------

Děkují Vám za vyplnění dotazníku.

Transcribed outcomes from learners' questionnaire no. 1

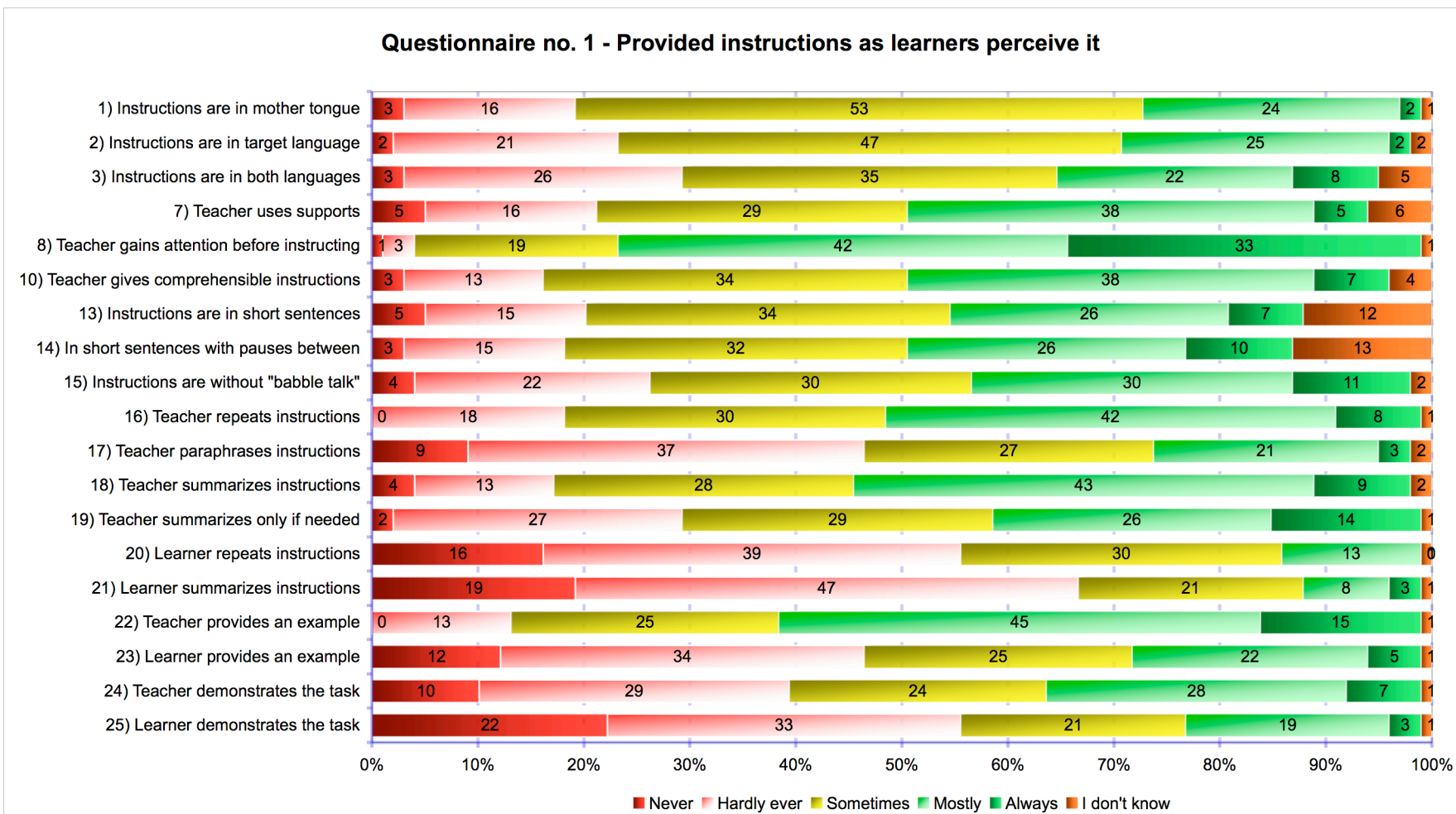
	Number of learners												*	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k
	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	99												
1	3	3	5	8	9	27	17	8	10	6	2	1												
2	2	6	7	8	12	27	8	12	10	3	2	2												
3	3	4	6	16	6	25	4	6	10	6	8	5												
4												4	70	25	0									
5												5	64	14	16									
6												4	45	15	35									
7	5	1	6	9	8	13	8	14	18	6	5	6												
8	1	1	1	1	2	9	8	13	13	16	33	1												
9													34	55	77	14	27	13	12	3	8	1	4	
10	3	0	6	7	10	15	9	6	16	16	7	4												
11													41	53	36	7	16	30	27	6	5	0	3	
12													18	59	22									
13	5	2	4	9	12	14	8	17	7	2	7	12												
14	3	3	5	7	6	23	3	12	8	6	10	13												
15	4	1	10	11	4	23	3	7	14	9	11	2												
16	0	3	7	8	5	20	5	12	16	14	8	1												
17	9	9	14	14	9	13	5	10	8	3	3	2												
18	4	0	5	8	6	15	7	14	18	11	9	2												
19	2	6	10	11	7	13	9	12	7	7	14	1												
20	16	17	10	12	16	8	6	5	2	6	0	1												
21	19	17	15	15	9	11	1	2	3	3	3	1												
22	0	3	6	4	5	9	11	10	15	20	15	1												
23	12	10	10	14	12	6	7	10	7	5	5	1												
24	10	11	7	11	10	9	5	9	7	12	7	1												
25	22	13	13	7	6	10	5	6	6	7	3	1												

* I do not know answer

Further adjusted outcomes from learners' questionnaire no. 1

	Never	Hardly ever	Sometimes	Mostly	Always	I don't know
1	3	16	53	24	2	1
2	2	21	47	25	2	2
3	3	26	35	22	8	5
4						4
5						5
6						4
7	5	16	29	38	5	6
8	1	3	19	42	33	1
9						
10	3	13	34	38	7	4
11						0
12						0
13	5	15	34	26	7	12
14	3	15	32	26	10	13
15	4	22	30	30	11	2
16	0	18	30	42	8	1
17	9	37	27	21	3	2
18	4	13	28	43	9	2
19	2	27	29	26	14	1
20	16	39	30	13	0	1
21	19	47	21	8	3	1
22	0	13	25	45	15	1
23	12	34	25	22	5	1
24	10	29	24	28	7	1
25	22	33	21	19	3	1

A chart expressing the obtained answers



Appendix 3 Questionnaire no. 2

Datum:

Třída

Pochopení instrukcí - dotazník č. 2

Tento dotazník slouží pro účely diplomové práce a bude zpracováván anonymně. Označte jen jednu odpověď.

1. Instrukcím, které jsou zadávány v českém jazyce rozumím:
a) ano b) ne c) někdy d) nevím
2. Instrukcím, které jsou zadávány v anglickém jazyce rozumím:
a) ano b) ne c) někdy d) nevím
3. Lépe rozumím instrukcím, které jsou zadány jak ústně i písemně (např. na tabuli, v učebnici):
a) ano b) ne c) někdy d) nevím
4. Lépe rozumím zadání, když si učitel zjedná naši pozornost (pozornost žáků).
a) ano b) ne c) někdy d) nevím
5. Lépe rozumím instrukcím (zadání úkolu), které jsou jednoduché, krátké a srozumitelné:
a) ano b) ne c) někdy d) nevím
6. Lépe rozumím, když učitel rozděluje zadání do krátkých vět, říká je postupně s pauzou mezi jednotlivými větami:
a) ano b) ne c) někdy d) nevím
7. Lépe rozumím instrukcím bez zbytečných řečí okolo:
a) ano b) ne c) někdy d) nevím
8. Lépe rozumím, když učitel zadání alespoň jedenkrát zopakuje přesně stejnými slovy:
a) ano b) ne c) někdy d) nevím
9. Lépe rozumím, když učitel zadání alespoň jedenkrát zopakuje, ale jinými slovy:
a) ano b) ne c) někdy d) nevím
10. Lépe rozumím, když učitel zadání shrne a tím ho celé zopakuje:
a) ano b) ne c) někdy d) nevím
11. Lépe rozumím, když učitel požádá spolužáka (nebo spolužáky), aby zadání zopakoval(i):
a) ano b) ne c) někdy d) nevím
12. Lépe rozumím, když učitel požádá spolužáka (nebo spolužáky), aby zadání shrnul(i):
a) ano b) ne c) někdy d) nevím
13. Lépe rozumím zadání, když učitel uvede jeden nebo dva příklady.
a) ano b) ne c) někdy d) nevím
14. Lépe rozumím, když učitel požádá spolužáka (nebo spolužáky), aby uvedl příklad nebo vypracovat jeden nebo dva příklady před celou třídou:
a) ano b) ne c) někdy d) nevím
15. Lépe rozumím zadání, když učitel úkol předvede (sám, příp. ve dvojici s žákem) celé třídě:
a) ano b) ne c) někdy d) nevím
16. Lépe rozumím, když učitel požádá spolužáka (nebo spolužáky), aby předvedl(i) úkol před celou třídou:
a) ano b) ne c) někdy d) nevím
17. Dávám přednost tomu, že učitel vysvětlí celé zadání a pak nás nechá pracovat:
a) ano b) ne c) někdy d) nevím
18. Dávám přednost tomu, že nás učitel „vede“ celým úkolem, tj. instrukce zadává postupně a v průběhu úkolu připomíná, co dělat, příp. je dovysvětluje:
a) ano b) ne c) někdy d) nevím

Děkuji Vám za vyplnění dotazníku.

A chart expressing the obtained answers from questionnaire no. 2

QUESTIONNAIRE NO. 2 - LEARNERS' COMPREHENSION OF INSTRUCTIONS

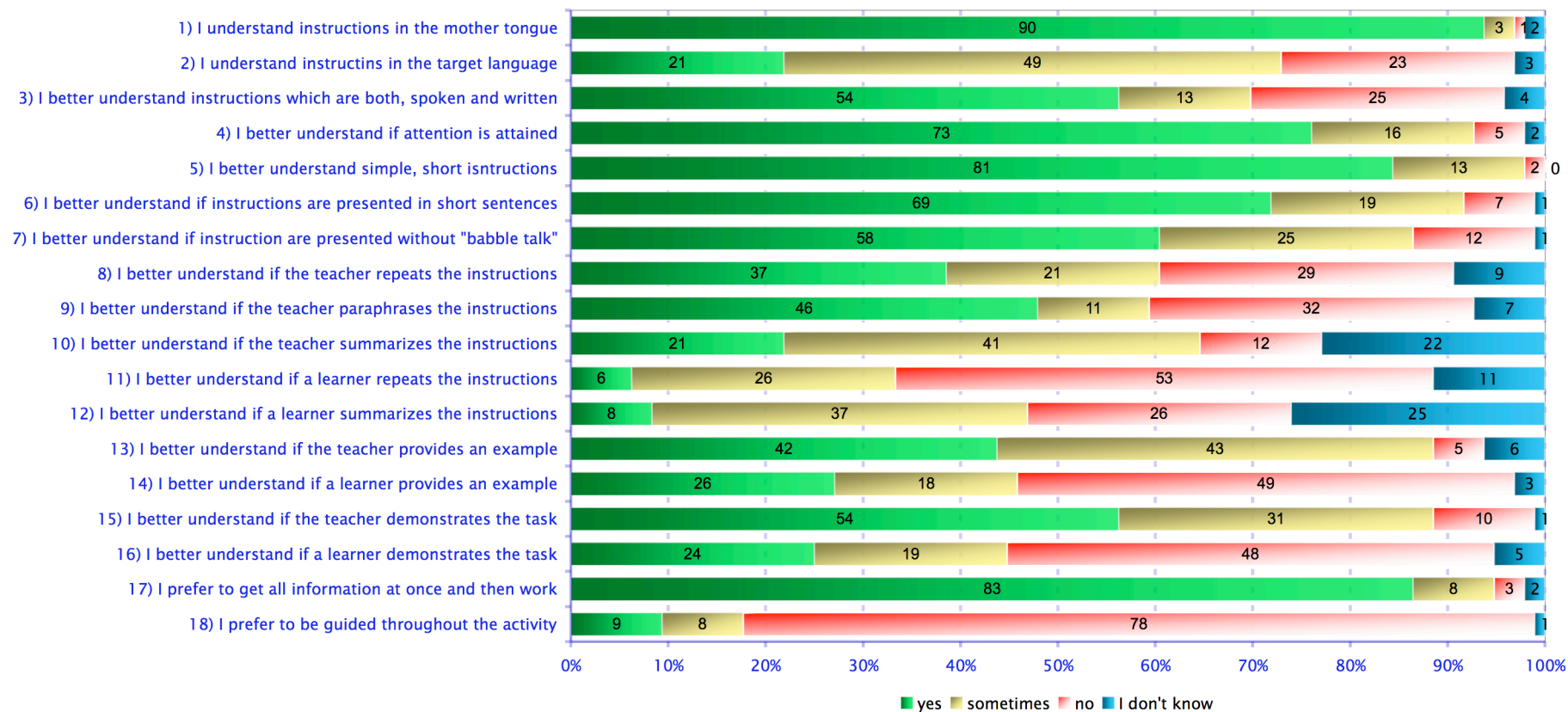
Question no.	yes	no	sometimes	I don't know	control number*
1	90	1	3	2	96
2	21	23	49	3	96
3	54	25	13	4	96
4	73	5	16	2	96
5	81	2	13	0	96
6	69	7	19	1	96
7	58	12	25	1	96
8	37	29	21	9	96
9	46	32	11	7	96
10	21	12	41	22	96
11	6	53	26	11	96
12	8	26	37	25	96
13	42	5	43	6	96
14	26	49	18	3	96
15	54	10	31	1	96
16	24	48	19	5	96
17	83	3	8	2	96
18	9	78	8	1	96

* total number of learners: 96

QUESTIONNAIRE NO. 2 - LEARNERS' COMPREHENSION OF INSTRUCTIONS (IN %)

Question no.	yes	no	sometimes	I don't know	control number*
1	94	1	3	2	100
2	22	24	51	3	100
3	56	26	14	4	100
4	76	5	17	2	100
5	84	2	14	0	100
6	72	7	20	1	100
7	60	13	26	1	100
8	39	30	22	9	100
9	48	33	11	7	100
10	22	13	43	23	100
11	6	55	27	11	100
12	8	27	39	26	100
13	44	5	45	6	100
14	27	51	19	3	100
15	56	10	32	1	100
16	25	50	20	5	100
17	86	3	8	2	100
18	9	81	8	1	100

Questionnaire no. 2 - Learners' comprehension of instructions



Appendix 4 Interview

1. In what role do you perceive yourself most often in terms of learners' autonomy? E.g. the role of a controller, an assessor or an organiser?
2. Do you believe it is essential to provide clear and simple instructions?
3. Do you prepare your instructions for the lesson in advance with regards to learners' level of English?
4. What interaction patterns do you use (how do you address learners)?
5. Do you use any teaching aids when instructing learners, e.g. a blackboard, a book, etc?
6. Do you prefer to give instructions in English/Czech? If in English, are they further translated to the mother tongue?
7. Do you use paralinguistic and extra-linguistic features when issuing instructions?
8. Do you provide all necessary information (without babble talk?) Are they fully explicit?
9. Do you delivery instructions after you have gained all learners' attention?
10. Do you sequence the instructions or do you enounce them all at once?
11. Do you issue instructions at an appropriate speed?
12. Do you demonstrate or give examples when providing instructions? Do you ask learners to do so?
13. Do you check whether your learners have understood your instructions? If so, how?
14. Do you check your learners individually whether they have understood your instructions?